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Fast and slow dynamics in a nonlinear elastic bar excited by longitudinal vibrations

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6 Abstract

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Heterogeneous materials, such as rocks and concrete, have a complex dynamics including hysteresis, nonlinear elasticity and viscoelasticity. It is very sensitive to microstructural changes and damage. The goal of this paper is to propose a physical model describing the longitudinal vibrations of this class of material, and to develop a numerical strategy for solving the evolution equations. The theory relies on the coupling between two processes with radically-different time scales: a fast process at the frequency of the excitation, governed by nonlinear elasticity and viscoelasticity; a slow process, governed by the evolution of defects. The evolution equations are written as a nonlinear hyperbolic system with relaxation. A time-domain numerical scheme is developed, based on a splitting strategy. The numerical simulations show qualitative agreement with the features observed experimentally by Dynamic Acousto-Elastic Testing.

7 Keywords: Nonlinear acoustics; time-dependent materials; viscoelasticity; acoustic

⁸ conditioning; numerical methods; hyperbolic system.

9 1. Introduction

In geosciences, understanding the complex nonlinear behavior of rocks and soil is valuable for earthquake source characterization, seismic imaging, etc. Within the context on license renewal in nuclear energy, non-destructive evaluation is a key point to evaluate the state of concrete structures, and to estimate the life remaining time. In both cases, many authors report a large, but qualitative, sensitivity of nonlinear parameters to various kinds of damage and pathologies. However, without quantitative data, it is still impossible to compare studies among others.

An unified model describing both nonlinear elasticity and non equilibrium dynamics is of great interest in wave propagation in microheterogeneous media such as rock and concrete. This so-called "non classical" [8, 17, 5] or "mesoscopic" [6] class of material exhibits some nonlinear phenomena unexpected regarding the Landau's theory [9], involving fast and slow dynamic behavior. Fast dynamics describes the quasi-instantaneous nonlinear response of the materials. Slow dynamics relates the slow (order 10³ s) softening / recovering of the elastic properties when subjected to a high amplitude strain amplitude (order 10⁻⁶) dynamic excitation. These

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phenomena are illustrated in figures 1 and 2. In particular, it is observed experimentally that the curves relating elastic modulus and strain exhibit hysteresis loops, and vary with the amplitude of forming (forma 2).

²⁵ of forcing (figure 2).



Figure 1: evolution of the relative elastic modulus measured experimentally. Excitation is switched on after 1200 ultrasonic (US) pulses, and then switched off after 2900 US pulses. M and M_0 are the elastic modulus out equilibrium and at equilibrium, respectively. The vertical dotted lines denote a time interval where equilibrium has been reached. Reproduced from figure 3-(a) of [15]. Authorization of reproduction courtesy given by the Authors and by the Journal Editor.

The most widely used model describing these behaviors is based on the Preisach-Mayergoyz theory, introduced in the field of electromagnetism. Even if it can reproduce experimental observations, this phenomenological model lacks physical foundations. In particular, it does not incorporate relaxation times [14].

Here, we present a "soft-ratchet" model initially introduced in [19] and physically meaningfull. The softening / recovering of elastic modulus is related to the activation of defects that evolves dynamically with the applied stress. This relaxation mechanism is coupled to a law of nonlinear elasticity, for instance the well-known Landau's model [9]. Lastly, viscoelasticity is introduced in the model. Our contribution is two-fold:

Improvement of the physical model. Non-physical features of the soft-ratchet model [19]
 are fixed. A generalization of the viscoelastic Zener model to the nonlinear framework is
 also introduced. This mechanism of attenuation is more realistic than the Stokes model
 used in [19], and is better suited for the numerical resolution.

Construction of a numerical scheme. Analytical tools used in [19] were unable to solve
 the full coupled system. On the contrary, the numerical strategy developed here enables to
 solve the whole equations, in the time-domain.

The sketch of the paper is as follows. First, we introduce the physical model and its basic features in 1D: evolution of defects, nonlinear elasticity, and attenuation. Second, the evolution equations are written as a first-order sytem of partial differential equations, whose properties are stated. Third, the numerical method is introduced, based on a splitting strategy. The hyperbolic step is solved by a conservative scheme, whereas the relaxation step is solved exactly. Fourth and last, numerical experiments show that the experimental observations performed by Dynamic Acousto-Elastic Testing [15, 16] and shown in figures 1 and 2 are qualitatively recovered.



Figure 2: experimental evolution of the elastic modulus in terms of the elastic strain, for various amplitudes of forcing. Reproduced from figure 4-(c) of [16]. Authorization of reproduction courtesy given by the Authors and by the Journal Editor.

49 2. Physical modeling

50 2.1. Linear elastodynamics

In the case of small deformations, the propagation of 1D elastic waves can be described by the following system [1]:

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} = \gamma, \tag{1a}$$

$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 0, \tag{1b}$$

where *t* is the time, *x* is the spatial coordinate, γ is a forcing term, *u* is the displacement, $v = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$ is the velocity, $\varepsilon = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$ is the strain, and σ is the stress. The latter is a function of strain: $\sigma = \sigma(\varepsilon)$. In the linear case, the Hooke's law writes $\sigma = E \varepsilon$, where *E* is the Young's modulus, which is assumed to be constant over time. In the particular case where γ is a Dirac source at x_s with time evolution $\mathcal{G}(t)$, then the exact solution of (1) is straightforward

$$\varepsilon = -\frac{\operatorname{sgn}(x - x_s)}{2 c^2} \mathcal{G}\left(t - \frac{|x - x_s|}{c}\right),\tag{2}$$

⁵⁶ where sgn is the sign distribution, and $c = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \varepsilon}} \equiv \sqrt{E/\rho}$ is the speed of sound.

- 57 The goal of the forthcoming sections is to extend the model (1) in three ways:
- time variations of *E* due to the stress;
- nonlinear Hooke's law;
- hereditary effects (viscoelasticity).

⁶¹ The first effect (variation of *E*) owns time scales much greater than the second and third effect. ⁶² It is consequently referred to as *slow dynamics*.

63 2.2. Slow dynamics: soft-ratchet model

Here we follow the lines of [19] with some modifications. The slow dynamics of the medium is assumed to rely on the concentration of activated defects g, which varies with σ . In the lowest approximation, the Young's modulus is written:

$$E = \left(1 - \frac{g}{g_{cr}}\right)E^+,\tag{3}$$

⁶⁷ where g_{cr} and E^+ are the critical concentration of defects and the maximum possible value of ⁶⁸ Young's modulus, respectively (figure 3-(a)). The following constraints hold:

$$0 \le g \le g_{cr} \le 1. \tag{4}$$

The concentration *g* is assumed to evolve to its stress-dependent equilibrium value g_{σ} at a rate f_r if $g > g_{\sigma}$ (restoration), or f_d if $g < g_{\sigma}$ (destruction). This mechanism can be modeled by the ordinary differential equation

$$\frac{dg}{dt} = -\left(f_r H(g - g_\sigma) + f_d H(g_\sigma - g)\right) \left(g - g_\sigma\right),\tag{5}$$

where H is the Heaviside step distribution. The frequencies f_r and f_d differ substantially:

$$f_r \ll f_d \ll f_c,\tag{6}$$

⁷³ where f_c is a typical frequency of the excitation. Figure 3-(b) represents the time evolution of ⁷⁴ g, given a constant equilibrium concentration $g_{\sigma} = 0.3$ denoted by a horizontal dotted line. The ⁷⁵ restoration and rupturation frequencies are $f_r = 25$ Hz and $f_d = 250$ Hz, respectively. Two initial ⁷⁶ value of the concentration of defects are considered: $g_0 = 0.2$ and $g_0 = 0.4$. In both cases, g ⁷⁷ tends towards g_{σ} with different rates: destruction is much faster than restoration.

