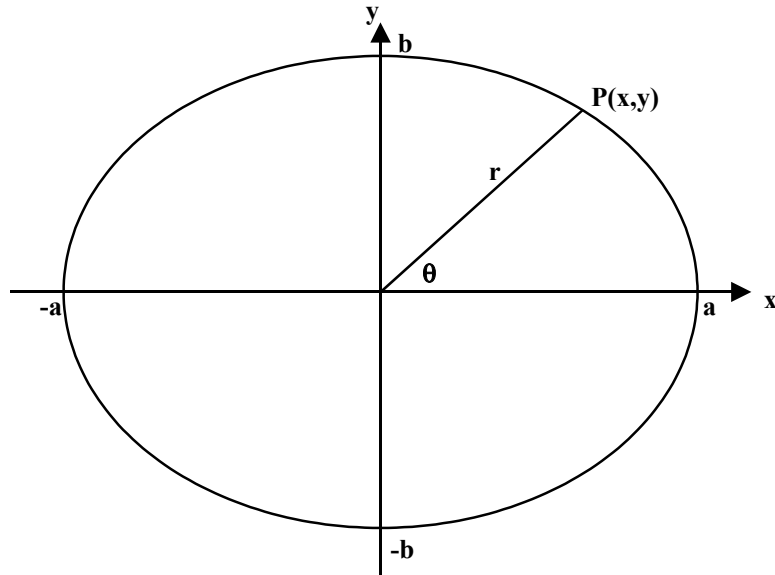


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SOME PROPERTIES OF ELLIPSES

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An ellipse is defined in the usual way by,

$$\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^2 = 1 \quad 1$$

where a and b are the semi-axes. The following results are obvious and often useful,

$$y = b \cdot \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2} \quad 2$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = b \cdot \sqrt{1 + x^2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{b^2} - \frac{1}{a^2}\right)} \quad 3$$

$$\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) = \arctan\left(b \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{a^2}}\right) \quad 4$$

$$x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{\tan^2 \theta}{b^2} + \frac{1}{a^2}}} \quad 5$$

The area of the ellipse, A, is given by,

$$A = \pi \cdot a \cdot b \quad 6$$

The area moment of inertia, I_{xx} , about the x-axis is given by,

$$I_{xx} = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \pi \cdot b^3 \cdot a \quad 7$$

When the middle surface of a thin-walled tube of wall thickness t has a cross section that is elliptical, the area moment of inertia about the x-axis is approximated by,

$$I_{xx} \cong \frac{1}{4} \cdot \pi \cdot b^2 \cdot t \cdot (b + 3 \cdot a) \quad 8$$

The perimeter, P , of the ellipse is given by,

$$P = 4 \cdot \int_{x=0}^a \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2} \cdot dx \quad 9$$

After some manipulations, Equation 9 becomes,

$$P = 4 \cdot \int_{x=0}^a \frac{\sqrt{1 + \left[\left(\frac{b}{a} \right)^2 - 1 \right] \cdot \left(\frac{x}{a} \right)^2}}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{x}{a} \right)^2}} \cdot dx \quad 10$$

Let

$$\xi = \frac{x}{a} \quad \text{and} \quad m = 1 - \left(\frac{b}{a} \right)^2$$

and assume $b < a$ so that,

$$P = 4 \cdot a \cdot \int_{\xi=0}^1 \sqrt{\frac{1 - m \cdot \xi^2}{1 - \xi^2}} \cdot d\xi \equiv 4 \cdot a \cdot E(m) \quad 11$$

where $E(m)$ is the complete elliptical integral of the second kind. The function $a \cdot E(m)$ has the physical interpretation of being the perimeter length in the first quadrant between the points $(a,0)$ and $(0,b)$. This integral is tabulated in many places. Elementary geometric considerations show that,

$$E(0) = \frac{\pi}{2} \quad (m = 0 \text{ for a circle})$$

$$E(1) = 1 \quad (m = 1 \text{ for a line on the x-axis})$$

The figure below shows that $E(m)$ is nearly a straight line for m in the range $-0.2 < m < 0.2$. Two very useful approximations to this function are given by,

$$E(m) \cong 1. + 0.4630151 \cdot (1. - m) + 0.1077812 \cdot (1. - m)^2 \\ + [0.2452727 \cdot (1. - m) + 0.0412496 \cdot (1. - m)^2] \cdot \ln\left(\frac{1}{(1. - m)}\right) \quad (0 < m < 1) \quad 12$$

$$E(m) \cong 1. + 0.44325141463 \cdot (1. - m) + 0.0626060122 \cdot (1. - m)^2 \\ + 0.04757383546 \cdot (1. - m)^3 + 0.01736506451 \cdot (1. - m)^4 \\ + \left[\begin{aligned} &0.2499836831 \cdot (1. - m) + 0.09200180037 \cdot (1. - m)^2 \\ &+ 0.04069697526 \cdot (1. - m)^3 + 0.00526449639 \cdot (1. - m)^4 \end{aligned} \right] \cdot \ln\left(\frac{1}{(1. - m)}\right) \quad (0 < m < 1) \quad 13$$

The absolute value of the error in the first expression is less than $4E-5$ while the corresponding error from the second expression is less than $2E-8$.

