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Future Research Directions in Solid Mechanics

Final Report of the American Academy of Mechanics

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January, 2003

Summary

Introduction

The dawning of a new millennium created an incentive for a number of researchers in the field of solid mechanics to gather at a weekend symposium in March 2001 at Northwestern University to exchange views on the future of research in their field. This Workshop was sponsored by the American Academy of Mechanics and the National Science Foundation. In the late 20th century, solid and structural mechanics research addressed engineering and scientific problems of macro-scale mechanics: buildings in earthquakes, aircraft and rockets, and energy and manufacturing technologies. At the beginning of the 21st century the focus has shifted to micro and nano-scale physics and engineering as well as to issues in biomechanics, biomaterials and information science. The theme of the AAM/NSF symposium was the integration of scales between the micro/nano world and the macro-scale that most humans live in. How do we take advantage of technological and scientific advances at the nano-scale and relate this new knowledge, materials and tools to the continuing problems at the macro-scale such as infrastructure, transportation, energy, manufacturing and the new area of homeland defense?

Solid Mechanics Research and Homeland Security

This report was scheduled for completion in the Fall of 2001. The events of September 11, 2001 have created new priorities in the Nation. Thus it is natural to ask what role the knowledge base and research talents in the field of solid mechanics might bring to these new priorities. While most of the sub-field summaries below reflect pre 9-11 thinking, the Editor believes that it is incumbent on the mechanics community to reflect on what new thinking can be brought to create a more secure and safe world in the midst of hostile groups and countries.

Within days of September 11, 2001, Professor Z. Bazant of Northwestern University had emailed an analysis of the collapse of the twin towers in New York showing the nature of the progressive failure. His ability to quickly model this terrible event showed both the capabilities of modern structural analysis and the failure of preparedness in the Nation to examine the interaction of aircraft with civilian infrastructure. We in the U.S. research community had spent decades worrying about earthquake dynamics of buildings and nuclear reactors but had never imagined the catastrophe that hit the Pentagon and the World Trade Centers. Yet we had the technical skills to evaluate the dangers inherent in aircraft hitting large buildings. In many ways we have insulated mechanics problems: some of us analyze aircraft and others analyze civil infrastructure or energy structures, but rarely look at cross-disciplinary problems.

The opportunities for new research directions in Homeland Security using the skill base of mechanics and materials science is enormous; such as using new NEMS sensors to detect dangerous objects or designing new explosion resistant netting for aircraft cargo; or using new structural design concepts to resist progressive failures in high rise buildings and creating automatically controlled collision avoidance for aircraft.

In several post 9-11 reports, a rough outline of research needs has begun to emerge. It is evident from reading these reports that a new focus on macro-scale problems will be needed, especially in the area of infrastructure safety. For example in the September 2002 issue of *Mechanical Engineering*, "Designing for Sabotage", new construction codes for high rise structures will likely call for more structural redundancy to avert progressive failures of the Trade Center example. Also the safety of nuclear facilities and power infrastructure will likely see a renewed emphasis.

In the formal Report of the National Research Council (2002) *Making the Nation Safer: the role of science and technology in countering terrorism*, important chapters impacting mechanics research include,

- Chapter 2, Nuclear and Radiological Threats,
- Chapter 6, Energy Systems,
- Chapter 7, Transportation Systems,
- Chapter 8, Cities and Fixed Infrastructure,
- Chapter 10, Complex and Interdependent Systems,
- Chapter 11, Cross-cutting Challenges and Technologies

It is clear from this list that in contrast to current research Federal priorities in info-nano-bio research, that there will likely be a re-focus on macro-scale research for which mechanics has played a significant role in the past.

In Chapter 2 of the NRC report, their research priorities call for an assessment of nuclear facilities to attacks by airliner and small aircraft. This is clearly an interdisciplinary problem involving both aerospace mechanics and infrastructure structural mechanics.

In Chapter 6 of the NRC report, R&D priorities call for investigation of new material coatings for structures to resist fire and blast shock. It also calls for new simulation models for failure cascade phenomena. Also needed are new self-monitoring sensors to detect the onset of failure in oil and gas industries.

In Chapter 7 of the NRC report, recommendations are made for new designs for tamper-proof shipping containers with electromechanical seals as well as new robotic machines to explore dangerous environments. New research is called for in bio-chemical ventilation filters for subway and tunnel systems. Similar priorities are called for in Chapter 8 related to Cities and Fixed Infrastructure. New blast and fire resistant structures, studies of explosions in tunnels, bio-chemical filters for HVAC systems, new concepts on structural connections between elements to avoid progressive failures of the Twin Towers type are recommended for future research and development.

From this list, one can see a potential research opportunity in bridging the macro and micro scales especially in the areas of new sensors, new bio-chemical filters, and fire resistant structural coating. The need to address the multi-scale problem in mechanics came up at the Workshop again and again.

Summary of Research Opportunities and Priorities

The Millenium marker produced a number of other studies in reviewing the research progress in the field of mechanics including two reports sponsored by the U.S. National Committee on Theoretical and Applied Mechanics on Solid Mechanics (Dvorak, 2000) and Computational Mechanics (Oden, 2000) as listed below in the References to this Summary. The American Academy of Mechanics did not want to duplicate these excellent reports and decided to bring to the Workshop a number of younger researchers in Mechanics. Of the approximately forty participants, about 50% were under the age of 50. Each of the participants wrote a short Pre-Workshop vision statement. These reports were printed and distributed before the Workshop. These reports are included as Appendix 3 of this report. While the majority of the participants were from academia, the organizers were able to bring to the Workshop researchers from a number of industrial and governmental research centers including, General Electric Corporate Research, Rockwell Science Center, National Institute for Standards on Technology, Oak Ridge National Laboratory and Sandia National Laboratory.

The Workshop goals were to identify research priorities that the community of engineers and scholars think will yield the highest intellectual and technical payoff in the next 5-10 years, and to address educational issues related to teaching of solid mechanics. Two overall themes in the discussion were the macro-micro scale issue and the behavior of complex systems.

The Macro-Micro Scale Problem

Solid mechanics has always played an important role in physics and engineering at both micro and macro scales from earthquakes to disc drives, from jet engines to heart valves. However recent directions have carried solid mechanics research into the nanometer and cellular biology scales in ways that compliment both materials science and biology approaches. It is now recognized that fundamental problems of friction, fracture, and mechanical failure at the macro scale remain unsolved from a basic physics point of view. New approaches by researchers in solid mechanics are aimed at bridging the knowledge gap between the molecular and the macro. This knowledge it is hoped will lead not only to new understanding of failure and material behavior but also new technologies in areas such as smart materials, MEMS and bio-technical devices.

Complex Systems

A related opportunity exists in the dynamics of complex solids, structures and machines. In spite of the tremendous acceleration of information technology, the dynamic simulation of complex systems with 1000's of parts and subsystems represents a major challenge. Complex nonlinear systems often tend to have emergent global behavior that cannot be predicted from a reductionist approach by a study of subsystem components. Again this is a multiscale problem across spatial, topological and temporal scales.

Energy Technology

Finally there is the recurring challenge of energy technology and the environment in which materials science and mechanics have played crucial roles in the past. Today there is a new challenge for the mechanics community to seek opportunities to contribute to energy science, which the recent progress in information technology as well as societal quality of life depends.

Education in Mechanics

Many Workshop participants recognize that new directions in solid mechanics research will require new educational curricula at both the undergraduate as well as graduate levels in areas such as quantum mechanics, electromagnetics, chemistry and biology. Also the emergence of new designed materials will require students to be taught new mathematical tools such as optimization and statistical methods as well as the traditional differential equations base. The Workshop did not address computational mechanics, which was recently reported on in a US TAM report. It was recognized that progress in solid mechanics will depend on both new software and computer hardware. However the community believes that whatever the advances in information technology, progress in solid mechanics will continue to depend on good models, fundamental physics and science.

Unranked Overall Priorities in Solid Mechanics Research

1. *Modeling multi-scale problems:*

- i) bridging the micro-nano-molecular scale,
- ii) macro-scale dynamics of complex machines and systems.

2. *New experimental methods:*

- i) micro-nano-atomic scales,
- ii) coupling between new physical phenomena and model simulations.

3. *Micro and Nano-mechanics:*

- i) constitutive models of failure initiation and evolution,
- ii) bio-cell mechanics,
- iii) force measurements in the nano-fN regime

4. *Tribology, Contact mechanics:*

- i) the search for a grand theory of friction and adhesion,
- ii) molecular-atomic based models,
- iii) extension of micro-scale models to macro applications.

5. *Smart, active, self diagnosis and self healing materials:*

- i) MEMS/NEMS and biomaterials,
- ii) fundamental models,
- iii) increased actuator capability,
- iv) application to large scale devices and systems.

6. *Nucleation of cracks and other defects:*

- i) electronic materials,
- ii) nanomaterials.

7. *Optimization methods in solid mechanics:*

- i) synthesis of materials by design,
- ii) electronic materials,
- iii) optimum design of biomaterials.

8. *Non classical materials:*

- i) foams, granular materials, nanocarbon tubes, smart materials.

9. *Energy related solid mechanics:*

- i) high temperature materials, coatings,
- ii) fuel cells.

10. *Advanced material processing:*

- i) high-speed machining,
- ii) electronic and nano devices, bio devices, biomaterials.

11. *Education in mechanics:*

- i) need for multidisciplinary education between solid mechanics, physics, chemistry, biology,
- ii) new mathematical skills in statistical mechanics, and optimization methodology.

12. *Problems related to Homeland Security* (Post Workshop; Added by the Editor)

- i) Ability of infrastructure to withstand destructive attacks.

- ii) new safety technology for civilian aircraft.
- iii) new sensors, robotics,
- iv) new coatings for fire resistant structures,
- v) new bio-chemical filters.

References

Dvorak, G. (Editor) “Research Trends in Solid Mechanics” sponsored by the United States Committee in Theoretical and Applied Mechanics Published in *International J. of Solids and Structure* 2000.

J. Tinsley Oden (Editor) “Research Directions in Computational Mechanics” sponsored by the United States Committee in Theoretical and Applied Mechanics, Fall, 2000.

“Designing for Sabatage” *Mechanical Engineering*, September 2002.

National Research Council “Making the Nation Safer. The role of Science and Technology in Countering Terrorism”, 2002.

Theme Area Groups

Workshop participants were grouped into ten **research focus groups**. Each group prepared a list of bullets (see Appendix I) from which a summary report was written after the Workshop. In a couple of cases a group report did not emerge in which case several individual reports are listed below.

1. Active Materials (D.M. Barnett, R. James, N. Sottos, A. Masud).
2. Mechanics of Biomaterials, Biomechanics (G. Bao, S. Cowin, K.Chong, K. Ravi Chandar).
3. Designed Materials, Composites (G. Dvorak, M. Pelegri, P. Ponte-Castaneda S. Torquato).
4. Foams, Granular Materials and Ceramics (R.S. Ruoff, A.M. Kraynik, J.Jenkins).
5. Fracture and Fatigue (B.N. Cox, K. Ravi-Chandar, H.D. Espinosa, A. Zehnder, Z. Suo).
6. Tribology and Contact Mechanics (L. Keer, J. Streater, R.W. Carpick).
7. Damage Mechanics, Plasticity (D. Krajcinovic, K. Garakipati).
8. Dynamic of Solids and Structures (J. Achenbach, E.H. Dowell, G. Ravichandran, S. Shaw, S. Simunovic).
9. Experimental Mechanics (I.M. Daniel, K.S. Kim, W. Knauss, L. Virgin).
10. Mechanics of Materials Processing (M. Davies, M.S. Fofana, J.A. Ruud).
11. Computational Mechanics (T. Belytschko)

VII

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AAM/NSF Workshop on Future Directions in Solid Mechanics

Group Area Reports

Active Materials

David M. Barnett, Stanford University
Richard D. James, University of Minnesota
Arif Masud, University of Illinois Chicago
Nancy R. Sottos, University of Illinois Urbana (Facilitator)

Introduction

Active materials have the ability for controlled adaptation of their physical properties or dimensions to stimuli that can be mechanical, thermal, optical, chemical, electrical or magnetic in nature. Much of the early mechanics research on active material systems has focused on large-scale actuation and control of aerospace structures by bonding piezoelectric patches (dimensions on the order of hundreds of mm in length) to the substructure or embedding long shape memory alloy wires (diameter on the order of hundreds of microns) in laminated composite panels. Although the use of these larger scale, bulk forms of active materials have proven effective for structural vibration control, wide-spread application is limited by the significant energy requirements and low mechanical reliability of these materials. The work output per unit volume (per cycle) for various actuator systems is summarized in Table 1. A major challenge for advancing applications of active materials is the development of improved materials with higher energy densities, larger actuation strains and higher reliability. Simultaneously, the most promising applications require miniaturization of active material systems. The reduction in size has tremendous technological benefits as these materials can be used for improved micro-actuators and sensors in micro electromechanical systems (MEMS) with application to biological/medical devices, automobiles, robots and a variety of aerospace, civil and mechanical engineering structures.

The concept of miniaturized active material systems is somewhat analogous to the use of radioactive tracers in medical diagnostics. Whereas the tracers are used to pinpoint trouble spots within the human body, embedded active materials are used to locate and respond to (possibly even heal; White *et al.* 20001) defects in structural materials. Just as the miniaturization of electronic devices such as microprocessors and memories has led to a decrease in their price and improvement in performance, the development of micro-actuators and sensors should lead to dramatic increases in capabilities of these materials (Troler-McKinstry and Newnham, 1993). Active materials in the form of thin films, small diameter fibers, particulates, and gels are all candidates for miniaturized smart systems and often have higher energy densities and strain capabilities than their bulk counterparts.

Small scale active material systems present an immediate challenge for solid mechanics research. These materials will exhibit strongly coupled responses between mechanical stress, temperature, electric and/or magnetic fields, which may depend on the geometric form and size scale being used. It is critical to determine the limiting material length scales for active material behavior and define the fundamental material properties necessary for high performance - *i.e.* what are the absolute limits for miniaturization of active materials and what are the important properties to control/optimize on smaller scales? New multiscale methods of analysis along with

Table 1. Power output of some common active materials, taken from P. Krulevitch et al. (1996).

Actuator Type	W/v (J/m ³)	Equation	Comments
1. Ni-Ti SMA	2.5×10^7	$\sigma \cdot \epsilon$	max. one-time output: $\sigma = 500$ MPa, $\epsilon = 5\%$
	6.0×10^6	$\sigma \cdot \epsilon$	thousands of cycles: $\sigma = 300$ MPa, $\epsilon = 2\%$
2. Solid- Liquid Phase Change	4.7×10^6	$\frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{\Delta v}{v} \right)^2 k$	$k =$ bulk modulus = 2.2 GPa (H ₂ O) 8% volume change (acetamide)
3. Thermo-pneumatic	1.2×10^6	$\frac{F \cdot \delta}{v}$	measured values: $F = 20$ N, $\delta = 50\mu\text{m}$, $v = 4 \text{ mm} \times 4 \text{ mm} \times 50\mu\text{m}^3$
4. Thermal Expansion	4.6×10^5	$\frac{1}{2} \frac{(E_s + E_f)}{2} (\Delta\alpha \cdot \Delta T)^2$	ideal, nickel on silicon, $s =$ substrate, $f =$ film, $\delta T = 200^\circ\text{C}$
5. Electro-magnetic	4.0×10^5	$\frac{F \cdot \delta}{v}$ $F = \frac{-M_s^2 \cdot A}{2\mu}$	ideal, variable reluctance: $v =$ total gap volume, $M_s = 1\text{V-sec/m}^2$
	2.8×10^4	$\frac{F \cdot \delta}{v}$	measured values, variable reluctance: $F = 0.28\text{mN}$, $\delta = 250\mu\text{m}$, $v = 100 \times 100 \times 250\mu\text{m}^3$
	1.6×10^3	$\frac{T}{v}$	measured values, external field: Torque = 0.185 mN-m, $v = 400 \times 40 \times 7\mu\text{m}^3$
6. Electrostatic	1.8×10^5	$\frac{F \cdot \delta}{A \cdot \text{gap}}$ $F = \frac{\epsilon V^2 A}{2\delta^2}$	ideal: $V = 100$ volts, $\delta = \text{gap} = 0.5\mu\text{m}$
	3.4×10^3	$\frac{F \cdot \delta}{v}$	measured values, comb drive: $F = 0.2$ mN (60 volts), $v = 2 \times 20 \times 3000\mu\text{m}^3$ (total gap), $\delta = 2\mu\text{m}$
	7.0×10^2	$\frac{F \cdot \delta}{v}$	measured values, integrated force array: $v =$ device volume, 120 volts
7. Piezoelectric	1.2×10^5	$\frac{1}{2} (d_{33} E)^2 E_f$	calculated, PZT: $E_f = 60$ GPa (bulk), $d_{33} = 500$ (bulk), $E = 40$ kv/cm
	1.8×10^2	$\frac{1}{2} (d_{33} E)^2 E_f$	calculated, ZnO: $E_f = 160$ GPa (bulk), $d_{33} = 12$ (bulk), $E = 40$ kv/cm
8. Muscle	1.8×10^4	$\frac{1}{2} (\sigma \cdot \epsilon)$	measured values: $\sigma = 350\text{kPa}$, $\epsilon = 10\%$
9. Microbubble	3.4×10^2	$\frac{F \cdot \delta}{v_b}$	measured values: bubble diam. = $71\mu\text{m}$, $F = 0.9\mu\text{N}$, $\delta = 71\mu\text{m}$

new, more powerful experimental techniques for small scale property characterization must be developed to answer these key questions. Mechanics will also play a critical role in the development of new active materials and processing methods. Because of the inherent interdisciplinary nature of this research area, collaborative/team efforts with researchers in chemistry, biology, solid state physics and materials science are essential and may require a significant change in the way solid mechanics students are educated.

