

Modeling and Simulation in Science,
Engineering and Technology

Angelo Morro
Claudio Giorgi

Mathematical Modelling of Continuum Physics

 Birkhäuser

Modeling and Simulation in Science, Engineering and Technology

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Preface

This book provides a unified treatment of continuum physics. A systematic approach to the balance equations is elaborated for wide-ranging classes of materials (classical continua, micropolar continua, mixtures, electromagnetic continua) following the lines of the encyclopedic handbook articles of Truesdell and Toupin and Truesdell and Noll. As is standard in Rational Thermodynamics, the constitutive properties are required to obey the objectivity principle and to be consistent with the second law of thermodynamics. Yet here a rather new approach is developed by viewing the entropy production as a constitutive function per se as is the case for the entropy and the entropy flux. While this does not determine any new result for simple materials, it proves conceptually and practically advantageous in the modelling of nonlinear phenomena such as those occurring in hysteretic continua, e.g. in plasticity, electromagnetism, and physics of shape-memory alloys.

The book is suitable for engineers, physicists, and mathematicians. The derivations of the sought results are fairly detailed through careful proofs. Though a wide variety of subjects are examined, the contents are developed so as to get a self-contained and consistent presentation of the various topics.

Part I reviews the kinematics of continuous bodies and illustrates the general setting of balance laws. Kinematics treats essential preliminaries to continuum physics such as reference and current configurations, transport relations, singular surfaces, objectivity and objective time derivatives. Next, a chapter on balance equations develops the balance laws of mass, linear momentum, angular momentum, energy, entropy (Clausius–Duhem inequality), and the balance laws in electromagnetism.

Part II is first devoted to the general requirements of constitutive models. In this sense, emphasis is given to the application of objectivity (the constitutive equations must be invariant under changes of frame) and consistency with the second law of thermodynamics (the constitutive equations must satisfy the restrictions placed by the entropy inequality). Next, a review is given of common models of simple materials, namely materials described by the first-order gradient of deformation, velocity, and temperature. In this framework, detailed descriptions are given of

(thermoelastic, elastic, and dissipative) solids and (elastic, thermoelastic, viscous, and Newtonian) fluids.

A wide variety of constitutive models is investigated in Part III, consisting of separate chapters of non-simple materials. The chapter on rate-type models reviews the rheological devices and next shows some schemes within the Eulerian and the Lagrangian description with emphasis on objective time derivatives. The chapter on materials with memory begins with a general setting of (fading) memory and next shows memory models for thermoelasticity, heat conduction, viscoelasticity, electromagnetic solids, and modelling via fractional derivatives. Next, the modelling of aging (thermoelastic, rate-type, and thermo-viscoelastic) materials is exhibited in connection with the thermodynamic restrictions. Also, materials of higher-order grade are examined in the form of fluids and solids or models via interstitial working. The possible consistency of the hyperstress with the standard balance laws is shown to hold. A chapter is devoted to mixtures; in addition to balance equations for the constituents and the whole mixture, some aspects are investigated such as models of diffusion, Soret and Dufour effects, immiscible mixtures, and models for the whole mixture. Micropolar media are modelled as materials with a physical internal structure. Each point of the continuum is viewed as a body with a finite number of degrees of freedom. The balance laws are then reviewed so that the internal degrees of freedom show up in the balance of orientational momentum and energy. The model, so established, is then applied to the description of liquid crystals and nanofluids. Porous materials are described as mixtures (solid–liquid or solid–void). Also, porous materials with double porosity are established. The chapter on electromagnetism of continuous media describes a number of phenomena. The interaction of the electromagnetic field with deformation is examined within electroelasticity, magnetoelasticity, and plasma theory. This in turn allows us to examine magneto-, electro-, and mechanical-optical effects. Memory effects are modelled in quite a general setting. Nonlinearity effects are especially framed within micromagnetics and ferrofluids. Chiral media and ferrites are investigated in detail also to show the optical activity effects on linearly- and circularly-polarized waves. Finally, superconductivity and superfluidity are developed in a common framework of mixtures of reacting fluids; normal electrons and superconducting electrons in one case, normal fluid and superfluid in the other.

Hysteretic effects and phase transitions are developed in Part IV. Hysteresis is modelled in ferroelectrics, ferromagnetism, and plasticity. In all of these contexts, the modelling is performed by having recourse to the entropy production as a (non-negative) constitutive function. It follows that the free energy governs the anhysteretic behaviour, while the entropy production characterizes the hysteretic properties. Phase transitions are described in different ways. A transition may occur at a sharp interface between two different phases; the jump conditions across the interface govern the transition. Instead, a transition may occur in a diffuse region where the pertinent fields change continuously; in essence, the transition region is occupied by a mixture of constituents in different phases. A scheme for phase transitions and hysteretic effects in shape-memory alloys is also outlined.

Notation

We use mostly direct notation and the recourse to index notation is made only when, otherwise, the pertinent expression might become ambiguous. The symbols of continuum mechanics are used, e.g. in the books of Truesdell and Noll [426] and Gurtin et al [214]. Yet difficulties arise whenever any well-established symbol has a different meaning in continuum mechanics and in electromagnetism. For instance, \mathbf{E} is the Green-St Venant strain tensor in continuum mechanics and the electric field in electromagnetism while \mathbf{D} is the stretching tensor in continuum mechanics and the electric displacement in electromagnetism. To avoid the introduction of newly defined symbols, we have maintained the standard symbols whenever the pertinent chapter makes it clear which meaning has to be assigned to the symbol. There are places where the stretching tensor and the electric displacement occur simultaneously; in such cases, we use \mathfrak{D} for the stretching tensor. Another difficulty arises in connection with the vector $\boldsymbol{\omega}$; it is currently used for angular velocity and vorticity. To avoid any ambiguities, we have maintained the symbol $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ for the angular velocity and have used $\boldsymbol{\varpi}$ for the vorticity (i.e. $\nabla \times \mathbf{v}$).

Throughout, lightface letters indicate scalars, while boldface letters indicate vectors or tensors. In the mechanical context, lowercase (uppercase) boldface letters indicate vectors (tensors). In electromagnetism, following the literature, the (electric and magnetic) vectors are denoted by uppercase letters, e.g. \mathbf{E} , \mathbf{B} . Moreover, Lin is the set of all tensors, Lin^+ is the set of all tensors with positive determinant, Sym is the set of all symmetric tensors, Skw is the set of all skew tensors, Psym is the set of all symmetric, positive definite tensors, Orth is the set of all orthogonal tensors, Orth^+ is the set of all rotations (all orthogonal tensors with positive determinant). For the benefit of the reader an Appendix “Notes on vectors and tensors” reviews the essential contents of algebra and analysis of vector and tensor functions.

