

Remark 2.4

In the case of continuous motions, from the material derivative of an integral formula (1.2.5) and the continuity equation (2.7) we get

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{dt} \int_D (\rho F) dV = \int_D \left[\frac{d}{dt} (\rho F) + \rho F \operatorname{div} \vec{v} \right] dV =} \\ = \int_D \left[\rho \frac{dF}{dt} + F \left(\frac{dp}{dt} + \rho \operatorname{div} \vec{v} \right) \right] dV = \boxed{\int_D \rho \frac{dF}{dt} dV} \quad (2.10)$$

We will use this formula when deriving the balance equations.

Definition: mass flux

Let's calculate the quantity of material through a surface S in an interval of time equal to 1 (see Figure 2.1). Let Δa be a surface element; the quantity of mass through Δa in $\Delta t = 1$ is contained in the cylinder with generator $\equiv \vec{v}$, as $|\vec{v}| =$ the distance per unit time. With sign convention that the flux is positive when \vec{v} and \vec{n} point in the same direction, or negative otherwise, we obtain for the flux of mass the formula

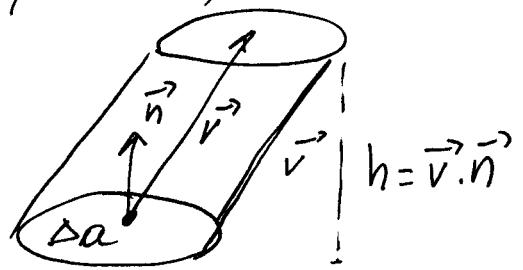


Figure 2.1

as $dm = \rho dV$, and $dV = |\vec{v} \cdot \vec{n}| \Delta a$.

In fact, in this way we can calculate the flux of any variable having a density f ; we get

$$\phi = \int_S f \vec{v} \cdot \vec{n} da \quad (2.12)$$

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2.3. The Principle of the variation of momentum.

The momentum of a continuous system P with support D is

$$\vec{H} = \int_P \vec{v} dm = \int_D \rho \vec{v} dV. \quad (2.13)$$

Postulate: a material system M moves such that at any time t , ^{and for any subsystem P} the derivative of the momentum with respect to time is equal to the resultant of the external forces acting on P ,

$$\frac{d\vec{H}}{dt} = \vec{R}. \quad (2.14)$$

For a continuous medium we need to consider both contact forces of resultant \vec{R}^c ,

$$\vec{R}^c = \int_{\partial D} \vec{t} da \quad (2.15)$$

and momentum

$$\vec{M}^c = \int_{\partial D} \vec{x} \times \vec{t} da \quad (2.16)$$

and distance forces like gravitational attraction, of density \vec{f} ; their resultant force and resultant momentum are

$$\vec{R}^d = \int_P \vec{f} dm = \int_D \rho \vec{f} dV, \quad (2.17)$$

and

$$\vec{M}^d = \int_P \vec{x} \times \vec{f} dm = \int_D \rho \vec{x} \times \vec{f} dV, \quad (2.18)$$

respectively.

From (2.15) - (2.18) and (2.14) we get that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_D \rho \vec{v} dV = \int_{\partial D} \vec{t} da + \int_D \rho \vec{f} dV, \quad (\forall) DC\Delta, \quad (2.19)$$

The above formula is valid for both continuous and discontinuous motions. For continuous motions only, if we take into account (2.10), we get the momentum equation under the form

$$\int_D \rho \vec{a} dV = \int_{\partial D} \vec{t} da + \int_D \rho \vec{f} dV \quad (2.20)$$

2.4. The Principle of Variation of the kinetic Momentum

The kinetic momentum of any part P of a continuous material system M can be defined as

$$\vec{K} = \int_P \vec{x} \times \vec{v} dm = \int_D \rho \vec{x} \times \vec{v} dV \quad (2.21)$$

The Principle of variation of the kinetic momentum:
 A material system M moves such that, at any time t and for any subsystem P of M , the time derivative of the kinetic momentum equals the resultant momentum of external forces acting on P .

