
continuum mechanics

basics

Sep 02, 2025

CONTENTS

I	Continuum Mechanics	3
1	Kinematics	5
1.1	Material points in physical space	5
1.2	Arbitrary points in physical space	6
1.3	Time derivatives of a function from different descriptions	6
1.4	Kinematics of two points	7
1.5	Kinematics in reference space	7
2	Governing Equations	9
2.1	Integral Balance Equations of aaa physical quantities	9
2.2	Differential Balance Equations of aaa physical quantities	11
2.3	Differential Balance Equations of ddd physical quantities	12
2.4	Integral Balance Equations of ddd physical quantities	13
2.5	Jump conditions	13
2.6	Integral Balance Equations in reference space	13
3	Equazioni di stato ed equazioni costitutive	21
4	Equazioni di bilancio di altre grandezze fisiche	23
4.1	Bilanci in forma differenziale, convettiva	23
II	Solid Mechanics	27
5	Introduction to Solid Mechanics	29
6	Small displacement - statics	31
6.1	Linear isotropic elastic medium	31
6.2	Beam models	38
6.3	Beam structures	38
7	Waves in linear elastic homogeneous isotropic media	39
7.1	Navier-Cauchy equation: displacement formulation of the momentum equation	39
7.2	Helmholtz decomposition and sum of waves equation for p and s waves	39
7.3	Fourier decomposition: p is longitudinal, s is transverse	40
8	Modal methods for structural problems	41
8.1	No free rigid motion	41
8.2	With free rigid motion	43
9	Structural damping	45

9.1 Small damping	45
III Fluid Mechanics	49
10 Introduction to Fluid Mechanics	51
11 Statics	53
12 Constitutive Equations of Fluid Mechanics	55
12.1 Newtonian Fluids	55
13 Governing Equations of Fluid Mechanics	57
13.1 Newtonian Fluid	57
13.2 Derived quantities	58
14 Non-dimensional Equations of Fluid Mechanics	61
15 Incompressible Fluid Mechanics	63
15.1 Navier-Stokes Equations	63
15.2 Vorticity	64
15.3 Bernoulli theorems	64
16 Compressible Fluid Mechanics	67
16.1 Compressible Inviscid Fluid Mechanics	67
Proof Index	69

This material is part of the [basics-books project](#). It is also available as a .pdf document.

work-in-progress! Feel free to reach out on Github, leave a comment, a suggestion, a request or contribute

General approach and equations in continuum mechanics are first presented, and then specialized to the most common models of solids - mainly elastic solids - and fluids - mainly Newtonian fluids.

Introduction to Continuum Mechanics

Kinematics of continuum media. Lagrangian, Eulerian and arbitrary descriptions of the motion of continuous media is presented, and kinematic quantities are introduced.

Balance equations of physical quantities. Balance equations of physical quantities are introduced here for continuous media, both in integral and differential forms - in regular domains with “smooth” distribution of physical properties. Reynolds theorem and derivatives of composite functions are exploited to provide Lagrangian, Eulerian and arbitrary descriptions - and their relationship - both for integral and differential equations respectively.

First Lavoisier principle for mass conservation, Newton principles and equations of motion for momentum and angular momentum balance equation, and first principle of thermodynamics or balance equation of total energy are written for closed systems - and derived for arbitrary systems.

The need for constitutive equations and state equations is discussed. Properties of stress tensors and heat conduction flux are described.

Then, balance equations for other physical quantities are derived, e.g. for kinetic energy, internal energy, and entropy. Balance equation of entropy and second principle of thermodynamics prescribe some constraints on stress tensor and heat conduction flux.

Solid Mechanics

Fluid Mechanics

Part I

Continuum Mechanics

KINEMATICS

Let

- \vec{r} the physical space coordinates
- \vec{r}_0 the material coordinates, labels associated to material points of the continuum
- \vec{r}_b arbitrary coordinates, labels associated to arbitrary points - e.g. geometric points

1.1 Material points in physical space

Position. The position in physical space of material points labeled with material coordinates \vec{r}_0 can be written as a function

$$\vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t), \quad (1.1)$$

providing the position in physical space of a material point, as a function of its label \vec{r}_0 and time t .

Velocity. The velocity of each material point is the time-derivative of function (1.1) at constant \vec{r}_0 (since one is interested here in the velocity of material points),

$$\vec{u} = \left. \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial t} \right|_{\vec{r}_0} =: \frac{D\vec{r}}{Dt}, \quad (1.2)$$

having introduced the definition of **material derivative**, $\frac{D}{Dt} := \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right|_{\vec{r}_0}$.

Independent variables

In formula (1.2), independent variables are not explicitly written. If $\vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t)$, the velocity field \vec{u} can be readily written as functions of the same independent variables,

$$\vec{u}_0(\vec{r}_0, t) = \left. \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial t} \right|_{\vec{r}_0}(\vec{r}_0, t),$$

and it provides the velocity field as a function of the material coordinates, namely the **Lagrangian description**, following material points in their evolution in space.

Eulerian description of the problem requires physical properties to be written as functions of physical coordinates, \vec{r} , t . If the inverse transformation of (1.1) exists, it's possible to write $\vec{r}_0(\vec{r}, t)$, and the velocity field as

$$\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{u}_0(\vec{r}_0(\vec{r}, t), t),$$

or, for invertible transformations,

$$\vec{u}_0(\vec{r}_0, t) = \vec{u}(\vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t), t),$$

having used indices to mathematically discern functions of different independent variables, even if they represent the same physical quantity. In many situations, this inverse transformation between the position in physical space and the material coordinates is not well-defined, often for fluid systems or solid mechanics with (very) large deformations: in these cases, it's always (?) possible to update the reference configuration at some closer time instant in order to find a well-defined inverse transformation, if needed.

Acceleration. Acceleration of a material point labeled with material coordinate \vec{r}_0 is the second order derivative of the physical position (1.1) w.r.t. time t keeping \vec{r}_0 constant, or the first order derivative of the velocity (1.2),

$$\vec{a} = \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_0} = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_0} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial \vec{r}} \Big|_t + \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}} = \vec{u} \cdot \nabla \vec{u} + \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}},$$

having written the partial derivative in time at constant physical coordinate \vec{r} as $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$, and the gradient w.r.t. the physical coordinate as $\nabla_{\vec{r}} = \nabla$.

1.2 Arbitrary points in physical space

Following the same process as the one used for *material points*, the position, the velocity and the acceleration of a set of arbitrary points labeled with \vec{r}_b coordinates read

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}(\vec{r}_b, t) \\ \vec{u}_b &= \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_b} \\ \vec{a}_b &= \frac{\partial \vec{u}_b}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_b} = \frac{\partial \vec{u}_b}{\partial t} + \vec{u}_b \cdot \nabla \vec{u}_b \end{aligned}$$

1.3 Time derivatives of a function from different descriptions

Coordinate transformations implies the rules to compute the relations between time derivatives of a field f keeping physical, material or arbitrary coordinates constant, namely

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_0} f(\vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t), t) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}} + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_0} \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{r}} \Big|_t = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}} + \vec{u} \cdot \nabla f \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_b} f(\vec{r}(\vec{r}_b, t), t) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}} + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_b} \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{r}} \Big|_t = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}} + \vec{u}_b \cdot \nabla f \end{aligned}$$

and thus

$$\frac{Df}{Dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_0} f = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}} f + \vec{u} \cdot \nabla f = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{r}_b} f + (\vec{u} - \vec{u}_b) \cdot \nabla f. \quad (1.3)$$

1.4 Kinematics of two points

$$\vec{r}_2(t) - \vec{r}_1(t) = \vec{r}(\vec{r}_{0,2}, t) - \vec{r}(\vec{r}_{0,1}, t)$$

$$\vec{v}_2(t) - \vec{v}_1(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \vec{r}_2(t) - \frac{d}{dt} \vec{r}_1(t)$$

strain velocity tensor

$$\mathbb{D} = \frac{1}{2} [\nabla \vec{u} + \nabla^T \vec{u}] \quad (1.4)$$

1.5 Kinematics in reference space

Let $\vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t)$, it's differential - keeping t constant - reads

$$d\vec{r} = d\vec{r}_0 \cdot \nabla_0 \vec{r} = d\vec{r}_0 \cdot \mathbb{F}$$

or using a Cartesian base in the reference space

$$d\vec{r} = \hat{e}_i^0 dx_k^0 \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial x_k^0} = \hat{e}_i^0 dx_k^0 F_{ki} = \hat{e}_i^0 dx_i.$$

$$|d\vec{r}|^2 = d\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r} = d\vec{r}_0 \cdot \mathbb{F} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T \cdot d\vec{r}_0$$

$$|d\vec{r}|^2 - |d\vec{r}_0|^2 = d\vec{r}_0 \cdot [\mathbb{F} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T - \mathbb{I}] \cdot d\vec{r}_0$$

1.5.1 Strain

Green-Lagrange tensor

Green-Lagrange strain tensor is defined as

$$\epsilon := \frac{1}{2} [\mathbb{F} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T - \mathbb{I}] \quad (1.5)$$

or in Cartesian coordinates in the reference space

$$\epsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} [F_{ik} F_{jk} - \delta_{ij}] = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial x_k^0} \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial x_k^0} - \delta_{ij} \right].$$

Its (material) time derivative reads (**todo** pay attention to vector basis in reference and physical space. Can they be compared/confused?)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D\epsilon_{ij}}{Dt} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{D}{Dt} \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial x_i^0} \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial x_j^0} + \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial x_i^0} \frac{D}{Dt} \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial x_j^0} \right] = \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial v_k}{\partial x_i^0} \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial x_j^0} + \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial x_i^0} \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial x_j^0} \right] = \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial x_l}{\partial x_i^0} \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial x_l} \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial x_j^0} + \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial x_i^0} \frac{\partial x_l}{\partial x_j^0} \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial x_l} \right] \\ &= \frac{\partial x_l}{\partial x_i^0} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v_k}{\partial x_l} + \frac{\partial v_l}{\partial x_k} \right) \right] \frac{\partial x_k}{\partial x_j^0} = \\ &= F_{il} D_{lk} F_{jk}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{D\epsilon}{Dt} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{D\mathbb{F}}{Dt} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T + \mathbb{F} \cdot \frac{D\mathbb{F}^T}{Dt} \right] = \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\nabla_0 \vec{v} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T + \mathbb{F} \cdot \nabla_0^T \vec{v} \right] = \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\mathbb{F} \cdot \nabla \vec{v} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T + \mathbb{F} \cdot \nabla^T \vec{v} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T \right] = \\
 &= \mathbb{F} \cdot \left[\frac{1}{2} (\nabla \vec{v} + \nabla^T \vec{v}) \right] \cdot \mathbb{F}^T = \\
 &= \mathbb{F} \cdot \mathbb{D} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T .
 \end{aligned} \tag{1.6}$$

GOVERNING EQUATIONS

The following process is detailed in the following sections

Integral balance equations for primary physical quantities. First, integral balance equations for closed systems are written as a manifestation of principles of classical mechanics for closed systems, namely mass conservation, second principle of mechanics, and first principle of thermodynamics. Starting from integral balance equations for closed systems (material systems, Lagrange description), Reynolds transport theorem is used to derive integral balance equations for open systems, either stationary in space (control volume, Eulerian description) or with arbitrary motion (arbitrary description).

Differential balance equations for primary physical quantities. Starting from integral balance equations, under the assumption of sufficient regularity of the physical quantities, divergence theorem and arbitrariness of the domain is used to derive differential (local) balance equations of primary physical quantities.

Differential balance equations for derived physical quantities. Starting from differential equations of primary physical quantities, differential balance equations are derived for other physical quantities, as an example kinetic energy, internal energy and entropy.

Integral balance equations for derived physical quantities. Starting from differential balance equations, and exploiting divergence theorem (in the “opposite direction” w.r.t. what has been done before, to get differential from integral equations), integral balance equations are derived for derived quantities.

2.1 Integral Balance Equations of primary physical quantities

Classical physics relies on a small set of principles, usually formulated for closed systems.