Promising Research Directions

The most significant opportunities in the area of active materials are being driven by miniaturization. Key fundamental scientific issues and promising technological issues related to active material miniaturization are listed below.

Fundamental Scientific Issues

- *Multiscale Methods for Active Materials*

As the physical dimensions of an active material become smaller and smaller, surfaces and interfaces will dominate the behavior and continuum methods may no longer be

applicable. Discrete (lattice or atomic) computations may be necessary for *ab initio* calculations of physical and mechanical properties, energy and kinetics (moving phase boundaries) of these materials. Since the critical length scale for active materials is the microstructural scale (microns), development of multiscale methods to pass effectively from a discrete atomic scale to continuum scale is essential.

- *Small Scale Physical and Mechanical Property Characterization*

As active materials are developed on smaller scales, the need to characterize physical and mechanical properties is critical. In general, there is a lack of adequate experimental techniques to characterize mechanical behavior and coupled field response at small scales. New approaches are needed that recognize interfacial effects and surface energies and that can provide experimental data to complement multiscale modeling efforts.

- *New Materials Development*

The development of new and better active material systems for miniaturization is a major challenge for the future. Materials with big first order phase transitions (i.e. ferromagnetic shape memory or relaxor ferroelectrics), novel methods of energy conversion (i.e. nano-photosynthesis), interesting electromagnetic or optical properties are the most promising. These new materials may include thin film forms of hard, crystalline materials or soft gels and polymers.

- *Materials Processing*

Small changes in material composition or processing conditions can significantly change the performance of these materials. Future developments in self-assembly, patterning by traditional lithographic processes and new soft lithographic and microcontact printing techniques may provide promising technologies to process active materials with complex microstructures as well as the ability to integrate multifunctionality (e.g., electrical, magnetic, mechanical, optical, etc.) in a single device.

Technological Issues

- *Smart Biomedical Devices*

Active materials have the potential to make a huge impact on the development of *smart* biomedical devices. A current example is the four-year-old, \$1 billion business of shape memory stents that are used to prop open clogged or collapsed blood vessels after angioplasty. Continued development of biocompatible active materials may enable to devices that can deliver drugs, perform biopsies and monitor biological function all while be controlled remotely from outside body.

- *Microfluidics*

Active materials are excellent candidates for pumps and valves to regulate flow in microfluidic devices. Large work output is critical at small scales where surface tension effects dominate. The work output delivered by shape memory alloys is an order of magnitude larger than that of electrostatic actuators currently used in MEMS devices.

Hence, materials with large first order phase transitions (discussed above) are particularly promising for these applications.

- *Integration of Microelectronics and Mechanics*

Advances in self-assembly, patterning and multilayer processing techniques (discussed above) will enable integration of active materials into microsystems on chip. This integration will lead to the development of future devices where materials can sense, move and actuate on a chip.

- *Integration in Active Composites*

Active materials can be embedded in a host material to form a composite with specific functionality that can be tailored for desired effective properties, field concentration or symmetry. For example, the development of electrically active ceramic-polymer composites has led to significant improvement in transducer material properties over the past decade. Exciting possibilities for the future include use of active material systems to incorporate damage detection, shape control and even healing capabilities in a composite.

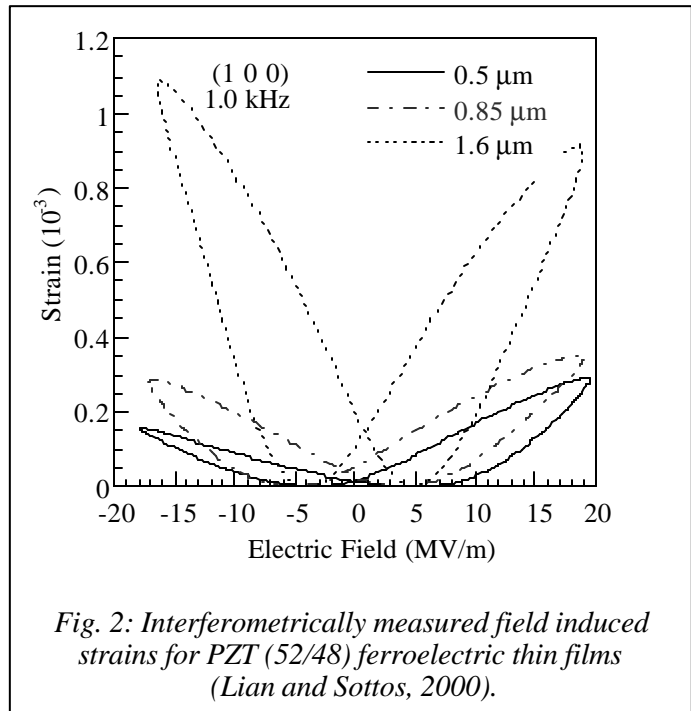


Fig. 2: Interferometrically measured field induced strains for PZT (52/48) ferroelectric thin films (Lian and Sottos, 2000).

Discussion

Miniaturization of active material systems is critical for developing the next generation of technological applications. But as the material length scale decreases, the fundamental material properties that define the performance of an active material are going to change. How the properties change and the absolute limits for miniaturization of active materials are the key unknowns. Recent experiments on ferroelectric thin films have revealed significant changes in the properties and performance piezoelectric coefficients, field-induced strains and dielectric constants with changes in film thickness and preferred orientation of the films (Lian and Sottos, 2000). Fig. 2 shows the dramatic increase in field-induced strain with increasing film thickness for a film with (100) preferred orientation. The linear piezoelectric constants and dielectric constants also increased with film thickness. In addition, films with (100) preferred orientation were found to have higher piezoelectric constants and dissipation loss factors than films with (111) preferred orientation. Lian and Sottos (2000), as have others, hypothesized that the residual stress state in the film is a key factor leading to the size dependent behavior observed experimentally.

Martensitic transformations in shape memory materials may also be affected by miniaturization. Turnbull (1950) showed that the phase transformation is suppressed at small scales. To change the phase of the material from phase A to phase B, an interface has to move through it. If the material length scale is sufficiently small, the possible lowering of free energy due to the presence of B may be overcompensated by the interfacial energy of the A/B interface, hindering the transformation. This reasoning may be flawed however. The nanoscale organism Bacteriophage T-4 has a transformation of its tail that is convincingly martensitic (). It uses the transformation to penetrate the cell wall of the bacterium that it invades. New methods of analysis combined with careful experimental characterization are critical to understanding the complex coupled behavior of active materials at the nanoscale and advancing the development of miniaturized systems.

At some critical size scale, continuum methods will break down and discrete atomic level computations may be necessary to fully understand active material behavior. The question of how to define configurational or Eshelby-like forces in a discrete lattice will need to be addressed. Density functional theory (DFT) is already being used to calculate the energy and forces in active material systems such as NiTi and $\text{Pb}(\text{Zr-Ti})\text{O}_3$, but analysis of $10 \text{ nm} \times 10 \text{ nm} \times 10 \text{ nm}$ deformed cube using current DFT methods (N^2) requires 2 million years. Development of multiscale methods of analysis that can link behavior on the atomic scale to the microstructural scale to the continuum scale is essential.

New experimental techniques are also needed to characterize mechanical behavior and coupled field response at small scales. Current methods include atomic force microscopy (AFM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM) with digital image correlation and nano-indentation. While these techniques are powerful for probing and imaging materials at a small scale, it is difficult to apply them to accurately and reliably determine mechanical properties such as modulus or fracture toughness, especially for very thin film films ($\sim 50 \text{ nm}$) on a substrate. Determining coupled field response is equally as difficult. Small scale testing combined with interferometric measurements is promising but the limitations due to gripping and compliance need to be addressed. Other promising techniques include GHz laser-ultrasonics and Brillouin light scattering but much more research is necessary to apply them to active material characterization.

Another important problem in the development of active materials on the micro or nanoscale is the lack of understanding of the complex structure-property-processing relationships for these materials. Small changes in material composition or processing conditions can significantly change the performance of these materials. Significant residual stresses are also developed during the processing of active materials in thin film form. The residual stresses depend significantly on the intrinsic processing history and the extrinsic mismatch in properties between the film and the substrate. Advances in modeling methods and experimental characterization described above need to be carried out in collaboration with new materials development and new processing methods such as self-assembly and patterning to achieve optimal microstructures.

Perhaps one of the most far-reaching possibilities is the development of materials systems that integrate multifunctionality (e.g., electrical, magnetic, mechanical, optical, etc.) in a single chip-scale device or composite. Recent advances in non-lithographic patterning processes and robotically controlled deposition of electroceramic materials provide enabling technologies to process materials with complex microstructures consisting of two or more functional materials.

The ability to integrate active materials and tailor functionality to sense, actuate, regulate or regenerate leads to new paradigm in materials design, that of autonomy – the ability to achieve adaptation and response in an independent and autonomic fashion. A vision for the future is to combine different functionalities to synthetically reproduce autonomic biological functions in complex, integrated material systems.

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Biomechanics and Biomaterials

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Introduction

With recent advances in cell and molecular biology, genetics, biotechnology and medicine, biomechanics and biomaterials research has entered a new era in which cellular functions and molecular mechanisms have become a new focus. The behavior of cells and tissues as complex biological systems is a result of integrated and regulated interactions among many components such as cell cytoskeleton, extracellular matrix (ECM), signal transduction pathways, intracellular secretion/transport, and gene expression. Mechanical forces and deformations may play an important role in all these aspects, and in regulating cell behavior and function. Further, mechanical analyses can provide useful tools for modeling and quantitative prediction. Continuum mechanics has been successful in modeling whole-cell and tissue deformation in response to applied forces. However, to understand mechanics issues at the cellular level, it may no longer be adequate to simply lump all specific force-bearing, force-generating, and force-sensing elements into a structureless continuum - more subcellular and molecular structures and mechanisms need to be studied. For example, a major issue in biomechanics is how cells sense mechanical forces or deformations and convert them into biochemical and biological responses. As possible mechanisms of such mechanochemical coupling, mechanical forces may regulate cell behavior and function by deforming DNA and proteins, influencing the transport of ions and other molecules, and altering receptor-ligand binding kinetic rates and specificity. In all of these mechanisms, the deformation of individual biomolecules under force may play a central role.

As a basic discipline in engineering and science, mechanics has made tremendous progress over the last century. There is little doubt that the new century is a biotech century and mechanics can play an important role in advancing biology and medicine. In particular, the impact of mechanics issues, from organ and tissue levels to cellular and molecular levels, has been realized by more and more clinicians and biologists alike, especially in orthopedics, cardiovascular, space and reparative medicine. Mechanics analysis has become indispensable in the design and engineering of many medical devices, such as those for bone fixation, cartilage and total hip replacement, artificial organs, to name only a few. Cell mechanics, addressing issues in cell locomotion, cell adhesion, cell spreading, cell-ECM interactions, and the dynamics of cell cytoskeleton, is important to wound healing, immunology, cell and tissue engineering, and cancer studies. Mechanics issues in proteomics and biotechnology have also begun to attract attention, including those in protein and DNA conformational dynamics, diffusion, reaction and secretion of biomolecules, and structure-function relationship of molecular motors. In what follows, we present our view of the future research directions in biomechanics and biomaterials over the first few decades in the 21st century, aiming to stimulating a broader interest in the solid mechanics community

Future Research Directions

- *Cell and Tissue Engineering*
Cell adhesion, cell-scaffolding interactions; the role of forces in tissue growth and remodeling; mechanical strength of scaffolds and microcapsules; diffusion/transport of nutrients and metabolites
- *Molecular Biomechanics and Bioengineering*
Deformation and dynamics of DNA and protein molecules; mechanochemical coupling in molecular motors and machines; diffusion-reaction and mixing in microfluidics, DNA chips and protein chips; the mechanics of nano-structured biofilters and membranes
- *BioMEMS and BioNEMS devices*
BioMEMS for mechanical testing of cells; interfacing living cells with MEMS/NEMS; active devices driven by cells/biological motors; deformation-based biosensors
- *Microgravity and Space Medicine*
The role of gravity in molecular, cellular and developmental biology and human health; countermeasures in space medicine
- *Biomaterials and Biomedical Devices*
Surfaces modified by extracellular matrices and other biomolecules; self-assembly of biomolecules; biocompatibility, stability and durability of biomedical devices; design of biomedical devices; biocomposites
- *Biomechanics Issues in Human Aging, Health and Sports*
Biomechanics issues in elderly people (e.g., bone fracture), occupational diseases (back-pain, etc), traumatic body injury, structure and motion of human body as a dynamic system, biomechanics of surgery and wound healing
- *Biomedical Modeling and Computing*
Integration of different biological aspects; computational biomechanics

Discussion

From the basic science point of view, a central issue in biomechanics and biomaterials is how mechanical forces regulate cell behavior and function. As the basic unit of life, living cells are complex biological systems. To perform their specialized functions, cells must express genetic information; synthesize, sort, store and transport biomolecules; convert different forms of energy; transduce signals; maintain internal structures; and respond to external environments (Alberts et al, 1994). Many of these processes involve mechanical issues. For example, recent studies have confirmed that mechanical forces can affect cell growth, differentiation, locomotion,

adhesion, signal transduction, and gene expression (Zhu et al, 2000). Yet little is known about how cells sense the mechanical forces and deformations, and convert these mechanical signals into biological or biochemical responses. There is an increasing need to understand the cellular and molecular mechanisms by which cells generate, detect, and respond to mechanical forces.

Key Unsolved Problems There are a number of unsolved problems in cellular and molecular biomechanics, including: (1) force distribution, transfer and balance in individual cells and cell/ECM systems under physiological conditions; (2) forces and moments applied to biomolecules in living cells; (3) deformation of DNA, RNA and protein molecules under mechanical forces; (4) mechanisms and dynamics of molecular motors; (5) mechanics of protein/protein and protein/DNA interactions; (6) mechanisms of how forces regulate cell adhesion, ion transport and vesicle trafficking. In solving these problems, it is critical to establish the connection between mechanics and biochemistry. In particular, we need to understand the effects of mechanical force and motion on conformational dynamics, binding/reaction and transport of biomolecules, and the effect of solvent chemistry on mechanical deformation of proteins and DNA.

Major Challenges To further develop biomechanics, we face some major challenges in both experimental and theoretical studies. These include: (1) small sizes of protein molecules (1-100 nm) and small forces involved (0.1-200 pN); (2) lack of theoretical models for protein folding/unfolding and protein/protein, protein/DNA interactions; (3) the need to integrate solid/fluid mechanics, thermodynamics, statistical mechanics with biochemistry and molecular biology; (4) molecular dynamics simulations are not only time-consuming but also often unreliable; (5) lack of structural information and good imaging systems to visualize and quantify deformation of proteins (Subbiah, 1996); (6) better experimental and theoretical approaches to quantify the mechanical properties of cells and tissues. These challenges pose new mechanics issues to people in solid mechanics.

- *Cell and Tissue Engineering*

In developing engineered tissues, many biomechanics and biomaterial issues need to be addressed (Cowin, 2000). Examples include cell adhesion, cell-scaffolding and cell-cell interactions, and the mechanical environment necessary for the growth, strengthening, viability, and immuno-response of the tissue (blood vessel, bone, cartilage, etc). In particular, we need to understand and quantify the effect of forces on cell-ECM and cell-cell interactions through integrin molecules, cell cytoskeletal dynamics, and mechanochemical transduction. We also need to quantify the mechanical strength of scaffolds and microcapsules.