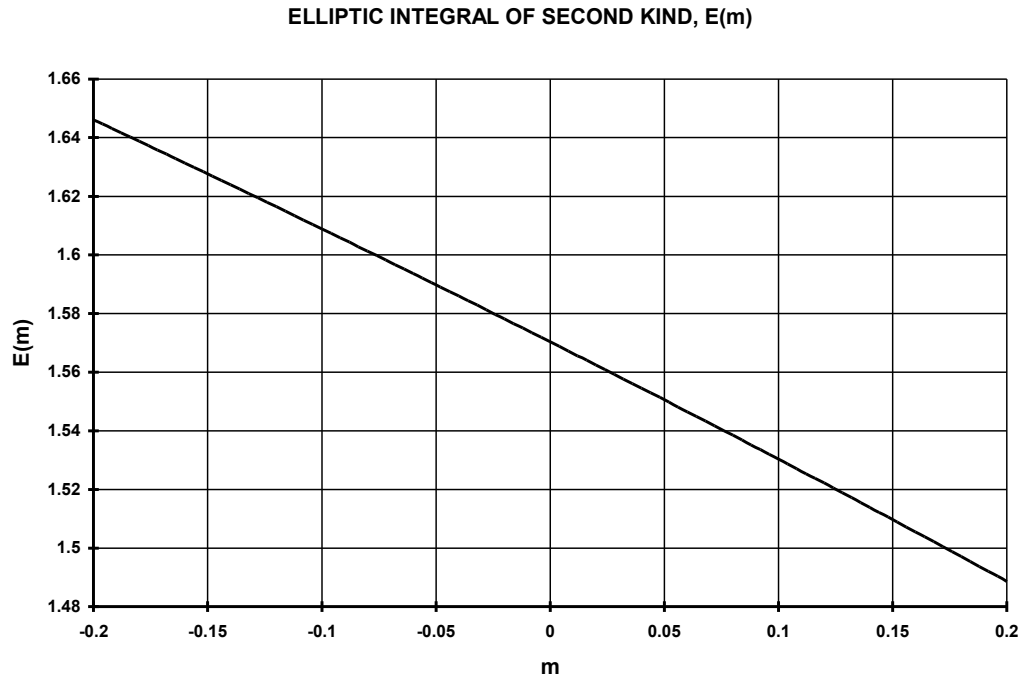
In *Numerical Recipes* by William H. Press et al, $E(m)$ is written in the form,

$$E(m) = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sqrt{1 - k^2 \cdot \sin^2 \theta} \cdot d\theta \quad k^2 = m \quad 14$$

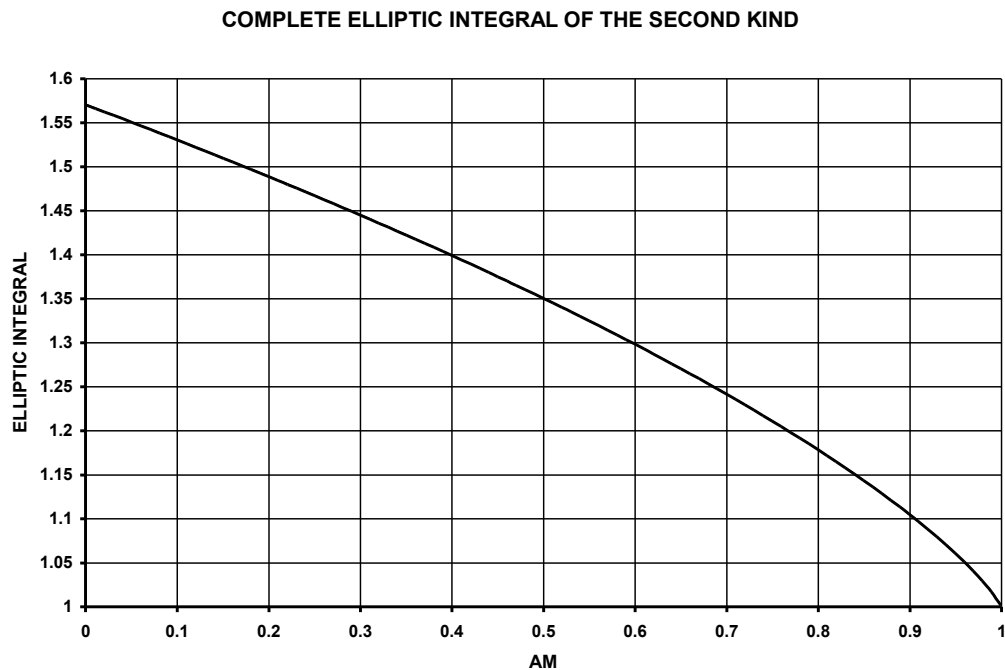
and this book gives a computer code for a rather general function that includes $E(m)$ as,

$$E(m) = \text{cel}(\sqrt{1 - m}, 1., 1., 1 - m) \quad 15$$

see page 185.



The following figure shows the elliptic integral for the range of arguments from 0 to 1.



