

## Lecture 2

### Remarks on quasi-static evolutions

#### 1. What drives evolution?

In this setting, what makes things change is the fact that  $\mathcal{E}$  is not constant in time.

If  $\mathcal{E}$  is constant in time, nothing moves.

This can be seen looking at discretized evolutions:  
if  $\mathcal{E}(t, x) = \mathcal{E}(t+s, x)$ , then  $x(t+s) = x(t) \dots$

On the other hand, if  $\mathcal{E}(t, x) \neq \mathcal{E}(t+s, x)$ , then  $x(t)$  may be no longer a minimizer of  $\mathcal{E}(t+s, x) + \mathcal{D}(x, x(t))$ .

## 2. General framework

$x \in X$  subset of a linear space  $V$  (or a manifold)

$\mathcal{E} : [0, T] \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  energy

$R : [0, T] \times X \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  dissipation rate (convex  
and 1-homogeneous in  $V$ )

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instead of  $R$  one can give

$\mathcal{D} : [0, T] \times X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  dissipation potential  
(or dissipation distance)

and then set

$$R(t, x, v) := \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathcal{D}(t, x, x + hv)}{h}$$

### 3. The infinite dimensional case

Additional difficulties, related to the search of minimizers.

The following version of Helly's theorem is sometimes useful:

Let  $X$  be a compact metric space.

Let  $(x^\delta)$  be maps from  $[0,T] \rightarrow X$  with uniformly bounded variations.

Then, after passing to a suitable subsequence,  $x^\delta(t)$  converge to some  $x(t)$  for every  $t$ , and ...

#### 4. Why "rate-independent"?

The energy dissipated by friction to go from state  $x$  to state  $x' = x + v \Delta t$  is

$$\partial R(v) \cdot \Delta x = R(\Delta x) = R(v) \cdot \Delta t = R(v \cdot \Delta t)$$

and therefore depends only on  $\Delta x$  (and not on  $v$ ).

Assuming the existence of a dissipation potential  $D$  automatically plugs this property into the system...

## 5. Invariance under re-parametrization of time

Let  $x(t)$  be a solution of q.s. evolution associated to  $\mathcal{E}$  and  $R$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \parallel & \parallel \\ \mathcal{E}(t,x) & & R(r) \end{array}$$

Let  $t = t(\tau)$  be any increasing change of variable.

Then  $\tilde{x}(\tau) := x(t(\tau))$  is a solution of q.s. evolution associated to  $\tilde{\mathcal{E}}(\tau, x) := \mathcal{E}(t(\tau), x)$  and  $R(v)$ .

6. What is not rate-independent?

Example: a solid ball moving in the air is subject to a resistance force proportional to velocity:

$$f_r = -cv$$

(at least in a certain range of velocity)

Thus the energy dissipated from  $x$  to  $x' = x + v \Delta t$  is

$$-f_r \cdot \Delta x = cv \cdot \Delta x = c \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \cdot \Delta x = c \frac{|\Delta x|^2}{\Delta t} \dots$$

In this case the balance of forces is  
 $-cv = -\partial_x \mathcal{E}(t, x)$ . Assuming  $c=1$  and  $\mathcal{E}=\mathcal{E}(x)$

$$\dot{x} = -\nabla \mathcal{E}(x).$$

This is a gradient flow, and has a completely different structure, and meaning.

Note that gradient flows are not invariant under (nonlinear) time re-parametrization.

Example: the heat equation  $u_t = \Delta u$  as gradient flow of the Dirichlet energy  $\frac{1}{2} \int |\nabla u|^2$  w.r.t. the  $L^2$ -scalar product.

Time-discretization of gradient flows is also completely different: replacing  $\dot{x}(t)$  by  $\frac{x(t) - x(t-\Delta)}{\Delta}$  we get

$$\frac{x(t) - x(t-\Delta)}{\Delta} = - \nabla \mathcal{E}(x(t))$$

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$$x(t) \in \operatorname{argmin} \left\{ \mathcal{E}(x) + \frac{1}{2\Delta} \|x - x(t-\Delta)\|^2 \right\}$$

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## 7. References.

The abstract framework I described is essentially due to Mielke and coauthors.

See his lecture notes for more "advanced," examples.

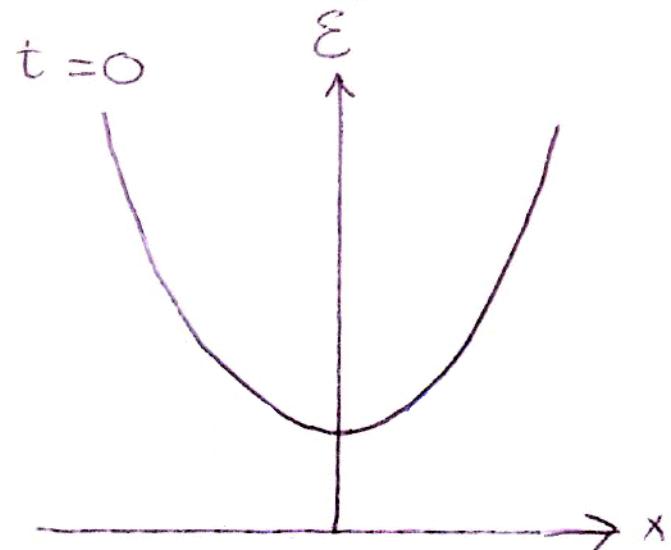
Françfort and Marigo set up a similar framework in the specific context of q.s. evolution of fractures in brittle materials.

## 8. Regularity and uniqueness.

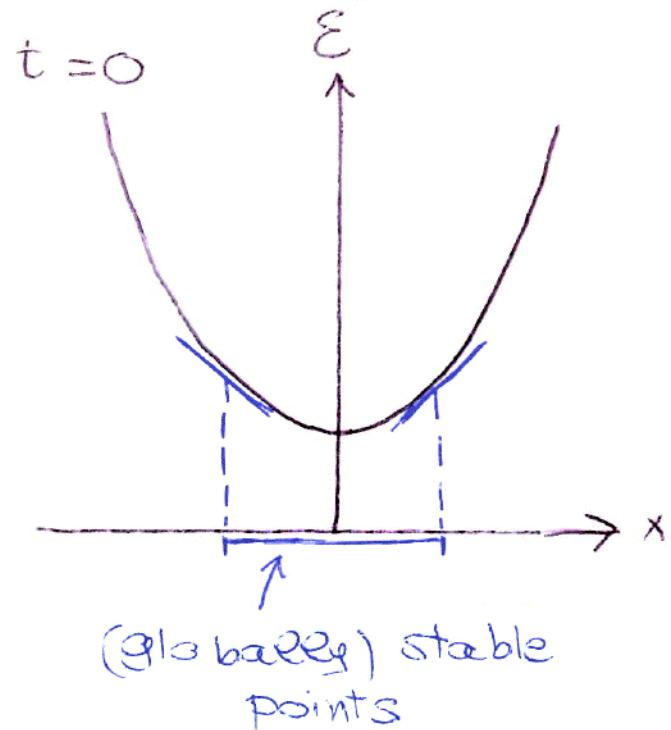
If  $E$  is convex in  $x$  (and  $R$  is reasonable) then the solution of q.s. evolution with initial condition  $x_0$  is unique and Lipschitz.

In particular one can make sense of the differential inclusion  $0 \in \partial_x E(t, x) + \partial R(x)$ .