It remains to define the evolution of g_{σ} with σ . In [19], the authors propose the expression

$$g_{\sigma} = g_0 \exp(\sigma/\overline{\sigma}), \qquad \overline{\sigma} = \frac{kT}{v},$$
 (7)



Figure 3: parameters of the slow dynamics. (a): Young's modulus *E* in terms of the concentration of defects g (3), for $E^+ = 14.28$ GPa; the vertical dotted line denotes the initial concentration of defects $g_0 = 0.3$ and the corresponding Young's modulus $E_0 = E(g_0) = 10$ GPa. (b): time evolution of the concentration of defects g given an equilibrium stress σ and two initial values g_0 ; the horizontal dotted line denotes g_{σ} .

where g_0 is the unstrained equilibrium concentration of defects, k is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature, and v is a typical volume accounting for a single defect. If $\sigma > \overline{\sigma} \ln g_{cr}/g_0$, then $g_{\sigma} > g_{cr}$; in this case, the concentration may evolve to $g > g_{cr}$ due to equation (5), which contradicts the second assumption in (4). To remove this drawback and to build a physically realistic expression of g_{σ} , we enforce (4) together with the following requirements:

$$0 \le g_{\sigma} < g_{cr},\tag{8a}$$

$$g_{\sigma}(0) = g_0, \tag{8b}$$

$$\lim_{\sigma \to -\infty} g_{\sigma} = 0, \tag{8c}$$

$$\lim_{\sigma \to +\infty} g_{\sigma} = g_{cr}, \tag{8d}$$

$$\frac{\partial g_{\sigma}}{\partial \sigma} > 0.$$
 (8e)

⁷⁹ The simplest smooth function satisfying (8) is

$$g_{\sigma} = \frac{g_{cr}}{2} \left(1 + \tanh\left(\frac{\sigma - \sigma_0}{\overline{\sigma}}\right) \right),\tag{9}$$

⁸⁰ where the central stress is

$$\sigma_0 = \overline{\sigma} \tanh^{-1} \left(1 - 2 \frac{g_0}{g_{cr}} \right). \tag{10}$$

Figure 4-(a) illustrates the two expressions of the stress-dependent equilibrium value g_{σ} : the "exponential model" (7), and the "tanh model" (9)-(10). The numerical values are $g_0 = 0.3$ and $\overline{\sigma} = 10^5$ Pa. The two expressions are the same at null stress. But for tractions larger than 230 kPa, the value of g_{σ} deduced from (7) overcomes 1, leading to non-physical. Figure 4-(b) illustrates



the influence of $\overline{\sigma}$ in (9). As $\overline{\sigma}$ decreases, g_{σ} may evolve more easily towards the extreme values 0 and g_{cr} , and hence the damage may increase thanks to (5).

Figure 4: equilibrium concentration of defects g_{σ} in terms of the applied stress σ . (a): "exponential model" (7) and "tanh model" (9). (b): "tanh model" (9) with various values of $\overline{\sigma}$. The horizontal dotted line denotes the critical concentration of defects g_{cr} ; the vertical dotted line denotes the central stress σ_0 .

87 2.3. Fast dynamics: nonlinear viscoelasticity

- 88 Nonlinear elasticity.
- ⁸⁹ The stress-strain relation is given by a smooth function

$$s \equiv s(\epsilon, K, \mathbf{p}), \tag{11}$$

- where s is the stress, ϵ is the strain, K is a stiffness, and **p** is a set of parameters governing the
- nonlinearity. No prestress is considered; K is the slope of s at the origin; lastly, s is homogeneous
- of degree 1 in K. In other words, s satisfies the following properties:

$$s(0, K, \mathbf{p}) = 0, \quad \frac{\partial s}{\partial \epsilon}(0, K, \mathbf{p}) = K, \quad s(\epsilon, \alpha K, \mathbf{p}) = \alpha \, s(\epsilon, K, \mathbf{p}).$$
 (12)

- ³³ Three models of nonlinear elasticity (11) are now given and illustrated in figure 5.
- Model 1. This model is issued from [19] and mimics the Lennard-Jones potential describing the
 interaction between a pair of neutral atoms:

$$s(\epsilon, K, \mathbf{p}) = K \frac{d}{r-a} \left(\frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{\epsilon}{d}\right)^{a+1}} - \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{\epsilon}{d}\right)^{r+1}} \right), \quad \mathbf{p} = (r, a, d)^T.$$
(13)

⁹⁶ The nonlinear parameters are the repulsion and attraction coefficients *r* and *a* (0 < a < r). The

- strain is bounded below by the maximal allowable closure d. The function (13) has an extremal
- point $\epsilon_c > 0$, and then it decreases asymptotically towards 0 when $\epsilon > \epsilon_c$ (figure 5-(a)).

⁹⁹ <u>Model 2</u>. A third-order Taylor expansion of the model 1 (13) yields

$$s(\epsilon, K, \mathbf{p}) = K \epsilon \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(r + a + 3 \right) \frac{\epsilon}{d} + \frac{1}{6} \left(r^2 + ra + a^2 + 6r + 6a + 11 \right) \left(\frac{\epsilon}{d} \right)^2 \right), \quad \mathbf{p} = (r, a, d)^T$$
(14)

¹⁰⁰ The nonlinear parameters are the same than in model 1. But unlike model 1, the function (14)

¹⁰¹ is a strictly monotonic increasing function without extremal point (figure 5-(a)). Moreover, the

¹⁰² strain is not bounded below.

¹⁰³ <u>Model 3</u>. The most widely used law in ultrasonic NonDestructive Testing is the so-called Lan-

$$s(\epsilon, K, \mathbf{p}) = K \epsilon \left(1 - \beta \epsilon - \delta \epsilon^2\right), \quad \mathbf{p} = (\beta, \delta)^T.$$
 (15)

¹⁰⁵ The nonlinear parameters are the quadratic and cubic coefficients β and δ ; in practice, $\beta \ll \delta$.

Like model 1, the function (15) has extremal points, but it is not bounded below (figure 5-(b)).



Figure 5: Stress-strain relations for the three models (11). In (a), the dotted lines denote the coordinates of the inflexion point for model 1. The physical parameters are: E = 10 GPa, $d = 4.3 \, 10^{-4}$ m, a = 2, r = 4 (models 1 and 2), $\beta = 100$, $\delta = 10^8$ (model 3).

107 Viscoelasticity.

- ¹⁰⁸ To incorporate attenuation, the following criteria are used as a guideline:
- C_1 : when the viscous effects are null, one must recover the nonlinear elasticity (11);

 C_2 : when a linear stress-strain relation holds, one must recover the standard linear solid model (or generalized Zener model), which accurately represents the behavior of usual solids [2].

For this purpose, a system with N Zener elements connected in parallel is considered (figure 6).

