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# Transient Behavior of a Stress-Strain Curve within Cottrell-Stokes Law<sup>†</sup>

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By employing stress-strain constitutive relationships within Gilman-Johnston and Alexander-Haasen models, transient behavior of calculated stress-strain curves is examined in the light of Cottrell-Stokes law. It is pointed out that the incorporation of the interaction force between mobile and immobile dislocations are indispensable to satisfy Cottrell-Stokes law.

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**Keywords:** stress-strain curve, Cottrell-Stokes law, transient behavior, dislocation theory, collective behavior, plastic deformation, Gilman-Johnston, Alexander-Haasen

## I. Introduction

Although the experimental and theoretical studies on dislocation behavior in plastic deformation have been recently advanced, the theory of *collective behavior of dislocations* have not been well established yet. In order to describe the *collective behavior of dislocations*, the evolution of the mobile dislocation densities,  $N_m$ , and the variation of average velocity,  $\bar{v}$ , of moving dislocations should be properly formulated. The body of former studies on the *collective behavior of dislocations* exclusively focused on yield point and work-hardening behavior under a constant external condition such as deformation temperature and cross-head speed. Few works have been performed on transient behavior caused by a sudden change of deformation condition. In the present study, as a key to the analysis of the transient behavior, Cottrell-Stokes law<sup>(1)</sup> is evoked.

We describe the stress-strain curve at temperatures  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , by  $\sigma(\varepsilon, T_1)$  and  $\sigma(\varepsilon, T_2)$ , respectively, and assume that deformation temperature changes from  $T_1$  to  $T_2$  ( $T_1 > T_2$ ) at a strain  $\varepsilon^*$ . When only mobility of dislocations, which is manifested by the velocity  $\bar{v}$ , is controlled by temperature and multiplication behavior is independent of that, a discontinuous jump of the stress,  $\sigma(\varepsilon^*, T_2) - \sigma(\varepsilon^*, T_1)$ , is realized and the stress-strain curve of  $T_2$  is followed in the subsequent deformation. Whereas in the opposite case, that is, only the multiplication behavior has temperature dependency, no jump of the stress is expected and a resulting stress-strain curve follows continuously from  $\sigma(\varepsilon, T_1)$  with the inclination,  $d\sigma(\varepsilon, T_2)/d\varepsilon$ . In the actual case, however, both mobility

and multiplication processes have temperature dependences and a certain amount of the discontinuous change of the stress  $\Delta\sigma$ , which is less than  $|\sigma(\varepsilon, T_2) - \sigma(\varepsilon, T_1)|$ , is anticipated. Most importantly for this discontinuity of the stress  $\Delta\sigma$ , Cottrell and Stokes observed that  $\Delta\sigma/\sigma$  is independent of the strain. This is the Cottrell-Stokes law and  $\Delta\sigma/\sigma$  is termed Cottrell-Stokes ratio.

In this paper, we discuss transient behavior of theoretically calculated stress-strain curves in view of Cottrell-Stokes law. In particular, we focus on two representative traditional theories: Gilman-Johnston's<sup>(3)</sup> and Alexander-Haasen's models<sup>(4)</sup>.

## II. A Brief Summary of Theories

### 1. Constitutive equation of stress-displacement

The constitutive equation to describe the stress-displacement relation is given in the following form<sup>(2)</sup>,

$$\frac{d\tau_{app}}{dy} = \frac{K \cdot \beta}{C} \cdot \left( 1 - \frac{l_0 \cdot \beta \cdot \dot{\varepsilon}}{S_c} \right), \quad (1)$$

where  $\tau_{app}$  is the applied shear stress,  $y$  is the displacement of the cross-head and  $S_c$  is a cross-head speed.  $K$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $C$  and  $l_0$ , are, respectively, the rigidity of a machine-sample system, Schmid factor, the initial cross section area of the sample and the initial gauge length of the sample. The strain rate,  $\dot{\varepsilon}$ , is defined as

$$\dot{\varepsilon} = N_m \cdot \bar{v} \cdot b, \quad (2)$$

where  $b$  is the magnitude of Burgers vector. Substitution of eq. (2) into eq. (1) yields the differential equation

$$\frac{d\tau_{app}}{dy} = \frac{K \cdot \beta}{C} \cdot \left( 1 - \frac{l_0 \cdot \beta \cdot N_m \cdot \bar{v} \cdot b}{S_c} \right), \quad (3)$$

which correlates microscopic dislocation behavior with macroscopically observed stress-strain relations. In order