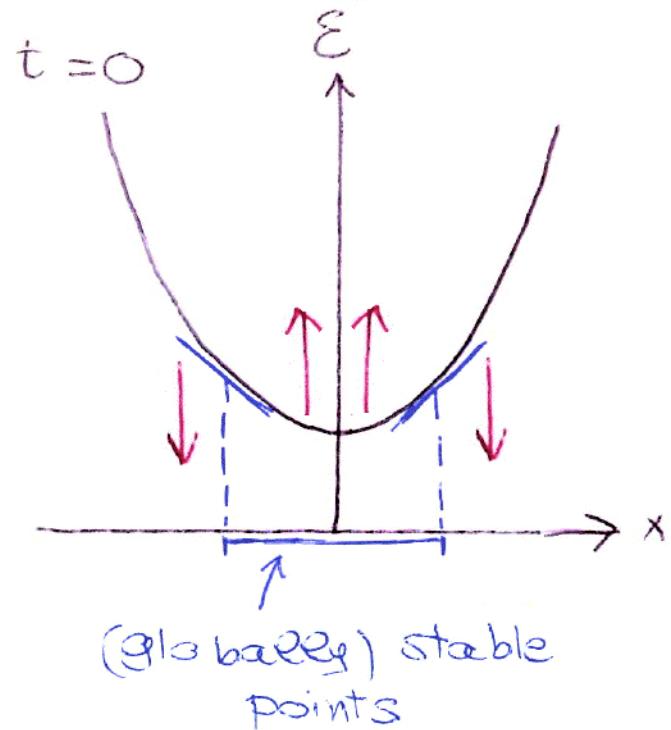
### 9. Example of non uniqueness



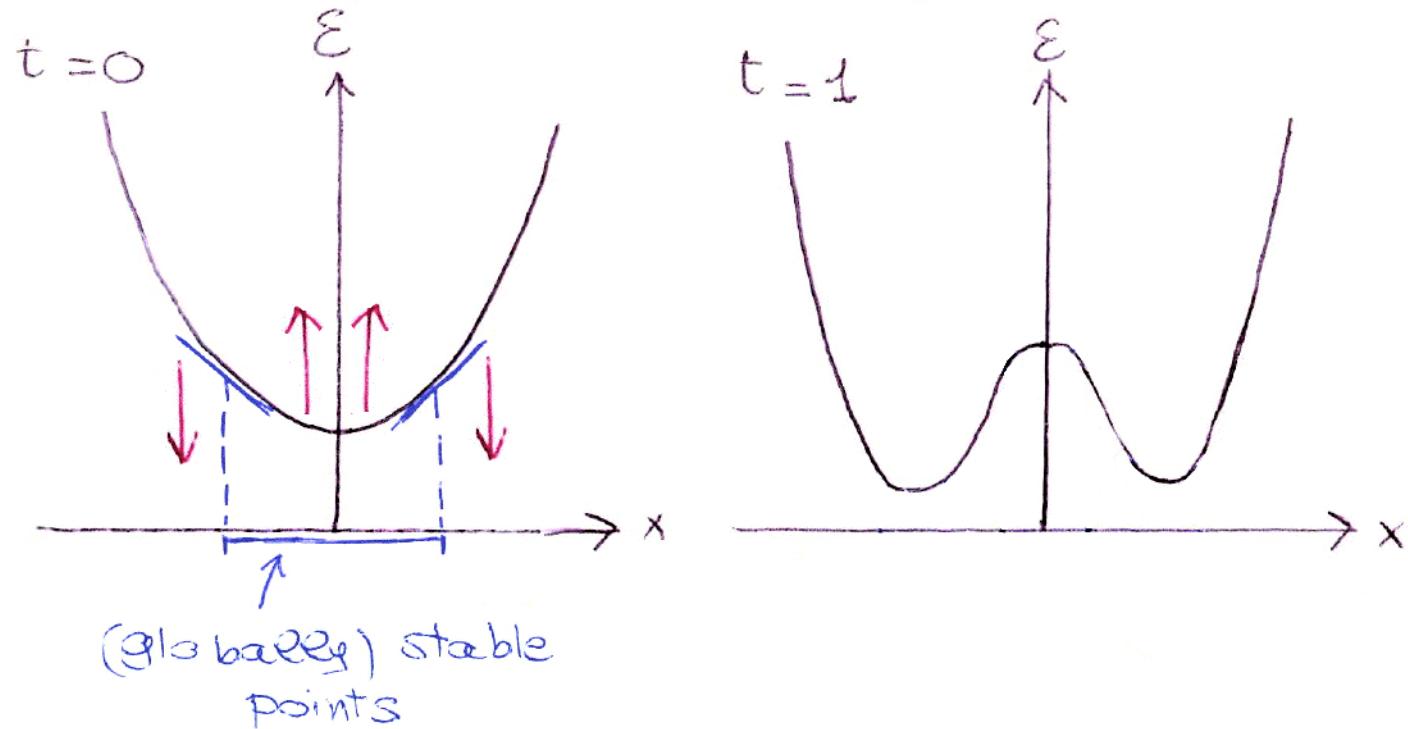
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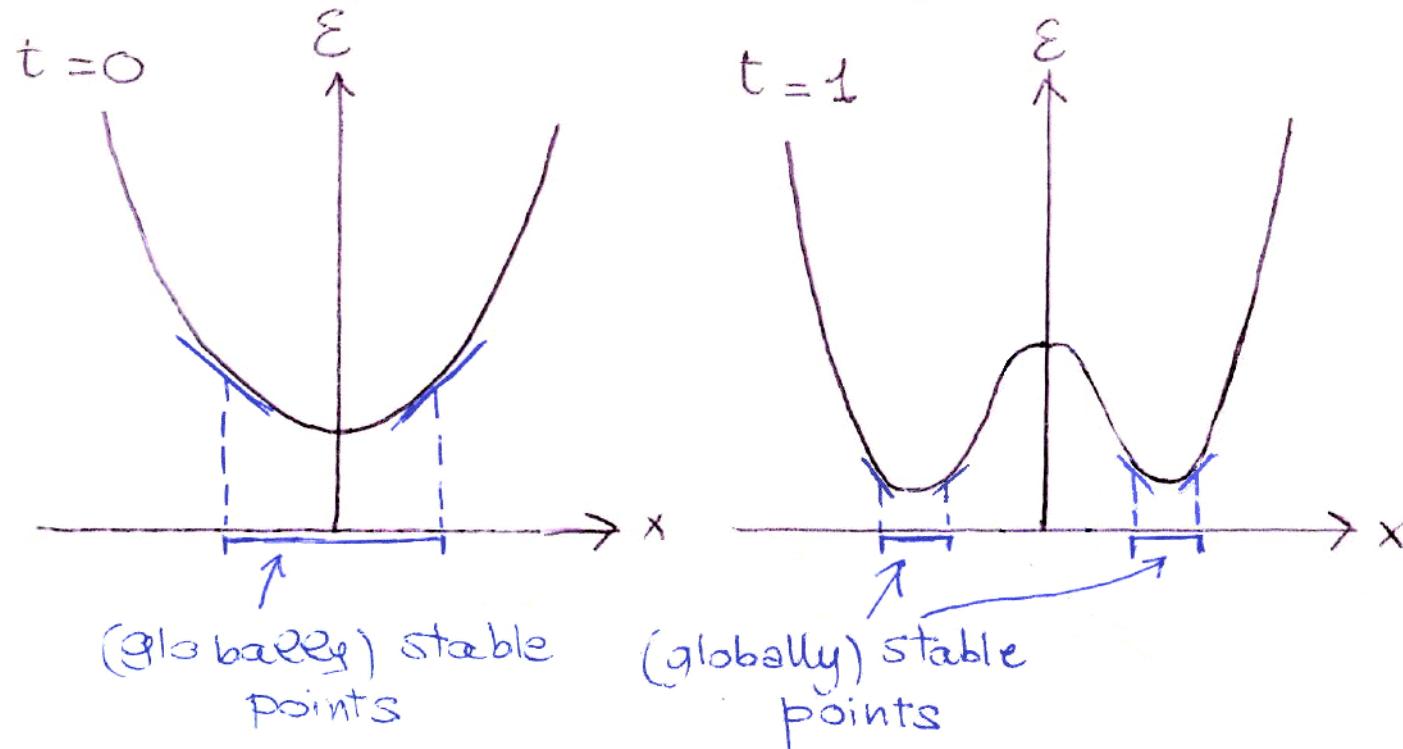
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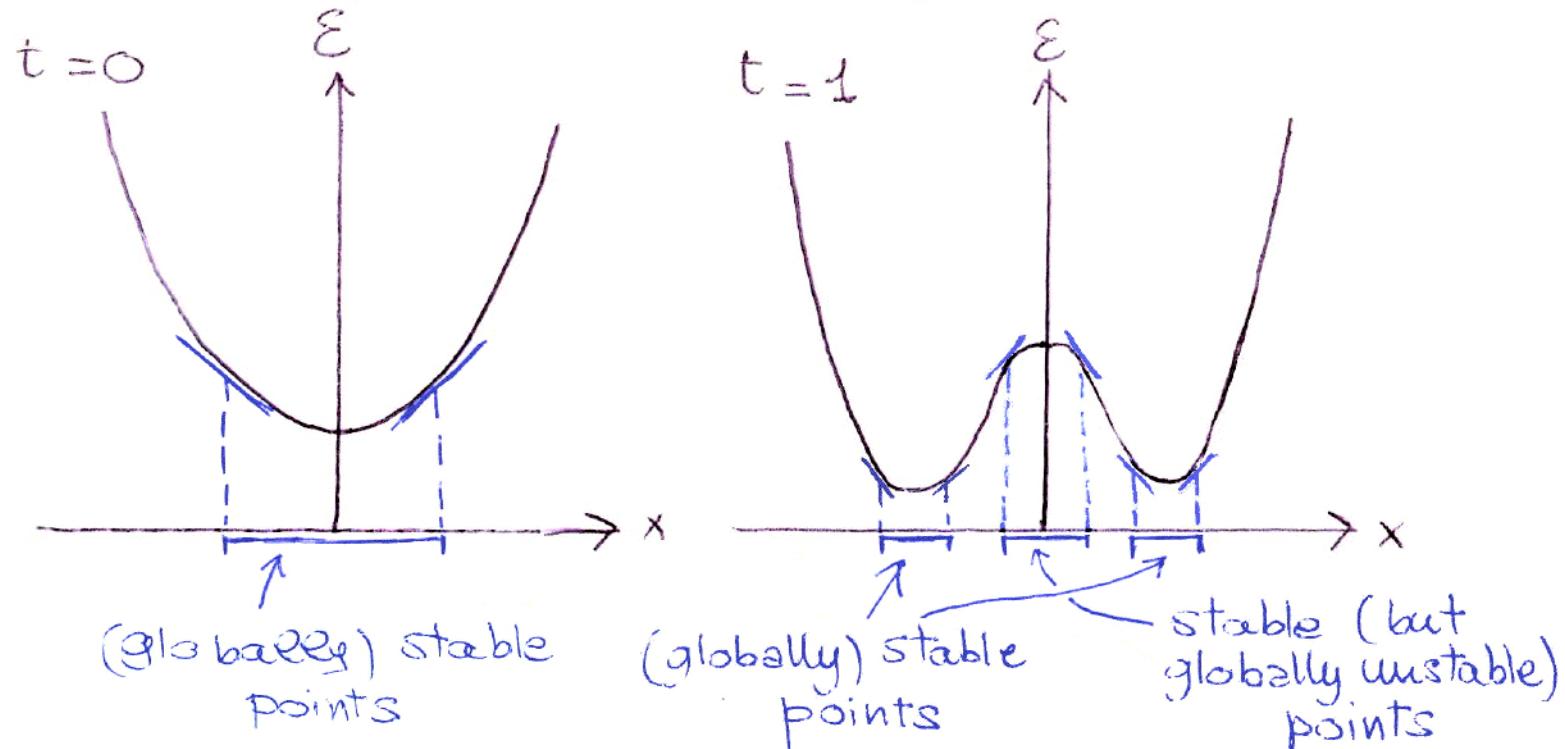
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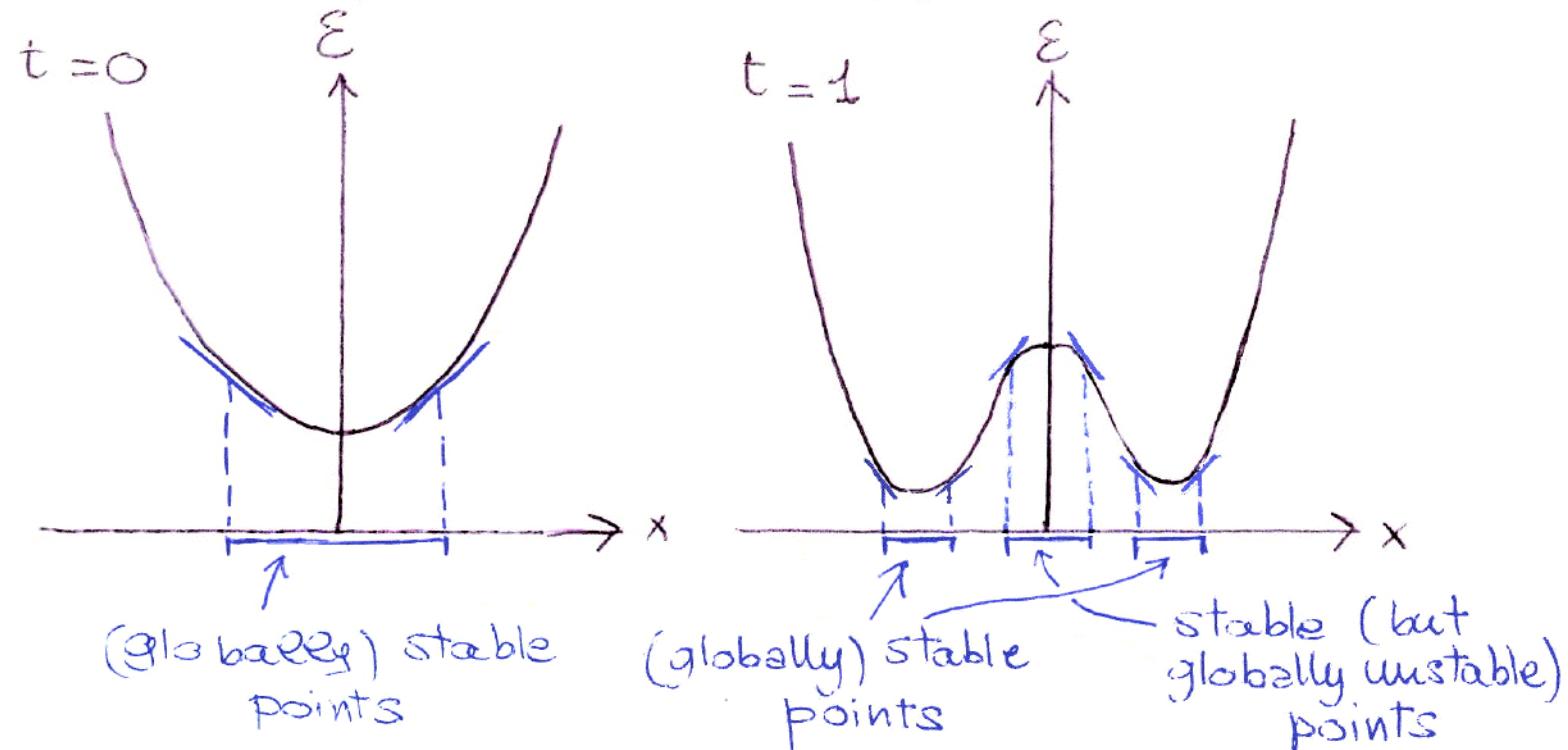
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Symmetry breaking : the (energetic) solution with initial condition  $x(0)=0$  is not unique.