¹¹³ The total stress acting on the system is

$$\sigma = \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \sigma_{1\ell} = \sum_{\substack{\ell=1\\7}}^{N} (\sigma_{2\ell} + \sigma_{3\ell}), \tag{16}$$



Figure 6: Rheological model of a generalized Zener material.

where the index 1 refers to the series springs, and the indices 2-3 refer to the springs and dashpots in parallel. The strain ε is

ε

$$=\varepsilon_{1\ell}+\varepsilon_{2\ell},\qquad \ell=1,\cdots,N.$$
(17)

The springs 1 satisfy nonlinear stress-strain relations (11) with stiffnesses $K_{1\ell}$. The parameters **p** governing the nonlinearity (for instance β and δ in model 3 (15)) are assumed to be constant and identical for each element. The springs 2 satisfy linear stress-strain relations with stiffnesses $K_{2\ell}$. Lastly, the dashpots satisfy linear Maxwell laws with coefficients of viscosity η_{ℓ} . These laws are summed up as follows:

$$\sigma_{1\ell}(\varepsilon_{1\ell}) = s(\varepsilon_{1\ell}, K_{1\ell}, \mathbf{p}), \qquad (18a)$$

$$\sigma_{2\ell}(\varepsilon_{2\ell}) = s(\varepsilon_{2\ell}, K_{2\ell}, \mathbf{0}), \tag{18b}$$

$$\sigma_{3\ell}(\varepsilon_{2\ell}) = \eta_\ell \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{2\ell}}{\partial t}.$$
 (18c)

To determine the parameters $K_{1\ell}$, $K_{2\ell}$ and η_ℓ , one introduces the relaxation times $\tau_{\sigma\ell}$, $\tau_{\varepsilon\ell}$ and the relaxed modulus E_R :

$$\tau_{\sigma\ell} = \frac{\eta_\ell}{K_{1\ell} + K_{2\ell}}, \qquad \tau_{\varepsilon\ell} = \frac{\eta_\ell}{K_{2\ell}}, \qquad \frac{E_R}{N} = \frac{K_{1\ell} K_{2\ell}}{K_{1\ell} + K_{2\ell}}.$$
(19)

¹¹⁸ On one hand, a procedure is given in Appendix A to compute the relaxation times in terms of the

quality factor Q. On the other hand, E_R is related to the unrelaxed Young's modulus E (3) and to the relaxation times previsously determined (see [2]):

$$E_R = \frac{N}{\sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \frac{\tau_{\varepsilon\ell}}{\tau_{\sigma\ell}}} E.$$
 (20)

Once $\tau_{\sigma\ell}$, $\tau_{\epsilon\ell}$ and E_R are determined, inverting (19) provides the values of the viscoelastic model in terms of the relaxed modulus and relaxation times ($\ell = 1, \dots, N$):

$$K_{1\ell} = \frac{\tau_{\varepsilon\ell}}{\tau_{\sigma\ell}} \frac{E_R}{N}, \qquad K_{2\ell} = \frac{\tau_{\varepsilon\ell}}{\tau_{\varepsilon\ell} - \tau_{\sigma\ell}} \frac{E_R}{N}, \qquad \eta_\ell = \frac{\tau_{\varepsilon\ell}^2}{\tau_{\varepsilon\ell} - \tau_{\sigma\ell}} \frac{E_R}{N}.$$
 (21)

From (20) and (21), it follows that the viscoelastic parameters depend indirectly on the Young's modulus E, and thus depend on g. In other words, the proposed model of viscoelasticity evolves with the concentration of defects and thus with the applied stress.

To conclude this part, let us recall the two criteria C_1 and C_2 used to build the viscoelastic model. C_1 concerned the consistency with the Zener model in the linear case, whereas C_2 concerned the consistency with the nonlinear elasticity (11) in the inviscid case. By construction, C_1 is satisfied. The following property states that C_2 is also true. The proof is given in Appendix A.

Property 1. In the inviscid case, the stress-strain relation deduced from (16)-(18) recovers the
 nonlinear elasticity (11), whatever the number N of relaxation mechanisms.

132 **3. Mathematical modeling**

- 133 3.1. First-order system
- ¹³⁴ The conservation of momentum (1a) writes

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} + \gamma, \tag{22}$$

where γ is a forcing term, and σ is given by (16). The hypothesis of small deformations (1b) gives

$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}.$$
(23)

Lastly, manipulations on (16), (17) and (18c) yield

$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon_{1\ell}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\sigma_{2\ell}(\varepsilon - \varepsilon_{1\ell}) - \sigma_{1\ell}(\varepsilon_{1\ell})}{\eta_{\ell}}, \qquad \ell = 1, \cdots, N.$$
(24)

In (24), $\varepsilon_{1\ell}$ takes the place of the memory variables proposed in [12] and is better suited to nonlinear elasticity. Putting together (22)-(24) and the relaxation equation (5) leads to the first-order system of N + 3 evolution equations

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} = \gamma, \tag{25a}$$

$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 0, \tag{25b}$$

$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon_{1\ell}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{\sigma_{2\ell}(\varepsilon - \varepsilon_{1\ell}) - \sigma_{1\ell}(\varepsilon_{1\ell})}{\eta_{\ell}}, \qquad \ell = 1, \cdots, N,$$
(25c)

$$\frac{dg}{dt} = -\left(f_r H(g - g_\sigma) + f_d H(g_\sigma - g)\right) (g - g_\sigma).$$
(25d)

To close the system (25), one recalls the following equations:

• The total stress σ in (25a) depends on $\varepsilon_{1\ell}$ via (16), (18a), and a nonlinear law (11):

$$\sigma = \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} s(\varepsilon_{1\ell}, K_{1\ell}, \mathbf{p}).$$
(26)

• The stress components $\sigma_{1\ell}$ and $\sigma_{2\ell}$ in (25c) depend on the stiffnesses $K_{1\ell}$ and $K_{2\ell}$ (18a) and (18b). The latter, as well as the viscoesity coefficients η_{ℓ} , depend on the Young modulus E via (20)-(21), and thus on g:

$$E = \left(1 - \frac{g}{g_{cr}}\right)E^+.$$
(27)

• The equilibrium value of the defect concentration g_{σ} in (25d) satisfies (9) and (10):

$$g_{\sigma} = \frac{g_{cr}}{2} \left(1 + \tanh\left(\frac{\sigma - \sigma_0}{\overline{\sigma}}\right) \right).$$
(28)

The system (25) together with equations (26)-(28) generalizes the standard equations of linear
 elastodynamics (1). It accounts for softening / recovering of Young's modulus, nonlinearity and
 viscoelasticity.

For the sake of clarity, one introduces the vector of N + 3 unknowns

$$\mathbf{U} = (v, \varepsilon, \varepsilon_{11}, \cdots, \varepsilon_{1N}, g)^T.$$
⁽²⁹⁾

¹⁴⁸ Then the system (25) can be put in the form

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\mathbf{U} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{U}) = \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{U}) + \mathbf{\Gamma}.$$
(30)

The flux function \mathbf{F} , the relaxation term \mathbf{R} , and the forcing \mathbf{S} are

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{U}) = \left(-\frac{\sigma}{\rho}, -\nu, -\nu, \cdots, -\nu, 0\right)^{T},$$

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{U}) = (0, 0, \Delta_{1}, \cdots, \Delta_{N}, -(f_{r} H(g - g_{\sigma}) + f_{d} H(g_{\sigma} - g)) (g - g_{\sigma}))^{T},$$

$$\mathbf{\Gamma} = (\gamma, 0, \cdots, 0, 0)^{T},$$
(31)

150 where

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$$\Delta_{\ell} = \frac{\sigma_{2\ell}(\varepsilon - \varepsilon_{1\ell}) - \sigma_{1\ell}(\varepsilon_{1\ell})}{\eta_{\ell}}.$$
(32)

¹⁵¹ To conclude, let us consider the limit-case where the viscoelastic attenuation is neglected. In ¹⁵² this case, property 1 states that the stress-strain relations degenerate rigorously towards pure ¹⁵³ nonlinear elasticity, whatever *N*. But for computational purpose, it is more efficient to eliminate ¹⁵⁴ the additional strain variables $\varepsilon_{1\ell}$ and the equation (25c). A reduced system (30) is therefore ¹⁵⁵ obtained.

