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**EXPERIMENTAL CHARACTERIZATION AND SIMULATION OF THREE DIMENSIONAL PLASTIC DEFORMATION INDUCED BY MICROSCALE LASER SHOCK PEENING**

**Hongqiang Chen**

Department of Mechanical Engineering  
Columbia University  
New York, NY 10027 USA  
hc2008@columbia.edu

**Jeffrey W. Kysar**

Department of Mechanical Engineering  
Columbia University  
New York, NY 10027 USA  
jk2079@columbia.edu

**Y. Lawrence Yao**

Department of Mechanical Engineering  
Columbia University  
New York, NY 10027 USA  
yly1@columbia.edu

**Youneng Wang**

Department of Mechanical Engineering  
Columbia University  
New York, NY 10027 USA  
yw2119@columbia.edu

**ABSTRACT**

Different experimental techniques and 3D FEM simulations are employed to characterize and analyze the three dimensional plastic deformation and residual strain/stress distribution for single crystal Aluminum under microscale laser shock peening assuming finite geometry. Single pulse shock peening at individual locations was studied. X-ray micro-diffraction techniques based on a synchrotron light source affords micron scale spatial resolution and is used to measure the residual stress spatial distribution along different crystalline directions on the shocked surface. Crystal lattice rotation due to plastic deformation is also measured with electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD). The result is experimentally quantified and compared with the simulation result obtained from FEM analysis. The influence of the finite size effect, crystalline orientation are investigated using single crystal plasticity in FEM analysis. The result of the 3D simulations of a single shock peened indentation are compared with the FEM results for a shocked line under 2D plain strain deformation assumption. The prediction of overall character of the deformation and lattice rotation fields in three dimensions will lay the ground work for practical application of  $\mu$ LSP.

**KEYWORDS:** Laser shock peening, Electron backscatter diffraction, Single crystal plasticity, X-ray micro-diffraction

**1 INTRODUCTION**

Recently, laser shock processing of polycrystalline aluminum and copper using a micron sized laser beam has been

studied [1,2]. It has been shown that micron-scale laser shock peening ( $\mu$ LSP) can efficiently induce a compressive residual stress distributions in bulk metal targets as measured by X-ray diffraction with micron-level spatial resolution [3] and calculated through finite element analysis (FEM) simulations [4]. Thus, microscale laser shock peening ( $\mu$ LSP) can be used to manipulate the residual stress distributions in metal structures over regions as small as a few microns and thus improve the reliability of micro-devices.

Microscale laser shock peening, has been the subject of several experimental studies to characterize the induced stress and deformation fields, in parallel with FEM studies [3,5]. The X-ray micro-diffraction technique was used to measure the spatially resolved residual stress state; the resulting diffraction peak profiles were quantified and explained in terms of a heterogeneous dislocation cell structure [6] in laser shock peened Al and Cu single crystals. From the work of Kysar and Briant [7], electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) was used to investigate crystal lattice rotation caused by plastic deformation during laser shock peening in single crystal Al and Cu [3,5]. Crystal lattice rotation on and below the micro-scale laser shock peened sample surface was measured. The measured lattice rotation makes it possible to estimate the lattice curvature, and hence, the geometrically necessary dislocation density [8] so that length scale effects at the micron scale can be investigated. Single crystal plasticity simulations along with EBSD measurements were applied to study plastic deformation induced by a channel die [9] and  $\mu$ LSP [5].

Previous studies of  $\mu$ LSP employed highly ideal geometries to simplify the experimental characterization and

facilitate FEM simulation. This was done by shock peening along a certain crystalline direction on the sample surface to achieve an approximate two-dimensional deformation state [5]. A 2-D FEM simulation was performed using the highly simplified assumptions of ideal plastic behavior in a single crystal under quasi-static plane strain conditions, thus neglecting even the three-dimensional effects. Nevertheless, the simulations were able to capture the salient features of the measured deformation field. Apparently, then, the anisotropic plastic behavior of the material plays a very important role in the process. Laser shock peening is an inherently 3-D process so it is necessary to characterize a single laser shock peen, as well.

In this paper, the micro-diffraction technique and EBSD are used to estimate the residual stress spatial distribution and measure lattice rotation associated with  $\mu$ LSP along different crystalline directions on the shocked sample surface. In addition, three dimensional FEM simulations are carried out to analyze the plastic deformation and strain/stress states for single crystal aluminum under microscale laser shock peening. Single and multiple pulses at individual locations were considered. The influence of the finite size effect, crystalline orientation and anisotropic plastic behavior of the single crystal are coupled into the single crystal plasticity in FEM analysis. 3D simulation result for a single peened point is compared with the result for a shocked line under 2D plain strain deformation assumption. These results lay the ground work for much more detailed simulations as well as for practical applications of  $\mu$ LSP, and is largely a continuation of Chen, et al. [5].

## 2 EXPERIMENTS

Several different methods were employed in the experiment to characterize the shock peened regions. Atomic force microscopy (AFM) was used to measure the deformation geometry on the shocked surfaces. X-ray microdiffraction and the sub-profile method were applied to estimate the shock induced residual stress state on the shocked surface. Moreover, the lattice rotation was characterized by electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) to measure crystallographic orientation as a function of position.

### 2.1 Sample geometry and laser shock peening conditions

A frequency tripled Q-switched Nd:YAG laser ( $\lambda = 355 \text{ nm}$ ) in TEM<sub>00</sub> mode was used in the laser shock peening as illustrated in Fig. 1. In order to achieve a three dimensional deformation state, a single laser pulse was applied on the sample surface with a 50 ns pulse duration to generate a “dent-like” shocked region. The laser beam diameter was 12  $\mu\text{m}$  and laser intensity was approximately 4GW/cm<sup>2</sup>. Further details of the micro-scale LSP setup are given in Zhang and Yao [1,2].

