

Invariance of the Dissipative Action at Ultrahigh Strain Rates Above the Strong Shock Threshold

Jonathan C. Crowhurst,* Michael R. Armstrong,† Kimberly B. Knight, Joseph M. Zaug, and Elaine M. Behymer

Physical and Life Sciences Directorate, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore, California 94550, USA

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We have directly resolved shock structures in pure aluminum in the first few hundred picoseconds subsequent to a dynamic load at peak stresses up to 43 GPa and strain rates in excess of 10^{10} s^{-1} . For strong shocks we obtain peak stresses, strain rates, and rise times. From these data, we directly validate the invariance of the dissipative action in the strong shock regime, and by comparing with data obtained at much lower strain rates show that this invariance is observed over at least 5 orders of magnitude in the strain rate. Over the same range, we similarly validate the fourth-power scaling of the strain rate with the peak stress (the Swegle-Grady relation).

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Controlled shock compression [1] has been used for decades to examine the behavior of materials under extreme conditions of pressure and temperature. In solids, a sufficiently large amplitude shock produces irreversible plastic deformation and relaxes the initial anisotropic stress. As the amplitude continues to increase, and if the shock drive is maintained, a steady-wave shock profile evolves, which propagates indefinitely without a change in form [2]. This steadiness is due to the attainment of a stable balance between the competing effects of a nonlinear stress-strain response and dissipative or viscous material behavior [3,4] (tending to steepen and broaden the shock profile, respectively). However, despite its importance in numerous contexts a fundamental understanding of shock-induced deformation is still lacking. In particular, little is understood about the behavior of materials, including metals [5], during the initial phase of shock compression and at high strain rates [6]. To a large extent this is a consequence of the relevant time scale which becomes extremely short at even quite small shock stresses [7]. Thus, shock wave profiles, although retaining finite rise times, often cannot be sufficiently well resolved to permit quantitative conclusions. A relevant example is shock compression in aluminum. Despite it being a very commonly studied and employed metal in shock wave experiments, there are no directly relevant data above strain rates of $\sim 10^7 \text{ s}^{-1}$, and recent theoretical models are still compared to data obtained 40 years ago [4,8,9]. We note too that such low strain rates correspond to stresses well below the strong shock threshold, or overdriven stress, σ_O . This historical lack of sufficient time resolution [10] has precluded testing, at high strain rates, potentially fundamental scaling laws whose verification depends directly on the ability to resolve shock wave profiles. These include one of the most general thus far observed, which is that the product of the specific energy dissipated by the shock and the time over which this takes place, is invariant [4]. As suggested by the discussion of Grady [4], we refer to this product as the dissipative action, A .

Within the last 15 years, very high time resolution has been achieved using laser-based techniques [11–19]; however, a physical picture of plasticity that is clearly consistent or inconsistent with the longer time scale experiments has not yet emerged. Here we measure shock rises in aluminum above σ_O , and obtain shock stresses, shock widths, and strain rates. We use these data to test the validity, at ultrahigh strain rates, of the invariance of the dissipative action as well as related scaling laws such as the fourth-power dependence of the strain rate, $\dot{\eta}$, on the shock stress, σ .

For a well-defined and steady shock, equation of state data may be inferred from measured values of the shock and particle velocities, u_s and u_p , respectively, via the Rankine-Hugoniot relations [1]. In the case of an optical technique [17] and a metal sample this implies measurement of the propagation time of the shock through the sample and of the time history of the position of the metal surface in response to the arrival of the shock. A schematic of the experiment is shown in Fig. 1. The arrival time of a shock at the free surface of the lower step (of thickness $h_1 = 0.72 \mu\text{m}$) is first measured (in position 1 of Fig. 1) to establish the time of injection of the nominally well-defined and fully steepened shock into the upper step (of total thickness $h_2 = 1.44 \mu\text{m}$). This approach minimizes spatial and temporal uncertainties associated with the formation of the shock due to plasma expansion which occurs over some finite but unknown depth. Another shock, in a separate shot, is then launched towards the surface of the upper step (position 2) [20–22].

