

# Thermodynamics and mechanics of solids

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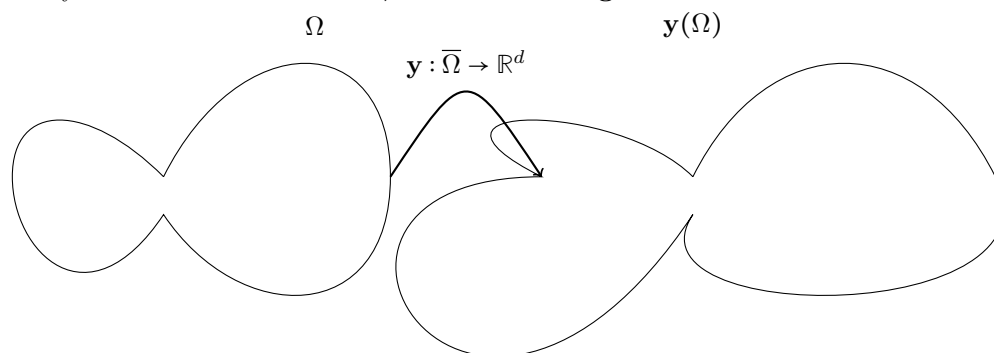
# 1 TODO

- include missing lecture about potential forces
- include missing lecture about rank one convexity
- include weak convergence symbol
- fix bold greek letters

## 2 Geometry

### 2.1 Deformation

Suppose we are given an abstract body  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d, d = 2, 3$ . Choosing a particular state, we denote it the **reference configuration**. After the acting of forces, the body deforms into the **current, deformed configuration**.



The mapping that produces the deformation is called the **deformation**, denoted  $\mathbf{y}$ , i.e.

$$\mathbf{y} : \bar{\Omega} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Of large interest will be the **deformation gradient**

$$\mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}), (\nabla \mathbf{y})_{ij} = \frac{\partial y^i}{\partial x^j},$$

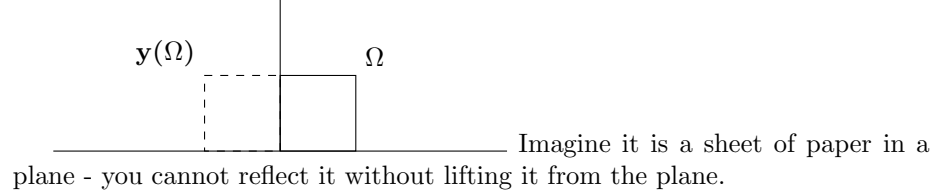
on which we put some physically sound restrictions, such as  $\det \mathbb{F} > 0$ . This means in particular that the determinant is nonzero, but also that preserves orientations of bases:

$$(\mathbf{e}_1 \times \mathbf{e}_2) \cdot \mathbf{e}_3 > 0 \Rightarrow (\mathbb{F} \mathbf{e}_1 \times \mathbb{F} \mathbf{e}_2) \cdot \mathbb{F} \mathbf{e}_3 > 0.$$

**Example.** Suppose the deformation is given as

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x},$$

i.e.,  $\mathbb{F} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\det \mathbb{F} = -1$ . This is an example of a deformation that is *forbidden*.



## 2.2 Displacement

Another useful way of describing the deformation is by using the **displacement vector**  $\mathbf{u}$ :

$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{x},$$

so taking the gradient gives

$$\nabla \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{I}.$$

*Remark.* It is interesting that we do not place any restrictions on the determinant of the displacement gradient.

## 2.3 Changes of measures

We need to examine how the volume, area and lengths change under deformation. In what follows, for a set  $\omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  in the reference configuration we denote  $\omega^y \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  to be the deformed body in the current configuration, i.e.

$$\omega^y = \mathbf{y}(\omega).$$

### 2.3.1 Change of volume

Using the change of variable theorem we obtain

$$\lambda(\omega^y) = \int_{\omega^y} 1 \, d\mathbf{x}^y = \int_{\omega} \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x},$$

so we write  $d\mathbf{x}^y = \det \mathbb{F} \, d\mathbf{x}$ . This motivates "our" definition of the determinant of the deformation gradient:

$$\det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\lambda(B(\mathbf{x}, r))}{\lambda(B(\mathbf{x}, r))}, \quad (1)$$

where  $B(\mathbf{x}, r)$  is a (closed) ball centered at  $\mathbf{x}$  of radius  $r$ .

### 2.3.2 Change of lengths

Suppose the line segment  $\mathbf{x} + \Delta \mathbf{x}$  undergoes deformation. How does its length change? Taylor expansion yields:

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x} + \Delta \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x})\Delta \mathbf{x} + \text{h.o.t.},$$

where h.o.t. stands for higher order terms. Using the expansion, we can write

$$\|\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x} + \Delta\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})\|^2 = (\Delta\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbb{F}^\top \mathbb{F} \Delta\mathbf{x} = (\Delta\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbb{C}(\mathbf{x}) \Delta\mathbf{x},$$

where we have denoted

$$\mathbb{C}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{F}^\top(\mathbf{x}) \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}),$$

as the **Right Cauchy Green tensor**.

**Example.** Let the deformation  $\mathbf{y}$  be given as  $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{R}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\mathbb{R} \in \text{SO}(d) = \{\mathbb{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}, \mathbb{A}^\top \mathbb{A} = \mathbb{A} \mathbb{A}^\top = \mathbb{I}\}$ . Then  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{I}$ .

### 2.3.3 Change of surfaces

For  $\mathbb{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  regular we define the **cofactor matrix**  $\text{cof } \mathbb{A}$  as

$$\text{cof } \mathbb{A} = (\det \mathbb{A}) \mathbb{A}^{-\top},$$

which is an interesting quantity whatsoever; we will use the following theorem

**Theorem 1** (Piola's identity). *Let  $\mathbf{y} \in C^2(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^d)$ , then  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \Omega$ :*

$$\nabla \cdot (\text{cof } \nabla \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{0}.$$

For a regular matrix  $\mathbb{A}$ , we also have the identity

$$\mathbb{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det \mathbb{A}} (\text{cof } \mathbb{A})^\top, \quad (2)$$

What about the determinant of the cofactor? Clearly

$$\det \text{cof } \mathbb{A} = (\det \mathbb{A})^d \det \mathbb{A}^{-\top} = (\det \mathbb{A})^{d-1},$$

so we can also express equation 2 in a different way

$$\mathbb{A}^{-1} = \frac{(\text{cof } \mathbb{A})^\top}{(\det \text{cof } \mathbb{A})^{1/d-1}}. \quad (3)$$

From geometry, recall the change of variables for surface integration:

$$\int_{\partial\omega^y} \mathbf{n}^y dS^y = \int_{\partial\omega} \text{cof } \mathbb{F} \mathbf{n} dS,$$

where  $\mathbf{n}^y$  is the outward unit normal to the deformed boundary  $\omega^y$ . Informally, we write  $\mathbf{n}^y dS^y = \text{cof } \mathbb{F} \mathbf{n} dS$ . We can also explicitly express the normal to the deformed boundary as

$$\mathbf{n}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) = \frac{\text{cof } \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x})}{\|\text{cof } \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x})\|}, \mathbf{x} \in \partial\omega, \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) \in \partial\omega^y. \quad (4)$$

## 2.4 Affine transformations

An example of deformation is the so called **affine transformation**.

**Example.** Suppose the following deformation:

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}, \mathbb{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d, \det \mathbb{F} > 0.$$

Clearly then  $\mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{A}$ .

It is crucial to realize how  $\mathbb{F}, \mathbb{F}^\top, \mathbb{F}^{-\top}$  work.