156 3.2. Properties

Hyperbolicity is a crucial issue in wave problems, both physically and mathematically. It amounts to say that there exists a real and finite sound velocity c. This property has been analysed in [13] for a particular nonlinear stress-strain relation in 3D. In 1D, it reduces to a simpler case detailed as follows.

¹⁶¹ **Property 2.** Let define the sound speed c by

$$c^{2} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} c_{\ell}^{2} = \frac{1}{\rho} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \frac{\partial \sigma_{1\ell}}{\partial \varepsilon_{1\ell}}.$$
(33)

¹⁶² The system (30) is hyperbolic if and only if $c^2 > 0$ in (33).

The proof is given in Appendix B. Necessary and sufficient conditions are easily deduced from (33) for the models (13)-(15) when N = 1: hyperbolicity is satisfied if $|\varepsilon| < \varepsilon_c$, where

$$\left(d\left(\left(\frac{r+1}{a+1}\right)^{\frac{1}{r-a}} - 1\right) \right) \tag{model 1},$$

$$\varepsilon_c = \begin{cases} +\infty & (\text{model } 2), \end{cases}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{2\beta} \text{ if } \delta = 0, \quad \frac{\beta}{3\delta} \left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{3\delta}{\beta^2}} - 1 \right) \text{ otherwise} \qquad (\text{model 3}).$$
(34)

¹⁶⁵ Model 2 is always hyperbolic. On the contrary, the widely-used Landau model (model 3) is ¹⁶⁶ conditionally hyperbolic. When N > 1, the hyperbolicity condition $|\varepsilon_{1\ell}| < \varepsilon_c$ is sufficient.

Expressions of the sound speed c for the three nonlinear elastic models (13)-(15) are given in (B.5). From (33), one deduces the local elastic modulus M

$$M = \rho c^2 = \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \frac{\partial \sigma_{1\ell}}{\partial \varepsilon_{1\ell}}.$$
(35)

¹⁶⁹ To conclude on hyperbolicity, let us note that the Stokes viscoelastic model used in [19] intro-¹⁷⁰ duces a term $\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2}$ in the right-hand side of (25c). This Laplacian term destroys the hyperbolic ¹⁷¹ character of the system (30). The viscoelastic model used here has therefore better mathematical ¹⁷² properties.

Now we examine the spectrum of the relaxation function in (30). Some useful insight can be obtained in the case of small strains.

Property 3. Let us consider linear stress-strain relations. The parameters $K_{1\ell}$, $K_{2\ell}$ and η_{ℓ} are "freezed" in (20)-(21), so that they do not depend on g via E (3). Then, the eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix $\mathbf{J} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{R}}{\partial U}$ are

$$\mathbf{Sp}(\mathbf{J}) = \left\{ 0^2, -f_{\xi}, -\frac{K_{1\ell} + K_{2\ell}}{\eta_{\ell}} \right\} = \left\{ 0^2, -f_{\xi}, -\frac{1}{\tau_{\sigma\ell}} \right\}, \quad \ell = 1, \cdots, N,$$
(36)

(see (19)), with $f_{\xi} = f_r$ if $g > g_{\sigma}$, $f_{\xi} = f_d$ if $g < g_{\sigma}$, $f_{\xi} = 0$ else.

¹⁷⁹ The proof of property 3 is detailed in Appendix C. Two remarks are deduced:

- **J** is definite-negative if the relaxation frequencies $\tau_{\sigma\ell}$ are positive. The latter parameters are deduced from an optimization process based on the quality factor (Appendix A). To ensure the energy decrease, it is therefore crucial to perform nonlinear optimization with constraint of positivity.
- The optimization procedure detailed in Appendix A is performed on the frequency range $[f_{\min}, f_{\max}]$ surrounding the excitation frequency f_c . These frequencies satisfy

$$f_{\min} \approx \frac{1}{\max \tau_{\sigma\ell}} < f_c < f_{\max} \approx \frac{1}{\min \tau_{\sigma\ell}}.$$
 (37)

In (37), \approx are replaced by equalities if a linear optimisation is used [12]. From (6), it follows the spectral radius of **J**

$$\varrho(\mathbf{J}) = \frac{1}{\min \tau_{\sigma\ell}} \gg f_{\xi},\tag{38}$$

so that the system (30) is stiff.

189 4. Numerical modeling

190 4.1. Splitting

To integrate (30), one introduces a uniform spatial mesh Δx and a variable time step $\Delta t^{(n)} \equiv \Delta t$. One seeks an approximation \mathbf{U}_i^n of the exact solution $\mathbf{U}(x_i = i \Delta x, t_n = t_{n-1} + \Delta t)$. A first strategy is to discretize explicitly the non-homogeneous system (30). But numerical stability implies a bound of the form

$$\Delta t \le \min\left(\frac{\Delta x}{c_{\max}}, \frac{2}{\rho(\mathbf{J})}\right),\tag{39}$$

- where $c_{\max} = \max c_i^n$ is the maximal sound velocity at time t_n , and $\rho(\mathbf{J})$ is the spectral radius of the Jacobian of the relaxation term. As deduced from (38), the second bound in (39) is penalizing compared with the standard CFL condition $\Delta t \le \Delta x/c_{\max}$.
- ¹⁹⁸ Here we follow another strategy: equation (30) is split into a hyperbolic step

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\mathbf{U} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{U}) = \mathbf{0}$$
(40)

¹⁹⁹ and a relaxation step

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{U}) + \mathbf{\Gamma}.$$
(41)

The discrete operators associated with the discretization of (40) and (41) are denoted \mathbf{H}_h and \mathbf{H}_r , respectively. The second-order Strang splitting is used, solving successively (40) and (41) with adequate time increments:

$$\mathbf{U}_{i}^{(1)} = \mathbf{H}_{r}\left(\frac{\Delta t}{2}\right)\mathbf{U}_{i}^{n},\tag{42a}$$

$$\left\{ \mathbf{U}_{i}^{(2)} = \mathbf{H}_{h}\left(\Delta t\right) \mathbf{U}_{i}^{(1)},$$
(42b)

$$\mathbf{U}_{i}^{n+1} = \mathbf{H}_{r} \left(\frac{\Delta t}{2}\right) \mathbf{U}_{i}^{(2)}.$$
(42c)

Provided that \mathbf{H}_h and \mathbf{H}_r are second-order accurate and stable operators, the time-marching (42) gives a second-order accurate approximation of the original equation (30) [10].

