CE-570 Advanced Structural Mechanics

The BIG Picture

- <u>What is Mechanics</u>?
 - Mechanics is study of *how things work*: how anything works, how the world works! People ask: "Do you understand the mechanics of _____?" It could be:

Do you understand the mechanics of this building/bridge? (How loads are being carried?) Do you understand the mechanics of heat transfer?

Do you understand the mechanics of how this automobile works?

Do you understand the mechanics of flight?

Do you understand fracture mechanics / wave mechanics / geo-mechanics / thermo-mechanics / electro-mechanics / celestial mechanics / quantum mechanics etc. etc.

In that sense, mechanics is almost synonymous with Physics. However, mechanics is really a branch of Physics.

- Within the context of Civil Engineering and Structural Engineering, mechanics is typically used to mean:
 - Rigid body mechanics (Statics / Dynamics),
 - Mechanics of (deformable) materials,
 - Continuum mechanics (including solid / fluid mechanics),
 - Structural mechanics

(typical courses in undergraduate / graduate curricula: all based on Newtonian Mechanics).

- <u>Continuum mechanics</u>
 - Study of the behavior of continuous bodies (solid/fluid).

Note: we assume that the "macro-scale" behavior of continuous bodies is not affected by the "micro-scale" (atomic/molecular) structure of their constituent materials.

• Example Problem statement:

<u>Given:</u> body / geometry, boundary conditions, material properties, loads



Find:

Solution (displacements, strains, stresses etc.) everywhere in the body. $\underline{\mathcal{U}}(\underline{\alpha}) = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}}(\underline{\alpha}) \quad \underline{\mathbb{E}}(\underline{\alpha})$

Using: Governing partial differential equations (PDEs)

$$diw (\underline{S}) + \underline{b} = \underline{p} \underline{\ddot{u}} \qquad (\overline{z})$$
$$\underline{E} = \frac{1}{2} (\nabla \underline{u} + \nabla \underline{u}^{T})$$
$$\underline{S} = \lambda tr(\underline{E}) \underline{I} + 2\underline{u} \underline{E}$$



(for small strain linear elasticity, for example)

In addition, if anything is changing with time, then find everything at all times of interest!

 $\mathcal{U}(\alpha,t)$; $\mathcal{E}(\alpha,t)$; $\mathcal{S}(\alpha,t)$

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<u>Structural Mechanics</u>

- Builds upon continuum (solid) mechanics
- Make assumptions regarding the displacement field within individual structural members
- Reduce the "number" of unknowns (dimensionality of the problem)

Examples: Beam theory, plate theory, shell theory



- Role of approximate numerical solutions
 - Analytical (exact) solutions to the governing PDEs are not possible in general.
 - One can obtain good approximate solutions, using Finite Element Method (FEM) for example.
 - Understanding the underlying mechanics and solution methods is very important to appreciate limitations of approximate solutions and interpret numerical results correctly.
- Structural Mechanics in relation to Structural Analysis and Design
 - Structural Analysis consists of techniques to solve problems in Structural Mechanics (primarily for beam and frame structures, and use a lot of (conservative) approximations)
 - Determinate structures: Find reactions, internal forces, and then displacements
 - Indeterminate structures: Force/flexibility method; Displacement/Stiffness methods
 - Structural dynamics: Study of structures subject to dynamic loads.
 - Structural Design is an inverse problem:

Given:

All possible loads (combinations) Permissible displacements, strains, stresses <u>Find:</u> A structure that fulfills these constraints! (i.e. Geometry, Boundary conditions, materials etc.) <u>Approach</u>: Assume a solution; Check with Structural Analysis / detailed FEM Refine as needed.



- Objectives of this course
 - Gain in-depth understanding of the basic principles of continuum (solid) mechanics
 - Learn about exact and approximate (numerical) solution methods for governing PDEs
 - Introduction to Variational Principles and concepts in static stability

Chapter 1: Mathematical Preliminaries

In order to state most problems in mechanics, we need to define some physical entities such continuous bodies, surfaces, curves and points.



Choice of coordinate system:

Location of the Origin and orientation of basis vectors defines a coordinate system.



We will restrict ourselves to right-handed, orthonormal, Cartesian coordinate systems.

Scalars and scalar fields

Physical quantities with magnitude only. Examples: temperature, density etc. Denoted with lower case Latin / Greek letters: α, b, c ---- ; $\alpha, \beta, 7, ---$

As opposed to "temperature at a point" or "density at a point" in a body, one can also have scalar fields



Vectors

Physical quantities that need magnitude and direction for defining. Examples: velocity, force etc.

Denoted with underlined lower case Latin letters:



Note: Position "vector" of a point is not strictly a vector since it depends on the definition of a coordinate system. The position "vector" changes if one changes the coordinate system.