- $\mathbb{F}$  takes a vector  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{0}$  from the *reference configuration* and maps it to the vector  $\mathbb{F}\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{F}\mathbf{0}$  in the *current configuration*
- $\mathbb{F}^{-1}$  takes the vector  $\mathbb{F}\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{F}\mathbf{0}$  from the *current configuration* and maps it to the vector  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{0}$  from the *reference configuration*
- $\mathbb{F}^\top$  is defined through:  $\mathbb{F}\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbb{F}^\top \mathbf{w}$ , and since  $\mathbb{F}$  is defined on the reference configuration,  $\mathbb{F}^\top$  must take something from the *current configuration* and return something from the *reference configuration*.
- $\mathbb{F}^{-\top}$  consequently takes something from the *reference configuration* and maps it to something from the *current configuration*.

**Example.** What when  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{I}$ ? Can we say something about  $\mathbb{F}$ ? Write  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{F}^\top \mathbb{F} = \mathbb{I}$ , so  $\mathbb{F}^\top = \mathbb{F}^{-1}$ ,  $\det \mathbb{F} > 0$ . From this we have  $\mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{R}(\mathbf{x})$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$ , where  $\mathbb{R}$  is a rotation tensor. Investigate the cofactor of the deformation gradient:

$$\text{cof } \mathbb{F} = \det \mathbb{F} \mathbb{F}^{-\top} = \text{cof } \mathbb{R} = 1 \mathbb{R}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}).$$

This implies  $\text{cof } \mathbb{F} = \mathbb{F}$ . Recall Piola's identity:

$$\mathbf{0} = \nabla \cdot \text{cof } \mathbb{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla^2 \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}).$$

We have the identity: and since the LHS is zero, we also have  $\|\nabla \nabla \mathbf{y}\| = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{R}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}$ . Let  $\mathbb{R}$  be piecewise affine. Then  $\mathbb{R}_1(\mathbb{I} - \mathbf{n} \otimes \mathbf{n}) = \mathbb{R}_2(\mathbb{I} - \mathbf{n} \otimes \mathbf{n})$ , so  $\mathbb{R}_1 - \mathbb{R}_2 = (\mathbb{R}_1 - \mathbb{R}_2) = (\mathbb{R}_1 - \mathbb{R}_2)\mathbf{n} \otimes \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{b}$ , but that is not possible for two rotations; the rank of the RHS is one, whereas the LHS is not.

## 3 Forces

### 3.1 Forces in the deformed configuration

Recall  $\mathbf{y} : \bar{\Omega} \rightarrow \bar{\Omega}^y$ . We can define the **volume density of applied forces**  $\mathbf{f}^y : \bar{\Omega}^y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  (in newtons per cubic meters, e.g. gravity). The same on the boundary  $\mathbf{g}^y : \Gamma_N^y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  (**surface density of applied forces** (in newtons per square meters = Pascals, e.g. hydrostatic pressure.)

#### 3.1.1 Cauchy stress tensor

**Lemma 1** (Stress principle of Euler and Cauchy). *There exists a (Cauchy) stress vector function  $\mathbf{t}^y : \bar{\Omega}^y \times \mathcal{S}^{d-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  with the following properties.*

1. If  $\mathbf{x}^y \in \Gamma_N^y$ , then  $\mathbf{t}^y(\mathbf{x}^y, \mathbf{n}^y) = \mathbf{g}^y(\mathbf{x}^y)$ , where  $\mathbf{n}^y$  is the unit outer normal vector to  $\partial\Omega^y$  at  $\mathbf{x}^y$ .
2.  $\forall \omega^y \subset \Omega^y$  it holds that  $\int_{\omega^y} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^y) d\mathbf{x}^y + \int_{\partial\omega^y} \mathbf{t}^y(\mathbf{x}^y, \mathbf{n}^y) dS^y = \mathbf{0}$ . (Balance of forces in static equilibrium.)
3.  $\forall \omega^y \subset \Omega^y$  it holds that  $\int_{\omega^y} \mathbf{x}^y \times \mathbf{f}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) d\mathbf{x}^y + \int_{\partial\omega^y} \mathbf{x}^y \times \mathbf{t}^y(\mathbf{x}^y, \mathbf{n}^y) dS^y = \mathbf{0}$ . (Balance of moment of forces in static equilibrium.)

Euler says that the direct consequence of this is the existence of  $\mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y)$  such that

$$\mathbf{t}^y(\mathbf{x}^y, \mathbf{n}^y) = \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) \mathbf{n}^y, \quad (5)$$

where the tensorial quantity  $\mathbb{T}$  is called the **Cauchy stress tensor**.

### 3.1.2 Balance equations in the deformed configuration

Classical physics gives us 2 fundamental relations: Newtons second law for momenta and for angular momenta. We examine these in the continuum mechanics setting.

From second property it follows:

$$\int_{\omega^y} \mathbf{f}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) d\mathbf{x}^y = \int_{\partial\omega^y} \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) \mathbf{n}^y dS^y = 0 = \int_{\omega^y} \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) d\mathbf{x}^y, \quad (6)$$

so using the localization theorem we get

$$\mathbf{f}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) + \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) = \mathbf{0}, \forall \mathbf{x}^y \in \Omega^y.$$

From the third property it follows

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\omega^y} \mathbf{x}^y \times \mathbf{f}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) d\mathbf{x}^y + \int_{\partial\omega^y} \mathbf{x}^y \times \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) \mathbf{n}^y dS^y = \\ &= \int_{\omega^y} \varepsilon_{ijk} x_j^y f_k^y d\mathbf{x}^y + \int_{\omega^y} \varepsilon_{ijk} x_j^y (T_{km}^y n_m^y) dS^y = \int_{\omega^y} \varepsilon_{ijk} x_j^y f_k^y d\mathbf{x}^y = \int_{\omega^y} \varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial(x_j^y T_{km}^y)}{\partial x_m^y} d\mathbf{x}^y = \\ &= \int_{\omega^y} \varepsilon_{ijk} x_j^y f_k^y d\mathbf{x}^y + \int_{\omega^y} \varepsilon_{ijk} x_j^y \frac{\partial T_{km}^y}{\partial x_m^y} d\mathbf{x}^y + \int_{\omega^y} \varepsilon_{ijk} \delta_{jm} T_{km}^y d\mathbf{x}^y = \mathbf{0}. \end{aligned}$$

The last term implies

$$\int_{\omega^y} \varepsilon_{ijk} T_{kj}^y = 0,$$

and using the localization theorem, we obtain

$$T_{ij}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) = T_{ji}^y(\mathbf{x}^y), \quad i.e. \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) = (\mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y))^T. \quad (7)$$

The **Cauchy stress tensor is symmetric**.

## 3.2 Forces in the undeformed configuration

We have obtained the equations in the deformed configuration. That is however inconvenient - we solve the equations to find the deformed configuration. This brings us to find a new way to write the equations - in the reference configuration. The construction is a bit synthetic, our intuition will be guided by the requirement to obtain similar equations as in the current configuration.

### 3.2.1 Piola-Kirchhoff stresses

**Definition 1** (First Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensor). Given the Cauchy stress tensor  $\mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y)$ , we define the **First Piola Kirchhoff stress tensor**

$$\mathbb{T} : \overline{\Omega} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}, \mathbb{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) \operatorname{cof} \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) \mathbb{F}^{-\top}(\mathbf{x}).$$

**Definition 2** (Second Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensor). The quantity

$$\mathbb{S}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{F}^{-1} \mathbb{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{S}(\mathbf{x})^\top,$$

is called the **second Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensor**.