In the sketch above the point $P(x,y)$ is shown as a point on the ellipse in the first quadrant. The distance along the ellipse in the first quadrant from $(a,0)$ to $P(x,y)$ is denoted

$a \cdot \bar{E}(\theta, m)$. The function, $\bar{E}(\theta, m)$, is called the Legendre elliptic integral of the second kind and it is defined by any of the following expressions,

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{E}(\theta, m) &= \int_0^\theta \sqrt{1 - k^2 \cdot \sin^2 \theta} \cdot d\theta \quad k^2 = m \\ &= \int_0^{\sin \theta} \sqrt{\frac{1 - m \cdot \xi^2}{1 - \xi^2}} \cdot d\xi \\ &= \int_0^{\tan \theta} \frac{\sqrt{1 + k_c^2 \cdot \eta^2}}{(1 + \eta^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \cdot d\eta \quad k_c^2 = 1 - k^2 = 1 - m\end{aligned}\tag{16}$$

Numerical Recipes also has this function in the form of a computer code so that,

$$\bar{E}(\theta, m) = \text{el2}(\tan \theta, \sqrt{1 - m}, 1., 1 - m)$$

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Clearly,

$$E(m) = \bar{E}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, m\right)\tag{18}$$

Consider a circle of radius RO . The perimeter of this circle is $2 \cdot \pi \cdot RO$. Now consider an ellipse with semi-axes defined by,

$$a = RO + \Delta R\tag{19}$$

$$b = RO - \Delta R\tag{20}$$

The ovality of a tubular is defined by $\frac{R_{\max} - R_{\min}}{R_{\max} + R_{\min}} = \frac{\Delta R}{RO}$ and is designated as OV . The expression for m , in terms of OV , becomes,

$$m = 1 - \left(\frac{1 - OV}{1 + OV}\right)^2 = \frac{4 \cdot OV}{(1 + OV)^2}\tag{21}$$

and,

$$a = RO \cdot (1 + OV)\tag{22}$$

$$b = RO \cdot (1 - OV)\tag{23}$$

Recalling that $E(m)$ is nearly linear with m in the neighborhood of $m = 0$, an approximation for $E(m)$ is,

$$E(m) \cong \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \left[1 - \frac{OV}{(1+OV)^2} \right] \quad 24$$

The area of the ellipse is given by,

$$A = \text{area of the ellipse} = \pi \cdot RO^2 \cdot (1 - OV^2) \quad 25$$

while

$$P = \text{perimeter of the ellipse} = 4 \cdot RO \cdot (1 + OV) \cdot E \left[1 - \left(\frac{1 - OV}{1 + OV} \right)^2 \right] \quad 26$$

$$\frac{x}{RO} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1+OV} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\tan \theta}{1-OV} \right)^2}} \quad 27$$

The perimeter of the ellipse is greater than the perimeter of the circle of radius RO. The “mean hoop strain”, ϵ_{hoop} , associated changing from the circle to the ellipse is given by,

$$\epsilon_{\text{hoop}} = \frac{P - 2 \cdot \pi \cdot RO}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot RO} = \frac{2}{\pi} \cdot (1 + OV) \cdot E \left[1 - \left(\frac{1 - OV}{1 + OV} \right)^2 \right] - 1 \quad 28$$

When the perimeter is not permitted to change length while changing from a circle to an ellipse, the above strain must be removed. This may be accomplished by “shrinking” the cross section uniformly. Each dimension is divided by $(1 + \epsilon_{\text{hoop}})$. When the shrinking is done the area, A, of the ellipse is,

$$A = \pi \cdot RO^2 \cdot (1 - OV^2) / (1 + \epsilon_{\text{hoop}})^2 \quad 29$$

In many applications other characteristics of an ellipse are required. The following derivation is to determine the curvature as a function of x in the first quadrant for the ellipse defined by $a = RO + \Delta R$ and $b = RO - \Delta R$ so that,

$$y = (1 - OV) \cdot RO \cdot \sqrt{1 - \frac{x^2}{(1 + OV)^2 \cdot RO^2}} \quad 30$$

and then,

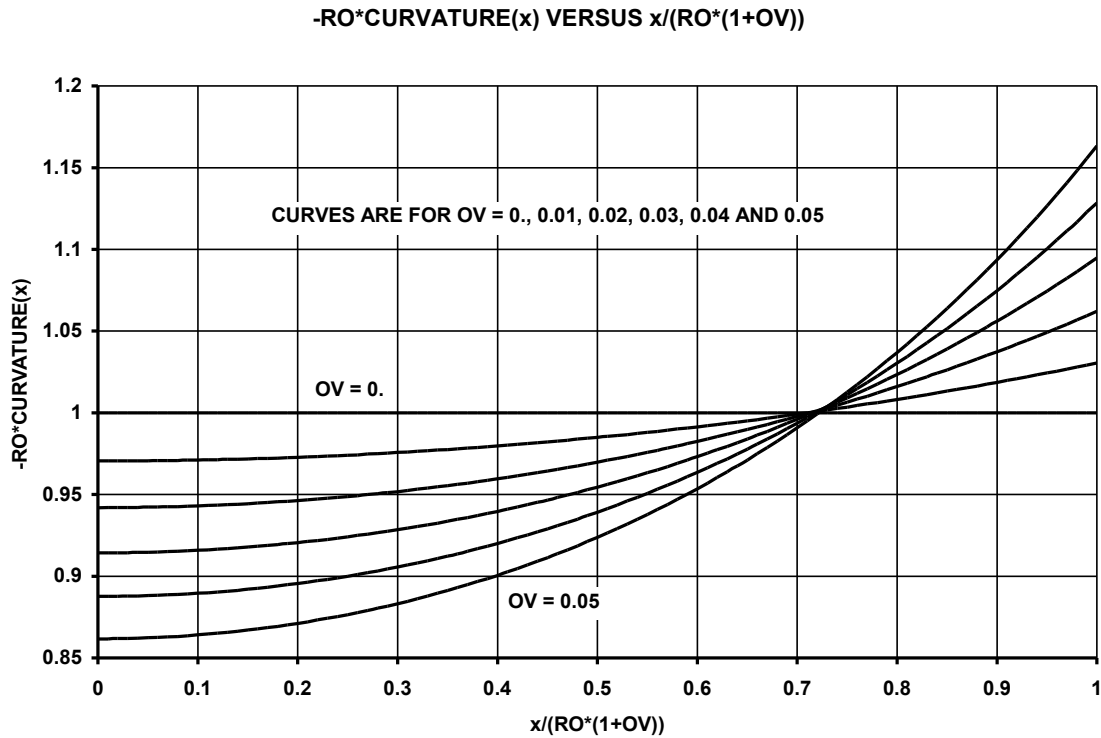
$$y' = - \frac{1 - OV}{1 + OV} \cdot \frac{x}{\sqrt{(1 + OV)^2 \cdot RO^2 - x^2}} \quad 31$$