Fully-annealed single crystals of pure aluminum (grown by the seeded Bridgman technique) were used in the experiment. Aluminum was chosen because it is routinely used in micro-devices due to its good mechanical and electrical properties. The (001), (110) and (111) planes were identified by Laue X-ray and the sample, as shown in Fig. 1, was cut to shape using a Wire Electrical Discharge Machining (EDM). The coordinate

systems used throughout this paper are indicated in Fig. 1 and defined as follows: Z-axis is parallel to crystal direction of [110], X-axis is parallel to [001] direction and Y-axis is parallel to  $[1\bar{1}0]$  direction. The  $(1\bar{1}0)$  surface of the crystal was laser-shock peened. Single crystals are used in this study for two main reasons. First, the grain size of many materials is approximately 10 $\mu\text{m}$ , which is about the same size as the laser spot. Therefore, an isotropic constitutive assumption is not adequate to understand the process. Thus the response of an anisotropic material to  $\mu$ LSP is of direct interest. Second, a single crystal is anisotropic, but homogeneous, which greatly facilitates experimental characterization. Therefore, single crystals are candidates for fundamental and systematic study of material response to  $\mu$ LSP. Sample preparation details can be found in [1-3, 5]

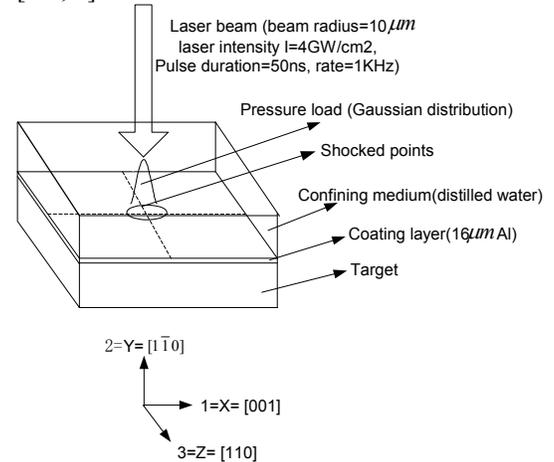
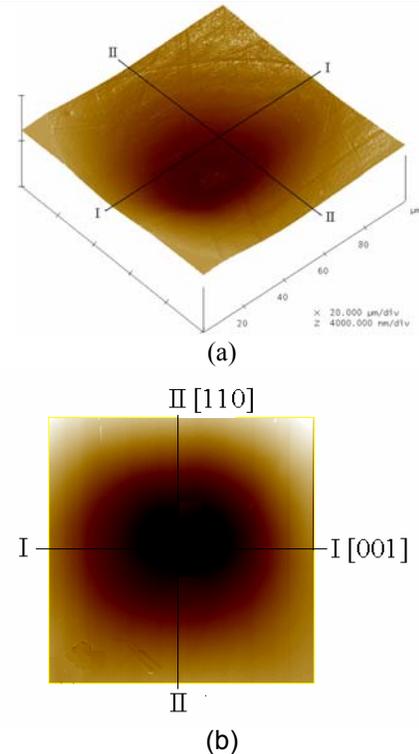


Fig. 1 Sample geometry and shock peening condition of single crystal Al (110)

### 2.2 Deformation geometry measured by AFM



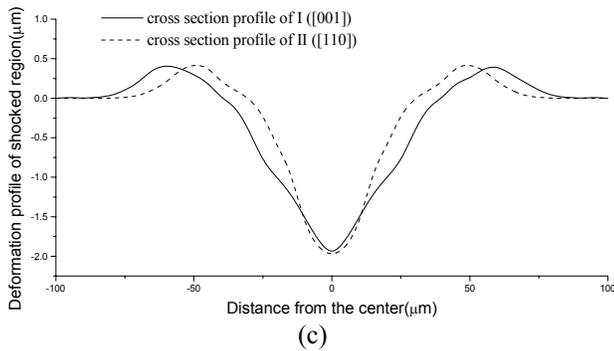


Fig. 2 Typical surface profile of shocked region from AFM  
(a) 3-D view (b) Top view (c) Cross section profile

The shocked region geometry has been determined by means of atomic force microscopy (AFM, Digital Instruments Nanoscope Inc.) observations. Using non-contact mode, a typical 3D geometry of the shocked region measured is seen in Fig. 2(a); the scan area is  $100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}$  and 512 measurements were made along each direction. As is evident, the depth of the shocked region is around  $2.5 \mu\text{m}$  with diameter close to  $80 \mu\text{m}$ . In order to study the material response in different crystalline direction. (I and II in Fig. 2(b)). The geometry profile of different cross-section measured by AFM in Fig. 2(c). It can be seen that the general trend of profile along different directions is the same, however, the lateral extent along I ( $\langle 001 \rangle$  direction) is larger than that in II ( $\langle 110 \rangle$  direction) which may be caused by the anisotropic property of single crystal. Also there pile-up exists around the shocked peen due to the incompressibility assumption.

## 2.3 X-ray microdiffraction measurement

### 2.3.1 X-ray microdiffraction measurement scheme

X-ray beams from synchrotron radiation sources (from beamline X20A at National Synchrotron Light Source at Brookhaven National Lab) were used in this study because the extreme intensities allow a short sampling time and further, the x-ray can be focused by a tapered glass capillary to spot sizes as small as 3 microns. Complete details of the X-ray microdiffraction experiment can be found in [3].

In order to spatially resolve the residual stress induced by  $\mu\text{LSP}$ , measurements were made in a grid pattern over the shocked region as shown in Fig. 3. The spacing between adjacent measurement points is  $5 \mu\text{m}$  when within  $20 \mu\text{m}$  of the shock center and is  $10 \mu\text{m}$  at distances greater than  $20 \mu\text{m}$  from the shock center. At each position, the corresponding X-ray diffraction profile is recorded and repeated for each scan line. The shape of the profile and its shift can be interpreted in terms of the residual stress state, as will be discussed in the next section.

For FCC metals, the diffraction structure factor for (110) is zero and the reflections are absent [10], so the (220) reflections are chosen for X-ray diffraction measurement. For the Al (110) sample in Fig. 1, the crystalline structure has special directions along lines I, II and III which corresponds, respectively, to [001], [110] and [111] directions. In order to study the anisotropic behavior of single crystal which undergo  $\mu\text{LSP}$ , the X-ray

profiles along those directions were investigated, in addition to making measurements over the grid.

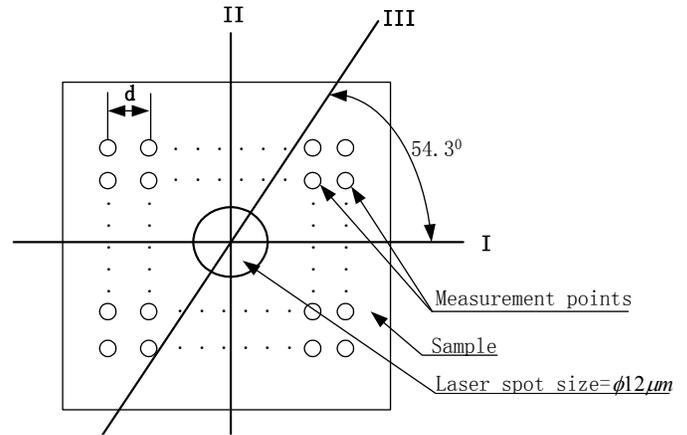


Fig. 3 X-ray microdiffraction measurement scheme  
(I: [001] direction, II: [110] direction, III: [111] direction)

### 2.3.2 Diffraction profile analysis

Sub-profile analysis using the composite model by Ungar [6] was employed to interpret the diffraction profiles, as in [3]. After obtaining the X-ray diffraction profile, the asymmetric line profiles  $I$  were assumed to be composed of two components  $I_w$  and  $I_c$ , where  $I_w$  is attributed to the cell-wall material and  $I_c$  to the cell-interior material. The lateral residual stress in the sample surface plane can be estimated based on this assumption.

