Comparison of various models for strain-softening

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ABSTRACT
This paper presents a comparison of various models for strain-softening due to damage such as cracking or void growth, as proposed recently in the literature. Continuum-based models expressed in terms of softening stress-strain relations, and fracture-type models expressed in terms of softening stress-displacement relations are distinguished. From one-dimensional wave propagation calculations, it is shown that strain-localization into regions of finite size cannot be achieved. The previously well-documented spurious convergence is obtained with continuum models, while stress-displacement relations cannot model well smeared-crack situations. Continuum models may, however, be used in general if a localization limiter is implemented. Gradient-type localization limiters appear to be rather complicated; they require solving higher-order differential equations of equilibrium with additional boundary conditions. Non-local localization limiters, especially the non-local continuum with local strain, in which only the energy dissipating variables are non-local, is found to be very effective, and also seems to be physically realistic. This formulation can correctly model the transition between homogeneous damage states and situations in which damage localizes into small regions that can be viewed as cracks. The size effect observed in the experimental and numerical response of specimens in tension or compression is shown to be a consequence of this progressive transition from continuum-type to fracture-type formulations.

INTRODUCTION
Numerous models have recently been proposed to describe the post-peak strain-softening response of concrete, rocks, metals with void growth, and other materials. In this intensely debated subject, two fundamentally different macroscopic approaches may be distinguished: (1) softening stress-strain relations, the traditional approach for concrete, and (2) softening stress-displacement relations, an approach coopted from ductile fracture of metals.

The softening stress-strain relations, which describe smeared cracking, characterize the damage due to cracking in a continuum sense. We may mention for example the endochronic or fracturing theories\(^1\), the continuum damage mechanics\(^2,3\), the void growth

models such as Gurson\(^4,5\), the smeared-crack approach\(^6,7\), and the viscoplastic formulations of Needleman and Sandler\(^8,9\). For continuum models, questions such as the uniqueness and stability of the solution when the tangential stiffness matrix becomes negative definite must be addressed. As documented in previous studies\(^10,11\), spurious localization occurs in numerical calculations, giving rise, in the limit of vanishing mesh size, to physically unacceptable solutions without any dissipation of energy.

The softening stress-displacement relations were introduced by Hillerborg\(^12\), and applied by Ingraffea\(^13\) and Willam \textit{et al.}\(^14,15\). This approach is obviously more focused on the modelling of distinct, line cracks. However, it has not yet been shown that this approach could be applied to distributed cracking situations, for example to uniaxial loading of confined specimens\(^3,16\) or more importantly to situations where failure involves the interaction of many cracks.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the properties of each approach. We will show that the material and structural descriptions constitute limiting cases where the physical damage that produces softening is either distributed, in the statistical sense, or localized into infinitesimal zones. To this end, we will analyse longitudinal wave propagation in one dimension, applying several recently proposed models, and study especially the energy dissipated due to damage along with its density distribution over the structure and evolution in time.

In both types of models, the conditions of finiteness of the total energy and the energy density at failure cannot be met simultaneously. The softening response of the material with a finite (non-zero size) of the strain-localization zone cannot be described properly even for the rate-dependent models for which the dynamic problem is mathematically well posed. With regard to similar phenomena in fluid mechanics, it may be helpful to consider strain-softening as a transitory response caused by change in the type of the governing partial differential equations of motion from hyperbolic to elliptic, similar to that encountered in hypersonic flow or in fluid-structure interaction\(^17,18\).

Inspired by recent solutions such as the Taylor-Galerkin method\(^18\) or upwinding techniques\(^19,20\), constitutive laws or continuum models with higher-order spatial derivatives have been proposed\(^21-23\). Transposed to the mechanics of solids, the physical significance of these models, especially the additional boundary and interface conditions in terms of high order derivatives, may appear questionable. In most cases it may be convenient to consider these formulations as non-local models in which the quantity that is averaged is expanded in Taylor series\(^24\). This latter type of approach appears to be simple in its implementation and provides satisfactory results in terms of the energy distributed at failure.