- classical physics and chemistry rely on Lavoisier principle, or mass conservation in closed systems
- classical (Newton) mechanics is built on 3 principles:
 - 1st principle, or principle of inertia, dealing with the invariance of classical physics w.r.t. Galileian transformations
 - 2nd principle, or balance of momentum
 - 3rd principle, or action/reaction principle
- classical thermodynamics:
 - 1st principle, or balance of total energy
 - 2nd principle, describing irreversibility or natural tendencies in physical processes - positive dissipation of mechanical (macroscopic) energy and heat transfer “from hot to cold bodies” - in terms of entropy
 - 3rd principle, relating energy, entropy and thermodynamic temperature as positive physical quantity (it sets an absolute zero of the thermodynamic temperature, in the thermodynamic scale of temperature - Kelvin K)
- classical electromagnetism:

- Electric charge conservation
- Maxwell's equations, relating electromagnetic field with charges and currents
- Lorentz's force, acting on charges in an electromagnetic field

Here, electromagnetic processes are not investigated. Dynamical equations for angular momentum and kinetic energy derived in classical mechanics are discussed later: integral balance equation of angular momentum relates changes of angular momentum of the system with external moments acting on it; differential balance equation of angular momentum reduces to the an identity - and thus it adds no information - for **non-polar media**; kinetic energy integral balance relates changes of kinetic energy of the system with the total mechanical power acting on the system, and it can be subtracted from total energy to get internal energy of the system.

2.1.1 Principles of classical mechanics for closed systems - Lagrangian description

Mass balance equation: Lavoisier principle.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho = 0 .$$

Momentum balance equation: 2nd principle of Newton mechanics.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho \vec{u} = \int_{V_t} \rho \vec{g} + \oint_{\partial V_t} \vec{t}_{\hat{n}} .$$

Total energy balance equation: 1st principle of thermodynamics.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho e^t = \int_{V_t} \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{u} + \oint_{\partial V_t} \vec{t}_{\hat{n}} \cdot \vec{u} - \oint_{\partial V_t} \vec{q} \cdot \hat{n} + \int_{V_t} \rho r .$$

2.1.2 Integral balance equations for arbitrary domains - arbitrary description

Using [Reynolds transport theorem](#), time derivative over the material volume V_t can be written in terms of the time derivative over volume v_t in arbitrary motion and a flux contribution across its boundary.

Mass balance equation.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{v_t} \rho + \oint_{\partial v_t} \rho (\vec{u} - \vec{u}_b) \cdot \vec{\hat{n}} = 0 .$$

Momentum balance equation.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{v_t} \rho \vec{u} + \oint_{\partial v_t} \rho \vec{u} (\vec{u} - \vec{u}_b) \cdot \vec{\hat{n}} = \int_{v_t} \rho \vec{g} + \oint_{\partial v_t} \vec{t}_{\hat{n}} .$$

Total energy balance equation.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{v_t} \rho e^t + \oint_{\partial v_t} \rho e^t (\vec{u} - \vec{u}_b) \cdot \vec{\hat{n}} = \int_{v_t} \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{u} + \oint_{\partial v_t} \vec{t}_{\hat{n}} \cdot \vec{u} - \oint_{\partial v_t} \vec{q} \cdot \vec{\hat{n}} + \int_{v_t} \rho r .$$

How to correctly apply Reynolds's transport theorem in continuum mechanics

Apply Reynold's transport both to material volume V_t and arbitrary volume v_t

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} f &= \int_{V_t} \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \oint_{\partial V_t} f \vec{v} \cdot \hat{n} \\ \frac{d}{dt} \int_{v_t} f &= \int_{v_t} \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \oint_{\partial v_t} f \vec{v}_b \cdot \hat{n}\end{aligned}$$

and compare these two expressions, after setting $v_t \equiv V_t$, i.e. considering the material volume at time t coinciding with the arbitrary volume at time t (in general, at any time t there's a different material volume V_t coinciding with the arbitrary volume v_t - i.e. a different set of material particles in the arbitrary volume - but this is not a problem at all in the manipulation),

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t \equiv v_t} f = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{v_t} f + \oint_{\partial V_t \equiv \partial v_t} f(\vec{v} - \vec{v}_b) \cdot \hat{n}.$$

2.1.3 Integral balance equations for control volumes - Eulerian description

Eulerian description of integral balance equations in continuum mechanics relies on stationary control volume, V . Integral balance equations are readily derived from *balance equations for arbitrary volumes* setting the velocity of the boundary of the domain equal to zero, i.e. $\vec{v}_b = \vec{0}$, and the Eulerian control volume equal to the "instantaneously coinciding material volume", $V \equiv V_t$.

Mass balance equation

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho + \oint_{\partial V} \rho \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\hat{n}} = 0.$$

Momentum balance equation

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho \vec{u} + \oint_{\partial V} \rho \vec{u} \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\hat{n}} = \int_V \rho \vec{g} + \oint_{\partial V} \vec{t}_{\vec{n}}.$$

Total energy balance equation.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho e^t + \oint_{\partial V} \rho e^t \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\hat{n}} = \int_V \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{u} + \oint_{\partial V} \vec{t}_{\vec{n}} \cdot \vec{u} - \oint_{\partial V} \vec{q} \cdot \vec{\hat{n}} + \int_V \rho r.$$

2.2 Differential Balance Equations of physical quantities

2.2.1 Balance equation in physical space

In this section, differential form of balance equations is derived using time t and physical coordinate \vec{r} as independent variables of fields representing physical quantities $f(\vec{r}, t)$.

Conservative form - Eulerian description in physical space.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{v}) &= 0 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho \vec{v}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{v} \otimes \vec{v}) &= \rho \vec{g} + \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho e^t) + \nabla \cdot (\rho e^t \vec{v}) &= \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbb{T} \cdot \vec{v}) - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r\end{aligned}\tag{2.1}$$

Convective form - Lagrangian description in physical space. Using vector calculus identities to evaluate partial derivatives of products, mass equation and relation (1.3) to write partial derivative w.r.t. material derivative,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{D\rho}{Dt} &= -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{v} \\ \rho \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} &= \rho \vec{g} + \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} \\ \rho \frac{De^t}{Dt} &= \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbb{T} \cdot \vec{v}) - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r\end{aligned}$$

Proof

todo

Arbitrary description in physical space. Using relation (1.3) to write material derivatives w.r.t. time derivative at constant \vec{r}_b

$$\begin{aligned}\left. \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \right|_{\vec{r}_b} + (\vec{v} - \vec{v}_b) \cdot \nabla \rho &= -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{v} \\ \rho \left. \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} \right|_{\vec{r}_b} + \rho (\vec{v} - \vec{v}_b) \cdot \nabla \vec{v} &= \rho \vec{g} + \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} \\ \rho \left. \frac{\partial e^t}{\partial t} \right|_{\vec{r}_b} + \rho (\vec{v} - \vec{v}_b) \cdot \nabla e^t &= \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbb{T} \cdot \vec{v}) - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r\end{aligned}$$

2.2.2 Balance equations in reference space

In this section, differential form of balance equations is derived using time t and material coordinate \vec{r}_0 as independent variables of fields representing physical quantities $f_0(\vec{r}_0, t) = f(\vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t), t)$, exploiting the change of variables $\vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t)$ and its inverse transformation - assumed to exist (with the same consideration done in the kinematics sections: while it's likely that a global invertible transformation w.r.t. the original reference configuration doesn't exist, limiting the time interval and space domain a "piecewise" invertible transformation w.r.t. intermediate states exists).

2.3 Differential Balance Equations of ddd physical quantities

Balance equations of kinetic energy, internal energy and entropy

$$k = \frac{|\vec{v}|^2}{2}, \quad e = e^t - k, \quad s = \dots$$

Convective form - Lagrangian description in physical space. Kinetic energy equation is derived multiplying the momentum equation by the velocity field; internal energy equation is derived subtracting kinetic energy equation from the total energy equation; entropy equation strongly depends on the constitutive equation of the material, as it's shown for elastic solids and Newtonian fluids

$$\begin{aligned}\rho \frac{Dk}{Dt} &= \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{v} \cdot \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} \\ \rho \frac{De}{Dt} &= \mathbb{T} : \nabla \vec{v} - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r \\ &\dots\end{aligned}$$

Conservative form - Eulerian description in physical space.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho k) + \nabla \cdot (\rho k \vec{v}) &= \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{v} \cdot \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho e) + \nabla \cdot (\rho e \vec{v}) &= \mathbb{T} : \nabla \vec{v} - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r \\ &\dots\end{aligned}$$

Arbitrary description in physical space.

$$\begin{aligned}\rho \left. \frac{\partial k}{\partial t} \right|_{\vec{r}_b} + \rho (\vec{v} - \vec{v}_b) \cdot \nabla k &= \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{v} \cdot \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} \\ \rho \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial t} \right|_{\vec{r}_b} + \rho (\vec{v} - \vec{v}_b) \cdot \nabla e &= \mathbb{T} : \nabla \vec{v} - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r \\ &\dots\end{aligned}$$

2.4 Integral Balance Equations of ddd physical quantities

2.5 Jump conditions

Jump conditions comes from integral balances for an arbitrary domain. These conditions hold both across discontinuities - where fields are not regular enough for differential equations to hold - and in regular domains.

2.6 Integral Balance Equations in reference space

2.6.1 Mass

Integral balance for a material volume V_t reads

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho(\vec{r}, t) dV = \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_0} \rho(\vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t), t) J(\vec{r}_0, t) dV_0 = \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_0} \rho_0(\vec{r}_0, t) J(\vec{r}_0, t) dV_0 = \\ &= \int_{V_0} \frac{D}{Dt} (\rho_0(\vec{r}_0, t) J(\vec{r}_0, t)) dV_0 .\end{aligned}$$

Since the domain V_0 is arbitrary, with some abuse of notation to indicate the density field as ρ , hiding the dependence on the independent variables $\rho_0(\vec{r}_0, t)$, the differential balance in reference space follows

$$\frac{D}{Dt} (\rho J) = 0$$

or

$$\rho J = \rho^0 ,$$

i.e. the product ρJ equals the initial density field ρ^0 , assuming that the determinant of the transformation is $J^0 = 1$, in the reference configuration.

2.6.2 Momentum

Integral balance for a material volume V_t reads

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho \vec{v} dV &= \int_{V_t} \rho \vec{g} + \oint_{\partial V_t} \hat{n} \cdot \mathbb{T} dS \\ \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_0} \rho J \vec{v} dV_0 &= \int_{V_0} \rho J \vec{g} + \oint_{\partial V_t} \hat{n}_0 \cdot (J \mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \mathbb{T}) dS_0 \\ \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_0} \rho^0 \vec{v} dV_0 &= \int_{V_0} \rho^0 \vec{g} + \oint_{\partial V_0} \hat{n}_0 \cdot \Sigma_n dS_0 \\ \int_{V_0} \rho^0 \frac{D}{Dt} \vec{v} dV_0 &= \int_{V_0} \rho^0 \vec{g} + \oint_{V_0} \nabla_0 \cdot \Sigma_n dS_0\end{aligned}$$

Since the domain V_0 is arbitrary, the differential balance in reference space follows

$$\rho^0 \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} = \rho^0 \vec{g} + \nabla_0 \cdot \Sigma_n$$

Nanson's formula

$$\begin{aligned}d\vec{r} &= d\vec{r}_0 \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial \vec{r}_0} = d\vec{r}_0 \cdot \nabla_0 \vec{r} = d\vec{r}_0 \cdot \mathbb{F} \\ dV &= J dV_0 \\ d\vec{r} \cdot \hat{n} dS &= J d\vec{r}_0 \cdot \hat{n}_0 dS_0 \\ d\vec{r}_0 \cdot \mathbb{F} \cdot \hat{n} dS &= J d\vec{r}_0 \cdot \hat{n}_0 dS_0\end{aligned}$$

must be true for all \vec{r}_0 arbitrary, so that

$$\mathbb{F} \cdot \hat{n} dS = J \hat{n}_0 dS_0$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{n} dS &= J \mathbb{F}^{-1} \cdot \hat{n}_0 dS_0 = \\ &= J \hat{n}_0 \cdot \mathbb{F}^{-T} dS_0\end{aligned}$$

Stress tensors

Cauchy stress tensor.

Piola-Kirchhoff I - transpose of normal stress tensors.

Piola-Kirchhoff II

Example 2.6.1 (Relation between description in physical and reference space)

$$\begin{aligned}\rho^0 \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} &= \rho^0 \vec{g} + \nabla_0 \cdot \Sigma_n \\ J \rho \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} &= J \rho \vec{g} + \nabla_0 \cdot \Sigma_n \\ \rho \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} &= \rho \vec{g} + \frac{1}{J} \nabla_0 \cdot \Sigma_n\end{aligned}$$

thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} &= \frac{1}{J} \nabla_0 \cdot \Sigma_n = \\ &= \frac{1}{J} \nabla_0 \cdot (J \mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \mathbb{T})\end{aligned}$$

todo Prove it with derivation!