$$y'' = -\frac{1-OV}{1+OV} \cdot \frac{RO^2 \cdot (1+OV)^2}{\left[(1+OV)^2 \cdot RO^2 - x^2\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{RO^2 \cdot (1-OV^2)}{\left[(1+OV)^2 \cdot RO^2 - x^2\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}} \quad 32$$

Denote $\kappa(x)$ as the curvature so that,

$$\kappa(x) = \frac{y''}{(1+(y')^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} = -\frac{1-OV}{1+OV} \cdot \frac{RO^2 \cdot (1+OV)^2}{\left[(1+OV)^2 \cdot RO^2 - x^2 + \frac{(1-OV)^2}{(1+OV)^2} \cdot x^2\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}} \quad 33$$

The curve below is based on Equation 33,



The following expressions for curvature at the semi-axes are sometimes useful,

$$\kappa(0) = -\frac{1-OV}{1+OV} \cdot \frac{1}{RO \cdot (1+OV)} \quad 34$$

$$\kappa((1+OV) \cdot RO) = -\frac{1+OV}{1-OV} \cdot \frac{1}{RO \cdot (1-OV)} \quad 35$$

or,

$$\kappa(x) = - \frac{a \cdot b}{\left(a^2 - (a^2 - b^2) \cdot \left(\frac{x}{a} \right)^2 \right)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \quad 33a$$

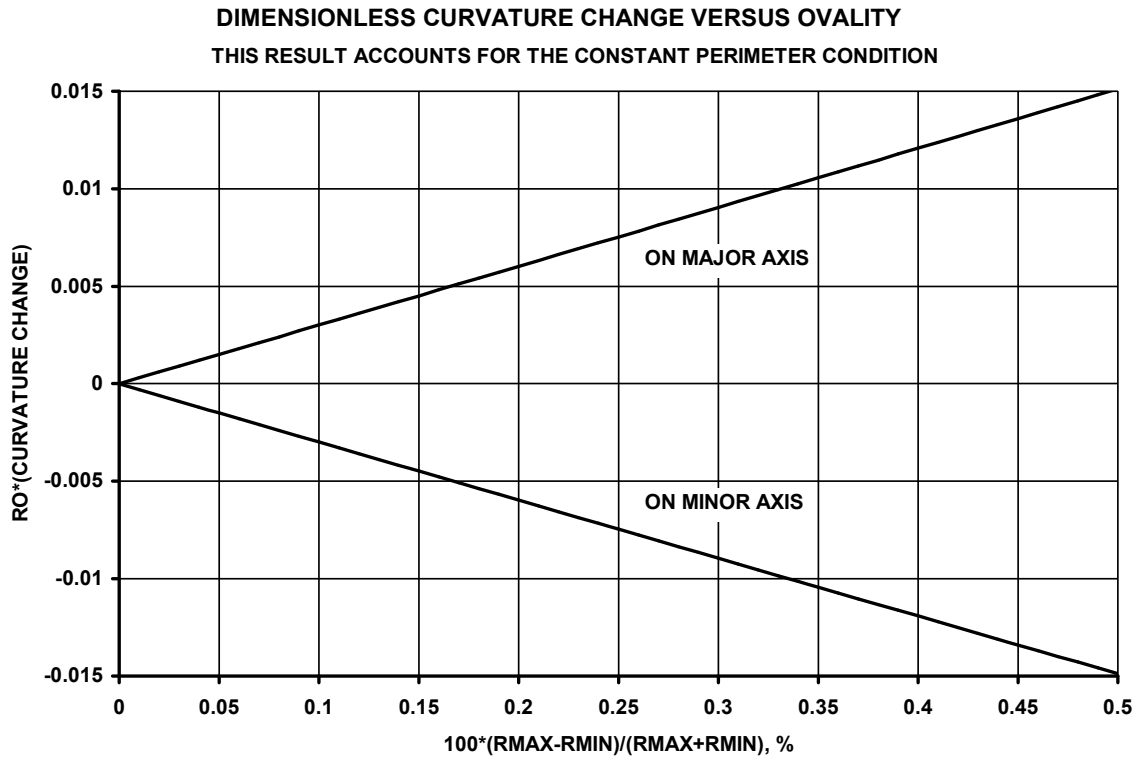
$$\kappa(0) = - \frac{b}{a^2} \quad 34a$$

$$\kappa(a) = - \frac{a}{b^2}$$

35a

If the “shrinkage” mentioned above is applied to the ellipse then the curvatures should be multiplied by $(1 + \epsilon_{\text{hoop}})$. The curves below show the changes of dimensionless curvature with ovality, taking into account the shrinkage. These curves show that, for small ovality changes from a circular section, the curvature changes can be approximated using,