WAVE PROPAGATION IN STRAIN-SOFTENING MATERIALS
To compare strain-localization behaviour of various models, we choose to analyse the propagation of longitudinal waves in a one-dimensional medium, i.e. a bar. The one-dimensional setting has the advantage that closed-form solutions can be derived for some strain-softening situations\(^25\). The differential equation of

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motion has the form \( \mu \cdot \dot{u} = \sigma \cdot \nabla \), where the subscripts following a comma denote partial derivatives; \( u \) = displacement, \( \sigma \) = uniaxial stress, and \( \rho \) = mass per unit length. If a constitutive law of the form \( \sigma = F(e) \) is assumed, where \( e = u_x \) = uniaxial strain, the equation of motion becomes:

\[
\mu \cdot \dot{u} = \nabla \sigma = \nabla F(e)
\]

in which \( u = [F'(e)/\rho]^{1/2} \) = wave velocity. This equation is hyperbolic if \( c \) is real, that is, if the tangential modulus \( F'(e) \) of the material is positive. As pointed out in numerous studies, \( F'(e) \) is negative in strain-softening situations, causing the differential equation of motion (1) to change its type from hyperbolic to elliptic. This change, called Hadamard instability, indicates that strain-softening should not propagate.

As the boundary conditions, we assume that for \( t > 0 \), the end points of the bar, \( x = -L \) and \( x = L \), are forced to move outward at constant velocities \( -c \) and \( c \). If the material is elastic, with elastic modulus \( E \), this produces two step waves of constant strain, \( \epsilon_0 = c/t \). At time \( t = t_m \), at which the waves meet at the centre of the bar (\( x = 0 \)), the strain is doubled (\( \epsilon = 2\epsilon_0 \)) if \( \epsilon_0 \) remains within the elastic range. On the other hand, if \( c \) is such that \( 0.5f_c' < c < f_c' \), where \( f_c' \) = strength limit after which strain-softening begins, one obtains strain-softening at the middle of the bar, \( x = 0 \), at time \( t = t_m \).

The solution for \( t > t_m \) has been given by Bażant and Belytschko for the case of a local medium. This solution shows that unloading elastic step waves which reduce the strain at \( x \neq 0 \) from \( \epsilon_0 \) to 0 emanate from point \( x = 0 \) while the strain at \( x = 0 \) becomes instantly infinite. The bar splits at \( x = 0 \), a finite gap forms and its width grows at constant velocity. The strain-softening zone does not propagate but remains confined to a single point (\( x = 0 \)). Consequently, the splitting of the bar in the middle is indicated to occur at zero energy dissipation. This feature is not physically realistic.

For real materials, the dissipation of energy due to failure must be finite. Moreover, in view of some experimental observations of damage locations by the acoustic emission technique in certain materials such as concrete, it is unrealistic to consider strain-softening (due to damage, e.g. microcracking) to remain limited to a region of zero thickness. Therefore, we require a material model for which the dissipation in the strain-softening zone is finite. We also desire a model for which the strain-softening zone thickness is finite, before a localized failure is observed.

For each material model discussed, we study the evolution of the strain and stress profiles after the medium enters the strain-softening regime (for \( t > t_m \)). We focus attention on the dissipation of energy due to softening, \( \mathcal{W} \) (see Figure 1c; the bar cross-section is 1):

\[
\mathcal{W} = \int_{-L}^{L} \mathcal{W}_i(x) \, dx = \int_{-L}^{L} \mathcal{W}_s(x) \, dx \quad dt
\]

where \( \mathcal{W}_i \) = energy dissipation density and \( \mathcal{W}_s \) = rate of \( \mathcal{W}_i \). We assume the material to be elastic, i.e. \( F'(e) = \) constant up to the peak stress. Then, if the peak-stress has not yet been reached at point \( x \), we have \( \mathcal{W}_i = \) energy of the stress-strain curve, and after that:

\[
\mathcal{W}_i = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{d}{E_y} \right] (\sigma^2 - \sigma \, de)
\]

in which \( E_y \) is the unloading modulus. The specific energy at failure \( \mathcal{W}_f \) at point \( x \) is defined by \( \mathcal{W}_f = \int_0^\infty \mathcal{W}_i \, dx \). It is represented by the cross-hatched area under the \( \sigma - e \) curve in Figure 1b.

We solve the problem numerically by finite elements, using an explicit time-integration technique. We consider different element subdivisions with an increasing number \( N \) of elements of constant length and look primarily at the convergence of the energy dissipation \( \mathcal{W}_i \) on physical grounds, \( \mathcal{W}_f \) should tend for \( N \rightarrow \infty \) to a finite value, which corresponds to the underlying continuum solution. The strain and stress profiles further clarify how the energy dissipating process is distributed over the bar.

**STRUCTURAL APPROACH**

First, we consider the formulations, developed for concrete, in which the strain-softening behaviour is modelled by a stress-displacement law. Proposed by Hilleborg and others, this type of material model is inspired by ductile fracture mechanics. It takes the view that strain-softening in two-dimensional structures is concentrated into such a small part of the structure that it may be considered as a crack (fictitious crack). Consequently the softening response of the structure is not described in terms of strains, which are singular, but in terms of the relative displacements across the softening zone (a line). In a certain sense, this type of model is aimed at a global description of the fracture process zone rather than a detailed, local description of the damage distribution.