2.6.3 Kinetic energy

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= \vec{v} \cdot \left\{ \rho^0 \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} - \rho^0 \vec{g} - \nabla_0 \cdot \Sigma_n \right\} = \\ &= \rho^0 \frac{D}{Dt} \frac{|\vec{v}|^2}{2} - \rho^0 \vec{v} \cdot \vec{g} - \vec{v} \cdot \nabla_0 \cdot \Sigma_n = \\ &= \rho^0 \frac{D}{Dt} \frac{|\vec{v}|^2}{2} - \rho^0 \vec{v} \cdot \vec{g} - \nabla_0 \cdot (\vec{v} \cdot \Sigma_n) + \nabla_0 \vec{v} : \Sigma_n \\ &\quad v_i \partial_k^0 \Sigma_{ki} = \partial_k^0 (v_i \Sigma_{ki}) - \partial_k^0 v_i \Sigma_{ki} \\ &\quad dV = J dV_0 \\ &\quad dr_i n_i dS = J dr_k^0 n_k^0 dS_0 \\ &\quad dr_k^0 \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial r_k^0} n_i dS = dr_k^0 J n_k^0 dS_0 \\ &\quad \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial r_k^0} n_i dS = J n_k^0 dS_0 \\ &\quad \underbrace{\frac{\partial r_k^0}{\partial r_j} \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial r_k^0} n_i}_{=\delta_{ij}} dS = J \frac{\partial r_k^0}{\partial r_j} n_k^0 dS_0 \\ &\quad n_j dS = J \frac{\partial r_k^0}{\partial r_j} n_k^0 dS_0 \\ &\quad \mathbb{F} = \hat{e}_k^0 \hat{e}_i^0 \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial r_k^0} \\ &\quad \mathbb{F}^{-1} = \hat{e}_j^0 \hat{e}_k^0 \frac{\partial r_k^0}{\partial r_j} \\ &\quad \mathbb{F}^{-1} \cdot \mathbb{F} = \left(\hat{e}_j^0 \hat{e}_k^0 \frac{\partial r_k^0}{\partial r_j} \right) \cdot \left(\hat{e}_l^0 \hat{e}_i^0 \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial r_l^0} \right) = \hat{e}_j^0 \hat{e}_i^0 \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial r_j} = \hat{e}_j^0 \hat{e}_i^0 \delta_{ij} \\ &\quad \mathbb{F} \cdot \mathbb{F}^{-1} = \left(\hat{e}_l^0 \hat{e}_i^0 \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial r_l^0} \right) \cdot \left(\hat{e}_j^0 \hat{e}_k^0 \frac{\partial r_k^0}{\partial r_j} \right) = \hat{e}_l^0 \hat{e}_k^0 \frac{\partial r_k^0}{\partial r_l} = \hat{e}_l^0 \hat{e}_k^0 \delta_{lk} \\ &\quad \frac{\partial r_k^0}{\partial r_i} \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial r_l^0} = \delta_{kl} \\ &\quad \Sigma := \Sigma_n \cdot \mathbb{F}^{-1} = J \mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \mathbb{T} \cdot \mathbb{F}^{-1} \\ &\quad \Sigma_n = \Sigma \cdot \mathbb{F} \\ &\quad \Sigma_{ik} = \Sigma_{n,ij} (\mathbb{F}^{-1})_{jk} = \Sigma_{n,ij} \frac{\partial r_k^0}{\partial r_j}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Sigma_{n,ij} &= \Sigma_{ik} \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial x_k^0} \\
 \nabla_0 \vec{v} : \Sigma_n &= \frac{D}{Dt} \mathbb{F} : \Sigma_n = \\
 &= \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial x_i^0} \Sigma_{n,ij} = \\
 &= \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial x_i^0} \Sigma_{ik} \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial x_k^0} = \\
 &= \Sigma_{ik} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v_j}{\partial x_i^0} \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial x_k^0} + \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial x_k^0} \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial x_i^0} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

if Σ is symmetric, $\Sigma_{ik} = \Sigma_{ki}$, or with tensor notation

$$\begin{aligned}
 \nabla_0 \vec{v} : \Sigma_n &= \frac{D}{Dt} \mathbb{F} : \Sigma_n = \\
 &= \nabla_0 \vec{v} : (\Sigma \cdot \mathbb{F}) = \\
 &= \Sigma : \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{D\mathbb{F}}{Dt} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T + \mathbb{F} \cdot \frac{D\mathbb{F}^T}{Dt} \right) = \\
 &= \Sigma : \frac{D}{Dt} \mathbb{E} ,
 \end{aligned}$$

having recognized the time derivative (1.6) of the *Green-Lagrange tensor* (1.5).

Integral of the volume stress in the reference space can be recast as the volume in the physical space

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_{V_0} \nabla_0 \vec{v} : \Sigma_n dV_0 &= \int_{V_0} \Sigma : \frac{D\mathbb{E}}{Dt} dV_0 \\
 \Sigma_{n,ik} &= J \frac{\partial x_i^0}{\partial x_k} T_{jk} \\
 \int_{V_0} \nabla_0 \vec{v} : \Sigma_n dV_0 &= \int_{V_0} \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial x_i^0} \Sigma_{n,ik} dV_0 = \\
 &= \int_{V_0} \underbrace{\frac{\partial v_k}{\partial x_i^0} \left(\frac{\partial x_i^0}{\partial x_j} T_{kj} J \right)}_{dV} dV_0 = \\
 &= \int_V \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial x^j} T_{kj} dV = \\
 &= \int_V \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v_k}{\partial x^j} + \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial x^k} \right) T_{kj} dV = \\
 &= \int_V D_{jk} T_{kj} dV = \\
 &= \int_V \mathbb{D} : \mathbb{T} dV .
 \end{aligned}$$

Variational principles

Using an arbitrary test function $\vec{w}(\vec{r}_0)$,

$$0 = \vec{w} \cdot \left\{ \rho^0 \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} - \rho^0 \vec{g} - \nabla_0 \cdot \Sigma_n \right\}$$

and using rule of product

$$w_i \frac{\partial \Sigma_{n,ji}}{\partial x_j^0} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j^0} (w_i \Sigma_{n,ji}) - \frac{\partial w_i}{\partial x_j^0} \Sigma_{n,ji} =$$

and the second term can be transformed using the relation between normal stress and second Piola-Kirchhoff tensor

$$\frac{\partial w_i}{\partial x_j^0} \Sigma_{n,ji} = \frac{\partial w_i}{\partial x_j^0} \Sigma_{jk} \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial x_k^0} = \Sigma_{jk} \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial x_k^0} \frac{\partial w_i}{\partial x_j^0} + \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial x_j^0} \frac{\partial w_i}{\partial x_k^0} \right] = \Sigma_{jk} W_{ij}(\vec{w}),$$

having defined the tensor

$$\mathbb{W}(\vec{w}) := \frac{1}{2} [\nabla_0 \vec{w} \cdot \mathbb{F}^T + \mathbb{F} \cdot \nabla_0^T \vec{w}],$$

with the evident analogy with the time derivative of Green-Lagrange strain tensor, namely

$$\epsilon = \mathbb{W}(\vec{v}),$$

being \vec{v} the velocity field. Integrating on the domain V_0 and using divergence theorem, the problem is written in its weak form

$$\int_{V_0} \left\{ \rho^0 \vec{w} \cdot \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} + \mathbb{W}(\vec{w}) : \Sigma \right\} = \int_{V_0} \rho^0 \vec{w} \cdot \vec{g} + \oint_{\partial V_0} \hat{n}_0 \cdot \Sigma_n \cdot \vec{w},$$

with the proper boundary conditions and the corresponding conditions on the test function \vec{w} . As an example, if the boundary is composed of two different regions, $S_{D,0} \cup S_{N,0} = \partial V_0$, $S_D \cap S_N = \emptyset$ where either position (called S_D from Dirichlet boundary) and stress (called S_N from Neumann boundary) are prescribed

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r} &= \vec{r}_b, & \vec{w} &= \vec{0} & (\text{on } S_{D,0} \text{ Dirichlet - essential - boundary}) \\ \hat{n}_0 \cdot \Sigma_n &= \vec{t}_{0,\hat{n}_0}, & & & (\text{on } S_{N,0} \text{ Neumann - natural - boundary}) \end{aligned}$$

the weak form of the equation reads

$$\int_{V_0} \left\{ \rho^0 \vec{w} \cdot \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} + \mathbb{W}(\vec{w}) : \Sigma \right\} = \int_{V_0} \rho^0 \vec{w} \cdot \vec{g} + \int_{S_{n,0}} \hat{n}_0 \cdot \vec{t}_{\hat{n}_0}$$

2.6.4 Total energy

Using Nanson's relation $\hat{n} dS = \hat{n}_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T}) dS_0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho e^t dV &= \int_{V_t} \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} dV + \oint_{\partial V_t} \vec{t}_{\hat{n}} \cdot \vec{v} dS - \oint_{\partial V_t} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{q} + \int_{V_t} \rho r dV = \\ &= \int_{V_t} \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} dV + \oint_{\partial V_t} \hat{n} \cdot \mathbb{T} \cdot \vec{v} dS - \oint_{\partial V_t} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{q} dS + \int_{V_t} \rho r dV \\ &= \int_{V_0} \rho^0 \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} dV_0 + \oint_{\partial V_0} \hat{n}_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \mathbb{T}) \cdot \vec{v} dS_0 - \oint_{\partial V_0} \hat{n}_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \vec{q}) dS_0 + \int_{V_0} \rho^0 r dV_0. \end{aligned}$$

and the differential form reads

$$\rho^0 \frac{De^t}{Dt} = \rho^0 \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \nabla_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \mathbb{T} \cdot \vec{v}) - \nabla_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \vec{q}) + \rho^0 r .$$

or

$$\rho^0 \frac{De^t}{Dt} = \rho^0 \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \nabla_0 \cdot (\Sigma_n \cdot \vec{v}) - \nabla_0 \cdot \vec{q}_0 + \rho^0 r .$$

and dividing by J and using the relation (**see below**) $\nabla_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \vec{a}) = J \nabla \cdot \vec{a}$,

$$\rho \frac{De^t}{Dt} = \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbb{T} \cdot \vec{v}) - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r .$$

Comparison with equation in physical space (dividing by J) suggests the identity

$$\frac{1}{J} \nabla_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \vec{a}) = \nabla \cdot \vec{a} ,$$

and thus

$$\nabla_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T}) = \vec{0} ,$$

since

$$\nabla_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \vec{a}) = \nabla_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T}) \cdot \vec{a} + J\mathbb{F}^{-T} : \nabla_0 \vec{a} = \nabla_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T}) \cdot \vec{a} + J \nabla \cdot \vec{a}$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} J &= \left| \frac{\partial r_k}{\partial r_i^0} \right| = \varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} \\ (\mathbb{F}^{-T})_{ij} &= \frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} \\ \{\nabla_0 \cdot (J\mathbb{F}^{-T})\}_j &= \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(\varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} \frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} \right) = \\ &= \varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(\frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \right) \frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} \frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} + \varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(\frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \right) \frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} \frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} + \\ &+ \varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(\frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} \right) \frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} + \varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(\frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} \right) = \\ &= \varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \underbrace{\frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(\frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \right)}_{=\frac{\partial}{\partial r_j}} \frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} + \varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \underbrace{\frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(\frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \right)}_{=\frac{\partial}{\partial r_j}} \frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} + \\ &+ \varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \underbrace{\frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(\frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} \right)}_{=\frac{\partial}{\partial r_j}} + \varepsilon_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \frac{\partial r_{i_1}}{\partial r_1^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_2}}{\partial r_2^0} \frac{\partial r_{i_3}}{\partial r_3^0} \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(\frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} \right)}_{=3} = \\ &= 0 , \end{aligned}$$

since

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r_j} \left(\frac{\partial r_{i_k}}{\partial r_k^0} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial r_k^0} \left(\frac{\partial r_{i_k}}{\partial r_j} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial r_k^0} \delta_{i_k j} = 0 .$$

Thus

$$\frac{1}{J} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(J \frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} a_j \right) = \frac{1}{J} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_i^0} \left(J \frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} \right) a_j + \frac{1}{J} J \frac{\partial r_i^0}{\partial r_j} \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial r_i^0} = \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial r_j} = \nabla \cdot \vec{a} .$$

2.6.5 Internal energy

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho e \, dV &= \int_{V_t} \mathbb{T} : \nabla \vec{v} \, dV - \oint_{\partial V_t} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{q} \, dS + \int_{V_t} \rho r \, dV = \\ \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_0} \rho^0 e \, dV_0 &= \int_{V_0} J \mathbb{T} : \nabla \vec{v} \, dV_0 - \oint_{\partial V_0} \hat{n}_0 \cdot (J \mathbb{F}^{-T} \cdot \vec{q}) \, dS_0 + \int_{V_0} \rho^0 r \, dV_0 = \end{aligned}$$

and the differential form reads

$$\rho^0 \frac{De}{Dt} = \Sigma_n : \nabla_0 \vec{v} - \nabla_0 \cdot \vec{q}^0 + \rho^0 r .$$

todo pay attention at the definition - choose one and keep using it! - of the product $\mathbb{A} : \mathbb{B}$, in components

$$\mathbb{A} : \mathbb{B} = A_{ij} B_{ij} \quad \text{or} \quad = A_{ij} B_{ji}$$

EQUAZIONI DI STATO ED EQUAZIONI COSTITUTIVE

EQUAZIONI DI BILANCIO DI ALTRE GRANDEZZE FISICHE

Partendo dai bilanci di massa, quantità di moto e di energia totale, si possono ricare le equazioni di bilancio di altre grandezze fisiche come l'*energia cinetica*, l'*energia interna*, l'*entropia*.

