Continuum

- Familiar with the classical Newtonian mechanics of a system of particles or a rigid body?
- A good starting point would be to see how continuum is different from those concepts.
 - Solids, liquids, gases. Is sand continuum?
 - A system of particles: particles separated by empty spaces.

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 Rigid bodies: Infinitely strong force prevents change in distance between particles.

Continuum

- Continuum: Disregard the molecular or atomic structure of matter and picture it as being without gaps or empty spaces.
- Another central assumption: All the mathematical functions used to describe the material are **smoothly continuous** in the entire domain or in each of finite sub-domains, so that their derivatives exist.

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- When we are interested in how much a solid has deformed, it makes a lot of sense to play with some "relative" measurements. For instance, when we stretch an elastic bar, it makes a lot of sense to measure the amount of extension divided by the original length.
- ex) A 2 m bar extended to 2.002 m. 0.002 m/2 m = 0.001 or 0.1 %. This dimensionless quantity is called *strain*.
- If we take 0.002 m, it can be either a large deformation for a short (0.002 m) bar and an infinitesimal deformation for a long (2 km) bar. But the meaning of 0.1 % strain is clearly understood.

What has changed in this case? What needs to be measured for unambiguous representation of this deformation?



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- Measuring deformation of a coninuum is generally not easy, particularly for non-linear and/or history-dependent materials.
- So we will stick to simple enough materials like *linear* elastic ones and their *small deformation (strain)* during most of this course.

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Now, how do we do this quantitatively?



(from the continuum mechanics entry of Wikipedia)

- We wish to describe the generic motion of a material body (B), including translation and rigid body rotation as well as time dependent ones.
- ► To trace the motion of B, we establish an absolutely fixed (inertial) frame of reference so that points in the Euclidean space (**R**³) can be identified by their position (**x**) or their coordinates (*x_i*, i=1,2,3).
- The subsets of R³ occupied by B are called the configurations of the body. The *initially* known configuration is particularly called *reference configuration*.

- It is conceptually important to distinguish the particles (P) of the body from their places in R³. The particles are physical entities pieces of matter whereas the places are merely positions in R³ in which particles may or may not be at any specific time.
- To identify particles, we label them in much the same way one labels discrete particles in classical dynamics. However, since B is an uncountable continuum of particles, we cannot use the integers to label them as in particle dynamics.

- The problem is resolved by placing each particle in B in correspondence with an ordered triple X = (X₁, X₂, X₃) of *real numbers*. Mathematically, this "correspondence" is a *homeomorphism* from B into R³ and we make no distinction between B and the set of particle labels.
- ► The numbers X_i associated with particle X∈B are called the *material coordinates* of X.

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- For convenience, it is customary to choose the material coordinates of X to exactly coincide with the *spatial coordinates*, x, when B occupies its reference configuration.
- A motion of B is a time-dependent family of configurations, written x = φ(X, t). Of course, X = φ(X, 0).
- To prevent weird, non-realistic behaviors, we also require configurations (i.e., the mapping φ) to be sufficiently smooth (to be able to take derivatives), invertible (to prevent self-penetration, for instance), and orientation preserving (to prevent a mapping to a mirror image).



(from the continuum mechanics entry of Wikipedia)

Material velocity of a point X is defined by

 $\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{X},t) = (\partial/\partial t)\phi(\mathbf{X},t)$

Velocity viewed as a function of (x, t), denoted v(x, t), is called *spatial velocity*.

$$\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{X},t)=\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x},t)$$

Material acceleration of a motion \u03c6(X, t) is defined by

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{X},t) = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2}(\mathbf{X},t) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{V}}{\partial t}(\mathbf{X},t)$$

By the chain rule,

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{V}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{v}$$

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Example:

Find φ(X, t), V and v in this simple shear motion? Assume that the top nodes are moving at a constant speed c to the right and the bottom nodes are fixed.



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In general, if Q(X, t) is a material quantity–a given function of (X, t)– and q(x, t) = Q(X, t) is the same quantity expressed as a function of (x, t), then the chain rule gives

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{Q}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{q}}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) \boldsymbol{q}.$$

- ► The right-hand side is called the *material derivative* of q and is denoted $Dq/Dt = \dot{q}$.
- Thus Dq/Dt is the derivative of q with respect to t, holding X fixed, while ∂q/∂t is the derivative of q with respect to t holding x fixed. In particular

$$\dot{\mathbf{v}} = D\mathbf{v}/Dt = \partial \mathbf{V}/\partial t = rac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{v}.$$

Deformation gradient: The 3 × 3 matrix of partial derivatives of φ with respect to X, denoted F and given as

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{X}}$$
 or $F_{ij} = \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial X_j}$

Some trivial cases:
 If x = X, F = I, where I is the identity matrix;
 if x = X + ctE₁ (translation along X₁-axis with speed c),
 F = I. Consistent with the intuition that a simple translation is not a "deformation" of the usual sense.

Exercises

- What are \u03c6 and F of a "pure shear" deformation?
- What are \(\phi\) and F of a "simple shear" deformation?
- Think about why this first order partial derivative is sufficient for describing ANY general deformations.

 Polar decomposition: From linear algebra, we know F can be uniquely decomposed as

 $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{R},$

where **R** is a proper (i.e., det(**R**) = +1) orthogonal matrix (i.e., **RR**^T=**I**) called the *rotation*, and **U** and **v** are positive-definite and symmetric and called right and left stretch tensors.

Note that U is associated with material coordinates while v with spatial coordinates.