Corroborated by experiments, a similar model called the 'composite fracture model', was recently proposed by Willam et al. In this model, strain-softening in tension is described by a stress-displacement law, such that the energy release rate which must be equal to the fracture energy, \( G_f \), of the material is kept constant independently of the size of the specimen. i.e. \( G_f = \int_0^L \sigma \, du = \text{const} \).

The finite element model may be summarized, for the case of loading, by the following relations:

If \( e < e_p \) then \( \sigma = E \epsilon \)

If \( e \geq e_p \) then \( \sigma = E \epsilon - \sigma_p \), \( u_f = u - c_p L_e \)

where \( E = \) Young's modulus of the material, \( L_e = \) length
of the bar or finite element, \( \varepsilon_p = \sigma_p / E = \text{strain at peak stress} \); \( u_f = \text{post-peak relative displacement of the bar or element of length } L \), due to fracturing; and \( E_f = \text{softening modulus, which is deduced from the fracture energy as follows:} \)

\[
E_d = \frac{\sigma_p^2}{2G_f}
\]

(6)

The softening modulus of the homogeneous equivalent continuum, \( E_f \), is not constant but is computed from \( E_d \) depending on the size \( L \) of the specimen or finite element \( E_f = E_f L \). Figure 2a presents the stress vs. mean strain diagrams for bars of various lengths. For unloading and reloading, \( \Delta \varepsilon = \Delta \varepsilon_s \).

With this type of model a constant energy is dissipated when localization occurs. A good convergence in terms of energy is obtained from the finite element solution of the wave propagation problem, despite the fact that localization in zones of non-zero length cannot be achieved. As pointed out by William et al., this may be due to a lack of spatial resolution of the model, which cannot capture very localized tensile cracking and its inherent strain discontinuity.

Similar to Bązant and Belytschko's solution for the continuum model, we may obtain an analytical solution of wave propagation for the composite fracture model. We consider two convergent waves of constant strain in a bar of length \( 2L \) (Figure 1a). The boundary conditions are:

For \( x = -L \): \( u = -ct \) with \( \frac{\varepsilon_p}{2} < \frac{\varepsilon_f}{2} \) \( \varepsilon_f = \sigma_f / E = \text{strain at peak stress} \).

For \( x = L \): \( u = ct \) \( \varepsilon_f = \sigma_f / E = \text{strain at peak stress} \).

(7)

Before the two waves meet \( (t < t_m) \), the solution of the equations of motion is:

\[
u(x, t) = -c \left( t - \frac{x + L}{v} \right) + c \left( t - \frac{x - L}{v} \right)
\]

(8)

where the symbol \( < > \) is defined by \( < x > = (x + |x|)/2 \).

For \( t > t_m \), where \( t_m = L/v \), the two waves have already met at \( x = 0 \). Similar to Reference 25, we seek the solution of the equation of motion in a small portion of the bar of length \( 2s \), centred at \( x = 0 \), where softening is observed. Wave propagation is governed by an elliptic partial differential equation of motion:

\[
x^2 u_{xx} + u_{tt} = 0, \quad \text{with} \quad x^2 = \frac{E_d}{2\sigma_p}
\]

(9)

At the interface the stress jump \( \Delta \sigma \) is related to the strain jump \( \Delta \varepsilon \) by (10):

\[
\Delta \sigma = \rho \Delta \varepsilon v^2
\]

(10)

If \( s \) is finite the strain-softening modulus in segment \( 2s \) is \( E_f = 2sE_f \) across the interface \( x = s \), the jump in stress is negative (i.e., the stress is less in the softening segment than outside) while the jump in strain is positive. Therefore \( v^2 \) is negative, and so \( s \) remains infinitesimal. If \( s \rightarrow 0 \), the softening modulus becomes zero and the response in the segment of length \( 2s \) is elastic perfectly plastic. Therefore \( \Delta \sigma = 0 \) and \( v^2 = 0 \) for \( s \rightarrow 0 \), i.e., the partial differential equation of motion becomes parabolic.