*Remark.* The first PK tensor  $\mathbb{T}$  is *not symmetric in general*, but the second  $\mathbb{S}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{F}^{-1} = \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbb{F}^{-1} \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) \mathbb{F}^{-\top}(\mathbf{x})$  is. Also, we see that not every matrix can serve as  $\mathbb{T}$ ; it must hold  $\mathbb{T}(\mathbf{x})(\operatorname{cof} \mathbb{F}^{-1})$  is symmetric.

*Remark.* We have the following identity (using Piola's identity):

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbb{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \nabla \cdot \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y)^y. \quad (8)$$

### 3.2.2 Balance equations in the deformed configuration

Recall the balance of momentum

$$-\nabla \cdot (\mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y)) = \mathbf{f}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) \text{ in } \Omega^y,$$

multiplying by  $\det \mathbb{F} > 0$  yields

$$\det \mathbb{F} \nabla \cdot (\mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y)) = \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{f}^y(\mathbf{x}^y), \quad (9)$$

which *begs* for the definition

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{f}^y(\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})),$$

as the force in the *referential configuration*.

In total, the total acting body force on the body can be written as

$$\int_{\mathbf{y}(\omega)} \mathbf{f}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) d\mathbf{x}^y = \int_{\omega} \mathbf{f}^y(\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})) \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\omega} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}.$$

We can do the same for the balance of surface forces; the total contact force acting on the body is

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Gamma_N^y} \mathbf{g}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) dS^y &= \int_{\partial\omega^y} \mathbf{t}^y(\mathbf{x}^y, \mathbf{n}^y) dS^y = \int_{\partial\mathbf{y}(\omega)} \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) \mathbf{n}^y dS^y = \\ &= \int_{\partial\omega} \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})) \operatorname{cof} \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{n} dS = \int_{\partial\omega} \mathbb{T}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{n} dS, \end{aligned}$$

so if we define

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{T}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}),$$

as the contact force in the *referential configuration*, we formally have a similar expression.

## 4 Elasticity

**Definition 3** (Elasticity). We say that a material is **elastic (or Cauchy elastic)** if there is a response function  $\tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D : \Omega^y \times \mathbb{R}_+^{3 \times 3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\text{sym}}^{3 \times 3}$  such that

$$\mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}).$$

The response function is also called the **constitutive law**.

*Remark.* If we know the material is elastic, we also have the information about the First Piola-Kirchhoff stress, as  $\mathbb{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) \text{cof } \mathbb{F}$ , so

$$\mathbb{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) \text{cof } \mathbb{F} = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}). \quad (10)$$

### 4.1 Frame invariance principle

The frame invariance principle states:

$$\tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{R} \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) \mathbb{R}^\top, \forall \mathbb{R} \in \text{SO}(3), \forall \mathbf{x} \in \overline{\Omega},$$

from which it follows ( $\tilde{\mathbb{T}}$  is defined in 10)

$$\tilde{\mathbb{T}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) = \det(\mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) (\mathbb{R}\mathbb{F})^{-\top} = \det(\mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) \mathbb{R} \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) \mathbb{R}^\top \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}^{-\top} = \det \mathbb{F} \mathbb{R} \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) \mathbb{F}^{-\top} = \mathbb{R} \tilde{\mathbb{T}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}),$$

thus

$$\tilde{\mathbb{T}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) = \mathbb{R} \tilde{\mathbb{T}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}), \text{ i.e. } \mathbb{R}^\top \tilde{\mathbb{T}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}), \forall \mathbb{R} \in \text{SO}(3), \forall \mathbb{F} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{3 \times 3}.$$

### 4.2 Isotropic material

Recall  $\mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}^y) = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}), \mathbf{y} : \overline{\Omega} \rightarrow \Omega^y = \mathbf{y}(\overline{\Omega})$ . Take  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \overline{\Omega}$  general but fixed, take  $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbb{R}^\top(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{x}_0)$  for some  $\mathbb{R} \in \text{SO}(3)$  and define a *new deformation*

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{y} \circ \mathbf{v}^{-1} : \mathbf{v}(\overline{\Omega}) \rightarrow \mathbf{y}(\overline{\Omega}), \tilde{\mathbf{y}}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) = \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbb{R}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}_0)).$$

This implies

$$\mathbf{x}_0^y = \mathbf{x}_0^{\tilde{y}}, \mathbb{T}^y(\mathbf{x}_0^y) = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbb{F}) = \mathbb{T}^{\tilde{y}}(\mathbf{x}_0^{\tilde{y}}) = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}_0, \tilde{\mathbb{F}}(\mathbf{x}_0)) = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}_0)\mathbb{R}).$$

**Definition 4** (Isotropic material). We call the material **isotropic** if it holds

$$\tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}\mathbb{R}), \forall \mathbb{R} \in \text{SO}(3), \forall \mathbb{F} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{3 \times 3}.$$

*Remark.* For the first Piola-Kirchhoff we obtain:  $\mathbb{T}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{T}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F})\mathbb{R}$ , which means

$$\mathbb{T}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{F}\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{Q} \tilde{\mathbb{T}}^D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) \mathbb{R}, \forall \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q} \in \text{SO}(3), \forall \mathbb{F} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{3 \times 3}.$$

### 4.3 Hyperelastic materials

**Definition 5.** We say that a material is hyperelastic if there is a function  $W : \overline{\Omega} \times \mathbb{R}_+^{3 \times 3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\mathbb{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \tilde{\mathbb{T}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) = \frac{\partial W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F})}{\partial \mathbb{F}}, \mathbb{F} = \nabla \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}).$$

The function  $W, [W] = \frac{J}{m^3} = \frac{Nm}{m^3} = \text{Pa}$  is called **stored energy density**.

*Remark.* Evidently,  $W$  has a potential.



#### 4.4 Properties of $W$

It is physical to assume

1.  $W \geq 0$  (energy is nonnegative)
2.  $W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) = W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}), \forall \mathbb{R} \in \text{SO}(3), \forall \mathbf{x} \in \overline{\Omega}, \forall \mathbb{F} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{3 \times 3}$ . (energy does not change under rotations <sup>1</sup>)
3.  $W(\mathbf{x}, \tilde{\mathbb{R}}\mathbb{U}) = W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{U}), \mathbb{U} = \sqrt{\mathbb{C}}$ . (matrices are from the polar decomposition)
4.  $W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \infty$  if  $\det \mathbb{F} \rightarrow 0_+$  (it takes infinite energy to deform the body to a point)
5.  $W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) \geq \alpha(\|\mathbb{F}\|^p + \|\text{cof } \mathbb{F}\|^q + (\det \mathbb{F})^r) - d, \forall \alpha > 0, \forall p, q, r \geq 1, \forall d \in \mathbb{R}, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \overline{\Omega}, \forall \mathbb{F} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{3 \times 3}$ .

**Definition 6** (Natural state of the body). The natural state of the body is the state in which

$$W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) = 0 \wedge \frac{\partial W}{\partial \mathbb{F}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) = 0. \quad (11)$$

*Remark* (Unnatural vegetable). Not all materials (bodies) have its natural states. Zum Beispiel, carrot does not have a natural state.