- *Molecular Biomechanics*

As possible mechanisms of mechanochemical coupling in living cells, mechanical forces may regulate cell behaviors and functions by deforming DNA and proteins. Mechanical forces, including viscous drag force, are also important to the functions of molecular motors. Molecular biomechanics is very important to a wide range of problems in life sciences, biotechnology and medicine over the next few decades (Bustamante et al, 2000). However, we still do not know the dependence of protein deformation on their specific structures, solvent environment, and applied forces. We still do not know how such deformations alter biochemical processes such as receptor-ligand binding, cell-cell and cell-ECM adhesion, cytoskeletal dynamics, and gene regulation and expression. We are facing great challenges, both theoretically and experimentally, in the studies of biomolecular deformation.

- *BioMEMS*

As an innovative system, BioMEMS has enormous potential in revolutionizing the way we solve biomedical problems. For example, it can be used for studying the force generation, signal transduction, secretion control and cytoskeletal dynamics of individual living cells; it can be used to sort, manipulate and control cells. BioMEMS devices can also be made to mimic the function of, or to be powered by, molecular motors. It is also possible to develop BioMEMS devices for the diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment of human diseases and viral infection. It is even possible to develop BioMEMS and BioNEMS (nanoelectromechanical systems) devices to mimic the behavior and function of specialized cells. Needless to say, mechanics is indispensable to the development of BioMEMS.

- *Proteomics*

With the successful completion of the Human Genome Project, a new field of proteomics, i.e., the systematic study of protein structure and function has emerged. Although DNA microarrays are now being widely used in quantifying up- or down-regulations of genes, it is necessary to develop more quantitative DNA chips. It is even more important to develop protein chips for proteomic studies. Since proteins cannot be amplified, mechanics issues such as molecular deformation, transport, diffusion and binding between antibodies and antigens will be very crucial to the design of protein chips. The mechanics of protein deformation under force is certainly part of proteomic studies, for it provides a dynamic picture of the proteins, and links the protein dynamics to function.

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Designed Materials, Composites

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Introduction

By definition, composites and designed materials are heterogeneous systems consisting of two or more constituents, or phases, with given distribution, or microstructure. Traditionally, the microstructure was assumed to be given, although perhaps not precisely (e.g., random), and the goal was to determine the effective, overall, or macroscopic response of the composite material system. Increasingly, the goal has become not only to be able to predict the response of the system, as a function of their constituents and microstructure, but also to design or optimize the microstructure to satisfy appropriate design objectives/constraints. There are, of course, many different issues and problems of interest in the context of such materials, but perhaps the most central one is the above-described problem of assessing the macroscopic behavior, or homogenization. However, it is essential to be able to go beyond the average properties of the system. For example, failure of composite usually takes place through localized modes of deformation, far away from the domain of validity of the standard homogenization theories. In this connection, it is important to emphasize that, in a broader interpretation, homogenization can give useful, additional information, about the effective properties of the material.

Another very important issue is the study of heterogeneous structures in the micro- and nanoscale, which has been proved to be by far more complex than the reciprocal one of metallic materials. For example, nanotechnology has resulted in an increased understanding of solid-liquid interactions such as surface wetting. This knowledge has important implications for preventing wear on engines, paintings and buildings, for medical products such as contact lenses, surgical tools and prosthetics. Our ability to understand and control surface wetting has dramatically improved, since our ability to observe and fabricate nanoscale surface topographies has been developed. Yet, research tools need to be developed in order to enable the performance of quantitative studies that will elucidate the governing phenomena that control the behavior and performance of these structures. The current state of affairs in the field of heterogeneous materials at the nanoscale is mostly qualitative and empirical.

Furthermore, our ability to use synthetic means to fabricate materials, devices and systems on the microscale is currently far superior to our ability to do so on the nanoscale. The field known as MEMS is well established due to the numerous commercial applications, for instance accelerometers for airbag deployment in automobiles, ink jet printer heads, color projection displays and scanning probe microscopy. Furthermore, the silicon semiconductor industry has provided numerous methods for fabricating microscale electronic devices. With a little ingenuity, these same methods can be used to convert electrical energy into mechanical energy, and vice-versa. Fields, emerging from the successful MEMS research, in which nano and molecular scale manipulation of matter is receiving abundant attention is medicine (Fig. 1).

Since all living organisms are composed of molecules, molecular biology has become the primary focus of biotechnology. Molecular medicine, bioinformatics and biomolecular nanotechnology are rapidly increasing our ability to heal and stay healthy. However, although we have all these wonderful applications, there is a dare need for basic research to be performed in this area. One that will lead in enhanced understanding of the underlying physical phenomena and, eventually, in more sophisticated applications.

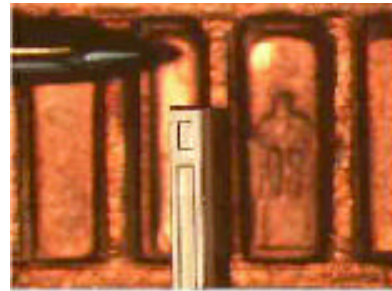
All of the above results would not have been realized if tenuous research efforts were not undertaken. The fruits of such efforts have enabled us to resolve key research issues such as:

- Fracture and failure mechanics of nominally homogeneous materials.
- Relationships between the physical properties of heterogeneous materials to the microstructure, including linear and nonlinear properties.
- Development of efficient algorithms as well as the increased speed of computers.

The resolution of the aforementioned fundamental issues has enabled us to further the research horizons to new and exiting areas. To this extent, there are eight topics described in the section below, which are the most promising areas in the study and advancement of heterogeneous materials and structures.



(a)



(b)

Figure 1: Medical Pressure sensor just 350 microns (10^{-6} m) wide (a) in the eye of a needle, (b) detail.

Promising Research Directions

- *Three-dimensional imaging of heterogeneous materials.*

Most of the existing imaging techniques are not up to the task of efficiently and effectively capturing the deformation and stress fields of heterogeneous materials and structures. That is, most of these techniques were developed for metallic materials and cannot portray the idiosyncrasies of composite materials and structures.

- *Transforming diverse physical phenomena into common interaction space.*

Many problems in heterogeneous media involve interaction of several diverse physical processes. Interactions and couplings in such systems are often very complex within each

length scale, and taking place at several length scales, hence their understanding could be advanced by transforming their effects into equivalents in a common interaction space. Further research in this area, with focus on nanoscale and hierarchical interactions should open new avenues of understanding of interactive and coupled phenomena.

- *Optimization for material microstructure design – inverse problems, multifunctionality.*

Complex, microstructures determine the fundamental properties of multifunctional materials. Consider for example, active materials, i.e., shape memory alloys, whose behavior depends on a phase-separation kinetics and exchange of stability among competing microstructures. In order to advance multifunctionality of such materials, optimization schemes for macroscopic material properties by promoting certain microstructures, is required.

- *Damage retardation and control by residual stress distributions.*

The currently available manufacturing processes and operational cycles of engineering components lead to the accumulation of residual stresses in the structure. S. P. Timoshenko drilled a hole in metallic plate in order to achieve stress relief. To this extent, new methodologies should be devised, and new models developed to utilize the residual stress distributions for damage control and retardation in composite materials and structures.

- *Wedding statistical mechanics with continuum theories.*

For the efficient use of nanomaterials in structures, the links between statistical inhomogeneity and strength of micro and nanostructures, field fluctuations, non local effects, and quantum mechanics on hand, and, macroscopic real world properties of bulk matter such as pressure, heat capacity, magnetic susceptibility etc. on the other, should be studied.

- *Microstructure exploration and control (active materials, processing).*

In the field of composites, i.e., heterogeneous materials, most of the constitutive equations are “borrowed” from the ones developed for homogeneous metallic materials. Nevertheless, not all the assumptions made about metallic materials hold in the case of composites, i.e., piezoelectric materials, materials with negative Poisson’s ratio. As such, there is a dire need in the engineering community for better understanding the governing equations of heterogeneous materials and structures in order to fully utilize their design and performance capabilities.

- *Analyze biological materials as heterogeneous materials with structural hierarchy and scale interactions.*

Materials used in biomedical and bioengineering applications are constantly interacting with organic and inorganic materials and structures (Fig. 2). Currently medical doctors and fellow engineers are utilizing these materials on a need to know, qualitative basis. However, the full potential of biological materials will be unveiled once quantitative constitutive and scale laws are developed. These laws are the basis on which exciting developments in (i) processing, (ii) characterization in terms of engineering and surface properties, (iii) assessment of cell and tissue interactions with the materials, and (iv) methods for assessing material performance and biocompatibility following in vivo use, are expected.

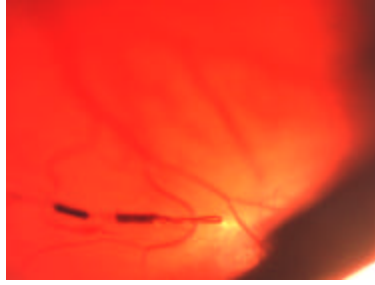


Figure 2: An implantable biosensor will provide pain-free, reliable and continuous monitoring of blood sugar levels in diabetics.

- *Educational training: condensed mater physics, biology, quantum mechanics, state-of-the-art experimental techniques.*

Student should acquire training in areas in which they are expected to perform. It is only natural for example, to have students trained in modern experimental techniques, as well as in quantum physics, if we expect them to carry out measurements in the nano- and atomic scales. The traditional curriculum in most schools does mechanical engineering and applied sciences schools does not cover these courses and is up to the advisors to transfer their expertise to their students. Nevertheless, a more universal program should be devised and adopted by the engineering schools.

Discussion

Why is nanotechnology important? Well imagine:

- molecular-sized machines that float in your bloodstream, carving away arterial plaque, fighting viruses — and perhaps ending disease forever,
- invisible surveillance devices that provide battlefield intelligence, monitor industrial processes — or track political dissidents,
- agriculture nanobots that run super-productive farms, or solar-energy-conversion nanobots that provide essentially free energy,
- nanocomputers and nano-storage devices that open a world where most human productivity moves online.

The above systems can be considered as heterogeneous materials and/or structures at the micro, nanoscale level. In order for these materials to be operational the integration of several functions (mechanics, electrical engineering, electronics, optoelectronics, optics, sensor technology, actuation technology) in one unit is of increasing significance.

The principle of functional integration has already been addressed in the engineering sciences for some time. An optimum combination of actuation technology, sensor technology and microelectronics leads to low-cost and efficient products. Aspects of informatics and control engineering are also considered since large-scale integrated electronic systems are powerful enough to establish increasingly complex programs for the implementation of control algorithms, man-machine interfaces or for signal processing with only a few electronic devices. In many cases, however, considerable deficiencies become apparent with respect to the materials available - in part, due to conflicting property requirements, such as stiffness, flexibility; thermal

resistance, heat dissipation; electrical conductivity, electrical insulation; environmental compatibility; reliability; compatibility of material properties and production stages.

The aforementioned strategic directions for Heterogeneous Materials and Structures could lead in significant advances in engineering and applied sciences. For example, within the scope of the nanotechnology initiative, improved simulation and modeling capabilities may emerge by synergistic use of tools from continuum mechanics, statistical mechanics and “other” mechanics; or, applications of homogenization tools to develop improved constitutive models, accounting for the microstructure evolution, for granular media and compacting powders, building up on currently available micro-mechanical and statistical models.

Referring to the biological materials one could argue that the development of smart material systems analogous to muscle tissue and control of such systems, should be revisited from a mechanics point of view. Although not completely novel, this is a problem where mechanics may provide the key to the understanding and further development of such systems. While it may be difficult to achieve the versatility of muscle tissue with a single-phase smart material, such as an SMA single crystal, it may be possible to get closer to the answer by making hierarchical composites of such materials, possibly with other standard materials. For example, the SMA could be turned into a polycrystalline wire, which in turn could be embedded in a rubber elastic matrix, to form an aligned fiber structure. The current through the wires could then be used to achieve controlled three-dimensional deformations of the material. While such a system would be limited by practical considerations (the rubber matrix would act as an insulator preventing the dissipation of heat), it serves as a model of the type of hierarchical materials that may be feasible by careful blending of currently available technologies.

Also, further advances are necessitated in more traditional applied mechanics and materials fields. Recent results indicate that fiber prestress, applied prior to and released after matrix cure can substantially increase damage resistance of composite laminates reinforced by either aligned or woven fibers. Moreover, prestress improves fiber alignment and thus enhances compressive strength of fibrous plies. In RTM fabrication, prestress stabilizes the reinforcement in position. Forces needed in applications are smaller than 130 lbs, which can be generated by available filament winding or fiber placement equipment. Research of this approach, together with modeling of related fabrication procedures can be very helpful in damage retardation and control in composite structures.

Moreover, almost all engineering applications call for multiscale integration. Even if a group of scientist designs a nanorobot, ultimately this will be used in a larger structure. To this extent, methods should be developed that will enable transformation of diverse physical phenomena into common interaction space. For instance, many problems in heterogeneous media involve interaction of several diverse physical processes. Such problems are encountered in modeling of both established composite materials, such as inelastic composites with developing damage, and more recent material systems, such as smart materials -piezocomposites and shape memory alloys, as well as nanocomposites and nanomaterials in general. Many problems in heterogeneous media involve interaction of several diverse physical processes. Interactions and couplings in such systems are often very complex within each length scale, and taking place at several length scales, hence their understanding could be advanced by transforming their effects into equivalents in a common interaction space. For example, such transformations have been accomplished with the transformation field analysis method in problems involving thermomechanically driven damage evolution in inelastic systems, where all thermal, decohesion

and inelastic processes can be modeled by equivalent eigenstrains acting on an undamaged elastic system. Similar transformations can be accomplished in piezoelectric and pyroelectric composites. Further research in this area, with focus on nanoscale and hierarchical interactions should open new avenues of understanding of interactive and coupled phenomena.

Finally, the words of Richard P. Feynman can summarize the importance of the proposed promising research directions for composite materials and applied mechanics:

...What could we do with layered structures with just the right layers? What would the properties of materials be if we could really arrange the atoms the way we want them? They would be very interesting to investigate theoretically. I can't see exactly what would happen, but I can hardly doubt that when we have some control of the arrangement of things on a small scale we will get an enormously greater range of possible properties that substances can have, and of different things that we can do...

ⁱⁱⁱ “There's Plenty of Room at the Bottom: An Invitation to Enter a New Field of Physics” by Richard P. Feynman , <http://www.zyvex.com/nanotech/feynman.html>

Granular Materials

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As in many areas of Mechanics, the problem of greatest interest in the mechanics of granular materials is the prediction of failure. The two most important forms of failure in granular materials are the catastrophic collapse of slopes, which often result in landslides, and the liquefaction of a soil, with the accompanying loss of its bearing capacity. Both typically occur in saturated aggregates and often are associated with earthquakes.

Slope failure usually occurs in localized regions of intense shearing called shear bands. An active area of research is aimed at predicting the onset of shear bands, their orientation, extent, and thickness and the properties of the flow within them. This effort involves physical experiments on idealized materials, computer simulations that incorporate the dynamics of thousands of interaction grains, and continuum models based in phenomenology or micro-mechanics.

Liquefaction is associated with volume changes that usually accompany shearing in granular materials. Loose packings of fluid-saturated aggregates decrease in volume upon shearing, compressing the interstitial fluid and increasing its pressure. The accompanying reduction of pressure in the solid skeleton permits frictional sliding at contacts, permitting further rearrangement of the structure, additional decrease in volume, and further increases in fluid pressure, until the aggregate loses all resistance to shearing.

The early phenomenological equations that were used to describe the rate independent deformations of granular materials are similar to those employed in metal plasticity with two important differences. The volume of the material is permitted to change as it is sheared; and, because of the presence of friction in the interaction between particles, the flow rule is non-associated. That is, increments of strain are not, in general, required to be normal to the yield surface.

Such equations applied to monotone loading have the capacity to predict a bifurcation from a homogeneous deformation to bands of inhomogeneous shear at values of the shear stress and at orientations to the principal axes of stress that are close to those observed in experiments. However, loading along more complicated stress paths, including stress reversals, indicate that anisotropy associated with frictional sliding and/or particle rearrangement requires a more complicated description that incorporates the history of the loading. Incremental relations between stress and deformation that include a dependence on the state of the material have been proposed to incorporate the observed dependence on path. The state variables provide the information necessary to link the increments in stress and deformation; they also evolve as the material is deformed. In such a formulation, yield surfaces may be replaced with incremental relations that change rapidly at certain values of the state variables.