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Contents

Part I Basic Principles and Balance Equations

| | | |
|----------|--|----|
| 1 | Kinematics | 3 |
| 1.1 | Frames of Reference and Configurations | 3 |
| 1.2 | Deformation | 5 |
| 1.2.1 | Effects on Lengths, Areas, and Volumes | 10 |
| 1.2.2 | Some Identities Involving the Deformation Gradient . . . | 16 |
| 1.3 | Motion | 18 |
| 1.3.1 | Stretching and Spin Tensors | 20 |
| 1.4 | Rotations and Angular Velocities | 22 |
| 1.4.1 | Active Rotations | 24 |
| 1.5 | Transport Relations for Convecting Sets | 26 |
| 1.5.1 | Identities About the Total Time Derivative of Spatial Gradients | 28 |
| 1.5.2 | Transport Relations for Vorticity and Velocity Gradient | 30 |
| 1.6 | Transport Relations for Non-Convecting Sets | 32 |
| 1.6.1 | Transport Theorems for Discontinuous Fields | 34 |
| 1.7 | Kinematics of Singular Surfaces | 36 |
| 1.7.1 | Geometrical Conditions of Compatibility | 38 |
| 1.7.2 | Kinematical Conditions of Compatibility | 40 |
| 1.7.3 | Jumps at Acoustic Waves | 46 |
| 1.8 | Transport Theorems for Surface Integrals | 47 |
| 1.8.1 | Transport Theorems for Discontinuous Fields | 49 |
| 1.9 | Objectivity | 51 |
| 1.9.1 | Transformation Rules for Kinematic Fields | 53 |
| 1.9.2 | Time Derivatives Relative to Generic Frames of Reference | 56 |
| 1.10 | Objective Time Derivatives | 62 |

| | | |
|----------|---|-----------|
| 1.10.1 | General Form of Objective Derivatives | 63 |
| 1.10.2 | Rivlin–Eriksen Tensors | 69 |
| 1.10.3 | Spins and Angular Velocities Under Euclidean Transformations | 70 |
| 2 | Balance Equations | 73 |
| 2.1 | Balance of Mass | 73 |
| 2.2 | Balance of Linear Momentum | 76 |
| 2.3 | Balance of Angular Momentum | 82 |
| 2.4 | Balance of Energy | 85 |
| | 2.4.1 First Law of Thermodynamics | 88 |
| | 2.4.2 Balance of Virtual Power | 90 |
| 2.5 | Material Forms of the Balance Equations | 93 |
| | 2.5.1 Equation of Motion in Pre-Stressed Materials | 97 |
| | 2.5.2 Lie Derivative of the Cauchy Stress | 99 |
| | 2.5.3 Eshelby Stress and Linear-Angular Momentum | 100 |
| 2.6 | Balance of Entropy | 103 |
| | 2.6.1 Material Formulation of the Second Law | 107 |
| | 2.6.2 Third Law of Thermodynamics | 109 |
| | 2.6.3 Exergy | 109 |
| | 2.6.4 Entropy Production in Stochastic Kinetics | 110 |
| 2.7 | Second Law and Phase-Field Models | 111 |
| 2.8 | Bernoulli’s Law and Balance Equations for Fluids | 113 |
| | 2.8.1 Bernoulli’s Law | 114 |
| | 2.8.2 Variational Derivation of the Equation of Motion | 115 |
| 2.9 | Balance in a Control Volume | 116 |
| 2.10 | Basic Principles in Electromagnetism | 119 |
| | 2.10.1 Balance Equations in Free Space | 120 |
| | 2.10.2 Balance Laws in Matter | 124 |
| 2.11 | The Invariant Form of Maxwell’s Equations | 128 |
| 2.12 | Maxwell’s Equations for the Fields at the Rest Frame | 134 |
| 2.13 | Material Description of Electromagnetic Fields | 135 |
| 2.14 | Formulations of Electromagnetism in Matter | 139 |
| 2.15 | Poynting’s Theorem | 143 |
| 2.16 | Balance Equations in Electromagnetism | 144 |
| | 2.16.1 Forces, Torques, and Energy Supply | 146 |
| | 2.16.2 Angular Momentum and Magnetic Moment | 154 |
| | 2.16.3 Maxwell Stress Tensor | 155 |
| | 2.16.4 Balance of Entropy | 160 |
| 2.17 | Conservation Laws Across a Singular Surface | 161 |
| | 2.17.1 Imbalance Laws Across a Singular Surface | 162 |
| | 2.17.2 Jump Conditions | 163 |
| | 2.17.3 Rankine–Hugoniot Condition | 164 |

- 2.17.4 Interaction Between Discontinuities of Different Order 165
- 2.17.5 Eigenvector Form of Weak Discontinuities 167
- 2.17.6 Jump Conditions of Integrals 168
- 2.17.7 Jump Conditions in the Reference Configuration 169
- 2.18 Balance Laws for Discontinuous Electromagnetic Fields 171
 - 2.18.1 Boundary Conditions 173

Part II Constitutive Models of Simple Materials

- 3 Generalities on Constitutive Models 177**
 - 3.1 Constitutive Equations 177
 - 3.2 Objectivity 178
 - 3.2.1 Dependence on the Velocity Gradient 181
 - 3.2.2 Dependence on the Deformation Gradient 181
 - 3.2.3 Thermoelastic Variables 182
 - 3.2.4 Thermo-Viscous Variables 184
 - 3.2.5 Dependence on Histories 185
 - 3.2.6 Variables in Rate-Type Equations 186
 - 3.2.7 Objectivity and Invariants 187
 - 3.3 Objectivity and Euclidean Invariants in Electromagnetism 188
 - 3.4 Consistency with the Second Law 189
 - 3.4.1 Exploitation of the Second Law 192
 - 3.4.2 Other Formulations of the Second Law 193
 - 3.4.3 Remarks on Onsager’s Reciprocal Relations 197
 - 3.5 Entropy Equation and Gibbs Equations 199
 - 3.6 Second Law and Representation of Constitutive Functions 201
- 4 Solids 203**
 - 4.1 Thermoelastic Solids 203
 - 4.1.1 Linear Theory 208
 - 4.1.2 Free Energy and Invariants 211
 - 4.2 Elastic Solids 213
 - 4.2.1 Material Symmetries 215
 - 4.2.2 Elastic Waves 219
 - 4.2.3 Linear Theory 223
 - 4.2.4 Elastostatics and Compatibility of Strains 233
 - 4.2.5 Vibrating Strings, Chains, and Phonons 235
 - 4.3 Internal Constraints 239
 - 4.4 Hyperelastic Solids and Rubber-Like Materials 243
 - 4.4.1 Compressible Mooney-Rivlin Solid 245
 - 4.5 Modelling of Dissipative Solids 250
 - 4.5.1 A Model for Viscosity and Heat Conduction 252
 - 4.6 Modelling via Dissipation Potentials 256