202 4.2. Hyperbolic step

The homogeneous equation (40) is solved by a conservative scheme for hyperbolic systems [10]

$$\mathbf{U}_{i}^{n+1} = \mathbf{U}_{i}^{n} - \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} \left(\mathbf{F}_{i+1/2} - \mathbf{F}_{i-1/2} \right).$$
(43)

²⁰⁵ Many sophisticated schemes can be used for this purpose [11]. For the sake of simplicity and

²⁰⁶ robustness, we use here the Godunov scheme. Its numerical flux function $\mathbf{F}_{i+1/2}$ is computed by ²⁰⁷ the Rusanov method [18]

$$\mathbf{F}_{i+1/2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{U}_{i+1}^n) + \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{U}_i^n) - \lambda_{i+1/2} (\mathbf{U}_{i+1}^n - \mathbf{U}_i^n) \right),$$
(44)

where **f** is the flux function (31), and the diffusion parameter $\lambda_{i+1/2}$ is given by the Davis approximation [4]

$$\lambda_{i+1/2} = \max\left(c_i^n, c_{i+1}^n\right).$$
(45)

²¹⁰ The Godunov scheme is first-order accurate and stable under the usual CFL condition

$$\Delta t = \frac{\alpha \,\Delta x}{c_{\max}}, \text{ with } \alpha \le 1.$$
(46)

211 4.3. Relaxation step

Let us denote $\overline{\mathbf{U}} = (\varepsilon, \varepsilon_{11}, \dots, \varepsilon_{1N})$ and $\overline{\mathbf{R}}$ the restriction of $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{U})$ to the strain components (31)-(32). The ordinary differential equation (41) can then be written

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = \gamma, \tag{47a}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\overline{\mathbf{U}} = \overline{\mathbf{R}}(\overline{\mathbf{U}}),\tag{47b}$$

$$\left(\frac{dg}{dt} = -\left(f_r H(g - g_\sigma) + f_d H(g_\sigma - g)\right) (g - g_\sigma),\tag{47c}\right)$$

The viscoelastic parameters in the relaxation function $\overline{\mathbf{R}}$ depend implicitly on *g* (see section 2.3), which complicates the resolution of (47a). However, one can take advantage of the scaling (6). Indeed, ε and $\varepsilon_{1\ell}$ evolve much fastly than *g*, so that the viscoelastic parameters $K_{1\ell}$, $K_{2\ell}$, η_{ℓ} are almost constant on a time step. Consequently, they are freezed and the three equations in (47) can be solved separately.

The half-time step in the relaxation steps (42a)-(42c) is denoted by $\tau = \frac{\Delta t}{2}$. One details the time-stepping from t_n to the first intermediate step (42a); adaptation to the third intermediate step (42c) is traightforward.

The first equation (47a) is integrated by the Euler method:

$$v_i^{n+1} = v_i^{(1)} + \Delta t \,\gamma(i, t_n). \tag{48}$$

To integrate the second equation (47b), a first-order Taylor expansion of $\overline{\mathbf{R}}(\overline{\mathbf{U}})$ is performed

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\overline{\mathbf{U}} \approx \overline{\mathbf{R}}(\overline{\mathbf{0}}) + \frac{\partial \overline{\mathbf{R}}}{\partial \overline{\mathbf{U}}}(\mathbf{0})\overline{\mathbf{U}} = \overline{\mathbf{J}}\overline{\mathbf{U}},\tag{49}$$

where \overline{J} is the Jacobian matrix (C.2); the nullity of stress at zero strain has been used (18a). Then (49) is solved exactly, leading to the relaxation operator

$$\overline{\mathbf{U}}_{i}^{(1)} = e^{\overline{\mathbf{J}}\,\tau}\,\overline{\mathbf{U}}_{i}^{n} \tag{50}$$

²²⁴ with the exponential of matrix

$$e^{\overline{\mathbf{J}}\tau} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \frac{E_{21}}{E_{11} + E_{21}} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{E_{11} + E_{21}}{\eta_1} \tau} \right) & e^{-\frac{E_{11} + E_{21}}{\eta_1} \tau} \\ \vdots & \ddots \\ \frac{E_{2N}}{E_{1N} + E_{2N}} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{E_{1N} + E_{2N}}{\eta_N} \tau} \right) & e^{-\frac{E_{1N} + E_{2N}}{\eta_N} \tau} \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (51)

Lastly, the third equation (47c) is solved exactly. The grid value $g_{\sigma i}$ is evaluated thanks to (9). Setting

$$f_{\xi} = \begin{cases} f_r \text{ if } g_i^n \ge g_{\sigma i}^n, \\ f_d \text{ if } g_i^n < g_{\sigma i}^n, \end{cases}$$
(52)

227 one obtains

$$g_i^{(1)} = g_{\sigma i}^n + \left(g_i^n - g_{\sigma i}^n\right) e^{-f_{\xi}\tau}.$$
(53)

The integrations (50), (48) and (53) are unconditionaly stable. As a consequence, the splitting (42) is stable under the CFL condition (46).

- 230 4.4. Summary of the algorithm
- ²³¹ The numerical method can be divided in two parts:
- 1. initialisation

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- bulk modulus ρ , Young's modulus $E = E_0 = \rho c_{\infty}^2$;
- soft-ratchet coefficients $g_{cr} = 1$, $g = g_0$, f_r , f_d , $\overline{\sigma}$;
- maximum Young's modulus E^+ (3)
 - nonlinear coefficients (e.g. β and δ in (15);
 - quality factor Q, frequency range of optimization [f_{min}, f_{max}], number of relaxation mechanisms N;
 - optimization of the viscoelastic coefficients (Appendix A);

2. time-marching
$$t_n \rightarrow t_{n+1}$$
, $x_i = i \Delta x$ $(n = 0, \dots, N_t, i = 1, \dots, N_x)$

- physical and numerical parameters
 - Young's modulus E (3), viscoelastic parameters E_R (20), $K_{1\ell}$, $K_{2\ell}$ and η_{ℓ} (21);
- stresses $\sigma_{1\ell}$ (18a) and σ (16);

244	- sound velocity c (33) and (B.5), maximal velocity c_{max} ;
245	- time step Δt (46);
246	• relaxation step \mathbf{H}_r (42a)
247	- strains (50) and (51);
248	- elastic velocity v (48);
249	- concentration of defects g_{σ} (9), g (53);
250	• hyperbolic step \mathbf{H}_h (42b)
251	- coefficient $\lambda_{i+1/2}$ of Davis (45);
252	- computation of the flux F (31) e.g. by the Rusanov flux $\mathbf{F}_{i+1/2}$ (44);
253	- time-marching with the conservative scheme (43);
254	• relaxation step \mathbf{H}_r (42c).

5. Numerical experiments

256 5.1. Configuration

ρ (kg/m ³)	E_0 (GPa)	g_0	f_r (Hz)	f_d (Hz)	$\overline{\sigma}$ (GPa)	β	δ	Q
2054	2.21	0.1	25	250	0.1	40	3.510^{6}	20

Table 1: Physical parameters.

The physical parameters are detailed in table 1. Depending on the test, some of these marapeters are modified. In the limit-case of linear elasticity, the sound velocity is $c = \sqrt{E/\rho} = 3280$ m/s. The maximal CFL number is $\alpha = 0.95$ in (46). The mesh size is $\Delta x = 4 \ 10^{-3}$ m. Depending on the test, two lengths of domain are considered. For each test, a receiver put at $x_r = 0.2$ m stores the numerical solution at each time step.