Fig. 4 shows the typical three dimensional spatial distribution of the measured X-ray diffraction intensity profiles of the (220) Bragg reflection along line I ([001] direction). The salient features of these line profiles can be summarized as follows:

(a) When the measure point moved across the shock center from left to right in Fig. 4, the line profiles change distinctively from a single symmetric peak to asymmetry with a second peak becoming visible, and finally return to a single symmetric peak. It is clear that after shock peening, the X-ray profile was significantly broadened and became asymmetric compared to unshocked region.

(b) At  $\pm 100 \mu\text{m}$  and beyond, the measured profile peak value is almost at the theoretical angle, which in turn represents the shock free regions, which represents a diffraction profile referred to type A, herein. As the shock is approached, the main peak shifts towards larger diffraction angles, while a second peak pops up towards smaller diffraction angle (type B diffraction profile); for the region near the dent center, the main peak shifts towards smaller diffraction angles, while a second peak pops up towards larger diffraction angle (type C diffraction profile).

The type B profiles indicate a tensile residual lateral stress state and the type C profiles indicate a compressive residual stress state. The striking transition from type C to type B away from the shock region indicates a fundamental change in the residual stress state independent of sub profile interpretation. The X-ray diffraction profiles show similar patterns along different crystalline directions (line I and line II). However, for the broadened asymmetric profile, the type A profile is more significant in (110) direction than (111) and (001) direction while type B profile is dominant along [001] direction. The area

with broadened and shifted profiles is smallest in (110) direction, followed by (111) and (001) direction.

Interpretation of diffraction profiles in highly deformed regions is often ambiguous so the results are not clear-cut. Nevertheless it should be emphasized that qualitative differences of the diffraction profiles as a function of position relative to the shocked region, strongly suggest a transition from compressive to tensile residual stress state, independent of the specific methods used to interpret the diffraction profiles quantitatively.

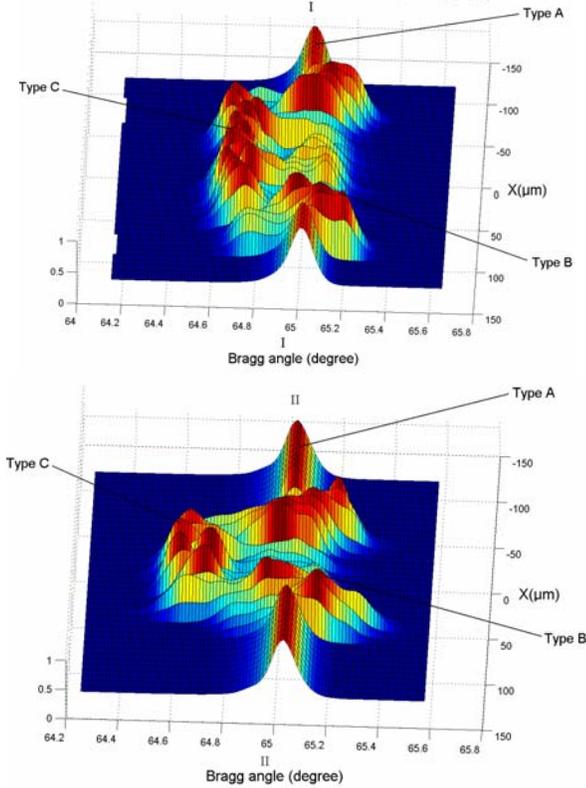


Fig. 4 Typical X-ray diffraction profile spatial distribution along line I [001] and II [110]

### 2.3.3 Approximate residual stress distribution from X-ray measurement

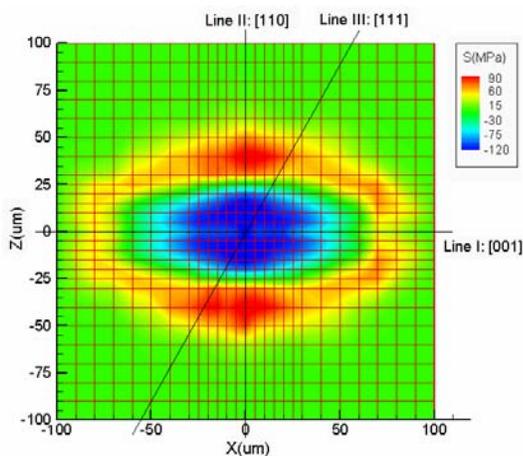


Fig. 5 Surface residual stress distribution from X-ray microdiffraction

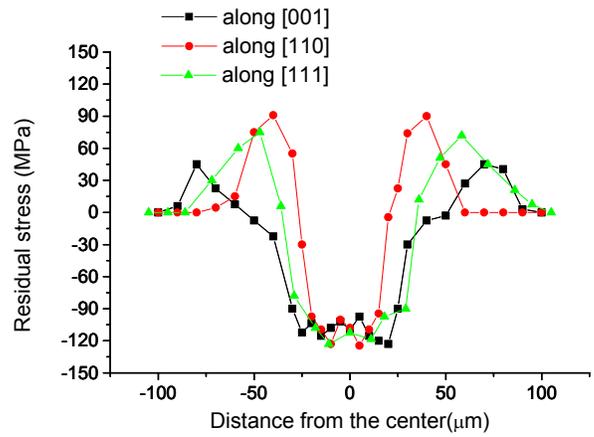


Fig. 6 Lateral residual stress distribution from X-ray diffraction measurement for Al (110) sample

After obtaining the X-ray diffraction profile at different positions in shocked region, the lateral residual stress on sample surface can be estimated using the methods from Chen, et al. [3] and the spatial distribution across the shocked region plotted as in Fig. 5. The stress can be considered to be average stress in the region sampled by X-ray diffraction. A compressive residual stress is generated near the center of shocked region bordered by a region of tensile stress. Although the laser spot size is only  $12\mu\text{m}$ , the high shock pressure in  $\mu\text{LSP}$  can generate significant compressive residual stresses over a much larger region. The compressive stress is estimated to have a maximum value of  $-120\text{MPa}$  near the center and cover an ellipse-like region which extends  $\pm 60\mu\text{m}$  along [001] direction and  $\pm 25\mu\text{m}$  along [110] direction from the center. The maximum residual tensile stress is estimated to be  $+90\text{MPa}$  and occurs in [110] direction approximately  $40\mu\text{m}$  away from the shock center while the minimum residual tensile stress exists in [001] direction. In order to study the influence of crystal direction on residual stress distribution, Fig. 6 shows the estimated lateral residual stress distribution on Al (110) sample surface along [001], [111] and [110] direction. The distributions show similar patterns for different directions. Compressive residual stress exists in the shocked dent center and tensile stress exists at the outer range of dent. Again, the compressive residual stress extends further in the [001] than the [110].