Vector fields

Similar to scalar fields, we can have vector fields as a function of position: each point in a body may have a different velocity or force acting on it.



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- Indicial notation and summation convention
 - In manipulating the component form of complicated vector expressions, we can utilize some shortcuts:
 - Write the expression in terms of *free* and *repeated / dummy* indices (occurring exactly twice),
 - Omit the summation sign (assuming that <u>summation is implied</u> for *repeated /* dummy indices),
 - Make use of the Kronecker delta <u>contraction</u> property.

Examples:

$$+ \text{Vector} \quad \mathcal{U} = \mathcal{U}_{1} \mathcal{L}_{1} + \mathcal{U}_{2} \mathcal{L}_{2} + \mathcal{U}_{3} \mathcal{L}_{3} = \underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{c} 3 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{array}\right]} \mathcal{U}_{2} \mathcal{L}_{3}^{2} \stackrel{=}{=} \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{U}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \stackrel{=}{=} \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{U}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \stackrel{=}{=} \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{U}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \stackrel{=}{=} \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{U}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \stackrel{=}{=} \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{U}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \stackrel{=}{=} \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{U}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \stackrel{=}{=} \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{U}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{$$

Permutation (or alternating or Levi-Civita) symbol

Let
$$e_{ijk} = (e_i \times e_j) \cdot e_k$$

Note:
 $\rightarrow e_{ijk} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i=j \text{ or } j=k \text{ or } k=i \\ +1 & \text{if } (i,j,k) \text{ are } eyclic: 123, 231, 312 \\ -1 & \text{if } (i,j,k) \text{ are } eyclic: 132, 321, 213 \end{cases}$
 $\rightarrow e_{ijk} e_k = \sum_{k=1}^{3} e_{ijk} e_k = [(e_i \times e_j) \cdot e_k] e_k = [e_i \times e_j)$
 $= (e_{ij1} e_1 + e_{ij2} e_2 + e_{ij3} e_3)$
 $= [(e_i \times e_j) \cdot e_1] e_1 + [(e_i \times e_j) \cdot e_2] e_2 + [e_i \times e_j) \cdot e_3] e_3$
 $lomponent of (e_i \times e_j) in e_1$
 $in e_2$
 $in e_3$

Thus cross product:

$$u \times v = u_i v_j (\underline{e}_i \times \underline{e}_i) = \underline{e}_{ijk} u_i v_j \underline{e}_k \quad (Triple sum)$$

Note:

• Scalar Triple product of 3 vectors

 e_1 e_3 $\underline{\mathcal{N}} = \underline{\underline{\mathcal{M}} \times \underline{\mathcal{M}}}_{\|\underline{\mathcal{M}} \times \underline{\mathcal{M}}\|}$ ų U $(\underline{u} \times \underline{v}) \cdot \underline{\omega} = \| \underline{u} \times \underline{v} \| \left(\underline{\omega} \cdot \underbrace{(\underline{u} \times \underline{v})}{\| \underline{u} \times \underline{v} \|} \right)$ $(\underline{u} \times \underline{v}) \cdot \underline{\omega} = (\varepsilon_{ijk} \ u_i \ v_j \ \underline{e_k}) \cdot (w_k \ \underline{e_k})$ $= \varepsilon_{ijk} \ u_i \ \underline{v_j} \ w_k \ (\underline{e_k} \cdot \underline{v_k})$ $= \varepsilon_{ijk} \ u_i \ \underline{v_j} \ w_k \ (\underline{e_k} \cdot \underline{v_k})$ $= \epsilon_{ijk} U_i U_j W_k (\underline{e}_k \cdot \underline{e}_k)$ $(\underline{u}_k \underline{v}) \cdot \underline{w} = \epsilon_{ijk} U_i U_j W_k \qquad \epsilon_k$ Note $\rightarrow (\underline{u} \times \underline{v}) \cdot \underline{w}$ $= (\underline{\omega} \times \underline{u}) \cdot \underline{v} = (\underline{v} \times \underline{\omega}) \cdot \underline{u} = (u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1) w_3$ $= -(\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\omega}) \cdot \underline{v} = -(\underline{\omega} \times \underline{v}) \cdot \underline{u} + (u_2 v_3 - u_3 v_2) \omega_1 + (u_3 v_1 - u_1 v_3) \omega_2$

Tensors

In mechanics we often need more general quantities than just scalars and vectors. Tensors are a generalization of the concept of scalars and vectors



Tensor fields:

Just as scalar and vector fields, we can have tensor fields *i.e.* tensor as a function of position: $T(x) : \mathcal{I}(\underline{x})$ Note that writing a tensor field as T(x) does <u>not</u> mean that T is operating on x. It means that the T(x) is a function of x and still operates on a vector u(x) <u>at that point</u>. Written as: $T(x) \ u(x) = v(x)$ or simply as: $T \ u = v$ Example : $T \ u = v$ $T \ u = v$ $T \ u =$ Properties of a tensor:

Tensor product of two vectors

It is possible to construct a tensor from two vectors by using a special operation called a tensor product:

Let
$$T = \Psi \otimes \Psi$$

such that $T \Psi = (\Psi \otimes \Psi) \Psi$
 $\equiv \Psi (\Psi \cdot \Psi)$
 \otimes is also called dyadic product.
 $T = \Psi \otimes \Psi$
 $In matrix notation: $T = \Psi \otimes \Psi$
such that: $(\Psi \otimes \Psi) \Psi = \Psi (\Psi \cdot \Psi)$
 $\int [\Psi_1] [\Psi_2] \Psi_2 = [\Psi_1] \Psi_2 \Psi_1 \Psi_1$
 $[\Psi_2] \Psi_3] = [\Psi_2] \Psi_1 \Psi_1 \Psi_1$
 $(\text{outer product})[I]$$

Just like any vector can be expressed in terms of basis vectors: $\underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2, \underline{e}_3$: $\underline{u} = u_i \underline{e}_i$ We can also construct basis tensors: $(\underline{e}_i \otimes \underline{e}_j)$ such that $(\underline{e}_i \otimes \underline{e}_j) \underline{e}_{\kappa} = \underline{e}_i (\underline{e}_j \cdot \underline{e}_{\kappa})$ Using this: $T = \overset{3}{\leq} \overset{3}{\leq} T_{ii} (\underline{e}_i \otimes \underline{e}_i)$ $= \underline{e}_i \overset{\delta}{\leq}_{\kappa}$ $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{I}_{i=1}^{3} \mathcal{I}_{i=1}^{3} \operatorname{Tij} \left(\underline{e}_{i} \otimes \underline{e}_{j}\right)$ such that $\overline{J} \underline{u} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ i \neq j \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{3}{\xrightarrow{}}_{j=1}^{j} \operatorname{Tij} \underbrace{e_i \otimes e_j}_{K=1} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ u_K \\ e_K \end{pmatrix} = \operatorname{Tij} \underbrace{u_K} \underbrace{e_i} \begin{pmatrix} e_j \\ e_j \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{2}{\xrightarrow{}}_{K=1}^{j} \underbrace{u_K} \underbrace{e_i} \begin{pmatrix} e_j \\ e_j \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{2}{\xrightarrow{}}_{K=1}^{j} \underbrace{u_K} \underbrace{e_i} \begin{pmatrix} e_j \\ e_i \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{2}{\xrightarrow{}}_{K=1}^{j} \underbrace{u_K} \stackrel{2}{\xrightarrow{}}_{K} \underbrace{u_K} \stackrel{2}{\xrightarrow{u$ - Projection (on a plane): $P = \overline{I} - \underline{n} \otimes \underline{n}$ such that $P \underline{u} = \overline{I} \underline{u} - (\underline{n} \otimes \underline{n}) \underline{u}$ $\underline{v} = \underline{u} - (\underline{u} \cdot \underline{n}) \underline{n}$ P = I − <u>n</u> ⊗ <u>n</u>

• Tensor Composition (product of 2 tensors to get another tensor)



- Tensor transpose





For any 2 arbitrary vectors \boldsymbol{u} and \boldsymbol{w} $\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot (\boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\omega}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot (\boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\omega})$ Note: $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{i} \in \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau}_{j\kappa} \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\kappa} \in \boldsymbol{\omega}_{j} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{m} \in \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot (\boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\omega})$ $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\kappa} \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{i} \quad \boldsymbol{\tau}_{i\kappa} \quad \boldsymbol{\delta}_{ij} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{m} \in \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot (\boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\omega}) \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\ell} \in \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{n}$ $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\kappa} \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{i} \quad \boldsymbol{\tau}_{i\kappa} \quad \boldsymbol{\delta}_{ij} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{m} \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{m} \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\ell} \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{n}$ $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\kappa} \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{i} \quad \boldsymbol{\tau}_{i\kappa} \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\kappa} \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\ell} \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\ell}$

• Symmetric Tensors

$$\underline{\mathcal{U}} \cdot \left(\underbrace{\mathbf{S}}_{\sim} \underbrace{\mathbf{u}}_{\rightarrow} \right) = \underbrace{\mathcal{U}} \cdot \left(\underbrace{\mathbf{S}}_{\times} \underbrace{\mathbf{u}}_{\rightarrow} \right) \implies \underbrace{\mathbf{S}}_{\sim} = \underbrace{\mathbf{S}}_{\sim}^{\mathsf{T}} \qquad (i.e. \quad \mathbf{S}_{ik} = \mathbf{S}_{ki})$$

$$\underline{\mathcal{U}} \cdot (\underline{\mathcal{W}} \underline{\mathcal{U}}) = - \underline{\mathcal{U}} \cdot (\underline{\mathcal{W}}\underline{\mathcal{U}}) \Rightarrow \underline{\mathcal{W}} = - \underline{\mathcal{W}}^{T} \quad (i.e. \ \mathcal{W}_{ik} = - \mathcal{W}_{ki})$$