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to draw a stress-strain curve, one needs to give an expression for the average dislocation velocity,  $\bar{v}$ , and mobile dislocation density,  $N_m$ . In the present study, we adopted two representative formulations described in the next section.

## 2. Gilman-Johnston model and Alexander-Haasen model

From experimental observations, Gilman and Johnston<sup>(3)</sup> provided the velocity,  $\bar{v}$ , and the density,  $N_m$ , in the following forms,

$$\bar{v} = B_0 \cdot \tau_{\text{eff}}^m \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{Q}{k_B \cdot T}\right) = K(T) \cdot \tau_{\text{eff}}^m, \quad (4)$$

and

$$N_m = C_1 + C_2 \cdot y^{1/2}, \quad (5)$$

where both  $B_0$ ,  $m$ ,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are constants to be determined experimentally.  $Q$ ,  $k_B$  and  $T$  are, respectively, an activation energy, Boltzmann constant and the absolute temperature.  $\tau_{\text{eff}}$  is the effective stress defined in the next section. Based on these equations they reproduced yield point behavior quite satisfactorily.

Alexander and Haasen<sup>(4)</sup> assumed that the increase in the total length of mobile dislocations is proportional to the area swept by moving dislocations. Thus

$$dN_m = \delta \cdot N_m \cdot \bar{v} \cdot dt, \quad (6)$$

where  $t$  is the time and  $\delta$  is a proportionality coefficient which is assumed to be an increasing function of  $\tau_{\text{eff}}$  expressed as

$$\delta = B \cdot \tau_{\text{eff}}, \quad (7)$$

where  $B$  is a material parameter specifying the multiplication rate. Based on eqs. (6) and (7), a differential equation describing the evolution (devolution) of mobile dislocation densities is derived as

$$\frac{dN_m}{dy} = \frac{1}{S_c} \cdot B \cdot \tau_{\text{eff}} \cdot N_m \cdot \bar{v}. \quad (8)$$

## III. Calculation Results and Discussion

In both models in the previous section,  $\tau_{\text{eff}}$  in eqs. (4) and (7) is the effective stress defined as

$$\tau_{\text{eff}} = \tau_{\text{app}} - \tau_{\text{in}}, \quad (9)$$

where  $\tau_{\text{in}}$  is the internal stress. In the present study, two kinds of expression for the internal stress are assumed. One is

$$\tau_{\text{in}} = \tau_m = \frac{1}{2} A \cdot N_m^{1/2} \quad (10)$$

and the other is

$$\tau_{\text{in}} = \tau_m + \tau_i = \frac{1}{2} A \cdot N_m^{1/2} + C(T) \cdot \varepsilon^{1/2}, \quad (11)$$

where

$$A = \frac{\mu b}{B_s}. \quad (12)$$

$\mu$  is the stiffness of the material and  $B_s$  characterizes the interaction between mobile dislocations. In the former case, the internal stress originates from interaction among mobile dislocations,  $\tau_m$ , while for the latter case, an additional contribution being proportional to  $\varepsilon^{1/2}$  simulates the interaction between mobile and immobile dislocations,  $\tau_i$ , and  $C(T)$  is the function which increases with the decrease of temperature. Parameters and constants employed in the present study are tabulated in **Table 1**. In this calculation, it is assumed that the temperature is reduced from 298 to 248 K.

When eq. (10) is adopted with Gilman-Johnston model, the temperature dependency is conveyed only in the average dislocation velocity ( $\bar{v}$ ) in eq. (4). In fact, the sudden change of the temperature from  $T_1$  to  $T_2$  induces the jump of the stress and the resultant stress-strain curve coincides exactly with the one for  $T_2$  as shown for three different strains in **Fig. 1**.