## 10. (Lack of) Regularity

We know solutions can be discontinuous.

Are they piecewise  $C^1$  or piecewise Lipschitz?

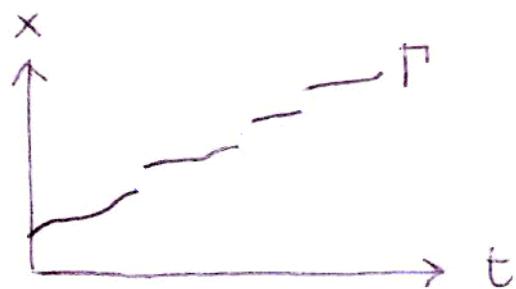
No!

Let  $x : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be bounded and increasing.

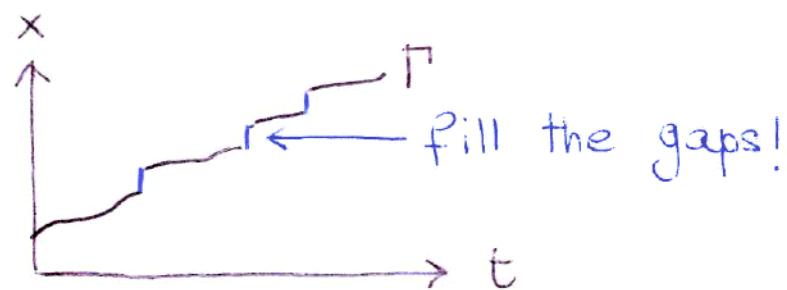
Let  $R(v) = |v|$ .

Then there exists  $\Sigma : [0, T] \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  smooth  
such that  $x$  is an (energetic) solution of  
the q.s. evolution associated to  $\Sigma$  and  $R$ .

Let  $\Gamma$  be the graph of  $x$

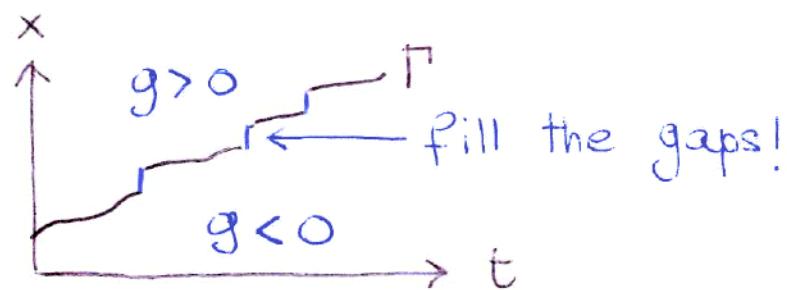


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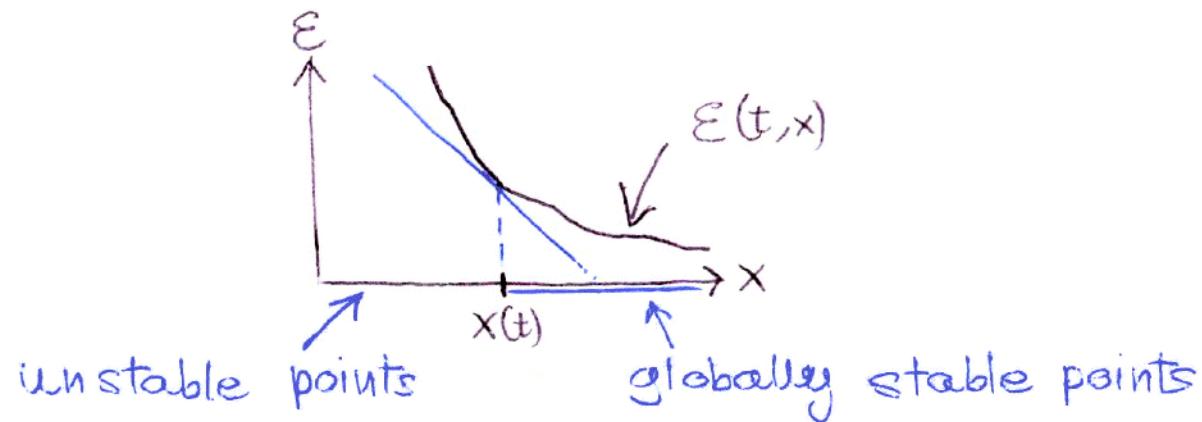
fill the gaps!

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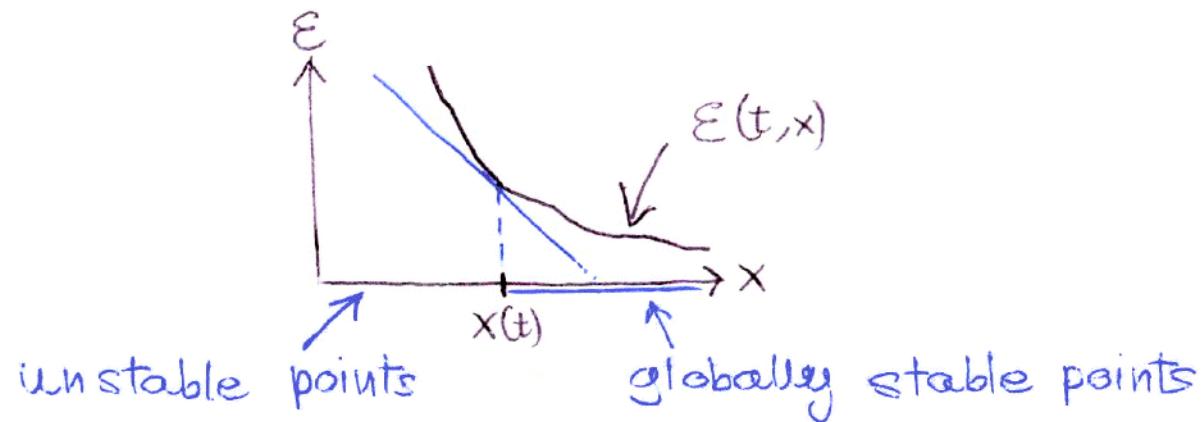


Let  $g : [0, T] \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a smooth function  
s.t.  $g < 0$  below  $\Gamma$ ,  $g = 0$  on  $\Gamma$ ,  $g > 0$  above  $\Gamma$ .

Define  $\varepsilon$  by  $\partial_x \varepsilon = -1 + g$ . Then  $\forall t$

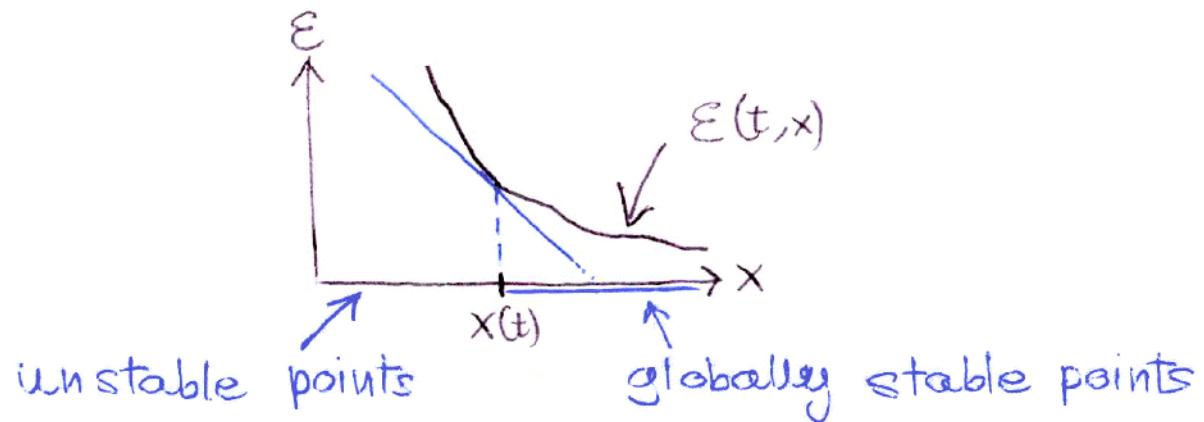


Define  $\mathcal{E}$  by  $\partial_x \mathcal{E} = -1 + g$ . Then  $\forall t$



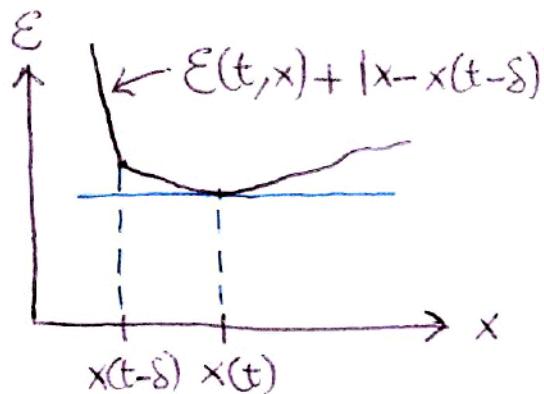
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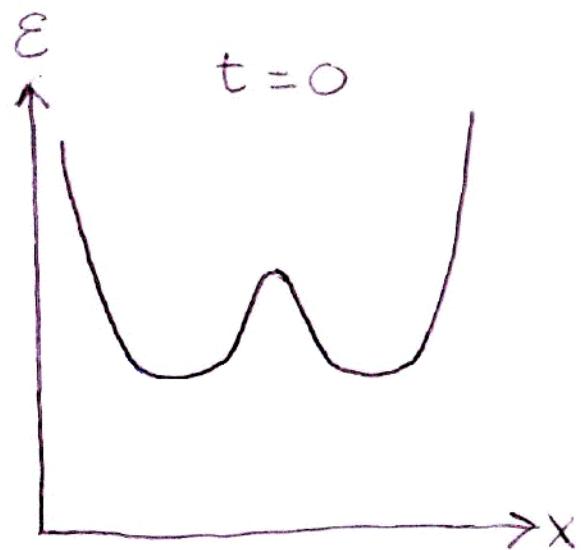
Then  $x(t)$  is an energetic solution.