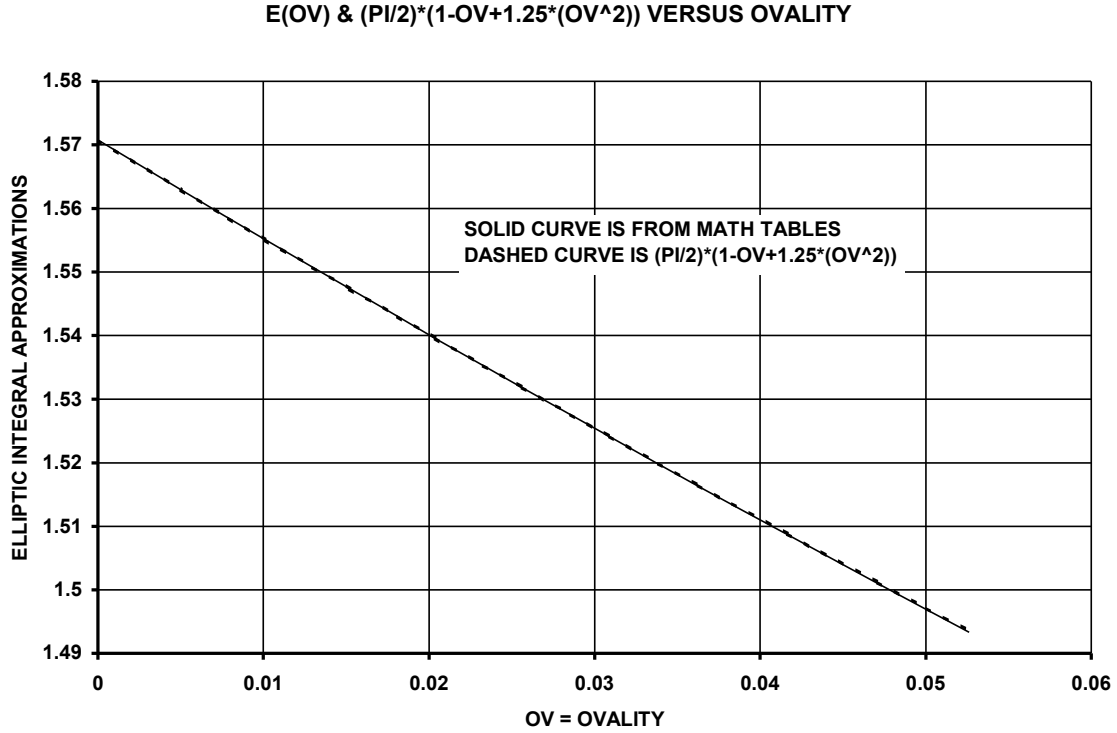
$$RO \cdot (\text{curvature change}) \cong \pm 3 \cdot OV \quad 36$$



A useful formulation for finding the change in area from a circle to an ellipse of the same perimeter with ovality OV is given below using the approximation,

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(OV) &= \text{complete elliptical integral of the second kind as a function of ovality} \\
 &= E \left[1 - \left(\frac{1 - OV}{1 + OV} \right)^2 \right] \cong \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \left(1 - OV + \frac{5}{4} \cdot OV^2 \right)
 \end{aligned} \tag{37}$$

The curves below indicate the quality of the match with the calculated values using *Numerical Recipes*.



Consider the circle of radius rO . Maintain the perimeter constant and distort the circle to an ellipse of ovality OV . Denote the major and minor semi-axes as,

$$a = rO + \Delta r1 + \Delta r2 \tag{38}$$

$$b = rO + \Delta r1 - \Delta r2 \tag{39}$$

The original ovality is zero and the final ovality is,

$$OV = \frac{\Delta r2}{rO + \Delta r1} \tag{40}$$

The original area is πrO^2 and the final area, AF , is,

$$AF = \pi \cdot rO^2 \cdot \left(1 + \frac{\Delta r1}{rO} \right)^2 \cdot (1 - OV^2) \tag{41}$$

The original perimeter is $2\pi rO$ and the final perimeter, PF, is,

$$PF = 4 \cdot a \cdot E(OV) \cong 2 \cdot \pi \cdot rO \cdot \left(1 + \frac{\Delta r1}{rO}\right) \cdot (1 + OV) \cdot \left(1 - OV + \frac{5}{4} \cdot OV^2\right) \quad 42$$

The condition that the perimeter is unchanged gives,

$$1 + \frac{\Delta r1}{rO} \cong \frac{1}{\left(1 - OV + \frac{5}{4} \cdot OV^2\right) \cdot (1 + OV)} \cong 1 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot OV^2 \quad 43$$

