

1 **OBSERVATIONS ON MOHR-COULOMB PLASTICITY UNDER**
2 **PLANE-STRAIN**

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4 **ABSTRACT**

5 Linear elastic-perfect plasticity using the Mohr-Coulomb yield surface is one of the most widely
6 used pressure-sensitive constitutive models in engineering practice. In the area of geotechnical
7 engineering a number of problems, such as cavity expansion, embankment stability and footing
8 bearing capacity, can be examined using this model together with the simplifying assumption of
9 plane-strain. This paper clarifies the situation regarding the direction of the intermediate principal
10 stress in such an analysis and reveals a unique relationship between hydrostatic pressure and the
11 principal stress ratio for Mohr-Coulomb and Tresca perfect plasticity under those plane-strain
12 conditions. The rational relationship and direction of the intermediate principal stress are illustrated
13 through both material point and finite-element simulations. The latter involves the analysis of a
14 rigid strip footing bearing onto a weightless soil and the finite deformation expansion of a cylindrical
15 cavity.

16 **Keywords:** Intermediate principal stress, Mohr-Coulomb, Tresca, elasto-plasticity, plane-strain
17 analysis, geomaterials.

18 **INTRODUCTION**

19 The compressive strength and inelastic deformation of particulate materials, such as soils, frac-
20 tured rocks, grains and powders, are dependent on the effective hydrostatic pressure. This behaviour
21 is characteristic of media where the mechanics is dominated by frictional forces. The linear elastic-
22 perfectly plastic Mohr-Coulomb (referred to hereafter as M-C) model is one of the most widely used

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23 pressure-sensitive constitutive models which can capture this behaviour in an idealised way. The
 24 original M-C criterion was first expressed in three dimensions by Shield (1955), although Prager and
 25 Bishop had also established this in unpublished work. With zero friction, the M-C model reduces
 26 to the pressure-invariant Tresca formulation as a special case. That model has been extensively
 27 used when analysing the elasto-plastic behaviour of metals (see, for example, Ewing and Griffiths
 28 (1971); Griffiths and Owen (1971)).

29 A number of common geotechnical problems, such as footing displacement, embankment stabil-
 30 ity and cavity expansion, lend themselves to two-dimensional plane-strain analysis. Such analyses
 31 can provide a useful approximation of the structural behaviour whilst requiring only modest com-
 32 putational expenditure (when compared to three-dimensional analyses).

33 This paper presents the *rational relationship* between the relative magnitude of the interme-
 34 diate principal stress (b , defined below) and the hydrostatic pressure (ξ) for the M-C and Tresca
 35 constitutive models under plane-strain conditions. This relationship expresses the principal stress
 36 locus that elasto-plastic states are required to follow over the M-C yield surface.

37 Isotropic constitutive formulations (such as the M-C and Tresca models) allow the relations to
 38 be described using principal stress and strain quantities, providing a clear geometric interpretation
 39 of the material state. All of the findings of this paper are presented using principal stresses and
 40 strains, with a tension positive notation. The principal stress ratio is defined here as

$$b = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3} \in [0, 1], \quad (1)$$

41 where σ_1 and σ_3 are the major (most tensile) and minor (most compressive) principal stresses
 42 respectively, such that $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \sigma_3$. The hydrostatic stress is defined as $\xi = \text{tr}([\sigma])/\sqrt{3} =$
 43 $(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3)/\sqrt{3}$, where $\text{tr}([\cdot])$ denotes the trace of $[\cdot]$. ξ is not the mean stress; it corresponds
 44 to the distance along the hydrostatic axis from the origin in Haigh-Westergaard stress space. The
 45 principal stress ratio is related to the Lode angle, θ , through

$$b = \frac{1 + \sqrt{3} \tan(\theta)}{2}, \quad \text{where} \quad \theta = \frac{1}{3} \arcsin \left(\frac{-3\sqrt{3}}{2} \frac{J_3}{J_2^{3/2}} \right) \in [-\pi/6, \pi/6]. \quad (2)$$

46 The deviatoric stress invariants are given by $J_2 = \text{tr}([s]^2)/2$ and $J_3 = \text{tr}([s]^3)/3$, where the *traceless*
 47 deviatoric stress matrix $[s] = [\sigma] - \xi[I]/\sqrt{3}$ and $[I]$ is the third-order identity matrix.

48 The layout of the paper is as follows. Initially the M-C constitutive relations are presented,
 49 including the isotropic linear stress-elastic strain law, yield criterion and plastic flow direction. The
 50 next section restricts the M-C constitutive model to the case of plane-strain analysis and derives the
 51 relationship between the hydrostatic stress, ξ , and the principal stress ratio, b . The limiting cases
 52 of triaxial compression ($b = 0$; $\sigma_2 = \sigma_1$) and extension ($b = 1$; $\sigma_2 = \sigma_3$) are also considered. The
 53 simplification of the M-C ξ versus b relationship for the Tresca constitutive model is given and the
 54 rational relationship extended to account for inelastic straining in the out-of-plane direction induced
 55 by the corners present in the yield envelopes. Following this, a simple material point investigation is
 56 used to investigate the assumption that the out-of-plane stress is indeed the intermediate principal
 57 stress. Three finite-element investigations using the M-C model are then presented: (i) a simple
 58 two-element simulation, (ii) an analysis of a rigid strip footing bearing onto a weightless soil and (iii)
 59 a finite deformation cavity expansion simulation. These simulations provide numerical verification
 60 of the ξ - b relationship for the M-C model. Conclusions are drawn in the final section.

61 MOHR-COULOMB CONSTITUTIVE FORMULATION

62 The constitutive laws for (and the algorithmic treatment of) the isotropic linear elastic-perfectly
 63 plastic M-C model are widely available in literature (for example, see the papers by Clausen et al.
 64 (2006, 2007) and references cited therein). Here, to aid clarity, the basic equations required in the
 65 later sections of this paper are reviewed briefly.

66 Linear isotropic elasticity

67 The following isotropic linear elastic stiffness matrix

$$[D^e] = \frac{E}{(1 + \nu)(1 - 2\nu)} \left[(1 - 2\nu)[I] + \nu[1] \right], \quad (3)$$

68 provides the relationship between the vectors containing the principal Cauchy stresses, $\{\sigma\}$, and
 69 the principal elastic strains, $\{\varepsilon^e\}$

$$\{\sigma\} = [D^e]\{\varepsilon^e\}. \quad (4)$$

70 In (3), E is Young's modulus, ν Poisson's ratio and $[1]$ is the third-order matrix populated with ones.
71 The total strain vector is split into elastic (recoverable) and inelastic (irrecoverable) components as
72 follows; $\{\varepsilon\} = \{\varepsilon^e\} + \{\varepsilon^P\}$.

73 **Inelasticity**

74 The M-C criterion assumes that plastic frictional sliding will occur once the minor principal
75 stress, σ_3 , falls below some proportion of the major principal stress, σ_1 . This can be defined using
76 the following yield function

$$f = k\sigma_1 - \sigma_3 - \sigma_c = 0, \quad \text{where} \quad k = \frac{1 + \sin(\phi)}{1 - \sin(\phi)} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_c = 2c\sqrt{k}. \quad (5)$$

77 ϕ is the internal friction angle, c the *cohesion* and σ_c defines the uniaxial compressive yield strength.
78 The M-C yield surface is shown in Figure 1 using (i) a deviatoric section viewed down the hydrostatic
79 axis and (ii) an isometric view of principal stress space.