Note: Any tensor *T* can be expressed as:

$$\overline{J} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\overline{J} + \overline{J}^{T} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\overline{J} - \overline{J}^{T} \right)$$
symmetric skew

Change of coordinate system



In terms of matrices:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varphi_{1} \\ \varphi_{2} \\ \varphi_{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Q_{11} & Q_{21} & Q_{31} \\ Q_{12} & Q_{22} & Q_{32} \\ Q_{13} & Q_{23} & Q_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_{1}' \\ \varphi_{2}' \\ \varphi_{3}' \end{bmatrix} ; \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_{1}' \\ \varphi_{2}' \\ \varphi_{3}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Q_{11} & Q_{12} & Q_{13} \\ Q_{21} & Q_{22} & Q_{23} \\ Q_{31} & Q_{32} & Q_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_{1}' \\ \varphi_{2}' \\ \varphi_{3}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Q_{1} & \varphi_{22} & Q_{23} \\ Q_{31} & Q_{32} & Q_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: [Q] here is a transformation matrix (not a tensor). [Q] is an orthogonal matrix: $[Q][Q]^T = [Q]^T[Q] = [I]$ However a tensor Q can be defined such that $e_i = Q e_i'$

(see problem 13 in Hjelmstad)

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v=Tu

Transformation of Tensors

$$\begin{split} \overline{T}_{i} &= \operatorname{Tij}\left(\underline{e}_{i} \otimes \underline{e}_{j}\right) \sim \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Tin} \operatorname{Ti2} \operatorname{Ti3} \\ \operatorname{T21} \operatorname{T22} \operatorname{T23} \\ \operatorname{T31} \operatorname{T32} \operatorname{T32} \end{bmatrix}_{\left(0,\underline{e}_{1}\underline{e}_{2}\underline{e}_{3}\right)} \\ \overline{T}_{i} &= \operatorname{Tij}\left(\underline{e}_{i} \otimes \underline{e}_{j}\right) \sim \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Ti1}' \operatorname{Ti2}' \operatorname{Ti3} \\ \operatorname{T21}' \operatorname{T22}' \operatorname{T23} \\ \operatorname{T21}' \operatorname{T22}' \operatorname{T23} \\ \operatorname{T21}' \operatorname{T22}' \operatorname{T23} \\ \operatorname{T22}' \operatorname{T23} \\ \operatorname{T22}' \operatorname{T23} \\ \operatorname{T23}' \operatorname{T33} \end{bmatrix}_{\left(0,\underline{e}_{1}\underline{e}_{2}\underline{e}_{3}\right)} \\ \left(\underline{e}_{i},\underline{e}_{1}^{i}\underline{e}_{2}\underline{e}_{3}\right) \\ \overline{T_{21}'} &= \operatorname{T22} \operatorname{T23} \\ \operatorname{T21}' \operatorname{T22} \operatorname{T23} \\ \operatorname{T22}' \operatorname{T23} \\ \operatorname{T23}' \operatorname{T33} \end{bmatrix}_{\left(0,\underline{e}_{1}^{i}\underline{e}_{2}\underline{e}_{3}\right)} \\ \left(\underline{e}_{i},\underline{e}_{1}^{i}\underline{e}_{2}\underline{e}_{3}\right) \\ \end{split}{}_{i}} \\ \\ Note: \text{ Tensor components can be obtained as:} \\ Tij &= \underline{e}_{i} \cdot \left(\overline{T} \underline{e}_{j}\right) = \underline{e}_{i} \cdot \operatorname{Tmn}\left(\underline{e}_{m} \otimes \underline{e}_{m}\right) \underline{e}_{j} = \operatorname{Tmr}\left(\underline{e}_{i} \cdot \underline{e}_{m}\right) \underbrace{e}_{m} \cdot \underline{e}_{j}\right) = \operatorname{Tij} \\ &= \underline{e}_{i} \cdot \left(\overline{T}, \underline{e}_{j}\right) = \underline{e}_{i} \cdot \operatorname{Tmn}\left(\underline{e}_{m} \otimes \underline{e}_{m}\right) \underline{e}_{j} = \operatorname{Tmr}\left(\underline{e}_{m} \cdot \underline{e}_{j}\right) \\ \hline \\ \overline{T_{ij}} = \left(\underline{Q}_{im}^{\mathsf{Tmn}} \operatorname{Tmn} \operatorname{Qnj}\right) \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \operatorname{Tij} = \mathbf{Q}_{im} \operatorname{Tmn}\left(\underline{Q}_{rj}\right) \\ \operatorname{Tmr}\left(\underline{Q}_{rj}\right) \\ \operatorname{Tmr}\left(\underline{Q}_{rj}\right) \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array}$$