4.1 Bilanci in forma differenziale, convettiva

Energia cinetica. L'energia cinetica (macroscopica) per unità di massa è $k = \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{u}|^2 = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}$. L'equazione di bilancio dell'energia cinetica viene derivata moltiplicando scalarmente l'equazione della quantità di moto

$$\rho \frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = \rho \mathbf{g} + \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} ,$$

per il campo di velocità \mathbf{u} ,

$$\rho \frac{Dk}{Dt} = \rho \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} \cdot \mathbf{u} ,$$

avendo usato $\mathbf{u} \cdot d\mathbf{u} = d\left(\frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{2}\right) = dk$.

Energia interna. L'energia interna per unità di massa è la differenza tra l'energia totale e l'energia cinetica, $e = e^{tot} - k$. L'equazione di bilancio dell'energia interna viene ottenuta come differenza dell'equazione dell'energia totale

$$\rho \frac{De^{tot}}{Dt} = \rho \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbb{T} \cdot \mathbf{u}) - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q} + \rho r ,$$

e quella dell'energia cinetica, per ottenere

$$\rho \frac{De}{Dt} = \mathbb{T} : \nabla \mathbf{u} - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q} + \rho r .$$

Entropia.

- **Entropia nei fluidi.** Se l'entropia può essere scritta come funzione dell'energia interna e della densità, e il primo principio della termodinamica viene scritto come

$$de = \frac{P}{\rho^2} d\rho + T ds ,$$

e il tensore degli sforzi può essere rappresentato come somma degli sforzi di pressione e degli sforzi viscosi **tutto** riferimento alle leggi costitutive,

$$\mathbb{T} = -P\mathbb{I} + \mathbb{S} = -P\mathbb{I} + 2\mu\mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u})\mathbb{I} ,$$

si può ricavare l'equazione di governo dell'entropia usando il differenziale $ds = \frac{1}{T} de - \frac{P}{T\rho^2} d\rho$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho \frac{Ds}{Dt} &= \frac{\rho}{T} \left(\frac{De}{Dt} - \frac{P}{\rho^2} \frac{D\rho}{Dt} \right) = \\
 &= \frac{1}{T} \left(\rho \frac{De}{Dt} - \frac{P}{\rho} \frac{D\rho}{Dt} \right) = \\
 &= \frac{1}{T} \left(\mathbb{T} : \nabla \mathbf{u} - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q} + \rho r - \frac{P}{\rho} (\rho \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}) \right) = \\
 &= \frac{1}{T} (-P \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} + \mathbb{S} : \nabla \mathbf{u} - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q} + \rho r + P \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}) = \\
 &= \frac{1}{T} (\mathbb{S} : \nabla \mathbf{u} - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q} + \rho r) = \\
 &= \frac{1}{T} (2\mu |\mathbb{D}|^2 + \lambda |(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u})|^2 - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q} + \rho r) = \\
 &= \frac{2\mu |\mathbb{D}|^2 + \lambda |(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u})|^2}{T} - \frac{\mathbf{q} \cdot \nabla T}{T^2} - \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\mathbf{q}}{T} \right) + \frac{\rho r}{T},
 \end{aligned}$$

avendo usato la degola del prodotto $\nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\mathbf{q}}{T} \right) = \frac{\nabla \cdot \mathbf{q}}{T} - \frac{\mathbf{q} \cdot \nabla T}{T^2}$.

Gli ultimi due termini sono legati alla **sorgenti di entropia** nel sistema, dovute alla sorgente di calore nel sistema e al flusso di calore tramite la frontiera del sistema.

I primi due termini possono essere ricondotti alla **dissipazione viscosa** e dovuta alla **conduzione termica** all'interno del volume: entrambi devono essere non-negativi per il secondo principio della termodinamica **todo**. Il primo termine è positivo se i coefficienti di viscosità del modello di fluido newtoniano sono non-negativi

$$\mu, \lambda \geq 0$$

. Il secondo termine impone che il flusso di calore avvenga in direzione opposta al gradiente di temperatura locale, e quindi la proiezione su di esso sia negativa (traducendo il concetto che il calore trasferisce energia da un corpo caldo a uno freddo),

$$-\mathbf{q} \cdot \nabla T \geq 0,$$

come è facile da verificare per il modello di Fourier per la conduzione in mezzi isotropi, $\mathbf{q} = -k \nabla T$, $-\mathbf{q} \cdot \nabla T = k |\nabla T|^2 \geq 0$ se

$$k \geq 0.$$

Nel caso di modello lineare per la conduzione in mezzi non isotrpi, il flusso di conduzione può essere descritto usando un tensore del secondo ordine \mathbb{K} , $\mathbf{q} = -\mathbb{K} \cdot \nabla T$ (**todo** simmetria?) e la condizione diventa

$$0 \leq -\nabla T \cdot \mathbf{q} = \nabla T \cdot \mathbb{K} \cdot \nabla T,$$

che impone che il tensore di conduzione sia (semi-)definito positivo, a causa dell'arbitrarietà del vettore ∇T .

Se questi due termini sono non-negativi, il bilancio di entropia può essere riscritto come la disuguaglianza

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho \frac{Ds}{Dt} &= \underbrace{\frac{2\mu |\mathbb{D}|^2 + \lambda |(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u})|^2}{T}}_{\geq 0} - \frac{\mathbf{q} \cdot \nabla T}{T^2} - \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\mathbf{q}}{T} \right) + \frac{\rho r}{T} = \\
 &\geq -\nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\mathbf{q}}{T} \right) + \frac{\rho r}{T},
 \end{aligned}$$

o nella forma integrale per un volume materiale

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho s \geq - \oint_{\partial V_t} \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{q}}{T} + \int_{V_t} \rho \frac{r}{T},$$

che richiama alla mente la disuguaglianza di Clausius **todo** *aggiungere riferimento*

$$dS \geq \frac{\delta Q^e}{T} .$$

La differenza di segno deriva dalla definizione di dQ^e come flusso di calore dall'ambiente verso il sistema e del vettore flusso di calore \mathbf{q} come flusso di calore "uscente dal sistema" **todo**

Part II

Solid Mechanics

INTRODUCTION TO SOLID MECHANICS

SMALL DISPLACEMENT - STATICS

- **Labile - Undetermined.**
- **Isostatic - “determined”.**
- **Hyperstatic - “overdetermined”.**

6.1 Linear isotropic elastic medium

6.1.1 Constitutive equation

An isotropic elastic medium has no preferred orientation. The most general linear relation between stress tensor σ and strain tensor ε , and temperature difference ΔT w.r.t. a reference temperature, $\Delta T := T - T_0$,

$$\sigma = \mathbf{D} : \varepsilon - \beta \Delta T \mathbb{I} ,$$

for isotropic media involves the rank-2 and rank-4 isotropic tensors, see rank-2-iso, and rank-4-iso. Since stress tensor σ and strain tensor ε are symmetric the constitutive law for isotropic elastic media reads

$$\sigma = 2\mu\varepsilon + \lambda \operatorname{tr}(\varepsilon) \mathbb{I} - \beta \Delta T \mathbb{I} , \quad (6.1)$$

being μ, λ the Lamé coefficients.

Decomposition of tensor in hydrostatic (proportional to \mathbb{I}) and deviatoric (traceless) parts reads

$$\sigma = \left(2\mu\varepsilon - \frac{2}{3}\mu \operatorname{tr}(\varepsilon) \mathbb{I} \right) + \left(\lambda + \frac{2}{3}\mu \right) \operatorname{tr}(\varepsilon) \mathbb{I} - \beta \Delta T \mathbb{I} \quad (6.2)$$

The expression of strain tensor ε as a function of stress tensor and temperature difference

$$\varepsilon =$$

can be easily evaluated, using the relation between the traces of the tensors

Different expression of constitutive laws, and sets of parameters.

Remembering that $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbb{I}) = 3$ in the 3-dimensional space, evaluating the trace of the relation (6.1) provides the relation between the traces of strain and stress tensors and the temperature difference

$$\operatorname{tr}(\sigma) = (2\mu + 3\lambda) \operatorname{tr}(\varepsilon) - 3\beta \Delta T ,$$

and thus

$$\text{tr}(\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{2\mu + 3\lambda} \text{tr}(\sigma) + \frac{3\beta}{2\mu + 3\lambda} \Delta T .$$

Using the relation between traces, it's possible to find $\varepsilon(\sigma, \Delta T)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon &= \frac{1}{2\mu} \sigma - \frac{\lambda}{2\mu} \text{tr}(\varepsilon) \mathbb{I} + \frac{\beta}{2\mu} \Delta T \mathbb{I} = \\ &= \frac{1}{2\mu} \sigma - \frac{\lambda}{2\mu} \left[\frac{1}{2\mu + 3\lambda} \text{tr}(\sigma) + \frac{3\beta}{2\mu + 3\lambda} \Delta T \right] \mathbb{I} + \frac{\beta}{2\mu} \Delta T \mathbb{I} = \\ &= \frac{1}{2\mu} \sigma - \frac{\lambda}{2\mu(2\mu + 3\lambda)} \text{tr}(\sigma) \mathbb{I} + \frac{1}{2\mu} \left[1 - \frac{3\lambda}{2\mu + 3\lambda} \right] \beta \Delta T \mathbb{I} = \\ &= \frac{1}{2\mu} \sigma - \frac{\lambda}{2\mu(2\mu + 3\lambda)} \text{tr}(\sigma) \mathbb{I} + \frac{1}{2\mu + 3\lambda} \beta \Delta T \mathbb{I} . \end{aligned}$$

Modulo elastico. Il modulo elastico E è definito dalla relazione

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{E} &= \frac{1}{2\mu} - \frac{\lambda}{2\mu(2\mu + 3\lambda)} = \\ &= \frac{1}{2\mu} \frac{2(\mu + \lambda)}{2\mu + 3\lambda} , \end{aligned}$$

e quindi

$$E = \frac{\mu(2\mu + 3\lambda)}{\mu + \lambda}$$

Modulo di Poisson. Il modulo di Poisson ν è definito dalla relazione

$$\frac{\nu}{E} = \frac{\lambda}{2\mu(2\mu + 3\lambda)} ,$$

e quindi

$$\nu = \frac{\lambda}{2(\mu + \lambda)}$$

Thermodynamics

Helmholtz's free energy is the thermodynamic potential F defined w.r.t. temperature T and generalized displacements \mathbf{X}_i as independent variables. Here **unit-volume** relation (Explain why! Link to general continuum mechanics, and equations in reference coordinates). Using difference of temperature $\Delta T = T - T_0$ w.r.t. a reference temperature T_0 instead of temperature T , differential of Helmholtz's free energy per unit volume for a linear elastic medium reads

$$d\mathcal{F}(\varepsilon_{ij}, \Delta T) = -S d\Delta T + \sigma_{ij} d\varepsilon_{ij} ,$$

so that

$$\sigma_{ij} = \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial \varepsilon_{ij}} \right)_S , \quad S = - \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial T} \right)_{\varepsilon_{ij}} .$$

Using the constitutive law (6.1) for a linear isotropic elastic medium, here written in Cartesian coordinates as

$$\sigma_{ij} = 2\mu \varepsilon_{ij} + \lambda \varepsilon_{kk} \delta_{ij} - \beta \Delta T \delta_{ij} ,$$

integration w.r.t. ε_{ij} gives

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{F}(\varepsilon_{ij}, \Delta T) &= \frac{1}{2} (2\mu \varepsilon_{ij} \varepsilon_{ij} + \lambda \varepsilon_{kk} \varepsilon_{ll}) - \beta \Delta T \varepsilon_{ll} + \mathcal{F}(0, \Delta T) = \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (2\mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} : \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} + \lambda (\text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}))^2) - \beta \Delta T \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) + \mathcal{F}(0, \Delta T)\end{aligned}$$

being $\mathcal{F}(0, \Delta T) = F(\Delta T)$ a function of ΔT appearing from integration in ε_{ij} . If you don't trust this, try to evaluate the partial derivative w.r.t. the components of the strain tensor of the last relation.