Micro-mechanical modeling of granular materials focuses on arrays of particles that interact through elastic and frictional forces. The goal is to identify the appropriate state variables from the consideration of force and moment equilibrium of the individual particles, to predict the dependence of the increments in stress and deformation upon them, and to describe their evolution with deformation. What is required is an appropriate incremental relation between the

contact force and the displacements and rotations of individual particles and a description of the statistics of the contact geometry and the contact stiffness in a typical neighborhood. Then, a relation between the increments in displacements and rotations and the increment in average deformation is obtained by satisfying the equilibrium equations in an approximate way. With this, and an appropriate definition of the stress in terms of an average over contact forces, the desired relation between the increments in the stress and the average deformation may be written down.

Perhaps the most important recent development in the mechanics of granular materials has been the introduction of computer simulations to describe the equilibrium of random arrays of particles that interact through elastic-frictional contacts. A typical numerical simulation involves the dynamics of thousands of particles confined in a region of given size and shape. Static states are obtained as long-time limits of dynamic states. Periodic boundaries are often employed in order to focus on the response of the material to homogeneous deformations. Such simulations are being used both to simulate problems of practical interest directly and to provide information to assist in the development of micro-mechanical models.

The results of physical experiments on idealized granular materials, such as aggregates of glass spheres with a known distribution of sizes, are beginning to be compared with the results of such computer simulations. These comparisons provide tests of the contact forces employed in the numerical simulations. They also provide an indication of the appropriateness of the initial state used in the simulation in relation to that in the experiment.

With the knowledge at hand, it is not possible to say if isotropic random arrays with the same porosity, confining pressure, and coordination number, generated in different ways in two simulations, will require the same increment in stress to provide the same increment in deformation. That is, we do not know what additional state variables are required to characterize even so simple a state. This problem of characterizing the initial state is one that should be solved shortly.

The hope is that, after having identified the appropriate state variables, it will be possible to measure them with probes of the average mechanical properties of aggregate such as sound waves. This, with a more developed understanding of the incremental behavior, should lead to the prediction of the formation of shear bands and the onset of liquefaction. It will also provide for the possibility of testing soils in place to determine the likelihood of their failure.

In conclusion, at the present time, we seem to have an appropriate way to think about the modeling of granular materials and a tool that should permit extensive numerical experimentation; so there is reason to be optimistic.

Report on Foams

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Foam refers broadly to “cellular” solids whose distinguishing characteristics include low density, microstructure, and multi-functionality. Familiar examples such as honeycomb, sponge, and flexible polyurethane foam, which cushions your seat, illustrate the fact that these materials are, to varying degrees: cellular, regular or disordered, open or closed cell, and anisotropic. The continuous solid phase can be polymeric, ceramic, metallic, biological, even edible. Lower density, in general, reduces stiffness and strength, and increases the ultimate compressibility of foams. The standard text on foam structure and mechanics is Gibson & Ashby (1997). A comprehensive survey on the mechanics of cellular and other low-density materials by Christensen (2000) is a key entry point to the recent literature.

The dependence of mechanical properties on density for a specific material is very sensitive to foam microstructure, which may be disordered but is certainly not disorganized. The diversity of foam structures that exist or are desired stems from the broad range of familiar and novel, materials and manufacturing processes that are available; this diversity is responsible for the benefits and challenges of foams. Developing and understanding structure-property-processing relationships is fundamental to this field. The need to quantify foam microstructure pushes the capability of sophisticated experimental techniques such as x-ray tomography and magnetic resonance imaging, which offer substantial advantages over traditional optical microscopy. The morphology of the solid phase, especially in polymeric foams, often differs substantially from bulk materials. A critical need centers on the development of experimental techniques to probe the mechanical properties of the solid; this is particularly challenging because the characteristic length scales of foam features lie in the micron to millimeter range, and, understanding linear, nonlinear, and failure behavior are important.

Foam micromechanics has an obvious role in developing the scientific basis for structure-property-processing relationships. The mechanics problems are particularly challenging and computationally demanding because they involve large deformations of nonlinear material arranged in complex three-dimensional structures. Simulations that include multiple physics and length scales will continue to benefit from developments in computational science. Significant effort is focused on the development of constitutive equations for foams. It is widely recognized that instabilities develop locally and spread with increasing load, causing localization under large compression. Experimental and theoretical studies by Papka & Kyriakides (1998) on in-plane strength and failure mechanisms of honeycombs set the stage for extension to three-dimensional loading and materials. The role of material inhomogeneity, boundary effects, and imperfections that result in loss of material integrity, are also important areas to investigate. Traditional continuum mechanics approaches and homogenization techniques are not adequate to deal with many of these issues. As the inevitable role of foams in MEMS technology evolves, related issues of scale will arise as cell size approaches that of devices.

Foam science and technology provide rich opportunities for interaction between traditional solid mechanics and fluid mechanics in the realm of processing because many foams begin life as gas bubbles growing in viscous fluids that eventually solidify. Consequently, viscosity and surface tension, at the very least, influence the evolving foam structure. Boundary element methods can be used to model the fluid mechanics of foam growth as well as the solid mechanics of the final

structure, which touches on all corners of the structure-property-processing triangle. Simulations such as these are needed to interpret experimental data on foam structure. They also provide insight into the degree to which the microstructure can be controlled during processing. Physics, chemistry, materials science, and mathematics also play crucial roles in this highly interdisciplinary field (Weaire & Hutzler, 2000).

“Two-dimensional” materials such as honeycombs are inherently anisotropic. Advanced micro-fabrication techniques have led to the development of three-dimensional lattice-block structures that are significantly stiffer than conventional open-cell foams due to higher strut connectivity. Designed lightweight materials offer enormous potential in demanding applications that required high multi-functionality.

Foam mechanics applies to biomaterials such as trabecular bone and lung parenchyma, as well as artificial organs and limbs. A micro-mechanical point of view is extremely useful in understanding the wide range of transport phenomena that influence the function of healthy and diseased organisms. Mechanical behavior is one of many critical issues in biomedical systems, which are inherently multi-functional. Specialty polymeric foams have found a significant market in advanced wound treatments for severe burn victims.

A project on Ultralight Metal Structures that was supported by the DARPA/ONR MURI program involved strong international interactions between government, university (Harvard, MIT, UVA, Cambridge), and industry. The project resulted in significant scientific advances in foam processing and mechanics, as well as the publication of the text *Metal Foams: A Design Guide* by Ashby et al. (2000). Strong commercial interests that drive R&D in this rapidly developing subject can be followed on the Web at www.metalfoam.net. Europe leads the world in level of activity on foams in general and on metal foams in particular. The past decade has witnessed several EuroConferences, a NATO Advanced Study Institute, two MetFoam Conferences, a workshop sponsored by the European Space Agency, and other foam-related technical meetings.

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Fracture and Fatigue

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Failure of structures and materials through fracture was brought to the fore by spectacular failures of ships, airplanes, bridges, pipelines and other engineering structures. Among the more famous examples, molasses tank exploded in Boston wreaking havoc, Liberty ships broke into two at port on cold days, Comet jet aircraft disintegrated in flight, and miles of pipelines have been rendered useless by cracks. Driven by the economic and social pressures of such costly failures, research into understanding and controlling fracture flourished over the second half of the twentieth century. As a result of these efforts, a strong foundation in the methods aimed at evaluating structures with cracks has been laid. There are three main ingredients that form the core of this methodology:

- the detection of flaws in the structure (the domain of nondestructive testing),
- an assessment of the material properties (the domain of materials and standards developers), and
- an evaluation of the environment – mechanical, thermal, chemical – that the structure will be subjected to in its projected life.

Solid mechanics researchers have provided much of the leadership in solving these problems and will continue to be involved in advancing our understanding and use of fracture critical structures. The legacy of this effort is that today damage tolerant structures are routinely designed and operated safely. Thus, it would appear that fracture mechanics is a rather mature field, with a very successful transition of the technology to industrial practice. This would be true but for the fact that the success of fracture mechanics has been spectacular only in nominally homogeneous materials and furthermore only as long as inelastic deformations near the crack are limited to domains that are small in comparison to other significant length scales in the problem – within the constraints of the so-called small scale yielding. An unintended consequence of the damage tolerant design approach is that there are currently many structures – airplanes, pressure vessels etc – that are well beyond their lifetime predicted using fracture mechanics methodology! The root cause of this underprediction is, of course, that we have been extremely conservative in the fracture assessment methodology. Since it is enormously expensive to replace the aging infrastructure all at once, one would hope to improve on the life assessment techniques. For example, the current fleet of airplanes that are operated by US airlines is more than twenty years old, with the number of take-off and landing cycles near or exceeding the design life of about 90,000 (check number) cycles. Yet, these aircraft seem to be viable structures; the question to be answered is whether our knowledge of the state of damage, material properties and failure models is adequate enough to guarantee (ensure) the safe operation of these aircraft beyond their initial predicted life. Future research in fracture must therefore focus on aspects of the problem that go beyond the linearly elastic fracture mechanics (LEFM) approach. With this in mind, we have assembled a list of ten priorities, not necessarily in order of importance. Note that there might be other issues that might be of importance in specific applications, but the areas listed here would appear to have a large range of applicability to the design of fracture critical structures.

- *Failure nucleation*

In implementing the LEFM approach to failure prediction, it is assumed that pre-existing cracks in the materials grow through accumulation of damage under repeated loading, and eventually reaches critical dimensions resulting in structural failure. The assumption of a preexisting crack completely avoids the nucleation of flaws in the material under loading. However, it is well recognized that most systems spend a significant fraction of their lifetime in the stage where flaws get nucleated from defects at the microstructural level and become identifiable cracks for which the fracture mechanics analysis is well suited. This is one of the primary reasons for the underestimation of the lifetime of the structure. Furthermore, in microelectromechanical systems (MEMS), considering that the structural dimensions are comparable to the microstructure/defect dimensions, there might not be any significant life left after a flaw gets nucleated; the problem of crack nucleation is the only fracture problem that is relevant in this case. Thus we believe that it is essential to focus research efforts toward understanding, characterizing and modeling the crack nucleation problem. Underlying crack nucleation are deformation and localization mechanisms such as cavitation, shear banding, grain boundary sliding, delamination, and other such mechanisms. New tools such as the scanning probe microscopes and high resolution transmission electron microscopes that have been developed over the last couple of decades and new experimental capabilities for quantitative measurements at length scales that are at the level of the grains and grain boundaries (see the section on Experimental Mechanics) permit greater access to detailed investigation of the crack nucleation problem

- *Failure in heterogeneous materials*

Increasing demands on structural performance of materials that are at the same time light in weight (for both cost and performance related reasons) has driven the development of multiphase materials. After decades of development of laminated composites, current performance requirements are steering new developments towards woven composites to enhance out-of-plane strength and circumvent delamination failures. Functional integration and design complexity in microelectronic circuitry has also driven the technology towards multilayered, multiphase materials. Biological materials perform this kind of multilayered, multiphase material constructions almost exclusively. In evaluating the behavior of such materials or systems, much progress has been made in understanding the mechanisms of deformation and damage accumulation. Effective elastic properties, tensile and compressive strengths and their degradation are all reasonable well modeled. While the fracture mechanics developed for homogeneous materials is not appropriate here; the heterogeneity of the material makes the idea of a dominant flaw unimportant. However, a methodology for evaluating the strength, flaw-tolerance, and lifetime of a damaging (not necessarily cracked) structure is still an important ingredient in engineering with these materials. The failure behavior under dynamic loads has only recently been examined and much remains to be investigated.

- *Design of heterogeneous materials*

The approach to using heterogeneous materials in structures has been to follow the conventional approach of determining stiffness, strength, ductility etc as in homogeneous but anisotropic materials and then to perform an analysis of the stress and deformation state to evaluate suitability of designs. An inverse problem, one that could radically alter the penetration of

composites into practice, would be to consider tailoring the heterogeneity and anisotropy to particular applications; this is in some sense “biomimetic” – biological materials adapt their structure to function (for example, Wolff’s law for bone anisotropy). This idea has received some attention within the mathematical optimization community, but not much within the mechanics and materials groups. We suggest that an integrated examination of this including the perspective of constituent material properties, processing methods and structural analysis will result in revolutionary advances in the design of heterogeneous materials.

- *Nonlinear fracture mechanics*

As we have described above, LEFM is quite conservative and results in a significant underprediction of the lifetime of structures. And in some applications such as in the layered materials used in microelectronic or in accident simulations for automobiles and other structures, nonlinearity is inherent in the problem and must be incorporated into the analysis. Much of traditional fracture mechanics (linear as well as nonlinear) has been focused on analyzing the ‘outer problem’ of determining the stress, deformation and energy flow in a region near the crack tip. However, in order to determine the failure properties, one needs to examine the ‘inner problem’ of understanding, characterizing and modeling the failure processes that actually lead to energy dissipation. Recent developments in incorporating an explicit fracture process zone model as a representation of the ‘inner problem’ [for instance the cohesive zone models] have made numerical simulations of nonlinear fracture problems reasonably easy to accomplish. But, there arises the question of determining the properties of these models – experimental characterization of the fracture process zone at length scales that are on the order of the dimensions of the fracture process zone.

- *Friction, slip dynamics*

At first glance friction might not appear to fit into the classification of fracture problems, but recent investigations on single and multi-asperity contacts and slip dynamics reveal a strong connection to fracture mechanics.

- ballistics
- delamination
- geomechanics
- Schallamach waves

- *Bridging scales*

Fracture is a phenomenon that occurs at the smallest scales – the rupture of atomic bonds – but manifests itself at the microscopic to macroscopic scale (MEMS devices to human scale to geological scale). Therefore this problem presents the ideal testbed for bridging scales in simulations. While atomistic models today are getting more powerful and able to simulate events on the scale of nanometers, experimental tools have also advanced enabling investigations of fracture phenomenon at sub micron scales. We believe that it is possible to develop fracture models that scale from the atomistic to the microstructural to the macroscopic scales. This would really build the connections between the ‘inner’ and ‘outer’ problems described in item 4.

Research effort in this direction would be a fruitful endeavor for mechanics from experimental, theoretical and computational aspects.

- *Material-specific problems*

While solid mechanics aims to provide a global representation of fracture regardless of material, the different mechanisms of deformation and fracture that different materials exhibit require that special models be developed for specific material systems. Thus, for bulk metallic glasses, textile composites, polymers (systems far from equilibrium) and a whole host of engineered materials, investigations on the mechanisms, and development of constitutive and failure theories are needed. Bulk metallic glasses appear to exhibit superior strength and toughness properties compared with other intermetallics; however, their fatigue performance. Polymers are a class of materials that are far from equilibrium and evolve as a function of time, temperature and loading. They are also susceptible to the environment – moisture, radiation etc. Methods for assessing the durability of structures made of polymers and their composites are not well developed; nonlinearity inherent in the material behavior near failure also needs to be examined.

- *High strain rate failure*

blast confinement
 pipeline rupture
 penetration
 inertia effects rate dependence

- *Shear coupling in cracks*

LEFM, while well entrenched into industrial practice, still has some gaps in its completeness. It has been assumed in almost all crack growth analysis that the dominant crack would somehow find the path that will keep it in a state of a locally symmetric (mode I) deformation. Furthermore, LEFM predictions are often limited to cracks that can be regarded as two-dimensional. However, subsequent to nucleation, and prior to development as a through-the-thickness 2D crack, there is a stage in the life of a crack when it is truly a three dimensional entity, subjected to a combined opening, shearing and tearing mode loading. Currently, there are no accepted methods for predicting the growth of cracks under such loading. If nondestructive crack detection schemes are advanced enough to detect small part-through 3D cracks, fracture analysis should keep pace in predicting the growth of such cracks. Friction along the crack surfaces when in contact will also play a crucial role on determining the crack path, growth, and stability.

- *Nonlinear dynamics*

Fracture is a critical phenomenon; even in nominally brittle materials, the microscale processes that generate crack growth interact in interesting ways that generate a rich range of dynamics. For example, crack growth and crack path selection in a quenched glass plate exhibits interesting bifurcations; dynamically growing cracks generate surface disturbances that possess soliton-like characteristics. If the fracture process is modeled as a nonlinear dissipative mechanism, then the solution of the complete fracture problem – the external loading plus the internal dissipation – will certainly exhibit evolution whose dynamics merit serious study.