| | | |
|--|---|------------|
| 4.6.1 | Convex Dissipation Potential | 256 |
| 4.6.2 | Model with a Scalar Internal Variable | 258 |
| 4.6.3 | Model with a Vector Internal Variable | 261 |
| 5 | Fluids | 263 |
| 5.1 | Elastic Fluids | 263 |
| 5.1.1 | Water Wave Theories | 266 |
| 5.2 | Thermoelastic Fluids | 273 |
| 5.2.1 | Gibbs Relations and Entropy Equation | 275 |
| 5.2.2 | Conjugate Variables and Maxwell’s Relations | 276 |
| 5.2.3 | Specific Heats | 279 |
| 5.3 | Ideal Gas | 280 |
| 5.3.1 | Specific Heats and Entropy Functions | 282 |
| 5.4 | Models of Real Gases | 283 |
| 5.4.1 | Van der Waals Model | 283 |
| 5.4.2 | Peng-Robinson Model | 285 |
| 5.5 | Heat-Conducting, Viscous Fluids | 286 |
| 5.5.1 | Stokesian Fluids | 293 |
| 5.5.2 | Boundary Conditions | 295 |
| 5.5.3 | Incompressible Fluids | 296 |
| 5.5.4 | Oberbeck–Boussinesq Approximation | 299 |
| 5.6 | Newtonian Fluids | 300 |
| 5.6.1 | Models with Thermal Expansion and Pressure-Dependent Viscosities | 301 |
| 5.6.2 | Fluids with Pressure-Dependent Viscosities | 303 |
| 5.6.3 | Vorticity and Enstrophy Transport Equation | 305 |
| 5.6.4 | Viscosity and Energy Decay | 306 |
| 5.6.5 | Incompressible Newtonian Fluids | 307 |
| 5.7 | Generalized Newtonian Fluids | 309 |
| 5.8 | Viscoplastic and Viscoelastic Fluids | 311 |
| 5.8.1 | Viscoplastic Fluids | 311 |
| 5.9 | Models of Turbulence | 314 |
| 5.9.1 | Incompressible Fluids | 314 |
| 5.9.2 | Compressible Fluids | 316 |
| Part III Non-simple Materials | | |
| 6 | Rate-Type Models | 321 |
| 6.1 | Rheological Models | 322 |
| 6.1.1 | Rigid-Perfectly Plastic Model with Kinematic Hardening | 323 |
| 6.1.2 | Elastic-Perfectly Plastic Solid | 323 |
| 6.1.3 | Elastic-Plastic Model with Kinematical Hardening | 324 |

- 6.1.4 Maxwell-Wiechert Fluid 325
- 6.1.5 Bingham Model 326
- 6.1.6 Bingham-Maxwell Model 327
- 6.1.7 Kelvin-Voigt Solid 328
- 6.1.8 Jeffreys' and Burgers' Fluids 329
- 6.1.9 Standard Linear Solid 332
- 6.1.10 Generalized Models 335
- 6.1.11 Relaxation Modulus and Creep Compliance 337
- 6.2 Rate-Type Models of Fluids 338
 - 6.2.1 Rate Equation for Thermo-Viscous Fluids
in the Eulerian Description 339
 - 6.2.2 Invariant Fields and Objective Rates 342
 - 6.2.3 Rate Equations in the Material Description 345
 - 6.2.4 Nonlinear Rate-Type Models of Fluids 350
- 6.3 Rate-Type Models of Solids 354
 - 6.3.1 The Kelvin-Voigt-Fourier Solid 354
 - 6.3.2 Thermo-Viscoelastic Materials 356
 - 6.3.3 Thermo-Viscoplastic Models 358
- 6.4 Higher-Order Rate Models 359
 - 6.4.1 Burgers' Fluid 360
 - 6.4.2 Oldroyd-B Fluid 363
 - 6.4.3 White-Metzner Fluid 365
 - 6.4.4 Wave Features in Higher-Order Rate Models 367
- 6.5 Wave Equation in Hereditary Fluids 368
- 6.6 Further Thermoelastic Models 369
 - 6.6.1 Maxwell-Cattaneo Equation; a Generalized
Form 370
 - 6.6.2 Temperature-Rate Dependent Thermoelastic
Materials 372
 - 6.6.3 Thermoelasticity Based on an Integral Variable 375
- 7 Materials with Memory 381**
 - 7.1 Materials with Fading Memory 381
 - 7.1.1 Fading Memory Space of Histories 384
 - 7.1.2 Difference and Summed Histories 387
 - 7.1.3 Properties About Histories and Norms 390
 - 7.2 Thermoelastic Materials with Memory 392
 - 7.3 Rigid Heat Conductors 396
 - 7.3.1 Models Dependent on Thermal Histories 396
 - 7.3.2 Models Dependent on Summed Thermal
Histories 401
 - 7.3.3 Moore-Gibson-Thompson Temperature
Equation 405

| | | |
|----------|---|------------|
| 7.4 | Linear Viscoelasticity | 406 |
| 7.4.1 | Linear Viscoelastic Solids | 407 |
| 7.4.2 | Thermodynamic Restrictions for the Linear Viscoelastic Solid | 409 |
| 7.4.3 | Free Energies and Minimal States | 416 |
| 7.4.4 | Viscoelastic Solids with Unbounded Relaxation Functions | 424 |
| 7.4.5 | Nonlinear Viscoelastic Models | 429 |
| 7.4.6 | Some Examples | 431 |
| 7.5 | Viscous Fluids with Memory | 433 |
| 7.5.1 | Incompressible Viscoelastic Fluids | 435 |
| 7.5.2 | Compressible Viscoelastic Fluids | 438 |
| 7.5.3 | Maxwell-Like Viscoelastic Fluids | 442 |
| 7.5.4 | Acceleration Waves in Viscous Fluids with Memory | 449 |
| 7.6 | Electromagnetic Materials with Memory | 452 |
| 7.6.1 | Dielectrics with Memory | 454 |
| 7.6.2 | Conductors with Memory | 457 |
| 7.6.3 | Polarizable Conductors with Memory | 462 |
| 7.6.4 | Magneto-Viscoelasticity | 469 |
| 7.6.5 | Rate Equations in the Eulerian Description | 475 |
| 7.6.6 | Solids | 479 |
| 7.7 | Causality and Kramers–Kronig Relations | 480 |
| 7.8 | Memory Models via Fractional Derivatives | 482 |
| 7.8.1 | Preliminaries on Fractional Derivatives | 483 |
| 7.8.2 | Fractional Derivatives | 484 |
| 7.8.3 | Heat Conduction via Fractional Derivatives | 488 |
| 7.8.4 | Wave Propagation Properties | 490 |
| 7.9 | Viscoelastic Models of Fractional Order | 492 |
| 8 | Aging and Higher-Order Grade Materials | 497 |
| 8.1 | Aging | 497 |
| 8.2 | Aging of Thermoelastic Solids | 499 |
| 8.3 | Aging of Rate-Type Materials | 501 |
| 8.3.1 | Aging Properties | 504 |
| 8.4 | Aging of Thermo-Viscoelastic Materials | 506 |
| 8.5 | An Aging Model of Viscous Fluid with Memory | 511 |
| 8.6 | Damage | 512 |
| 8.7 | Fluids of Higher-Order Grade | 514 |
| 8.7.1 | Second Grade Fluid | 515 |
| 8.7.2 | Third Grade Fluid | 518 |
| 8.8 | Interaction Effects via Materials of Higher Order | 521 |
| 8.9 | Modelling via the Interstitial Working | 523 |
| 8.9.1 | Modelling via the Extra-Entropy Flux | 526 |