80 The non-associated plastic flow direction is given by

$$\{g_{,\sigma}\} = \{k_g \quad 0 \quad -1\}^T, \quad \text{where} \quad k_g = \frac{1 + \sin(\phi_g)}{1 - \sin(\phi_g)} \quad (6)$$

81 and $\phi_g \in [0, \phi]$ is the plastic dilation angle, such that the rate of inelastic straining is given by

$$\{\dot{\varepsilon}^P\} = \dot{\gamma}\{g_{,\sigma}\}. \quad (7)$$

82 $\dot{\gamma}$ is the plastic consistency parameter. This multiplier is subject to the Kuhn-Tucker-Karush
83 conditions: $\dot{\gamma} \geq 0$, $f \leq 0$ and $\dot{\gamma}f = 0$ (that is, a stress state can only lie on, or within, the perfectly
84 plastic yield envelope).

85 **THE HYDROSTATIC STRESS VERSUS PRINCIPAL STRESS RATIO RELATIONSHIP**

86 In all that follows it is assumed that once the material point has reached yield the intermediate
87 principal stress is in the out-of-plane direction. The validity of this assumption is examined later
88 in the paper. Combining this assumption with the direction of plastic flow from (6), we obtain the

89 following relation between the principal values of stress and elastic strain

$$\{\sigma\} = [D^e] \{\varepsilon_1^e \quad 0 \quad \varepsilon_3^e\}^T \quad (8)$$

90 Inverting the elastic stiffness matrix and using the plane-strain condition in (8), we arrive at the
91 following relationship between the principal stresses

$$\sigma_2 = \nu(\sigma_1 + \sigma_3). \quad (9)$$

92 Using ξ , we can express the intermediate principal stress as

$$\sigma_2 = \frac{\sqrt{3}\xi\nu}{(1+\nu)}. \quad (10)$$

93 Given (5), the minor principal stress may now be written as

$$\sigma_3 = k\sigma_1 - \sigma_c. \quad (11)$$

94 From (10), (11) and ξ , we obtain the major principal stress as

$$\sigma_1 = \frac{\sigma_c + \sqrt{3}\xi/(1+\nu)}{(1+k)}. \quad (12)$$

95 Equations (10) to (12) show that the values of σ_1 , σ_2 and σ_3 are each determined by ξ . The locus
96 traced by this equations is shown on the M-C yield surface in principal stress space for $\phi = \pi/9$,
97 $\nu = 0.2$ and $c = 100\text{kPa}$ in Figure 1 (ii). Substituting (10) to (12) into (1), the principal stress ratio
98 becomes

$$b = \frac{\sqrt{3}\xi(1 - \nu(1+k)) + \sigma_c(1+\nu)}{(1-k)\sqrt{3}\xi + 2\sigma_c(1+\nu)}, \quad (13)$$

99 or alternatively

$$\xi = \frac{\sigma_c(1+\nu)(1-2b)}{\sqrt{3}(b(1-k) + \nu(1+k) - 1)}. \quad (14)$$

100 (14) provides an injective function between b and ξ .

101 **Compression and extension meridians**

102 From (14) we see that b attains a value of zero at the following hydrostatic stress

$$\xi_{b=0} = \frac{\sigma_c(1 + \nu)}{\sqrt{3}(\nu(1 + k) - 1)}; \quad (15)$$

103 point C in Figure 1 (ii). For hydrostatic stresses less than this value, (13) and (14) are no longer
 104 valid as the stress point is situated on the compression meridian ($\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 > \sigma_3$). For Poisson's
 105 ratio $\nu \geq 1/(1 + k)$, the stress state will never reach the compression meridian and instead a limit
 106 is imposed on the minimum attainable principal stress ratio, given by

$$\lim_{\xi \rightarrow -\infty} b = \frac{1 - \nu(1 + k)}{1 - k} \quad \nu \in [1/(1 + k), 0.5]. \quad (16)$$

107 The hydrostatic stress associated with $b = 1$ is given by

$$\xi_{b=1} = \frac{\sigma_c(1 + \nu)}{\sqrt{3}(k - \nu(1 + k))}; \quad (17)$$

108 point B in Figure 1 (ii). The stress will be located on the extension meridian ($\sigma_3 = \sigma_2 < \sigma_1$)
 109 for hydrostatic pressures $\xi_{b=1} \leq \xi \leq \xi_c$, where $\xi_c = \sqrt{3}c \cot(\phi)$ identifies where the yield surface
 110 intersects the hydrostatic axis (point A in Figure 1 (ii)).

111 In order to investigate the limits further, the M-C constitutive model was subjected to one
 112 dimensional straining until reaching yield. A Young's modulus of $E = 10\text{GPa}$ and a Poisson's ratio
 113 of $\nu = 0.3$ were used for the material's elastic properties. In this simple illustration, the M-C model
 114 had a friction angle of $\phi = \pi/9$ (20 degrees) and an apparent cohesion of $c = 100\text{kPa}$. Under
 115 compression the constitutive model reached yield at the following normalised stress state

$$\frac{\{\sigma\}}{c} = \{-9.724 \quad -9.724 \quad -22.690\}^T,$$

116 with a normalised hydrostatic pressure of $(\xi/c) = -24.33$. This state agrees with the compressive

117 theoretical limit provided by (15). Under extension, the stress path reaches yield at a normalised
 118 hydrostatic pressure of $(\xi/c) = 1.90$, again agreeing with the theoretical limit when $b = 1$ given
 119 by (17). Therefore, the limits provided by (15), for $b = 0$ on the compression meridian, and (17),
 120 when $b = 1$ on the extension meridian, define the intersection of the stress path with the M-C yield
 121 surface for this uniaxial strain case.

122 **The special case of Tresca (frictionless) yielding with associated flow**

123 In the limiting case where $\phi = 0$ (that is, Tresca plasticity), the yield criterion (5) and the
 124 direction of associated plastic flow (6) become

$$f = \sigma_1 - \sigma_3 - 2c = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \{g_{,\sigma}\} = \{1 \quad 0 \quad -1\}^T \quad (18)$$

125 as $k(\phi = 0) = 1$. Following the same steps as for the case of M-C, we obtain the principal stresses
 126 as

$$\sigma_1 = \frac{\sqrt{3}\xi}{2(1+\nu)} + c \quad \sigma_2 = \frac{\sqrt{3}\xi\nu}{(1+\nu)} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_3 = \sigma_1 - 2c. \quad (19)$$

127 The principal stress ratio then becomes

$$b = \frac{\sqrt{3}(1-2\nu)}{4c(1+\nu)}\xi + \frac{1}{2} = a_v\xi + \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad \xi = \frac{b-1/2}{a_v}, \quad (20)$$

128 where the definition of a_v is self evident. Thus for plane-strain analysis using the Tresca yield
 129 criterion, a linear relationship exists between ξ and b . Similar to the M-C relationship, the limits
 130 on (20) are obtained as

$$\xi_{b=0} = \frac{2c(1+\nu)}{\sqrt{3}(2\nu-1)} \quad \text{and} \quad \xi_{b=1} = \frac{2c(1+\nu)}{\sqrt{3}(1-2\nu)} \quad \text{with} \quad \xi_{b=0} = -\xi_{b=1}. \quad (21)$$

131 Beyond these limits, the stress state will be located on the compression ($\xi \leq \xi_{b=0}$) or extension
 132 meridian ($\xi \geq \xi_{b=1}$).

133 **Yield condition at the corners**

134 When material states are on the compression or extension meridians, the direction of plastic flow
 135 is no longer uniquely defined. However, given a total strain increment, the plastic strain increment
 136 (and therefore the elastic strain and stress increments) can be obtained using the method proposed
 137 by Koiter (1953). The non-uniqueness of the plastic strain direction can lead to inelastic deformation
 138 in the out-of-plane direction.