Figure 2 shows two sets of free surface velocity (u_{fs}) histories for different pump pulse energies. Pump energy is larger for the histories of Fig. 2(a). The histories of Fig. 2(a), obtained at the two free surfaces, (i.e., positions 1 and 2 of Fig. 1) are qualitatively similar; the initial rise, in particular, has the same simple shape. This rise is consistent with a one-wave shock structure in which the plastic shock has overtaken the elastic precursor, i.e., a strong or overdriven shock. Data of this type allow independent

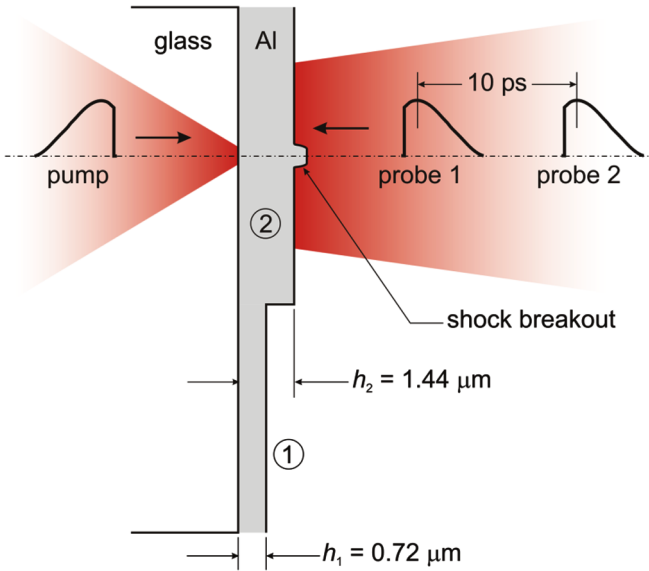


FIG. 1 (color online). Experimental configuration used for launching and probing shock waves in pure aluminum films deposited onto glass. Part of the chirped, clipped pump pulse (~ 270 ps duration, centered on 800 nm, spot diameter ~ 20 μm , rise ~ 12 ps) is absorbed by the aluminum and consequent plasma expansion drives a shock toward the free Al surface. The time history of the motion of the free surface, (up to ~ 250 ps) is obtained in one shot by interfering two probe pulses (~ 270 ps, 800 nm, ~ 200 μm , separated in time by 10 ps, pulse durations not to scale) in a grating spectrometer [17]. A moving time average of 10 ps is applied to the data [21]. Measurements are made separately at the free surface of the two steps (positions 1 and 2). Thicknesses h_1 and h_2 are, respectively, ~ 0.72 μm and ~ 1.44 μm (not to scale with focal diameters).

determination of u_p and u_s and thus shock stress and density. To determine u_p , we assumed $u_p = u_{fs}/2$ and obtained the maximum value of u_p by inspection of the initial rise [21]. To determine u_s , we divided the difference in step thickness, $h_2 - h_1$, by the difference in arrival times of the two rises (Fig. 4 of Ref [21]). The time resolution is also sufficient to allow estimation, by inspection, of the rise time, Δt , and thus the plastic shock width, $w = u_s \times \Delta t$. Furthermore, the slope of the linear part of the rise yields \dot{u}_p^{max} (Fig. 5, Ref. [21]) and thus the strain rate, $\dot{\eta} = \dot{u}_p^{\text{max}}/u_s$. Figure 2(b) by contrast shows structured rises whose shapes depend on propagation distance. These data are discussed in more detail in Ref. [21]; here we analyze strong shocks (Table 1, Ref. [21]) with the structure shown in Fig. 2(a) in order to make comparisons with the known Hugoniot of aluminum. (See Fig. 6 of Ref. [21], which shows our data for u_p and u_s and reported values for 1100 Al [23,24] and 6061 Al [23]. Average deviations of our steady data from the relation [23] for 1100 Al of $u_s = 5.38 + 1.34u_p$ are less than a percent.) We note that the stress at which we clearly observe one-wave structures yields a lower limit for σ_0 ; specifically for propagation