Tribology and Contact Mechanics

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Introduction

The study of friction, lubrication and wear, or tribology, has a long history and has served a crucial role in the development of technology, since ancient times. Closely linked to tribology is the field of contact mechanics, which focuses more specifically on how contacting bodies deform in the vicinity of their mutual interface. Great progress has been made in these areas over the past few years and ongoing research promises to make significant contributions to the advancement of numerous technologies. In particular, one finds exciting new developments with micro- and nano-scale devices, specialized coatings and lubricants, methods of material characterization, techniques for surface analysis, and methods of computation. Despite the achievements in these areas, there remain a number of key unsolved problems in both tribology and contact mechanics. Ironically, researchers have yet to develop first-principle theories to handle the most basic questions in tribology, namely those that relate to the nature of friction and wear. Additionally, gaining a good understanding of boundary lubrication—where lubricant films approach molecular dimensions--remains on the list of problems to be solved. This paper describes some of the recent advances in the tribology and contact mechanics arenas, identifies some of the outstanding problems, and proposes some future trends.

What's New

In discussing what is new in tribology and contact mechanics, we focus on both new developments as well as knowledge newly-applied to these areas.

- *New Applications*

Relentless technological advances yield more and more applications where tribological phenomena may play important roles. We consider some of these below.

- *Mems*

There has been substantial activity in the past ten years or so in the MEMS (micro electro-mechanical devices) area and this has led to the investigation of tribological problems associated with the operation of such devices. New challenges are presented by MEMS because of the relatively large role that surface forces play with these small-scale devices. This has led to renewed efforts to understand and solve the problem of adhesion, which, in turn, has spurred development of the novel types of monolayer coatings. These coatings are generally geared to passivate the surfaces and thereby reduce the driving force for adhesive interactions.

- *Microelectronics*

The field of microelectronics has been around for decades, but the continued push for high numbers of electronic devices within a chip requires that surfaces be developed with greater and greater flatness. That is, developing the various interconnects between successive layers requires

that each layer achieve a high degree of planarization. This need has motivated research in chemical-mechanical polishing (CMP), which, among other things, has revealed the role that negative hydrodynamic pressure plays in the material removal process.

- *Magnetic Recording*

The ever-increasing demand for greater information storage capacity in smaller and small form factors has led to the introduction of precision tailored interfaces. Magnetic recording disks found in commercial disk drives are now equipped with laser-zone texture, which consists of a regular pattern of nanometer-scale bumps, fabricated in the “parking” zone of the disks. The presence of these bumps helps to control “stiction,” between the read/write head and the surface of the disk. (Stiction is the term used to describe static friction forces--particularly when they are mediated by a thin film of liquid via capillary effects.) The bumps provide a means to control the way that capillary films are formed in the interface.

- *New Materials*

Achieving desired performance can sometimes only occur with the development of novel materials. Such new materials are often created to mitigate or solve a tribological problem. We describe some instances of this below.

- *Advanced Coatings*

An interface, by definition, exists at the surfaces of the contacting bodies. Therefore surface modification can serve as an effective means of achieving desired surface performance. Advanced coating technology is presently used for various applications. One example occurs in the magnetic recording industry, where diamond-like carbon (DLC) films are deposited on top of the magnetic layer to protect it from physical contact with the read-write head. Additionally, the read-write head itself is often equipped with a DLC film. Coating technology is often applied to manufacturing processes where there is a need to minimize adhesion processes during the formation of metals and other materials. In these instances, the coatings are required to sustain extreme (hot) temperatures.

Another example of advanced coating technology occurs in the biomedical industry, where synthetic hydrogels are under investigation for possible replacement to joint cartilage. Joint cartilage in humans and animals is a type of low-friction, low-wear coating that covers the load-bearing members of the joint. Synthetic hydrogels, essentially cross-linked hydrophilic polymer networks, show promise as a better-performing alternative to commonly used ultrahigh molecular weight polyethylene (UHMWPE).

- *Lubricants*

Most of the recent progress in lubricants has been in the form of lubricant additives. In the automotive industry, these have served to further reduce friction and wear and reduce toxic emissions. In the magnetic recording arena, new additives have shown promise as agents to substantially improve the durability of magnetic disk surfaces as the lubricant films and overcoat layers become thinner and thinner.

New Measurement Methods

Attaining increased insight requires new information, which often depends on the development of new ways to measure effects and properties. In this section we highlight some important measurement techniques that have contributed significantly to our understanding of tribological interactions.

- *Optical Interferometry*

In the past several years there has been significant progress in the ability to measure the thickness of very thin lubricant films. Currently, measurements have been reported of elastohydrodynamic (EHD) minimum film thicknesses of only a few nanometers. This research has helped reveal the role of boundary lubricant additives in the formation of protective surface films during high-pressure contacts. Even more refined measurements of lubricant film thickness have been accomplished with the surface forces apparatus (SFA), which utilizes cleaved mica sheets to provide molecular smoothness within a Hertzian contact. Research with this device has contributed to the understanding of lubricant behavior down to monolayer thickness. Additionally, because the SFA affords the ability to view the contact region, SFA experiments have provided important insight into the nature of frictional interactions on a micro-scale. The SFA has also been used to verify the JKR theory of adhesive contact. Optical interferometric methods are also important to the determining the flying characteristics of read-write heads on magnetic disks. Recent developments allow for flying heights to be measured that are only a few tens of nanometers.

- *Atomic Force Microscopy*

Since the advent of the atomic force microscope (AFM) a little more than a decade ago, there have been extensive investigations into topography, contact, friction and wear with an atomic scale interface. The AFM slides sharp stylus over a surface and attains atomic-level resolution in both horizontal and vertical dimensions, thereby providing a high degree of surface detail. Additionally, as a friction force device, the AFM provides a means to investigate “single asperity” interactions. More recent extensions of AFM usage include employing the AFM as a manufacturing tool to fabricate desired patterns with atomic resolution.

- *Surface Analysis*

In recent years a number of surface analytical methods have been employed and refined to provide insight into tribological interactions. Some of the important ones include Auger electron microscopy (AES), scanning Auger microscopy (SAM), Raman spectroscopy, and the contact potential difference (CPD) method. These techniques are used to identify the nature of tribologically-induced chemical reactions as well as to characterize the nature of films that form on the surfaces of interest.

New Computational Methods

As available computational power continues to enjoy rapid growth, an increasing number of tribological phenomena become viable candidates for extensive computer modeling.

- *Computational Fluid Dynamics*

Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) has been employed to study lubrication problems using the Navier-Stokes equation as the starting point. It therefore represents an improvement over reliance on the more simplified Reynolds equation. Moreover, CFD calculations can be used to assess the range of applicability of the Reynolds equation.

- *Molecular Dynamics*

Molecular Dynamics (MD) simulations involve calculating the trajectories of atomic particles within a solid, liquid or gas. Such computations are able to reveal interactions that continuum-based models are unable to resolve. Because MD, by nature, operates on the time scale of atomic interactions, typical MD simulation times represent less than a nanosecond of real time. Nevertheless, MD simulations have provided important details on how contacts are formed and broken. Because MD simulations deal with the atomic particles themselves, they attain the ultimate in temporal and spatial resolution.

- *Multi-Grid Methods*

Multi-grid methods are now widely used in to solve the Reynolds equation of lubrication, particularly in EHD contacts. The multigrid method provides a great advancement in convergence rate for finite difference algorithms that iterate on the values of pressure. By employing these computation methods, researchers are able to develop more complete simulations of lubrication processes. In particular, the roles that surface roughness and surface elasticity play in EHD contacts are becoming increasingly clear.

- *Variational Methods*

The study of contact with both smooth and rough surfaces is being facilitated by the application of variational methods. These methods provide superior robustness and computation efficiency when compared to traditional finite difference formulations. Moreover, when a variational method is applied in conjunction with the Fast-Fourier Transform (FFT) algorithm, a marked reduction in computational time is achieved. Consequently, contact simulations are now able to incorporate a more detailed depiction of surface topography.

- *Unsolved Problems*

Despite the significant strides that have been made in tribology and contact mechanics, there are a number of basic problems that remain unsolved. A few of these are outline below.

Theory of Friction

While there are numerous empirical and semi-empirically based models of friction, there is not, as of yet, a theory that is able to accurately predict the friction force. That is, given two bodies of known material composition, known geometry, known temperature, and known surface topography, sliding under a known load, at a known speed, one cannot predict what the friction force will be. In other words, there is no accepted formula that relates friction to the aforementioned material characteristics unless it also contains a parameter that is obtained from a

friction measurement itself. Developing such a theory would be of great benefit to designers. Since friction is ultimately a means by which mechanical energy is converted to thermal energy, attaining a successful theory of friction relies on understanding the way that mechanical energy is dissipated within a body. Perhaps MD simulations offer that greatest hope to achieving this goal.

Theory of Wear

Most of the comments made regarding the development of a theory of friction can be equally applied to wear. There are indeed phenomenological models of wear (e.g., Archard's Wear Law), but these involve adjustable parameters whose values have not been successfully related to intrinsic, measurable material properties.

Boundary Lubrication

Full-film hydrodynamic lubrication is quite well understood, as evidenced by the fact that theoretical predictions are borne out by experiment. In contrast, boundary-lubricated interfaces, where the film consists of only a few molecular layers and where the load is shared between the solid-solid and liquid-solid contacts, is not well understood. One major difficulty in modeling such a regime of lubrication is that the properties of lubricant films are not generally known at typical operating conditions. For example, nanometer-scale films sheared at even moderate sliding speeds sustain extreme shear rates—much higher than those attainable in a controlled test. Consequently there is a lack of information upon which to build a model of the interface. Substantial progress toward a solution of this problem awaits advances in measurement capability.

Future Trends

In the remaining portion of this paper, we conjecture as to the likely areas of focus and development in the next 5 to 10 years.

- *Tribo-Visualisation*

The computer-visualization techniques that are common in general CFD studies as well as with MD simulations will become more commonplace for a wide range of tribological interactions. These techniques will assist researchers and designers in achieving sound physical insights into tribological interactions.

- *Tailored Surface Topography*

The last few years have witnessed the laser texturing of magnetic hard disks to achieve the required tribological performance. The idea of fabricating a desired surface topography for a performance objective is quite attractive. It is anticipated that a number of new methods will be forthcoming to advance this technology.

- *Integration Between Scales*

There is extensive tribological research being conducted at macro, meso, micro, and nano scales. However, there is, at present, a lack of integration among the different scales of operation and investigation. It is expected that there will be increased interaction among the various camps and approaches.

- *Integration Between Disciplines*

Tribology continues to be a highly interdisciplinary field. However, many researchers are heavily biased toward a given discipline in their approach to solving tribological problems. In the future, a greater and greater emphasis will be made on solving tribological problems from a broad, interdisciplinary perspective.

- *Tribological Databases*

In recent years, there have been substantial efforts to develop databases of material properties, including those containing tribological information. With increasing accessibility to information, it is expected that a growing market will develop for relevant tribological data over the Internet. It is envisioned that machine designers will increasingly rely on up-to-date electronic resources for solving system design problems.

Tribology and Nanotechnology

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Introduction

Perhaps no physical phenomenon is more common yet less understood than friction. We routinely encounter and rely on its effects, from the act of walking to the operation of machines. Its impact is felt economically as well: energetic and mechanical losses due to friction and wear are estimated at 5-10% of industrialized nations' gross national products[1]. Yet a fundamental, predictive description of friction remains elusive.

Tribology, the study of friction, adhesion, wear, and lubrication, addresses problems found in countless macroscopic applications, from automotive parts to aerospace components to orthopedic implants[2,3]. Tribological problems become even more severe as technological scales shrink and correspondingly the surface-to-volume ratio of the material or device greatly increases. Surface forces like friction and adhesion become dominant interactions, imposing serious performance limitations. This point is painfully appreciated by the microelectromechanical systems (MEMS) community, who have found that MEMS devices are critically limited by interfacial adhesion-, friction- and wear-related failures[4].

Thus, these effects are thus most critical at the nanometer scale. We make two important assertions here: (1) progress toward the implementation of nanomaterials technologies will not occur without a fundamental understanding of frictional energy dissipation at interfaces; and (2) understanding and control of friction will enable new nanoscale technologies.

Research Highlights

The last ten years have seen the rapid emergence of *nanotribology*. A number of key developments have aided the growth of this field:

1. development of the atomic force microscope (AFM) which allows the measurement and application of nanoNewton scale forces.
2. extension of the quartz crystal microbalance (QCM) to measure friction between adsorbates and surfaces.
3. extension of the surface forces apparatus (SFA) to measure friction between molecular films.
4. emergence of molecular dynamics (MD) simulations whose simulation cells are nearly equivalent in size to AFM and other experiments. This has occurred thanks to advances in computer power and software code development.
5. emergence of *ab initio* studies of tribology where, again, the calculations cells are nearly equivalent in size to AFM and other experiments thanks to advances in theory, code, and computer power.
6. a rapid development in methods to synthesize nanomaterials such as nanotubes, nanowhiskers, nanocomposites, nanofabricated structures, self-assembled monolayers, *etc.*

There a number of spectacular results that have emerged in the field of nanotribology, several of which we summarize here:

1. direct manipulation of nanoscale materials, such as carbon nanotubes, and measurement of their tribo-mechanical properties. Nanotubes can be moved and rolled on surfaces and the

required shear force measured[5,6]. They can be attached to AFM tips and have their axial loading properties measured[7,8], or can be used as an imaging probe[9,10].

2. quantitative measurements of friction at the nano-scale using AFM for a range of materials. This has allowed the determination of the interfacial shear strength (friction force per interfacial atom) and the interfacial work of adhesion (adhesion energy per atom)[11-15]. The primary result is an excellent agreement with contact area predictions of continuum mechanics even at the scale of a few nanometers.
3. precise measurements of the tribo-mechanical properties of monolayer organic films. Organic self-assembled monolayers (SAMs) are extremely important materials for nanotechnology. They provide a method of tailoring the chemical, structural, and mechanical properties of surfaces at the molecular scale[16]. Inert SAMs have excellent lubricating properties and are being successfully used as lubricants for MEMS[4,17]. Hydrocarbon SAMs are closely related to boundary lubricants used in macroscopic contacts. Because they form densely packed and often ordered structures on solid surfaces, SAMs are ideal to model lubricant films for fundamental studies of tribology. They are also being used for multiple nano-scale applications to provide surface functionality[18,19]. It is therefore critical to determine the tribological characteristics of SAMs. Some recent highlights include:

- direct correlation between friction and hydrocarbon chain length
- changes in friction as a function of the terminal chemical group in the monolayer[20-22]
- the ability to cause and observe a structural transition in a monolayer at the nanoscale using shear forces applied by the AFM tip[23]
- observation of friction anisotropy that is associated with the film structure[24,25]
- observation of quantized compression of SAM films[26]

4. evidence for electronic contributions to friction. Coupling between the electron density of conductive sliding surfaces produces a frictional drag force, similar to that which causes an increase of resistance by the presence of surfaces in thin films[27]. The theoretical basis of this electronic dissipation has been discussed in some detail and recent experiments, particularly with the quartz crystal microbalance (QCM), indicate that electronic dissipation can be the dominant contribution to friction in certain instances[28,29]. The experimental evidence is based upon QCM measurements of ultrathin (< 2 monolayers) adsorbate films sliding at high (MHz) frequencies on conductive surfaces. In these experiments, there is no applied mechanical stress, although there are certainly surface and interfacial stresses that result from adsorbate-substrate interactions. A recent atomic force microscope experiment suggests that electronic friction is observable for a loaded nanocontact as well[30].

Key Challenges

Despite these impressive advances, there are several barriers that remain and which need to be overcome before a comprehensive understanding of nanotribology will emerge. This includes:

- the gap of several orders of magnitude between the time scales of MD and AFM experiments
- ongoing friction problems with MEMS that have not yet been fully solved. This does not bode well for the assembly and operation of nano-scale machines.
- calibration problems with the AFM. Many groups do not calibrate their AFM measurements. Uncertainty in force constants and tip shapes render many results unreliable and irreproducible
- lack of any reliable quantum description of friction.

New Ideas, Applications, Technologies

The most obvious application of a fundamental understanding of tribology will be to enable the assembly and operation of nanoscale devices with moving parts. Furthermore, an understanding of nanoscale interfacial forces will enable the development of nanomaterials, such as high-strength nanocomposites (where interfacial friction is a key mechanism for toughening). There are many overlaps with notions in rheology, and the impressive studies of organic materials with AFM indicate that this connection should be explored in more detail.

Instrumental challenges must be addressed. The AFM needs to be improved so that it is more sensitive and more quantitative. Methods for characterizing the AFM tip at the atomic level are required. Higher speed measurements are desirable as well, so that the measurement velocities are comparable to real-world tribological situations.

Multiscale modeling efforts that address the crossover from continuum to quantum mechanics are critical. Already, numerous efforts point out the reliability of continuum mechanics to describe the framework of many nano-scale measurements, but continuum mechanics cannot predict material properties such as the interfacial shear strength. Work that combines continuum and quantum approaches is potentially powerful.

