Lecture 6 - Orientation Averaging

Dr. Nicholas Smith

Wichita State University, Department of Aerospace Engineering

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#### schedule

- Feb 18 Orientation Averaging (HW2 Due)
- Feb 23 Variational Calculus
- Feb 25 Variational Calculus (HW3 Due)
- Mar 2 Physical measurements

#### outline

- orientation averaging
- closure approximations
- variational calculus

# orientation average

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#### orientation tensor

- Within a given volume, a distribution of fibers can be defined by some orientation distribution function,  $\psi(\theta, \phi)$ .
- Advani and Tucker introduced tensor representations of fiber orientation distribution functions

$$a_{ij} = \oint p_i p_j \psi(p) dp$$

And

$$a_{ijkl} = \oint p_i p_j p_k p_l \psi(p) dp$$

 Note: any order tensor may be defined in this manner, the orientation distribution function must be even, due to fiber symmetry, and thus any odd-ordered tensor will be zero.

# orientation averaging

- Consider T(p) to be some tensor property of a material, as a function of material orientation
- The orientation average of T(p) is denoted by angle brackets and is given by

$$\langle T \rangle = \oint T(p)\psi(p)dp$$

 For a uni-directional fiber, we would expect \( \T \) to be transversely isotropic, which for a second-order tensor requires

$$\langle T_{ii} \rangle = A_1 \langle p_i p_i \rangle + A_2 \delta_{ii}$$

• but  $\langle n, n_i \rangle$  is the second-order orientation tensor

# orientation averaging

 Similarly, if T is a fourth-order tensor property then transverse isotropy requires that

$$\begin{split} \langle T_{ijkl} \rangle &= B_1 a_{ijkl} + B_2 (a_{ij} \delta_{kl} + a_{kl} \delta_{ij}) + \\ B_3 (a_{ik} \delta_{jl} + a_{il} \delta_{jk} + a_{jl} \delta_{ik} + a_{jk} \delta_{il}) + \\ B_4 (\delta_{ij} \delta_{kl}) + B_5 (\delta_{ik} \delta_{jl} + \delta_{il} \delta_{jk}) \end{split}$$

- We can solve for  $B_{\alpha}$  by considering fibers aligned in the three-direction, we have a3333 = 1 and all other aijkl = 0.
- We can choose any values of i, j, k, l that would give 5 unique equations to solve equations for B<sub>o</sub>

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# orientation averaging

 Here we will consider T1111, T3333, T1122, T2233, T1313.

$$T_{1111} = B_4 + 2B_5$$

$$T_{3333} = B_1 + 2B_2 + 4B_3 + B_4 + 2B_5$$

$$T_{1122} = B_4$$

$$T_{2233} = B_2 + B_4$$

$$T_{1313} = B_3 + B_5$$

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• After some manipulation, we find

$$\begin{split} B_1 &= T_{1111} + T_{3333} - 2T_{2233} - 4T_{1313} \\ B_2 &= T_{2233} - T_{1122} \\ B_3 &= T_{1313} - \frac{1}{2} (T_{1111} - T_{1122}) \\ B_4 &= T_{1122} \\ B_5 &= \frac{1}{2} (T_{1111} - T_{1122}) \end{split}$$

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# closure approximations

#### closure approximations

- While theoretically any-order orientation tensor is possible, in practice only the second-order tensor is used
- Microscopic measurements do not give enough information for higher-order tensors to be useful
- Software simulations have not implemented the fourth-order tensor
- To predict stiffness, we need the fourth-order tensor
- Closure Approximations are a way to approximate the fourth-order tensor from the second-order tensor

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# linear closure approximate

• For 3D orientations, the linear approximation is given by

$$\begin{aligned} a_4^I &= -\frac{1}{35} (\delta_{ij} \delta_{kl} + \delta_{ik} \delta_{jl} + \delta_{il} \delta_{jk}) + \\ \frac{1}{7} (a_{ij} \delta_{kl} + a_{ik} \delta_{jl} + a_{il} \delta_{jk} + a_{kl} \delta_{ij} + a_{jl} \delta_{ik} + a_{jk} \delta_{il}) \end{aligned}$$

■ For planar orientations we simply replace the two coefficients with  $-\frac{1}{24}$  and  $\frac{1}{6}$ 

#### quadratic closure

• We can also use a quadratic closure method

$$a_4^q = a_{iikl}$$

- If the fibers are randomly aligned, the linear closure will give the exact result
- If the fibers are perfectly oriented, the quadratic closure will give the exact result