The solution of (9) for \( t > t_m \) and \( x > 0 \) can be obtained for the case of infinitesimal \( s \) as follows:

\[
u(x, t) = c \left( t + \frac{x + L}{v} \right) + c \left( t - \frac{x - L}{v} \right)
\]

\[
\frac{\sigma_p}{E} \left( t - \frac{x + L}{v} \right)
\]

(11)

For \( x < 0 \), the solution is symmetric. The strain field for \( x > 0 \) is:

\[
\varepsilon = \frac{c}{v} \left[ H \left( t + \frac{x - L}{v} \right) + H \left( t - \frac{x + L}{v} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{\sigma_p}{E} \right) \right] +
\]

\[
4 \langle \sigma t \rangle \delta(x)
\]

(12)

\( H \) is the Heaviside function and \( \delta \) is the Dirac delta function. Softening is confined at the point \( x = 0 \). For

Figure 2 (a) Composite fracture model; (b) convergence of the stress profiles when the mesh is refined; (c, d) analytical displacement and strain profiles

The elastic strain rate is:

\[ \varepsilon_e = \frac{1}{E} \sigma \]

Simplified to one dimension and small strains, the strain rate is:

\[ \varepsilon_e = \frac{1}{E} \sigma \]

TIME INDEPENDENT CONTINUUM MODEL

Spurious convergence of the fracture and continuum damage models developed for concrete and geomaterials has already been demonstrated\(^1\) and an analytical solution for wave propagation has been derived for general constitutive laws of continua.\(^\text{25}\)

Because of Hadamard instability and other difficulties, it was suggested by some authors\(^2\) that strain-softening may not be an admissible property of a continuum.

Mathematically equivalent models in which softening resulted from micromechanics consideration of the material degradation have also been proposed. Expanding the model of Gurson\(^3\), Needleman and Tvergaard\(^4\) developed a material model for the ductile failure of metals where softening is the result of a strain (or stress)-induced void growth in a hardening plastic matrix. Simplified to one dimension and small strains, the constitutive law may be expressed as follows:

\[
\sigma = \sigma_f - \sigma_m
\]

where \( \sigma \) is yield stress of the matrix, \( \sigma_f \) is the flow stress, \( \sigma_m \) is the matrix stress, and \( \sigma_m \) is the matrix stress. In the example, the flow stress is assumed to be a function of the void ratio, \( \sigma_f(x) \), which depends on the void ratio and the material parameters.\(^\text{26}\)

\[
\sigma_f(x) = \sigma_f^0 + x \sigma_f^1
\]

and \( \sigma_f^0, \sigma_f^1 \) are material parameters. In the example solved here, the law of void nucleation and void growth is assumed in the form:

\[
f^*(x) = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{for } f < f_c \\
1 & \text{for } f \geq f_c 
\end{cases}
\]

and \( f_c, f_c, f_c, f_c \) are material parameters. In the example solved here, the law of void nucleation and void growth is assumed in the form:

\[
f^*(x) = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{for } f < f_c \\
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Figure 3 (a) Ductile failure model: convergence of the strain (b) and void (c) profiles with mesh refinement

rate-dependent models. Discussed by Needleman in the context of shear localization and by Lasry and Belytschko for spherical waves, a simple rate-dependent model may be summarized as follows. The stress rate $\dot{\sigma}$ is given by:

$$\dot{\sigma} = E(\dot{\varepsilon} - \dot{\varepsilon}^p)$$ (19)

where $\dot{\varepsilon}$ and $\dot{\varepsilon}^p$ are the strain and plastic strain rates respectively, and $E$ is the Young's modulus. Viscoplasticity is introduced into the evolution of the plastic strain:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}^p = \dot{\alpha}(\sigma/g)^{1/m}$$ (20)

$\dot{\alpha}$ and $m$ are material parameters and $g$ is a function of the effective plastic strain:

$$g = \begin{cases} \frac{\sigma}{E} & \text{if } \varepsilon^p \leq \varepsilon_m \\ \frac{1}{c} & \text{if } \varepsilon^p \geq \varepsilon_m \end{cases}$$ (21)

We choose the material parameter values to be the same as in Reference 8, except that $E = 500$, $m = 0.02$, and for finite element analysis we chose $\mu = 0.413 \times 10^{-7}$, $\epsilon = 148.5$, and $\Delta t = 0.2 \times 10^{-6}$ to $8 \times 10^{-6}$, depending on the finite element size.

For loading at a constant strain rate the time integration gives the stress–strain curve depicted in Figure 4a. The numerical results on wave propagation are presented in Figure 4b and are also compared to the analytical solution for an elastic material of the same modulus $E$. Despite some computational problems already reported in Reference 8, reasonably convergent results are obtained. It should be noted that this finite element solution is almost identical to the elastic solution except at $x = 0$ (Figures 4b and 4c). Localization occurs at $x = 0$, although the strain is finite. In fact viscosity prevents the strains from becoming infinite and the failure is observed only if a sufficient number of time steps are carried out.