The one obtained by time discretization!



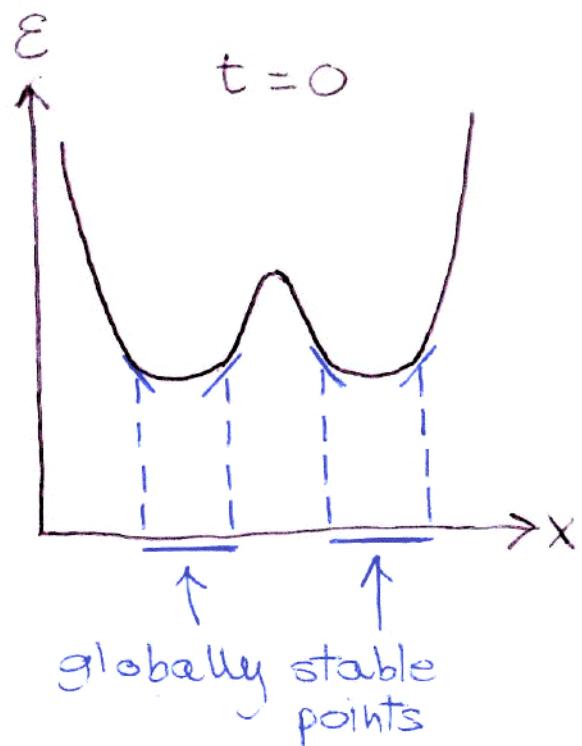
## II. Problems with jumps (discont. sol's)

### I: unphysical energetic solutions



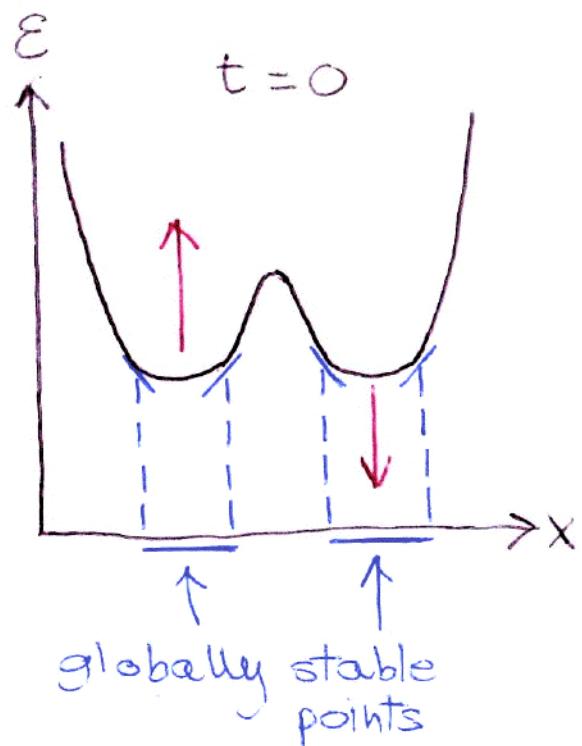
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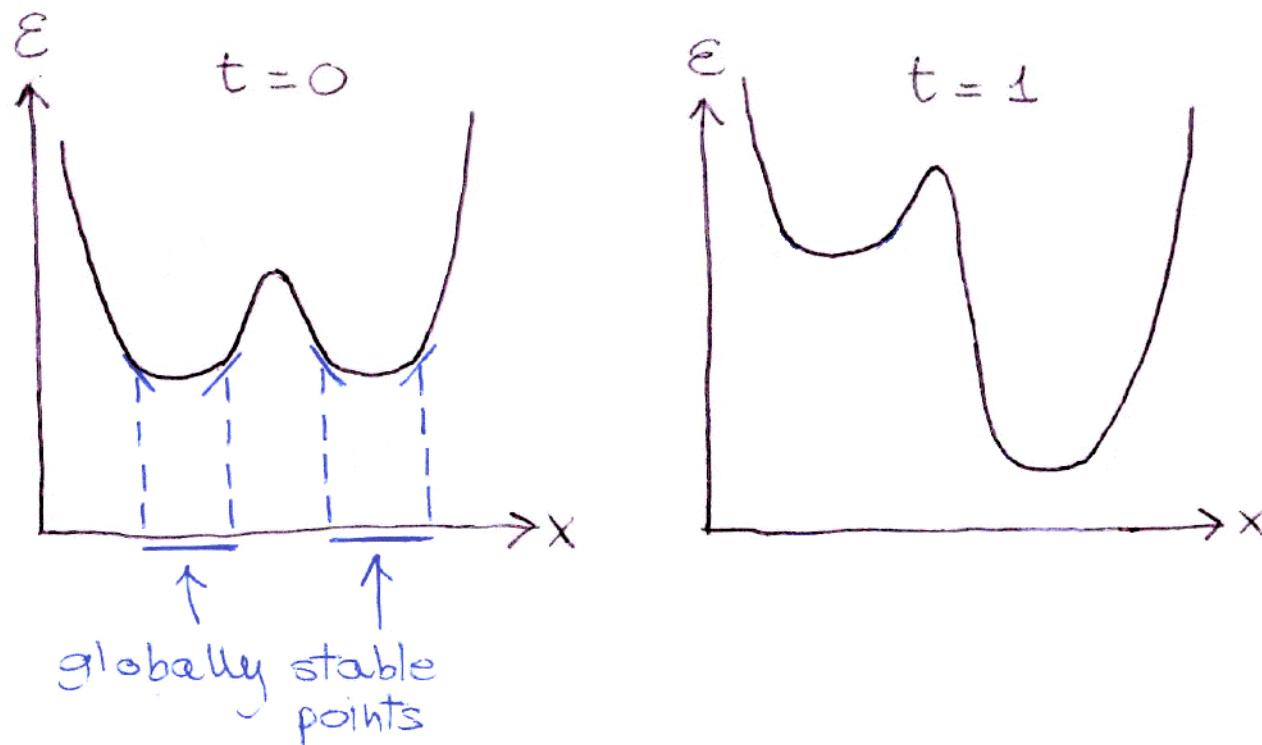
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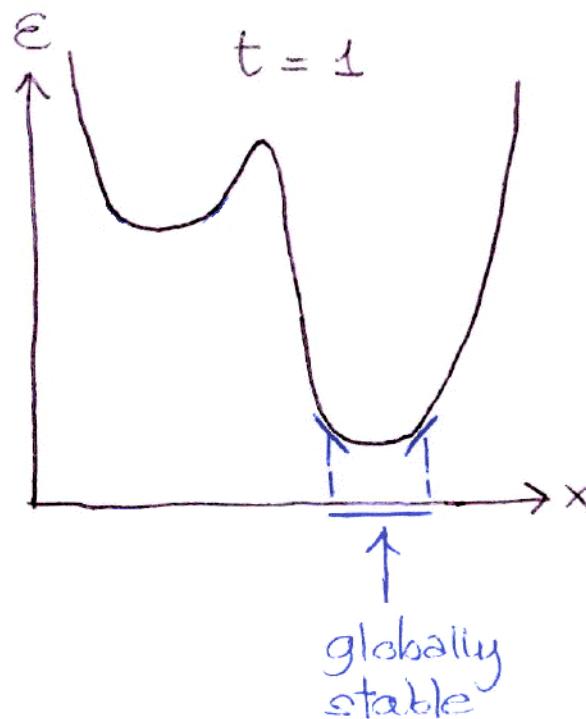
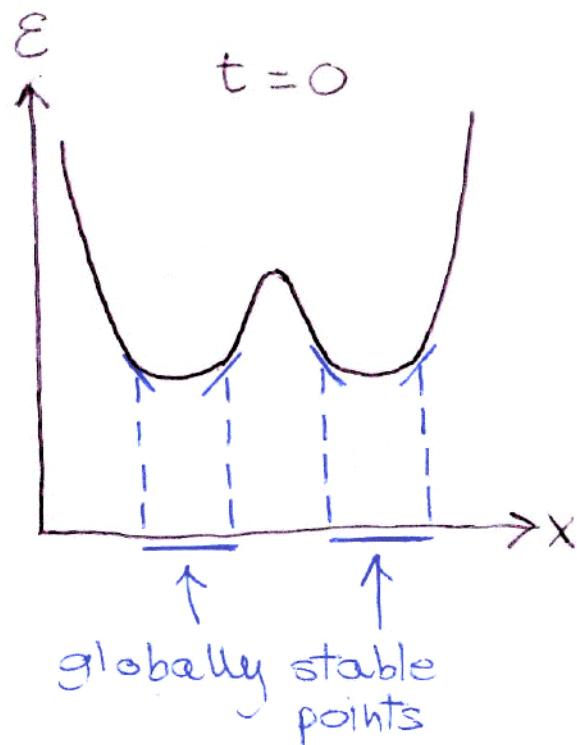
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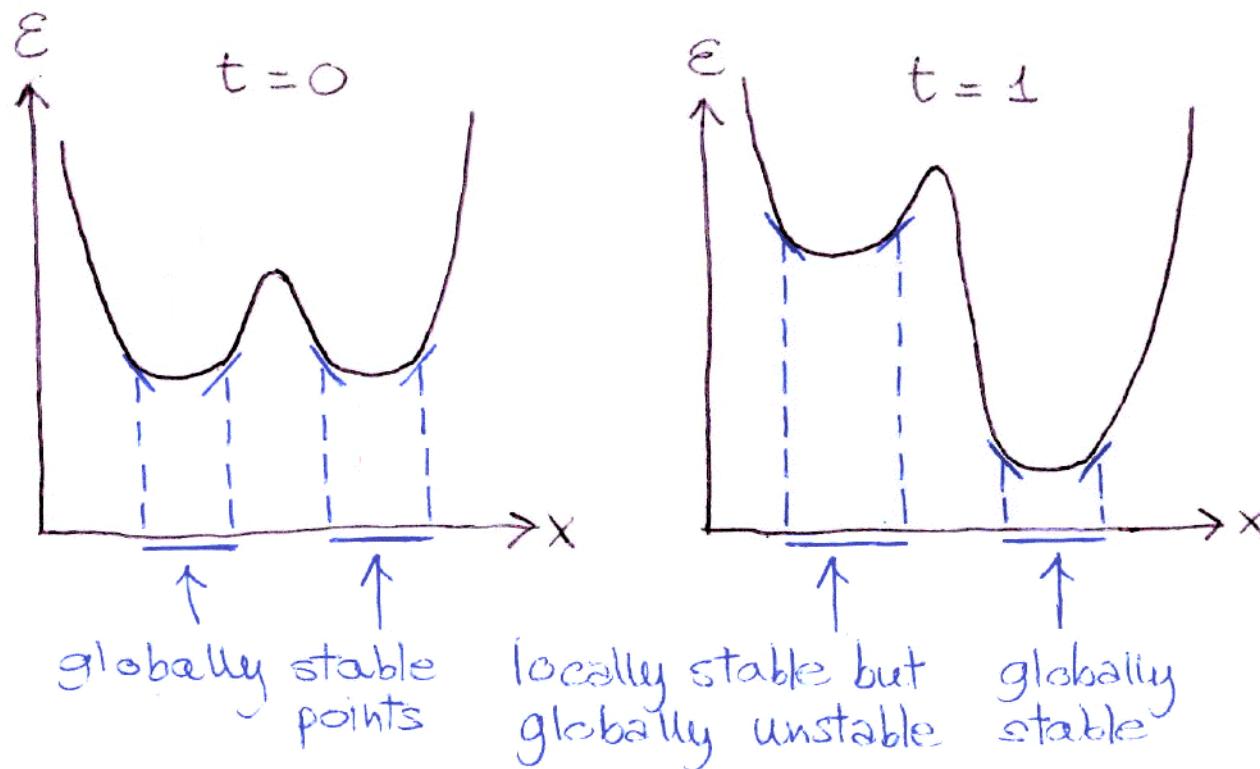
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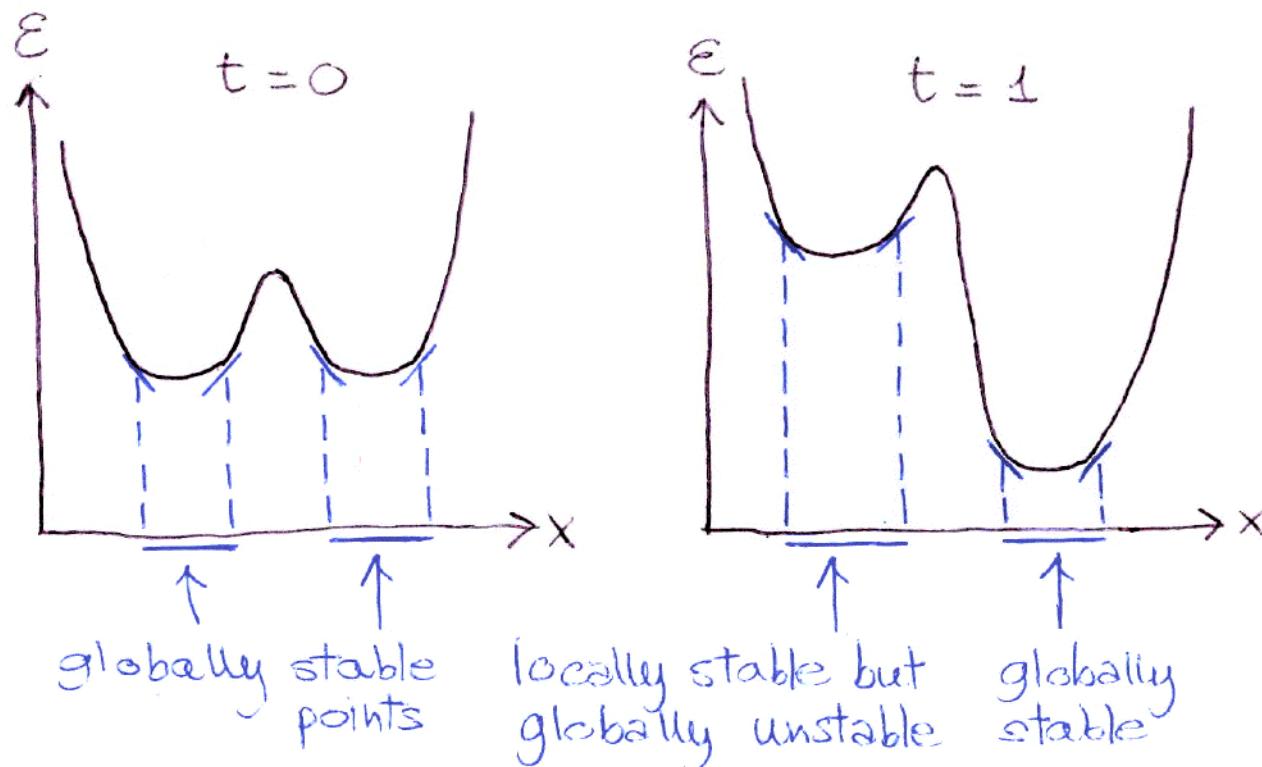
## III. Problems with jumps (discont. sol's)