Substituting Equation 42 into Equation 40 to eliminate $\Delta r1$ gives,

$$AF \cong \pi \cdot rO^2 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot OV^2\right)^2 \cdot (1 - OV^2) \cong \pi \cdot rO^2 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{3}{2} \cdot OV^2\right) \quad 44$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{AF - \pi \cdot rO^2}{\pi \cdot rO^2} = \frac{(\text{change of area})}{(\text{original area})} \cong -\frac{3}{2} \cdot OV^2 \quad 45$$

In the literature concerning “Plates and Shells”, the mathematical modeling for ovaling of a cylinder is usually different from the elliptical shape considered above. The common form for ovaling is that the radial displacement from the initially circular cross section is proportional to $\cos \theta$. This formulation is presented below and then compared with the results presented above for ellipses.

Consider a circle of radius rO with points A and B fixed on the perimeter. The points separated by the differential polar angle $d\phi$. Now distort the circle by specifying displacements in the plane of the circle. The displacements are given as an outward radial displacement, w_r , and a tangential displacement, w_t . Each of these displacements is a function of ϕ . Note that, at each fixed point, the radial and tangential directions are referred to the initial, circular configuration. The initial distance, ds_i , between points A and B is given by,

$$ds_i = rO \cdot d\phi \quad 46$$

The distance, ds_f , between the points after the circle is distorted may be related to ds_i using straightforward analysis (given at the end of this appendix) with the result that the hoop strain, ϵ_{hoop} , is given by,

$$\epsilon_{hoop} = \frac{ds_f}{ds_i} - 1 = \frac{w_r + w_t'}{rO} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{w_r + w_t'}{rO} \right)^2 + \frac{w_t'^2 + w_r'^2 - 2 \cdot w_t \cdot w_r' + 2 \cdot w_r \cdot w_t' + w_r'^2 + w_t'^2}{2 \cdot rO^2} \quad 47$$

where a prime signifies differentiation with respect to ϕ . When the inextensional theory of cylindrical shells is studied, the terms in ϵ_{hoop} that are linear in w_r and w_t are set to zero so that,

$$w_r = -w_t' \quad 48$$

and then the hoop strain is given by,

$$\epsilon_{\text{hoop}} = \frac{(w_t + w_t'')^2}{2 \cdot r_0^2} \quad 49$$

This strain results because the usual inextensional theory considers only the linear displacement terms in the strain equations.

If w_t is taken as,

$$w_t = c \cdot \sin(2 \cdot \phi) \quad 50$$

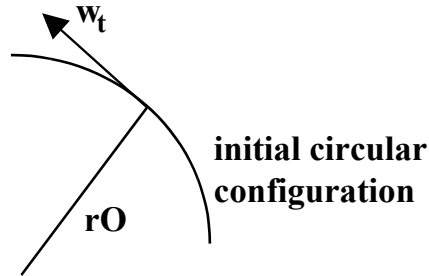
so that, from Equation 48,

$$w_r = -2 \cdot c \cdot \cos(2 \cdot \phi) \quad 51$$

and ϵ_{hoop} is given by,

$$\epsilon_{\text{hoop}} = \frac{c^2}{2 \cdot r_0^2} \cdot 9 \cdot \sin^2(2 \cdot \phi) \quad 52$$

Note that this strain includes the term $\frac{w_t^2}{2 \cdot r_0^2}$ in Equation 47. This term shows that when $w_r = 0$ and w_t is constant (this satisfies Equation 48), there is a non-trivial hoop strain. This result is correct and follows from the definition of w_t being in the tangential direction for the circular configuration, see sketch below,



The hoop strain induced by this displacement is $\frac{\sqrt{rO^2 + w_t^2} - rO}{rO}$. For $w_t \ll rO$, this hoop strain is $\frac{w_t^2}{2 \cdot rO^2}$ and equals the strain in question in Equation 47. The perimeter change ΔP from the strain of Equation 52 is,

$$\Delta P = \int_{\phi=0}^{\phi=2\pi} \epsilon_{\text{hoop}} \cdot rO \cdot d\phi = \frac{9 \cdot \pi \cdot c^2}{2 \cdot rO} \quad 53$$

If the perimeter is reduced by reducing the radius by Δr to offset the perimeter growth ΔP , the result is,

$$\Delta r = -\frac{\Delta P}{2 \cdot \pi} = -\frac{9 \cdot c^2}{4 \cdot rO} \quad 54$$

so that the area change, ΔA_p , for this perimeter adjustment is approximated by,

$$\Delta A_p \cong 2 \cdot \pi \cdot rO \cdot \Delta r = -\frac{9 \cdot \pi \cdot c^2}{2} \quad 55$$

The changes of areas, ΔA_r and ΔA_t , associated with w_r and w_t , respectively are, to second order terms in w_r and w_t ,

$$\Delta A_r = \int_{\phi=0}^{\phi=2\pi} \frac{1}{2} \cdot (rO + w_r)^2 \cdot \left(1 + \frac{w_t}{rO}\right) \cdot d\phi - \pi \cdot rO^2 = -2 \cdot \pi \cdot c^2 \quad 56$$

$$\Delta A_t = 2 \cdot \pi \cdot rO \int_{\phi=0}^{\phi=2\pi} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{w_t^2}{rO^2} \cdot \frac{rO \cdot d\phi}{2 \cdot \pi} = +\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot c^2 \quad 57$$

