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Back stress strengthening and strain hardening in gradient structure

Muxin Yang, Yue Pan, Fuping Yuan, Yuntian Zhu & Xiaolei Wu 🖂

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Gradient structure in metals represents a new strategy for producing a superior combination of high strength and good ductility.[<u>1–6</u>] The gradient structure usually consists of a nanostructured (NS) surface layer with increasing grain size along the depth to reach coarse-grained (CG) sizes in the central layer.[<u>2</u>,<u>4</u>]

Gradient structure can promote ductility significantly,[2,4-9] which is measured under tensile loading. The NS layer in a gradient structure may sustain a large amount of

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The nature of plastic deformation in the gradient structure is still not very clear.[1,2] In fact, the gradient structure can be approximately regarded as the integration of many thin layers with increasing grain sizes.[3,4] The gradient structure deforms heterogeneously due to plastic incompatibilities between neighboring layers with different flow behaviors and stresses under applied strains. As such, it is reasonable to anticipate the development of the strain gradient and internal stresses during plastic deformation, as a result of the plastic incompatibilities between different layers, similar to what happens in composites [19–21] and dual-phase structures.[22]

Back stress has been reported to play a crucial role in strain hardening, strengthening and mechanical properties.[21-23] It is a type of long-range stress exerted by GNDs that are accumulated and piled up against barriers. It interacts with mobile dislocations to affect their slip.[24] The back stress reduces the effective resolved shear stress for dislocation slip because it always acts in the opposite direction of the applied resolved shear stress. In a heterogeneous structure, strain will be inhomogeneous but continuous, producing strain gradients, which needs to be accommodated by GNDs. [23,25-27] It has been observed that back stress strengthening and back stress strainhardening are primarily responsible for unprecedented combination of strength and ductility of heterogeneous lamella Ti, which was found as strong as ultrafine-grained Ti and as ductile as CG Ti.[23] The gradient structure can be regarded as a type of

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size of <100 nm in the top layer), ultrafine grains, and deformed coarse grains with dislocation cells towards the central CG core. Microstructural characterization was detailed in our previous papers.[3,4]

Unloading-reloading process during tensile tests was conducted using an Instron 5966 machine at a strain rate of $5 \times 10^{-4} \, \text{s}^{-1}$ at room temperature. Tensile specimens with a gauge length of 10 mm and a width of 2.5 mm were cut from SMAT-processed disks. An extensometer was used to measure tensile strain. At a certain unloading strain, the specimen was unloaded in a load-control mode to 20 N at an unloading rate of 200 N min⁻¹, followed by reloading to the same applied load.

Figure 1(a) shows the monotonic tensile true stress-true strain (σ -) curves in both GS and CG samples. The GS sample shows large tensile ductility comparable to that of CG, but with triple yield strength of CG, which is typical of the excellent combination of strength and ductility in GS metals.[2–8] A transient is visible soon after yielding, characterized by the presence of a short concave segment on the σ - curve.[4] During the transient, the strain hardening rate (Θ) sharply drops at first, which is followed by a rapid up-turn, as shown in Figure 1(b). Figure 1(c) shows the unloading and reloading test hysteresis loops measured at varying tensile strains for both CG and GS samples.



with an effective unloading Young's modulus of E_u . The point C is called the unloading yielding point, with a stress of σ_u . Similar segments also exist for the reloading curve with EF as the linear (elastic) part of the reloading stress-strain curve with an effective reloading Young's modulus of E_r , which can be assumed equal to E_u because the microstructure is assumed not changed during the unloading-reloading. The point F is called the reloading yielding point, with a stress of σ_r . Figure 2(b) is the measured hysteresis loop from a GS IF steel sample.

Figure 2. (Colour online) (a) The schematic of the unloading-reloading loop for defining the unload yielding σ_u , reload yielding σ_r , back stress σ_b and frictional stress σ_f , effective unloading Young's modulus of E_u , effective reloading Young's modulus of E_r . (b) A measured hysteresis loop from the GS IF steel sample with σ_u and σ_r defined.



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to produce unloading yield. At the unloading yield point C (Figure 2(a)), the applied stress is low enough that the back stress starts to overcome the applied stress and the frictional stress to make dislocations glide backward, that is

(1)

where σ_u is the unloading yield stress as defined in Figure 2(a).