### I: unphysical energetic solutions



## II. Problems with jumps (discont. sol's)

### I: unphysical energetic solutions



An energetic solution starting in the first interval will jump to the second one...

## 12. Problems with jumps II: "philosophical,"

Can we claim that we are dealing with a quasi-static evolution if a solution jumps (infinite velocity)?

Sometimes YES!

Consider for example our favourite example: a box sliding on a "variable carpet", and assume it has small but positive mass, and inertia is not neglected...

### 13. Vanishing viscosity approach.

Mielke and coauthors → see Mielke's recent (2009) lecture notes.

Add a "small," (artificial) viscosity to the balance equation:

$$0 \in f_\varepsilon + f_a + \varepsilon v \quad \varepsilon \ll 1$$

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In term of time-discretization:

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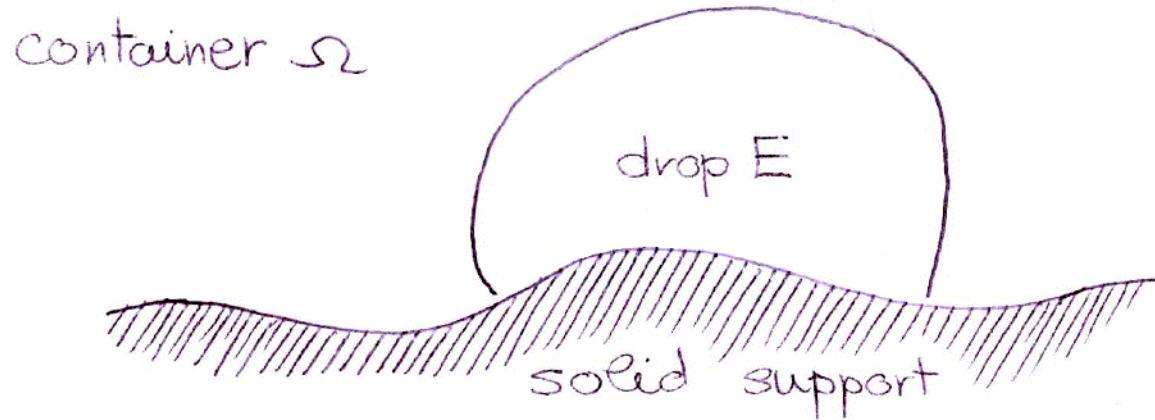
Close locally stable points are preferable w.r.t. far globally stable ones. Here is why....

## 2. The classical variational model for equilibrium capillary drops

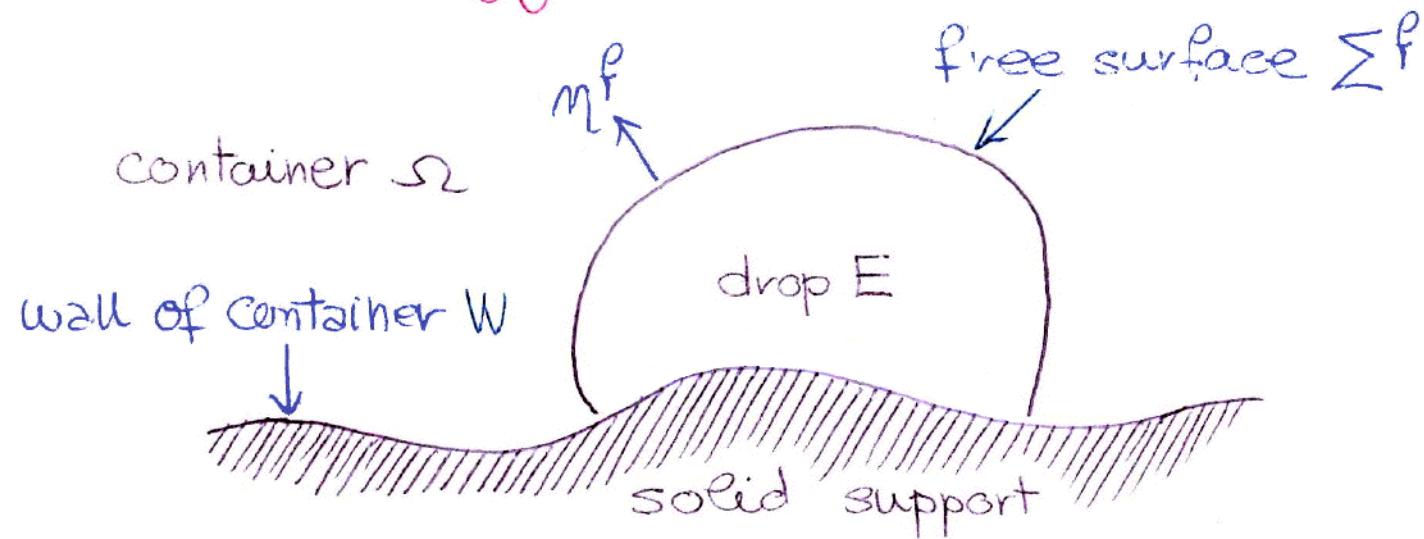
Through the rest of this lecture we consider a drop (of water) at rest on a solid surface.

So there is no velocity, no Stokes equation.