From the previous work, we can write  $\mathbb{R}^\top \frac{\partial W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F})}{\partial \mathbb{F}} = \frac{\partial W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F})}{\partial \mathbb{F}}$ , and for brevity denote  $W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) = W_R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F})$ . Next, we *suppose we can Taylor expand*:

$$\begin{aligned} W_R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F} + \tilde{\mathbb{F}}) &= W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F} + \mathbb{R}\tilde{\mathbb{F}}) = W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) + \frac{\partial W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F})}{\partial \mathbb{F}} : (\mathbb{R}\tilde{\mathbb{F}}) + \text{h.o.t.} \\ &= W_R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) + \mathbb{R}^\top \frac{\partial W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F})}{\partial \mathbb{F}} : \tilde{\mathbb{F}} + \text{h.o.t.} \end{aligned}$$

Moreover

$$W_R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F} + \tilde{\mathbb{F}}) = W_R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) + \frac{\partial W_R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F})}{\partial \mathbb{F}} : \tilde{\mathbb{F}}.$$

Altogether

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbb{F}}(W_R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) - W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F})) = 0,$$

from which it follows <sup>2</sup>

$$W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) = W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}) + k(\mathbb{R}).$$

Take  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{I}$ , then

$$W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}^2) = W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{R}) = W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}) + k(\mathbb{R}) = W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{I}) + 2k(\mathbb{R}),$$

so

$$W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}^n) = W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{I}) + nk(\mathbb{R}).$$

Since the set of rotations is closed and bounded, it is compact, so there exists a convergent subsequence of  $\{\mathbb{R}^n\}$ . Moreover, we assume  $W$  to be continuous

<sup>1</sup>If this was not true, you could create infinite energy by just spinning a rubber.

<sup>2</sup>The set of matrices with positive determinant is connected.

(we took the derivative...), so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}^n)$  exists and from the properties of  $W$  we get it is finite. But then  $k(\mathbb{R}) = 0$ , as otherwise  $nk(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \infty$ . All in all, we have shown

$$W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) = W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}). \quad (12)$$

**Definition 7** (Energy functional). Let us have  $\partial\Omega = \Gamma_N \cup \Gamma_D, \Gamma_N \cap \Gamma_D = \emptyset$ , where the parts of the boundary are those when Neumann/Dirichlet boundary conditions are prescribed. The energy functional of the material is the functional

$$I(\mathbf{y}) = \int_{\Omega} W(\mathbf{x}, \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x})) \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) \, dS,$$

where the first part corresponds to the stored energy and the remaining terms are the work done by the external loads.

*Remark.* If  $\mathbf{y}$  is the minimizer of  $I$ , then  $I(t\boldsymbol{\varphi} + \mathbf{y}) \geq I(\mathbf{y}), \forall t, \boldsymbol{\varphi}$ . If we denote

$$a(t) := I(t\boldsymbol{\varphi} + \mathbf{y}),$$

then it must hold

$$0 = a'(0) = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \int_{\Omega} W(\mathbb{F} + t\nabla\boldsymbol{\varphi}) \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot (\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) + t\boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x})) \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot (\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) + t\boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x})) \, dS \right) \Big|_{t=0},$$

calculating the derivatives yields

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial W(\mathbb{F})}{\partial \mathbb{F}} : \nabla \boldsymbol{\varphi} \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{f} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varphi} \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varphi} \, dS = \\ &= \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left( \frac{\partial W(\mathbb{F})}{\partial F_{ij}} \varphi_i \right) \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left( \frac{\partial W(\mathbb{F})}{\partial F_{ij}} \right) \varphi_i \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{f} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varphi} \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varphi} \, dS = \\ &= \int_{\Gamma_N} \frac{\partial W(\mathbb{F})}{\partial F_{ij}} \varphi_i n_j \, dS - \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left( \frac{\partial W(\mathbb{F})}{\partial F_{ij}} \right) \varphi_i \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{f} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varphi} \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varphi} \, dS, \end{aligned}$$

so it must hold

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left( \frac{\partial W(\mathbb{F})}{\partial F_{ij}} \right) = f_i \text{ in } \Omega, \frac{\partial W(\mathbb{F})}{\partial F_{ij}} n_j = g_i \text{ on } \Gamma_N.$$

This is exactly

$$-\nabla \cdot \mathbb{T} = \mathbf{f} \text{ in } \Omega, \mathbb{T} \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{g}, \text{ on } \Gamma_N.$$

This implies that  $\mathbf{y}$  minimizes energy  $\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{y}$  is governed by the equations of classical mechanics.

Are there some other qualities of  $W$ ? It is natural to assume

$$W(\mathbb{I}) = 0 \Rightarrow W(\mathbb{R}) = 0, \forall \mathbb{R} \in \text{SO}(3)$$

and  $W(\mathbb{F}) > 0$  whenever  $\mathbb{F} \notin \text{SO}(3)$ . This however implies  $W$  is not convex! Assume

$$\mathbb{R}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbb{R}_2 = \mathbb{I},$$

then

$$W\left(\frac{1}{4}\mathbb{R}_1 + \frac{3}{4}\mathbb{R}_2\right) > \frac{1}{4}W(\mathbb{R}_1) + \frac{3}{4}W(\mathbb{R}_2) = 0.$$

**Example** (Minimizer does not exist). Assume  $J(u) = \int_0^1 \left(1 - (u'(x))^2\right)^2 + u(x)^2 dx$ ,  $u \in W^{1,4}(0,1)$ ,  $u(0) = u(1) = 0$ , and find the minimum of  $J$ . First of all,  $J > 0$ , so the minimum also. I can take  $u_k$  such that  $u'_k(x) = 1$  on  $(0, 1/2)$  and  $u'_k(x) = -1$  on  $(1/2, 1)$ . Then  $J(u_k) \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \inf J = 0$  but there is no minimizer.

Not everything is lost...

**Definition 8** (Polyconvexity, 1977 J.M. Ball).  $W : \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$  is polyconvex provided there exists convex and lower-semicontinuous function  $h : \mathbb{R}^{19} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ :

$$W(\mathbb{A}) = h(\mathbb{A}, \text{cof } \mathbb{A}, \det \mathbb{A}).$$

**Example.** • If  $W$  is convex and lower-semicontinuous then  $W$  is polyconvex.

- $W(\mathbb{A}) = \det \mathbb{A}$  is polyconvex but not convex.

*Remark* (Weak convergence in  $L_p(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3)$ ). Let  $1 < p < \infty$  and  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\} \subset L_p(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3)$ . We say  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}$  converges weakly to  $\mathbf{u}$  in  $L_p(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3)$  provided

$$\int_{\Omega} \mathbf{u}_k \cdot \boldsymbol{\varphi} \, dx \rightarrow \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varphi} \, dx, \forall \boldsymbol{\varphi} \in L_{p'}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3).$$

**Theorem 2** (Magic). Assume that  $\mathbf{y}^k$  converges weakly to  $\mathbf{y}$  in  $W^{1,p}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3)$ ,  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \in C^{0,1}$ ,  $p > 3$ . Then  $\det \nabla \mathbf{y}^k$  converges weakly to  $\det \nabla \mathbf{y}$  in  $L_{\frac{p}{3}}(\Omega)$ . Moreover  $\text{cof } \nabla \mathbf{y}^k$  converges weakly to  $\text{cof } \nabla \mathbf{y}$  in  $L_{\frac{p}{2}}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3})$ .