139 For the case when $\varepsilon_2^e \neq 0$, the principal Cauchy stresses are given by

$$\{\sigma\} = [D^e] \{\varepsilon_1^e \quad \varepsilon_2^e \quad \varepsilon_3^e\}^T \quad (22)$$

140 Subtracting the intermediate elastic strain from each component of the principal strain vector and
 141 adding the equivalent hydrostatic pressure, σ^e , to the right hand side to (22), gives rise to the
 142 following relationship

$$\{\sigma\} = [D^e] \{(\varepsilon_1^e - \varepsilon_2^e) \quad 0 \quad (\varepsilon_3^e - \varepsilon_2^e)\}^T + \sigma^e \{1\}, \quad (23)$$

143 where $\sigma^e = \varepsilon_2^e E / (1 - 2\nu)$ and $\{1\}$ indicates a 3 component vector populated with ones. Following
 144 the same procedure as when deriving (13), we can express the principal stresses as

$$\sigma_1 = \frac{\sqrt{3}\xi - (1 - 2\nu)\sigma^e + (1 + \nu)\sigma_c}{(1 + k)(1 + \nu)}, \quad \sigma_2 = \frac{\sqrt{3}\xi\nu + (1 - 2\nu)\sigma^e}{(1 + \nu)} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_3 = k\sigma_1 - \sigma_c. \quad (24)$$

145 Substituting (24) into (1), we obtain the following relationship for the principal stress ratio

$$b = \frac{\sqrt{3}\xi(1 - \nu(1 + k)) - (1 - 2\nu)(2 + k)\sigma^e + \sigma_c(1 + \nu)}{(\sqrt{3}\xi - (1 - 2\nu)\sigma^e)(1 - k) + 2\sigma_c(1 + \nu)}. \quad (25)$$

146 When $\varepsilon_2^e = 0$ (25) reduces to (13). (25) is bounded between the following levels of hydrostatic stress

$$\xi_{b=0} = \frac{\sigma_c(1 + \nu) - (1 - 2\nu)(2 + k)\sigma^e}{\sqrt{3}(\nu(1 + k) - 1)} \quad \text{and} \quad \xi_{b=1} = \frac{\sigma_c(1 + \nu) + (1 - 2\nu)\sigma^e}{\sqrt{3}(k - \nu(1 + k))}. \quad (26)$$

147 EXAMINATION OF THE ORIENTATION OF σ_2

148 Before presenting the results for plane-strain M-C elasto-plasticity, we examine the validity of
149 the assumption that the intermediate principal stress, σ_2 , is the out-of-plane stress, σ_z . The first
150 condition that should be considered is when the principal elastic strains in the in-plane directions
151 are equal. In this case the stress in the out-of-plane direction (σ_{zz}) is either the major (σ_1) or the
152 minor (σ_3) principal stress (depending on the sign of ε_2^e). The resultant stress state will be located
153 on the compression ($b = 0$, for positive ε_2^e) or extension ($b = 1$, for negative ε_2^e) meridians with
154 hydrostatic stresses less (15) or greater than (17) respectively.

155 A more interesting case is to consider an unstressed single material point, subjected to a stress
156 increment of $\Delta\sigma_x = -200\text{kPa}$ followed by a strain increment of $\Delta\varepsilon_y = -1 \times 10^{-3}$. In this illustrative
157 example the material is modelled by a Young's Modulus of 100MPa, Poisson's ratio of 0.3, friction
158 angle and dilation angle of $\pi/9$ and an apparent cohesion of 100kPa. The principal stress variation
159 with (i) ε_y and (ii) normalised hydrostatic stress (ξ/c) is shown in Figure 2.

160 Application of $\Delta\sigma_x$ causes the stress to move from states 1 to 2 (see Figure 2) with $\sigma_z = \sigma_2$.
161 From state 2, the stress in the x direction remains constant while a strain in the y direction is
162 applied. At I the relative proportions of the principal stresses change such that σ_z is no longer the
163 intermediate principal stress. Between I and III, σ_z is greater than both σ_x and σ_y . Along this path
164 σ_y is initially the intermediate principal stress. Between II and III, σ_x is the intermediate principal
165 stress. The ordering changes again at III where σ_z becomes the intermediate principal stress.
166 Thereafter $\sigma_x > \sigma_z > \sigma_y$. The material yields at state 3, with the stresses remaining constant
167 under continuous deformation. The direction of the principal stresses are shown schematically by
168 the cuboids at the top of Figure 2, where the dashed grey and the solid unshaded cuboids show the
169 original and final deformed shapes respectively.

170 This example shows that even for simple linear isotropic elasticity, the direction of the interme-
171 diate principal stress in plane-strain analyses is not necessarily directed out of the plane. However,
172 in this example following yielding, σ_2 is the out-of-plane stress. In the examples which follow, the
173 intermediate principal stresses always end up being the out-of-plane stresses.

174 FINITE-ELEMENT SIMULATIONS

Two-element simulation

A simple finite-element simulation using just two four-noded unit square fully-integrated quadrilateral elements is now considered (see Figure 3). Two upper surface nodes were subjected to vertical displacements of $v = -0.01\text{m}$ in 100 equal loadsteps. A Young's modulus of $E = 100\text{MPa}$ and Poisson's ratio of $\nu = 0.3$ were used for the material's elastic properties. As in the previous example, the associated flow M-C model had a friction angle of $\phi = \pi/9$ and a cohesion of 100kPa .

Figure 3 shows the ξ/c versus b paths for the integration points that underwent elasto-plastic deformation during the analysis (that is, seven out of a total of eight integration points). The initial states are identified by the white symbols and the states corresponding to a displacement of 10mm are shown by the grey shaded symbols. Upon commencing inelastic straining, the Gauss point ξ versus b paths reach the analytical solution provided by (14), as shown by the thick light grey line in Figure 3. Under increasing deformation the stress states continue to move along that locus.

In order to highlight the differences between the *true* M-C yield surface and M-C formulations where local curvature is introduced near the compression and extensions meridians, this simple two-element simulation was analysed using the C2 continuous M-C surface of Abbo et al. (2011). Before presenting the numerical results, the following disadvantages associated with rounding corners are noted:

1. Implicit stress integration (for example, backward-Euler) of a smoothed M-C yield surface will generally require multiple iterations to converge. Thus the rounded version of the M-C is computationally more expensive in terms of both the material point stress integration and the global solution scheme. There are also potential stability issues when returning near the tensile apex on a smoothed yield surface. This is unlike the true M-C envelope, which will always return in one step.
2. Rounding corners introduces errors into the stress integration procedure whereas the true M-C envelope with sharp corners gives an exact stress integration solution (provided that the corners are dealt with appropriately). Introducing rounding can prohibit the convergence towards established analytical solutions (such as the Prandtl solution).

202 Introducing local curvature destroys the unique relationship between hydrostatic stress and the
203 principal stress ratio, as shown in Figure 4. The smoothed M-C model of Abbo et al. (2011)
204 requires a transition Lode angle, θ_t , where the M-C yield surface is smoothed for $|\theta| > \theta_t$. Here,
205 θ_t was set to $\pi/9$ (20° degrees), corresponding to transition principal stress ratios, b_t , of 0.185 and
206 0.815. Once a stress state moves into the *rounded* region in the vicinity of the compression or
207 extension meridians, the numerical ξ/c versus b paths disagree with the analytical solution (14).

208 As mentioned above, if appropriately constructed, an implicit stress integration routine for the
209 true M-C envelope will always return in a single step. However, in order to achieve this, simple
210 geometric rules must be formulated to identify the appropriate return position based on the trial
211 stress state (see Clausen et al. (2006)). By operating in principal stress space, it is possible to
212 identify which of the following return locations applies: (i) the planar surface or the intersection of
213 two planes at (ii) the compression meridian or (iii) the extension meridian or (iv) the intersection of
214 six planes at the tensile apex. This process circumvents the instability issues potentially associated
215 with iterative approaches.