Consequently, when the perimeter is restricted to being inextensible through second order terms in w_r and w_t , the net change in area, ΔArea , is approximated by,

$$\Delta \text{Area} \cong \Delta A_p + \Delta A_r + \Delta A_t = -\frac{9 \cdot \pi \cdot c^2}{2} - 2 \cdot \pi \cdot c^2 + \frac{\pi \cdot c^2}{2} = -6 \cdot \pi \cdot c^2 \quad 59$$

or

$$\frac{\Delta \text{Area}}{\pi \cdot rO^2} = -6 \cdot \left(\frac{c}{rO}\right)^2 \quad 60$$

Now, the “ovality” for the distorted configuration is given as “OV” where,

$$"OV" = \frac{(\text{maximum diameter}) - (\text{minimum diameter})}{(\text{maximum diameter}) + (\text{minimum diameter})} = \frac{2 \cdot c}{rO} \quad 61$$

Combining Equations 60 and 61 yields,

$$\frac{\Delta \text{Area}}{\pi \cdot rO^2} = -\frac{3}{2} \cdot "OV"^2 \quad 60a$$

This result agrees with Equation 45 for the case of an ellipse. Thus, the sinusoidal formulation is, to second order terms in w_r and w_t , equivalent to the elliptical formulation. At the practical level, the results show that classical collapse analysis of thin-walled cylindrical shells may be simplified by using the sinusoidal formulation to find the changes in curvature while using the elliptical formulation to find the change in area.

It is interesting to note that when Equation 50 is replaced by,

$$w_t = c \cdot \sin(n \cdot \phi) \quad 61a$$

then,

$$w_r = -n \cdot c \cdot \cos(n \cdot \phi) \quad 62$$

$$\epsilon_{\text{hoop}} = \frac{c^2}{2 \cdot rO^2} \cdot (n^2 - 1)^2 \cdot \sin^2(n \cdot \phi) \quad 63$$

$$\Delta P = \frac{(n^2 - 1)^2 \cdot \pi \cdot c^2}{2 \cdot rO} \quad 64$$

$$\Delta r = -\frac{(n^2 - 1)^2 \cdot c^2}{4 \cdot rO} \quad 65$$

$$\Delta A_P = -\frac{(n^2 - 1)^2 \cdot \pi \cdot c^2}{2} \quad 66$$

$$\Delta A_r = -\frac{n^2}{2} \cdot \pi \cdot c^2 \quad 67$$

$$\Delta A_t = +\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot c^2 \quad 68$$

$$\Delta \text{Area} \cong -\frac{n^2 \cdot (n^2 - 1)}{2} \cdot \pi \cdot c^2 \quad 69$$

$$\frac{\Delta \text{Area}}{\pi \cdot rO^2} = -\frac{n^2 \cdot (n^2 - 1)}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{c}{rO}\right)^2 \quad 70$$

$$"\overline{OV}" = \frac{(\text{maximum radius}) - (\text{minimum radius})}{(\text{maximum radius}) + (\text{minimum radius})} = \frac{n \cdot c}{rO} \quad 71$$

$$\frac{\Delta \text{Area}}{\pi \cdot rO^2} = -\frac{n^2 - 1}{2} \cdot {"\overline{OV}}^2 \quad 72$$

As a concluding observation the derivation of the hoop strain, ϵ_{hoop} , in terms of the radial and tangential displacements, $w_r(\phi)$ and $w_t(\phi)$, is presented. First consider the points A and B defined on page 10 in the undeformed configuration. Using the conventional Cartesian coordinate system, the x and y coordinates of the two points are given by,

$$\begin{aligned} x_A &= rO \cdot \cos\phi \\ y_A &= rO \cdot \sin\phi \end{aligned} \quad 73$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} x_A &= rO \cdot \cos(\phi + d\phi) \\ y_A &= rO \cdot \sin(\phi + d\phi) \end{aligned} \quad 74$$

The differential distance between points A and B in the undeformed configuration, ds_i , is obtained using the identities,

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(a + b) &= \sin a \cdot \cos b + \cos a \cdot \sin b \\ \cos(a + b) &= \cos a \cdot \cos b - \sin a \cdot \sin b \end{aligned} \quad 75$$

so that,

$$\begin{aligned} (ds_i)^2 &= rO^2 \cdot (\cos(\phi + d\phi) - \cos\phi)^2 + rO^2 \cdot (\sin(\phi + d\phi) - \sin\phi)^2 \\ &= rO^2 \cdot (\cos^2\phi + (-\sin\phi)^2) \cdot d\phi^2 = rO^2 \cdot d\phi^2 \end{aligned} \quad 76$$