*Proof.* Only in 2 dimensions. The determinant can be written as:

$$\det \nabla \mathbf{y} = \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} - \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \left( y_1 \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \left( y_1 \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} \right) = \nabla \cdot \left( y_1, -\frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} \right),$$

so then

$$\int_{\Omega} \det \nabla \mathbf{y}^k \varphi \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \left( y_1^k \frac{\partial y_2^k}{\partial x_2} \right) \varphi \, dx - \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \left( y_1^k \frac{\partial y_2^k}{\partial x_1} \right) \varphi \, dx = - \int_{\Omega} y_1^k \frac{\partial y_2^k}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x_1} \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x_2} y_1^k \frac{\partial y_2^k}{\partial x_1} \, dx,$$

and the result follows from the embedding theorems and strong convergence (strong times weak gives weak convergence).  $\square$

## 4.5 Rank-one convexity

Assume the following domain:  $\Omega = (1, 2) \times (0, 4\pi) \times (1, 2)$  and the deformation

$$\mathbf{y} : \overline{\Omega} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3, \mathbf{y}(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1 \cos x_2, x_1 \sin x_2, x_3), \mathbb{F} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos x_2 & -x_1 \sin x_2 & 0 \\ \sin x_2 & x_1 \cos x_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We can calculate  $\det \mathbb{F} = x_1 \cos^2 x_2 + x_1 \sin^2 x_2 = x_1$ . But even though the deformation has positive determinant, we still face self-penetration issues, i.e.,  $\mathbf{y}$  is not injective.

**Theorem 3** (Ciarlet-Nečas condition). *Let  $p > 3$  and let  $\det \mathbb{F} > 0$  a.e. in  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{y} \in W^{1,p}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3)$ . If*

$$\int_{\Omega} \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} \leq \lambda(\mathbf{y}(\Omega))$$

*then  $\mathbf{y}$  is injective almost everywhere in  $\Omega$ , i.e.,  $\exists \omega \subset \Omega : \lambda(\omega) = 0, \mathbf{y}|_{\Omega/\omega}$  is injective.*

Is the determinant condition of any use? Let us compute, assuming  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$  on  $\partial\Omega$ .

$$\int_{\Omega} \det \mathbb{F} \, d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \left( y_1 \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \left( y_1 \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} \right) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\partial\Omega} y_1 \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} n_1 - y_1 \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} n_2 \, dS \underset{y=0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega}{\Rightarrow} \int_{\Omega} \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} = 0.$$

This is powerful! Assume that  $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{F}\mathbf{x}$  on  $\partial\Omega$ , then

$$\int_{\Omega} \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} = \lambda(\Omega) \det \mathbb{F}.$$

Now let

$$I(\mathbf{y}) = \int_{\Omega} \det \mathbb{F}(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in W^{1,p}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3), \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{F}\mathbf{x}.$$

Then  $I$  is constant<sup>3</sup> and it holds

$$I(\mathbf{y}) = \lambda(\Omega) \det \mathbb{F}.$$

## 5 Linearized elasticity

Recall the Right Cauchy-Green tensor:  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{F}^\top \mathbb{F}$ . Using it, we can define

**Theorem 4** (Green-Lagrange strain tensor/Green-St.-Venaint strain tensor). *Let  $\mathbb{C}$  be the Right Cauchy-Green tensor. We define the Green-Lagrange strain tensor/Green-St.-Venaint strain tensor as*

$$\mathbb{E} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{C} - \mathbb{I}).$$

*Remark.* The Green-St.-Venaint strain tensor can be rewritten as:

$$\mathbb{E} = \frac{1}{2}((\mathbb{I} + \nabla \mathbf{u})^\top (\mathbb{I} + \nabla \mathbf{u}) - \mathbb{I}) = \frac{1}{2}(\nabla \mathbf{u} + (\nabla \mathbf{u})^\top) + \frac{1}{2}(\nabla \mathbf{u})^\top \nabla \mathbf{u} = \mathfrak{e}(\mathbf{u}) + \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{C}(\nabla \mathbf{u}).$$

For the stored energy density, we can write

$$W(\mathbb{F}) = W(\mathbb{R}\mathbb{F}) = \overline{W}(\mathbb{C}(\mathbb{F})) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{F})).$$

and also

$$W(\mathbb{F}) = \hat{W}(\mathfrak{e}(\mathbf{u}) + \mathbb{C}(\nabla \mathbf{u})).$$

It is our assumption that

$$\hat{W}(\mathbb{0}) = 0, \hat{W}(\mathbb{E}) > 0 \text{ if } \mathbb{E} \neq \mathbb{0},$$

---

<sup>3</sup>All constant functionals are convex.

and also that

$$\mathbb{C}(\nabla \mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}.$$

Using Taylor expansion, we can write

$$\hat{W}(\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{u})) = \hat{W}(\mathbf{0}) + \frac{\partial \hat{W}}{\partial \mathbf{e}}(\mathbf{0})\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{u}) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \hat{W}}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2}(\mathbf{0})\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{u}) + \text{h.o.t.}.$$

Since  $\hat{W}(\mathbf{0}) = \frac{\partial \hat{W}}{\partial \mathbf{0}}(\mathbf{0}) = 0$  the above (formal) manipulation leads us to the definition

**Definition 9** (Tensor of elastic constants).

$$\mathbb{C} = \frac{\partial^2 \hat{W}}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2}(\mathbf{0}), C_{ijkl} = \frac{\partial^2 \hat{W}}{\partial e_{ij} \partial e_{kl}}.$$

*Remark.* Since we assume  $\hat{W}$  is smooth, we have some symmetries, and from the general 81 components of  $C_{ijkl}$  only 21 are unique.

With the notion of a tensor of elastic constants, we can then write the stored energy density as

$$w(\mathbf{e}) = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{C}\mathbf{e}) : \mathbf{e}.$$

Following our definition  $\mathbb{T} = \frac{\partial \hat{W}}{\partial \mathbb{F}}$  we see

$$\sigma = \frac{\partial w(\mathbf{e})}{\partial \mathbf{e}} = \mathbb{C}\mathbf{e}, \sigma_{ij} = C_{ijkl}e_{kl}.$$

Is a useful notion of stress. It is denoted as the *Cauchy stress*. or in components

$$\sigma_{ij} = C_{ijkl}e_{kl}.$$

## 5.1 Equations

Rewriting the equations in the linearized elasticity setting we obtain the system

$$\begin{aligned} -\nabla \cdot \sigma &= -\nabla \cdot (\mathbb{C}\mathbf{e}) = \mathbf{f} \text{ in } \Omega \\ \sigma \mathbf{n} &= \mathbf{g} \text{ on } \Gamma_N, \\ \mathbf{u} &= \mathbf{0} \text{ on } \Gamma_D. \end{aligned}$$

The weak formulation can be obtained as

$$\int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (C_{ijkl}e_{kl}) v_i \, d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, d\mathbf{x}, \forall \mathbf{v} \in W^{1,2}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3), u = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_D,$$

so

$$\int_{\Omega} C_{ijkl}e_{kl} \frac{\partial v_i}{\partial x_j} \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\partial\Omega} C_{ijkl}e_{kl} v_i n_j \, dS = \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, d\mathbf{x},$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\underbrace{\int_{\Omega} \mathbb{C}\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{v}) \, d\mathbf{x}}_{:=B(u,v)} = \underbrace{\int_{\Omega} \mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, d\mathbf{x} + \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dS}_{:=L(v)},$$

where we have denoted

$$\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{v}) = \text{sym}(\nabla \mathbf{v}).$$

We are looking for

$$u \in V = \{u \in W^{1,2}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3), \text{tr } u = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_D\} : B(u, v) = L(v) \forall v \in V,$$

and to prove the existence, we will use the Lax-Milgram lemma. Show that

- $L \in V^*$
- $B : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is  $V$ -bounded and  $V$ -coercive

Realize that in order to show the properties, we would have to be able to control  $\nabla \mathbf{u}$  by  $\text{sym}(\nabla \mathbf{u})$ . Is that even possible?