Tensor Invariants (Quantities that don't change, no matter which coordinate system is chosen)

Example of an invariant for a vector: 70 magnitude $||\Psi|| = \int \Psi_i \Psi_i$ $\|\Psi\| = \sqrt{\varphi'_i \varphi'_i} = \sqrt{(Q_{im} \varphi_m)(Q_{in} \varphi_n)} = \sqrt{\delta_{nm} \varphi_m \varphi_n}$ Qnit Qim = JU, U. Similarly, a tensor invariant is a function of the tensor f (Tii) components (in any coordinate system): In a different coordinate system, the tensor components would be given by: $T'_{ij} = Q_{im} T_{mn} (Q)_{nj}^{T}$ $f(T_{ij}) = f(T_{ij}) + [Q] \text{ rotation}$ $f(T_{ij}) \qquad (for any)$ For a function to be invariant: Simply referred to as: Primary Invariants \rightarrow fn (I) = $T_{i_1i_2}T_{i_2i_3}T_{i_3i_4}$ ---- $T_{i_ni_1}$ + $T_{i_1i_2}$ Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors of Symmetric Tensors T (**Principal** Invariants) As mentioned earlier, a tensor operates on a vector to 23 produce another vector (by stretching and/or rotating it). However, for a given symmetric tensor, there are some E2 specific vectors (directions) **n** on which the action of the <u>e</u>1 tensor is purely stretching (no rotation).

i.e.
$$\overline{\gamma} \underline{\gamma} = \lambda \underline{\gamma}$$

Note: n_i are orthogonal

 $\lambda_1 \underline{n}_1$

The problem of finding λ and n for a given (symmetric) tensor is called the Eigenvalue problem. To obtain non-trivial solutions ($n \neq 0$):

$$\begin{array}{c} \left(\begin{array}{c} 1\\ 2\end{array}\right) - \lambda \begin{array}{c} 1\\ 2\end{array}\right) \underbrace{n}{2} = Q \\ \Rightarrow \quad det \left(\begin{array}{c} 1\\ 1\end{array}\right) - \lambda \begin{array}{c} 1\\ 2\end{array}\right) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad det \left[\begin{array}{c} T_{11} - \lambda & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} - \lambda & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{32} & T_{33} - \lambda\end{array}\right] = 0 \\ T_{31} = 0 \quad T_{32} = 0 \quad T_{33} = 0$$

<u>∿3 m</u>

This results in a cubic equation for λ called the <u>characteristic equation</u>:

$$-\lambda^3 + I_T \lambda^2 - I_T \lambda + I_T = 0$$

where I_T , II_T , III_T are called the <u>Principal Invariants</u> of **T**:

$$I_{T} = tr(T) = Tii$$

$$II_{T} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(tr(T) \right)^{2} - tr(T^{2}) \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(Tii \right)^{2} - \left(Tij Tji \right) \right]$$

$$III_{T} = det(T) = \frac{1}{6} \text{ Eijk Elmn Til Tjm Tkm}$$

Solving the characteristic equation:

The cubic polynomial equation, in general, will have 3 roots (Eigenvalues): $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ and 3 corresponding Eigenvectors: n_1 , n_2 , n_3

Example:

• By hand (factorizing):

$$\begin{aligned}
I_{-1} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 3^{4} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5^{4} & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 5^{4} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (3-\lambda) \begin{bmatrix} (5-\lambda)(5-\lambda) - 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \\
\Rightarrow & (3-\lambda) \begin{bmatrix} \lambda^{2} - 10\lambda + 24 \end{bmatrix} = 0
\end{aligned}$$
Characteristic equation: $-\lambda^{3} + \underbrace{13\lambda^{2}}_{T_{T}} - \underbrace{54\lambda}_{T_{T}} + \underbrace{72}_{T_{T}} = 0 \\
& I_{T} \qquad II_{T} \qquad II_{T} \qquad II_{T} \qquad A_{I} = 3 \\
& Factorize: \qquad (3-\lambda)(\lambda-6)(\lambda-4) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_{2} = 4 \\
& \lambda_{3} = 6
\end{aligned}$