For each of the items above, there are tremendous opportunities for researchers in the mechanics community. Many physicists, chemists, and biologists are becoming interested in the tribo-mechanical properties of novel nanoscale materials, but they lack a detailed knowledge of mechanics that would guide them. We therefore conclude that interdisciplinary collaborations between these researchers and the mechanics community have the potential to enable rapid developments in nanotechnology.

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Damage Mechanics

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Summary

The primary challenge of the damage mechanics is to demonstrate the essential role of microcracks on the momentum transfer through the damaged structure, mode and proximity of the material and system failure. The task of research in damage mechanics needs to answer this challenge to understand that damage evolution is many times but an overture to brittle failure, faulting and presence of macrocrack.

Introduction

The goal of damage mechanics is to estimate the effect of microscopic defects on the momentum transfer through a damage structure and its residual strength. Of all microscopic defects microcracks are most important in design due to their propensity to propagate in unstable mode. Microcracks that are present in all structures are introduced in manufacturing and in its service.

Damage evolves by random site nucleation of new microcracks, propagation of present microcracks and clustering of these microcracks into fractal objects of complex geometry that are known as macrocrack, shear band, etc. Since the microcrack is of the size of material texture, such as grains in polycrystalline material of particles in a particle-reinforced material, the nucleation sites are randomly distributed within the material while the propagation path depends on the local stresses and material texture, i.e. geometry of planes of weak cohesion.

Needs of Damage Mechanics

Models of damage mechanics, which predict a process and not only fit of a given curve, must be based on the thermodynamics of dissipative processes, statistical physics and fracture mechanics. Since the nucleation and propagation of microcracks depend on the material disorder (i.e. weak spots and planes of random strength, geometry, direction and position) they are statistical processes on the microscopic scale. The assumption that a random process can be approximate by a deterministic process is not always true.

Macroscopic parameters of a model useful in application must be identified and measurable in situ and laboratory. This model must predict the mode and proximity of failure. To define the proximity of a state from the failure at a given load pattern it is necessary to define the order parameter measurable in situ. Finally, the model should be developed in the form that will accentuate the application of computers using large numerical on the shelf codes. This model cannot only fit a deformation process using a handful of fitting macroscopic parameters of obscure physical meaning making their identification and measure difficult if not impossible.

The needs for new models of damage mechanics are illustrate current air design concepts and fatigue mechanics. The damage tolerance aircraft design is based on the probability and reliability of damage detection and estimate of the residual strength of a damage structure. While those concepts are not carefully defined the lament that “the lack of interest and resolve in

the research community to characterize and quantify the visual (damage) data is indeed perplexing” (Goranson 1993) is a sign of the increasing gap between industry and academia. The effect of material texture on the propagation of microcracks is dismissed in fatigue design by calling the cracks as being “anomalous”, low allowable stresses and plotting data on the log-log scale. The proliferation damage models, based on the imagination, makes the bad state worse.

To answer the industry needs the model must be of the multi-scale type that bridges gap between atomic and microscopic scales, which are intrinsically statistical, to the macroscopic scale that can be either deterministic or statistical. The explosive increase of the computational power will make large scale parallel computing possible even to those that are now using traditional finite element algorithms and codes.

Current State of Damage Mechanics Modeling

Most models published in the available sources are of the mean-field type. A typical traditional local continuum is based on the thermodynamics with internal variables, principle of determinism, material objectivity and local action. Thermodynamics with internal variables assume that each thermodynamic state depends on the small number of macro-parameters, which is true only if the damage parameter can be defined by damage density. Principle of determinism, required that future depends on the past, may be violated when the process is far-from-equilibrium. The principle of local action implies that the effect of micro-defects, randomly within an “infinitesimally small of a material point” of a material point \bar{x} , on the macroscopic material parameters (such as stiffness tensor) and fields can be described by an internal (damage) tensor variable(s) $\mathbf{D}(\bar{x}, T)$. The corollaries to these principles, that are seldom known and ever less considering and interrogate, are that:

- The damage is described by its density,
- The material within the “infinitesimally small of a material point” must be statistically homogeneous.
- The deformation and damage evolution processes can be approximated by a temporal sequence of the equilibrated thermodynamic states.
- Distances between all pairs of these thermodynamic states are “close”.

Thus, these models are applicable only when:

- The damage is modest and the band-width of the size distribution of microcracks is small.
- The microcracks are of the size of material texture.
- The representative volume element is not larger than the “infinitesimally small of a material point”.
- The damage evolves by microcrack nucleation and the effect of sporadic microcrack stable propagation on the macroscopic deformation is small to modest.

The potential exists only these criteria are satisfied and a continuum damage model can indeed estimate the considered dissipative deformation process. However, all continuum models of damage mechanics are limited in application since they ignore the disorder of the material texture, local fluctuations of stresses and cohesive force on the microscopic scale that affect microcrack propagation and interaction between microcracks. This effect at large damage has a strong influence on retardation, deflecting, branching, stabilization, destabilization, and trapping of microcrack (Suresh 1991).

The mean-field models of micromechanics are an approximate theory in which the variables take on mean or average values and are then calculated self-consistently. Damage material is, in these models, approximated by a large number of microcracks randomly embedded within a continuum elastic matrix. Assuming that damaged material is statistically homogeneous the positions of microcracks are ignored and their size and orientations of microcracks define the damage parameter.

The analytical solution for the volume parameters is possible only when:

- All microcracks are of simple geometry (either a linear slit or a penny-shape microcrack).
- The distribution of sizes and orientations of microcracks are not correlated.
- Matrix homogeneous, isotropic and linear elastic.

In this case the effect of the damage on the volume compliance attributed by the accumulated damage is derived in the form (Krajcinovic, 1996)

$$S_{ijmn}^* = \mathbf{w} \Phi_{ijmn}(\bar{S}, \mathbf{q}) \quad (1)$$

where

$$\mathbf{w} = N \langle a^3 \rangle \quad (2)$$

is the Budiansky-O'Connell (1976) isotropic damage parameter. The fourth tensor Φ_{ijmn} is derived integrating the integral of the function of the effective compliance \bar{S} and distribution of the microcrack orientation $\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{J}, \mathbf{z})$. The effective compliance tensor is then $\bar{S}_{ijmn} = S_{ijmn}^o + S_{ijmn}^*$, where S_{ijmn}^o is the known compliance tensor of pristine volume, and N number of active (open) penny-shape microcracks of radius a .

The most important weakness and limitation of the mean-field micromechanics in the course of the derivation effective parameters of a damaged material is that:

- The effect of many small microcracks is equal to the effect of small number of larger microcracks accordingly to the (2).
- The material texture is ignored even though it is of the microcrack size.

The postulate of local dependence (Rice, 1975), which is also of the mean-field type, is used to deduce the potential needed to estimate the damage evolution. This potential depends on the macroscopic parameters, such as tensile and compression strength on the macroscopic scale, but not on the local fluctuations of stresses and texture disorder on the microscopic scale which affect the morphology and topology of the damage, i.e. nucleation sites, propagation of microcracks and their clustering.

In summary, the tools, models and methods of damage mechanics, in its current state, obstinately focuses on the modest density of microcracks where old tricks of trade borrowed from the venerable deterministic plasticity theory apply. However, the ultimate objective and destination of damage mechanics is to become an overture to the structural failure. One has to confess that the current models of damage mechanics are not useful in estimates of structural failure as observed from the Goranson's lament who does not reference a single damage mechanics paper.

Statistical Models

It is a truism to state that same physic laws that are valid for a large crack must also be valid for a microcrack even though the latter it is of very complex geometry and “sees” the surrounding material as being non-homogeneous and disordered. Most of us would accept that nucleation and propagation of a given microcrack depends on the local stresses and local cohesive strength rather than volume averages of stresses and cohesive strength of the material. Thus, the concepts of the thermodynamics and fracture mechanics should be remained while the validity of the assumptions of homogeneous material and stress field should be questioned.

The essence of the prior paragraph is that the mechanics of microcracks is not always deterministic, i.e. that the statistical input will always provide deterministic output. Spatial and temporal fluctuations of stresses and cohesive strength in the considered volume of damaged material may be large. Local values of the release energy or J -integral and cohesive resistance R of a microcrack embedded in the volume in the equilibrium state can be much larger or smaller than the J and R derived using average stresses and material strength. Common sense is the propagation of microcracks depends on local magnitudes of J_i and R_i . The first microcrack to start propagating after increasing quasi-statically the average stress to magnitude $\bar{\sigma}$ must satisfied the local criterion

$$\max_i \left(\frac{J_i(x; \bar{\sigma})}{R_i(x; \bar{\sigma})} \right) = 1 \quad (3)$$

sought over all i microcracks of the volume. The stability of the microcracks propagation is stable depends on the position and magnitudes of energy barriers (local cohesive energy R) large enough to decrease the left part of (3) bellow one.

The energy released by a propagating microcrack is distributed to the surrounding material in the form of a stress wave emanating from its tip while the direction of the microcrack propagation depends also on the orientations of planes of low cohesive strength. Assume that the thermodynamic state of the specimen at the onset of propagation is in equilibrium and defined by the manifold $\{\bar{\epsilon}, \bar{D}, \bar{T}\}_{\bar{\sigma}}$ where the bar over symbol stands for average. Crack propagation is a non-stationary and dissipative process that may be either stable or unstable. In the latter case specimen will fracture. When the propagation of microcrack terminates at state $\{\bar{\epsilon} + D\bar{\epsilon}, \bar{D} + D\bar{D}, \bar{T} + D\bar{T}\}_{\bar{\sigma}}$ the process is stable. The proximity between two states may be “small” or “large”. In the first case the methods of thermodynamic with internal variables apply which not true in the case of large “distance” between sequent equilibrium states. Thus, the estimate of the proximity between sequent equilibrium states is of significant importance.

To illustrate the concepts of modern statistical physics consider a sub-volume (SB), of size L^d and known texture disorder, that is small enough to consider macroscopic stresses and strain to be homogeneous but large enough to be statistically homogeneous. The macroscopic deformation is viewed as a temporal sequence of states equilibrated by the thermodynamic affinity $\bar{A}_i = \bar{J}_i - \bar{R}_i \leq 0$ that are separated by segments of non-stationary states during which the released energy is distributed to the material until the principle of minimum of strain energy is satisfied. The “length” of this segment depends on the number of microcracks that commence propagation at a same magnitude of external action (either $\bar{\sigma}$ or $\bar{\epsilon}$). Applying the concept of avalanche order (Maslov, 1995), defined as the number of microcracks commence propagation,

the proximity of equilibrated states in simulations and acoustic emission tests can be measured. The presence of avalanches of large orders is characteristic of a process of far-from-equilibrium (FFE) type, in which that the potential and attractor-state do not exist and the process depends on the fluctuations of fields (Nicolis and Prigogine, 1977). Preponderance of order one avalanches indicates close-to-equilibrium (CTE) process within the potential exists and is defined by the minimum of the entropy production. A CTE process is driven by averages of fields.

In tests on a representative statistical sample of specimens that are “identical” on macro scale but different on micro scale the scatter of data in CTE processes are small and distribution normally about averages. The contrast is true in FFE processes.

An FFE process consists of two sub-processes. During the initial of hardening phase of deformation of SB damage evolves by random site microcrack nucleation at weak spots and all avalanche are of order one. The material is statistically homogeneous on the scale on the sub-volume and deterministic continuum damage mechanics is applicable since all macroscopic parameters depend on damage density. Within the latter part of the hardening phase the accumulate damage is sufficiently large to increase the probabilities of finding a weak spot next to a microcrack or two microcracks close enough to affect local released energy. Hence, the effect of microcrack propagation on the specimen parameters and avalanche order increases as well. Appearance of the damage clusters defined as interacting or contiguous microcracks, is a result of the transition in the mode of the damage evolution. Effective parameters of the SB scale as L^d , i.e. by the Euclid dimension d of SB.

As the length of largest cluster of contiguous (macrocrack) or interacting (shear band), \mathbf{x} , or correlation length, becomes equal to L the SB cannot transfer the stresses at least in one direction rendering the SB to be statistically heterogeneous. In the ensuing phase, $\mathbf{x} > L$, SB softens in the direction in which the momentum cannot be transferred. Hence, the SB becomes a larger defect of the size of SB, which can be either a microcrack or shear band, and the stress that cannot be transferred is distributed to neighboring SBs.

The local stresses and strains are fractal in the hardening phase and multifractal in the softening phase. Multifractality of local stresses, strains and damage makes possible to estimate analytically the probability of a finding a very large local stress (or local J -integral) which otherwise requires a large number of simulations or tests. The magnitudes of local stresses are defined analytically by statistical moments of their magnitudes.

Summary of Statistical Damage Mechanics

The sharp change of the research in damage mechanics is necessary to introduce the effect of material texture on the damage evolution and provide means to estimate the proximity and mode of failure, measurable order parameter (correlation length ?), define the damage tolerance and damage detection periods. Proposed direction of research will provide the essential design tool needed to estimate the mode and onsets of fatigue failure, residual strength of damaged structures, durability, damage tolerance, effect of corrosion on structural failure and schedule NDI damage detection periods. Generalizations to the dynamic, thermal and chemical processes is possible once the physics and statistical foundation is put together into a large numerical code.

Requirements

Work on this research takes several different talents and knowledge such as statistics, statistical physics, and definitions of material disorder, computational mechanics and parallel computation. Bridging of the scales is the part and parcel of this method that seamlessly changes from one scale to other by changes of the resolution length according to the selected volume and sub-volume. At each step from atomic to structure scale all effective parameters and local fluctuations of random variables and their effect on macroscopic deformation, mode and onset of structural failure are defined as a function of the considered size using the scaling laws similar to those of percolation theory. Determination of universal scaling exponents, who must satisfy all Kadanoff criteria, of the considered universal group takes skill, experience, many simulations and large parallel code and computer. Once this is done the scales are bridged using a re-tooled renormalization group transformation method.

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Dynamics of Solids and Structures

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Introduction

Dynamic mathematical models and experimental characterization of dynamic phenomena are pervasive throughout solid mechanics and indeed fluid mechanics, physics and chemistry. But not yet biology. The latter presents a large challenge and a great opportunity.

In recent summaries of research trends and directions in solid [1] and computational [2] mechanics, dynamics is always implicit and sometimes explicit in many of the topics discussed there.

Over the last two decades much of the excitement in dynamics has centered on non-linear dynamics and chaos of low dimensional systems [3]. This interest extends throughout science and engineering and the mechanics community has contributed a number of the earliest and most important concepts and results. In recent years many researchers have turned their attention to complexity, the non-linear dynamics of very high dimensional systems. A recent treatment of relevant ideas in fluid-structure interaction is available [4]. And a forthcoming congress [5] deals with these issues over a broad range of mechanics phenomena.

A second major stream of advance in dynamics over the last few decades has been in wave propagation in solids, with particular interest in not only metals but also in plastic and biological materials with or without inclusions such as cracks and cavities.

In each of these areas we have identified the most exciting questions and possibilities for future research. These are listed in Tables 5.1 (Wave Propagation in Solids) and 5.2 (Dynamics of Structures and Machines). In these tables, the connections to other themes of this workshop are indicated (in parentheses) in a representative, but not exhaustive way.

What is New?

As suggested in table 5.1 (Wave Propagation in Solids), new nano and MEMS sensors are emerging for ultrasonic wave propagation measurements. These developments provide valuable synergy in that these sensors will advance our understanding of wave phenomena and, in turn, wave measurement goals will provide an incentive and impetus for sensor development. Multi-scale material characterization is one important advance that will be made possible by this new capability and significant progress in our understanding of non-destructive evaluation, constitutive behavior at high-strain rates, kinetics of phase transformation, frictional laws at high-speed sliding surfaces for both homogenous and heterogenous materials is to be expected.

As indicated in Table 5.2 (Dynamics of Structures and Machines), to better understand and improve the performance of modern structures and machines, advances in dynamic modeling are needed and are being made. Improved characterization of friction, impact and damping are keys to these advances. System identification (ID) methods are needed for both nonlinear and linear systems of high complexity. Yet if complex system models are to be useful to advance understanding and support creative and timely design, a reduction in the complexity (or numbers of degrees of freedom) must be often made while retaining the accuracy of the original

dynamical model. By enabling a much reduced size (or order) and thus computational cost, reduced order models are and will be a key enabling methodology for many dynamical systems.

These reduced order models often invoke a global model representation (for both nonlinear and linear systems) rather than a local model such as finite elements. Note, however that the global modes themselves are usually obtained from a finite element model. If the number of modes in a frequency bandwidth is very large, an asymptotic theory may be developed that is independent of modal details. On the other hand if the number of modes is small, classical modal methods apply. As usual, the intermediate case of many, but not very many, modes has proven most difficult and remains an open question.