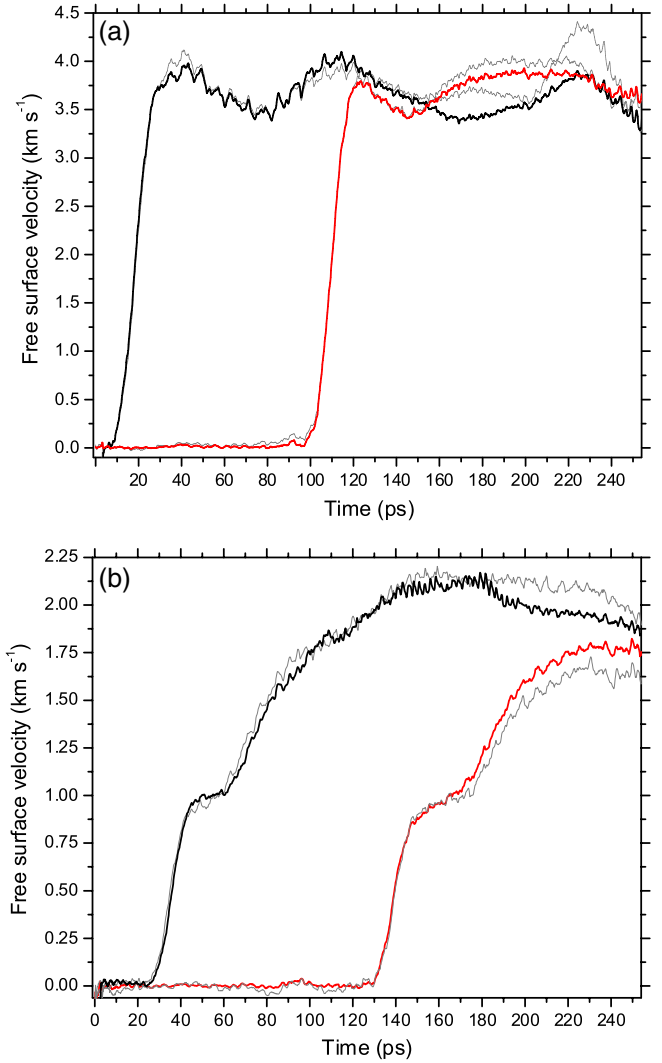


FIG. 2 (color online). Free surface velocity histories measured at positions 1 and 2 of Fig. 1 for decreasing pump pulse energies. The black (red) line is the numerical average of three separate shots at position 1 (2); the thin gray lines are an example of one of the individual shots. The origin on the time axis is arbitrary. Shock rises in (a) imply a single wave structure, (b) a two wave structure containing a highly unrelaxed elastic precursor in addition to the plastic rise. Time histories correspond to shocks well above the overdreven limit (a) and below it (b). The average amplitude of the shock in (a) is ~ 40 GPa (Table 1 of Ref. [21]); the average amplitude of the elastic precursor in (b) is ~ 9.2 GPa at position 1, (Table 2 of Ref. [21]).

distances of 1.44 μm after initiation in aluminum, the overdreven threshold exceeds ~ 25 GPa. This may be compared with the value obtained by intersecting the known u_p - u_s relation with a constant elastic wave speed of 6.41 km s^{-1} of ~ 13.3 GPa (see the note in Ref. [21]).

In Fig. 3 we compare our measured widths to theoretical calculations for 6061-T6 Al by Molinari and Ravichandran [8]. The latter considered shock stresses in the range of 1 GPa to 15 GPa. By combining these results with ours we