Corresponding Eigenvectors:
For
$$\lambda_1 = 3$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \underbrace{m_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
For $\lambda_2 = 4$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_3 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \underbrace{m_2 = 1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
For $\lambda_3 = 6$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_3 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \underbrace{m_2 = 1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Using numerical non-linear equation solver (Newton's method) $\int g(\alpha)$ To solve $g(\alpha) = 0$ Expand $g(\alpha; +\Delta\alpha) \cong g(\alpha_i) + \left[\frac{d}{d}g\right] \Delta\alpha$

0

$$\Rightarrow \Delta x = -\frac{g(x_i)}{g'(x_i)} ; x_{i+1} = x_i + \Delta x \qquad x_i = x_{i+1}$$

• Using existing software programs such as MATLAB:

>> $T = [3 \ 0 \ 0 \ ; \ 0 \ 5 \ -1 \ ; \ 0 \ -1 \ 5]$ т = 3 0 0 5 0 -1 5 0 -1 >> [v,d] = eig(T)<u>M</u>3 \mathcal{D}_1 22 **v** = 1.0000 0 -0.7071 -0.7071 0 0 -0.7071 0.7071 d = 3 λ_{1} 0 0 4 72 0 0 0 6 nz 0

Note: The Principal invariants I_T , II_T , III_T of **T** are the coefficients of the characteristic equation:

 λ_3

$$I_T = \implies \text{trace}(\mathbf{T})$$
ans =
$$I_T = \implies 1/2 * ((\text{trace}(\mathbf{T}))^2 - \text{trace}(\mathbf{T}^2))$$
ans =
$$I_T = \implies 54$$

$$I_T = \implies \text{det}(\mathbf{T})$$
ans =
$$72$$

Special cases:



Note: If we express the components of a tensor in a coordinate system that coincides with its principal eigenvectors:
i.e.
$$\underline{e}'_i = \underline{\mathcal{M}}_i$$

Then using Spectral representation:
 $\overline{\mathcal{M}}_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\underline{\mathcal{M}}_i = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix}$

Also note that using this basis (called <u>canonical</u> basis), the principal invariants are simply given as:

$$\begin{split} & \Pi_{T} = \lambda_{1} + \lambda_{2} + \lambda_{3} \\ & \Pi_{T} = \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2} + \lambda_{2}\lambda_{3} + \lambda_{3}\lambda_{1} \\ & \Pi_{T} = \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}\lambda_{3} \end{split}$$

Caley-Hamilton Theorem

An important property of tensors (and matrices) is that they satisfy their own characteristic equation:

$$- \mathcal{I}_{x}^{3} + \mathcal{I}_{T} \mathcal{I}_{z}^{2} - \mathcal{I}_{T} \mathcal{I}_{z} + \mathcal{I}_{T} \mathcal{I}_{z} = \mathcal{D}_{z}$$

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Calculus of Scalars, Vectors and Tensors

As previously noted, scalars, vectors and tensors are quantities that are associated with each point in a body as a field.

They can be expressed as functions of position:

 $\theta(\mathbf{x})$ (scalar) $\underline{\psi}(\mathbf{x})$ (vector) $\underline{\zeta}(\mathbf{x})$ (tensor)

In order to work with fields, we need to use concepts of differential and integral calculus. First recall the following basic concepts in 1D

Scalar function of 1 variable:



<u>Gradient of a scalar field</u>: Direction of maximum change (increase) in value of f(x): (results in a vector field)



Coordinate independent representation of the gradient of a scalar field:

$$\frac{\operatorname{In} \ 3D}{\operatorname{Vel}(B) = 0} \quad \frac{1}{\operatorname{Vel}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B)} \frac{\operatorname{Im} \ 2D}{\operatorname{Area}(B)} \quad \frac{1}{\operatorname{Vel}(B) \to 0} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B) \to 0} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Boundary}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Boundary}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B) \to 0} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B) \to 0} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Boundary}(B)} \int_{\operatorname{Area}(B) \to 0} \int_{A$$

 $\frac{\text{Vector field: vector function of the position vector x in 2D/3D:}}{\text{Example}}$ $\psi(\underline{n}) = (\underline{n}_2 + \underline{n}_3) \underline{c}_1 + (\underline{n}_1 + \underline{n}_3) \underline{c}_2 + (\underline{n}_1 + \underline{n}_2) \underline{c}_3$ $i.e. \quad \underline{r}(\underline{n}) \sim \begin{bmatrix} \underline{n}_2 + \underline{n}_3 \\ \underline{n}_1 + \underline{n}_3 \\ \underline{n}_1 + \underline{n}_2 \end{bmatrix}$ $(\underbrace{1}_{12} \cdot \underline{n})$



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Divergence of a vector field: (results in scalar field)

Measures the change in 'flux' (outflow-inflow) at each point in a vector field.

casures the change in flux (outflow-inflow) at each point in a vector field.