Table 1 The employed parameters and constants in this calculation. These values are typical for the aluminum-magnesium dilute solid solution.

Parameters and constants	Values
$C$	$7.5 \times 10^{-6}$ (m <sup>2</sup> )
$l_0$	$2.0 \times 10^{-2}$ (m)
$b$	$2.8635 \times 10^{-10}$ (m)
$\mu$	$2.8 \times 10^{10}$ (Pa)
$S_c$	$1.2 \times 10^{-4}$ (m/s)
$Q$	$4.73 \times 10^{-20}$ (J)
$k_B$	$1.38 \times 10^{-23}$ (J/K)
$K$	$5.0 \times 10^3$ (Pa·m)
$B$	$5.0 \times 10^{-5}$
$C_1$	$2.0 \times 10^4$ (m <sup>-2</sup> )
$C_2$	$2.5 \times 10^8$ (m <sup>-2</sup> )
$\beta$	0.4
$m$	1.0
$B_s$	3.3
$C(T)$	$5.0 \times 10^4$ ( $T_1=298$ K) $8.0 \times 10^4$ ( $T_2=248$ K)

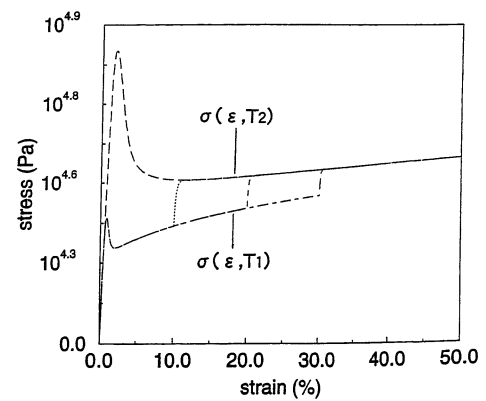


Fig. 1 Transient behavior of stress-strain curve associated with temperature change from  $T_1$  to  $T_2$ . In this calculation, temperature dependency is assumed only for the mobility ( $\bar{v}$ ) of mobile dislocations.

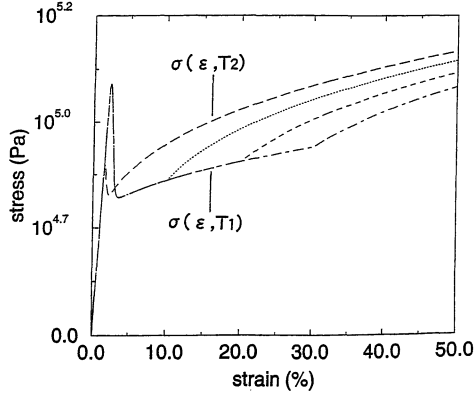


Fig. 2 Transient behavior of stress-strain curve associated with temperature change from  $T_1$  to  $T_2$ . Temperature dependency is assumed only for multiplication process ( $N_m$ ).

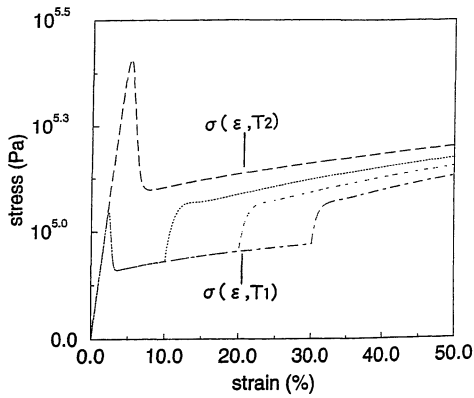


Fig. 3 Transient behavior of stress-strain curve associated with temperature change from  $T_1$  to  $T_2$ . Temperature dependencies are assumed both for  $\bar{v}$  and  $N_m$ .

In order to examine the temperature dependence of the multiplication process, Alexander-Haasen model is adopted with the internal stress given by eq. (10). For the velocity  $\bar{v}$  in eq. (8), eq. (4) is employed with a constant value assigned to  $K(T)$ , which enables one to derive the sole effect of the temperature dependency of  $N_m$ . As shown in Fig. 2, the stress-strain curve shows no discontinuous jump of the stress at any strains. Furthermore the inclination  $d\sigma(\epsilon, T_2)/d\epsilon$ , at the onset is observed to be nearly the same as that of  $\sigma(\epsilon, T_2)$  for each strain.