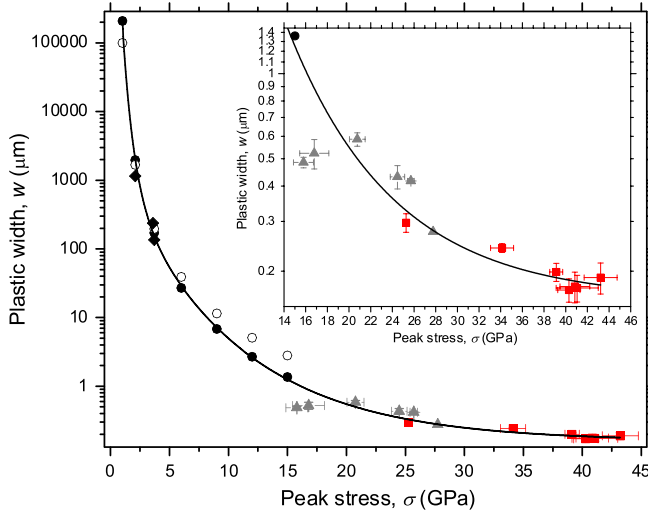


FIG. 3 (color online). Measured plastic shock widths compared to literature values. Red squares: widths corresponding to the present data having rises of the form shown in Fig. 2(a). Gray triangles: rough estimations for nonsteady shocks. Uncertainties are standard deviations for nominally fixed pump energies (hence no uncertainties are quoted for single traces). Diamonds: calculated values for the data of Ref. [3] that were obtained from Ref. [28] for 6061-T6 Al. Open and solid circles: theoretical results for 6061-T6 Al of Ref. [8] with different model parameters. The black line is a fit to the solid circles and red squares only in order to permit interpolation: $\log w = 4.1e^{-\sigma/9.8} + 6.7e^{-\sigma/0.97} - 0.8$, with the width in micrometers and peak stress in GPa (See Ref. [21] for further details).

see that from 1 GPa to ~ 43 GPa the shock width decreases from ~ 10 – 20 cm to ~ 0.2 micrometers, i.e., by a factor of more than 10^5 . This implies that above 40 GPa the shock is fully risen within several hundred atomic layers. On the basis of the work by Bland [25], Swegle and Grady [3] define the dimensionless Bland number, $B = 3hs\dot{\eta}/8c$, where h is the sample thickness and s and c are the slope and the intercept, respectively, of the u_p - u_s relation. For $B > 1$ steady-wave conditions may be expected to hold with some confidence but for smaller values steady-wave conditions are doubtful [3]. Our overdriven data shown in Fig. 3 have B mostly larger than 1 (Table 1, Ref. [21]). For this calculation and all those that follow we assumed $c = 5.38 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, and $s = 1.34$). For propagation distances of $\sim 1.5 \mu\text{m}$, this corresponds to a minimum shock stress of ~ 30 GPa. Below this stress, measured shock fronts will exhibit very large (up to ~ 10 GPa) elastic rises with fast rise times followed by slower plastic rises [Fig. 2(b)] (see also Refs. [18,19,26]). On this basis we conclude that reported observations of plastic shocks with very small widths at anomalously low stresses [13] were, in reality, observations of large amplitude elastic precursors (Fig. 8 of Ref. [21]). See also Ref. [18]).

It has been empirically observed that the strain rate of steady shocks in metals is related to the shock stress σ by a