## 2.4 EBSD measurement of lattice rotation

### 2.4.1 EBSD measurement scheme

Electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) is a diffraction technique for obtaining crystallographic orientation with sub-micron spatial resolution from bulk samples or thin layers in the scanning electron microscope. EBSD is used to investigate crystal lattice rotation caused by plastic deformation during high-strain rate laser shock peening in single crystal aluminum and copper sample of  $(1\bar{1}0)$  and (001) orientation [5], where new experimental methodologies were employed to enable measurement of the in-plane lattice rotation under approximate plane strain conditions. For the single dent shock peening, both in-plane and out-of-plane lattice rotation need to be

investigated to fully understand the 3-D plastic deformation and anisotropic property of single crystal under  $\mu$ LSP.

EBSD measurement was performed on the sample surface and over a region ( $150 \times 150 \mu\text{m}$ ) larger than the shock peen. The EBSD data was collected using a system supplied by HKL Technology and attached to a JEOL JSM 5600LV scanning electron microscope. All data were acquired in the automatic mode, using external beam scanning and employing a  $1 \mu\text{m}$  step size. The EBSD results from each individual scan comprise data containing the position coordinates of electron beam along with the three Euler angles, which describe the orientation of the particular interaction volume relative to the orientation of the specimen in the SEM. This information allows the in-plane and the out-of-plane lattice rotations to be calculated relative to the known undeformed crystallographic orientation, which serves as the reference state.

### 2.4.2 Lattice rotation field from EBSD

As discussed in [5], the crystalline orientation will change after laser shock peening due to the plastic deformation. Fig. 7 illustrates a crystal orientation map obtained from EBSD, which describes the orientation difference (misorientation angle) before and after  $\mu$ LSP for the shocked region on Al (110) sample top surface ( $150 \times 150 \mu\text{m}$ ). In this color contour, the green region corresponds to the shock free region since there is no change from the original crystal orientation. The red greyscales indicate a larger deviation of the  $\langle 110 \rangle$  crystal axis from the sample surface normal and up to 5 degree. It is interesting that the contour distribution is approximately two-fold symmetric about the X and Z axis and the maximum misorientation occurs about  $10 \mu\text{m}$  away from the center and the overall region with significant orientation change is a ellipse-like with major axis about  $80 \mu\text{m}$  along the  $[001]$  direction and minor axis about  $50 \mu\text{m}$  along the  $[110]$  direction. The overall shape is consistent with the surface profile as measured by AFM measurement in Fig. 2. Thus, the misorientation contour indicates the affected region of plastic deformation in  $\mu$ LSP.

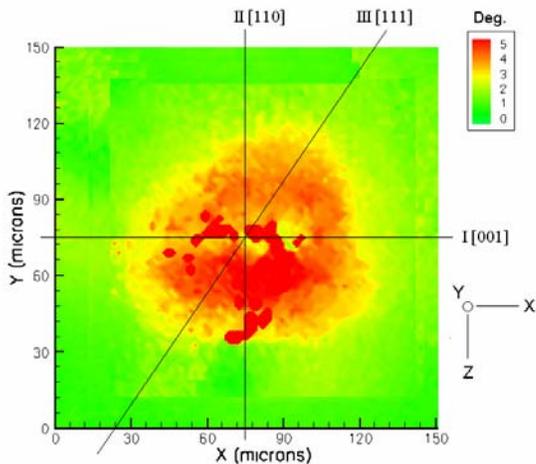
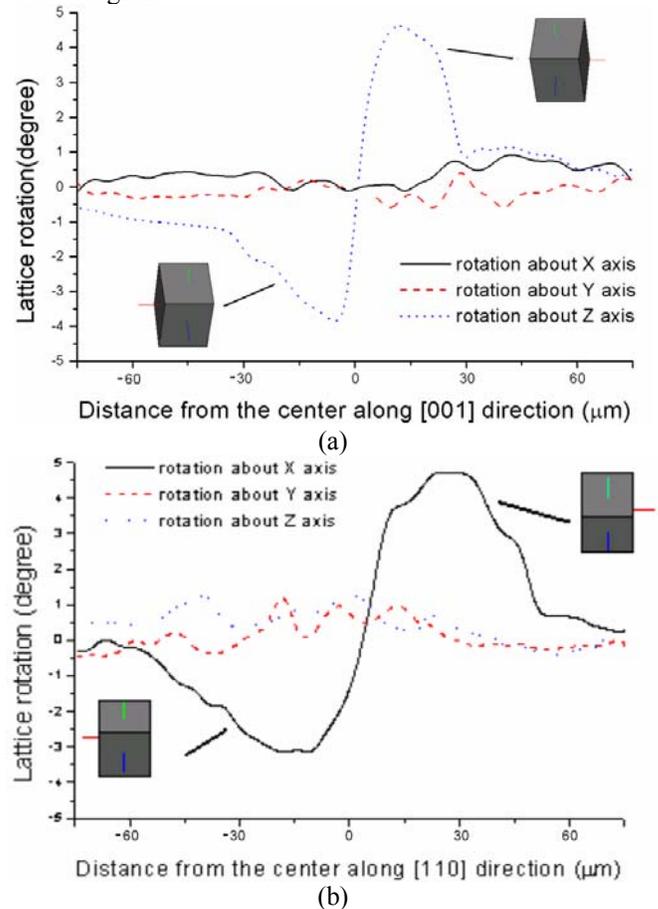


Fig. 7 Crystal misorientation angle distribution on sample surface

The misorientation angle, however, only shows the angular deviation between the  $\langle 110 \rangle$  crystal axis after  $\mu$ LSP and the original surface normal before  $\mu$ LSP. Actually, the EBSD

results from each individual scan comprise data containing the position coordinates and the three Euler angles  $\phi_1, \phi, \phi_2$ . From which the corresponding  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  angles around the fixed X, Y, Z axis can be calculated to study the 3-D lattice rotation.