However, this basic improvement compared to the rate-independent model does not appear to be a complete answer to strain-softening problems. Figure 4d shows the distribution of the energy $W$ dissipated by softening in each finite element, for meshes of 64 and 128 elements. As strain localization becomes sharper and sharper, the energy dissipation becomes more and more confined to the middle elements. The total energy dissipated (i.e., the area under the curve in Figure 4d) decreases as the softening zone size tends to zero. So the same argument as explained for the rate-independent models becomes applicable. In the limit, failure is obtained without any dissipation due to softening, and a finite size of the localization zone is not possible, even though the wave propagation equations are well-posed.

LOCALIZATION LIMITERS

Localization into a zero-size zone is obtained for both the continuum and fracture mechanics approaches. In the continuum approach, cracking is assumed to be uniformly distributed and if it localizes spurious results are encountered, while the fracture mechanics approach may be applied only after the strain-localization takes place. To combine both descriptions, the so-called localization limiters were recently developed in various forms. Basically two types of limiters may be distinguished. Inspired from fluid mechanics, the first type consists in the use of higher-order spatial derivative in the constitutive law. As pointed out by Donea, this aspect may sometimes be related to rate-dependent formulations. The second type of localization limiters uses non-local averaging procedures to smooth out the strain distributions.

Higher-order spatial derivatives may be introduced either into the elastic potential for hyperelastic materials or simply into the constitutive law. Schreyer and Chen developed such a model in which plastic strains are controlled by the strain gradient. For
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![Figure 4](a) Rate-dependent model: convergence of the stress (b), strain (c), and softening energy distribution (d) with mesh refinement.

![Figure 5](a) Schreyer and Chen's non-local model: convergence of the strain profiles (b), influence of a high strain gradient on the stress–strain response (c).

Monotonic loading, their constitutive relations are:

for \(0 \leq \varepsilon^p \leq \varepsilon^p_0\):

\[
\sigma = H_0 + (H_L - H_0) \sin \left(\frac{\pi (\varepsilon^p)^*}{\varepsilon^p_0}\right)
\]

for \(\varepsilon^p > \varepsilon^p_0\):

\[
\sigma = H_0 + (H_L - H_0) (1 + a_1 \varepsilon^* \exp(-a_2 \varepsilon^*))
\]

(22)

where \(\varepsilon^p\) is the inelastic strain, \(\varepsilon^p_0\) is the value of the strain at the peak stress and \(\varepsilon^*\) is the relative plastic strain:

\[
\varepsilon^* = \frac{\varepsilon^p - \varepsilon^p_0}{\varepsilon^p_0}
\]

(23)

\(H_0\) is interpreted as the initial yield stress, \(H_a\) as the residual stress (\(e \rightarrow \infty\)), and \(H_L\) as the peak stress. The plastic strain gradient \(\varepsilon^p_0\) affects the peak stress and the softening parameters:

\[
H_L = H_a G, \quad \varepsilon^p_0 = \varepsilon^p_0 G, \quad G = a_2 + (1 - a_2) \exp(-a_3 |\varepsilon^p_0|)
\]

(25)

\(H_0\) and \(\varepsilon^p_0\) are constants corresponding to \(\varepsilon^p_0 = 0\); \(a_2, a_3\) are material constants. At unloading, the stress–strain relation is linear elastic, \(E\) is Young's modulus.

Figure 5a shows the influence of the strain gradient on the stress–strain curve. The same material parameters as indicated in Reference 22 are chosen: \(H_0 = 0.5, \quad H_a = 1, \quad \varepsilon^p_0 = 0.6, \quad E = 1, \quad H_L = 0, \quad n = 0.5, \quad a_1 = 0.8, \quad a_2 = 0.4, \quad a_3 = 0.05\). As \(G\) increases, the peak stress, the peak strain and the softening energy \(W_f\) decrease. The softening portion of the curve becomes sharper. The wave propagation analysis is carried out with \(\rho = 1, \quad c = 0.825\) and \(\Delta t = 5 \times 10^{-3}\).
From Figure 5b and the convergence of the energy dissipated by softening in Figure 6, we may notice that the results are less convincing than the static localization analysis\(^2\).\(2\) In fact, the strain profiles are not very different from the usual continuum calculations. Once localization occurs, the strain at the middle of the bar remains finite but very large strains are encountered in the adjacent elements. This may be attributed to the type of response in which the strain gradient \(e'_x\) at the wave front becomes very high. In this case Figure 5c shows that the stress–strain curve exhibits snapback. Such a result should be rejected, since this instability should be a structural characteristic rather than a material property. This spurious response is obtained when the influence of the gradient becomes predominant and the strains are negligible compared to \(e'_x\).