216 We now consider the cost of the numerical analysis. The model with local curvature in the
217 yield surface required 250 global iterations whereas the *true* M-C yield surface only required 181.
218 Also, the smoothed M-C model required multiple material point iterations to obtain convergence
219 in the stress integration routine during each of these global iterations. The combination of these
220 two factors resulted in a 255% increase in the overall run-time when using the smoothed M-C
221 approximation.

222 **Footing analysis**

223 This section presents the numerical analysis of a one metre-wide rigid strip footing bearing
224 onto a weightless soil using the M-C model. Due to symmetry, only one half of the 5-by-10 metre
225 domain was discretised using 135 eight-noded quadrilateral elements with reduced four-point Gaus-
226 sian quadrature (as shown to the right of Figure 5, where the lower inset figure shows the global
227 discretisation and the upper figure shows the mesh refinement detail around the footing). This is
228 the same mesh as adopted by de Souza Neto et al. (2008) and later used by Coombs et al. (2010)
229 for the small strain analysis of frictional cone models. A Young's modulus of $E = 100\text{MPa}$ and a

230 Poisson's ratio of $\nu = 0.3$ were used for the material's elastic properties. The M-C model again
 231 had a friction angle of $\phi = \pi/9$ and a cohesion of 100kPa. The analysis was performed using both
 232 associated ($\phi_g = \pi/9$) and non-associated ($\phi_g = \pi/18$) plastic flow rules. The rigid strip footing
 233 was subject to a uniform vertical displacement of 100mm in 100 equal loadsteps. The normalised
 234 pressure versus displacement response is shown in Figure 5.

235 The theoretical limit pressure for the M-C model, as given by the Prandtl (and Reissner) solution
 236 (see Yu (2006), amongst others for details) is

$$p = c \left(\tan^2(\pi/4 + \phi/2) \exp^{\pi \tan(\phi)} - 1 \right) \cot(\phi). \quad (27)$$

237 This equation gives the limit pressure for a rigid footing bearing onto a weightless soil for the case
 238 of zero surface surcharge. For a friction angle of $\phi = \pi/9$, the normalised theoretical limit pressure
 239 is $(p/c) = 14.84$. Both the associated and non-associated flow simulations agree rather well with
 240 this theoretical limit load, having errors of just 0.46% and 0.74% respectively.

241 Figure 6 (i) shows the principal stress ratio versus normalised hydrostatic stress for the non-
 242 associated finite-element simulation at the end of the analysis (circular discrete points), the path
 243 taken to reach that state (fine grey lines) and the analytical ξ versus b solution (thick solid black
 244 line). Two Gauss point stress paths have been identified by fine black lines, starting at the grey
 245 squares (G and H) and finishing at the white circular symbols on the analytical solution locus. The
 246 final stress states and the elasto-plastic stress paths agree with the analytical solution, verifying
 247 the unique relationship between ξ and b provided by (14).

248 To highlight the special nature of the M-C constitutive formulation, the elasto-plastic ξ versus
 249 b points (at the end of the finite-element analysis) for a isotropic linear elastic-perfectly plastic
 250 Drucker-Prager model (Drucker and Prager, 1952) (referred to here simply as the D-P model) have
 251 been plotted on Figure 6 (ii). The non-associated flow D-P model used here had the same elastic
 252 properties as the M-C model. The conical D-P model has a circular deviatoric section with the
 253 yield surface centred on the hydrostatic axis. This yield envelope provides a simplified smooth
 254 approximation to the M-C yield criterion. In this analysis the D-P cone was chosen to coincide

255 with the M-C surface on the compression meridian. The square symbols in Figure 6 (ii) show that,
256 unlike the M-C model, there is no unique ξ versus b plane-strain relationship for the D-P model.

257 The major difference between the M-C and the D-P models is that, for the D-P model, the yield
258 surface

$$f = \rho + \alpha(\xi - \xi_c) = 0 \quad (28)$$

259 has a dependence on the intermediate principal stress and thus the associated direction of plastic
260 flow contains a component in the intermediate principal strain direction. The combination of these
261 two features means that it is not possible to write a unique plane-strain relationship between the
262 hydrostatic stress and the principal stress ratio for the D-P model. In (28), α is the opening angle
263 of the D-P cone, here set to $\alpha = \tan(\phi)$, $\rho = \sqrt{2J_2}$ is a scalar measure of the deviatoric stress and
264 $\xi_c = \sqrt{3}c \cot(\phi)$ identifies where the yield surface intersects the hydrostatic axis.

265 **Finite deformation cylindrical cavity expansion**

266 In this section we present an analysis of the expansion of a cylindrical soil cavity under internal
267 pressure. Although this can be analysed as a one-dimensional axi-symmetric problem, here we use
268 the two-dimensional plane-strain finite deformation finite-element code to make comparisons with
269 an analytical solution and to provide further verification of the ξ - b relationship. Only a 3° segment
270 of the structure (with internal radius of 1m and fixed outer boundary of radius 2km) was discretised
271 using 50 four-noded plane-strain quadrilateral elements. The size of the elements was progressively
272 increased by a factor 1.12 from the inner to the outer surface. A Young's modulus of $E = 100\text{MPa}$
273 and a Poisson's ratio of $\nu = 0.2$ were used for the material's elastic properties. The associated flow
274 M-C model had a friction angle of $\phi = \pi/6$ and a cohesion of 100kPa. The internal radius was
275 expanded to 5m using 80 equal displacement increments.

276 Due to this large change in internal radius, the effects of geometric non-linearity cannot be
277 ignored. The M-C model described in this paper was implemented within a Lagrangian finite defor-
278 mation finite-element code. The use of a logarithmic strain-Kirchhoff stress formulation, combined
279 with an exponential map of the plastic flow, allows the incorporation of existing small strain con-
280 stitutive algorithms without modifying their stress integration routine. This method is one of the

281 most successful and straight-forward ways of accounting for the additional geometric complexities
 282 inherent in finite deformation analyses when implementing large strain elasto-plasticity (Kim et al.,
 283 2009). The Kirchhoff stress, $[\tau]$ is defined as

$$[\tau] = J[\sigma], \quad (29)$$

284 where $[\sigma]$ is the Cauchy stress and J is the determinant of the deformation gradient. This volume
 285 ratio, J , is a measure of the change in volume between the current (deformed) configuration and
 286 the original reference state. See Coombs and Crouch (2011) and the references contained within
 287 for further information on the finite deformation finite-element formulation.

288 Figure 7 shows the normalised internal pressure (p/c) versus expansion ratio (a/a_0) response
 289 from the M-C finite deformation finite-element simulation (solid line), where a_0 and a are the
 290 original and current internal radii respectively. The numerical results display good agreement with
 291 the analytical solution (discrete points) provided by Yu and Houlsby (1991).

292 The unique ξ versus b relationship still holds for finite deformation analysis provided that the
 293 Cauchy hydrostatic stress in (13) and (14) is replaced by the equivalent Kirchhoff stress measure,
 294 namely

$$\xi_\tau = \text{tr}([\tau])/\sqrt{3}. \quad (30)$$

295 This is demonstrated in Figure 8, where the numerical elasto-plastic normalised Kirchhoff hydro-
 296 static stress versus principal stress ratio points, at the end of the analysis, have been plotted
 297 alongside the analytical relationship (solid line). Note that additional stress states exist on the
 298 compression meridian where $\xi_\tau/c < -20$ MPa. However, for clarity the abscissa has been limited to
 299 $\xi_\tau/c \in [-20, 5]$ MPa. All of the finite-element Gauss points lie on the line described by the rational
 300 relationship (13).