Fig. 8(a-c) shows the lattice rotation around X, Y, Z axis separately for Al (110) sample from EBSD measurement. In order to study the anisotropic characteristics, the lattice rotation distribution along three typical crystal direction  $\langle 001 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 110 \rangle$  and  $\langle 111 \rangle$  are compared, shows significant anisotropy. The lattice rotation is mainly about the Z axis along  $\langle 001 \rangle$  direction and about X axis along  $\langle 110 \rangle$  direction. In  $\langle 111 \rangle$  direction, both significant lattice rotation around X and Z axis are observed. For rotation about axis Y (surface normal), the value is almost zero along all three directions which indicates the lattice rotation around surface normal is very small after  $\mu$ LSP. In  $\langle 001 \rangle$  direction, the lattice rotation around X axis is  $\pm 4^\circ$  between  $\pm 40 \mu\text{m}$  from the center of shocked region and the rotation direction is anti-symmetric on both side of shocked center. The lattice rotation distribution along the  $\langle 110 \rangle$  direction is around  $\pm 4^\circ$  anti-symmetric on both side of shocked center. However, the rotation is mainly about Z axis and the extent is around  $\pm 60 \mu\text{m}$  from the center of shocked region which is larger than that in  $\langle 001 \rangle$  direction. In  $\langle 111 \rangle$  direction, both rotation around X and Z axis is observed and the anti-symmetric value is  $\pm 4^\circ$  between  $\pm 50 \mu\text{m}$  from the center of shocked region.



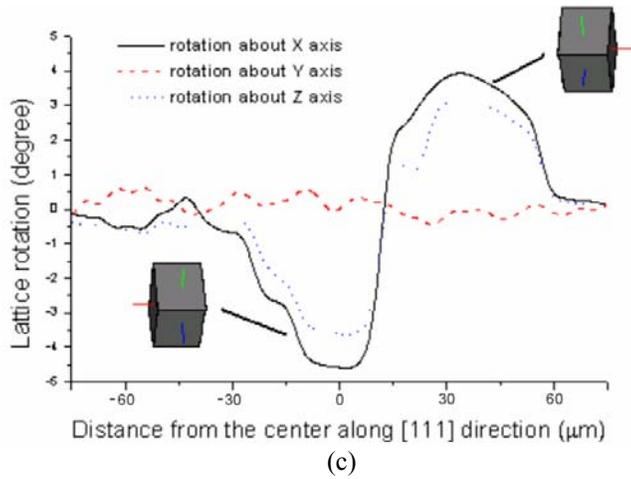


Fig. 8 Crystalline orientation change on sample surface

### 3. SIMULATIONS

#### 3.1 Three dimensional FEM simulations

In this section, 3D FEM analyses were carried out to analyze the material response for single crystal Aluminum under  $\mu$ LSP. Instead of assuming a two-dimensional deformation state, the material deformation is considered as full three dimensional problem. Based on the theory of [11], a user-material subroutine (UMAT) for single crystal plasticity written by Huang [12] and modified by Kysar [13] is incorporated into the finite element analysis using the general purpose finite element program ABAQUS/Standard. The details about the single crystal plasticity can be found in [5]. The simulation is a two-step quasi-static loading and unloading process corresponding to the shock peening and relaxation processes. Only a quarter of the shocked sample need be computed due to sample geometric symmetry, and the selected computation domain is a 300 micron scale. In the simulation, 11, 22 and 33 direction are chosen as [001], [110] and [1 $\bar{1}$ 0] direction which correspond to the X, Y and Z coordinates in Figure 1. The typical von mises stress distribution through simulation is shown in Fig. 9. The loading conditions of the 3D model are as follows. On top surface (1-3 plane), the spatially non-uniform shock pressure with a Gaussian spatial distribution with its  $1/e^2$  radius equals to  $\sqrt{2}R$  is applied, where  $R$  is the radius of plasma (Zhang and Yao, 2000a). Let  $x$  and  $z$  be the distance from the center of the laser beam along 1 and 3 directions, the spatially non-uniform shock pressure  $P(x, z)$  is then given as

$$P(x, z) = P_0 \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + z^2}{2R^2}\right) \quad (1)$$

on the shocked surface.  $P_0$  is the peak value of shock pressure and the plasma radius  $R=6\mu\text{m}$  here. In order to make a dimensionless analysis, all simulation results are normalized as the function of two dimensionless parameters ( $P_0 / \tau_{CRSS}, x / R$ ).

Due to the geometric symmetry, symmetric boundary conditions are applied on 1-2 and 2-3 plane and the bottom surface is fixed in position, while all the other side surfaces are traction free. On the top surface, surface traction equals the applied shock pressure. In order to eliminate the “volume-

locking” that occurs in plastic deformation simulation, 8-node linear brick elements with reduced integration and hourglass stiffness control were used.

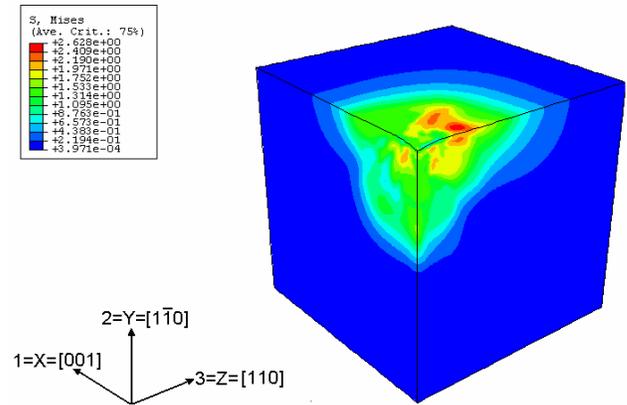


Fig. 9 Typical 3-D FEM simulation result, only quarter of the sample is simulated due to symmetry along X and Z axis ( $200 \times 200 \times 200 \mu\text{m}$ ). Deformation in the shocked region is magnified by a factor of 5 for viewing clarity.

#### 3.2 Deformation geometry from FEM simulation

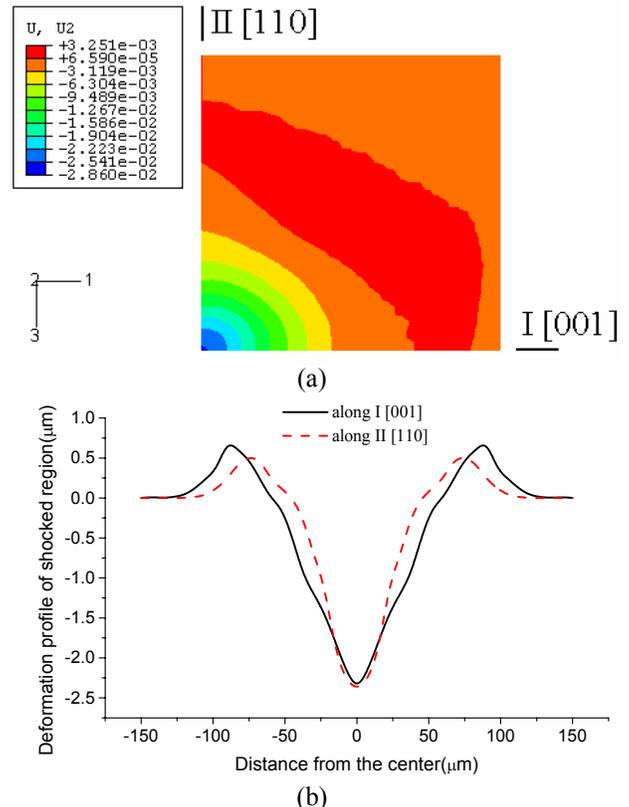


Fig. 10 Depth displacement distribution on sample surface from FEM simulation  
(a) Depth deformation contour ( $150 \times 150 \mu\text{m}$ ) (b) Depth distribution along line I and II