The wave fields are excited by a punctual source at $x_s = 10^{-2}$ m, with a central frequency $f_c = 10$ kHz. Depending on the expression of the forcing γ in (25c), one deduces the magnitude of the maximal strain ε_{max} emitted by the source in the limit-case of linear elasticity (2):

$$\varepsilon_{\max} = \frac{1}{2c^2} \max \mathcal{G}(t).$$
(54)

The Landau model for nonlinear elasticity is used (15). The quadratic coefficient β is much smaller than the cubic one δ . The critical value of strain that ensures hyperbolicity (34) is ε_c = $3.08 \ 10^{-4}$. The viscoelastic effects are described by N = 4 relaxation mechanisms. The relaxation times $\tau_{\sigma\ell}$ and $\tau_{\varepsilon\ell}$ (19) are computed by optimization on the frequency range [$f_{\min} = f_c/10$, $f_{\max} =$ $f_c \times 10$] (see Appendix A); they are given in table 2.

	$\ell = 1$	$\ell = 2$	$\ell = 3$	$\ell = 4$
$\tau_{\sigma\ell}$ (s)	1.1610^{-3}	$2.05 \ 10^{-4}$	4.4910^{-5}	$7.75 \ 10^{-6}$
$ au_{arepsilon\ell}$ (s)	$1.53 10^{-3}$	2.4910^{-4}	5.5010^{-5}	$1.06 \ 10^{-5}$

Table 2: Relaxation times for a quality factor Q = 20. Optimization with N = 4 relaxation mechanisms on the frequency range [1 kHz, 100 kHz].



Figure 7: test 1. Snapshot of the strain after 400 time steps, for two amplitudes of the excitation. The vertical dotted line denotes the location x_r of the receiver.

270 5.2. Test 1: nonlinear elastodynamics

The goal of the first test is to show typical features of wave propagation in purely nonlinear elastic media. The viscoelasticity is neglected, and the activation / restoration of defects is annihilated: $f_r = f_d = 0$ Hz. The source is a monochromatic excitation:

$$\mathcal{G}(t) = A \, \sin(\omega_c t) \, H(t), \tag{55}$$

where *A* is the magnitude of the forcing, and $\omega_c = 2 \pi f_c$. From (54) and (55), one can estimate the maximal strain ε_{max} emitted by the source in the linear elastic case. The domain of propagation is $L_x = 2$ m long and is discretized onto 400 grid nodes.

Figure 7 displays the spatial evolution of ε after 400 time steps. For $\varepsilon_{\text{max}} = 10^{-5}$, almost no distorsion of the wave is seen. On the contrary, $\varepsilon_{\text{max}} = 2.0 \, 10^{-4}$ yields a high distorsion as wave propagates. Shocks are observed, as well as the attenuation due to the decrease of entropy.

Figure 8 displays the time evolution of the strain recorded at the receiver (vertical dotted line in Figure 7) for $\varepsilon_{max} = 2.0 \, 10^{-4}$. The normalized amplitudes of the Fourier series decomposition show a typical feature of cubic nonlinear elasticity: the spectrum involves mainly odd harmonics [7].

284 5.3. Test 2: linear viscoelasticity

The goal of the second test is to validate the numerical modeling of attenuation. For this purpose, a linear stress-strain relation is chosen ($\beta = \delta = 0$), and the activation / restoration of



Figure 8: test 1. Time history of the strain at the receiver at x_r (a), normalized Fourier coefficients (b). The amplitude of the excitation is $\varepsilon_{\text{max}} = 2.0 \, 10^{-4}$.

defects is still annihilated ($f_r = f_d = 0$ Hz). Consequently, the system (25) simplifies into

$$\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} - \frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} = \gamma,\right.$$
(56a)

$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 0, \tag{56b}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_{1\ell}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{K_{2\ell}}{\eta_{\ell}} (\varepsilon - \varepsilon_{1\ell}) - \frac{K_{1\ell}}{\eta_{\ell}} \varepsilon_{1\ell}.$$
(56c)

The domain of propagation is $L_x = 2$ m long and is discretized onto 400 grid nodes. The time

evolution of the source is a truncated combination of sinusoids with C^6 smoothness:

$$\mathcal{G}(t) = \begin{cases} \sum_{m=1}^{4} a_m \sin(b_m \,\omega_c \, t) \text{ if } 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{f_c}, \\ 0 \quad \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$
(57)

with parameters $b_m = 2^{m-1}$, $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = -21/32$, $a_3 = 63/768$ and $a_4 = -1/512$. A set of 5 receivers is put at abscissae $x_r = 0.5 + 0.3 (j - 1)$, with $j = 1, \dots 5$.

Figure 9-(a) shows a seismogram of the velocity recorded at the receivers. Attenuation and dispersion of the waves is clearly observed. Figure 9-(b) compares the numerical solution with the semi-analytical solution after 400 time steps. The computation of the semi-analytical solution is described in Appendix D; it is numerically evaluated with $N_f = 512$ Fourier modes, with a frequency step $\Delta f = 200$ Hz. Good agreement is observed between numerical and exact values. The attenuation is slightly overestimated by the scheme, due to the numerical diffusion of the Godunov scheme [18].



Figure 9: test 2. Wave propagation in a viscoelastic medium. (a): time evolution of v at a set of receivers; (b): snapshot of v at t = 0.46 ms, and comparison between the numerical and the semi-analytical solution.

²⁹⁶ 5.4. Test 3: softening / recovering

The goal of the third test is to illustrate the softening / recovering of the elastic modulus, and to validate the numerical modeling of this phenomenon. For this purpose, linear elasticity is assumed and viscoelasticity is neglected ($\beta = \delta = 0, Q = +\infty$). Even if a linear stress-strain relation is used, the evolution problem (25) is nonlinear by virtue of (25d), (27) and (28). As in test 1, the source is monochromatic; but is is switched off after a time t^* :

$$\mathcal{G}(t) = A \sin(\omega_c t) \left(H(t) - H(t^*) \right).$$
(58)

As long as the source is switched on $(0 < t < t^*)$, the equilibrium concentration of defects increases from the initial value g_0 up to $g^* = g(t^*)$. In the same time, the Young's modulus decreases from E_0 to E^* via (3).

For $t > t^*$, the waves go out of the domain, and the elastodynamic fields vanish. From (28) and (10), $\sigma = 0$ implies that the equilibrium concentration of defects becomes $g_{\sigma} = g_0$. As a consequence, the ODE (25d) describing the evolution of defects simplifies into

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dg}{dt} = -f_r \left(g - g_0\right), \\ g(t^*) = g^*. \end{cases}$$
(59)

308 The solution of (59) is

$$g(t) = g_0 + (g^* - g_0) e^{-f_r(t - t^*)}.$$
(60)

Equation (60) is injected into (3), which gives the time evolution of the Young's modulus during the recovering process $(t \ge t^*)$:

$$E(t) = E_0 - \frac{1}{g_{cr}} \left(g^* - g_0\right) e^{-f_r(t-t^*)} E^+.$$
(61)



Figure 10: test 3. Time evolution of the elastic modulus M (35) at x_r . (a): influence of the central stress $\overline{\sigma} = 10^8$ Pa and 10⁷ Pa. (b): influence of the frequency of restoration $f_r = 2.5$ Hz and 100 Hz. The vertical dotted line denotes the time t^* where the source is switched off.