| | | |
|----------|--|------------|
| 8.10 | Materials of Korteweg Type | 528 |
| 8.11 | Hyperstress and Materials of Higher-Order Grade | 534 |
| 8.11.1 | Solids of Higher-Order Grade | 535 |
| 8.12 | A New Scheme Associated with the Hyperstress | 538 |
| 9 | Mixtures | 545 |
| 9.1 | Kinematics | 545 |
| 9.2 | Balance Equations | 550 |
| 9.2.1 | Balance Equations in the Eulerian Description | 554 |
| 9.2.2 | Mass Density in the Reference Configuration and Incompressibility | 556 |
| 9.3 | Second Law of Thermodynamics | 558 |
| 9.3.1 | Principle of Phase Separation | 560 |
| 9.3.2 | Remarks on the Thermodynamic Restrictions | 561 |
| 9.4 | Balance Equations for the Whole Mixture | 561 |
| 9.4.1 | Stoichiometry Requirements on the Mass Growths | 567 |
| 9.4.2 | Balance Equation for the Diffusion Flux | 568 |
| 9.5 | Constitutive Models for Fluid Mixtures | 572 |
| 9.5.1 | Extent of Reaction and Law of Mass Action | 575 |
| 9.5.2 | Non-reacting Mixtures with Several Temperatures | 576 |
| 9.5.3 | Reacting Mixtures with a Single Temperature | 578 |
| 9.5.4 | Gibbs Equations | 579 |
| 9.5.5 | Second-Law Inequalities | 582 |
| 9.6 | Mixtures of Ideal Gases | 583 |
| 9.6.1 | Chemical Potentials | 584 |
| 9.6.2 | Mixing Entropy and Mixing Free Energy | 588 |
| 9.7 | Diffusion | 590 |
| 9.7.1 | Dynamic Diffusion Equation | 590 |
| 9.7.2 | Fourier-Like and Rate-Type Diffusion Equations | 591 |
| 9.7.3 | Maxwell–Stefan Diffusion Model | 593 |
| 9.7.4 | Coupled Effects Among Diffusion and Heat Conduction | 595 |
| 9.7.5 | Evolution Problems | 598 |
| 9.8 | Solid Mixtures | 600 |
| 9.8.1 | Constitutive Assumptions and Thermodynamic Restrictions | 601 |
| 9.9 | Immiscible Mixtures | 605 |
| 9.10 | Entropy Inequality and Models for the Whole Mixture | 607 |
| 9.10.1 | Gibbs Equations and Restrictions on the Diffusion Flux | 607 |
| 9.10.2 | Gibbs–Duhem Equation | 609 |

| | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 10 | Micropolar Media | 611 |
| 10.1 | Kinematics of Micropolar Media | 611 |
| 10.1.1 | Orientational Momentum | 616 |
| 10.2 | Balance Laws | 618 |
| 10.2.1 | Balance Laws in the Spatial Description | 618 |
| 10.2.2 | Balance Laws in the Material Description | 622 |
| 10.2.3 | Thermoviscous Micropolar Media | 625 |
| 10.3 | Liquid Crystals | 629 |
| 10.3.1 | Modelling of Thermotropic Liquid Crystals | 630 |
| 10.3.2 | Director Field, Energy, and Objectivity | 632 |
| 10.4 | Nematics | 634 |
| 10.4.1 | Relation to Other Models Involving the Director Field | 641 |
| 10.5 | Smectics and Cholesterics | 643 |
| 10.6 | Mixtures of Micropolar Constituents | 645 |
| 10.6.1 | Second Law Inequality | 649 |
| 10.7 | Nanofluids | 650 |
| 10.7.1 | Brownian Diffusion and Thermophoresis | 652 |
| 10.7.2 | Model Approximations and Nanofluid Properties | 654 |
| 11 | Porous Materials | 659 |
| 11.1 | Porous Materials as Mixtures | 659 |
| 11.2 | Constitutive Models of Porous Materials | 661 |
| 11.2.1 | Darcy's Law | 664 |
| 11.2.2 | Darcy-Like Equations | 665 |
| 11.3 | Special Models of Porous Materials | 667 |
| 11.4 | Materials with Voids | 670 |
| 11.5 | Porous Media with Double Porosity | 672 |
| 11.5.1 | Porous Material with Undeformable Solid | 673 |
| 11.5.2 | Porous Material with a Thermoelastic Solid | 676 |
| 12 | Electromagnetism of Continuous Media | 681 |
| 12.1 | A Thermodynamic Setting for Electromagnetic Solids | 682 |
| 12.2 | Electroelasticity | 684 |
| 12.3 | Electroelastic Materials | 688 |
| 12.4 | Dielectrics with Polarization Gradient | 695 |
| 12.5 | Fluids in Electromagnetic Fields | 699 |
| 12.6 | Magnetoelasticity | 703 |
| 12.7 | Micromagnetics and Magnetism in Rigid Bodies | 710 |
| 12.7.1 | Rate Equations and Thermodynamic Restrictions | 712 |
| 12.7.2 | Evolution Equations of Magnetization | 719 |

- 12.8 Ferrofluids 724
 - 12.8.1 Magneto-Rheological Fluids 731
- 12.9 Magneto-, Electro-, and Mechanical-Optical Effects 732
 - 12.9.1 Magneto-Optical Effects 732
 - 12.9.2 Frequency Dependence, Closed Processes, Memory Functionals 737
 - 12.9.3 Electro-Optical Effects 744
 - 12.9.4 Mechanical-Optical Effects 748
 - 12.9.5 Magnetocaloric and Electro-Caloric Effects 750
- 12.10 Plasmas 754
 - 12.10.1 One-Fluid Plasma Theory and Magnetohydrodynamics 756
- 12.11 Chiral Media and Optical Activity 775
 - 12.11.1 Wave Solutions in Chiral Media 778
- 12.12 Anisotropic Non-Dissipative Magnetic Materials (Ferrites) 780
 - 12.12.1 Magnetization Model with Damping Effects 785