Beyond advances in modeling methodologies per se, (1) we anticipate the advent of nano and MEMS dynamical structures and devices, (2) the desire and capability for active control of (smart) structures, (3) the desire and capability for condition based (“health”) monitoring and (4) the increasing realization that even within classical (as distinct from quantum) mechanics, there is a sensitivity to initial conditions and the ever present possibility of chaos in complex, nonlinear systems. All these expected advances raise the pervasive question of predictability vs. non-predictability in many dynamical models. While gross features may be repeatable and predictable, that will not always be true with respect to details that may be important for some applications. And hence ever more refined models to smaller and smaller scales may not always be necessary or desirable. Rather we must face the issue of modeling and design in the face of uncertainty.

Grand Challenges of Dynamics of Solids and Structures

So what are some of the grand challenges where the best way forward is not yet clear? Here a few representative examples that capture some of the excitement and promise for the future.

- Establish fundamental and well-founded relations between a material condition as measured non-destructively and the ultimate strength of a solid or structure as measured destructively.
- Develop (theoretical or experimental) techniques to determine the “minimally essential” (smallest number of states or degrees of freedom) model from a set of numerical tests or physical measurements for the representation of nonlinear, complex dynamical systems to a desired level of accuracy.
- Develop effective mathematical methods and experimental procedures to determine the essence of dynamic behavior and wave propagation in the presence of uncertainty.

Dynamics of solids and structures is a subject rich with history, promise and potential. In this brief account a prospectus has been offered to help realize that promise and potential.

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Tables 5.1

- wave propagation in solids
- development of nanosensors and mems for ultrasonic measurement (nano technology, active materials)
- techniques for multi-scale materials characterization (fracture and fatigue, damage mechanics)
- measurement models for nde (damage mechanics)
- techniques for detection of anomalies, e.g. inclusions and cracks (damage mechanics, fracture and fatigue)
- constitutive behavior at high strain rates (plasticity, materials processing)
- kinetics of phase transformation (damage mechanics, active materials)
- frictional laws at high speed interfaces(fracture and fatigue)
- failure of heterogenous solids (design of materials)
- high-speed, high resolution diagnostic methods in visible and infrared regimes (experimental mechanics)

Tables 5.2

- dynamics of structures and machines
- modeling
- friction & impact (tribology and contact)
- damping (active materials)
- systems identification (experimental mechanics)
- model reduction (computational mechanics)

- mid-frequency range (complexity)
- multi-body dynamics (biomechanics)
- nano/mems structures and devices
- active control of structures and devices (active materials)
- localization
- mems
- conditioned based monitoring (nano sensors, “health” monitoring)
- predictability vs. non-predictability in complex, high-degree-of-freedom, nonlinear systems (all)

Experimental Mechanics

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The contribution of Mechanics to engineering has historically been a synergistic interaction of experiment and analysis. Experiments have either discovered new phenomena or analyses have discovered discrepancies or predictions based on the frame work of past observations. Inasmuch as we live in a physical world, which we wish to harness for man's betterment, we are bound to physical observation as the basis of building our living environment.

In the mechanics community the last few decades have seen an unhealthy shift in emphasis to analysis at the expense of experiment. One indicator is the number of papers published in the mechanics journals as illustrated in figure 1: Counting any paper containing reference to experimental data¹, shows the distinct decline of experimental discovery in the past decades. Similarly, the number of experimentally oriented investigators at universities has declined to a ratio of one in 6 or 7 having analytical interests. This compares with a reverse ratio of about 3 or 4 experimentalists for every theoretician in Physics and a still larger ratio in Chemistry and Biology where experiments are clearly dominant. A continuing trend for mechanics spells trouble because a further, gradual decrease of physical data for an increasing pool of analysts will eventually provide nothing to analyze: Mechanics will become simply a service discipline attached to other sciences that interface with engineering.

This imbalance is particularly troublesome because a reversal of the current trend cannot be commanded immediately and a continuing lack of attention to the imbalance provokes thus a manpower instability: Fewer experimentalists — with the characteristically longer time constant for experimental work and learning — generates proportionately fewer of its kind. Though it may be possible to entice analysts to devote efforts to experiments, history demonstrates this corrective process not to be significant. Bearing in mind further the long time constant of academic training to replenish the pool of researchers devoted to the skills of experimental investigations, it appears high time that some guided correction to the situation be initiated at the funding agencies.

With new technologies arriving on the scene that await contributions from the mechanics community — *e.g.* micro- and nano-mechanics — the time appears right that a concerted effort be made nationally to provide a larger and more powerful pool of experimentally oriented investigators. Tremendous needs exist in developing new investigative methods and instrumentation to deal with new technological territory. Mistakes will be made, and the process may be slow. But without such a reorientation the modeling information needed for mechanics problems will not become available. While many in the mechanics community have seen and responded to needs in other disciplines such as electronic packaging and materials science, these other disciplines are, on the whole, interested in different phenomena and are unlikely to be directed towards those applications typically provided to and by engineering through the discipline of mechanics.

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Knauss, W.G., Perspectives in Experimental Solid Mechanics; *International Journal of Solids and Structure*; **37**, (2000) pp.252-266, and in the book *Research Trends in Solid Mechanics*.

¹ regardless of whether the data are a major or only “quoted” part of the presentation

Mechanics of Material Processing

M. A. Davies (Participant), now at University of North Carolina at Charlotte
T. J. Burns, Gaithersburg MD 20899

There have been numerous important advances in the area of materials processing over the past two decades. In this summary paper, we will focus on the areas classified as material removal processes such as machining, grinding and polishing. However, we do not restrict ourselves to conventional machining by “chip” removal processes, but rather broaden our view to include other material removal mechanisms such as lasers and chemo-mechanical processes.

Material removal processes have tremendous economic importance. For example, according to Dr. Eugene Merchant, mechanical machining operations alone account for 15% of the value of all components manufactured worldwide. However, scientific understanding and ability to predict the behavior of these processes remains poor, and many of the issues that limit this understanding relate to lack of information about the fundamental mechanical behavior of the processes. An excellent historical review of progress in conventional machining and grinding processes can be found in a special issue of *Applied Mechanics Reviews* entitled “US Machining and Grinding research in the 20th Century” [1].

As suggested in the workshop instructions, we have divided this discussion paper into three sections. The first discusses the most exciting and interesting results and changes that have occurred in material removal processes in the past two decades. The second section attempts to identify unresolved issues pertaining to these developments. The third section takes a view toward the future of material removal processes.

Exciting Results and Changes in Material Removal Processes

There have been substantial changes in material removal processes over the past two decades. Some of the most substantial changes (of which we are aware) have been in the following areas:

- High-speed Machining,
- Novel Machine Tool Designs/Parallel Actuator Systems,
- Micromachining & Manufacture of Meso-scale Components,
- Laser-Assisted Machining,
- High-speed Grinding,
- Electronics Processing Techniques/Chemical-Mechanical Planarization.

Selected items are discussed below in greater detail.

High-Speed Machining

Over the past 15 years, there has been the rapid successful commercialization of reliable *high-speed machining systems*. The components that have enabled the development of high-speed machining include: (1) spindles capable of speeds exceeding 40 thousand revolutions per minute while simultaneously delivering tens of kilowatts of power to the cutting zone; (2) rigid, low-mass machine-tool structures; (3) high-speed linear slide-ways capable of coordinated linear motions at tangential speeds of up to 0.6 meters per second and accelerations of 20 meters per second squared. Machines that are designed to take advantage of these components are capable of metal removal rates that are greater than ten times those of their conventional counterparts.

The most dramatic applications of high-speed machining have been in the manufacture of aluminum components; volumetric material removal rates can be extremely high, often thousands of cubic centimeters per minute. Application of this technology began in the aerospace industry. High-speed machining is changing the way aircraft are manufactured by enabling the replacement of sheet-metal assemblies with machined monolithic components, resulting in substantial cost savings and improved performance. These same ideas are now spreading into the much higher volume communications industry, where they are being implemented in the manufacture of electronics chassis. A major challenge for researchers in applied mechanics is to develop reliable models of high-speed machining processes that couple the plastic deformations occurring at the tool-chip interface with the static and dynamic deflections of the machine-tool structure. This is necessary to supplement or replace standard empirical databases such as the *Machining Data Handbook*, which were expensive to produce and have not kept pace with the development of high-speed machines.

Novel Machine Tool Structure and Actuator Designs

Traditional machining systems have consisted of serially-coupled, stacked components, each capable of linear or rotary motion with one degree-of-freedom. Typically, linear axes have been driven by rotary actuators coupled by high-force-gain lead-screws, ball-screws and rack-and-pinion drives. Research on the design of such drive systems has enabled their use in high-speed machining centers, producing feed rates of up to 1 m/s with accelerations of 1 g. For a small work volume, the acceleration of the machine tool axes is more important than the maximum speed in determining the ultimate time it takes to manufacture a component. To address this issue, some machine-tool manufacturers have begun to explore *linear motors* as an alternative drive system for high-speed machines. These systems are capable of more than twice the maximum speeds and accelerations of mechanical drives. However, they also have a number of disadvantages: (1) low force amplification factors make them more sensitive to cutting forces and changes in the inertia of the machine-tool structure that may occur as axis orientations change and workpiece mass is added or removed; (2) because they require strong permanent magnets, ferrous machining chips may collect on the motor housings; (3) they generate a large amount of heat, thereby making a substantial (and often dominant) contribution to the thermal errors of the system. However, improvements in accelerations and speeds are so attractive that they motivate manufactures to attempt to find solutions to these problems rather than abandon the technology.

Another innovative design idea for high-speed machines is the development of parallel architecture machine-tool structures. From the perspective of high-speed machining, the development of the new machines addresses a major disadvantage of serial construction: the necessity for some axes to carry the additional mass with other axes and their actuators. Parallel machines are made possible by the development of powerful CNC controllers able to account for geometric complexity in the controller software. These systems can use traditional ballscrew drives or linear motor systems as actuators. Ideally, this type of machine can be stiffer, have lower mass and higher accelerations, and be more accurate than conventional designs. However, these advantages have not yet been realized in practice due to a number of disadvantages including: (1) parasitic bending of the struts due to imperfect joints (friction, play etc.); (2) magnification of thermally induced errors due to strut length; (3) difficulty in obtaining direct position feedback along the struts and in determining the locations of the axes of rotation for each joint; (4) variation in system kinematics, statics, and dynamics within the work volume.

Trusty has recently argued that many of the advantages of these parallel machines may be overstated and are not practically realizable. Despite these formidable challenges, work on parallel machines continues with the final verdict on comparison with conventional construction as yet unknown. Certainly, the new designs are competing with years (perhaps centuries) of experience using conventional constructions, and therefore prediction of their ultimate performance is difficult.

Micromachining & Manufacture of Meso-Scale Components

There has been substantial recent interest in machining systems capable of generating complex three-dimensional features in a size range between the capabilities of conventional machines and lithographic techniques. Various techniques have been proposed to accomplish this goal, including micro-mechanical machining (plastic deformation), laser micro-machining, and micro-electro-discharge machining (micro-EDM). Applications of such techniques include the manufacture of so-called meso-scale devices for bio-medical, power-generation and military applications. Presently, mechanics-based models of such processes are in their infancy; improved models are required for the development of adequate tools for predicting the dimensional and mechanical integrity of the final parts that are produced.

Chemical-Mechanical Planarization Techniques

As electronic device dimensions decrease, more and more stringent tolerances must be met, until finally the mechanical methods for processing silicon wafers become inadequate. The next generation of electronic devices will employ minimum line-widths of 180 nm. In order to accomplish this and still maintain focus in the lithography systems, the wafer surface must be held to a plane within 18 nm. Chemical-mechanical polishing techniques have been developed to accomplish this, but the basic physical mechanisms for material removal are not well understood.

Key Unresolved Problems

Data on Models for Dynamic Material Deformation and High Rate Effects

Predictive simulations based upon sophisticated numerical methods have the potential to enable optimal choice of process parameters for modern machining operations. However, the state-of-the-art in predictive modeling of machining operations is severely limited by insufficient measurement capability and materials data. In other words, current models give impressive qualitative results, but data to validate these results is nearly nonexistent. Some recent attempts to compare results of simulations with experiments on deformation processes in which rapid heating occurs indicate that there can be large errors in simulated results, such as predictions of melting of the workpiece material, that do not occur during the actual deformation process. Without an effort to improve the state-of-the-art, industries that are currently receptive to the use of modern numerical simulation techniques may become frustrated with the lack of quantitative accuracy. This effort will advance the state-of-the-art in two areas: (1) fundamental advanced machining metrology and simulation; and (2) measurement of fundamental data on the behavior of materials at high strain, strain rate, and temperature needed for input into simulations of machining.

The impact of this type of modeling is broad ranging. Examples include: (1) the development of techniques for scientific tool designs tailored to minimize wear rates in specific materials; (2) coupling of the dynamics of the plastic flows generated in machining to the behavior of the machine-tool structure, enabling better estimates to be made of machining stability; this problem has proved to be critical for successful implementation of high-speed machining.

Meso-Scale Material Behavior

With the rapid development of non-lithographic manufacturing processes such as laser machining and micro-mechanical machining to manufacture smaller and smaller features, inhomogeneities in the material due to grain structure become increasingly important for understanding and predicting behavior. This requires the development of meso-scale modeling techniques that account for grain structure and orientation. Such techniques would also be useful in generating improved physics-based models of the dynamic behavior of materials for simulations of more conventional larger scale machining operations.

“Design” of Machine Dynamics, Ensuring Dynamic Repeatability

The importance of dynamic stability in high-speed machining has highlighted the need for designs of machine components that produce repeatable dynamic behavior. Predicting the dynamics is difficult primarily due to the lack of good models of the mechanical behavior of interfaces between machine components, particularly with regard to the effect of these interfaces on the damping of machine components and structures.

Environmentally-Friendly Processing – “Green” Machining

Pressure to develop environmentally benign manufacturing operations has driven manufacturers to examine the reduction or elimination of machining coolants and lubricants. However, the effect of these substances on the fundamental behavior of the machine operations is not well understood and this lack of understanding inhibits the development of optimally “green” machining systems. Pressure on U.S. manufacturers will grow rapidly as foreign competitors who have made progress in environmentally friendly manufacturing methods (particularly in Europe and Japan) begin to adopt trade standards that U.S. companies are unable to meet.

Residual Stress Prediction and Control

High-speed machining has enabled an increase to occur in the types of components can be machined. However, there are many more improvements that can still be made. For example, large thin-walled components are currently being manufactured for the aerospace, communication, ship building and space industries that are subject to substantial deformation due to residual and machining-induced stresses. Internal studies at Boeing have indicated that the cost of scrapping parts associated with unpredictable residual stresses can amount to many millions of dollars per year. Furthermore, the desire to reduce the “chip tax” associated with recycling material from high-speed machining has driven manufacturers to consider near-net-shape processes that can be used in conjunction with high-speed machining. These processes can add even greater complexity and variation in the stresses that are present in the initial workpiece.

New Ideas Applications or Technologies

There are many areas in manufacturing that show potential for growth in the next decade. Some of these areas have not traditionally been covered by manufacturing and mechanical engineering. Examples include:

- Electronics Manufacturing and Precision Engineering
- Manufacture of biomedical devices
 - Micro-surgical robotics
 - Tissue-engineered devices
- Solid Freeform Fabrication (e.g., laser sintering)

Funding for such areas may also come from sources not traditionally associated with mechanical engineering, including the National Institutes of Health and consortia such as SEMATECH in the electronics industry.

Research Needs in Computational Mechanics

Ted Belytschko
Northwestern University

The purpose of this paper is to examine directions for future research in computational mechanics that are relevant to broad national goals. For this purpose, we will first review the major issues that are driving computational mechanics and the barriers to computability. I will focus on nonlinear simulation, for it is the most interesting and profitable area for research. It is argued that the barriers to computability correspond to the issues in which research progress is critical. The reader is also urged to read the NRC report “Research Direction in Computational Mechanics.”

The major application of computational mechanics in the industry are in

1. prototype simulation
2. process simulation
3. design of new materials

Prototype simulation refers to the evaluation of new designs by simulation of computer models instead of tests. Examples are crashworthiness simulation of automobiles; drop tests on products such as cellphones, televisions, chain saws and other products; simulation of extreme events in various facilities, such as seismic response of bridges, buildings and manufacturing facilities; weapons effects on structures and military vehicles, etc. In order to speed design cycles, reduce design costs, and improve safety, replacement of tests by simulation is a necessity.