301 Ewing and Griffiths (1971) investigated elasto-plastic stress concentrations around a notch for
 302 an isotropic elastic-perfectly plastic Tresca constitutive model. Their study was based on the plane-
 303 strain numerical analysis of Griffiths and Owen (1971). They found that the maximum stress was
 304 “attained inside the plastic zone surrounding the notch, not at its edge” (Ewing and Griffiths,

1971). This was due to plastic strains, comparable to the in-plane strains, being induced in the out-of-plane direction at material points where the stress state was located on the compression or extension meridians. Prompted by these findings, Figure 9 presents the normalised pressure versus expansion response of the cylindrical cavity following loading to an internal pressure of approximately 3MPa (corresponding to a expansion of $a/a_0 = 2$) and then unloading. The load-controlled numerical analysis was conducted using 100 steps in both the loading and unloading phases. The same material parameters as used in the previous cavity expansion simulation were used in this analysis. The elastic and elasto-plastic sections of the structural response are identified by the dashed grey and solid black lines respectively. The analysis starts at I and is loaded to III. The structure unloads elastically between III and IV until the reoccurrence of elasto-plastic deformation at IV which continues to V.

The normalised hydrostatic stress versus the principal stress ratio path of a Gauss point, located at an initial radial coordinate of 1.626m, is shown in Figure 9 (ii). Upon loading, the material point intersects with and moves along the locus described by (13). At II, the stress state reaches the compression meridian. On the compression meridian, the direction of plastic flow is no longer uniquely defined. However, the constitutive model's plastic strain increment (when subjected to a total strain increment) can be obtained using the method proposed by Koiter (1953). The non-uniqueness of the plastic strain direction leads to inelastic deformation in the out-of-plane direction when loading between II and III. That is, the assumption that $\varepsilon_2^p = 0$, is invalidated and instead we have the condition $\varepsilon_2^p = -\varepsilon_2^e$. The effect of this non-zero out-of-plane elastic strain can be seen in Figure 9 (ii). Upon unloading, the stress state moves from III to IV, where it again encounters the yield surface. However, due to the non-zero ε_2^e , the unloading elasto-plastic ξ/c versus b response (between IV and V) does not agree with the analytical solution (13). This solution is restricted to cases where stress states do not move on-to and subsequently away-from the corner or apex regions.

Figure 9 (ii) shows that the analytical solution when $\varepsilon_2^e \neq 0$ agrees with the elasto-plastic stress path between IV and V. Along this path the Gauss point had an out-of-plane elastic strain of $\varepsilon_2^e = -0.0032$. (25) allows an analytical relationship between ξ and b to be defined for material points that have non-zero elastic strain in the out-of-plane direction. It also supports the findings

333 of Ewing and Griffiths (1971) in that, for a given principal stress ratio, the hydrostatic stress
334 (and hence $\{\sigma\}$) can change in magnitude for material points undergoing inelastic straining in the
335 out-of-plane direction.

336 CONCLUSION

337 This paper has shown that when the out-of-plane stress is the intermediate principal stress
338 there exists a unique relationship between hydrostatic pressure and the principal stress ratio (or
339 equivalently the Lode angle) for isotropic M-C and Tresca linear elastic-perfectly plastic models
340 in plane-strain analyses. This finding is verified using three numerical simulations, including the
341 analysis of a rigid strip footing bearing onto a weightless soil and the finite deformation simulation
342 of a cylindrical cavity expansion.

343 The single-valued function (13) and the extension to the case of $\varepsilon_2^p \neq 0$ (25) provides new insight
344 to the role of the intermediate principal stress in M-C and Tresca plane-strain analyses.

345 In this paper we have made use of established procedures for dealing with non-smooth yield
346 surfaces (for example, see Clausen et al. (2006, 2007) which build on the work of Koiter (1953)).
347 Some workers have introduced local curvature near the compression and extension meridians, when
348 approximating the M-C model, in order to remove the corners (Abbo et al., 2011). We believe that
349 this is quite unnecessary.

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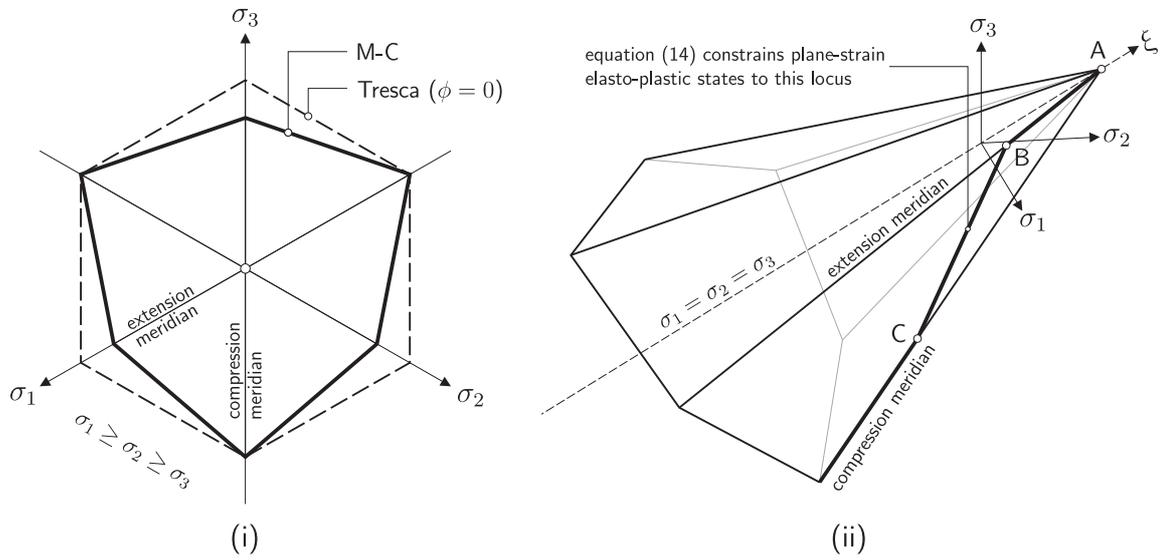


FIG. 1. Mohr-Coulomb yield surface: (i) deviatoric section (including the Tresca yield criterion) and (ii) principal stress space including the plane-strain stress relationship (14).