Part IV Hysteresis and Phase Transitions

- 13 Plasticity** 793
 - 13.1 Qualitative Aspects of the Stress–Strain Curve 793
 - 13.1.1 Yield Criteria 795
 - 13.2 Rate-Independent Scheme of Plastic Flow 798
 - 13.2.1 Consistency of Mises–Hill Model with a Defect Energy 800
 - 13.3 A Temperature-Dependent Model 801
 - 13.4 Gradient Theories of Plasticity 803
 - 13.5 Model of Plasticity via the Kröner Decomposition 805
 - 13.6 A Decomposition-Free Thermodynamic Scheme 809
 - 13.6.1 Duhem-Like Solids 811
 - 13.6.2 Hyperelastic and Hypoelastic Solids 813
 - 13.6.3 Dissipative Duhem-Like Solids 817
 - 13.6.4 Elastic–Plastic Models 818
 - 13.6.5 One-Dimensional Models 819
 - 13.6.6 The Helmholtz Free Energy 822
 - 13.6.7 Some Hysteretic Models 824
 - 13.6.8 Models with Additive Decomposition of the Strain Rate 827
 - 13.7 Constitutive Models of Polymeric Foams 829
- 14 Superconductivity and Superfluidity** 835
 - 14.1 Superconductors 835
 - 14.1.1 Discoveries About Superconductivity 835
 - 14.1.2 The London Equations 837

| | | |
|-----------|--|------------|
| 14.1.3 | An Alternative to London Equations | 843 |
| 14.1.4 | A Nonlocal Model | 845 |
| 14.1.5 | Phase Transition Curve | 846 |
| 14.1.6 | Ginzburg–Landau Theory | 848 |
| 14.2 | Superfluids | 850 |
| 14.2.1 | History of Superfluidity and Properties of Superfluids | 850 |
| 14.2.2 | First and Second Sound | 854 |
| 14.2.3 | Discontinuity Waves | 857 |
| 14.2.4 | Mass Fractions and Chemical Potentials | 860 |
| 14.2.5 | Rotation of Superfluids | 864 |
| 14.2.6 | The Ginzburg–Landau Theory | 866 |
| 15 | Ferroics | 869 |
| 15.1 | Evolution Function and Hysteretic Effects in Ferroelectrics | 869 |
| 15.1.1 | One-Dimensional Models of Ferroelectric Hysteresis | 874 |
| 15.2 | Ginzburg–Landau–Devonshire Theory | 883 |
| 15.2.1 | Landau Free Energy | 885 |
| 15.2.2 | Landau–Devonshire Free Energy | 890 |
| 15.3 | Ferromagnetism | 895 |
| 15.3.1 | Thermodynamic Approach to Magnetic Hysteresis | 898 |
| 15.3.2 | One-Dimensional Models of Ferromagnetic Hysteresis | 901 |
| 15.3.3 | Curie–Weiss Law | 907 |
| 16 | Phase Transitions | 909 |
| 16.1 | Jump Conditions at Interfaces | 909 |
| 16.2 | Phase Transitions at Sharp Interfaces with $T = -p_1$ | 912 |
| 16.2.1 | The Stefan Model | 914 |
| 16.3 | Liquid–Vapour Transition | 915 |
| 16.3.1 | Continuity of the Gibbs Free Energy | 917 |
| 16.3.2 | Viscous Phases and Surface Tension | 923 |
| 16.3.3 | The Phase Rule | 925 |
| 16.4 | Solid–Fluid Transition | 925 |
| 16.4.1 | Transition in a Finite Layer—A Mixture Model | 927 |
| 16.4.2 | Evolution of the Mass Fraction | 931 |
| 16.5 | Solidification–Melting of Binary Alloys | 932 |
| 16.6 | Brine Channels Formation in Sea Ice | 936 |

| | | |
|---|--|-------------|
| 16.6.1 | Transition Models via Minimization of Functionals | 939 |
| 16.7 | Phase-Field Model of Liquid-Solid Transitions | 941 |
| 16.8 | Phase Transitions in SMA | 944 |
| Appendix A: Notes on Vectors and Tensors | | 951 |
| References | | 991 |
| Index | | 1007 |

Part I
Basic Principles and Balance Equations

Chapter 1

Kinematics



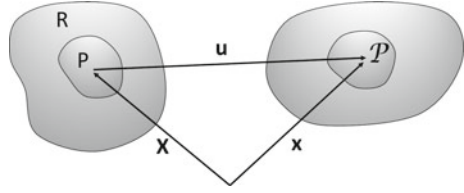
This chapter deals with the kinematics of deformable bodies. Both deformation and motion of a body are developed by using the reference configuration; the position vector in the reference configuration is the operative label of the points of the body.

The basic relations so determined for deformation and motion are essential to the next chapters. Attention is addressed to the topics of objectivity and objective time derivatives, thus establishing a general framework that proves remarkable in the description of material properties in terms of time derivatives. This framework shows the connection between various known objective time derivatives (Jaumann, Green–Naghdi, Cotter–Rivlin, Oldroyd, Truesdell). Transport relations are obtained for convecting (or non-convecting) sets, thus establishing basic properties for the derivation of (local) balance equations and jump conditions for discontinuous fields. Hence, the kinematical and the geometric relations are derived for singular surfaces which provide a general setting for the investigation of discontinuity waves. Moreover, the transport theorems for surface integrals are established thus leading, in particular, to the convected time derivative.

1.1 Frames of Reference and Configurations

A frame of reference or observer \mathcal{F} is an arbitrary set of rigidly fixed axes relative to which the position of points is determined. For simplicity, the chosen fixed axes are taken to be orthogonal and hence the corresponding unit vectors are an orthonormal basis; denote by $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}$ the chosen orthonormal basis. The time at which an event takes place can be specified relative to a particular event taken as a reference. An event is then a pair $\{P, t\}$ consisting of a point P , in the three-dimensional Euclidean space \mathcal{E} , and a time t . A chosen position O , origin, is taken as reference and hence we can identify each position P with the position vector \mathbf{x} relative to the origin,

Fig. 1.1 A motion χ maps the point, labelled by the position vector $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{R}$, to the position vector $\mathbf{x} = \chi(\mathbf{X}, t)$



$\mathbf{x} = P - O$. Hence, a frame of reference \mathcal{F} may be viewed as the Cartesian product of the set $\{\mathcal{E}, O, \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}\}$ and the real time axis \mathbb{R} .

A change of frame is a 1–1 mapping of space time onto itself such that distances, time intervals, and temporal order are preserved. An event $\{\mathbf{x}, t\}$ and its image $\{\mathbf{x}^*, t^*\}$ under a change of frame are related by rigid transformations and a time shift. Chosen possibly different origins O, O^* , for the two observers, $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}^*$, we can express a change of frame by

$$\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{c}(t) + \mathbf{Q}(t)\mathbf{x}, \quad t^* = t - a,$$

where $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbf{c}(t) = O - O^*$, and $\mathbf{Q}(t)$ is a rotation tensor, $\det \mathbf{Q}(t) = 1$.

Bodies occupy regions of the Euclidean space \mathcal{E} . To describe the evolution of a body, we need to label the points.¹ This is accomplished by labelling the points of the body by the position in a reference configuration (or placement) $\mathbf{R} \subset \mathcal{E}$; sometimes the body is identified with the reference configuration [216]. Upon choosing an origin, the positions in \mathbf{R} are associated with a position vector; to make it apparent that we are dealing with the reference configuration the vector is denoted by a uppercase boldface letter, most often \mathbf{X} . By definition, the reference configuration is independent of time. We denote by ∇ the gradient operator in \mathcal{E} and by $\nabla_{\mathbf{R}}$ the gradient operator in \mathbf{R} (Fig. 1.1).