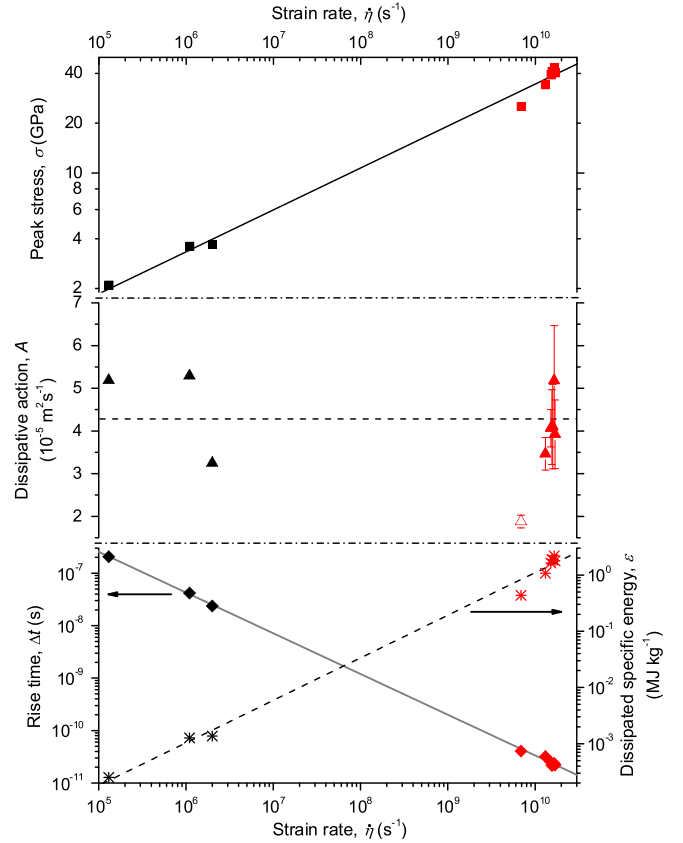


FIG. 4 (color online). Dissipative action, A (triangles), rise time Δt (diamonds), dissipated specific energy ε (stars), and peak stress σ (squares), plotted against strain rate $\dot{\eta}$. Red symbols: present data. Black symbols: strain rate data of Ref. [3] that were obtained from Ref. [28] and our corresponding calculated values for A , Δt , and ε . Straight line fits to Δt , ε , and σ yield: $\log \Delta t = -2.7 - 0.78 \log \dot{\eta}$, $\log \varepsilon = -7.5 + 0.76 \log \dot{\eta}$, and $\log \sigma = -0.99 + 0.25 \log \dot{\eta}$, respectively, with Δt in s, ε in MJ kg^{-1} , σ in GPa, and $\dot{\eta}$ in s^{-1} . The dashed line in the middle panel is the average of all values of A except the lowest stress point of the present data (open triangle) and is equal to $\sim 4.3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$.

power law [3,4] of the form $\dot{\eta} \propto \sigma^m$, and that furthermore $m \approx 4$. As noted earlier, this relationship has been verified experimentally only at relatively low strain rates due to the fact that the experimental time resolution has historically been limited. In Fig. 4 we have plotted on a log-log scale measured peak [27] shock stresses against measured strain rates for our overdriven shocks (upper panel). Also plotted is the lower strain rate data of Barker [28] for 6061-T6 Al presented by Swegle and Grady [3,29]. Remarkably, we find that the linear relationship between $\log \sigma$ and $\log \dot{\eta}$ is maintained over an enormous range of strain rates (10^5 s^{-1} to at least 10^{10} s^{-1}) and that the inverse of the corresponding slope is very close to 4. This value may be compared to the theoretical estimates of 3.92 and 3.3 (Refs. [8,9], respectively). We note that our lowest stress datum (at ~ 25 GPa) is substantially below the straight line trend;

however, it is also true that the Bland number for this point was less than one (Table 1, Ref. [21]). This is consistent with the fact that the fourth-power law is expected to hold only for steady waves and is comparable to the behavior observed for shocks in vanadium [30] that were shown to be nonsteady [4,31].

As pointed out by Grady [4], the fourth-power relation was not the original expression that was proposed to be generally applicable. Instead, it had earlier been suggested that the product of the energy dissipated by the shock wave and the time over which this takes place is an invariant [32]. Whereas the fourth-power law is only applicable to steady waves, the invariance applies generally to both steady and nonsteady waves [4]. Furthermore, this product has units of specific energy \times time, or length²/time and is thus consistent with (specific) action in the context of classical mechanics [4]. We test the invariance (Fig. 4, middle panel) by calculating the product $A = \varepsilon \times \Delta t$, [Eq. (5) of Grady [4]] where [32,33] $\varepsilon = [s/3\rho_0(\rho_0 c^2)^2]\sigma^3$ [Eq. (3) of Grady [4] to lowest order in $\sigma/\rho_0 c^2$]. For Δt we use our measured rise times. To compare with the data of Barker [3,28] we use Eq. (4) of Grady [4] to conveniently estimate rise times for those data, i.e., $\Delta t \cong \sigma/\rho_0 c^2 \dot{\eta}$. We find indeed that both sets of data are consistent and reasonably constant despite the very large range of strain rates and corresponding energies and rise times (lower panel of Fig. 4). We note that on the linear ordinate scale of Fig. 4 (middle panel), our nonsteady point once again appears to be an outlier which may be consistent with an inapplicability of Eq. (3) of Grady [4], which was derived for steady waves, directly to nonsteady data. Finally, we consider the related dependence of the shock viscosity on the strain rate as proposed by Grady [4]. Grady defines the viscosity as $\nu = \frac{1}{4}s\sigma\Delta t$ [Eq. (9) of Grady [4], in terms of peak stress[27]]. On the basis of the invariance of the dissipative action and the fourth-power law we expect in turn that $\nu \propto \dot{\eta}^{-1/2}$. Figure 9 of Ref. [21] confirms this result.

In conclusion we have shown that fourth-power scaling and invariance of the dissipative action hold even at ultrahigh strain rates above the overdriven threshold in aluminum. Together with the consistency of our strong shock data with the known u_p - u_s relation we also conclude that above σ_O , the dynamic behavior at early times in thin ($\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$) Al films cannot be distinguished from that of much thicker (i.e., bulk) material.

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*crowhurst1@llnl.gov

†armstrong30@llnl.gov

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