Analytically, we can write the above principle as

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_D \rho \vec{x} \times \vec{v} dV = \int_{\partial D} \vec{x} \times \vec{t} da + \int_D \rho \vec{x} \times \vec{f} dV \quad (2.22)$$

(+) $D \subset \mathcal{D}$

and for continuous motions, using the formula (2.10), we get that

$$\int_D \vec{x} \times \vec{\rho} \vec{a} dV = \int_{\partial D} \vec{x} \times \vec{t} da + \int_D \rho \vec{x} \times \vec{f} da \quad (2.23)$$

(+) $D \subset \mathcal{D}$

2.5. Stress Tensor. Cauchy's equations.

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Cauchy's Lemma *)

If \vec{t} is continuous w.r.t. \vec{x} , then at any $\vec{x} \in \mathcal{D}$ we have

$$\vec{t}(\vec{x}, \vec{n}) = -\vec{t}(x, -\vec{n}) \quad (2.24)$$

Proof Consider a cylinder D_+ centered at \vec{x} , such that it reduces to the disc Σ when its height $h \rightarrow 0$ (see Figure 2.2). From (2.20) we have

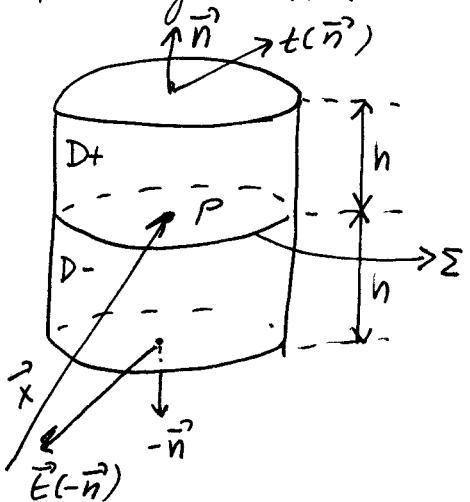


Figure 2.2.

$$\int_{D_+} p \vec{a} dV = \int_{\partial D_+} \vec{t} da + \int_{D_+} p \vec{f} dV$$

and the volume integrals \int_{D_+} as well as the integrals on the surface of D_+ (the external surface) approach zero as $h \rightarrow 0$. We are left with

$$\sum \int_{D_+} [\vec{t}(\vec{x}, \vec{n}) + \vec{t}(\vec{x}, -\vec{n})] da = 0$$

and from the Fundamental Lemma we get that $\vec{t}(\vec{x}, \vec{n}) + \vec{t}(\vec{x}, -\vec{n}) = 0$ q.e.d.

Cauchy's Theorem

If \vec{t} is a continuous function on \mathcal{D} then there exists a tensor $\vec{T}(\vec{x})$, defined on \mathcal{D} , such that at any point $P(\vec{x})$ we have

$$\vec{t}(\vec{x}, \vec{n}) = \vec{T}(\vec{x}) \vec{n}, \quad (2.25)$$

or, on components,

$$t_i(\vec{x}, \vec{n}) = T_{ij} n_j, \quad i=1,2,3 \quad (2.26).$$

Remark 2.4. Cauchy's theorem shows that \vec{t} is a linear function of \vec{n} .

*) We consider the current (Eulerian) configuration, at an instant time t , so we omit t from $\vec{t}(\vec{x}, \vec{n}, t)$.

Remark 2.5. $\vec{T}(\vec{x})$ characterizes completely the stress state at $P(\vec{x})$. Indeed, if we know $T(\vec{x})$ we can then calculate the stress vector \vec{T} for any oriented surface of normal \vec{n} .