In the deformed configuration the positions of material fixed points A and B are changed to the positions \widetilde{A} and \widetilde{B} with the radial and tangential displacements, w_r and w_t . These displacements and their derivatives with respect to ϕ are assumed to be very small compared to rO . The new positions are now,

$$\begin{aligned} x_{\tilde{A}} &= (rO + w_r) \cdot \cos \phi - w_t \cdot \sin \phi \\ y_{\tilde{A}} &= (rO + w_r) \cdot \sin \phi + w_t \cdot \cos \phi \end{aligned} \quad 77$$

and,

$$\begin{aligned} x_{\tilde{B}} &= (rO + w_r + w_r' \cdot d\phi) \cdot \cos(\phi + d\phi) - (w_t + w_t' \cdot d\phi) \cdot \sin(\phi + d\phi) \\ y_{\tilde{B}} &= (rO + w_r + w_r' \cdot d\phi) \cdot \sin(\phi + d\phi) + (w_t + w_t' \cdot d\phi) \cdot \cos(\phi + d\phi) \end{aligned} \quad 78$$

so that, through first order terms in $d\phi$,

$$\begin{aligned} x_{\tilde{B}} - x_{\tilde{A}} &= [(w_r' - w_t) \cdot \cos \phi - (rO + w_r + w_t') \cdot \sin \phi] \cdot d\phi \\ y_{\tilde{B}} - y_{\tilde{A}} &= [(w_r' - w_t) \cdot \sin \phi + (rO + w_r + w_t') \cdot \cos \phi] \cdot d\phi \end{aligned} \quad 79$$

and then,

$$\begin{aligned} (ds_f)^2 &= (x_{\tilde{B}} - x_{\tilde{A}})^2 + (y_{\tilde{B}} - y_{\tilde{A}})^2 \\ &= [rO^2 + 2 \cdot rO \cdot (w_r + w_t') + w_r'^2 - 2 \cdot w_r' \cdot w_t + w_t^2 + w_r^2 + 2 \cdot w_r \cdot w_t' + w_t'^2] \cdot (d\phi)^2 \end{aligned} \quad 80$$

Recalling that the displacements and their derivatives are small compared to rO , the hoop strain may be approximated as follows,

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_{\text{hoop}} &= \sqrt{\frac{(ds_f)^2}{rO^2 \cdot (d\phi)^2}} - 1 \\ &= \frac{w_r + w_t'}{rO} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{w_r + w_t'}{rO} \right)^2 + \frac{w_r^2 + w_r'^2 + 2 \cdot w_r \cdot w_t' - 2 \cdot w_r' \cdot w_t + w_t^2 + w_t'^2}{2 \cdot rO^2} \end{aligned} \quad 81$$

Equation 81 is the same as Equation 47

**AN ILLUSTRATIVE PROBLEM USING EQUATION 59 ABOVE:
BUCKLING OF A THIN CIRCULAR RING, SUBJECTED TO A UNIFORM
RADIAL LOADING**

- R = mean radius of ring
 w = radial component of displacement
 EI = bending stiffness for ring
 ΔP = radial load per unit length
 M = bending moment
 θ = angular coordinate
 U = strain energy
 V = potential energy of load
 PE = total potential energy
 δPE = first variation of PE
 $\delta^2 PE$ = second variation of PE

$$M = \frac{EI}{R^2} \cdot \left(\frac{d^2 w}{dx^2} + w \right)$$

$$U = \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \frac{M^2 \cdot R}{2 \cdot EI} \cdot d\theta = \frac{EI}{2 \cdot R^3} \cdot \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \left(\frac{d^2 w}{dx^2} + w \right)^2 \cdot d\theta$$

$$w = w_o \cdot \cos(2 \cdot \theta)$$

$$U = \frac{9 \cdot \pi}{2} \cdot \frac{EI \cdot w_o^2}{R^3}$$

$$V = -\Delta P \cdot 6 \cdot \pi \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4} \cdot w_o^2 \right) = -\frac{3}{2} \cdot \pi \cdot \Delta P \cdot w_o^2 \quad \text{from Equation 59 above}$$

$$PE = U + V = \left(\frac{9 \cdot \pi}{2} \cdot \frac{EI}{R^3} - \frac{3 \cdot \pi}{2} \cdot \Delta P \right) \cdot w_o^2$$

Note there are no linear terms for w_o in the above equation. This is expected when a buckling load is being predicted. The equilibrium solution is obtained by setting δPE to zero so that,

$$\delta PE = \left(\frac{9 \cdot \pi}{2} \cdot \frac{EI}{R^3} - \frac{3 \cdot \pi}{2} \cdot \Delta P \right) \cdot w_o \cdot \delta w_o = 0$$

and,

$$\Delta P = \frac{3 \cdot EI}{R^3}$$

The physical interpretation of the last equation is that for the assumed displacement and load distribution the only equilibrium solution is given by this equation. The stability of this solution may be found by evaluating $\delta^2 \text{PE}$ and,

$$\delta^2 \text{PE} = \frac{3 \cdot \pi}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{3 \cdot EI}{R^3} - \Delta P \right) \cdot (\delta w_o)^2$$

The solution is stable whenever $\delta^2 \text{PE} > 0$. Consequently,

$$\text{Limit of stability} = \text{buckling load} = \Delta P = \frac{3 \cdot EI}{R^3}$$

This solution agrees with the solution in Stephen P. Timoshenko and James M. Gere's *Theory of Elastic Stability*, Second Edition, 1961, Section 7.4. The advantage of using Equation 59 for the area change is that the perimeter of the ring is unaltered *through second orders terms in w_o* and the extensional contribution to U can be ignored in the prediction of the usual buckling pressure differential.

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