The domain of propagation is $L_x = 0.4$ m long and is discretized onto 100 grid nodes. The maximal strain is $\varepsilon_{max} = 10^{-5}$. Time integration is performed during 4 10⁵ time steps. Figure 10 shows the time evolution of the elastic modulus $M \equiv E$ (35); this equality occurs only because a linear stress-strain relation is assumed. The numerical values of M are shown from the beginning of the simulation, whereas the exact values of E (61) are shown from t^* . For the sake of clarity, the values are shown only each 5000 time steps. Logically, the elastic modulus decreases as long as the source is switched on (softening), and then increases up to its initial value (recovering).

Figure 10-(a) illustrates the influence of the central stress on the evolution of M: $\overline{\sigma} = 10^8$ Pa or 10^7 Pa (the other parameters are those of table 1). According to the Vakhnenko's expression (7), these values correspond to spherical defects of radius 2.13 10^{-10} m and 4.59 10^{-10} m, respectively. In both cases, equilibrium has been reached at t^* . Lower value of $\overline{\sigma}$ yields a greater variation of the elastic modulus. This property follows from (9): as $\overline{\sigma}$ decreases, the curve $g \to g_{\sigma}$ stiffens and tend towards a Heaviside step function. Consequently, greater values of g_{σ} are obtained when $\overline{\sigma}$ is smaller. It implies a larger evolution of g (5), and hence of E (3).

Figure 10-(b) illustrates the influence of the frequence of restoration on the evolution of $M: f_r = 2.5$ Hz or 100 Hz (the other parameters are those of table 1). The lowest value of f_r yields a greater variation of the elastic modulus. This is a consequence of the competition between restoration (with frequency f_r) and destruction (with frequency f_d). When f_r is too low compared with f_d , restoration has almost no time to occur during one period $T = 1/f_c$, and destruction plays a preponderant role.

³³¹ 5.5. Test 4: full model

The fourth and last test incorporates all the physical mechanisms of the model: nonlinear stress-strain law, viscoelasticity, activation / restoration of defects. The domain is $L_x = 0.4$ m long and is discretized onto 100 grid nodes. The source is a monochromatic excitation (55). Time integration is performed during 5 10⁴ time steps. The fields are recorded at x_r .



Figure 11: test 4. (a): stress-strain curves at x_r for different quality factor Q and a forcing amplitude $\varepsilon_{\text{max}} = 2.0 \, 10^{-4}$. (b): time evolution of the elastic modulus; the vertical dotted line denotes the time t^* where the source is switched off.

Figure 11-(a) illustrates the influence of viscoelasticity on the stress-strain law. When viscous 336 effects are neglected ($Q = +\infty$, where Q is the quality factor), the cubic behavior induced by the 337 Landau law (15) is observed. Moreover, the scaling (6) induces that the evolution of defects on 338 one cycle is unsufficient to provide a measurable hysteretic effect. On the contrary, hysteresis is 339 obtained when viscoelasticity is accounted for (Q = 20). Figure 11-(b) mimics the simulation of 340 test 3, where the source a switched-on and off. But unlike test 3, a nonlinear stress-strain relation 341 is used. One observes large oscillations up to t^* , contrary to figure 10. It reproduces qualitatively 342 the behavior observed in figure 1. 343

Figure 12 displays the relative variation of the elastic modulus $\Delta M = (M - M_0)/M_0$ in terms of the strain, for various amplitudes of the forcing. Three observations can be done. First, nonlinear curves are obtained, which is a signature of the nonlinear stress-strain relation. Second, ΔM increases with ε_{max} : softening increases monotonically with the forcing. Third and last, loops are obtained if and only if viscoelasticity is incorporated (c-d). These three features are qualitatively similar to those obtained experimentally [15, 16].

350 5.6. Conclusion

We have proposed a one-dimensional model that captures the behavior of real media under longitudinal bar excitation, namely:

- softening / recovering of the elastic modulus;
- hysteretic evolution of the elastic modulus with the strain.

This model, which extends previous contributions of other authors [19], involves different frequency scales: a fast excitation frequency related to nonlinear elasticity and viscoelastic attenuation, and slow frequencies related to the restoration / destruction of defects. Sound mathematical properties are ensured: the concentration of defects remains bounded, hyperbolicity is analysed,



Figure 12: test 4. Relative variations in the elastic modulus M for various amplitudes of forcing ε_{max} , from 10^{-6} to 7.5 10^{-5} . Top (a-b): witout viscoelasticity; bottom (c-d): with viscoelasticity.

and the energy decreases if the viscoelastic parameters are conveniently determined. Lastly, a ro bust numerical scheme has been built. A major interest of the present approach is the possibility
 to tackle with variable coefficients in space, which is representative of localized defects [14].

Many improvements can be investigated, to cite a few. More sophisticated models can be built quite naturally, considering for instance relaxation of the nonlinear coefficients **p** in (18a), or a nonlinear law in (18b). Concerning the numerical simulations, higher-order schemes (such as WENO schemes [10]) may can easily be adapted to the proposed formulation. Lastly, theoretical analyses should be done to prove rigorously the well-posedness of the model and the decrease of energy. Two directions of work are currently investigated. First, numerical simulations are done to recover quantitatively the experimental results of the litterature [15, 16]. Second, extension of this model to 2D-geometries is under progress.

371 Appendix A. Parameters of the viscoelastic model

 $_{372}$ Standard calculations on (16), (18) and (19) yield the reciprocal of the quality factor Q[2]

$$Q^{-1}(\omega) = \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \frac{\omega \left(\tau_{\varepsilon\ell} - \tau_{\sigma\ell}\right)}{1 + \omega^2 \tau_{\sigma\ell}^2}\right) / \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \frac{1 + \omega^2 \tau_{\varepsilon\ell} \tau_{\sigma\ell}}{1 + \omega^2 \tau_{\sigma\ell}^2}\right).$$
(A.1)

Optimizing Q^{-1} towards a given law (for instance a constant quality factor on a frequency range of interest $[f_{\min}, f_{\max}]$) provides a means to determine $\tau_{\sigma\ell}$ and $\tau_{\epsilon\ell}$ [12]. Here an optimization with constraint is applied to ensure positive values of $\tau_{\sigma\ell}$ and $\tau_{\epsilon\ell}$, as required by the decrease of energy (see section 3.2). See [3] for details about such an optimization.



Figure A.13: Properties of the viscoelastic model in the linear regime. (a): reciprocal of the quality factor Q = 20 (A.1). The constant exact value is denoted by a horizontal line; the values obtained after optimization with N = 2 and N = 4 relaxation mechanisms are denoted in blue and red, respectively; the range of optimization $[f_{\min}, f_{\max}]$ is denoted by vertical dotted lines. (b): frequency evolution of the phase velocity; the horizontal dotted lines denote the phase velocity at zero and infinite frequency.

Figure A.13 illustrates the properties of the viscoelastic model. Figure A.13-(a) compares the reciprocal of the constant quality factor Q = 20 with the value deduced from (A.1), for N = 2and N = 4 relaxation mechanisms. Nonlinear optimization is performed from $f_{\min} = 1$ kHz to $f_{\max} = 100$ kHz. Large oscillations are obtained for N = 2; excellent agreement is observed for N = 4. Figure A.13-(b) shows the increase of phase velocity from $c_0 = \sqrt{E_R/\rho}$ to $c_{\infty} = \sqrt{E/\rho}$. The reader is referred to [2] for details about these quantities.