It may be more appropriate to consider the second spatial derivatives. Triantafyllidis and Aifantis\(^3\) used the second derivative of strain in a constitutive law of the form:

\[
s = f(\varepsilon), \quad \varepsilon = \varepsilon + \alpha e_{xx}
\]

(25)

The strain \(\varepsilon\) in (25) may be obtained by Taylor series expansion of the non-local strain \(\tilde{\varepsilon}\):

\[
\tilde{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{l} \int_{-l/2}^{l/2} \varepsilon(x+s) \, ds
\]

(26)

in which \(l\) is called the characteristic length. In this case the coefficient \(\alpha\) in (25) is \(l^2/24\)^\(1,2,4\).\(1,2\)

Bazant and Lasry and Belytschko\(^1\) used similar relations. Satisfactory results have been obtained with non-zero energy dissipated at failure, \(W_c\), finite-size localization zones\(^1\) and non-zero finite specific energy \(W_f\). However, this type of localization limiter presents a major drawback: with an equation of the type of (25), the solution of equilibrium states requires an additional boundary condition which involves \(u_{xx}\) (i.e. the second derivative of displacement) whose physical meaning remains to be clarified. Since the equations of equilibrium are of a higher order, additional boundary conditions are needed and higher-order finite elements are required in numerical analysis.

Replacing \(\varepsilon\) by \(\tilde{\varepsilon}\) in the constitutive law gives a limiter of the second type. This averaging method, which was inspired by the classical non-local theories of elasticity\(^1\) and was successfully used by Bazant et al.\(^4\), requires imbrication (overlapping) of finite elements. This is a drawback of this method in numerical implementation. Called the imbricate continuum, this method may be regarded as a counterpart of higher-order finite elements where averages are calculated by means of a mesh of imbricated elements. The equations of equilibrium are again non-standard. We may note that no additional boundary conditions are required in the imbricated finite element system, although the type of averaging is different at the boundary of the solid. This last consequence of averaging-type localization limiters seems more realistic even if the choice of the averaging method near the boundaries, where the averaging domain of size \(l\) protrudes outside the body, has not been physically justified.

In the latest work\(^5,18,35,36\) a modified version of the averaging type of localization limiter was proposed. Called the non-local continuum with local strain, this formulation applies non-local averaging only to those variables that control strain-softening. Such non-local parameters may be the fracturing strain or damage\(^2,3\) or the yield limit\(^3\). In the scalar damage model, the constitutive law is:

\[
\sigma = (1 - \Omega)E\varepsilon
\]

(27)

where \(\Omega\) is the non-local damage defined as:

\[
\Omega = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} Y(x+s) \, ds
\]

(28)

\(E\) is the initial Young's modulus of the material and \(l\) is the characteristic length, a material parameter. The non-local damage is a function of the mean energy release rate \(\bar{Y}\) calculated by averaging the local damage energy release rate \(Y\) over a domain of length \(l^2\):

\[
Y(x) = \frac{1}{l} E\varepsilon^2(x)
\]

(29)

This localization limiter gives satisfactory results for wave propagation analysis as well as static strain localization\(^1,18,35,36\). As exemplified in Figure 6, a good convergence of the dynamic calculations is achieved in terms of energy. This calculation also yields a constant size \(h\) of the localization zone (\(h \approx 1.8l\)).

There exist also some physical arguments for this type of localization limiter. Non-local elasticity has originally been introduced to extend the applicability of elastic continuum theories to atomic lattices\(^2\). Its purpose is to approximate the large scale behaviour of a material that cannot be regarded as a continuum microscopically. Therefore, the strain can no longer be defined in the continuum sense, and a modified strain definition of the type of (26) is required, such that \(\varepsilon \approx \tilde{\varepsilon}\) if the material is viewed at the macroscopic level. A transition between the continuum and the lattice descriptions is achieved by this formulation in which the non-local part becomes more important (with respect to \(\varepsilon\) in the characteristic length of the material becomes non-negligible. Non-local theories of elasticity may be viewed as methods to calculate the response of materials in the range where the characteristic length cannot be neglected, compared to the size of the structure.