Note that symbols, U and v are also used for denoting material displacement (see below) and spatial velocity.

$$\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{R}^T \\ \mathbf{P} \mathbf{R}^T : \mathbf{x} \longrightarrow \mathbf{X}$$

$$\blacktriangleright \ \mathbf{U}:\mathbf{X}\longrightarrow\mathbf{X}$$

► **R** : **X** → **x**

- ln general $\mathbf{U} \neq \mathbf{v}$.
- U = √F^TF and v = √FF^T. Furthermore, we call
 C = F^TF = U² the *right Cauchy-Green tensor* and
 b = FF^T = v² is the *left Cauchy-Green tensor*.
- Since **U** and **v** are *similar*, their eigenvalues are equal;
- since U and v are positive definite and symmetric, their eigenvalues are real and positive.
- These eigenvalues are called the *principal stretches*.
- The deviation of principal stretches from unity measures the amount of *strain* in a deformation. Analogy can be found in the earlier simplistic example: 2.002 m/ 2 m = 1.001. Here, 0.001 is the "deviation from the unity" and represents the actual deformation.

The meaning of the polar decomposition is that a deformation is locally given to first order by a rotation followed by a stretching by amounts corresponding to eigenvalues along three principal directions or vice versa.



(Fig. 1.3.1 in *Mathematical Foundations of Elasticity* (Marsden and Hughes, Dover, 1994))



(modified from the continuum mechanics entry of Wikipedia)

Displacement is denoted U(X) and defined as

$$\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{X},t) = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X},t) - \mathbf{X}$$

$$\blacktriangleright \ \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{X},t) = \mathbf{U}(\phi^{-1}(\mathbf{x},t),t) = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x},t).$$

Like the material and spatial velocity, material and spatial displacements represent the same vector field (i.e., functions returning the same numerical values for given **x** and **X** that are related by **x** = φ(**X**).

Since
$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{U} + \mathbf{X}$$
,
 $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{I} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}}$.

Then, C, the right Cauchy-Green tensor, becomes

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{F}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{I} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} + \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} + \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}}$$

- Note that the rotational part (R) is not involved according to this definition. So, C is all about stretches.
- Green's (material or Lagrangian) strain tensor ("deviation from the unity"):

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{C} - \mathbf{I})$$

Note that

$$(ds)^2 = dx_i dx_i = F_{ij} dX_j F_{ik} dX_k = dX_j F_{ji}^T F_{ik} dX_k$$

= $d\mathbf{X} \cdot (\mathbf{F}^T \cdot \mathbf{F}) \cdot d\mathbf{X} = d\mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{C} \cdot d\mathbf{X},$

and

$$(dS)^2 = d\mathbf{X} \cdot d\mathbf{X} = d\mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot d\mathbf{X}.$$

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From the previous result, we realize that Green's strain tensor quantifies the change in the square of the length of the material vector dX.

 $ds^2 - dS^2 = 2d\mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{X}$ or $dx_i dx_i - dX_i dX_i = 2 dX_i E_{ij} dX_j$.

With further linearization, i.e., dropping the quadratic term under the assumption of infinitely small displacements, we get the familiar form of the (small or infinitesimal) strain tensor (ε):

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} + \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \right)^T \right] \text{ or } \varepsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} (U_{i,j} + U_{j,i})$$

Also note that the following decomposition is always possible:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} + \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \right)^T \right] + \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} - \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \right)^T \right]$$

The second term represents "(rigid body) rotation",

- Strain and rotation, only when combined together, describe the entire motion. Then, why do we care so much about strain and only occasionally about rotation?
 - The answer is that only strain is related to stress. More on this point later.
- Principal strains, eigenvalues of a small strain tensor, have the same meaning with principal streches.
- The trace of strain (ε_{ii}) is called *dilatation* and often denoted *e*.
- Invariants of a strain tensor are all often used in various contexts. Dilatation is, for instance, the first invariant.

Invariants: Three coefficients of the characteristic equation of a rank-2 tensor (**T**).

$$\begin{vmatrix} T_{11} - \lambda & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} - \lambda & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{32} & T_{33} - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$
$$\lambda^{3} - I_{T}\lambda^{2} + II_{T}\lambda - III_{T} = 0,$$
$$I_{T} = T_{11} + T_{22} + T_{33},$$
$$II_{T} = T_{11}T_{22} + T_{11}T_{33} + T_{22}T_{33} \\ - T_{12}T_{21} - T_{13}T_{31} - T_{23}T_{32} \\ = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{T} : \mathbf{T} - I_{T}^{2}),$$
$$III_{T} = \det \mathbf{T}.$$

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Exercises

- What are E and ε of a pure shear deformation?
- What are E and ε of a simple shear deformation?
- Find **F**, **E** and ε for the following motion:

$$x(\mathbf{X}, t) = X(1 + at) \cos \frac{\pi t}{2} - Y(1 + bt) \sin \frac{\pi t}{2}$$
$$y(\mathbf{X}, t) = X(1 + at) \sin \frac{\pi t}{2} + Y(1 + bt) \cos \frac{\pi t}{2}$$

Find **F**, **E** and ε for the following motion:

$$x(\mathbf{X}, t) = X^{2}(1 + at)\cos\frac{\pi t}{2} - Y^{2}(1 + bt)\sin\frac{\pi t}{2}$$
$$y(\mathbf{X}, t) = X^{2}(1 + at)\sin\frac{\pi t}{2} + Y^{2}(1 + bt)\cos\frac{\pi t}{2}$$