Entropy. Entropy is the partial derivative w.r.t. T of Helmholtz's free energy and, assuming constant parameters, its expression reads

$$\mathcal{S}(\varepsilon_{ij}, \Delta T) = - \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial T} \right)_{\varepsilon_{ij}} = \beta \varepsilon_{ll} - F'(\Delta T) .$$

Heat coefficients. Heat coefficient at constant strain per unit-volume reads

$$C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} := T \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{S}}{\partial T} \right)_{\varepsilon_{ij}} = -(T_0 + \Delta T) F''(\Delta T) .$$

Assuming that heat coefficient $C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}$ is independent from T , integration in ΔT gives

$$C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) = -F'(\Delta T) + F'(0) ,$$

and thus an expression for $F'(\Delta T)$

$$F'(\Delta T) = -C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) + F'(0) ,$$

to be inserted in the expression of entropy

$$\mathcal{S}(\varepsilon_{ij}, \Delta T) = \beta \varepsilon_{ll} + C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) - F'(0) ,$$

and $-F'(0) = \mathcal{S}_0$ can be recognized as the entropy per unit volume in the reference condition with $\varepsilon_{ij} = 0$, $\Delta T = 0$. The differential of the last expression reads

$$d\mathcal{S} = \beta d\varepsilon_{ll} + \frac{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}}{T_0} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0}} dT = \beta d\varepsilon_{ll} + \frac{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}}{T} dT$$

or

$$dT = \frac{T}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}} d\mathcal{S} - \frac{\beta T}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}} d\varepsilon_{ll}$$

Further integration in ΔT of

$$F'(\Delta T) = -C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) - \mathcal{S}_0 ,$$

gives an expression of function $F(\Delta T)$,

$$F(\Delta T) - F(0) = -C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \left[(T_0 + \Delta T) \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) - \Delta T \right] - \mathcal{S}_0 \Delta T ,$$

that can be used in the expression of Helmholtz free energy, as an example, as shown later.

Internal energy. The relation between the internal energy and Hemholtz free energy $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{E} - T\mathcal{S}$ allows to find the expression of the internal energy per unit volume of an elastic linear isotropic media,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{E} &= \mathcal{F} + T\mathcal{S} = \\ &= \mu\varepsilon_{ij}\varepsilon_{ij} + \frac{\lambda}{2}(\varepsilon_{kk})^2 - \beta\Delta T\varepsilon_{kk} + F(0) - C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \left[(T_0 + \Delta T) \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) - \Delta T \right] \\ &\quad - \mathcal{S}_0\Delta T + (T_0 + \Delta T) \left(\beta\varepsilon_{ll} + C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) + \mathcal{S}_0 \right) = \\ &= \mu\varepsilon_{ij}\varepsilon_{ij} + \frac{\lambda}{2}(\varepsilon_{kk})^2 + \beta T_0\varepsilon_{kk} + C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}\Delta T + F(0) + T_0\mathcal{S}_0,\end{aligned}$$

so that the reference internal energy and reference Helmholtz free energy can be recognized as

$$\mathcal{F}_0 = F(0) \quad , \quad \mathcal{E}_0 = \mathcal{F}_0 + T_0\mathcal{S}_0,$$

In order to write the differential of the internal energy w.r.t. its natural independent variables $\mathcal{E}(\varepsilon_{ij}, \mathcal{S})$, the temperature difference must be written as a function of strain and entropy. Using relation **todo**, and performing derivatives of the composite function $\mathcal{E}(\varepsilon_{ij}, \Delta T(\varepsilon_{ij}, \mathcal{S}))$

$$\begin{aligned}d\mathcal{E} &= \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial \varepsilon_{ij}} \right)_{\Delta T} d\varepsilon_{ij} + \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial \Delta T} \right)_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \left[\left(\frac{\partial \Delta T}{\partial \varepsilon_{ij}} \right)_{\mathcal{S}} d\varepsilon_{ij} + \left(\frac{\partial \Delta T}{\partial \mathcal{S}} \right)_{\varepsilon_{ij}} d\mathcal{S} \right] = \\ &= (2\mu\varepsilon_{ij} + \lambda\varepsilon_{kk}\delta_{ij} + \beta T_0\delta_{ij}) d\varepsilon_{ij} + C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \left[-\frac{\beta T}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}} \delta_{ij} d\varepsilon_{ij} + \frac{T}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}} d\mathcal{S} \right] = \\ &= (2\mu\varepsilon_{ij} + \lambda\varepsilon_{kk}\delta_{ij} - \beta\Delta T\delta_{ij}) d\varepsilon_{ij} + T d\mathcal{S},\end{aligned}$$

i.e. we found what we should have expected, i.e.

$$d\mathcal{E} = \sigma_{ij} d\varepsilon_{ij} + T d\mathcal{S},$$

and thus

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{ij} &= \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial \varepsilon_{ij}} \right)_T = \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial \varepsilon_{ij}} \right)_{\mathcal{S}} \\ T &= \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial \mathcal{S}} \right)_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \\ \mathcal{S} &= - \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial T} \right)_{\varepsilon_{ij}}\end{aligned}$$

Isothermal and isentropic elastic coefficients

Assuming small enough $\Delta T = T - T_0$ so that linear approximation of the relation between entropy, temperature and strain holds,

$$\Delta \mathcal{S} = \beta\varepsilon_{ll} + \frac{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}}{T_0}\Delta T,$$

it's possible to write the stress tensor as a function of strain and entropy

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma_{ij} &= 2\mu\varepsilon_{ij} + \lambda\varepsilon_{ll}\delta_{ij} - \beta\Delta T\delta_{ij} = \\
 &= 2\mu\varepsilon_{ij} + \lambda\varepsilon_{ll}\delta_{ij} - \beta\left[\frac{T_0}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}}\Delta\mathcal{S} - \frac{T_0}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}}\beta\varepsilon_{ll}\right]\delta_{ij} = \\
 &= 2\mu\varepsilon_{ij} + \left(\lambda + \frac{\beta^2 T_0}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}}\right)\varepsilon_{ll}\delta_{ij} - \beta\frac{T_0}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}}\Delta\mathcal{S} = \\
 &= 2\mu_s\varepsilon_{ij} + \lambda_s\varepsilon_{ll}\delta_{ij} - \beta\frac{T_0}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}}\Delta\mathcal{S}.
 \end{aligned}$$

having defined Lamé coefficients in isentropic conditions as functions of the coefficients in isothermal conditions,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lambda_s &= \lambda + \frac{\beta^2 T_0}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}} \\
 \mu_s &= \mu
 \end{aligned}$$

Elastic modulus and Poisson ratio. Starting from the relations

$$\begin{aligned}
 E &= \frac{\mu(2\mu + 3\lambda)}{\mu + \lambda} \\
 \frac{E}{\nu} &= \frac{2\mu(2\mu + 3\lambda)}{\lambda} \\
 GE + \lambda E &= 2G^2 + 3G\lambda \\
 \lambda &= \frac{G(E - 2G)}{3G - E} \\
 \nu &= \frac{E\lambda}{2G(2G + 3\lambda)} = \\
 &= \frac{\lambda}{2G(2G + 3\lambda)} \frac{G(2G + 3\lambda)}{G + \lambda} = \\
 &= \frac{\lambda}{2(G + \lambda)} = \\
 &= \frac{G(E - 2G)}{3G - E} \frac{1}{2\left(G + \frac{G(E - 2G)}{3G - E}\right)} = \\
 &= \frac{G}{2G} \frac{E - 2G}{3G - E} \frac{3G - E}{3G - E + E - 2G} = \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{E - 2G}{G}.
 \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\nu = \frac{E - 2G}{2G}, \quad G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)}$$

Heat capacity, thermal expansion coefficients, compressibility coefficients

Thermal expansion coefficient reads

$$\alpha_x := \frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_x$$

with $\frac{dV}{V} = d\text{tr}(\varepsilon)$ for small displacement and strain regime. At constant strain, $d\sigma_{ij} = 0$,

$$\alpha_\sigma = \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_{ll}}{\partial T} \right)_\sigma$$

Some algebra

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{3\beta}{2\mu + 3\lambda} = \\ &= 3\beta \frac{2G\nu}{E\lambda} = \\ &= 3\beta \frac{\nu}{(1+\nu)\lambda} = \\ &= 3\beta \frac{\nu}{(1+\nu)} \frac{3G - E}{G(E - 2G)} = \\ &= 3\beta \frac{\nu}{(1+\nu)} \frac{3 - 2(1+\nu)}{G(2(1+\nu) - 2)} = \\ &= 3\beta \frac{\nu}{2G(1+\nu)} \frac{1 - 2\nu}{\nu} = \\ &= 3\frac{\beta}{E}(1 - 2\nu). \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\beta = K\alpha_\sigma = \left(\frac{2}{3}\mu + \lambda \right) \alpha_\sigma = \frac{E}{3(1 - 2\nu)} \alpha_\sigma$$

Heat capacity. The heat capacity at constant strain $C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}$ has been assumed to be constant (or just independent from temperature). Entropy can be written as functions of strain and temperature or - exploiting the relation between traces of tensors - stress and temperature

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S} - \mathcal{S}_0 &= \beta \varepsilon_{ll} + C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) \\ &= \beta \left(\frac{1}{2\mu + 3\lambda} \sigma_{ll} + \alpha_\sigma \Delta T \right) + C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) \\ &= \beta \left(\frac{1}{3K} \sigma_{ll} + \alpha_\sigma \Delta T \right) + C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \ln \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \right) \end{aligned}$$

and thus, constant strain heat capacity per unit volume reads

$$C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} := T \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{S}}{\partial T} \right)_\varepsilon = C_{\varepsilon_{ij}},$$

as defined above, while constant stress heat capacity per unit volume reads

$$\begin{aligned} C_{\sigma_{ij}} &:= T \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{S}}{\partial T} \right)_\sigma = \\ &= T \left(\beta \alpha_\sigma + C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \frac{1}{T_0} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_0}} \right) \\ &= TK\alpha_\sigma^2 + C_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \end{aligned}$$

Compressibility coefficients. *todo check: Below, T or T_0 ? It should be a minor change, since we're assuming small ΔT so that linearized constitutive equation holds?*

$$\begin{aligned}
 K &= \frac{2}{3}\mu + \lambda \\
 K_s &= \frac{2}{3}\mu_s + \lambda_s = \frac{2}{3}\mu + \lambda + \frac{\beta^2 T}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}} = K + \frac{\beta^2 T}{C_{\varepsilon_{ij}}} = K + \frac{K^2 \alpha_\sigma^2 T}{C_\varepsilon} \\
 K_s &= K \left(1 + \frac{\alpha_\sigma^2 K T}{C_\varepsilon} \right) \\
 \rightarrow \frac{1}{K_s} &= \frac{1}{K} \frac{C_\varepsilon}{C_\sigma} \\
 \rightarrow \frac{1}{K_s} &= \frac{1}{K} \frac{C_\sigma - \alpha_\sigma^2 K T}{C_\sigma} \\
 \rightarrow \frac{1}{K_s} &= \frac{1}{K} - \frac{\alpha_\sigma^2 T}{C_\sigma}
 \end{aligned}$$

Elastic modulus and Poisson ratio.

$$E_s = \frac{E}{1 - E \frac{\alpha_\sigma^2 T}{9C_\sigma}} \quad , \quad \nu_s = \frac{\nu + E \frac{\alpha_\sigma^2 T}{9C_\sigma}}{1 - E \frac{\alpha_\sigma^2 T}{9C_\sigma}}$$

Some algebra

$$\begin{aligned}
 K &= \lambda + \frac{2}{3}G = \\
 &= \frac{GE - 2G^2}{3G - E} + \frac{2}{3}G = \\
 &= G \frac{3E - 6G + 6G - 2E}{3(3G - E)} = \frac{EG}{3(3G - E)} \\
 E &= \frac{9GK}{3K + G} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{3G} + \frac{1}{9K}} \\
 E_s &= \frac{1}{\frac{1}{3G_s} + \frac{1}{9K_s}} = \\
 &= \frac{1}{\frac{1}{3G} + \frac{1}{9K} - \frac{\alpha_\sigma^2 T}{9C_\sigma}} = \\
 &= \frac{\left(\frac{1}{3G} + \frac{1}{9K} \right)^{-1}}{\left(\frac{1}{3G} + \frac{1}{9K} - \frac{\alpha_\sigma^2 T}{9C_\sigma} \right) \left(\frac{1}{3G} + \frac{1}{9K} \right)^{-1}} = \\
 &= \frac{E}{1 - E \frac{\alpha_\sigma^2 T}{9C_\sigma}} =
 \end{aligned}$$