**Example.** Let  $u = 0$  on  $\partial\Omega$ . In particular, let us take  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n)$ . Then

$$\exists C > 0 : \int_{\Omega} |\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{u})|^2 \, d\mathbf{x} \geq c \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \mathbf{u}|^2 \, d\mathbf{x}.$$

Can this hold? Make a quick test: Take  $\mathbf{u}$  such that  $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{u}) = 0$ , so  $\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right) = 0$ , so of course:

$$\nabla \mathbf{u} = -(\nabla \mathbf{u})^\top,$$

and  $\nabla \mathbf{u}$  must have the form

$$\nabla \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x_1} & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x_2} = 0$ , but since  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$  at the boundary, it also holds that  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$  in  $\Omega$ . Okay, so that not disprove the above inequality.

Let us try something else (although unsure what this means):

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} |\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{u})|^2 \, d\mathbf{x} &= \frac{1}{4} \int_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right) \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right) \, d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \int_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \right)^2 + 2 \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} + \left( \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right)^2 \, d\mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \right)^2 + \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \, d\mathbf{x}, \end{aligned}$$

where we used the symmetry property. Integrating by parts two times to obtain " $\partial_i u_i \partial_j u_j = (\partial_j u_j)^2$ "<sup>4</sup>. All in all

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} \right)^2 \, d\mathbf{x} \geq 0.$$

**Theorem 5** (Korn's inequality). *Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be bounded Lipschitz domain ( $\Omega \in C^{0,1}$ ). Then there exists  $C > 0$  such that  $\forall \mathbf{u} \in W^{1,2}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n)$  it holds*

$$\left( \|\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{u})\|_{L^2(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^{n \times n})}^2 + \|\mathbf{u}\|_{L^2(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n)}^2 \right) \geq c \|\mathbf{u}\|_{W^{1,2}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n)}^2.$$

**Definition 10** (Axial vectors). Let  $\mathbb{A} = -\mathbb{A}^\top, \mathbb{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then there is  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\mathbb{A} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{v}, \forall \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . The vector  $\mathbf{b}$  is called the axial vector of  $\mathbb{A}$ .

<sup>4</sup>Sign does not change as we integrate 2 times. Also, we have homogenous Dirichlet

*Remark* ( $\mathbb{R}^n$ ). This truly holds in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , not only in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . We only have to replace  $\times$  by  $\wedge$ , the outer product.

Assume that  $\mathbf{u} \in C^2(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3)$ . Then

$$\frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} = \frac{\partial e_{ik}}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{u}) + \frac{\partial e_{ij}}{\partial x_k}(\mathbf{u}) - \frac{\partial e_{jk}}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{u}).$$

If now  $\mathfrak{e}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbb{0}$ , then  $\mathbf{u}$  is an affine function, because  $\frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial x_j \partial x_k}, \forall i, j, k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ .

<sup>5</sup> It must thus hold

$$u_i(x) = a_i + b_{ij}x_j,$$

and  $\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} = b_{ij} = -b_{ji}$ , because  $\mathfrak{e}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbb{0}$ , so it must be skew symmetric. The skew-symmetry also means it can be written

$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{d} \times \mathbf{x}.$$

If additionally we assume that  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$  on some  $\Gamma_D \subset \partial\Omega, \mathcal{H}(\Gamma_D) > 0$  and  $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{d} \times \mathbf{x}$ , then  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$  identically in  $\Omega$ . This moreover means that

$$\mathbf{u} \mapsto \|\mathfrak{e}(\mathbf{u})\|_{L_2((\Omega; \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}))}$$

is a norm on

$$V = \{\mathbf{w} \in W^{1,2}((\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3)), \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0} \text{ on } \Gamma_D\}$$

which is equivalent to the norm of  $W^{1,2}((\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3))$ .

Coming back to our equation  $B(u, v) = L(v), \forall v \in V$ , we have showed everything to use Lax-Milgram  $\Rightarrow \exists! u \in V$ . This also means the functional

$$J(\mathbf{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (\mathbb{C}\mathfrak{e}(\mathbf{v}) : \mathfrak{e}(\mathbf{v}) - L(\mathbf{v})) \, d\mathbf{x}, \forall \mathbf{v} \in V.$$

has an unique minimizer.

## 5.2 Convex analysis

We will deal with the analysis of the functions  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ ,  $f$  is convex.

**Definition 11** (Epigraph of a set). The epigraph of a function  $f$  is the set

$$\text{epi } f = \{(x, y) : y \geq f(x)\}$$

*Remark.* With the notion of  $\text{epi } f$  we can work with sets instead of functions. Moreover, it holds

- $\text{epi } f$  is closed  $\Leftrightarrow f$  is lower-semicontinuous,
- $f$  is convex  $\Leftrightarrow \text{epi } f$  is convex

From one of the consequences of Hahn-Banach theorem (oddělovací věty), we obtain the existence of such  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (dependent of  $x$ ) that for fixed  $x$  it yields

$$f(z) \geq f(x) + \xi \cdot (z - x), \forall z \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

---

<sup>5</sup>Recall that  $\Omega$  is simply connected.

If  $f$  is differentiable at  $x$ , then

$$\xi = \nabla f(x).$$

But in general it does not have to be differentiable. This motivates the following definition

**Definition 12** (Subgradient, subdifferential). The function  $\xi(x)$  such that

$$f(z) \geq f(x) + \xi(x) \cdot (z - x), \forall z \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

is called the **subgradient** of  $f$  at  $x$ . The set of all subgradients of  $f$  at  $x$  is called the **subdifferential** of  $f$  at  $x$  and it is denoted  $\partial f(x)$ .

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^{n \times m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ , convex and lower semicontinuous<sup>6</sup>,  $f \neq \infty$ . The function  $\xi(\mathbb{X})$  such that

$$f(\mathbb{Y}) \geq f(\mathbb{X}) + \xi(\mathbb{X}) \cdot (\mathbb{Y} - \mathbb{X}), \forall \mathbb{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m},$$

is called the subgradient of  $f$  at  $\mathbb{X}$ . The set of all subgradients of  $f$  at  $\mathbb{X}$  is called the subdifferential and denoted  $\partial f(\mathbb{X})$ .

*Remark.* • If  $\partial f(\mathbb{X})$  is a singleton, then  $\nabla f(\mathbb{X})$  exist.

- $\partial f(\mathbb{X})$  is convex
- $0 \in \partial f(x) \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a condition for the minimizer.

**Definition 13** (Indicator function). Let  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  be a closed convex nonempty set. The function  $I_K(\mathbb{X})$  given as

$$I_K(\mathbb{X}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \mathbb{X} \in K \\ +\infty, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases},$$

is called the indicator function of  $K$

The indicator function is helpful for constraint minimization. If  $f$  is reasonably (at least finitely valued on  $K$ ) then it holds:

$$\min_K f = \min_{\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}} (f + I_K).$$

**Example** (Unit interval). Let  $K = [0, 1]$ . What is  $\partial I_K(x)$ ?

If  $x \in (0, 1)$ , then  $I_K(x) = 0$  so the only  $\xi$  such that  $I_K(y) \geq 0 + \xi(y - x)$  holds is  $\xi = 0$ .

If  $x = 0, x = 1$  then  $\partial I_K(0) = (-\infty, 0], \partial I_K(1) = [0, \infty)$ . This resembles a normal "vector", but in fact it is not a single vector and more a "cone" of vectors.

**Definition 14** (Normal cone to a set). Let  $K$  be closed convex nonempty set. The subdifferential of the indicator function  $I_K$  is called the normal cone to the set  $K$  and it is denoted by  $N_K$ .