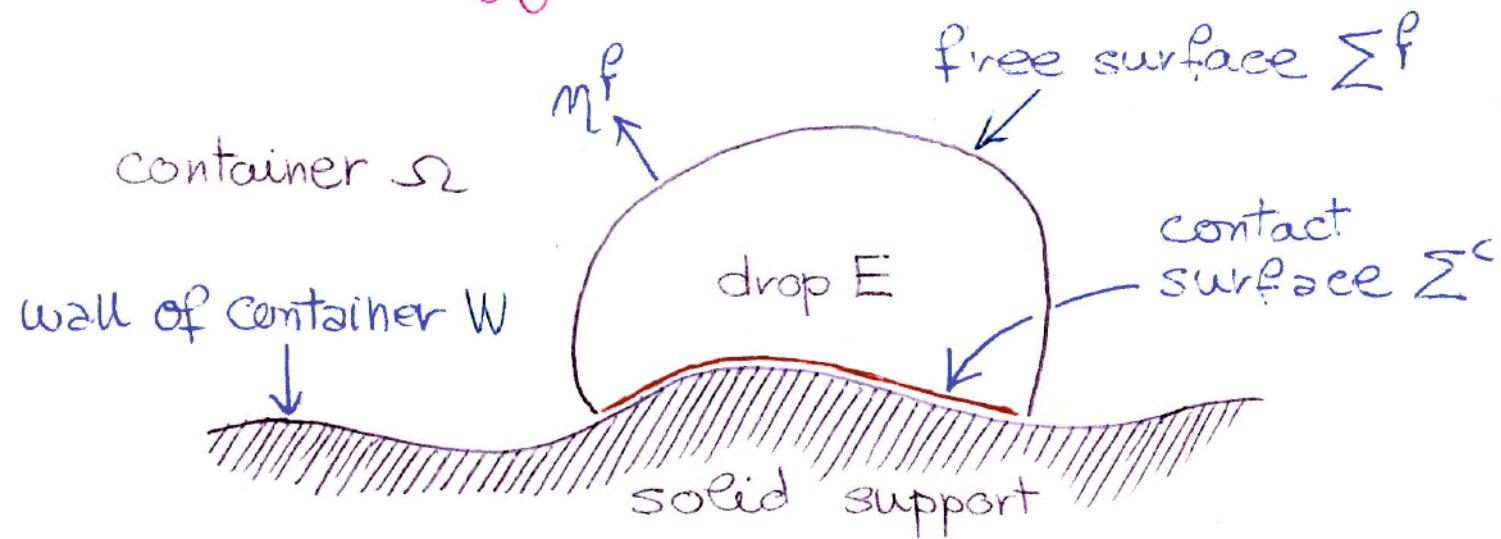
## 2.1. Terminology



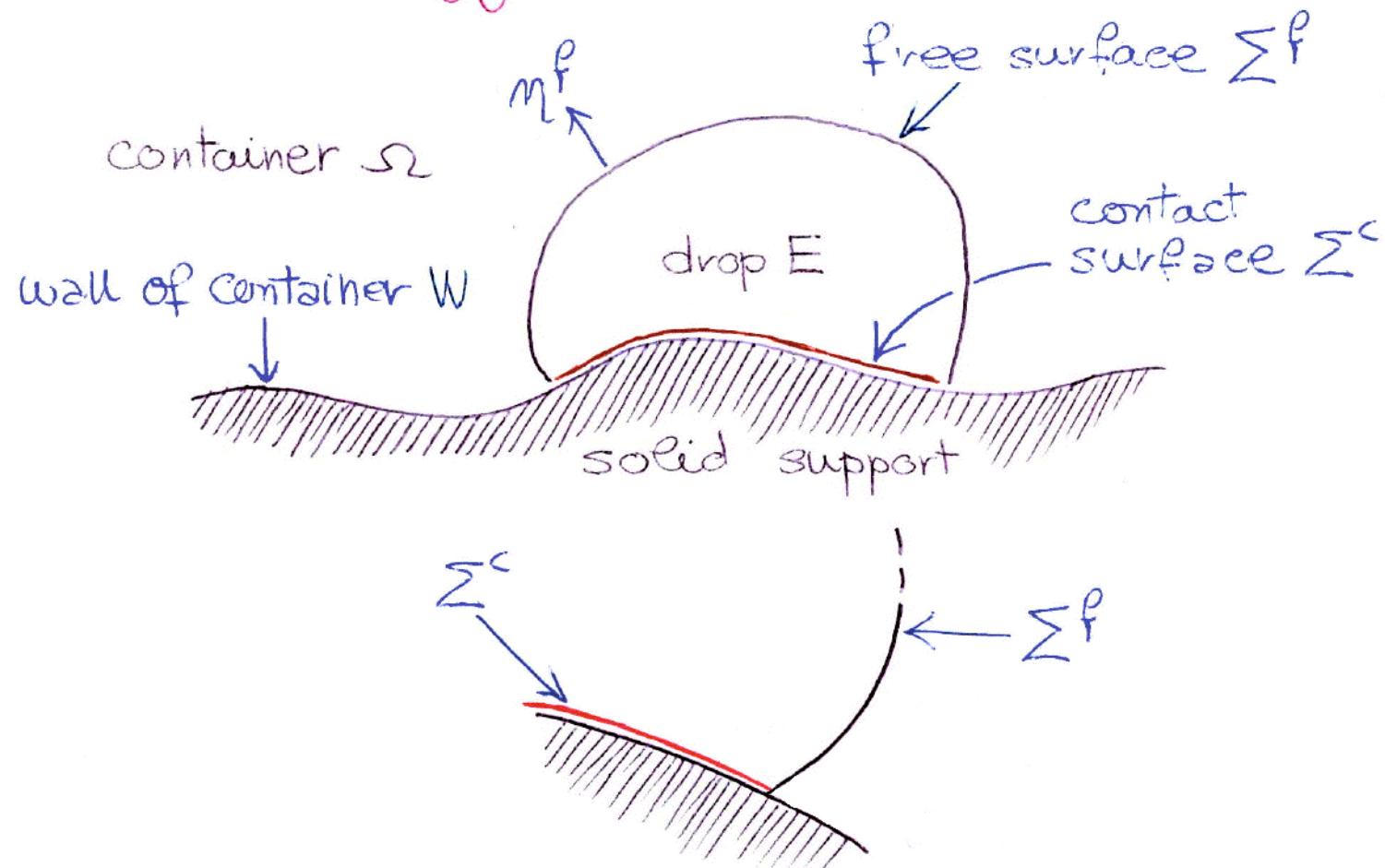
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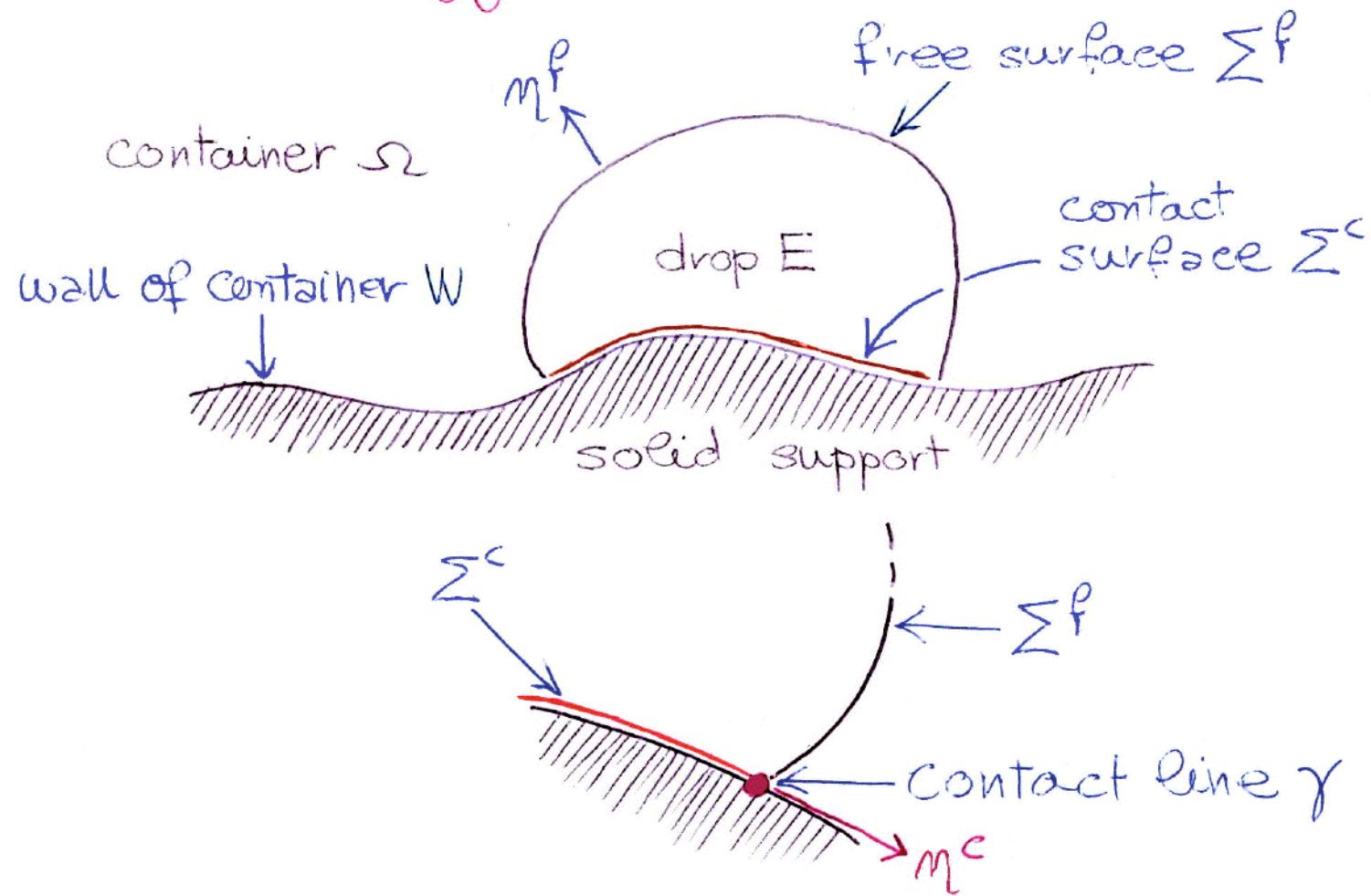
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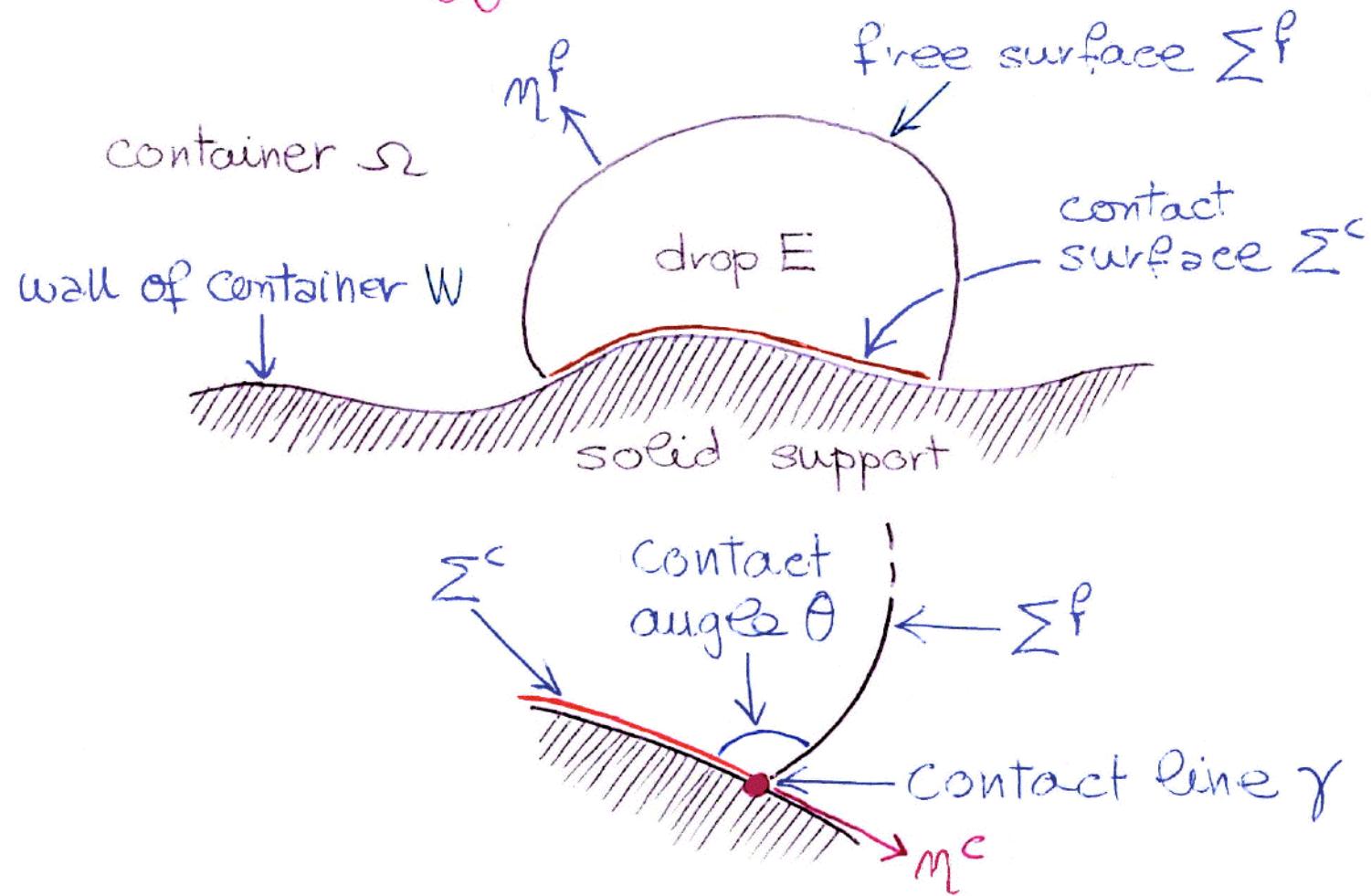
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## 2.2. Capillary energy