The motion of the body is described by saying the position of any point in \mathcal{E} as a function of time. Granted a choice of origin also for the position in the current configuration, the current position vector, say \mathbf{x} , is then a function of the point (at) \mathbf{X} and time t . Hence, a *motion* of the body is a (smooth) function χ that assigns to each position (vector) in \mathbf{R} and time t a position

$$\mathbf{x} = \chi(\mathbf{X}, t)$$

in space; we say that \mathbf{X} is a material vector while \mathbf{x} is a spatial vector. Symbolically, $\chi(\mathbf{R}, t) \subset \mathcal{E}$ denotes the current configuration (at time t). The reference configuration \mathbf{R} might be the configuration at a chosen initial time t_0 but need not be so. If \mathbf{X} is fixed then $\chi(\mathbf{X}, t)$ describes the motion of the pertinent point in time. Hence

$$\dot{\chi}(\mathbf{X}, t) := \partial_t \chi(\mathbf{X}, t), \quad \ddot{\chi}(\mathbf{X}, t) := \partial_t^2 \chi(\mathbf{X}, t),$$

¹ The term points is used, instead of particles, to make it clear that no internal structure is ascribed.

are the velocity and acceleration of the point \mathbf{X} at time t . If, instead, t is fixed then χ is a mapping from \mathbf{R} to the current configuration, at time t .

For brevity, throughout $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{R}$ means that \mathbf{X} is the position vector of a point in \mathbf{R} . Likewise, $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{E}$ means that \mathbf{x} is the position vector of a point in \mathcal{D} .

1.2 Deformation

To begin with, we restrict attention to a fixed time t and hence $\chi(\mathbf{X}, t)$, as a function of \mathbf{X} , describes the *deformation* at time t . Hence, the dependence on the parameter t is understood and we let

$$\mathbf{x} = \chi(\mathbf{X}).$$

It is assumed that $\chi(\mathbf{X})$ is a 1-1 mapping so that two material points, $\mathbf{X} \neq \mathbf{Y}$, cannot occupy the same position in the current configuration, $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$. Assume also that χ is differentiable. Hence, there is a tensor $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$ such that

$$\chi(\mathbf{Y}) - \chi(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) + o(|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|),$$

\mathbf{F} being a tensor function of the position \mathbf{X} and possibly of t ; \mathbf{F} is said to be the *deformation gradient*. To within $o(|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|)$, \mathbf{F} maps material vectors, $\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}$, to spatial vectors, $\chi(\mathbf{Y}) - \chi(\mathbf{X})$. If χ depends linearly on \mathbf{X} then \mathbf{F} is independent of \mathbf{X} ,

$$\chi(\mathbf{Y}) - \chi(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}),$$

and the deformation is said to be *homogeneous*. Hence, in general, a deformation approaches the corresponding homogeneous deformation, with $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$; the closer \mathbf{Y} is to \mathbf{X} the more χ approaches a homogeneous deformation.

In components,² there is a matrix $F \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ such that, for any two points $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} \in \mathbf{R}$,

$$\chi_h(\mathbf{Y}) - \chi_h(\mathbf{X}) = F_{hk}(\mathbf{X})(Y_k - X_k) + o(|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|), \quad h = 1, 2, 3.$$

The entries $\{F_{hk}\}$ are the components of the deformation gradient

$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla_{\mathbf{R}} \chi, \quad F_{hk} = \partial_{X_k} \chi_h.$$

To determine the effects of deformation on lengths, areas, and volumes, it is convenient to establish some properties of the deformation gradient. First we observe that the invertibility of χ implies

$$J := \det \mathbf{F} \neq 0.$$

² As in well-known textbooks [152, 428, 429], to make the notation more explicit, throughout in suffix notation, we use capital indices for quantities related to the reference configuration.

Indeed since the trivial deformation

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{X}$$

gives $J = 1$ we may regard the deformation as a continuous process and hence we assume

$$J > 0.$$

Also, we let

$$j = \det \mathbf{F}^{-1}$$

and hence $Jj = 1$.

As any invertible tensor, the deformation gradient \mathbf{F} satisfies the *polar decomposition*

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{R},$$

where $\mathbf{R} \in \text{Orth}$ while $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V} \in \text{Psym}$.

To show this property, we first observe that $\mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F} \in \text{Psym}$ in that, for any vector \mathbf{w} ,

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F}\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{F}\mathbf{w}) \cdot (\mathbf{F}\mathbf{w}) \geq 0$$

and, since \mathbf{F} is invertible,

$$\mathbf{F}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0} \iff \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}.$$

We can then define³ $\mathbf{U} = \sqrt{\mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F}}$. Since $\mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F} \in \text{Psym}$ then the eigenvalues, say $\{\mu_i\}$, are positive; let $\{\mathbf{N}_i\}$ be the eigenvectors and then $\mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \mu_i \mathbf{N}_i \otimes \mathbf{N}_i$. Hence $\mathbf{U} = \sqrt{\mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F}}$ is defined as $\mathbf{U} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \lambda_i \mathbf{N}_i \otimes \mathbf{N}_i$, $\lambda_i = \sqrt{\mu_i}$. Hence also \mathbf{U} is invertible and $\mathbf{U}^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^3 (1/\lambda_i) \mathbf{N}_i \otimes \mathbf{N}_i$. We can then write $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}$ and take it as the definition of \mathbf{R} ; we find that

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{U}^{-1}, \quad \mathbf{R}^T\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F}\mathbf{U}^{-1} = \mathbf{1}$$

and, if $J > 0$ then $\det \mathbf{R} = 1$. Accordingly, \mathbf{R} is a rotation if $J > 0$ and is orthogonal if merely $J \neq 0$. Given $\mathbf{U} : \mathbf{U}^2 = \mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F}$ the tensor \mathbf{R} is unique in that by

$$\mathbf{R}\mathbf{U} = \hat{\mathbf{R}}\mathbf{U}$$

it follows $\mathbf{R} = \hat{\mathbf{R}}$.

Likewise, since $\mathbf{F}\mathbf{F}^T \in \text{Psym}$ we can define $\mathbf{V} \in \text{Psym}$ such that

$$\mathbf{F}\mathbf{F}^T = \mathbf{V}^2.$$

³ The uniqueness of \mathbf{U} is proved in [216], p. 32.

Let $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{V}\tilde{\mathbf{R}}$. It follows $\det \tilde{\mathbf{R}} = 1$ if $J > 0$. Now by

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{V}\tilde{\mathbf{R}} = \tilde{\mathbf{R}}\tilde{\mathbf{R}}^T\mathbf{V}\tilde{\mathbf{R}} = \tilde{\mathbf{R}}(\tilde{\mathbf{R}}^T\mathbf{V}\tilde{\mathbf{R}})$$

and the uniqueness of the decomposition $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}$, it follows

$$\tilde{\mathbf{R}} = \mathbf{R}, \quad \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{R}^T.$$

We can then write the following statement.

Theorem 1.1 (Polar decomposition) *If \mathbf{F} is an invertible tensor with $\det \mathbf{F} > 0$ then there are unique, symmetric, positive-definite tensors \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} and a rotation \mathbf{R} such that $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{R}$.*

We say that $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}$ and $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{R}$ are the right and left polar decompositions of \mathbf{F} .