Strain-softening is a phenomenon that lies at the next larger scale. It consists of material-structure interaction. Prior to localization, damage is distributed in the structure. Later the damage zone evolves into a
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macrorack as localization becomes sharp. This progressive transition can be described neither by continuum nor fracture type theories. We chose to extend the applicability of the continuum method by modifying the parameter that is producing the strain-softening response: the damage in the present example. Localization into a line crack is not admissible in a continuum damage solution since it violates the definition of damage itself. This variable should remain distributed such that the material may be regarded as a continuum. We have shown that, with continuum models, the size of the localization zone is much smaller than the characteristic length (in the statistical sense) and damage becomes discontinuous.

Similarly to (26), we may redefine the damage variable $\omega$ called in this case the non-local damage, $\Omega$. By definition, $\Omega$ is continuous. As demonstrated in (26), the size of the localization zone is proportional to the characteristic length $l$. Under this condition the fracture mechanics solution is reached in the limit of an infinite structure size compared to $l$.

The transition from a material model to a structure type of model may be simplified in one dimension to the interaction between the localization zone and the rest of the solid. We analyse the uniaxial response of several bars of different lengths. The non-local damage model is used with a damage evolution law similar to that in Reference 28:

$$F(\gamma) = 0$$

$$F(\gamma) < 0$$

where $F(\gamma)$ is the loading function of damage, $\kappa$ is the softening parameter, representing the maximum value of $\gamma$ ever reached at the considered point, and the initial value of $\kappa$ is $Y_1$. In numerical computations we take $b_1 = 20$, $b_2 = 0.5$, $Y_1 = 8540 \times 10^{-6}$, and $E = 32,000$ MPa. Four different lengths $L$ of specimen are considered: $L/l = 1, 2, 4, 8$ while the cross-section is kept constant. We use finite bar elements of constant length $L_e = l/5$. To initiate localization at the middle of the bar, the element at the centre of the bar is considered to be weaker, its damage threshold $Y_1$ reduced by 1% compared to the other elements. The secant, direct iteration method is chosen.

Figure 7a shows the calculated responses in terms of the stress and the mean strain (defined as the relative displacement divided by the total length). Because of localization, the response is not unique: a very significant size effect is found. For $L/l = 1$ the material stress–strain diagram is recovered, while for large $L/l$ a sharp post-peak sharp drop to zero stress is obtained, similar to unstable crack propagation. As expected, the non-local damage model gives all the transitory states in which the resulting descent of the post-peak stress–displacement diagram becomes steeper as the size of the bar grows compared to the localization zone size (or characteristic length). The end segment of the plot of the post-peak displacement versus stress in Figure 7b shows that the curve could almost be considered as a unique characteristic of the material once localization has occurred. In this range, the results are similar to the experimental measurement on which the fracture-type models were based. The energy dissipated through softening, $W_s$ (i.e. the area under the curve in Figure 7b) is finite.

DIFFERENTIAL APPROXIMATION OF NON-LOCAL DAMAGE

The differential approximation of the non-local damage model may be developed as follows. We consider the constitutive law, (27), and define the non-local damage as:

$$\Omega = \frac{1}{l} \int_{-l/2}^{l/2} \omega(x + s) \, ds$$

where $\omega$ is the local damage. Assuming the characteristic length $l$ to be small compared to the structure size, and $\omega$ to change little over length $l$, we may expand $\omega$ in Taylor series:

$$\omega(x + s) = \omega(x) + \omega'(x)s + \frac{1}{2}\omega''(x)s^2 + O(s^3)$$

$\omega'(x)$ and $\omega''(x)$ are the derivatives of damage with respect to $x$. Substituting (33) into (32) gives:

$$\Omega(x) \approx \omega(x) + \frac{l^2}{24} \omega''(x) \quad (\text{interior points})$$

provided the averaging domain does not protrude beyond the boundary. For a point at the boundary, the averaging can be made only between $s = 0$ and $s = l/2$, so that:

$$\Omega(x) \approx \omega(x) + \frac{l}{4} \omega'(x)$$

Similar differential approximations apply to other averages, e.g. those of strain, stress, strength or yield...
In view of (34) and (35), the formulations using the first gradient of strain or the first gradient of strength appear to be appropriate only when failure is dominated by damage near the boundaries (as in bending), while those using the second gradient appear to be appropriate only when failure is dominated by damage at the interior (e.g., when failure develops from an interior crack).