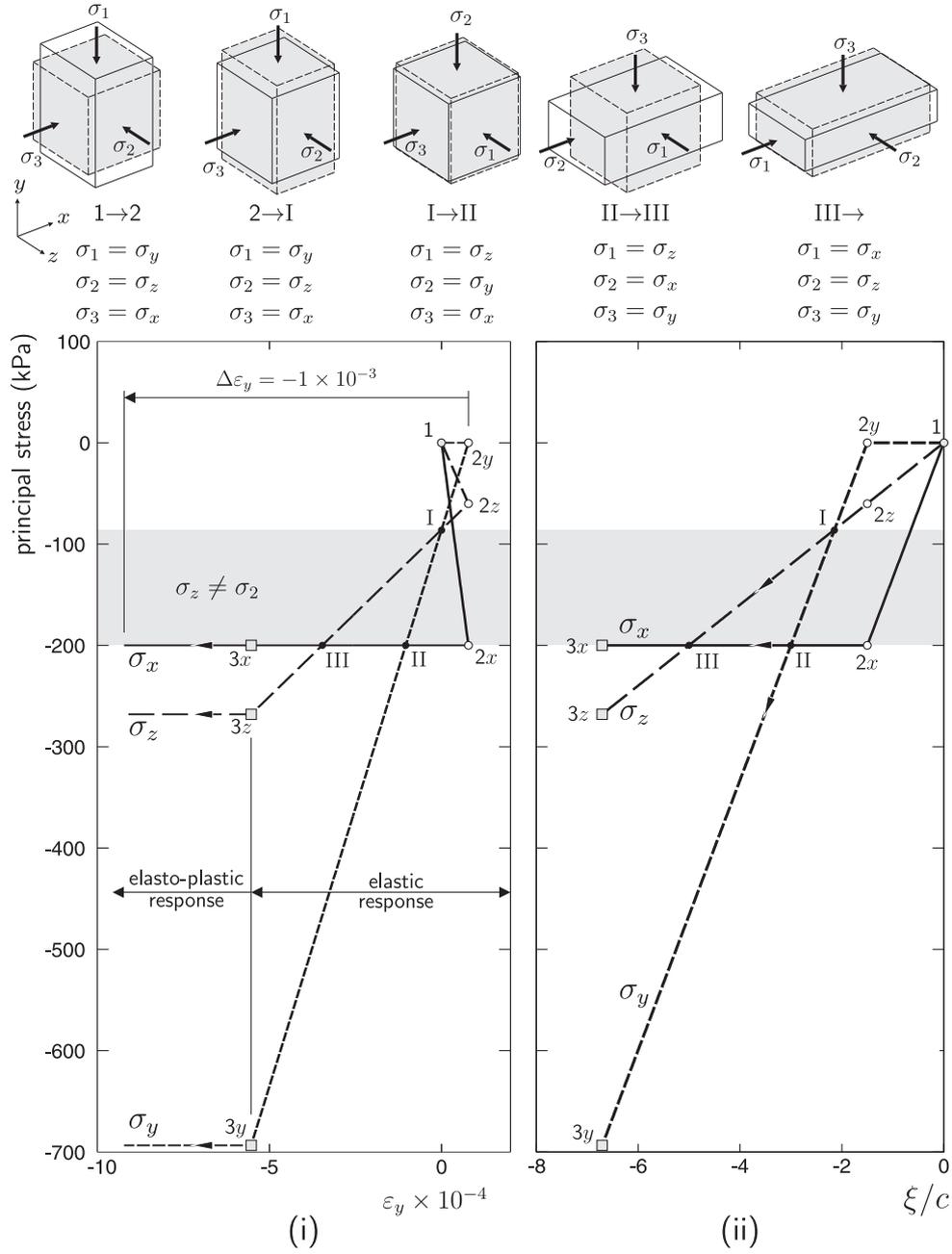


FIG. 2. Material point analysis: principal stresses against (i) vertical strain and (ii) normalised hydrostatic stress, ξ/c .

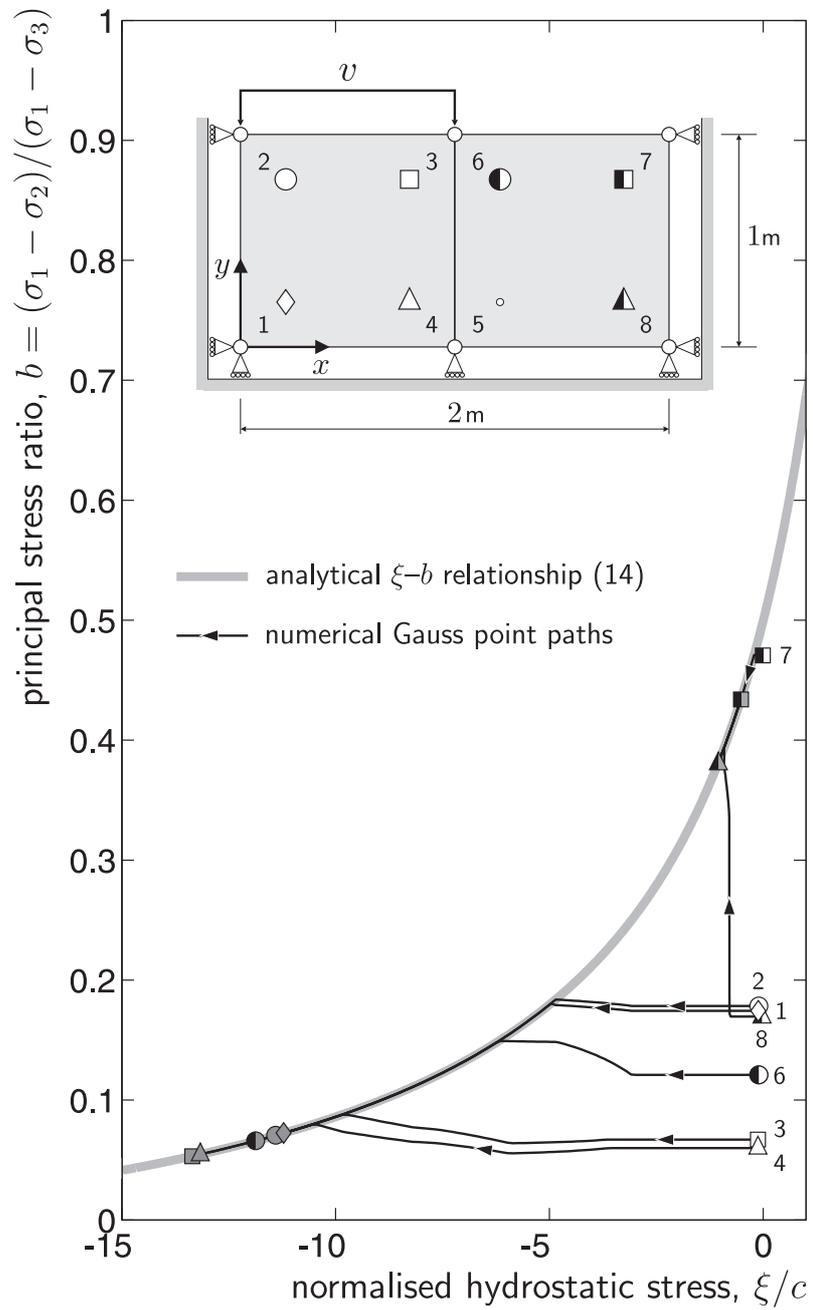


FIG. 3. ξ/c versus b paths for the two-element simulation for $v \leq 10\text{mm}$ using the true M-C surface.