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#### hybrid closure

- Advani proposed a hybrid closure to take advantage of both the linear and quadratic methods
- We will introduce a parameter f and use it to combine both linear and quadratic closures

$$a_4^h = (1 - f)a_4^l + fa_4^q$$

- Ideally, we would like f to be 1 for perfectly oriented fibers and 0 for random fibers
- Advani proposes

$$f = Aa_{ij}a_{ji} - B$$

• Where A = 3/2 and B = 1/2 for 3D orientations and A =

#### orthotropic fitted closure

- A more recent method that is commonly used is known as the orthotropic fitted closure
- The fourth-order tensor is approximated in the principal direction, then rotated back out if necessary
- In the principal direction, the fourth-order tensor will be orthotropic (represented in 6x6 as)

$$A_4 = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ A_{12} & A_{22} & A_{23} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ A_{13} & A_{23} & A_{33} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & A_{44} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & A_{55} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & A_{66} \end{bmatrix}$$

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# orthotropic fitted closure

- The symmetry of the orientation tensor requires that A66 (which is a1212) be equal to A12 (which is a1122).
- By the same symmetry, we have A55 = A13 and A44 = A23.
- We also know that aijkk = aij, which imposes the following equations:

$$A_{11} + A_{66} + A_{55} = a_{11}$$

$$A_{66} + A_{22} + A_{44} = a_{22}$$

$$A_{55} + A_{44} + A_{33} = a_{33}$$

#### orthotropic fitted closure

- This leaves only three independent variables in the fourth-order tensor that need to be found.
- Different authors have proposed different functions to fit these three independent variables
- They are fit to give the best mold simulation predictions, but do not necessarily have any physical application

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#### discrete calculations

 To compare with our laminate analogy we can calculate the orientation tensor for discrete orientation states

$$a_{ij} = \frac{1}{N} \sum p_i p_j$$

for second-order tensors and

$$a_{ijkl} = \frac{1}{N} \sum p_i p_j p_k p_l$$

#### example

- Compare Mori-Tanaka stiffness predictions for direct calculation and orientation averaging
- Compare [0/90]S,  $[\pm 45]S$ , and  $[0/\pm 45/90]S$
- link<sup>1</sup>
- Also compare the results with a closure approximation of the fourth-order tensor

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#### variational calculus

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>http://nbviewer.jupyter.org/github/ndaman/multiscale/blob/master/examples/Orientation%20Averaging.ipynb

#### differential and variational statements

- A differential statement includes a set of governing differential equations established inside a domain and a set of boundary conditions to be satisfied along the boundaries
- A variational statement is to find stationary conditions for an integral with unknown functions in the integrand
- Variational statements are advantageous in the following aspects
  - Clear physical meaning, invariant to coordinate system
  - Can provide more realistic descriptions than differential statements (concentrated loads)
  - More easily suited to solving problems numerically or approximately
  - Can be more systematic and consistent than building a set of differential equations

# stationary problems

- If the function F(u1) is defined on a domain, then at  $\frac{dF}{du} = 1$  it is considered to be stationary
- This stationary point could be a minimum, maximum, or saddle point
- We use the second derivative to determine which of these it is: >0 for a minimum, <0 for a maximum and =0 for a saddle point
- For a function of n variables, F(un) the stationary points are

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial u_i} = 0$$

for all values of i - and to determine the type of stationary point we use

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# lagrange multipliers

 Let us now consider a function of several variables, but the variables are subject to a constraint

$$f(u_1, u_2, ...) = 0$$

- Algebraically, we could use each provided constraint equation to reduce the number of variables
- For large problems, it can be cumbersome or impossible to eliminate some variables
- The Lagrange Multiplier method is an alternative, systematic approach

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# lagrange multiplier

 For a constrained problem at a stationary point we will have

$$dF = \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_1} du_1 + ... + \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_n} du_n = 0$$

 The relationship between dui can be found by differentiating the constraint

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_1} du_1 + ... + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_n} du_n = 0$$

 We can combine these two equations using a Lagrange Multiplier

# lagrange multiplier

- The Lagrange Multiplier,  $\lambda$  is an arbitrary function of ui
- We can choose the Lagrange Multiplier such that

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial u_n} + \lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_n} = 0$$

Which now leaves

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial u_i} + \lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_i} = 0 \qquad i = 1, 2, ..., n - 1$$

• We now define a new function  $F^* = F + \lambda f$ 

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# lagrange multiplier

- This converts a constrained problem in n variables to an unconstrained problem in n + 1 variables
- Notice that while the stationary values of F\* will be the same as the stationary values to F, they will not necessarily correspond
- For example, a minimum in  $F^*$  might be a maximum in F
- This provides a systematic method for solving problems with any number of variables and constraints, and is also well-posed for numeric solutions

# example

- Design a box with given surface area such that the volume is maximized
- The box has no cover along one of the surfaces (open-face box)
- This gives the surface area as A = xy + 2 yz + 2 xz = C
- worked example<sup>2</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>http://nbviewer.jupyter.org/github/ndaman/multiscale/blob/master/examples/Lagrange%20Multipliers.ipynb