$$div \ \underline{v}(\underline{x}) \equiv \lim_{V \in \mathcal{U}(B) \to 0} \frac{1}{Vol(B)} \int \underline{v}(\underline{x}) \cdot \underline{n} \, dA$$
Note: $\underline{v} \sim \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \end{vmatrix}$

$$\operatorname{div} \ \underline{\nabla}(\underline{a}) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{O}_1}{\partial \mathcal{X}_1} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{O}_2}{\partial \mathcal{X}_2} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{O}_3}{\partial \mathcal{X}_3} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{O}_i}{\partial \mathcal{X}_i} \underbrace{(\underline{a})}_{\text{Comma}} = \underbrace{\nabla \cdot \underline{\nabla}(\underline{a})}_{\text{Or}} = \underbrace{\nabla \cdot \underline{\nabla}(\underline{a})}_{\text{Or}} \underbrace{\partial}_{\partial \mathcal{A}_3}$$

Examples:

$$\rightarrow \underline{\psi}(\underline{n}) = (\underline{n}_2 + \underline{n}_3) \underline{e}_1 + (\underline{n}_1 + \underline{n}_3) \underline{e}_2 + (\underline{n}_1 + \underline{n}_2) \underline{e}_3 \Rightarrow div \underline{\psi}(\underline{n}) = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \underline{\psi}(\underline{n}) = \underline{n}_1 \underline{e}_1 + \underline{n}_2 \underline{e}_2 + \underline{n}_3 \underline{e}_3 = \underline{n} \Rightarrow div \underline{\psi}(\underline{n}) = |\underline{+}|\underline{+}| = 3$$

$$\rightarrow \underline{\psi}(\underline{n}) = \underline{n}_1^2 \underline{e}_1 + \underline{n}_2^2 \underline{e}_2 + \underline{n}_3^2 \underline{e}_3 \Rightarrow div \underline{\psi}(\underline{n}) = 2(\underline{n}_1 + \underline{n}_2 + \underline{n}_3)$$

Curl of a vector field: (results in a vector field)

Measures change in 'circulation' at a point in a vector field.

Gradient of a vector field: (results in a tensor field)

Measures rate of change of vector field in all possible directions.

$$\nabla \varphi (\mathfrak{A}) \equiv \lim_{v \to \infty} \frac{1}{V_{0} (\mathcal{B})} \int \mathcal{Q} \otimes \mathfrak{A} dA$$

$$(\forall \varphi (\mathfrak{A}) \otimes \varphi) \quad \forall \varphi (\mathfrak{B}) \rightarrow \varphi \quad \forall \varphi (\mathfrak{B}) \rightarrow \varphi \quad \forall \varphi (\mathfrak{B}) \quad Arrea (\mathfrak{B})$$

$$(\forall \varphi (\mathfrak{A}) \otimes \varphi) \quad \forall \varphi (\mathfrak{A}) = \underbrace{\frac{\partial \psi_{i}}{\partial \varkappa_{j}} \quad \mathcal{Q}_{i} \otimes \mathcal{Q}_{j}}_{\mathcal{Q}_{j}} \quad - \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \psi_{i} & \psi_{i} & \psi_{i} & \psi_{i} \\ \psi_{2,i} & \psi_{2,2} & \psi_{2,3} \\ \psi_{3,i} & \psi_{3,2} & \psi_{3,3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \psi_{i} & \psi_{i} & \psi_{i} \\ \psi_{i} & \psi_{i} & \psi_{i} & \psi_{i} \end{pmatrix}$$
Examples:
$$\rightarrow \varphi (\mathfrak{A}) = \mathfrak{A} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \nabla \varphi (\mathfrak{A}) = \underbrace{\frac{\partial \varphi_{i}}{\partial \varkappa_{j}}}_{\mathcal{Q}_{i}} \quad \varphi (\mathfrak{A}) = \underbrace{\frac{\partial \varphi_{i}}{\partial \varphi_{i}}}_{\mathcal{Q}_{i}} \quad \varphi (\mathfrak{A}) = \underbrace{\frac{\partial$$

Analogies between vector products and vector field derivatives:

>	Dot:	$\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{\bar{c}}$	- 1	<u>v</u> •⊻	(div)
	Cross:	$\overline{r} \times \overline{r}$	j	$\stackrel{\smile}{\rightharpoonup} \times \underline{\nabla}$	(curl)
->	Dyad :	V @ J	;	⊻⊗⊻	(grad)

Directional derivative of a vector field (gives a vector)

Rate of change of a vector field at a point x in a specific direction n

 $\mathcal{D} \, \underline{\psi} \cdot \underline{\mathcal{M}} = \lim_{\substack{\ell \neq 0 \\ \ell \neq 0}} \frac{\underline{\psi} (\underline{x} + \underline{e} \underline{n}) - \underline{\psi} (\underline{z})}{\underline{e}} = \left[\frac{d}{d\underline{e}} \, \underline{\psi} (\underline{x} + \underline{e} \underline{n}) \right]_{\underline{e} = 0} = \nabla \underline{\psi} \, \underline{n}$