For numerical calculations the second and first derivatives may be approximated by finite differences:

\[
\omega_i = \frac{\omega_{i+1} - 2\omega_i + \omega_{i-1}}{L_e^2}, \quad \omega_i = \frac{\omega_i - \omega_{i-1}}{L_e} \tag{36}
\]

subscript \(k\) refers to the element number, subscripts \(i\) and \(j\) refer to the nodes of the element, and \(L_e = \text{length of the finite elements} = \text{constant}\). Figure 8 shows the non-local damage profiles obtained for our simple wave propagation problem. Convergence towards a solution in which a region of finite size is completely damaged is observed as the mesh is refined. Numerical difficulties similar to those reported earlier\(^{21}\) were encountered since the first gradient of strain or the first gradient of strength behave like damage near the boundaries (as in bending), while those using the second gradient appear to be appropriate only when failure is dominated by damage at the interior (e.g., when failure develops from an interior crack).

The damage profiles in Figure 8 suggest that \(\Omega\) is discontinuous at the interface between the localization zone and the unloading part of the bar. At this point the Taylor series expansion in (33) is not valid. The differential approximation yields results that are inconsistent with our assumption, as could have been expected. The equations of equilibrium that are approximated by the finite element solution are standard. Therefore the strain is a C\(_0\) function, and \(\Omega\) is also a C\(_0\) function. It is not required that the second derivative of strain be defined. We can remark that this would not happen in the fully non-local solution\(^{37}\), since higher-order differential equations are solved and continuity of a higher-order is required.

Furthermore, we may look at the continuity of the non-local damage at the boundary of the localization zone. From the solution in Reference 36, the first derivative of \(\Omega\) inside the localization zone is approximated as:

\[
\Omega(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \omega \left( x + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \omega \left( x - \frac{1}{2} \right) \right] \tag{37}
\]

and outside we have \(\Omega = 0\) since the initial state of damage is \(\Omega = 0\). The analytical solution\(^{36}\) shows that \(\Omega\) and \(\omega\) are not continuous across the boundary of the localization zone but they jump from zero to a finite value. The expansion in (33) is not even comparable with the analytical solution obtained from the non-local damage theory. The differential approximation cannot be used in this type of continuum. However, it may be applied in the fully non-local solution where higher-order differential equations yield a continuity condition in accordance with a Taylor series expansion of the strain.

**CONCLUSIONS**

1. A non-zero size of the strain-localization zone cannot be achieved by either the continuum or fracture mechanics models. Both formulations yield results in which the strain-softening zone cannot propagate, in agreement with Hadamard instability.

2. In the fracture mechanics models, the energy ultimately dissipated by the structure due to strain softening is constant. However, this is achieved because failure is reached instantaneously in an infinitesimal volume of material whose behaviour is nearly elastic-perfectly plastic and the specific failure energy (per unit volume) tends to infinity. The strain at the localization point is infinite. As shown by the analytical solutions of wave propagation, the response of this type of model is very close to the response of elastic perfectly plastic models which exhibits no strain softening.

3. Despite the fact that rate dependence prevents the partial differential equation of motion from becoming elliptic and ensures that the problem is well posed, the results are not quite satisfactory. At localization the strains are finite but the localization zone tends to an infinitely small size. Similar to continuum rate-independent models in which softening is caused by void growth in a non-softening homogeneous matrix, the energy dissipated at failure is found to converge to zero in these rate-dependent models.

4. Solving strain-softening problems with a continuum-type material model requires the use of localization limiters which may be put into two categories. The first involves the use of higher-order spatial derivatives of displacements in the constitutive law, while the second involves some non-local concept based on spatial averaging to achieve a realistic description of the strain-localization instability.

5. The use of higher-order derivatives implies the equations of motion to be high-order differential equations. Additional boundary conditions, whose physical meaning needs to be clarified, are required. This type of localization limiter may be viewed as a special case of the non-local models if the averaged variable is expanded in Taylor series.

6. A simple limiter of the averaging kind is the non-local continuum with local strain, whose salient characteristic is that the energy dissipation is non-local but the strain (and especially the elastic response) is local. Applied to 1-D static and dynamic problems and 2-D numerical computations, this method was proved to be computationally very effective and easy to program. The non-local continuum with local strain may serve as a convenient model to handle the transition between the problems in which the damage zone is large compared to the characteristic length of the continuum and the
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problems in which the damage zone is so localized that it can be viewed as a line crack. The significant size effect due to the strain-softening portion of the uniaxial response is adequately modelled by this model. The results generally agree with experimental evidence.

7. The use of higher-order derivatives may be regarded as an approximation to the non-local averaging rule. In this light, the use of first spatial derivatives (gradients) of damage, strain or strength appears appropriate only when failure is dominated by damage near the boundaries, while the use of second spatial derivatives is appropriate when damage in the interior dominates. However, the differential approximation cannot be properly used for the non-local continuum with local strain. When localization develops, the assumptions underlying the Taylor expansion of the non-local damage cannot be met since continuity of the local damage is not required.

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