During the reloading, the applied stress needs to overcome the back stress and the frictional stress to drive the dislocation forward at the reloading yield point F, which can be described as

(2)

where σ_r is the reloading yield stress as defined in Figure 2(a).

Here again, we assume that the back stress during reloading is the same as the back stress during unloading. This is reasonable because during the unloading-reloading process, dislocation configuration can be considered reversible.[32] Solving Equations (1) and (2) yields

and

(4)

(3)

Equation (3) is similar to an earlier equation proposed for cyclic loading by Cottrell [33] and Kuln tress at the X beginnir where σ We argu we are defining s, the same deviatio nized that son et al. to Equat inclu a),[24,29] where σ which is Equation ng yield stresses ome negative we expect Equation (3) to be valid if the applied stress is reversed to negative to measure $\sigma_{\rm u}$

before the reloading. As discussed later, Equation (3) derived here has an important advantage over previously published Equations (5) and (6): it produces consistent back stress values with much less scatter. In addition, Equations (5) and (6) are physically problematic because they implicitly used different criteria to define the unloading yield and reloading yield, which is physically unjustifiable.

To extract useful data from the unloading-reloading hysteresis loop, one needs to first determine the unloading yield stress σ_u and reloading yield stress σ_r . However, the real hysteresis loop (e.g. Figure 2(b)) is not as well defined as in Figure 2(a), and the practical extraction of the data is not straightforward.[<u>31</u>] The first step is to determine the elastic segments BC as well as its slope (the effective Young's modulus). The unloading yield point C is usually determined by a plastic strain offset in the range of 5 $\times 10^{-6}$ to 10^{-3} , which have been used by different research groups.[<u>24</u>,<u>31</u>,<u>34</u>–<u>37</u>] These offset values are arbitrary and are not well justified. Here we propose to use the deviation of the stress-strain slope from the effective Young's modulus as a physically sound method to determine the yield point. In this study, we choose 5%, 10%, and 15% slope reduction from the effective Young's modulus, E_u. If the strain hardening in the plastically deforming volume is ignored, the slope reduction should be equal to the volume fraction that is plastically deforming. For example, a 10% reduction in E_u means 10% of the sample volume is plastically deforming. We also propose to use E_r = E_u, and

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GS sample is 10–40% higher than those in the CG sample (the re-	d curves in Figure 3(b)

and 3(d)). Fourth, Figure 3(c) and 3(d) shows that if a large slope reduction value is used, the unloading yield stresses for the GS sample at small tensile strains are negative and therefore cannot be measured in the unloading curve. This makes it advantageous to use a smaller slope reduction value in determining the back stress.

Figure 3. (Colour online) Evolution of (a) unloading yield stress σ_u and reloading yield stress σ_r and (b) back stress with increasing unloading strain $_u$ for CG IF steel, and the evolution of (c) unloading/reloading yield stresses and (d) back stress with increasing $_u$ for GS IF steel. $\sigma_{b,5\%}$ represents the back stress calculated using 5% slope reduction from the effective Young's modulus.



the absolute values of σ_u and σ_r variations together instead of making them cancel each other as in Equation (3). Therefore, the frictional stress σ_f calculated using Equation (4) is not quantitatively dependable. Nevertheless, Figure 4(a) consistently shows that for any slope reduction value, the calculated frictional stress is higher in the GS sample than in the CG sample. This is due to the higher dislocation density in the GS sample than in the CG sample.[<u>3,4</u>]

Figure 4. (Colour online) The frictional stress σ_f vs. tensile strain _{true} for the GS and CG IF steel samples calculated according to Equation (4). (b) The distinct back stress hardening in GS IF steel. denotes the back stress hardening rate calculated using 5% slope reduction from the effective Young's modulus.





the central larger grained layer transits in an opposite way. Such a transition is expected to increase the strain gradient.

In summary, it is found that the GS IF steel developed strong back stress strengthening and back stress strain-hardening during tensile testing, which arise from the plastic incompatibilities due to its microstructural heterogeneity. The high back stress near the beginning of the plastic deformation of the GS IF steel samples should have contributed to the observed synergetic strengthening,[3] while the high back stress hardening should have contributed to the observed high ductility.[4] The equation derived and the procedure proposed in this work for calculating the back stress from the unloadingreloading hysteresis loop produces more consistent back stress value than what is previously reported.

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