Lastly, property 1 is proven here.

³⁸⁴ *Proof.* Null attenuation amounts to an infinite quality factor. Equation (A.1) implies that $Q = +\infty$ is obtained if $\tau_{\varepsilon \ell} = \tau_{\sigma \ell}$. In this case, the viscoelastic coefficients (20) and (21) are

$$E_R = E, \quad K_{1\ell} = \frac{E}{N}, \quad K_{2\ell} = +\infty, \quad \eta_\ell = +\infty.$$
 (A.2)

To get a bounded stress, (18c) implies $\varepsilon_{2\ell} = 0$, and hence $\varepsilon_{1\ell} = \varepsilon$ for $\ell = 1, \dots, N$ (17). Putting together the total stress (16), the nonlinear elasticity (11) and the homogeneity property in (12),

together the toone obtains

$$\sigma = \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} s(\varepsilon_{1\ell}, K_{1\ell}, \mathbf{p}) = \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} s\left(\varepsilon, \frac{E}{N}, \mathbf{p}\right) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} s(\varepsilon, E, \mathbf{p}) = s(\varepsilon, E, \mathbf{p}), \quad (A.3)$$

³⁸⁹ which concludes the proof.

390 Appendix B. Proof of property 2

³⁹¹ The Jacobian \mathbf{A} of \mathbf{f} (31) is

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{U}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \Phi_1 & \cdots & \Phi_N & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$
(B.1)

392 where

$$\Phi_{\ell} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \sigma_{1\ell}}{\partial \varepsilon_{1\ell}}.$$
(B.2)

³⁹³ The determinant of **A** writes

$$P_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) = -\lambda \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 0 & \Phi_{1} & \cdots & \Phi_{N} \\ -1 & -\lambda & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -\lambda & & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -1 & & 0 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$
(B.3)

The columns and lines are denoted by C_j and \mathcal{L}_j , respectively. The following algebraic manipulations are performed successively:

- 396 (i) $C_1 \leftarrow \lambda C_1$,
- ³⁹⁷ (ii) $C_1 \leftarrow C_1 C_j$, with $j = 2, \dots, N+1$,

398 which yields

$$\begin{split} \lambda P_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) &= -\lambda \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda^2 - \sum_{\ell=1}^N \Phi_\ell & 0 & \Phi_1 & \cdots & \Phi_N \\ 0 & -\lambda & & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \\ 0 & & & -\lambda \end{vmatrix}, \\ &= (-1)^{N+1} \lambda^{N+2} \left(\lambda^2 + \sum_{\ell=1}^N \Phi_\ell \right). \end{split}$$
(B.4)

It follows the eigenvalues 0 (with multiplicity N + 1) and $\pm c$, with the sound velocity (33). From (B.2), real eigenvalues are obtained if and only if the property 2 is satisfied. Given the nonlinear

elastic models (13)-(15), the speed of sound
$$c$$
 satisfies:

$$c^{2} = \begin{cases} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \frac{K_{1\ell}}{\rho} \frac{1}{r-a} \left(\frac{r+1}{\left(1+\frac{\varepsilon_{1\ell}}{d}\right)^{r}} - \frac{a+1}{\left(1+\frac{\varepsilon_{1\ell}}{d}\right)^{a}} \right) & \text{(model 1),} \\ \\ \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \frac{K_{1\ell}}{\rho} \left(1 - (r+a+3)\frac{\varepsilon_{1\ell}}{d} + \frac{1}{2}\left(r^{2} + ra + a^{2} + 6r + 6a + 11\right)\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{1\ell}}{d}\right)^{2} \right) & \text{(model 2),} \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \frac{K_{1\ell}}{\rho} \left(1 - 2\beta\varepsilon_{1\ell} - 3\delta\varepsilon_{1\ell}^{2} \right) & \text{(model 3).} \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

$$(B.5)$$

402 Appendix C. Proof of property 3

⁴⁰³ For linear stress-strain relations (18), the relaxation coefficients (32) yield

$$\begin{pmatrix}
\frac{\partial \Delta_{\ell}}{\partial \varepsilon}(0) = \frac{1}{\eta_{\ell}} \sigma'_{2\ell}(0) = \frac{K_{2\ell}}{\eta_{\ell}}, \\
\frac{\partial \Delta_{\ell}}{\partial \varepsilon_{1\ell}}(0) = -\frac{1}{\eta_{\ell}} \left(\sigma'_{1\ell}(0) + \sigma'_{2\ell}(0) \right) = -\frac{1}{\eta_{\ell}} \left(K_{1\ell} + K_{2\ell} \right).$$
(C.1)

404 One obtains the Jacobian matrix of the relaxation function (31)

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{E_{21}}{\eta_1} & -\frac{E_{11} + E_{21}}{\eta_1} & & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \\ \frac{E_{2N}}{\eta_1} & & -\frac{E_{1N} + E_{2N}}{\eta_N} & 0 \\ 0 & & \cdots & 0 & f_{\xi} \end{pmatrix},$$
(C.2)

with $f_{\xi} = f_r$ if $g > g_{\sigma}$, $f_{\xi} = f_d$ if $g < g_{\sigma}$, $f_{\xi} = 0$ else. It follows the eigenvalues $0, -\frac{K_{1\ell} + K_{2\ell}}{\eta_{\ell}}$, and $-f_{\xi}$.

407 Appendix D. Semi-analytical solution

The semi-analytical solution of the viscodynamic equations is computed as follows. Fourier transforms in space and time are applied to the system (56). Applying an inverse Fourier transform in space yields

$$\hat{v}(x,\omega) = \frac{i\omega\rho}{\sum_{\ell=1}^{N} K_{1\ell} \frac{i\omega + 1/\tau_{\varepsilon_{\ell}}}{i\omega + 1/\tau_{\sigma_{\ell}}}} \frac{\hat{\mathcal{G}}(\omega)}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 - k_0^2} e^{-ikx_0} dk, \tag{D.1}$$

where the hat refers to the Fourier transform, \mathcal{G} is the time evolution of the source, the relaxation times $\tau_{\varepsilon_{\ell}}$ and $\tau_{\sigma_{\ell}}$ are defined in (19), and k is the wavenumber. The poles $\pm k_0$ satisfy

$$k_0^2 = \frac{\rho \,\omega^2}{\sum_{\ell=1}^N K_{1\ell} \frac{i\omega + 1/\tau_{\varepsilon_\ell}}{i\omega + 1/\tau_{\sigma_\ell}}} \tag{D.2}$$

with $\Im m(k_0) < 0$. Applying the residue theorem gives the time-domain velocity

$$v(x,t) = \rho \int_0^\infty \Re \left\{ \frac{\omega}{k_0} \frac{1}{\sum_{\ell=1}^N K_{1\ell} \frac{i\omega + 1/\tau_{\varepsilon_\ell}}{i\omega + 1/\tau_{\sigma_\ell}}} e^{-ik_0|x-x_0|} \hat{\mathcal{G}}(\omega) \right\} d\omega.$$
(D.3)

414 Expressions for ε and $\varepsilon_{1\ell}$ can be obtained in a similar manner. Lastly, the numerical evaluation of

(D.3) is done by a rectangular quadrature rule on N_f Fourier modes and with a constant frequency step Δf on the frequency band of interest.

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