Fix admonition reference

Isotropic tensor

An isotropic tensor is a tensor whose components do not change after a rotation of the vector basis. **todo** *Examples,...*

Rank-2 isotropic tensor

The most general expression of a rank-2 isotropic tensor is proportional to the rank-2 identity tensor, and can be written in a Cartesian basis using the Kroeneker delta,

$$a\mathbf{I} = a\delta_{ij}\hat{e}_i \otimes \hat{e}_j .$$

todo *Proof*

Rank-4 isotropic tensor

The most general expression of a rank-4 isotropic tensor can be written using a Cartesian basis as

$$\mathbf{D} = D_{ijkl}\hat{e}_i \otimes \hat{e}_j \otimes \hat{e}_k \otimes \hat{e}_l ,$$

where

$$D_{ijkl} = a\delta_{ij}\delta_{kl} + b\delta_{ik}\delta_{jl} + c\delta_{il}\delta_{jk} ,$$

i.e. depends on three possible combinations of rank-2 identity tensor, with 3 scalar parameters, a , b , c . In isotropic relation between symmetric tensors, $A_{ij} = A_{ji}$, $B_{kl} = B_{lk}$ only two parameters are enough since

$$\begin{aligned} A_{ij} &= D_{ijkl}B_{kl} = \\ &= (a\delta_{ij}\delta_{kl} + b\delta_{ik}\delta_{jl} + c\delta_{il}\delta_{jk}) B_{kl} = \\ &= a\delta_{ij}B_{ll} + bB_{ij} + cB_{ji} = \\ &= a\delta_{ij}B_{ll} + (b + c)B_{ij} , \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

having used (1) the symmetry of tensor \mathbf{B} , $B_{ji} = B_{ij}$.

References.

- Fluid Mechanics, R. Fitzpatrick, University of Texas, Austin
 - P.G. Hodge, *On Isotropic Cartesian Tensors*, 1961, The American Mathematical Monthly
-

6.2 Beam models

6.3 Beam structures

WAVES IN LINEAR ELASTIC HOMOGENEOUS ISOTROPIC MEDIA

7.1 Navier-Cauchy equation: displacement formulation of the momentum equation

Momentum balance equation in differential form for continuous media in the small-displacement regime

$$\rho_0 \partial_{tt} \mathbf{s} = \rho_0 \mathbf{g} + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} .$$

- Introducing the constitutive equation for linear elastic homogeneous isotropic media,

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = 2\mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} + \lambda \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \mathbf{I} ,$$

- using the definition of the strain tensor

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{2} [\nabla \mathbf{s} + \nabla^T \mathbf{s}] ,$$

- and under the assumption of no volume force $\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{0}$,

the momentum equation becomes

$$\rho_0 \partial_{tt} \mathbf{s} = \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{s} + (\mu + \lambda) \nabla \nabla \cdot \mathbf{s} ,$$

7.2 Helmholtz decomposition and sum of waves equation for p and s waves

Displacement field can be written using [Helmholtz decomposition](#) as the sum of a potential $\mathbf{s}_p = \nabla \phi$ (s.t. $\nabla \times \nabla \phi = \mathbf{0}$) and a divergence-free $\mathbf{s}_s = \nabla \times \mathbf{a}$ (s.t. $\nabla \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$) part,

$$\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{s}_p + \mathbf{s}_s = \nabla \phi + \nabla \times \mathbf{a} .$$

Introducing the last expression in the momentum equation, using vector identity

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{v} = \nabla \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} - \nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{v} ,$$

the equation can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{0} &= \rho_0 \partial_{tt} \nabla \phi - (2\mu + \lambda) \nabla^2 \nabla \phi + \rho_0 \partial_{tt} \nabla \times \mathbf{a} + \mu \nabla^2 \nabla \times \mathbf{a} = \\ &= \rho_0 \partial_{tt} \mathbf{s}_p - (2\mu + \lambda) \nabla^2 \mathbf{s}_p + \rho_0 \partial_{tt} \mathbf{s}_s - \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{s}_s , \end{aligned}$$

i.e. as the “sum of two wave equations” for the potential part \mathbf{s}_p and the divergence-free part \mathbf{s}_s of the displacement. Speed of propagation of p - and s -displacement read

$$c_p = \sqrt{\frac{2\mu + \lambda}{\rho_0}} , \quad c_s = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\rho_0}} .$$

7.3 Fourier decomposition: p is longitudinal, s is transverse

Using **Fourier decomposition** of fields as sum of harmonic plane waves,

$$\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_{\mathbf{k}, \omega} \mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{k}, \omega} e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} ,$$

it's immediate to prove that the potential part can be associated to a longitudinal perturbation (i.e. with displacement in the same direction of the wave vector \mathbf{k} , representing the direction of propagation of the perturbation, while the divergence-free part can be associated to a transverse perturbation (i.e. with displacement orthogonal to the wave vector \mathbf{k}). Helmholtz's decomposition of the field in Fourier domain reads

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{r}, t) &= \sum_{\mathbf{k}, \omega} \mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{k}, \omega} e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} = \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{k}, \omega} (\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{k}, \omega}^p + \mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{k}, \omega}^s) e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} = \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{k}, \omega} (i \mathbf{k} \phi_{\mathbf{k}, \omega} + i \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{k}, \omega}) e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} = . \end{aligned}$$

For each individual harmonic contribution, the potential part is thus proportional, i.e. aligned, to wave vector \mathbf{k} ,

$$\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{k}, \omega}^p = i \mathbf{k} \phi_{\mathbf{k}, \omega} ,$$

while the divergence-free is orthogonal, and thus transverse, w.r.t. the direction of wave propagation,

$$\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{k}, \omega}^s = i \mathbf{k} \cdot (\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{k}, \omega}) = 0 .$$

MODAL METHODS FOR STRUCTURAL PROBLEMS

$$\mathbf{M}\ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f} .$$

8.1 No free rigid motion

If a structure has no free rigid motion, the stiffness matrix of mechanical systems is symmetric **definite positive**.

Spectral decomposition of the problem.

$$[s_i^2 \mathbf{M} + \mathbf{K}] \hat{\mathbf{u}}_i = \mathbf{0} ,$$

or in index and matrix form

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= s_i^2 M_{jk} U_{ki} + K_{jk} U_{ki} = \\ &= \mathbf{M}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}^2 + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{U} , \end{aligned}$$

with the diagonal matrix \mathbf{S} collecting the eigenvalues,

$$\mathbf{S} = \text{diag} \{s_i\} .$$

Properties. For eigenvectors with different eigenvalues,

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}_j^* \mathbf{M} \hat{\mathbf{u}}_i = 0 \quad , \quad \hat{\mathbf{u}}_j^* \mathbf{K} \hat{\mathbf{u}}_i = 0 .$$

Nodal and modal unknowns. The nodal vector can be written as a combination of modes, being \mathbf{q} the vector of modal amplitudes,

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{q} = [\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1 | \dots | \hat{\mathbf{u}}_N] \mathbf{q} .$$

Laplace domain. In Laplace domain

$$\begin{aligned} [s^2 \mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{M} \mathbf{U} + \mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{K} \mathbf{U}] \mathbf{q}(s) &= \mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{f}(s) \\ \text{diag} [s^2 m_i + k_i] \mathbf{q}(s) &= \mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{f}(s) . \end{aligned}$$

Modal damping Adding modal damping, with simultaneous diagonalization with mass and stiffness matrices,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{diag} [s^2 m_i + s c_i + k_i] \mathbf{q}(s) &= \mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{f}(s) \\ \mathbf{q}(s) &= \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_i (s^2 + 2\xi_i \omega_i s + \omega_i^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{f}(s) . \end{aligned}$$

The original equation becomes

$$[s^2 \mathbf{M} + s \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{K}] \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f} ,$$

with

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{M} &= \mathbf{U} \text{diag} \{m_i\} \mathbf{U}^* \\ \mathbf{C} &= \mathbf{U} \text{diag} \{c_i\} \mathbf{U}^* \\ \mathbf{K} &= \mathbf{U} \text{diag} \{k_i\} \mathbf{U}^*\end{aligned}$$

and the eigenproblem reads

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{0} &= [s_i^2 \mathbf{M} + s_i \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{K}] \hat{\mathbf{u}}_i \\ \mathbf{0} &= \mathbf{M} \mathbf{U} s^2 + \mathbf{C} \mathbf{U} s + \mathbf{K} \mathbf{U}\end{aligned}$$

Nodal vector. Nodal vector thus reads

$$\mathbf{u}(s) = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{q}(s) = \mathbf{U} \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_i(s^2 + 2\xi_i \omega_i s + \omega_i^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{f}(s)$$

and the internal forces usually derived from a manipulation of the term $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{u}(s)$,

$$\mathbf{K} \mathbf{u}(s) = \mathbf{K} \mathbf{U} \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_i(s^2 + 2\xi_i \omega_i s + \omega_i^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{f}(s) .$$

8.1.1 Dimension reduction

Modal unknowns can usually be partitioned in slow (dynamical, resolved) and fast modes (with natural frequencies well above the frequency content of the forcing, and the dynamics of the system; can be treated as static modes),

$$\mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_s \\ \mathbf{q}_f \end{bmatrix} ,$$

and the sum of their contributions give the nodal unknown,

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{q} = [\mathbf{U}_s \quad \mathbf{U}_f] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_s \\ \mathbf{q}_f \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{U}_s \mathbf{q}_s + \mathbf{U}_f \mathbf{q}_f .$$

Truncation and direct recovery of loads

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_s(s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s + \omega_s^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{U}_f \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_f(s^2 + 2\xi_f \omega_f s + \omega_f^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_f^* \mathbf{f}$$

Mode acceleration and static recovery of fast modes

Static approximation of fast modes gives

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u} &= \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_s(s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s + \omega_s^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{U}_f \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_f(s^2 + 2\xi_f \omega_f s + \omega_f^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_f^* \mathbf{f} = \\ &= \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_s(s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s + \omega_s^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{U}_f \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_f \omega_f^2} \right] \mathbf{U}_f^* \mathbf{f}\end{aligned}$$

and adding and subtracting the static response of the slow modes,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{u} &= \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_s(s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s + \omega_s^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} - \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_s \omega_s^2} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} + \\
 &+ \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_s \omega_s^2} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{U}_f \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_f \omega_f^2} \right] \mathbf{U}_f^* \mathbf{f} = \\
 &= \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{-s^2 - 2\xi_s \omega_s s}{m_s \omega_s^2 (s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s + \omega_s^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} - \mathbf{U} \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_i \omega_i^2} \right] \mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{f} + \\
 &= \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{-s^2 - 2\xi_s \omega_s s}{m_s \omega_s^2 (s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s + \omega_s^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} - \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{f} \\
 &= \dots \\
 &= -\mathbf{U}_s (\mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{K} \mathbf{U}_s)^{-1} \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_s (s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s + \omega_s^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} - \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{f} . \\
 \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{-s^2 - 2\xi_s \omega_s s}{m_s \omega_s^2 (s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s + \omega_s^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} &= \\
 = \mathbf{U}_s \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{k_s} \right] \text{diag} [m_s (s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s)] \text{diag} \left[\frac{1}{m_s (s^2 + 2\xi_s \omega_s s + \omega_s^2)} \right] \mathbf{U}_s^* \mathbf{f} &=
 \end{aligned}$$

...todo...

8.2 With free rigid motion

Free rigid degrees of freedom are associated with vectors of the kernel of the stiffness matrix. The stiffness matrix is singular...

STRUCTURAL DAMPING

As a first approximation, a large number of structures can be treated as undamped structures that, if constrained so that there's no rigid motion allowed, can be represented by the second order system

$$\mathbf{M}\ddot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{f} ,$$

being mass and stiffness matrices \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{K} that are positive definite, and symmetric if derived as an example from a Lagrangian formulation of the problem.

todo Add reference to Lagrange mechanics and its properties in the classical mechanics bbooks.

This kind of systems are conveniently described using **modal basis**, as modes (or free/natural modes of vibrations) are orthogonal w.r.t. both mass and stiffness matrix.

todo Add reference; add comment: diagonal, or diagonalizable with coincident eigenvectors.