Fig. 10(a) shows the deformation depth distribution on the shocked surface predicted by 3-D FEM simulation. The red region corresponds approximately to the material pile up which is positive and the blue region corresponds the maximum depth of shocked region. It is clear that the deformation is not axisymmetric due to the anisotropic property of single crystal. Fig. 10(b) shows the predicted surface profile along line I and II. The distribution is similar with the AFM measurements of that in Fig. 2. Thus, the typical deformation geometry under  $\mu$ LSP is not a circular but an ellipse-like dent. Deformation extends farther along [001] direction than nalong the [110] direction.

The difference in extent of the shocked region in the [001] and [110] directions is related either to the anisotropic elasticity or the anisotropic plastic behavior, or both. We first consider the elastic behavior. For a cubic crystal, the compliance matrix only has three independent component  $S_{11}$ ,  $S_{12}$ ,  $S_{44}$ . The Young's modulus along 001 and 110 direction is

$$E_{[001]} = \frac{1}{S_{11}} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{and } E_{[110]} = \frac{2}{S_{11} + S_{12} + S_{44} / 2} \quad (3)$$

Given the  $S_{11}=1.57$ ,  $S_{12}=-0.57$ ,  $S_{44}=3.54$ ,  $E_{[001]}=0.637$ ,  $E_{[110]}=0.722$ . Thus, the Young's modulus along [110] direction is somewhat greater than that in [001] direction, which may account for some of the difference.

In order to study the plastic an isotropic character in detail, the Schmidt factor of each active slip systems needs to be investigated. Suppose the loading direction is  $l$ , the slip plane normal is  $n$ , the slip direction is  $s$ , the Schmidt factor can be represented as  $\cos\phi \times \cos\lambda = (n \cdot l) \times (s \cdot l)$ , where  $\phi$  is the angle between  $n$  and  $l$  and  $\lambda$  is the angle between  $s$  and  $l$ . The twelve slip systems in FCC Al are as follows and the loading direction is  $[1\bar{1}0]$  as seen in Fig. 1.

Table 1

Slip plane $n$	Slip direction $s$	Schmidt factor for loading direction $l=[1\bar{1}0]$
(111)	$[\bar{1}10]$ $[10\bar{1}]$ $[0\bar{1}1]$	0 0 0
$(\bar{1}11)$	$[110]$ $[101]$ $[0\bar{1}1]$	0 $-1/\sqrt{6}$ $-1/\sqrt{6}$
$(1\bar{1}1)$	$[110]$ $[10\bar{1}]$ $[011]$	0 $1/\sqrt{6}$ $-1/\sqrt{6}$
$(11\bar{1})$	$[\bar{1}10]$ $[101]$ $[011]$	0 0 0

As seen in Table 1, for uniaxial loading along  $[1\bar{1}0]$  direction, four of the twelve slip systems will be activated simultaneously since the magnitude of Schmidt factors are the

same. As is well-known, six strains are necessary to specify an arbitrary strain state. The assumption of constant volume for plastic strain requires that the trace of the plastic strain tensor be zero. As a consequence, there are only 5 independent components of plastic strain so that five active slip systems are needed to achieve any arbitrary  $\varepsilon_{ij}$ . Since only four slip systems are activated in the present case, an arbitrary deformation state can not be attained. Rice [14] showed that the four slip systems under question can combine to form two effective slip systems which act in the (110) plane when they are activated in equal amounts. An arbitrary deformation state within that plane can be achieved because under plane strain condition there are only two independent plastic strain components and two slip systems. Thus, the shock loading generates a predominately plane deformation state in (110) plane, which is along the direction of line I [001]. Therefore, plastic deformation along [001] direction (line I) is much easier than that in [110] direction (line II), which accounts for the ellipse-like structure of the shocked region.

### 3.3 Approximate residual stress distribution from simulation

Through 3-D FEM simulation, the distribution of residual stress induced by  $\mu$ LSP can be studied and compared with X-ray measurement result which can be considered as the average stress along a certain depth below sample surface.

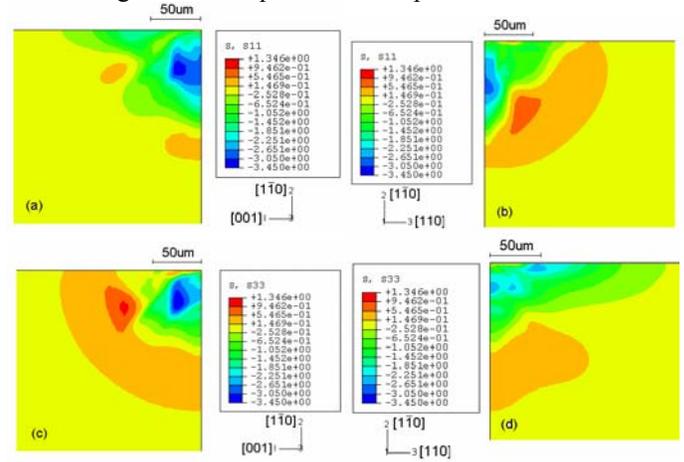


Fig. 11 FEM simulation of residual stress distribution at different cross section (Axis 1: [001] direction, Axis 2: [1-10] direction, Axis 3: [110] direction) (a)  $\sigma_{11}$  on 12 plane, (b)  $\sigma_{11}$  on 23 plane, (c)  $\sigma_{33}$  on 12 plane, (d)  $\sigma_{33}$  on 23 plane

Fig. 11 shows the residual stress distribution in 11 and 33 direction which is parallel to the sample surface. It is clear that the magnitude and sign of residual stress is similar for  $\sigma_{11}$  and  $\sigma_{33}$  and compressive residual stress is encompassed by the tensile stress due to the force equilibrium. In the sub-profile analysis of X-ray diffraction profile, it is assumed that bi-axis stress state exists in sample surface and the calculated lateral residual stress is an approximation for  $\sigma_{11}$  and  $\sigma_{33}$ . In order to study the anisotropic property of single crystal under  $\mu$ LSP, the  $\sigma_{11}$ ,  $\sigma_{33}$  distribution in different cross section 12 and 23 are shown in Fig 11 (a)-(d). In cross section 12, if we consider

$\sigma_{11}$  and  $\sigma_{33}$  together, the magnitude of compressive stress is around three times the tensile stress and occurs from the center to 40  $\mu\text{m}$  away. The tensile stress occurs from 80  $\mu\text{m}$  away from the center and extend to 100 $\mu\text{m}$ . This result is consistent with the lateral residual stress distribution along 11 direction by X-ray measurement. In cross section 23, the magnitude of compressive stress and the lateral extent is smaller than that in 12 plane, which is observed in the lateral stress along 22 direction in X-ray measurement.