Examples:

Tensor field: tensor function of the position "vector"

Example:

$$\underline{T}(\underline{x}) = (\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}) \underline{I} - 2 \underline{x} \otimes \underline{x}$$

Note: A tensor T(x) may be a non-linear function x, but its action on a vector u(x) is still linear: $\sum_{x} u$

Divergence of a tensor field: (results in a vector field)

$$div (T) \equiv \lim_{V \in V(B) \to 0} \frac{1}{Vol(B)} \int_{Vol(B)} T \underline{n} dA \qquad (= T \underline{\nabla}) \qquad Tijnj$$

$$div (T) = \frac{\partial T}{\partial x_i} \underbrace{e_i}_{i} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (T_{jk} \underbrace{e_j} \otimes \underbrace{e_k}_{i}) \underbrace{e_i}_{\delta x_i} = \frac{\partial T_{ji}}{\partial x_i} \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} = \frac{\partial T_{jj}}{\partial x_i} \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} = \frac{\partial T_{jj}}{\partial x_j} \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} (\underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i}) \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} = \frac{\partial T_{jj}}{\partial x_j} \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} = \frac{\partial T_{jj}}{\partial x_j} \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} (\underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i}) \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} = \frac{\partial T_{jj}}{\partial x_j} \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} (\underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i}) \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} = \frac{\partial T_{jj}}{\partial x_j} \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} (\underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i}) \underbrace{e_j}_{\delta x_i} \underbrace{$$

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$$\begin{split} \vec{\Sigma} &= (\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}) \vec{\Sigma} - 2 \ \underline{x} \otimes \underline{x} \\ &= x_{\kappa} x_{\kappa} \delta_{ij} \underline{e}_{i} \otimes \underline{e}_{j} - 2 \ \underline{x}_{i} x_{j} \underline{e}_{i} \otimes \underline{e}_{j}' \\ follow indicial \\ notation individually \\ div (\underline{T}) &= \frac{\partial (x_{\kappa} x_{\kappa})}{\partial x_{ji}} \delta_{ij} \underline{e}_{i} - 2 \ \frac{\partial (x_{i} x_{j})}{\partial x_{j}} \underline{e}_{i} \\ &= 2 \ \underline{x}_{k'} \delta_{k'} \underline{e}_{i}' - 2 \ \underline{x} \left(\begin{array}{c} \delta_{ij} n_{j'} + n_{i'}' \delta_{jj} \\ \delta_{ij} \end{array} \right) \underline{e}_{i} \\ &= 2 \ \underline{n}_{i} \underline{e}_{i}' - 2 \left(\begin{array}{c} 4 \ n_{i} \end{array} \right) \underline{e}_{i} \\ &= -6 \ \underline{n}_{i} \underline{e}_{i}' = -6 \ \underline{n}_{i} \\ \end{array} \end{split}$$

Integral Theorems

These theorems are generalized versions of the fundamental theorem of calculus.

Divergence theorem (Gauss theorem)
• For vector fields.
$$\int div \ v(\alpha) dV = \int v(\alpha) \cdot m d\alpha$$
 (for any region /
vol (B) Region avec(B)
Example:
Consider $\psi(\alpha) = \chi$; div $v(\alpha) = \chi_{i,i} = 3$
Over a sphere:
 $\int 3 dV = \int \chi$
 $vol \qquad Area$
 $\int \frac{\pi}{||\chi||} d\alpha$
 $\int \sqrt{2R}$
 $\int \frac{\pi}{||\chi||} \frac{\pi}{2R} = \int \frac{R^2}{R} d\alpha = R (4\pi R^2)$
 $\int \sqrt{2R}$
• For gradient of a scalar field: $\int \nabla g dV = \int g m d\alpha$
 $\int \sqrt{Ol(B)}$
• For gradient of a vector field: $\int \nabla g dV = \int g m d\alpha$
 $\int \sqrt{Ol(B)}$
• For a tensor field: $\int div (T_i) dV = \int T_i m d\alpha$
 $\int \sqrt{Ol(B)}$
• For a tensor field: $\int (g \times \psi) dS = \int y \cdot dx$
 $\int \sqrt{Ol(B)}$
• For a tensor field: $\int \sqrt{Q} dV = \int T_i m d\alpha$
 $\int \sqrt{Ol(B)}$
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Green's Theorem (special case of Curl theorem / Stokes' theorem for a plane)

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$$\int \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx dy = \oint M dx + N dy$$

Area(B) Boundary (B)
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