Free response using modal basis

9.1 Small damping

Structural small damping can be treated as a first order perturbation of the undamped system,

$$\mathbf{M}\ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f} ,$$

or in Laplace domain

$$[s^2\mathbf{M} + s\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{K}]\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f} .$$

Here two assumptions are made and justified later:

- matrix \mathbf{C} is (semi)positive symmetric
- matrix \mathbf{C} becomes diagonal in the modal basis, i.e. modal basis simultaneously diagonalize mass, damping and stiffness matrices

If these two assumption holds, using the modal base collected in matrix \mathbf{U} ,

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{q} ,$$

the diagonalization reads

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{f} &= \mathbf{U}^T \{ \mathbf{M}\ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{u} \} = \\ &= \text{diag}\{m_i\}\ddot{\mathbf{q}} + \text{diag}\{c_i\}\dot{\mathbf{q}} + \text{diag}\{k_i\}\mathbf{q} = \\ &= \text{diag}\{m_i\ddot{q}_i + c_i\dot{q}_i + k_i q_i\} . \end{aligned}$$

being $m_i := \mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{u}_i$, $c_i := \mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u}_i$, $k_i := \mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{K} \mathbf{u}_i$, the modal mass, damping and stiffness.

(Semi)definite positive damping matrix

Starting from the equations of motion

$$\mathbf{M}\ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f} ,$$

the kinetic energy and the mechanical energy balance is derived (**todo** add references) with scalar multiplication by $\dot{\mathbf{u}}$. For constant matrices,

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{C} \dot{\mathbf{u}} + \dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{K} \mathbf{u} &= \dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{f} \\ \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{M} \dot{\mathbf{u}} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{K} \mathbf{u} \right] &= \dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{f} - \dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{C} \dot{\mathbf{u}} \\ \frac{d}{dt} (K + V) &= \dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{f} - \underbrace{\dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{C} \dot{\mathbf{u}}}_{D \geq 0} , \end{aligned}$$

having recognized $D = \dot{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{C} \dot{\mathbf{u}} \geq 0$ as the dissipation from damping, that can't make the mechanical energy of the system $K + V$ increase. This condition implies that \mathbf{C} is (semi)definite positive.

Diagonal damping in modal basis

Let's write here the perturbed free damped system in Laplace domain using modal basis,

$$[s^2 \mathbf{M} + s \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{K}] \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0} ,$$

and evaluate the derivative of this relation w.r.t. a parameter p associated to the damping, and not influencing mass or stiffness properties, $\mathbf{M}_{/p} = \mathbf{0}$, $\mathbf{K}_{/p} = \mathbf{0}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{0} &= \{ [s^2 \mathbf{M} + s \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{K}] \mathbf{u} \}_{/p} = \\ &= [(2s \mathbf{M} + \mathbf{C}) s_{/p} + s \mathbf{C}_{/p}] \mathbf{u} + [s^2 \mathbf{M} + s \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{K}] \mathbf{u}_{/p} . \end{aligned}$$

Let's investigate the effect of small damping on the eigensolution (s_i, \mathbf{u}_i) . Exploiting the symmetry of the matrices of the system (following from the assumed simultaneous diagonalization of the damping matrix $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{U} \text{diag}\{c_i\} \mathbf{U}^*$), and evaluating the dot product of the latter relation for the i -th eigensolution with the eigenvector \mathbf{u}_i ,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \mathbf{u}_i^T \left\{ [(2s_i \mathbf{M} + \mathbf{C}) s_{i/p} + s_i \mathbf{C}_{/p}] \mathbf{u}_i + [s_i^2 \mathbf{M} + s_i \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{K}] \mathbf{u}_{i/p} \right\} = \\ &= \mathbf{u}_i^T [(2s_i \mathbf{M} + \mathbf{C}) s_{i/p} + s_i \mathbf{C}_{/p}] \mathbf{u}_i + \underbrace{\mathbf{u}_i^T [s_i^2 \mathbf{M} + s_i \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{K}] \mathbf{u}_i}_{=0} = \end{aligned}$$

it follows that the derivative of the i^{th} eigenvalue w.r.t. the parameter p reads

$$s_{i/p} = - \frac{s_i \mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{C}_{/p} \mathbf{u}_i}{\mathbf{u}_i^T (2s_i \mathbf{M} + \mathbf{C}) \mathbf{u}_i} .$$

This derivative evaluated for the reference undamped condition $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{0}$ becomes

$$s_{i/p} = - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{C}_{/p} \mathbf{u}_i}{\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{u}_i} = - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{C}_{/p} \mathbf{u}_i}{m_i} ,$$

having recognized the modal mass $m_i := \mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{u}_i$ associated to the i^{th} mode. Now, let's evaluate the derivative of the eigenvalue s_i w.r.t. the components of the damping matrix \mathbf{C} , i.e. $\mathbf{C}_{/C_{jk}}$ that is a matrix full of zero, except for the component (j, k) equal to one,

$$s_{i/C_{jk}} = - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{C}_{/C_{jk}} \mathbf{u}_i}{m_i} = - \frac{1}{2} \frac{u_j^{(i)} u_k^{(i)}}{m_i} ,$$

and the first order polynomial expansion of s_i in coefficients C_{jk} reads

$$\begin{aligned} s_i &= s_{i,0} + s_{i/C_{jk}} C_{jk} = \\ &= s_{i,0} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{u_j^{(i)} C_{jk} u_k^{(i)}}{m_i} = \\ &= s_{i,0} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u}_i}{m_i}. \end{aligned}$$

From this expression, it's possible to deduce that the i^{th} eigenvalue of the slightly damped system differs from the i^{th} eigenvalue of the undamped system $s_{i,0} = \mp j\omega_i$ of a real non-positive (as $\mathbf{C} \geq 0$ for dissipative damping actions) term $\Delta s_i = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u}_i}{m_i} \in \mathbb{R}$, $\Delta s_i \leq 0$, depending only on the damping matrix and the i^{th} mode. This term shifts the eigenvalue s_i to the left in the complex plane, and thus makes it asymptotically stable.

As the variation Δs_i only depends on the i^{th} eigenvector, and not on other eigenvectors, the assumption of siultaneously diagonalizable damping matrix is consistent with the results from this assumption.

Part III

Fluid Mechanics

INTRODUCTION TO FLUID MECHANICS

- Statics and definition of fluids, as medium that has no shear stress at rest.
- Kinematics
- Dynamics
- Models:
 - Incompressible flows
 - * Governing equations, theorems and regimes of motion
 - Inviscid
 - Irrotational
 - Compressible flows
 - * Inviscid
 - * ...

STATICS

The behavior of continuous medium in static conditions can be used to define a fluid.

Definition 11.1 (Fluid)

A fluid can be defined as a continuous medium with no shear stress in static conditions. Thus, the stress tensor of an *isotropic fluid* under static conditions reads

$$\mathbb{T}^s = -p\mathbb{I} ,$$

where p is *pressure*. (**todo** mechanical? Thermodynamical?)

CONSTITUTIVE EQUATIONS OF FLUID MECHANICS

12.1 Newtonian Fluids

A Newtonian fluid is the model of a fluid as a continuous medium whose stress tensor can be written as the sum of the hydrostatic pressure stress tensor $-p\mathbb{I}$ - the only contribution holding in *statics* - and a viscous stress tensor \mathbb{S}

$$\mathbb{T} = -p\mathbb{I} + \mathbb{S} ,$$

and the viscous stress tensor is isotropic and **linear** in the first-order spatial derivatives of the velocity field,

$$\mathbb{S} = 2\mu\mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{u})\mathbb{I} , \quad (12.1)$$

being μ, λ the viscosity coefficients, and \mathbb{D} the strain velocity tensor (1.4). Thus, the definition

Definition 12.1.1 (Newtonian fluid)

A Newtonian fluid is a continuous medium whose stress tensor reads

$$\mathbb{T} = -p\mathbb{I} + 2\mu\mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{u})\mathbb{I} . \quad (12.2)$$

Note: The expression (12.1) of the viscosity stress tensor is the most general expression of a 2-nd order symmetric isotropic tensor proportional to 1-st order derivatives of a vector field.

GOVERNING EQUATIONS OF FLUID MECHANICS

13.1 Newtonian Fluid

The differential conservative form of the governing equations of a *Newtonian fluid* directly follows from the expression (2.1) of *governing equations of a continuum medium in differential form*,

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{v}) = 0 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho \vec{v}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{v} \otimes \vec{v}) = \rho \vec{g} + \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho e^t) + \nabla \cdot (\rho e^t \vec{v}) = \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbb{T} \cdot \vec{v}) - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r \end{cases}$$

using the expression (12.2) of the stress tensor of a Newtonian fluid,

$$\mathbb{T} = -p\mathbb{I} + 2\mu\mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{v})\mathbb{I},$$

a constitutive equation for conduction heat flux \vec{q} , as an example **Fourier's law**

$$\vec{q} = -k\nabla T,$$

and the required state equations characterizing the behavior of the medium linking thermodynamic variables (assumption of **local thermodynamic equilibrium** *todo discuss this principle*), and required to get a well-defined mathematical problem, with the same number of equations and unknowns.

Example 13.1.1 (Equations of state)

As an example, the required equations of states need to provide an expression of thermodynamic quantities as a function of the dynamical physical quantities. This could be quite a common choice in numerical methods using conservative form of the equations. Namely, defining momentum and total energy per unit volume

$$\vec{m} := \rho \vec{v} \quad , \quad E^t := \rho e^t,$$

equations of state should provide the expression of pressure p , temperature T , viscosity coefficients μ , ν and thermal conductivity k as functions of “dynamic quantities” ρ , \vec{m} , E^t ,

$$\begin{aligned} p(\rho, \vec{m}, E^t) \\ T(\rho, \vec{m}, E^t) \\ \mu(\rho, \vec{m}, E^t) \\ \lambda(\rho, \vec{m}, E^t) \\ k(\rho, \vec{m}, E^t) \end{aligned}$$

Usually, in thermodynamics pressure and temperature can be written as functions of other two thermodynamic variables, as an example density ρ and internal energy (per unit mass)

$$e = e^t - \frac{|\vec{v}|^2}{2} = \frac{E^t}{\rho} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{|\vec{m}|^2}{\rho^2}$$

so that - avoiding here notation abuses and using two different symbols for functions with different independent variables representing the same physical quantity -,

$$\begin{aligned}\Pi(\rho, e) &= \Pi\left(\rho, \frac{E^t}{\rho} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{|\vec{m}|^2}{\rho^2}\right) = p(\rho, \vec{m}, E^t) \\ \Theta(\rho, e) &= \Theta\left(\rho, \frac{E^t}{\rho} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{|\vec{m}|^2}{\rho^2}\right) = T(\rho, \vec{m}, E^t)\end{aligned}$$

13.2 Derived quantities

Balance equations of kinetic energy and internal energy readily follows from balance equations of continuum media in convective form.

Kinetic energy.