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<sup>6</sup>  $f(x) \leq \liminf_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_k), x_k \rightarrow x$



**Example.** Minimize  $x^2$  on  $[1, 2]$ . We are looking for

$$\min_{[1,2]} x^2 = \min_{\mathbb{R}} (x^2 + I_{[1,2]}(x)).$$

It must hold at the minimum

$$0 \in \partial(x^2 + I_{[1,2]}(x)) \Leftrightarrow -\partial I_{[1,2]}(x) \subset \partial x^2 \Leftrightarrow (x^2)' \in -N_{[1,2]}(x)$$

**Example.** Take a square  $K = [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . We know  $K \in C^{0,1}$  so the outer normal exist at a.a. points on the boundary. The outer normal does not exist in the corners, but the normal cone does.

**Definition 15** (Fenchel (convex) conjugate — Legendre transformation). Let  $x^*$  be a slope i have chosen (it is given). I require

$$f(x) \geq x^* \cdot x - k, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m},$$

which means  $k \geq x^* \cdot x - f(x), \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ , and so we can define

$$f^*(x^*) := \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}} (x^* \cdot x - f(x)).$$

*Remark.*  $f^*$  is always convex even if  $f$  is not. But when  $f$  is convex and lower-semicontinuous, then

$$f^{**} = f, \text{ (biconjugate).}$$

**Theorem 6** (Fenchel identity). *Let  $x^* \in \partial f(x)$ . Then*

$$x^* \cdot x = f(x) + f^*(x^*).$$

*Proof.* Let us assume that  $x^* \in \partial f(x)$ . Then it must hold

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + x^* \cdot (y - x), \forall y,$$

so

$$x^* \cdot x - f(x) \geq x^* \cdot y - f(y),$$

and taking the supremum over  $y$  yields<sup>7</sup>

$$x^* \cdot x - f(x) = \sup_y (x^* \cdot y - f(y)) = f^*(x^*).$$

We have thus obtained

$$x^* \cdot x = f(x) + f^*(x^*).$$

□

*Remark* (Minimization of  $f \Leftrightarrow$  minimization of  $f^*$ ). We see that it holds:

$$x^* \in \partial f(x) \Leftrightarrow x \in \partial f^*(x^*).$$

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<sup>7</sup>The inequality becomes equality, as it can be reached by taking  $y = x$ .

### 5.3 Problem of a man...

Assume a person is pulling a box of weight  $m$  of weight  $m$  of weight  $m$  of weight  $m$  by a spring. If he is pulling just a little, the box does not move, only the spring is deformed - but in a reversible, elastic way. To move the box, the man needs to pull at least with the force  $\sigma_0 = mgc$ , where  $c$  is some friction coefficient. When he is pulling with force greater than  $\sigma_0$ , the box is moving and does not require any extra force to be moved (the system to be deformed). The deformation can be decomposed as

$$\mathbf{e} = \tilde{\mathbf{e}} + \mathbf{p},$$

where  $\mathbf{e}$  is the total strain,  $\tilde{\mathbf{e}}$  is the elastic strain and  $\mathbf{p}$  is the plastic strain.

### 5.4 von Mises elastoplasticity

The elasticity part is described as

$$\begin{cases} -\nabla \cdot \sigma = \mathbf{f}, & \text{in the bulk} \\ \sigma \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{g}, & \text{on the boundary} \end{cases},$$

with some constitutive relation  $\sigma = \mathbb{C}\tilde{\mathbf{e}} = \mathbb{C}(\mathbf{e} - \mathbf{p})$ . What about the plastic part?

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{p}}(t) \in N_K(\sigma), \\ \mathbf{p}(0) = \mathbf{p}_0, \end{cases}$$

where  $K$  is a convex closed subset such that  $0 \in K$ . This means that the plastic deformation is zero inside  $K$ , i.e. for some stresses.

*Remark.* Very often, the deformation is considered "incompressible", i.e.,

$$\det \mathbb{F} = 1,$$

which in linear case translates into

$$\text{tr } \varepsilon = 0.$$

In most cases, the set  $K$  is given as

$$K = \{\sigma : \varphi(\sigma) \leq 0\},$$

where  $\varphi$  is the yield function.

## 6 (Some) tutorials

### 6.1 Change of observer

The requirement of material frame indifference yields:

$$W = \hat{W}(\mathbb{F}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{F}), \forall \mathbb{Q} \in \text{orth}.$$

## 6.2 Change of reference configuration

The requirement of material symmetry yields:

$$W = \hat{W}(\mathbb{F}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{F}\mathbb{P}), \forall \mathbb{P} \in \mathcal{G},$$

where  $\mathcal{G}$  is the symmetry group of the material.

## 6.3 Consequences of isotropic hyperelastic solid

*Remark* (Groups unim, orth). The "biggest sensible" symmetry group is the unimodular group:

$$\text{unim} = \{\mathbb{P}, \det \mathbb{P} = \pm 1\}.$$

There exists another common group:

$$\text{orth} \{ \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{Q}^\top = \mathbb{Q}^\top \mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{I} \} \subset \text{unim}.$$

We thus have  $W = \hat{W}(\mathbb{F}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{F}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{F}\mathbb{Q}), \forall \mathbb{Q} \in \text{orth}, \forall \mathbb{F}$ .

Use *polar decomposition*:  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}\mathbb{U} = \mathbb{V}\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R} \in \text{orth}, \mathbb{U}, \mathbb{V}$  positively definite,  $\mathbb{U} = \sqrt{\mathbb{C}}, \mathbb{V} = \sqrt{\mathbb{B}}$ .

To make use of it, we first use m.f.i. and then isotropy and then first use isotropy and then m.f.i. So from material frame indifference

$$W = \hat{F}(\mathbb{F}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{F}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{R}^\top \mathbb{R}\mathbb{U}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{U}) = \overline{W}(\mathbb{C}),$$

where we have taken  $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{R}^\top$ . Note that this works universal (without the need of isotropy), as it comes from the objectivity consideration.

From isotropy

$$W = \hat{W}(\mathbb{F}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{F}\mathbb{Q}) = \overline{W}(\mathbb{C}) = \overline{W}((\mathbb{F}\mathbb{Q})^\top (\mathbb{F}\mathbb{Q})) = \overline{W}(\mathbb{Q}^\top \mathbb{F}^\top \mathbb{F}\mathbb{Q}) = \overline{W}(\mathbb{Q}^\top \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Q}), \forall \mathbb{Q} \in \text{orth}, \forall \mathbb{C} \text{ admissible}.$$

Now backwards using the second polar decomposition:

$$W = \hat{W}(\mathbb{F}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{F}\mathbb{Q}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{V}\mathbb{R}\mathbb{Q}) = \hat{W}(\mathbb{V}\mathbb{R}\mathbb{R}^\top) = \hat{W}(\sqrt{\mathbb{B}}) = \tilde{W}(\mathbb{B}),$$

$$W = \tilde{W}(\mathbb{B}) = \tilde{W}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{F}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{F})^\top) = \tilde{W}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{B}\mathbb{Q}^\top).$$

So far, we have shown

$$W(t, \mathbf{X}) = \overline{W}(\mathbb{C}(t, \mathbf{X}), \mathbf{X}) = \overline{W}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Q}^\top),$$

$$W(t, \mathbf{X}) = \tilde{W}(\mathbb{B}(t, \mathbf{X}), \mathbf{X}) = \tilde{W}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{B}\mathbb{Q}^\top),$$