A positive-definite symmetric tensor represents a state of pure stretches along three mutually orthogonal axes. Therefore, the polar decomposition means that any (homogeneous) deformation may be viewed as the result of a pure stretch \mathbf{U} and a rotation \mathbf{R} or the same rotation \mathbf{R} followed by the stretch \mathbf{V} . Accordingly, \mathbf{U} is called the *right stretch tensor* and \mathbf{V} the *left stretch tensor*. In calculations, it proves more convenient to use the *right and left Cauchy–Green tensors*

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{U}^2 = \mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{V}^2 = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{F}^T.$$

When \mathbf{F} is a rotation, $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}$, $\mathbf{F}^T\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{1}$. Also $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{1}$ if the deformation is the identity transformation $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{X}$. It is then useful to use the *Green–St. Venant strain tensor*

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

The vector

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{X} = \chi(\mathbf{X}) - \mathbf{X}$$

is called the *displacement* of the point (at \mathbf{X}). The *displacement gradient* is the tensor⁴

$$\mathbf{H} = \nabla_k \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{F} - \mathbf{1}.$$

Hence

$$\mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{1})^T(\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{1}) = \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{H} + \mathbf{H}^T\mathbf{H}$$

and

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{H}^T) + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{H}^T\mathbf{H}.$$

⁴ To follow the standard notation in continuum mechanics, the symbols \mathbf{B} , \mathbf{H} , \mathbf{E} , and \mathbf{D} are used. When \mathbf{B} , \mathbf{H} , \mathbf{E} , and \mathbf{D} are used within electromagnetism they denote the magnetic induction, the magnetic field, the electric field, and the electric displacement.

It is useful sometimes to consider the linear part \mathcal{E} of \mathbf{E} , i.e.

$$\mathcal{E} := \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{H});$$

we refer to \mathcal{E} as the *strain tensor*. Since

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathcal{E} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{H}$$

then for small deformations, that is when $\|\mathbf{H}\| \ll 1$, we can use the approximation $\mathbf{E} \simeq \mathcal{E}$.

Further

$$\mathcal{E} = \text{sym} \mathbf{H} = \text{sym}[\nabla \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{H})].$$

The *infinitesimal strain tensor* is defined by

$$\varepsilon := \text{sym} \nabla \mathbf{u}.$$

Hence, for small deformations $\mathbf{E} \simeq \mathcal{E} \simeq \varepsilon$.

It is worth observing that \mathbf{C} and \mathbf{B} admit the same principal invariants. By direct calculations, it follows that

$$\text{tr } \mathbf{C} = \text{tr } \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{F}, \quad \text{tr } \mathbf{B} = \text{tr } \mathbf{F} \mathbf{F}^T = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{F},$$

$$\text{tr } \mathbf{C}^2 = \text{tr}(\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F} \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}) = (\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}) \cdot (\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}), \quad \text{tr } \mathbf{B}^2 = \text{tr}(\mathbf{F} \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F} \mathbf{F}^T) = (\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}) \cdot (\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}),$$

$$\det \mathbf{C} = \det \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F} = (\det \mathbf{F})^2, \quad \det \mathbf{B} = \det \mathbf{F} \mathbf{F}^T = (\det \mathbf{F})^2.$$

Hence, we find the common values of the principal invariants

$$I_1 = \text{tr } \mathbf{C} = \text{tr } \mathbf{B},$$

$$I_2 = \frac{1}{2}[(\text{tr } \mathbf{C})^2 - \text{tr } \mathbf{C}^2] = \frac{1}{2}[(\text{tr } \mathbf{B})^2 - \text{tr } \mathbf{B}^2],$$

$$I_3 = \det \mathbf{C} = \det \mathbf{B}.$$

By the polar decomposition $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{R}$, it follows that, associated with a deformation gradient \mathbf{F} , there are various rotation-independent tensors related to \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} . The right Cauchy–Green deformation tensor (or Green’s deformation tensor) is defined by $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{U}^2 = \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}$. The inverse \mathbf{C}^{-1} is denoted by \mathcal{F} ,

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathbf{C}^{-1} = \mathbf{F}^{-1} \mathbf{F}^{-T}.$$

As to \mathbf{V} , the left Cauchy–Green deformation tensor is denoted by \mathbf{B} and defined by $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{V}^2 = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{F}^T$. The inverse \mathbf{B}^{-1} is denoted by \mathcal{C} ,

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \mathbf{F}^{-T} \mathbf{F}^{-1}.$$

In the literature, \mathcal{F} is called the Finger tensor (and denoted by \mathbf{f}). The inverse \mathbf{C} of \mathbf{B} was introduced by Cauchy and is denoted by \mathbf{c} ; as with tensors, we prefer to use a capital letter (\mathbf{C} instead of \mathbf{c}). In addition, \mathbf{C} is called Piola tensor, and Finger tensor in the fluid dynamics literature. We avoid the use of Piola tensor for \mathbf{C} because the Piola, or Piola-Kirchhoff, tensor is a well-known stress tensor of continuum mechanics.

We now examine the spectral representation of \mathbf{F} . The common eigenvalues of $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{U}^2$ and $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{V}^2$ are λ_i^2 , $i = 1, 2, 3$. Hence

$$\mathbf{C} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \lambda_i^2 \mathbf{N}_i \otimes \mathbf{N}_i, \quad \mathbf{B} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \lambda_i^2 \mathbf{n}_i \otimes \mathbf{n}_i$$

and

$$\mathbf{U} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \lambda_i \mathbf{N}_i \otimes \mathbf{N}_i, \quad \mathbf{V} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \lambda_i \mathbf{n}_i \otimes \mathbf{n}_i = \sum_{i=1}^3 \lambda_i \mathbf{R} \mathbf{N}_i \otimes \mathbf{R} \mathbf{N}_i.$$

Since $\mathbf{n}_i = \mathbf{R} \mathbf{N}_i$, we can write

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{j=1}^3 \mathbf{n}_j \otimes \mathbf{N}_j;$$

\mathbf{R} is the active rotation \mathcal{R} as described in Sect. 1.4.1.

Hence, \mathbf{F} is represented in the form

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R} \mathbf{U} = (\sum_{j=1}^3 \mathbf{n}_j \otimes \mathbf{N}_j) (\sum_{i=1}^3 \lambda_i \mathbf{N}_i \otimes \mathbf{N}_i) = \sum_{j=1}^3 \lambda_j \mathbf{n}_j \otimes \mathbf{N}_j.$$

From the spectral representation, we can derive the matrix representation. If the deformation is a rotation, then $\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{1}$. Let \mathbf{R} be given by a rotation of the angle θ around $\mathbf{n}_3 = \mathbf{N}_3$. Since $\mathbf{R} = \sum_{j=1}^3 \mathbf{n}_j \otimes \mathbf{N}_j$, we find

$$R_{hk} = \mathbf{N}_h \cdot \mathbf{R} \mathbf{N}_k = \mathbf{N}_h \cdot \mathbf{n}_j \mathbf{N}_j \cdot \mathbf{N}_k = \mathbf{N}_h \cdot \mathbf{n}_k.$$

It follows that

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The Green-St Venant strain tensor \mathbf{E} describes the deviation of the present configuration from the reference one, where $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{1}$ and then also $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{1}$. Hence, a better description of deformation might involve \mathbf{E} . Now

$$\mathbf{F}^{-T} (\mathbf{C} - \mathbf{1}) \mathbf{F}^{-1} = \mathbf{F}^{-T} (\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F} - \mathbf{1}) \mathbf{F}^{-1} = \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{F}^{-T} \mathbf{F}^{-1} = \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{B}^{-1}.$$

Hence, letting

$$\mathbf{E}_A := \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{B}^{-1})$$

we have

$$\mathbf{E}_A = \mathbf{F}^{-T} \mathbf{E} \mathbf{F}^{-1}.$$

The tensor \mathbf{E}_A is called the Eulerian Almansi strain tensor.