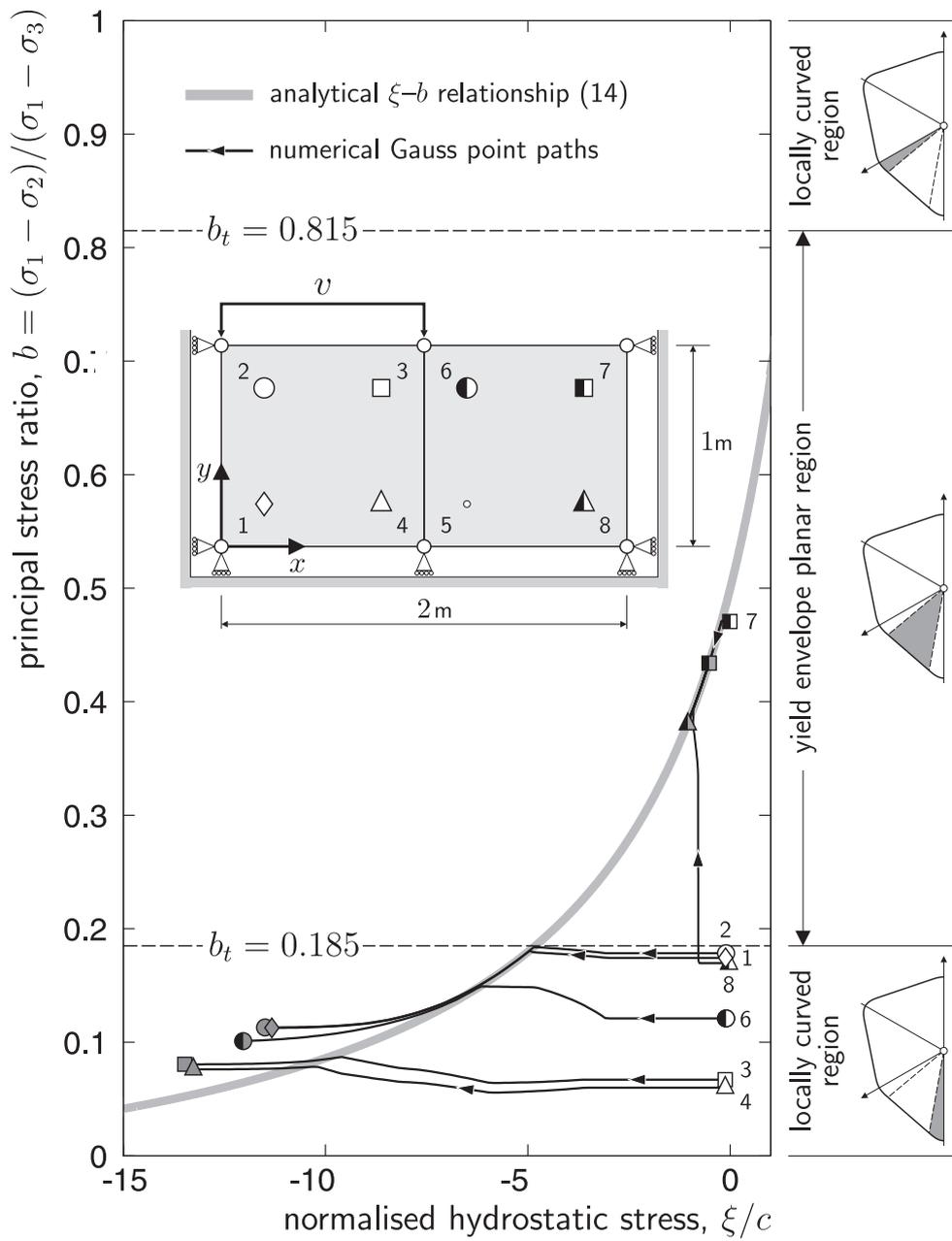


FIG. 4. ξ/c versus b paths for the two-element simulation for $v \leq 10\text{mm}$ using the C2 continuous smoothed M-C surface of Abbo et al. (2011).

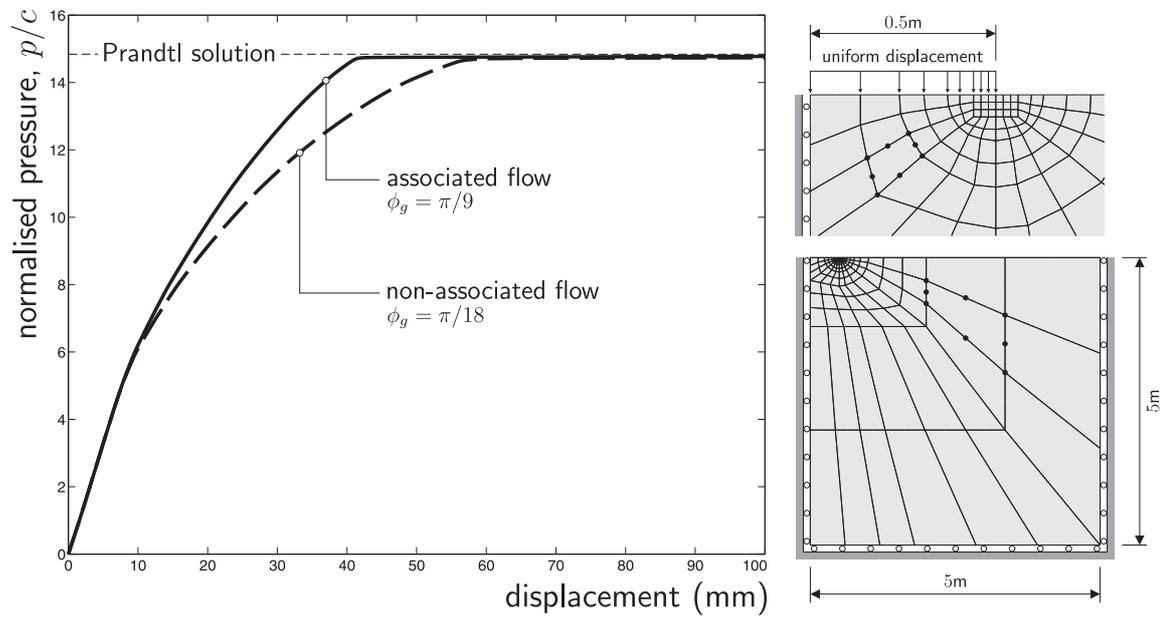


FIG. 5. Rigid strip footing: p/c versus displacement response and finite-element discretisation.

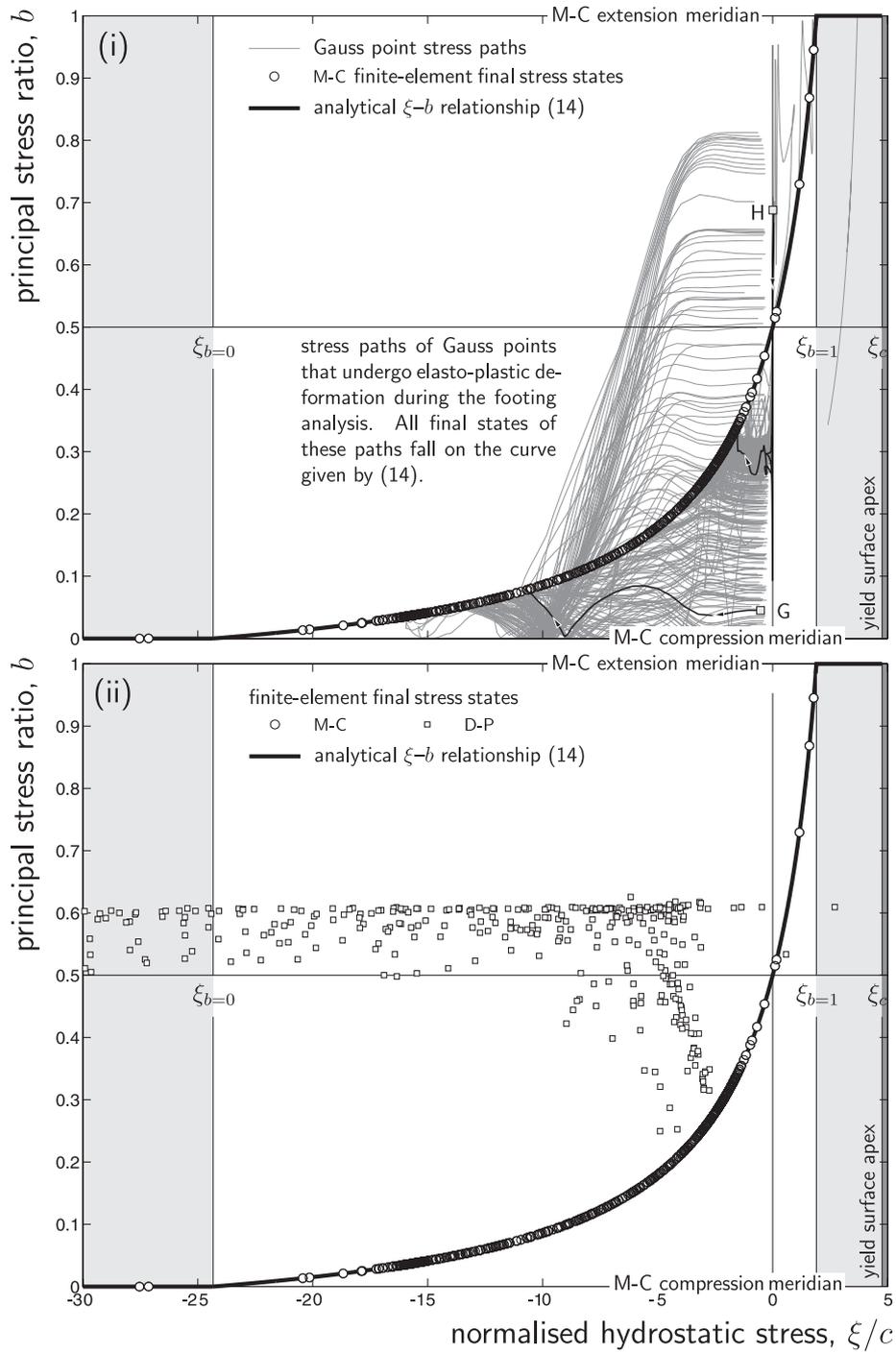


FIG. 6. Rigid strip footing: non-associated M-C ξ/c versus b response.