Internal energy.

$$\begin{aligned}\rho \frac{De}{Dt} &= \mathbb{T} : \nabla \vec{v} - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r = \\ &= (-p\mathbb{I} + 2\mu\mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{v})\mathbb{I}) : \nabla \vec{v} - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r = \\ &= -p\nabla \cdot \vec{v} + 2\mu\mathbb{D} : \mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{v})^2 - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r\end{aligned}$$

Details

todo

Entropy equation. The first principle of thermodynamics for non-reactive fluid, with no electric charge and other processes, provides the expression of the differential of entropy as a function of internal energy and density, $s(e, \rho)$

$$de = T ds + \frac{P}{\rho^2} d\rho \quad , \quad ds = \frac{1}{T} de - \frac{P}{T\rho^2} d\rho \quad ,$$

and thus the balance equation for entropy directly follows from the evaluation of the material derivative of entropy field, exploiting balance equations of mass and internal energy

$$\begin{aligned}\rho \frac{Ds}{Dt} &= \frac{1}{T} \left[\rho \frac{De}{Dt} - \frac{P}{\rho} \frac{D\rho}{Dt} \right] = \\ &= \frac{1}{T} \left[-p\nabla \cdot \vec{v} + 2\mu\mathbb{D} : \mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{v})^2 - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r - \frac{P}{\rho} (-\rho\nabla \cdot \vec{v}) \right] = \\ &= \frac{1}{T} [2\mu\mathbb{D} : \mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{v})^2 - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r] = \\ &= \frac{2\mu\mathbb{D} : \mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{v})^2}{T} - \frac{\vec{q} \cdot \nabla T}{T^2} - \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\vec{q}}{T} \right) + \frac{\rho r}{T} = \\ &= \frac{2\mu\mathbb{D} : \mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{v})^2}{T} + \frac{k|\nabla T|^2}{T^2} - \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\vec{q}}{T} \right) + \frac{\rho r}{T} .\end{aligned}$$

Details

$$\nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\vec{q}}{T} \right) = \frac{\nabla \cdot \vec{q}}{T} - \frac{\vec{q} \cdot \nabla T}{T^2}$$

Second principle of thermodynamics and continuum mechanics. Second principle of thermodynamics implies some constraints on the behavior of continuous media, and thus on the constitutive equations. Namely, Clausius statement of the second principle reads

$$dS \geq \frac{\delta Q}{T} ,$$

i.e. the variation of entropy is greater or equal to the ratio of the heat flux added to the system and the temperature of the system itself. This can be written for a simple homogeneous system, or for a composite systems where physical quantities are not homogeneous in space **todo** ref

Integral form of balance equation of entropy of a system reads

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho s = \int_{V_t} \left\{ \frac{2\mu \mathbb{D} : \mathbb{D} + \lambda (\nabla \cdot \vec{v})^2}{T} + \frac{k |\nabla T|^2}{T^2} \right\} - \underbrace{\oint_{\partial V_t} \frac{\vec{q}}{T} \cdot \hat{n} + \int_{V_t} \frac{\rho r}{T}}_{* \frac{\delta Q}{T} *},$$

and Clausius statement of the second principle implies

$$0 \leq \frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_t} \rho s - \left(- \oint_{\partial V_t} \frac{\vec{q}}{T} \cdot \hat{n} + \int_{V_t} \frac{\rho r}{T} \right) = \int_{V_t} \left\{ \frac{2\mu \mathbb{D} : \mathbb{D} + \lambda (\nabla \cdot \vec{v})^2}{T} + \frac{k |\nabla T|^2}{T^2} \right\} ,$$

and, since this must hold for any volume V_t and state of the system - namely every velocity and temperature field - and thermodynamic temperature is positive, it follows that

$$\mu \geq 0 \quad , \quad \lambda \geq 0 \quad , \quad k \geq 0$$

Example 13.2.1 (Sign of physical quantity)

todo pay attention, that temperature, viscosity coefficients and thermal conductivity have physical dimensions...explain the meaning of positive physical quantities (scalar, w.r.t. a unit of measurement)...

NON-DIMENSIONAL EQUATIONS OF FLUID MECHANICS

If $\rho(P, s)$,

$$d\rho = \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial P} \right)_s dP + \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial s} \right)_P ds$$
$$\begin{cases} \frac{D\rho}{Dt} + \rho \nabla \cdot \vec{v} = 0 \\ \rho \frac{D\vec{v}}{Dt} = \rho \vec{g} + \nabla \cdot (-p\mathbb{I} + 2\mu\mathbb{D} + \lambda(\nabla \cdot \vec{v})\mathbb{I}) \\ \rho \frac{De^t}{Dt} = \rho \vec{g} \cdot \vec{v} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbb{T} \cdot \vec{v}) - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \rho r \end{cases}$$

INCOMPRESSIBLE FLUID MECHANICS

Chapter of a introductory course in incompressible fluid mechanics:

- statics
- kinematics
- governing equations
- non-dimensional equations
- vorticity dynamics
- low- Re exact solutions
- high- Re flows, incompressible inviscid irrotational flows:
 - vorticity dynamics and Bernoulli theorems
 - aeronautical applications
- boundary layer
- instability and turbulence

15.1 Navier-Stokes Equations

The kinematic constraints (link to *Non-dimensional Equations of Fluid Mechanics?*)

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{v} = 0$$

replaces mass balance in the governing equation and implies $\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = 0$, i.e. all the material particles have constant density in time.

If ...

$$\begin{cases} \rho \left[\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \nabla \vec{u} \right] - \mu \nabla^2 \vec{u} + \nabla P = \rho \vec{g} \\ \nabla \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \end{cases} \quad (15.1)$$

with the proper initial conditions, boundary conditions and - if required - *compatibility conditions*.

Compatibility condition

A compatibility condition is needed if the velocity field is prescribed on the whole boundary ∂V of the domain V ,

$$\vec{u} \Big|_{\partial V} = \vec{b}_n .$$

The compatibility condition reads

$$\oint_{\partial V} \vec{b} \cdot \hat{n} = 0 ,$$

to ensure that the boundary conditions are consistent with the incompressibility constraint, as it is readily proved using divergence theorem on the velocity field in V ,

$$0 \equiv \int_V \underbrace{\nabla \cdot \vec{u}}_{=0} = \oint_{\partial V} \vec{u} \cdot \hat{n} = \oint_{\partial V} \vec{b} \cdot \hat{n} .$$

15.2 Vorticity

A dynamical equation for vorticity $\vec{\omega} := \nabla \times \vec{u}$ readily follows taking the curl of Navier-Stokes equations (15.1)

$$\frac{D\vec{\omega}}{Dt} = (\vec{\omega} \cdot \nabla) \vec{u} + \nu \Delta \vec{\omega} , \quad (15.2)$$

i.e. vorticity can be stretched-tilted by the term $(\vec{\omega} \cdot \nabla) \vec{u}$, or diffused by the term $\nu \Delta \vec{\omega}$.

...

15.3 Bernoulli theorems

For an incompressible fluid, the advective term $(\vec{u} \cdot \nabla) \cdot \vec{u}$ can be recasted as

$$(\vec{u} \cdot \nabla) \cdot \vec{u} = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{u} + \nabla \frac{|\vec{u}|^2}{2} ,$$

so that the momentum equation in Navier-Stokes equations (15.1) for fluids with uniform density ρ reads

$$\rho \left[\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{u} + \nabla \frac{|\vec{u}|^2}{2} \right] - \mu \Delta \vec{u} + \nabla P = \rho \vec{g} . \quad (15.3)$$

Starting from the form (15.3), different forms of Bernoulli theorems are readily derived with the proper assumptions.

Theorem 15.3.1 (Bernoulli theorem along path and vortex lines in steady flows)

In a steady incompressible inviscid flow with conservative volume forces, $\vec{g} = -\nabla \chi$, the Bernoulli polynomial is constant along path (everywhere tangent to the velocity field, $\hat{t}(\vec{r}) \parallel \vec{u}(\vec{r})$) and vortex lines (everywhere tangent to the vorticity field, $\hat{t}(\vec{r}) \parallel \vec{\omega}(\vec{r})$), i.e. the directional derivative of the Bernoulli polynomial in the direction of the velocity or the vorticity field is identically zero,

$$\hat{t} \cdot \nabla \left(\frac{|\vec{u}|^2}{2} + \frac{P}{\rho} + \chi \right) = 0 .$$

The proof readily follows taking the scalar product with a unit-norm vector \hat{t} parallel to the local velocity or vorticity, and noting that $\hat{t} \cdot \vec{u} \times \vec{\omega}$ is zero if either $\hat{t} \parallel \vec{v}$ or $\hat{t} \parallel \vec{\omega}$.

Theorem 15.3.2 (Bernoulli theorem in irrotational inviscid steady flows)

In a steady incompressible inviscid irrotational flow with conservative volume forces, $\vec{g} = -\nabla\chi$, the Bernoulli polynomial is uniform in the whole domain, since its gradient is identically zero

$$\nabla \left(\frac{|\vec{u}|^2}{2} + \frac{P}{\rho} + \chi \right) = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{|\vec{u}|^2}{2} + \frac{P}{\rho} + \chi = 0 .$$

Theorem 15.3.3 (Bernoulli theorem in irrotational inviscid flows)

In an incompressible inviscid irrotational flow with conservative volume forces, $\vec{g} = -\nabla\chi$, the Bernoulli polynomial is uniform in the connected irrotational regions of the domain - but not constant in time in general - , since its gradient is identically zero

$$\nabla \left(\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \frac{|\vec{u}|^2}{2} + \frac{P}{\rho} + \chi \right) = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \frac{|\vec{u}|^2}{2} + \frac{P}{\rho} + \chi = C(t) .$$

being ϕ the velocity potential used to write the irrotational velocity field as the gradient of a scalar function $\vec{u} = \nabla\phi$.

Note: The assumption of inviscid flow is not directly required if irrotationality holds. Anyway the inviscid flow assumption may be required to make irrotationality condition holds. Looking at the vorticity equation (15.2) the assumption of negligible viscosity prevents diffusion of vorticity from rotational regions to irrotational regions.

Note: A barotropic fluid is defined as a fluid where the pressure is a function of density only, $P(\rho)$. For this kind of flows it's possible to find a function Π so that

$$d\Pi = \frac{dP}{\rho} .$$

The results of this section derived for a uniform density flow hold for a barotropic fluid as well, replacing $\frac{P}{\rho}$ with Π .

COMPRESSIBLE FLUID MECHANICS

16.1 Compressible Inviscid Fluid Mechanics

16.1.1 Shocks

16.1.2 Quasi-1d flows

If no shock occurs in the flow, Euler equations in differential form governs the dynamics of the flow

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t \rho + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u}) = 0 \\ \partial_t (\rho \vec{u}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u} \otimes \vec{u} + P \mathbb{I}) = 0 \\ \partial_t (\rho e^t) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u} h^t) = 0 \end{cases}$$

Quasi-1d model for steady flows is a simple model that provides good-enough results for flows delimited by streamlines that varies gently in the streamwise direction (or by solid walls, in the limit of the high-Reynolds flow without separations, where viscous effects are confined to a thin region - boundary layer - close to the walls).

This model is derived integrating over the sections of the stream tube, so that the physical quantities are functions of the streamwise coordinate x only. Integration over an elementary volume between sections at x and $x + dx$ of the mass and momentum equations, in steady conditions, gives

$$\begin{cases} d(\rho u A) = 0 \\ d(\rho u^2 A) + d(PA) + \int_{S_{lat}(x, dx)} P n_x = 0, \end{cases}$$

where the last equation comes from the contribution of the lateral surfaces, that has non zero contribution in the streamwise component of momentum equation if sections is not constant, and thus the unit normal vector \hat{n} on the lateral surface has non-zero x -component n_x . This contribution on the elementary lateral surface (where pressure is assumed to be uniform), can be evaluated summing and subtracting the contributions on the $A(x)$ and $A(x + dx)$ surface,

$$\underbrace{\int_{S_{lat}(x, dx)} P n_x + P(A + dA) - PA - P(A + dA) + PA}_{=P \oint_{\partial V} n_x = 0} = -P dA$$

Thus the equations become

$$\begin{cases} 0 = d(\rho u A) = 0 \\ 0 = d(\rho u^2 A) + A dP = \rho u A du + A dP, \end{cases}$$

having used the mass equation to simplify the first term in the momentum equation, since

$$d(\rho u^2 A) = \underbrace{d(\rho u A)}_{=0} u + \rho u A du.$$

Now, from momentum equation a relation from changes in velocity and pressure holds

$$\rho u du = -dP .$$

If the flow is isentropic (i.e. negligible viscous effects, no heat conduction, no shocks), $s = \bar{s}$, the definition of the speed of sound

$$c^2(\rho, s) = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial \rho} \right)_s ,$$

can be used to write a relation between changes in pressure and density $dP = c^2 d\rho$. Using this formula and mass equation $d(\rho u A) = 0$, it's possible to write relations between physical quantities and the variation of the section of the stream tube. Mass equation can be recast as

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{dA}{A} + \frac{d\rho}{\rho} + \frac{du}{u} = \\ &= \frac{dA}{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{dP}{\rho} + \frac{du}{u} = \\ &= \frac{dA}{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{dP}{\rho} - \frac{dP}{\rho u^2} \end{aligned}$$

and thus, introducing Mach number $M := \frac{u}{c}$,

$$\frac{dA}{A} = (1 - M^2) \frac{dP}{\rho u^2} = -(1 - M^2) \frac{du}{u} .$$

From this equation, it's immediate to realize that:

- for subsonic flows $M < 1$, if section of the stream tube increases, $dA > 0$, thus velocity decreases $du < 0$, and pressure increases $dP > 0$, and viceversa
- for supersonic flows $M > 1$, if section of the stream tube increases, $dA > 0$, thus velocity increases $du > 0$, and pressure decreases $dP < 0$

PROOF INDEX

definition-0

definition-0 (*ch/fluids/statics*), 53

example-0

example-0 (*ch/fluids/governing-equations*), 57

example-1

example-1 (*ch/fluids/governing-equations*), 59

theorem-0

theorem-0 (*ch/fluids/incompressible*), 64

theorem-1

theorem-1 (*ch/fluids/incompressible*), 65

theorem-2

theorem-2 (*ch/fluids/incompressible*), 65