1.2.1 Effects on Lengths, Areas, and Volumes

Distances and Lengths

Look at two position vectors $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}$ and the corresponding spatial position vectors $\mathbf{x} = \chi(\mathbf{X}), \mathbf{y} = \chi(\mathbf{Y})$ in the deformed region $\chi(\mathbb{R}) \subset \mathcal{E}$. It is

$$\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) + o(|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|),$$

\mathbf{F} being evaluated at \mathbf{X} . To within $o(|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|)$, we have

$$\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) \tag{1.1}$$

and hence

$$(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) \cdot (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X})] \cdot [\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X})] = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) \cdot \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) \cdot \mathbf{C} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}).$$

Then the distance $l = |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|$ between the points in the deformed region is given by

$$l^2 = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) \cdot \mathbf{C} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}); \tag{1.2}$$

the length l depends on the material vector $\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}$ and not merely on the length $|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|$. That is why the right Cauchy–Green tensor \mathbf{C} is viewed as a metric tensor.

If we are interested also in the direction of $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}$, then we consider (1.1) and observe that the unit vector $\mathbf{e} = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X})/|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|$ is mapped to

$$\frac{\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}}{|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|} = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{e}.$$

The ratio of the lengths

$$\frac{|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|}{|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|} = |\mathbf{F} \mathbf{e}|,$$

is consistent with the action of deformation via the right Cauchy–Green tensor \mathbf{C} ,

$$|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|^2 = |\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|^2 \mathbf{e} \cdot \mathbf{C} \mathbf{e} = |\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|^2 \mathbf{e} \cdot \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F} \mathbf{e} = |\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|^2 |\mathbf{F} \mathbf{e}|^2.$$

The deviation of the deformation from the identity deformation is well described by \mathbf{E} . To get a detailed effect of \mathbf{E} , we let $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X})$ and find

$$|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|^2 - |\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|^2 = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) \cdot (\mathbf{C} - \mathbf{1})(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}).$$

Since $\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{F}^{-T}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$ we find

$$|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|^2 - |\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|^2 = \mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) \cdot (\mathbf{C} - \mathbf{1})\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{F}^{-T}(\mathbf{C} - \mathbf{1})\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}).$$

Hence

$$|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|^2 - |\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|^2 = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) \cdot 2\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) \cdot 2\mathbf{E}_A(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}).$$

The Green-St. Venant tensor \mathbf{E} yields the difference $|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|^2 - |\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|^2$ in terms of the vector $\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}$ while the Eulerian Almansi tensor, \mathbf{E}_A or \mathbf{e} , yields the difference in terms of $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}$.

We now examine the length of a curve. Let C be a curve in \mathbf{R} represented parametrically as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \hat{\mathbf{Y}}(\lambda), \quad \lambda \in [a, b].$$

By deformation, C is mapped to \mathcal{C} given by

$$\mathbf{Y}(\lambda) \rightarrow \mathbf{y}(\lambda) = \chi(\mathbf{Y}(\lambda)).$$

The line integral of a continuous function f defined on \mathcal{C} reads

$$\int_a^b f(\mathbf{y}(\lambda))|\mathbf{y}'(\lambda)|d\lambda = \int_a^b f(\mathbf{y}(\chi(\mathbf{Y}(\lambda))))|\chi'(\mathbf{Y}(\lambda))|d\lambda$$

where $'$ means derivative with respect to the parameter λ . Since $\chi'(\mathbf{Y}(\lambda)) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y}(\lambda))\mathbf{Y}'(\lambda)$ then

$$\int_a^b f(\mathbf{y}(\lambda))|\mathbf{y}'(\lambda)|d\lambda = \int_a^b f(\chi(\mathbf{Y}(\lambda)))|\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y}(\lambda))\mathbf{Y}'(\lambda)|d\lambda.$$

Let $f = 1$ and observe that

$$\mathcal{L} = \int_a^b |\mathbf{y}'(\lambda)|d\lambda$$

is the length of \mathcal{C} while $\int_a^b |\mathbf{Y}'(\lambda)|d\lambda$ is the length of C . Hence

$$\mathcal{L} = \int_a^b |\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y}(\lambda))\mathbf{Y}'(\lambda)|d\lambda.$$

By means of the polar decomposition, we can write

$$|\mathbf{F}\mathbf{Y}'| = (\mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{Y}' \cdot \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{Y}')^{1/2} (\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{Y}' \cdot \mathbf{U}\mathbf{Y}')^{1/2} = |\mathbf{U}\mathbf{Y}'|.$$

As a consequence

$$\mathcal{L} = \int_a^b |\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{Y}(\lambda))\mathbf{Y}'(\lambda)| d\lambda,$$

so that the length is unchanged if \mathbf{F} is (locally) a pure rotation, $\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{1}$. This shows that $\mathbf{U} \neq \mathbf{1}$ does not preserve lengths.

A deformation that preserves the distance between points is said to be rigid; χ is *rigid* if

$$|\chi(\mathbf{Y}) - \chi(\mathbf{X})| = |\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}|, \quad \forall \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{R}. \quad (1.3)$$

By (1.3), it follows

$$[\chi(\mathbf{Y}) - \chi(\mathbf{X})] \cdot [\chi(\mathbf{Y}) - \chi(\mathbf{X})] = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}) \cdot (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}).$$

Differentiation with respect to \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} yields

$$\mathbf{F}^T(\mathbf{Y})\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{1}.$$

Letting $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Y}$ we find

$$\mathbf{F}^T(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{1}$$

and hence \mathbf{F} is a rotation, say \mathbf{R} , at any point of the body. Consequently

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y})\mathbf{F}^T(\mathbf{Y})\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$$

implies $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y})$. Hence, in a rigid deformation \mathbf{F} is a rotation \mathbf{R} , independent of the position. Moreover, by integration of

$$\nabla_k \chi = \mathbf{R}$$

we have

$$\chi(\mathbf{Y}) = \chi(\mathbf{X}) + \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}). \quad (1.4)$$

It is of interest to examine the (approximate) description of small rigid deformations. By (1.4), since $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{F}$ then letting $\chi(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{Y})$, we have

$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{Y}) - \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{X}) = (-\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{F})(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}).$$

By $\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{U}^2 = \mathbf{1}$, it follows

$$(\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{H}^T)(\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{H}) = \mathbf{1}, \quad \mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{0}$$