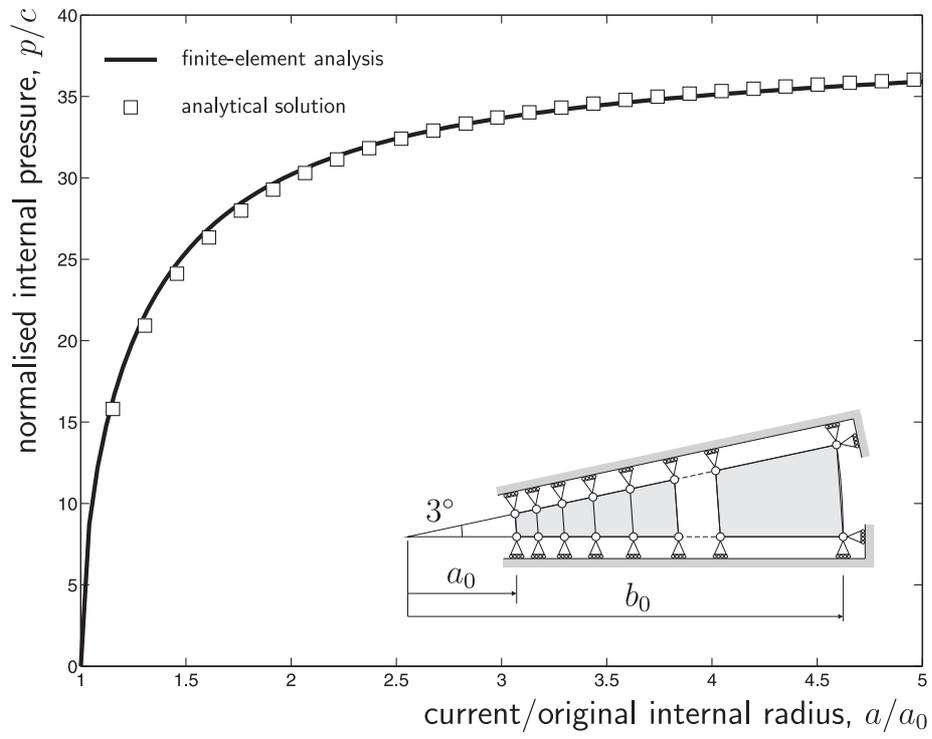


FIG. 7. Cavity expansion: p/c versus a/a_0 .

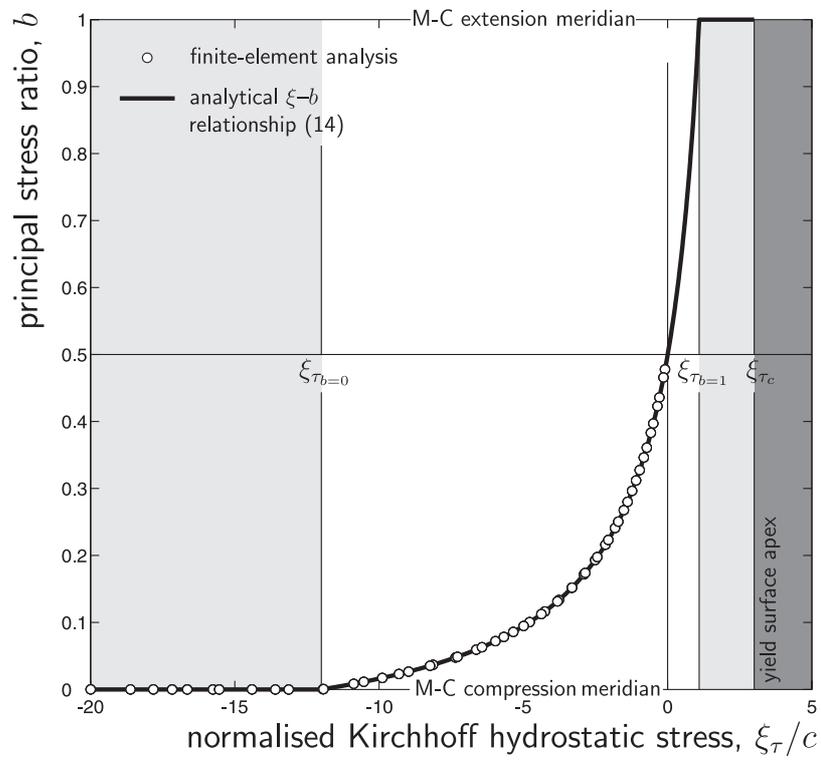


FIG. 8. Cavity expansion: ξ_τ/c versus b response at the end of the analysis.

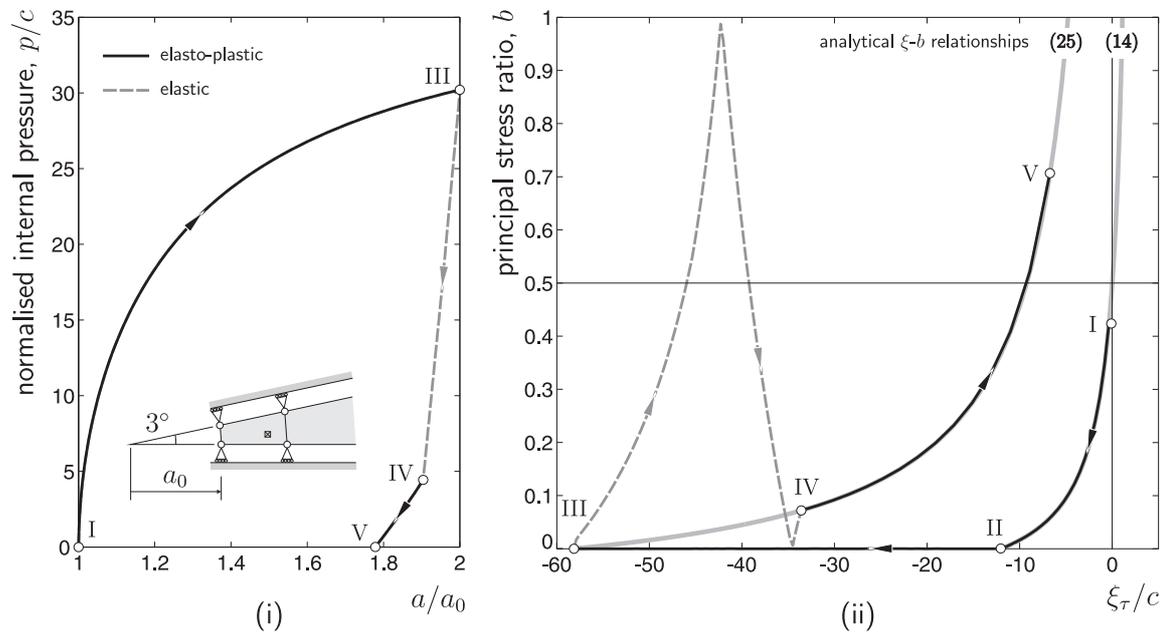


FIG. 9. Cavity expansion load-unload response: (i) p/c versus a/a_0 and (ii) ξ_τ/c versus b path.