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↑  
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tension coefficient

Area of  $\Sigma^F$

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↑                          ↓  
 liquid-vapour surface  
 tension coefficient      Area of  $\Sigma^F$

$$V = \int_E p(t, x) dx \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{volume energy} \\ (\text{e.g. gravitational en.}) \end{array}$$

## 2.3. Wetting conditions

It is assumed that

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Physical interpretation:  $\sigma_{LS} \leq \sigma_{SV} + \sigma_{VL}$  means that it is never convenient to interpose a thin layer of air between the solid surface and the drop; conditions  $\sigma_{SV} \leq \sigma_{SL} + \sigma_{LV}$  means that it is never convenient to interpose a thin layer of water between the solid surface and the air.

## 2.4. Definition of Young's angle

Define the Young's angle  $\theta_y \in [0, \pi]$  by

$$\cos \theta_y = \frac{G_{SV} - G_{LS}}{G_{LV}}$$

The energy can be rewritten as

$$E = G_{LV} (|\Sigma^f| - \cos \theta_y |\Sigma^c|) + V$$

## 2.5. Equilibrium conditions:

If the drop  $E$  is at equilibrium (e.g.  $E$  is a local minimizer of  $\mathcal{E}$  among drops with same volume)

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$$-2\sigma_{LV} H + p = \text{constant} \quad \text{on } \Sigma^f$$

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Lagrange  
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$$\text{why } -2 \rightarrow -2 G_{LV} H + p = \text{constant} = p \text{ on } \Sigma^f$$

Lagrange multiplier

↑ mean curvature of  $\Sigma^f$       ↑ volume energy density      ↑ pressure

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 mean curvature of  $\Sigma^f$   
 ↓  
 volume energy density  
 ↓  
 pressure

Lagrange multiplier

and Young's law:

$$\theta = \theta_y \text{ on } \gamma.$$

## 2.6. Deviation of equilibrium conditions

Consider an arbitrary "variation" of a given drop  $E$ .

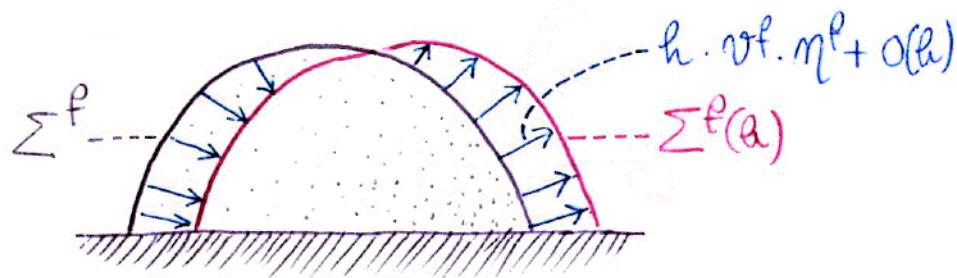
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"Decent," means that we can define the normal velocities  $v^f$  (of the free surface  $\Sigma^f$ ) and  $v^c$  (of the contact line  $\gamma$ ) such that

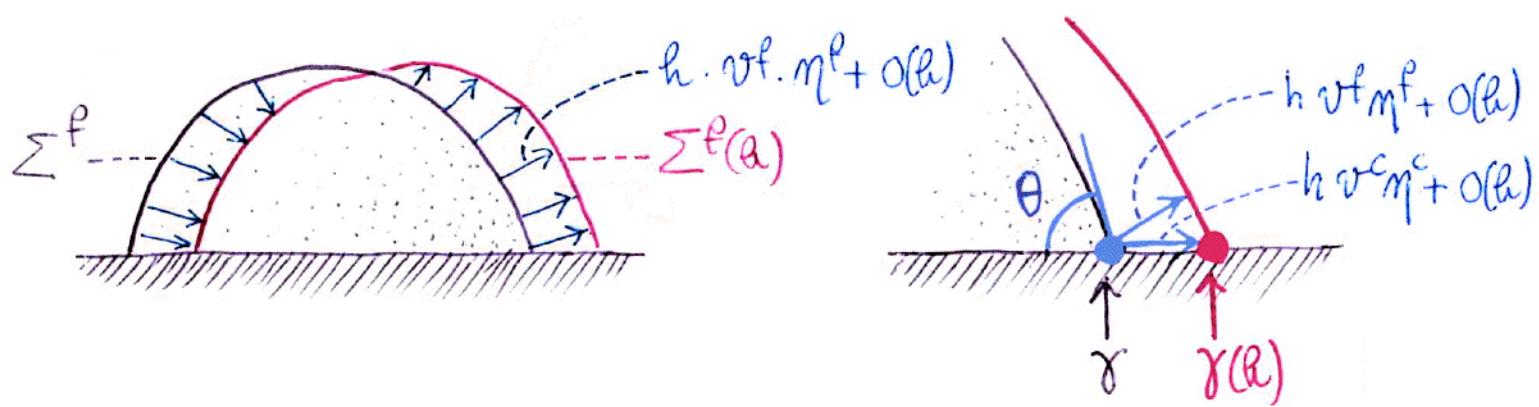


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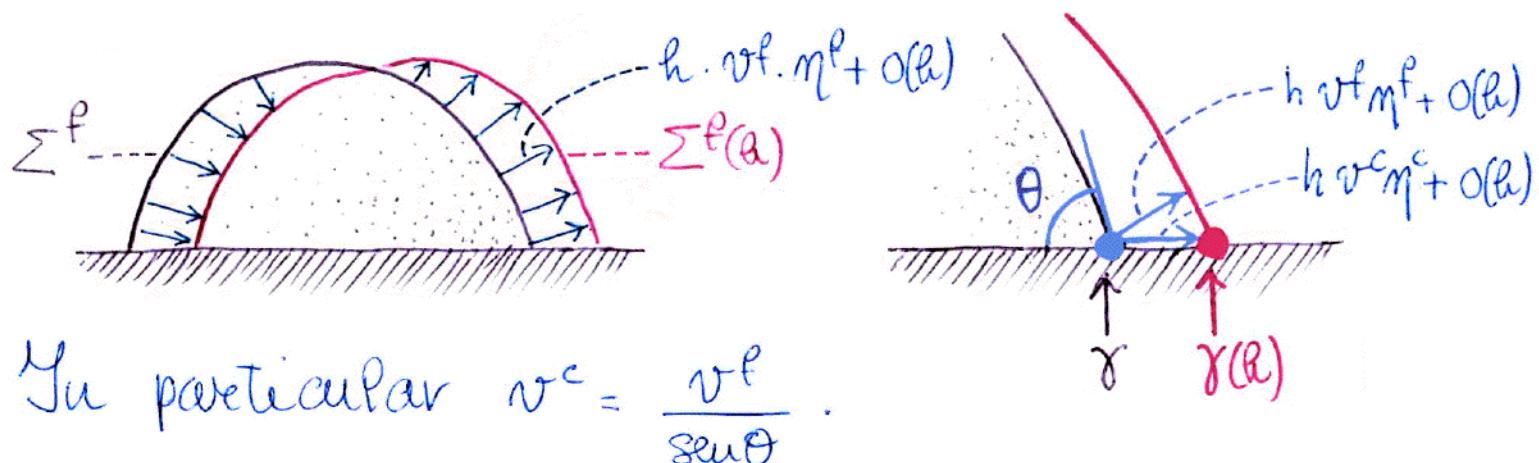


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## Useful variational formulas

$$\frac{d}{da} \text{vol}(E(a)) \Big|_{a=0} = \int_{\Sigma^f} v^f$$

$$\frac{d}{da} V(E(a)) \Big|_{a=0} = \int_{\Sigma^f} p \cdot v^f$$

$$\frac{d}{da} |\Sigma^c(a)| \Big|_{a=0} = \int_{\gamma} v^c$$

$$\frac{d}{da} |\Sigma^f(a)| \Big|_{a=0} = \int_{\Sigma^f} -2H v^f + \int_{\gamma} \cos\theta \cdot v^c$$

Later about the proof....

If  $E$  is at equilibrium among configurations with same volume (a constrained equilibrium) then there exists  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  (a Lagrange multiplier) s.t. for every variation  $E(\alpha)$

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha} E(E(\alpha)) \Big|_{\alpha=0} - \lambda \frac{d}{d\alpha} \text{Vol}(E(\alpha)) \Big|_{\alpha=0} = 0.$$

If  $E$  is at equilibrium among configurations with same volume (a constrained equilibrium) then there exists  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  (a Lagrange multiplier) s.t. for every variation  $E(\alpha)$

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha} E(E(\alpha)) \Big|_{\alpha=0} - \lambda \frac{d}{d\alpha} \text{Vol}(E(\alpha)) \Big|_{\alpha=0} = 0.$$

And by the previous formulas

$$\int_{\Sigma^f} (-2\sigma_{L\nu} H + \rho - \lambda) v^f + \int_{\gamma} \sigma_{L\nu} (\cos \theta - \cos \theta_y) v^c = 0 \quad (1)$$

If  $v_f = 0$  on  $\gamma$  then  $v_c = 0$  on  $\gamma$  (the two velocities are related by the formula  $v_c = v_f / \sin \theta$ ). Hence (1) becomes

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$$\int_{\Sigma^f} (-2G_{Lr}H + p - \lambda) v_f = 0.$$

Since  $v_f$  is an arbitrary (decent) function (we do not assume that the variation is volume preserving!) then the only possibility is

$$-2G_{Lr}H + p - \lambda \equiv 0 \text{ on } \Sigma^f$$

which is Laplace law.