Thus, both FEM simulation and X-ray measurement shows the same trend for compressive and tensile stress distribution along different direction which is caused by the anisotropic characteristic of single crystal. It is found that the compressive residual stress is easier to generate in (001) direction than (111) and (110) direction, which is beneficial to the fatigue life improvement after  $\mu\text{LSP}$ .

### 3.4 Comparison of residual stress between 2-D and 3-D deformation state

Followed the study of Chen et al. in 2003, the deformation state is approximately two dimensional if one shocked line is applied on sample surface. The lateral residual stress ( $S_{11}$ ) distribution on the cross section of the shocked line from 2-D FEM simulation is shown in Fig. 12(a), the compressive residual stress is dominate near the sample surface (0~40 $\mu\text{m}$  below the surface) while the tensile stress is found concentrated at the deeper level. Fig. 12(b) shows the distribution of residual stress  $\sigma_{11}$  in 3-D FEM simulation. In order to do the comparison, the crystal orientation of 1, 2, 3 is the same in 2-D and 3-D simulation. In the 12 cross section, 3-D simulation shows that the tensile residual stress is small compared with the compressive stress and most tensile stress exists in 23 cross section instead of the bottom of 12 cross section.

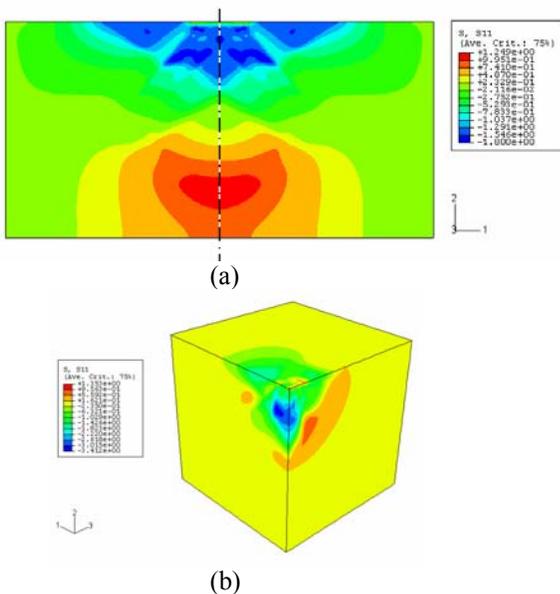


Fig. 12 Residual stress comparison between 2-D and 3-D simulation.

(a)  $S_{11}$  in 2-D simulation,  $200 \times 100 \mu\text{m}$  (b)  $s_{11}$  in 3-D simulation, only quarter of the sample is simulated due to symmetry along 1 and 3 axis,  $100 \times 100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}$

### 3.5 Lattice rotation field from simulation

Through FEM analysis of material response under  $\mu\text{LSP}$  with single crystal plasticity, the lattice rotation distribution can be simulated and compared with the EBSD measurement result.

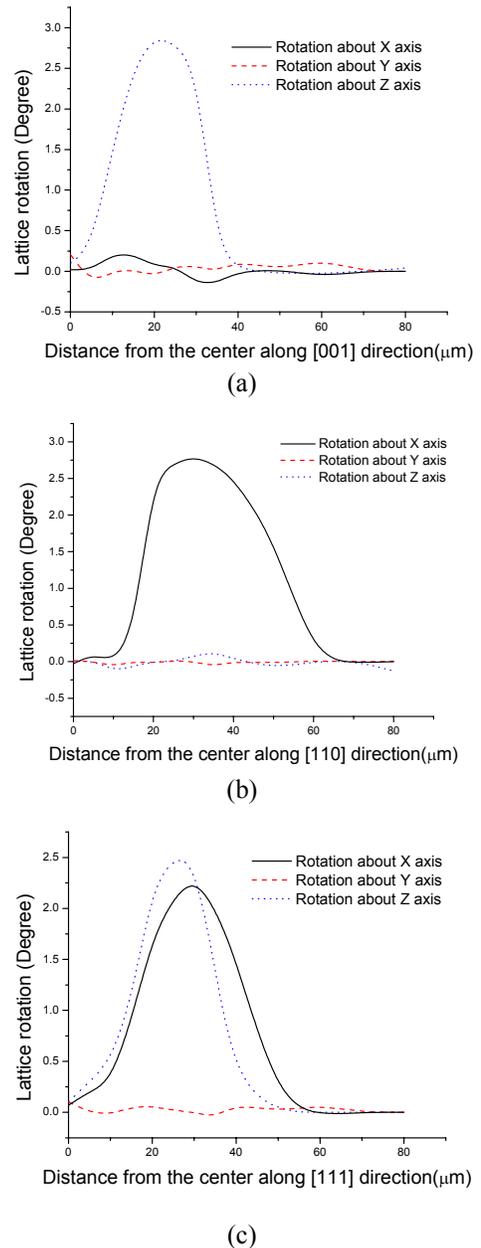


Fig. 13 Lattice rotation along the three axis on Al(110) sample surface

Fig. 13 (a-c) shows the lattice rotation around the X, Y and Z axes along different directions ( $\langle 001 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 110 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 111 \rangle$ ) on sample surface. Due to the crystalline symmetric, only one quarter of sample is shown here. The pattern is similar with that in Fig. 8 (a-c) except only half region is shown here. From the simulation, it is clear that the lattice rotation is mainly around X and Z axis while very small around Y axis which is the surface normal. Those results are consistent with the EBSD measurement in Fig. 8. The lattice rotation close to center of shocked region is near zero, when moving away from the

center, the rotation increases to a maximum value, then decreases again. The significant lattice rotation (>1 degree) occurs at 10 $\mu$ m~60 $\mu$ m in <110> direction and 10 $\mu$ m~40 $\mu$ m in <001> direction. The affect region along <111> direction is between the other two directions, which is from 10 $\mu$ m to 50 $\mu$ m. Thus, the lattice rotation is not axisymmetric about the shock center which is caused by the anisotropic characteristic of single crystal.