The effect of the temperature on both mobility and multiplication behavior are studied within Alexander-Haasen model. In this case, the temperature dependency of the velocity is explicitly incorporated through  $K(T)$  in eq. (4). With the internal stress expression eq. (10), the transient behavior is calculated as shown in Fig. 3. Certainly, a discontinuous stress change,  $\Delta\sigma$ , is observed. But the magnitude of  $\Delta\sigma$  is less than  $\sigma(\epsilon, T_2) - \sigma(\epsilon, T_1)$ . This is regarded as an intermediate situation between two extreme cases shown in Figs. 1 and 2. Unfortunately, however, the Cottrell-Stokes ratio are not kept to be a constant value as shown in Fig. 4.

Finally, Alexander-Haasen model is employed with the

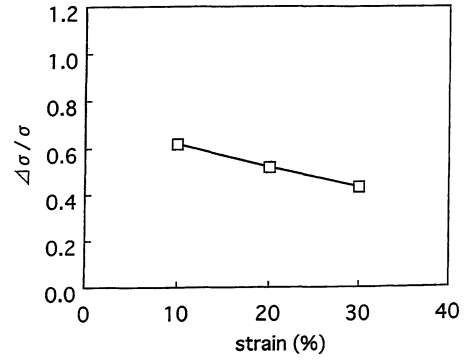


Fig. 4 Cottrell-Stokes ratio corresponding to Fig. 3.

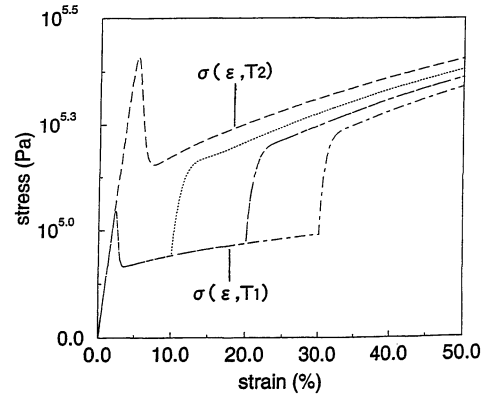


Fig. 5 Transient behavior of stress-strain curve associated with temperature change from  $T_1$  to  $T_2$ . Temperature dependencies are assumed both  $\bar{v}$  and  $N_m$ . Also, immobile-mobile dislocation interaction force is taken into consideration.

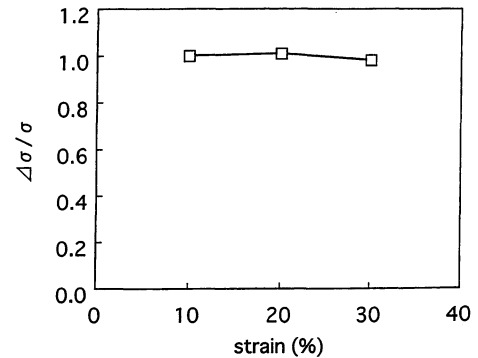


Fig. 6 Cottrell-Stokes ratio corresponding to Fig. 5.

internal stress given by eq. (11). The transient behaviors are demonstrated in Fig. 5. In this case, the Cottrell-Stokes ratio stays a constant value as can be seen in Fig. 6 when appropriate values of  $C(T)$  tabulated in Table 1 are employed.

#### IV. Conclusions

In the present study, we examined the transient behavior of stress-strain curve associated with the sudden change of temperature. Within the Gilman-Johnston and

Alexander-Haasen models, the temperature dependencies of dislocation mobility ( $\bar{v}$ ) and multiplication process ( $N_m$ ) are well studied both in a separate and in a synthesized manner. It is pointed out that the interaction between mobile and immobile dislocations play essential role to observe Cottrell-Stokes law. It is believed that the transient behavior due to the change of strain rate can be studied within the same framework.

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