Process simulation refers to the simulations of manufacturing process, such as sheet metal forming, extrusion, wafer manufacturing and many others. Again, there is a need to replace tests of prototypes by simulation to speed design times and reduce costs.

The design of new materials is the holy grail of material science. The objective is to be able to perform the initial design of new materials on the basis of computer simulations. Properties such as ductility, post-yield behavior, fracture toughness, and many other properties of a material need to be predicted on the basis of fundamental laws. This often entails simulations combining quantum mechanics, molecular mechanics and continuum mechanics, either on a hierarchical or strongly couple manner.

All of the above involve nonlinear simulation, yet most are not achievable with any reasonable robustness and fidelity today because of shortcomings in our understanding of mechanics and our computational capabilities.

To highlight the major difficulties in computability, we list in Table 1 the major barriers to computability in solid and structural mechanics as taken from Belytschko and Mish (2001).

Table 1. Weights for factors contributing to levels of difficulty

Factor	Property	Physical attributes
W_1	Smoothness	Contact-impact and cracking
W_2	Geometric stability	Buckling, limit points-imperfection sensitivity
W_3	Material stability	Shear bands, cracking, and damage
W_4	Effectiveness of constitutive equations	Ability of constitutive equations to replicate load paths-deteriorates significantly for cyclic loads
W_5	Variability in data	Stochastic and epistemic uncertainties in loads, material properties, initial conditions, boundary conditions and geometry.
W_6	Resolution requirements	Driven by ratio of fine scale to coarse scale response

Each of the above areas still requires significant work to provide robust, effective numerical methods. Particularly important in prototype simulation are the problems of material stability: how to transition from an intact material to a crack, how to effectively represent a crack in a computational model. Some new methods have recently been developed in Belytschko et al (2001), but they deal primarily with crack modeling: the issue of constitutive laws that accurately predict crack formation is still an open issue. Damage models such as described by Krajcinovic and Mastilovic (1995) are a promising approach.

The issue of uncertainties also can not be dealt with effectively at this time. Much of the work on probabilistic methods is not relevant to applications in nonlinear simulation, for it focuses on the extreme events. What is needed are methods that provide some guidance as to the range of expected results and provide computationally inexpensive ways to judge the effects of roughness and instabilities on uncertainties in the response. Promising avenues are anti-optimization, Elishakoff et al (1994) and sensitivity methods (see Tsay and Arora (1990)), although the latter may not be too useful in the non-smooth, unstable problems that permeate nonlinear simulation.

Resolution requirements are also a major barrier to computability. The U.S. research posture seems to rely on Moore's law to eliminate these difficulties. Moore's law states computer power increases by a factor of two every eighteen months (there are variants ranging from 12 months to 24 months) and it has enabled rapid increases in resolution when problems were primarily two dimensional over the past three decades. However, as engineers rely increasingly on three dimensional analyses, the benefits of Moore's law become less dramatic. For a three dimensional explicit calculation of a hyperbolic partial differential equation, the computations required for a simulation for a mesh with elements along each side is of order. Over the next decade, Moore's law predicts that computer power will increase by 100. Yet the consequent increase in the numbers of elements along an edge of a three dimensional calculation is only 3.2, so that we can not expect even an order of magnitude increase in resolution in the next decade due to Moore's law.

Some of the major developments of the past decade have been driven by the need to accommodate resolution requirements effectively: examples are adaptive methods, Oden et al (1989) and multiscale methods (Hughes et al (1998)). In the latter, fine scale features are resolved in coarse scale models by introducing their effect through variational means. Another promising avenue for combining different scales are partition of unity methods, Babuska and Melenck (1997) and meshfree methods (Belytschko et al (1994)). Methods for combining models ranging from quantum mechanics to continuum models are reviewed by Rudd and

Broughton (2000), an example is Abraham et al (1998). The latter are particularly important in the design of materials, since the ultimate goal of this effort is to predict the properties of new materials, including fracture properties, by simulation.

Thus the major challenges in computational mechanics appear to be:

1. dealing with problems which are not smooth or stable with uncertainties
2. methods for multiscale phenomena, including coupling to molecular and quantum mechanics; both adaptive methods and embedding methods, such as partition of unity methods, are promising avenues
3. development of methods for computational determination of constitutive properties—this involves many tasks, including linking determination of nonlinear properties from microscale models, many issues in mechanics

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Brazilian Spatial Agency, Agência Espacial Brasileira (AEB)

Professor Luiz Bevilacqua is the new president of the Brazilian Spatial Agency, Agência Espacial Brasileira (AEB).

Professor Bevilacqua is one of the founders of ABCM, the Brazilian Society of Mechanical Sciences. He earned a Ph.D. in Applied Mechanics from Stanford University. At present, he is coordinating the graduation course of LNCC, National Laboratory of Scientific Computation. In his professional life he has occupied very important positions, such as the General Secretary of the Minister of Science and Technology, and Director of the two most important agencies for scientific founding, CAPES and CNPq. He is the author of two books and has published many papers.

Correction

In the previous issue of *Mechanics* (Volume 32, Number 5-6), the minutes of the 65th Meeting of the Board of Directors was incorrectly published in abbreviated and unofficial form. The official minutes will appear in the next issue.

Letter from the Secretary of the Fellows

Dear Fellows of the American Academy of Mechanics:

I am writing you to formally invite nominations for the grade of Fellow of AAM. A nomination form is enclosed for your use. Also, an updated list of Fellows is available on the AAM website. I am sending this invitation early to allow more time for nominations.

The following new Fellows were elected at the November 2002 meeting of the Fellows in New Orleans: Professors Robert Brodkey, Giulio Maier, Robert McMeeking, and Dr. Ken Chong.

If you wish to nominate more than one colleague, you may make copies of the nomination form. Each nomination form should be completed and signed by two fellows, and a two-page resume of the nominee must accompany the nomination. Nominations for a Fellow of AAM must be received in my office by September 22, 2003. All nominees will be placed on a ballot in the order they are received. The ballots will be mailed to you for your vote in September. The ballots will be counted at the meeting of Fellows at the ASME IMECE in Washington, DC. Hopefully, the date, place, and time of the meeting will be in the Committee Meeting booklet available at the Congress.

I will look forward to seeing you in Washington, DC, in November.

Sincerely yours,

Subhendu K. Datta
Secretary of the Fellows
Chair, Department of Mechanical Engineering
University of Colorado, UCB 427
Boulder, CO 80309-0427
Tel.: (303) 492-0287; Fax: (303) 492-3498; e-mail: dattas@spot.colorado.edu

**NOMINATION FOR FELLOW OF
THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF MECHANICS**

NOTES:

- *Persons nominated must be members of the Academy (Bylaws, III 1)*
- *Nominations must be made by **two** of the Fellows (Bylaws, III 2)*
- *Fellows shall be elected on the basis of their contributions to mechanics (Bylaws, III 1)*

Name of the member nominated (*please print*)

Citation (*please state in no more than **fifteen words** the basis of the nomination*)

Nominated by (*signature of two fellows required*)

Signature: _____

Printed Name: _____ **Date:** _____

Signature: _____

Printed Name: _____ **Date:** _____

Please mail this nomination form (no faxes please!) to:

**Professor Subhendu K. Datta, Chair
Department of Mechanical Engineering
University of Colorado
UCB 427
Boulder, CO 80309-0427, USA**

so as to reach him on or before **September 22, 2003**. The nomination should include one good copy of a **two -page resume** of the member nominated.

AAM AWARDS NOMINATION

The Awards Committee of the American Academy of Mechanics requests nominations for the following two awards to be presented at the forthcoming ASME International Mechanical Engineering Congress and Exposition in Washington, November 15-21, 2003.

The 2003 American Academy of Mechanics Distinguished Service Award

This award is presented in recognition of a lifetime of distinguished service in the field of Theoretical and Applied Mechanics and to the Academy. Preliminary nominations should consist of a one-page letter describing the outstanding service of the nominee, plus a one-page biographical sketch, and the names of at least three people willing to write letters of support in the event that the Awards Committee requests them.

The 2003 American Academy of Mechanics Junior Achievement Award

This award is presented in recognition of outstanding research in the field of Theoretical and Applied Mechanics by a junior investigator. The nominee's highest degree must have been received after December 31, 1992. Preliminary nominations should consist of a one-page letter describing the research of the nominee, plus a one-page biographical sketch and copies of at least three publications of the nominee.

Note: *Preliminary nominations for both awards, postmarked by August 1, 2003, should be sent to Stephen H. Crandall at crandall@mit.edu. Once the preliminary materials have been reviewed, additional information may be requested from the nominators.*

2003 AAM Awards Committee

S. H. Crandall: *Chair*, J. T. Oden, W. G. Knauss, R. C. Batra, C. E. Taylor

American Academy of Mechanics Founders Prize and Grant

Up to \$10,000 For the Academic Year 2003-2004
(Deadline: July 1, 2003)

The American Academy of Mechanics is pleased to announce the availability of a Founder's Prize and Grant to be awarded in September 2003 to a doctoral candidate in the field of Mechanics. Funding has been arranged by the Robert M. and Mary Haythornthwaite Foundation through the good offices of Professor Haythornthwaite, founder and first President of the Academy. The award will be made on the recommendation of an AAM committee. The prize consists of a Certificate and \$1,000 that will be presented at the annual meeting of the Academy, usually held in November. The Grant will be made to that same person in two installments, \$6,000 in September 2003 and up to \$3,000 in January 2004, the latter dependent on the size of the approved budget and receipt by the AAM committee of an acceptable progress report. In order to encourage contestants to think constructively about the impact of new and pending developments, they will be asked to compose an original essay of no more than a thousand words under the title "Progress through Mechanics". The winning essay will be published in *mechanics*. The award is open to those who, as of July 1, 2003, are registered as graduate students at a degree granting institution within the Americas, have completed at least one year of full-time graduate study at that institution, have been assigned a thesis advisor at the institution and have had a doctoral thesis topic emphasizing mechanics approved by the institution following candidacy or equivalent procedures. There are no restrictions with regard to citizenship, residency, race, religion, or sex. Letters of support will be required of the thesis advisor and in addition one from either a Member or a Fellow of AAM. Contestants will be judged on the basis of the essay, plans, references and academic history. The intent of the Grant is to support the research of the student through an approved combination of equipment purchases, information access, travel, etc., but not routine living expenses or fees. Detailed rules for the competition will be issued soon: to receive them, express your interest to the committee by FAX to (215) 204-6936, or by writing to:

AAM Founders Prize and Grant Committee
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Congress participants are encouraged to submit a paper. Papers are sought for all topics corresponding to Pre-Nominated Session or Mini-Symposium subject matters. The paper must be in English and should present material that is novel and preferably unpublished at the time of the Congress. All papers presented at the Congress are by invitation based on the recommendation of the International Papers Committee. No author will be invited to present more than one paper. Prospective authors are asked to submit only one paper for consideration.

MINI - SYMPOSIA

Smart materials and structures ? Tissue, cellular and molecular biomechanics ? Mechanics of thin films and nanostructures ? Microfluidics ? Microgravity flow phenomena ? Atmosphere and ocean dynamics

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Biological fluid dynamics ? Boundary layers ? Combustion and flames ? Complex and smart fluids ? Compressible flow ? Computational fluid dynamics (jointly with IACM) ? Convective phenomena ? Drops and bubbles ? Environmental fluid mechanics ? Experimental methods in fluid mechanics ? Flow control ? Flow in porous media ? Flow instability and transition ? Flow in thin films ? Fluid mechanics of materials processing ? Granular flows ? Low-Reynolds-number flow ? Magnetohydrodynamics ? Multiphase flows ? Solidification and crystal growth ? Stirring and mixing ? Fluid mechanics of suspensions ? Topological fluid mechanics ? Turbulence ? Vortex dynamics ? Waves

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Computational solid mechanics (jointly with IACM) ? Contact and friction problems (jointly with IAVSD) ? Control of multibody systems ? Control of structures ? Damage mechanics ? Dynamic plasticity of structures ? Elasticity ? Experimental methods in solid mechanics ? Fatigue ? Fracture and crack mechanics (jointly with ICF) ? Functionally graded materials ? Impact and wave propagation ? Material instabilities ? Mechanics of composites ? Mechanics of phase transformations (jointly with IACM) ? Mechanics of porous materials ? Multibody dynamics ? Plasticity and viscoplasticity ? Plates and shells (jointly with IACM) ? Rock mechanics and geomechanics ? Solid mechanics in manufacturing ? Stability of structures ? Stochastic micromechanics ? Structural optimization (jointly with ISSMO) ? Structural vibrations ? Viscoelasticity and creep

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**CALL FOR PROPOSALS TO HOST AN
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The United States National Committee on Theoretical and Applied Mechanics (USNC/TAM) seeks proposals from U. S. authors and institutions to host IUTAM Symposia or Instructional Summer Schools in 2006 or 2007. Information for proposals from the United States can be found on the USNC/TAM website at: <http://www7.nationalacademies.org/usnctam>. IUTAM provides a small amount of financial support for symposia and summer schools. US organizers are strongly encouraged to seek additional financial support from other sources. The primary use of financial support is to help with travel expenses for younger scientists and for scientists from developing countries.

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The goal of an IUTAM Symposium is to assemble a group of active scientists, within a well-defined field, for the development of science in that field. Participation is by invitation only. In order to achieve effective communication within the group it should, typically, be limited to 60-80 scientists with expertise in the subject area of the symposium. Symposia typically consist of a few invited lectures, and a larger number of contributed papers, presented as lectures and/or posters, all pre-screened by the Symposium Scientific Committee.

IUTAM Instructional Summer Schools

The purpose of an IUTAM Instructional Summer School is to provide lectures by leading experts in a new or emerging field of science and engineering in order to foster developments in that field. Schools are typically 3-5 days in length and intended primarily for younger scientists and those with only limited knowledge in the specific field of the school. Participation of is by invitation only.

Proposal Submission

Proposals from the United States to host a symposium or summer school should be submitted on the appropriate two-page Proposal Submission Form available on the USNC/TAM website. The completed proposal should be sent electronically to the USNC/TAM Secretary (herak@virginia.edu) no later than January 15, 2004. Proposers may submit their proposals directly to IUTAM. However, experience has shown that proposals benefit from the feedback provided by USNC/TAM, and that the recommendation of USNC/TAM when the proposal is finally submitted to IUTAM carries considerable weight.

Final Approvals

Proposals will be assessed by the USNC/TAM and then forwarded to IUTAM where they are reviewed by IUTAM panels. The IUTAM General Assembly will vote on the panel recommendations in August 2004 at the International Congress on Theoretical and Applied Mechanics in Warsaw, Poland (<http://ictam04.ippt.gov.pl/>).

PACAM VIII

Eighth Pan American Congress of Applied Mechanics

January 5-9, 2004

Havana, Cuba

<http://www.pacam8.mcgill.ca/>

The Eighth Pan American Congress of Applied Mechanics (PACAM VIII), jointly sponsored by the University of Havana, the Institute of Cybernetics, Mathematics, and Physics of Cuba, and the American Academy of Mechanics, will be held January 5-9, 2004 at the Convention Center, Havana, Cuba. The Honorary Chairman of the Organizing Committee is Prof. Alina Ruiz Jhones of the University of Havana. The Co-Chairmen are Prof. Martin Ostoja-Starzewski of McGill University and Prof. Reinaldo Rodríguez-Ramos of the University of Havana. The Chairman of the Editorial Committee is Prof. Julián Bravo-Castillero of the University of Havana, and the Chairman of the Local Arrangements Committee is Prof. Raúl Guinovart-Díaz of the University of Havana, Cuba.

The aim of sponsors is to promote progress in the broad field of mechanics by (1) exposing engineers and scientists, including graduate students, to new research findings, techniques, and problems, and (2) providing opportunities for personal interactions between mechanics of North and South America, as well as other continents. It is the only conference sponsored by the American Academy of Mechanics (AAM).

The Pan American Congresses of Applied Mechanics are held every two years early in January, always in a Latin American venue, at a time when few other conferences are scheduled. The previous Congresses were held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in 1989; Valparaiso, Chile in 1991; São Paulo, Brazil in 1993; Buenos Aires, Argentina in 1995; San Juan, Puerto Rico in 1997, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in 1999 and Temuco, Chile in 2002. Participants come from the Americas as well as Africa, Asia, Australia, and Europe.

Persons willing to organize special sessions in any area of mechanics are welcome to contact the organizers listed below. All the future announcements will be made at the website listed above, and through the AAM (<http://www.AAMech.org/>). Four-page papers for the conference proceedings will be due June 30, 2003, at either address:

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