Thus (1) becomes

$$\int_{\gamma} \sigma_{Lx} (\cos \theta - \cos \theta_y) v^c = 0$$

and since  $v^c$  is an arbitrary (decent) function

$$\cos \theta - \cos \theta_y \equiv 0 \text{ on } \gamma$$

which is Young's law.

## Final remarks

1. A more correct approach to the derivation of the stability conditions would be considering variations  $E(\ell)$  obtained by flowing the free-surface  $\Sigma^f$  by the flow associated to a vectorfield which is tangent to the solid surface.

This way the velocity of  $\Sigma^f$  is not necessary normal.

However computations (and intuition) show that by splitting this velocity in a normal and a tangent component we get the same result as above....

## 2. The variational formula

$$\frac{d}{dr} \text{Vol}(E(r)) \Big|_{r=0} = \int_{\Sigma^F} v f$$

admits proofs with different degrees of accuracy.

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The simplest consists in assuming  $\Sigma^F$  piecewise flat and note that in this case

$$\text{Vol}(E(r)) = \text{Vol}(E) + r \int_{\Sigma^F} v^F + O(r^2)$$

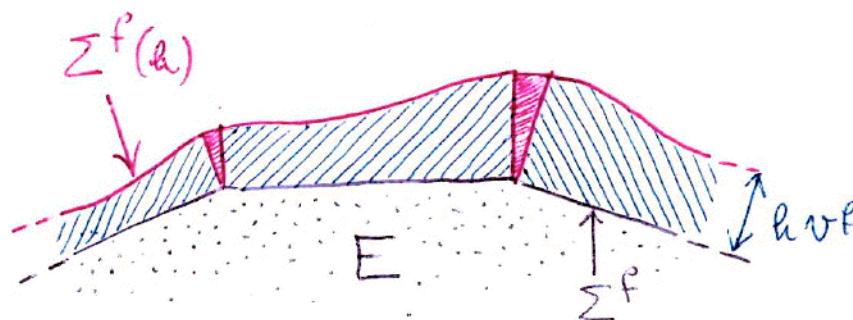
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$$\text{Vol}(\square) = r \int_{\Sigma^F} v^F$$

$$\text{Vol}(\blacksquare) = O(r^2)$$

A more vigorous alternative consists in constructing a parametrization of  $E(h) \Delta E$  starting from a parametrization  $g: D \rightarrow \Sigma^f$ ,

[ something of the form ]

$$(s, t) \in D \times [0, h] \mapsto g(s) + t \nu^f(g(s)) \eta^f(g(s)) + o(h)$$

and using it to compute

$$\text{Vol}(E(h)) = \text{Vol}(E) + h \int_{\Sigma^f} \nu^f + o(h).$$

### 3. The variational formulas

$$\frac{d}{da} V(E(a)) \Big|_{a=0} = \int_{\Sigma^F} p \cdot \nu^F$$

and

$$\frac{d}{da} |\Sigma^C(a)| \Big|_{a=0} = \int_{\gamma} \nu^C$$

can be proved (essentially) in the same way.

#### 4. Formula

$$\frac{d}{dh} \left| \sum f(h) \right| \Big|_{h=0} = \int_{\Sigma f} -2H \vartheta^f + \int_{\gamma} \cos \theta \, \nu c$$

is more complicated.

#### 4. Formula

$$\frac{d}{dh} \left| \Sigma^F(h) \right| \Big|_{h=0} = \int_{\Sigma^F} -2H \varphi^F + \underbrace{\int_{\gamma} \cos \theta \, \varphi_C}_{(I)}$$

is more complicated.

Contribution (I) accounts for the fact that  $\gamma = \partial \Sigma^F$   
 does not move in the normal direction  $n^F$

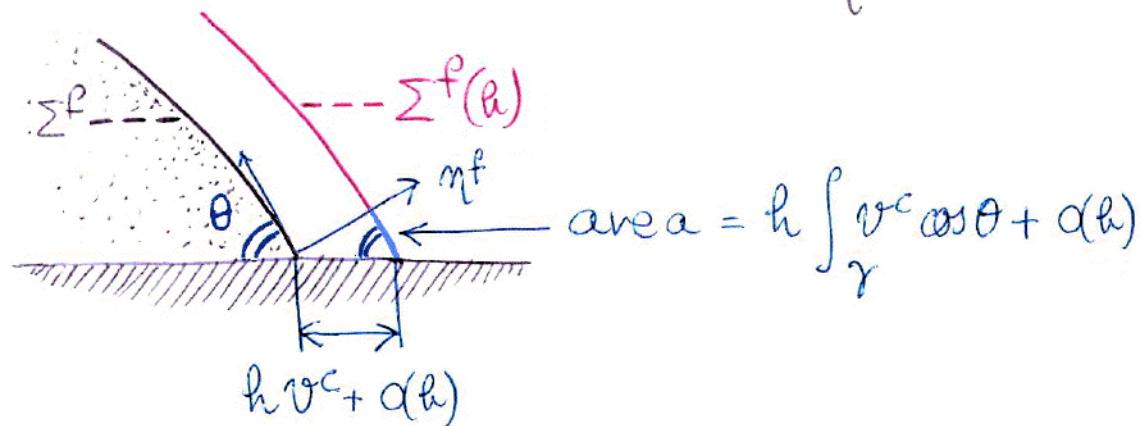
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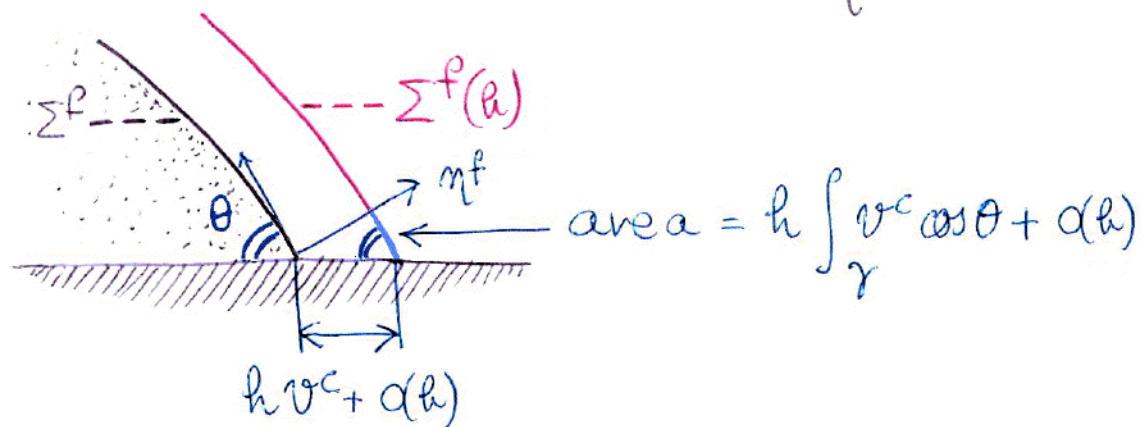


#### 4. Formula

$$\frac{d}{dh} \left| \sum^f(h) \right| \Big|_{h=0} = \underbrace{\int \gamma - 2Hv^f}_{\sum^f} + \underbrace{\int \cos \theta v^c}_{(I)}$$

is more complicated.

Contribution (I) accounts for the fact that  $\gamma = 2\Sigma^f$  does not move in the normal direction  $n^f$



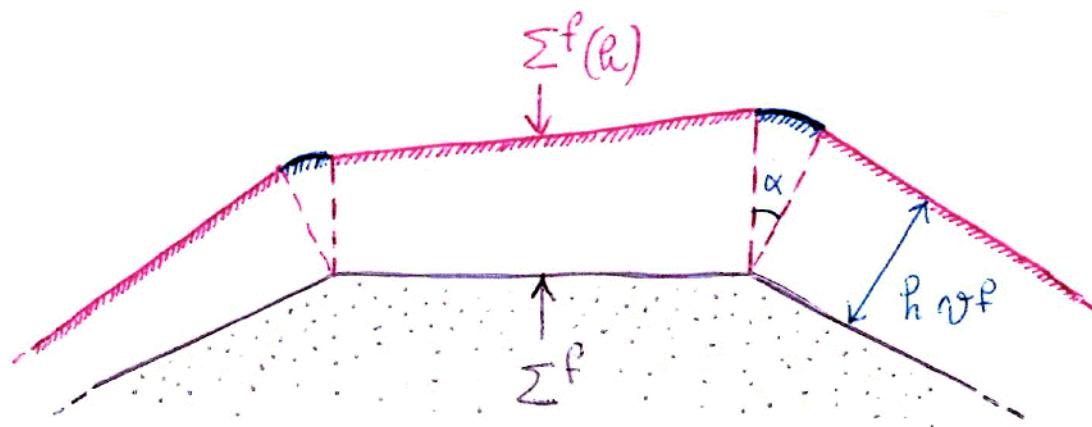
Contribution (II) is due to curvature.

The term (II) can be easily justified when:

- a)  $\Sigma^f$  is one-dim (a curve) and piecewise linear,
- b)  $v^f$  is piecewise linear as well...

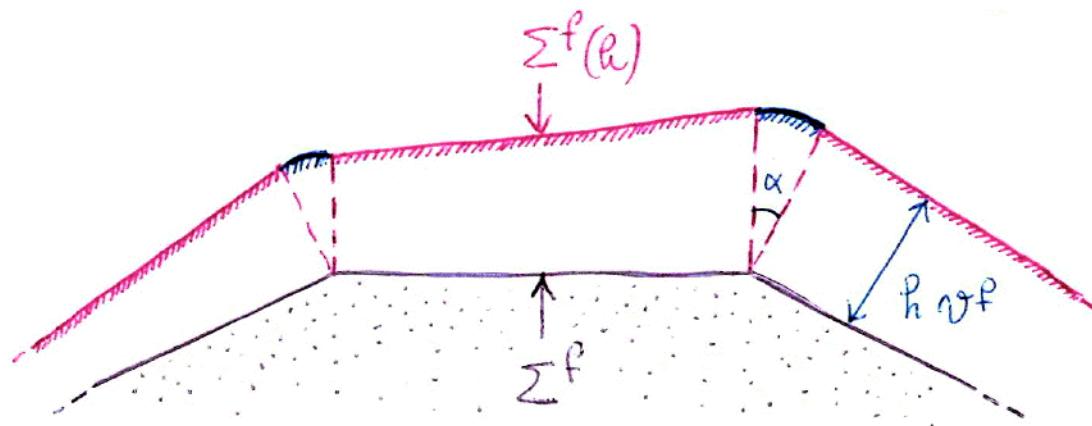
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Then

$$\text{Length}(\text{---}) = \int_{\Sigma^f} \sqrt{1 + (h v^f)^2} = \text{Length}(\Sigma^f) + O(h^2)$$

$$\text{Length}(\text{---}) = h \sum v^f \cdot \alpha \sim h \int v^f \cdot n^f \leftarrow \text{curvature of } \Sigma^f$$