Proof

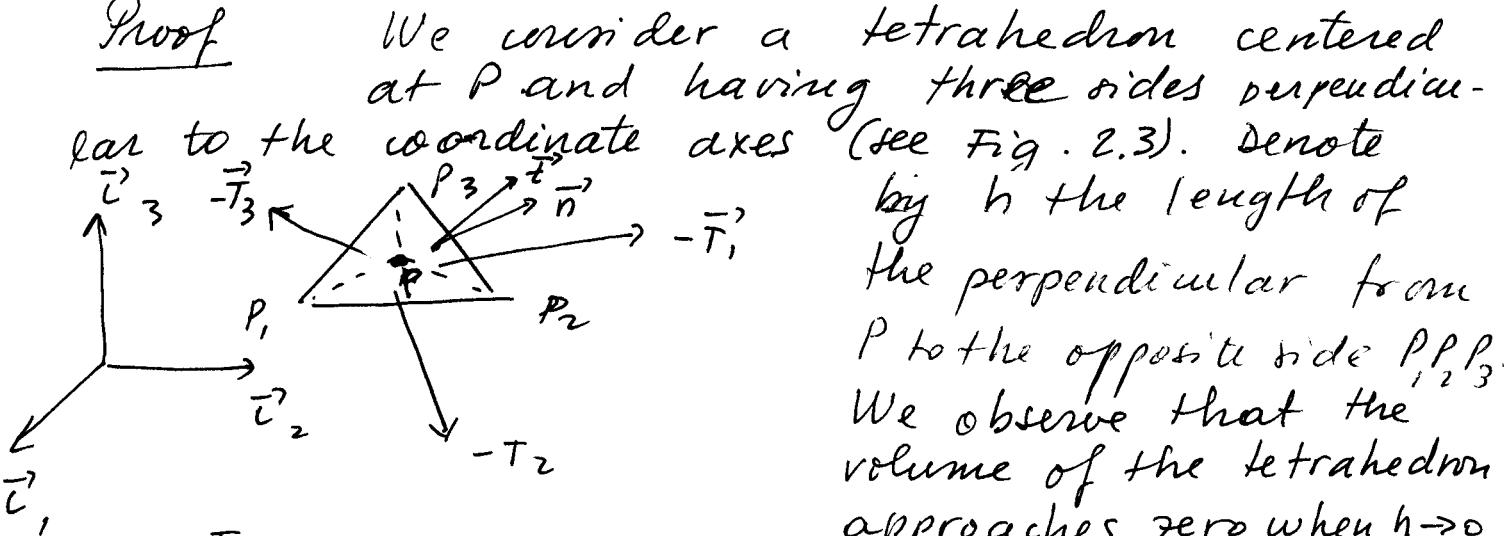


Figure 2.3.

choice since the dependence of \vec{T} on \vec{n} is unique. Denote by \vec{n} the normal to $P_1 P_2 P_3$, and by Δa_i , $i=1,2,3$, the areas of the sides $P_1 P_2 P_3$, $P_1 P_3$, $P_2 P_3$. We have denoted by $\vec{T}_j(\vec{x}) = \vec{t}(\vec{x}, \vec{i}_j)$. According to ~~Cauchy's Lemma~~ we denote by $-\vec{T}_1$ the stress vector in the side $P_1 P_2 P_3$; analogously we can define $-\vec{T}_2$ and $-\vec{T}_3$. If Δa is the area of $P_1 P_2 P_3$, we have

$$\Delta a_i = n_i \cdot \Delta a, \quad i=1,2,3 \quad (2.27)$$

The volume of the tetrahedron is $\frac{1}{3} h \Delta a$. We apply the principle of the variation of momentum with D = the tetrahedron and we use the formula

$$\int_D \vec{F}(\vec{x}) dV = (\vec{F}(\vec{\xi}) + \vec{\varepsilon}) \int_D dV,$$

where $\lim_{\rho(D) \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon = 0$. We get, from (2.2.7),

$$\rho(\vec{x}) [\vec{a}(\vec{x}) - f(\vec{x}) - \varepsilon] \stackrel{+}{\not\rightarrow} h \Delta a = [\vec{t}(\vec{x}, \vec{n}) + \vec{\varepsilon}_n] \Delta a - \sum_j [\vec{T}_j(\vec{x}) + \vec{\varepsilon}_j] \Delta a_j.$$

with

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\varepsilon, \varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_j) = 0.$$

Using (2.27), dividing by Δa and taking the limit $h \rightarrow 0$ we get

$$\vec{t}(\vec{x}, \vec{n}) = T_j(\vec{x}) n_j. \quad (2.28)$$

After projection of (2.28) on Ox_i we get (2.26). \square

Remark 2.6.

The formula (2.26) is the proof that $\overset{\leftrightarrow}{T}$ is a tensor. It is the stress tensor, the first tensor to be defined in sciences. The name "tensor" comes from "tension".

Remark 2.7

let's project $t(\vec{x}, \vec{n})$ along a direction of unit vector \vec{m} . We have that

$$\vec{m} \cdot \vec{t} = \vec{m} \cdot \overset{\leftrightarrow}{T} \vec{n} = T_{ij} m_i n_j. \quad (2.29)$$

This formula helps us to show that if we change the basis from $\{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3\}$ to another orthogonal basis $\{\vec{e}'_1, \vec{e}'_2, \vec{e}'_3\}$, the quantity $\overset{\leftrightarrow}{T}$ changes according to the formula

$$\overset{\leftrightarrow}{T}' = Q \overset{\leftrightarrow}{T} Q^T \quad (2.30)$$

where Q is the change of base matrix. Equivalently,

$$T'_{ke} = Q_{ke} Q_{ij} T_{ij} \quad (2.30)'$$

If we take $\vec{m} = \vec{n}$ we get the formula for the normal stress

$$N = \vec{n} \cdot \vec{t} = \vec{n} \cdot \overset{\leftrightarrow}{T} \vec{n} = T_{ij} n_i n_j. \quad (2.31)$$

Question Find those directions \vec{m} for which N takes extremal values.