### 3.6 Length scale effects consideration

It is believed that in the scale of a few to a few tens of microns, the conventional plasticity theory needs to be reexamined due to the “length scale effect”. At this scale, strain gradient effects may be large enough to generate a significantly large density of geometrically necessary dislocations which will increase the flow stress in plastic deformation. According to the strain gradient theories of plasticity [15],

$$\tau = \alpha \mu b \sqrt{\rho_T} = \alpha \mu b \sqrt{\rho_S + \rho_G} \quad (4)$$

Where  $\tau$  is the flow stress,  $\mu$  is shear modulus,  $b$  is the Burger’s vector,  $\rho_T$  is the total dislocation density,  $\rho_G$  is the geometrically necessary dislocation density and  $\rho_S$  is the statistically stored dislocation density. The  $\rho_G$  is related to the deformation state by

$$\eta = \rho_G b, \quad \eta = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \quad (5)$$

where  $\eta$  is the curvature of the crystal lattice. Therefore, geometrically necessary dislocations are those required to support a particular curvature in the crystallographic lattice at any given point in a deformed material. The lattice curvature is defined as the gradient of crystal lattice rotation dislocation and is given by a non-symmetric 2<sup>nd</sup> order tensor. Generally, it is very difficult to measure all nine components of the lattice curvature tensor. However, it is possible to make an order of magnitude estimate of the lattice curvature, and hence  $\rho_G$ . Thus,

it is possible to estimate the strain gradient  $\eta_x = \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x}$ ,

$\eta_z = \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial z}$  along different direction from Fig. 8(a) and (b).

Thus, after obtaining the lattice rotation field, we can estimate the strain gradient along different crystalline direction and make it possible in the future to study the length effect in different crystal directions in  $\mu$ LSP. The average lattice curvature within the shock region can be estimated as a 5<sup>0</sup> lattice rotation over 50  $\mu$ m, as in Fig 8, which gives  $\eta \approx 1.5 \times 10^3 m^{-1}$ . With a Burger’s vector of  $2.5 \times 10^{-10} m$ , the resulting density of geometrically necessary dislocation has the order of magnitude  $\rho_G \approx 10^{13} m^{-2}$ . The total dislocation density of a highly deformed metal is typically  $\rho_T \approx 10^{15} m^{-2}$ , so plasticity length scale affects may not play the dominant role in laser shock peening.

### 3.7 Comparison of lattice rotation between 2-D and 3-D simulation

In the study of [5], a single line shock peens caused an approximate 2-D deformation state along the shock line direction. The in-plane lattice rotation was simulated using

single crystal plasticity FEM on a cross section of the shock line in 2-D plane strain condition. As seen in Fig. 14 (a), the in-plane (1-2 plane) lattice rotation is around 4 degree with no out-of-plane lattice rotation. Three dimensional FEM simulation results under identical conditions are shown in Fig. 14(b); for which the 1-2 plane has the same orientation as the 2-D simulations. The in-plane-lattice rotation is around 3 degree and the pattern is similar with that in 2-D case. Although the out-of-plane lattice rotation (10<sup>-3</sup> degree) is not zero, the lattice rotation field can still be considered as being approximated plane deformation.

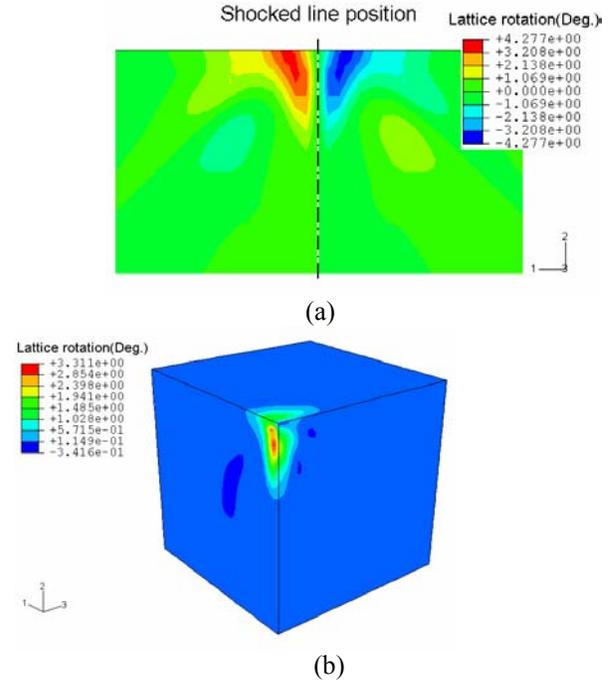


Fig. 14 Lattice rotation fields for Al(110) sample  
(a) 2D simulation , 200 $\times$ 100 $\mu$ m  
(b) 3D simulation , 100 $\times$ 100 $\times$ 100 $\mu$ m

## 4. CONCLUSIONS

In this study, 3-D plastic deformation induced by microscale laser shock peening on single crystal Aluminum (110) surface was investigated with X-ray microdiffraction, EBSD, AFM and 3-D FEM simulation based on single crystal plasticity. The laser beam size is 12 $\mu$ m with intensity at 4GW/cm<sup>2</sup>. AFM measurement show the plastic deformation region is larger in [001] direction  $\pm 60\mu$ m along <001> direction and than <110> direction  $\pm 25\mu$ m with depth around 2 $\mu$ m which is consistent with the FEM result. The spatial distribution of residual stress state in shocked region was measured by X-ray microdiffraction and the compressive residual stress is estimated to as large as up to -120MPa was found in an ellipse indentation region 50 $\times$ 80 $\mu$ m near the center and tensile stress was estimated to be up to +90MPa near the outer edge of indentation. The plastic deformation, compressive residual stress is most significant along [001] direction while the tensile stress is more concentrated in [110] direction. 3-D FEM simulation shows similar residual stress distribution as X-ray measurement. EBSD measurement and 3-D FEM simulation both show that the lattice rotation is around 3 degree up to

50 $\mu$ m away, from the shock center. The lattice rotation distribution along different crystal direction make it possible to estimate the length effect dependence on crystal orientation. Compared with 2-D plastic deformation in line shock condition, the tensile stress is closer to the sample surface in 3-D FEM simulation and lattice rotation is still under plane strain condition along the [001] across the shocked center.

The experimental methodology and results presented herein enable a systematic study of the micro scale laser shock peening process. It is now possible to systematically measure and simulate the extent and character of three dimensional plastic deformation, residual stresses and crystal lattice rotation fields with micron spatial resolution. Thus, the anisotropic plastic behavior of the single crystal under  $\mu$ LSP can be studied and these simulations will lay the ground work for more realistic simulations.

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