In HW, we will know

$$\mathbb{T} = 2 \frac{\partial \hat{W}(\mathbb{F})}{\partial \mathbb{F}}, T_{iJ} = 2 \frac{\partial \hat{W}}{\partial F_{iJ}}$$

and we can show

$$\mathbb{T} = 2 \frac{\partial \hat{W}(\mathbb{F})}{\partial \mathbb{F}} = 2 \mathbb{F} \frac{\partial \tilde{W}(\mathbb{B})}{\partial \mathbb{B}} \mathbb{F}, \mathbb{T}^y = \dots, \mathbb{S} = 2 \frac{\partial \overline{W}(\mathbb{C})}{\partial \mathbb{C}}.$$

**Definition 16** (Isotropic functions). We say the functions  $\hat{a}(y_\alpha, \mathbf{y}_\alpha, \mathbb{Y}_\alpha), \hat{\mathbf{a}}(y_\alpha, \mathbf{y}_\alpha, \mathbb{Y}_\alpha), \hat{\hat{A}}(y_\alpha, \mathbf{y}_\alpha, \mathbb{Y}_\alpha), \alpha = 1, \dots, N$  are isotropic functions (of their respective arguments) if it holds

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{a}(y_\alpha, \mathbf{y}_\alpha, \mathbb{Y}_\alpha) &= \hat{a}(y_\alpha, \mathbb{Q}\mathbf{y}_\alpha, \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{Y}_\alpha\mathbb{Q}^\top), \\ \mathbb{Q}\hat{\mathbf{a}}(y_\alpha, \mathbf{y}_\alpha, \mathbb{Y}_\alpha) &= \hat{\mathbf{a}}(y_\alpha, \mathbb{Q}\mathbf{y}_\alpha, \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{Y}_\alpha\mathbb{Q}^\top), \\ \mathbb{Q}\hat{\hat{A}}\mathbb{Q}^\top &= \hat{\hat{A}}(y_\alpha, \mathbb{Q}\mathbf{y}_\alpha, \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{Y}_\alpha\mathbb{Q}^\top),\end{aligned}$$

So we see that  $\overline{W}(\mathbb{C}), \tilde{W}(\mathbb{B})$  are **scalar isotropic functions of 1 tensorial (symmetric) argument**.

**Theorem 7** (Representation theorem for scalar isotropic functions). *Let  $\psi = \hat{\psi}(\mathbb{A}) = \hat{\psi}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{A}\mathbb{Q}^\top)$  be a scalar isotropic function of a single symmetric tensorial variable. Then it must hold*

$$\hat{\psi}(\mathbb{A}) \equiv \hat{\psi}(\mathbb{I}_1(\mathbb{A}), \mathbb{I}_2(\mathbb{A}), \mathbb{I}_3(\mathbb{A})),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{I}_1(\mathbb{A}) &= \text{tr } \mathbb{A}, \\ \mathbb{I}_2(\mathbb{A}) &= \frac{1}{2} \left( (\text{tr } \mathbb{A})^2 - \text{tr } \mathbb{A}^2 \right), \\ \mathbb{I}_3(\mathbb{A}) &= \det \mathbb{A},\end{aligned}$$

are the invariants of  $\mathbb{A}$ .

*Proof.*  $\det(\mathbb{A} - \lambda \mathbb{I}) = -\lambda^3 + \lambda^2 \mathbb{I}_1 - \lambda \mathbb{I}_2 + \mathbb{I}_3 = p_\lambda(\mathbb{A})$  We will prove a different assertion:

$\mathbb{A}, \mathbb{B}$  are symmetric with the same invariants  $\Leftrightarrow \exists \mathbb{Q} : \mathbb{A} = \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{B}\mathbb{Q}^\top$  "  $\Leftarrow$  " is trivial, as then the matrices are similiar, so they have the same char. polynomial, so they have the same invariants.  $\Rightarrow$  have same eigenvalues, so if i write the spectral decomposition, i can write

$$\mathbb{A} = \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{\Lambda}\mathbb{Q}^\top, \mathbb{B} = \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{\Lambda}\mathbb{R}^\top = \mathbb{R}\mathbb{Q}^\top\mathbb{A}\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{R}^\top.$$

Now suppose that the function is not a function of the invariants:  $\hat{\psi} \neq \tilde{\psi}(\mathbb{I}_1, \mathbb{I}_2, \mathbb{I}_3)$ . That means  $\exists \mathbb{A}_1, \mathbb{A}_2$  such that  $\mathbb{I}_1(\mathbb{A}_1) = \mathbb{I}_1(\mathbb{A}_2)$  and the same for the remaining invariants. Using the previous assertion, we have

$$\exists \mathbb{Q} : \mathbb{A}_1 = \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{A}_2\mathbb{Q}^\top \Rightarrow \hat{\psi}(\mathbb{A}_1) = \hat{\psi}(\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{A}_2\mathbb{Q}^\top) = \hat{\psi}(\mathbb{A}_2), \text{ but } \hat{\psi}(\mathbb{A}_1) \neq \hat{\psi}(\mathbb{A}_2).$$

□

Since using polar decomposition it can be shown the invariants of  $\mathbb{B}, \mathbb{C}$  are the same we receive

$$W = \tilde{W}(\mathbb{I}_1(\mathbb{B}), \mathbb{I}_2(\mathbb{B}), \mathbb{I}_3(\mathbb{B})) = \overline{W}(\mathbb{I}_1(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{I}_2(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{I}_3(\mathbb{C})).$$

## 6.4 Representation in terms of principal stresses

... in terms of the eigenvalues  $\mathbb{U}, \mathbb{V}$ . The invariants can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} I_1 &= \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3, \\ I_2 &= \lambda_1 \lambda_2 + \lambda_2 \lambda_3 + \lambda_1 \lambda_3, \\ I_3 &= \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3. \end{aligned}$$

Often in materials science the quantities can be expressed in these variables:

**Example** (Ogden materials).

$$\hat{W}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\mu_k}{\alpha_k} (\lambda_1^{\alpha_k} + \lambda_2^{\alpha_k} + \lambda_3^{\alpha_k} - 3)$$

How to calculate e.g.  $\mathbb{T}$  in this representation?

$$\mathbb{T} = 2 \frac{\partial W(I_1, I_2, I_3)}{\partial \mathbb{B}} \mathbb{F} = 2 \frac{\partial \hat{W}}{\partial \mathbb{B}}(\lambda_1(\mathbb{B}), \lambda_2(\mathbb{B}), \lambda_3(\mathbb{B})) 2 \frac{\partial \hat{W}}{\partial \lambda_i} \frac{\partial \lambda_i(\mathbb{B})}{\partial \mathbb{B}} \mathbb{F}.$$

What (in the hell) is  $\frac{\partial \lambda_i(\mathbb{B})}{\partial \mathbb{B}}$ ? <sup>8</sup>

$$\mathbb{B}(s) = \sum_{\alpha=1}^3 \omega_{\alpha}(s) \mathbf{g}_{\alpha}(s) \otimes \mathbf{g}_{\alpha}(s), \forall s \in I$$

where  $I$  is some open interval and  $\{\mathbf{g}_{\alpha}\}$  is an ON eigenbasis of  $\mathbb{B}$ . Next, realize

$$\omega_1(s) = \mathbf{g}_1(s) \cdot \mathbb{B}(s) \mathbf{g}_1(s),$$

and differentiate this:

$$\frac{d\omega(s)}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{g}_1}{ds} \cdot \mathbb{B} \mathbf{g}_1 + \mathbf{g}_1 \frac{d\mathbb{B}}{ds} \mathbf{g}_1 + \mathbf{g}_1 \cdot \mathbb{B} \frac{d\mathbf{g}_1}{ds} = \frac{1}{2} + +0.$$

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<sup>8</sup>Recall the Daleckii-Krein theorem: