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## Modeling of Young's modulus variations with temperature of Ni and oxidized Ni using a magneto-mechanical approach.

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#### Abstract

Thin films and coatings are usually used to give functional properties to the surface of the underlying substrate but are never seen as load bearing due to a very low film to substrate thickness ratio. However, this ratio can increase in some specific domains (such as transportation), where the weight reduction is a high stake. This study deals with the influence of the thermally grown oxide (TGO) NiO on the evolution of the elastic modulus of nickel with temperature. For pure nickel, the Young's modulus evolves non-linearly with temperature, from room temperature up to 360°C, corresponding to the Curie temperature of nickel. The amplitude of these variations can be drastically reduced with the presence of the NiO TGO. The purpose of this study is to propose a modeling of these phenomenon using magneto-mechanical approach. A first analytical modeling takes the change of the saturation magnetization, of the initial anhysteretic susceptibility and of the maximal magnetostriction with a relaxation of magneto-crystalline anisotropy concomitant to increasing temperature, into account. The second modeling is a numerical modeling giving the average behavior of a representative volume element. It allows a continuous description of the change with temperature of the Young's modulus and a clear interpretation of the effect of a coating. This gives an insight for future promising applications.

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#### 1 1. Introduction

Thin films and coatings are generally used to give functional properties to 2 the surface of the underlying substrate. For example, they play an important 3 role of diffusion barriers to prevent the degradation of the substrate by oxida-4 tion when used at high temperature [1]; they can be used to prevent wear and 5 erosion, or to provide lubrication and thermal insulation [2]. Various chemi-6 cal and/or physical deposition techniques (with various compositions) can be used or they can develop naturally, resulting for example from the oxidation 8 of the surface in a controlled atmosphere (thermally grown oxide TGO) [3]. g Generally, these films are very thin and are not seen as load bearing. In some 10 particular applications, such as turbine blades for example, the coating to 11 substrate thickness ratio increases, inducing some peculiar mechanical behav-12 iors as observed for Young's modulus variation of oxidized nickel in a recent 13 study [4, 5]. The elastic modulus has been measured from 20°C up to 600°C. 14 Its evolution with temperature is non-linear and non monotonous from room 15 temperature up to 360°C, corresponding to the Curie temperature of nickel. 16 But the amplitude of these variations can be drastically reduced by the TGO. 17 18

<sup>19</sup> The non-monotonous Young's modulus evolution with temperature was <sup>20</sup> previously reported by many authors [6, 7, 8], known as temperature depen-<sup>21</sup> dent  $\Delta E$  effect. Its relation with the mechanical or magnetic state of material <sup>22</sup> was discussed in the early work of Bozorth [6] who reported experiments from <sup>23</sup> Siegel, Quimby and Köster [9].

24

The influence of TGO on this behavior was not reported since the work 25 of Tatat [5] (expect experiments of Huntz interpreted as internal stress re-26 arrangement [10]) and no model was proposed to simulate the variation of 27 pure nickel Young's modulus with temperature and model the influence of 28 the oxide layer on this behavior. Actually, it was suspected to arise from a 29 long-range modification of the internal stresses within the substrate. This 30 interpretation seems accurate considering that stress is well known to change 31 significantly the magnetic behavior [6, 7, 11] and the apparent Young's mod-32

<sup>33</sup> ulus of a wide range of magnetic materials [12].

34

The purpose of this paper is to propose a modeling of the variation of 35 Young's modulus of Ni and Ni-NiO layers with temperature using a magneto-36 mechanical approach. As these approaches usually consider the influence of 37 multiaxial stress on the magneto-mechanical behavior, they allow an accu-38 rate modeling of both Young's modulus (seen a stress vs strain ratio for a 39 low stress amplitude) and internal stress effect. Experimental results are first 40 reminded. Two modeling approaches are then proposed: an analytical mod-41 eling first based on a room temperature  $\Delta E$  effect modeling [12]; a numerical 42 implementation is secondly detailed based on the work of Daniel [13] allowing 43 a continuous description of the Young's modulus variations with temperature 44 and taking the TGO, or any other coating nature leading to residual stresses, 45 into account. 46

#### 47 2. Experimental results and interpretation

#### 48 2.1. Material and experimental features

A pure (>99%) 2 mm thick polycrystalline nickel has been used for the 49 experimental study [4, 5]; the initial grain size of the Ni samples is about 50  $30 \ \mu m$ . After a soft mechanical polishing, samples have been oxidized in 51 synthetic air (80% nitrogen, 20% oxygen) during 1h30 at 1110°C to form 52 NiO coatings and then furnace cooled at approximately 300°C/h. The spec-53 imen was exposed to an  $Ar - H_2$  flow to limit the oxidation prior to the 54 target temperature and during cooling. The oxidation was simultaneously 55 performed on the two opposite free surfaces of the Ni samples. After oxida-56 tion, the thickness of the NiO coatings has been estimated at 16  $\mu$ m thick 57 (figure 1). Electron Back Scattered Diffraction (EBSD) measurements were 58 carried out on a polished sample after oxidation (for a  $40 \text{mm}^2$  area - 10 mm59  $\times$  4mm). Figure 2 shows a typical example of inverse pole figure (with re-60 spect to the normal direction ND) obtained after oxidizing. The grain size of 61 the Ni substrate has evolved substantially by growing up to about 280  $\mu$ m. 62 Texture index concludes on the other hand to a quasi-isotropic distribution 63 of orientations: the material can be considered as isotropic. 64

The elastic properties of the specimens were investigated from room temperature (RT) up to 600°C by means of the resonant frequency technique in bending mode [14] in the 1-10 kHz range (the temperature range 20°C to 68 600°C was chosen in order to make sure to measure the material behavior



Figure 1: SEM observation of typical NiO oxide layer after oxidizing in synthetic air during 1h30 at  $1110^{\circ}$ C.



Figure 2: Inverse pole figure (normal direction ND) obtained by EBSD on the Ni sample after oxidizing treatment.

<sup>69</sup> well above the Curie temperature). This method is detailed hereafter: In <sup>70</sup> the case of a bulk material, the longitudinal Young's modulus (E) can be <sup>71</sup> deduced using the following relation [15]:

$$E = 0.9464\rho f^2 \frac{L^4}{h^2} \zeta \tag{1}$$

72

where f is the flexural resonance frequency,  $\rho$  the density, h and L, the

beam thickness (0.5 to 2 mm) and span length (20 to 30 mm), and  $\zeta$ , a 73 correcting factor close to 1. The sample is maintained horizontally between 74 steel wires located at the vibration nodes. Both excitation and detection 75 are performed using an electrostatic device (capacitance created between the 76 sample and a unique electrode). Using this set-up, the Young's modulus can 77 be measured from -150°C up to 1100°C without any harmful contact. The 78 heating rate can be as low as 1°C/min and high vacuum ( $\approx 10^{-4}$  Pa) is used 79 to hinder or limit the specimen oxidation. The accuracy of this method is 80 better than 0.5% for conductive bulk materials whatever the rigidity range. 81 An important feature of this technique lies in the very low applied stress 82 level, less than 1 MPa. 83

84

#### 85 2.2. Variation of Young's modulus

Figure 3 shows the evolution of the Young's modulus of the specimens 86 with temperature [4]. The measurements reported here were performed us-87 ing the same Ni substrate; the Young's modulus was first measured on the 88 laminated state before oxidation, secondly on the two-sides oxidized speci-89 men (*i.e.* two NiO coatings) and, finally, after removing one and both NiO 90 coatings successively by fine polishing (noted as "peeled off samples" in the 91 following). The procedure to remove the oxide, based on conventional met-92 allographic techniques, included an ultimate step of fine chemo-mechanical 93 polishing in order to reach a very low roughness without work hardening *i.e.* 94 no additional residual stresses in the sub-surface. 95

Two domains are clearly evidenced in figure 3, depending on the tempera-96 ture. Above approximately  $T = 360^{\circ}$ C, the evolution of the elastic modulus is 97 quite similar regardless to the specimen state, characterized by the expected 98 linear decrease of the Young's modulus with the temperature. A slight dif-99 ference between non-oxidized and oxidized substrates can be observed due 100 to composite effect: the Young's modulus of NiO is usually higher than the 101 Young's modulus of pure Ni; its value depends strongly on oxidizing temper-102 ature and oxide porosity [4]. It must be emphasized that the increase of the 103 grain size from 30 to 280  $\mu$ m does not act on the modulus of the substrate 104 (the experimental technique integrates all the sample volume). 105

106

<sup>107</sup> Below this threshold temperature, the Young's modulus depends strik-<sup>108</sup> ingly on the structural configuration of the specimens:



Figure 3: Variation of Young's modulus with temperature for different specimens.

- the presence of the NiO oxide layer representing only about 3% of the total thickness on the Ni substrate significantly influences the value of the elastic modulus (apparent Young's modulus  $E_a$ ) at a temperature range between 90°C and 360°C.
- the variation of the Young's modulus at 260°C for oxidized samples can be associated to the Néel temperature transition of NiO.
- the maximum deviation of  $E_a$  is about 9% between nickel and nickeloxide.

#### 117 2.3. Estimation of residual stresses

The residual stresses have been determined at RT using the X-ray diffraction (XRD) so-called  $sin^2\psi$  method [16] where  $\psi$  is defined as the angle between the normal to the sample surface and the normal to the diffracting

planes. X-ray measurements were carried out using a four-circle diffractome-121 ter (Seifert XRD 3003) operating at 40 kV and 40 mA, with a Cu X-ray tube 122  $(\lambda_{K\alpha} = 0.15418 \text{ nm})$  equipped with a 1×1 mm<sup>2</sup> point focus and a Ni filter on 123 the direct beam path to absorb the Cu  $K\alpha$  radiation. The incident beam was 124 collimated using a collimator 1 mm in diameter and targeted on the samples 125 mounted on an Eulerian cradle for  $\psi$  tilting. The X-ray measurements have 126 been performed for fourteen different  $\psi$  angles for two independent plane 127 families, namely  $\{331\}$  and  $\{420\}$ . The residual stress state was calculated 128 from the lattice strains assuming a planar equibiaxial stress state and using 129 the X-ray elastic constants [17]. For a polycrystalline quasi-isotropic mate-130 rial of Young's modulus E and Poisson's ratio  $\nu$ , the biaxial residual stress 131 state of magnitude  $\sigma^r$  is given by the slope of  $\sin(\theta)^{-1} = f(\sin^2 \psi)$  function 132 following: 133

$$\frac{\sin(\theta_0)}{\sin(\theta)} = \sigma^r \left(\frac{(1+\nu)\sin^2\psi - 2\nu}{E}\right) + 1 \tag{2}$$

where  $\theta$  and  $\theta_0$  indicate the Bragg's angle of the diffracting plane with 134 or without stress respectively. The technique was used to evaluate the resid-135 ual stress level inside both the as-received material and the material after 136 oxidation [5]. In the as-received state the material exhibits a high level of 137 residual stress in sub-surface that corresponds to a biaxial compression of 138 amplitude  $-130\pm30$  MPa. This surface stress state should be equilibrated by 139 an internal bi-tension stress that can unfortunately not be estimated because 140 the transition area between these two fields cannot clearly be defined. It can 141 be considered that thermal treatment completely reduces this stress field to 142 zero since a global recrystallization mechanism occurs. 143

144

After oxidation, the internal stresses have only been determined in the 145 NiO coatings. Actually the X-Ray diffraction analysis is not possible in the 146 Ni layer due to the large grain size. Internal stresses in NiO correspond 147 to an equibicompression of amplitude  $-550\pm50$  MPa [5]. Similar compressive 148 stresses values are reported in literature [10, 19]. They mainly result from the 149 thermal mismatch coefficients between the coating and the substrate. Indeed 150 dilatation coefficients for NiO and Ni are respectively:  $\alpha_{NiO} = 14.5 \times 10^{-6} \mathrm{K}^{-1}$ 151 and  $\alpha_{Ni} = 17.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{K}^{-1}$  [18, 19]. The thermal stresses distribution in the 152 Ni layer has been determined from a simple beam analysis integrating the 153 experimental values obtained for the oxide coatings thickness and residual 154 stress, and considering a global equilibrium (force and momentum equilib-155

rium). For NiO-Ni-NiO system, the in-plane stress in the Ni substrate is a bi-tension and remains constant over the entire thickness  $(+9\pm1 \text{ MPa})$ , while for Ni-NiO the stress decreases linearly from a bi-tension  $(+18\pm2 \text{ MPa})$  to a bi-compression state  $(-9\pm1 \text{ MPa})$  giving an average value of  $+3\pm1 \text{ MPa}$ . After removal of the double oxide coating, it may be assumed that the Ni layer is completely internal stress free.

162

As seen in figure 3 and table 1, internal stresses of few MPa are sufficient to significantly modify the apparent Young's modulus of nickel. Results reported in table 1 correspond to the estimated average biaxial stress inside the Ni Layer.

Table 1: Change of  $\Delta E$  effect with biaxial residual stress level of amplitude  $\sigma^r$ .

Configuration	Cold rolled	2-sides oxidized	1-side oxidized	Peeled-off
$\Delta E/E(\%)$	0	-3	-8	-11
$\sigma^r$ (MPa)	unknown	+9	+3 (average)	0

#### 167 2.4. Results interpretation

The non monotonous change of Young's modulus with temperature and effect of TGO cannot be explained by a classical mechanical rule of mixture but by magneto-elastic considerations. Ni is a ferromagnetic material exhibiting magnetic domains below its Curie temperature,  $T_C$ , equal to 360°C [6].

The observed evolution of pure Ni Young's modulus for increasing temperature was already experimentally reported in literature [6, 7, 8]. This deviation from the Hooke's law is known as the  $\Delta E$  effect (" $\Delta$ " for variation) and can only be highlighted in the very first stage of stress-strain curves [13]. A relation with the magnetic character of the material can be made considering:

179 1. The phenomenon is strongly dependent on the magnetization M of the 180 layer: at the magnetic saturation  $(M = M_s; M_s:$  saturation magne-181 tization of the material) the non-linear variation of Young's modulus 182 progressively vanishes. 2. Young's modulus recovers its linear variation with temperature above
 the Curie temperature of the layer (360°C).

<sup>185</sup> These points are illustrated in figure 4a.



Figure 4: Apparent Young's modulus of nickel vs. Temperature: (a) effect of magnetization to saturation magnetization ratio  $(I/I_s)$ ; (b) effect of mechanical condition ("internal stress") and thermal annealing [6] - NB:  $10^{12}$ [Dynes/cm<sup>2</sup>]= $10^{2}$ [GPa];  $10^{3}$ [Kg/mm<sup>2</sup>]=9.81[GPa] $\approx 10$ [GPa].

As magnetic properties of ferromagnetic materials depend on the tem-186 perature, the amplitude of  $\Delta E$  effect can change. In particular, the magne-187 tocrystalline anisotropy (determining for a single crystal the most favorable 188 magnetization direction) decreases significantly while the temperature in-189 creases, especially from RT up to 100°C for Ni [6]. Hence, with increasing 190 temperature, the magnetic moments direction becomes progressively more 191 sensitive to the mechanical stress, enhancing the  $\Delta E$  effect. From approxi-192 mately  $T = 200^{\circ}C$  to the Curie temperature, the spontaneous magnetization 193 (and consequently the magnetostriction) of Ni quickly decreases down to 0: 194 the ferromagnetic properties disappear (magnetostrictive and exchange con-195 stants progressively decrease to zero). This latter point explains that the  $\Delta E$ 196

effect is gradually weakened and vanishes at  $T_C$  when the material becomes paramagnetic.

199

The role of stress is another point to consider. For cold worked nickel (as 200 received material), the decrease of Young's modulus is regular following a 20 classical linear variation with temperature (figure 3). Thermal annealing at 202 increasing temperature progressively enhances the non-linear phenomenon as 203 experimentally observed and reported in figure 4b [6]. The internal stress as-204 sociated to plasticity acts as a magnetic saturation; the stress relieving at in-205 creasing annealing temperature acts as a demagnetization. The effect of oxide 206 layers is another typical example of coupling to stress. X-rays measurements 20 indicates that the substrate is submitted to residual stresses. Single-layer or 208 two-layers situations do not lead to the same stress level. The amplitude of 209 non-linearity of Young's modulus is changed. The highest amplitude of  $\Delta E$ 210 effect is reached for peeled off sample where residual stress reduces to zero. 21 212

Considering finally that the measurement method is based on a stress loading, a quantitative modeling of these phenomena requires to use a fully coupled magneto-mechanical approach and to consider the effect of temperature on the parameters involved in this coupling.

#### 217 3. Modeling

#### 218 3.1. $\Delta E$ effect definition

The so-called  $\Delta E$  effect is one of the manifestations of magneto-elastic 219 couplings in ferromagnetic materials [7]. It can be defined as the depen-220 dence of Young's modulus E of a material on its state of magnetization. The 221 Young's modulus of an originally demagnetized specimen appears to be lower 222 (by an amount  $\Delta E$ ) than the Young's modulus of the same specimen magne-223 tized at saturation (figure 5). Indeed a ferromagnetic material is subdivided 224 in magnetic domains. A magnetic domain corresponds to microscopic or-225 ganization of magnetic moments aligned together to minimize the so-called 226 exchange energy. Each magnetic domain is magnetized at saturation and 22 characterized by a free isochoric strain called magnetostriction. Due to mag-228 neto crystalline energy, orientation of magnetic domains is usually associated 229 to crystallographic axes (8 easy directions for nickel - 8 domain families). At 230 zero applied stress or magnetic field and without boundary effect, domains 231 are equally distributed so that the initial deformation and magnetization are 232

null. An increasing magnetic field leads to a progressive increase of the well oriented domain families volume so that macroscopic magnetization and deformation occur (macroscopic magnetostriction  $\epsilon^{\mu}$ ). An increasing uniaxial stress  $\sigma$  leads to a progressive increase of the well oriented domain families of opposite sign so that a macroscopic magnetostriction  $\epsilon^{\mu}$  occurs while macroscopic magnetization remains null.



Figure 5: Illustration of the  $\Delta E$  effect for a tensile-compressive test ( $\epsilon$  is the total strain); (a) principle (b) illustration for iron-cobalt alloy [20].

This magnetostriction strain  $\epsilon^{\mu}$  is superimposed to the elastic strain  $\epsilon^{el}$ , so that the total measured strain  $\epsilon$  is higher than foreseen without magnetostriction phenomenon. It is defined by equation (3), all the strains being measured in the direction parallel to the applied stress.

$$\epsilon = \epsilon^{\mu} + \epsilon^{el} \tag{3}$$

Because  $\epsilon^{\mu}$  is usually non-linear with stress and saturates, the apparent Young's modulus appears non-linear and saturates too. The stress level investigated using the resonant technique for measurement of Young's modulus is very small (<1MPa). The apparent Young's modulus  $E_a$  is given by:

$$E_a = \left( \left. \frac{d\epsilon^{\mu}}{d\sigma} \right|_{\sigma=0} + \left. \frac{d\epsilon^{el}}{d\sigma} \right|_{\sigma=0} \right)^{-1} \tag{4}$$

In case of a saturated material, the magnetic domain structure has reached a saturated configuration and the magnetostriction strain cannot evolve anymore. The apparent Young's modulus is then defined as:

$$E_a = \left. \frac{d\sigma}{d\epsilon^{el}} \right|_{\sigma=0} \tag{5}$$

leading to a higher value because  $\frac{d\epsilon^{\mu}}{d\sigma}$  is always positive [12]. This phenomenon is described by Bozorth [6] and reported in figure 4. In case of a highly deformed material, the internal stresses saturate the magnetostriction leading to the same effect.

#### 243 3.2. Analytical modeling of apparent Young's modulus

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An analytical modeling of the  $\Delta E$  effect at RT has been recently proposed 244 [12]. This approach is inspired from a multiscale model for the prediction of 245 magneto-elastic reversible behavior of ferromagnetic materials presented in 246 [13] and in Appendix A. The full multiscale model is used for a numerical 247 resolution in section 4. The simplified approach is limited to the situation 248 where no magnetic field is applied, so that the magneto-static energy does 249 not appear in the definition of the magnetic equilibrium. On the other hand 250 it has been supposed that the magneto-crystalline anisotropy energy does 251 not participate to the evolution of the magnetostriction strain. In such con-252 ditions, the elastic energy is the only energy term explicitly considered in the 253 description of the magnetic equilibrium of a domain. 254

On the other hand, an isotropic polycrystal can be seen as an aggregate of single crystals with random orientation. Polycrystal can be considered as a single crystal for which all directions would be easy directions. In one domain of such a single crystal, the magnetostriction strain tensor can be written (in its own framework):

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{m}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} \lambda_{max} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & -1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(6)

 $\lambda_{max}$  denotes the maximum magnetostriction strain of the considered polycrystal.

<sup>263</sup> A multiaxial eigen-stress tensor is considered in the macroscopic frame <sup>264</sup>  $(\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3)$  following:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & \sigma_{22} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$
(7)

265

The transformation matrix from macroscale to domain scale is given by:

$$\boldsymbol{P} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta \sin\varphi & \sin\theta & \cos\theta \cos\varphi \\ \sin\theta \sin\varphi & -\cos\theta & \sin\theta \sin\varphi \\ \cos\varphi & 0 & -\sin\varphi \end{pmatrix}$$
(8)

leading to:

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_p^{\mu} = {}^t \boldsymbol{P} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_m^{\mu} \boldsymbol{P} \tag{9}$$

<sup>267</sup> The magneto-elastic energy is given for a constant by:

$$W^{\alpha}_{\sigma} = -\boldsymbol{\sigma} : \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\mu}_{p} \tag{10}$$

that can be expressed as function of strain and stress components following:

$$W^{\alpha}_{\sigma} = -\frac{\lambda_{max}}{2} \left( \sigma_{11} (3\cos^2\theta \sin^2\varphi - 1) + \sigma_{22} (3\sin^2\theta \sin^2\varphi - 1) + \sigma_{33} (3\cos^2\varphi - 1) \right)$$
(11)

Angles  $\theta$  (0-2 $\pi$ ) and  $\varphi$  (0- $\pi$ ) define the orientation of domain in the macroscopic frame.

270

Considering homogeneous stiffness, localization operation is avoided. Theaverage magnetostriction is given by:

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\mu} = \int_{\alpha} f_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{p}^{\mu} \tag{12}$$

 $f_{\alpha}$  indicates the volume fraction of domain  $\alpha$  (see equation A.8 in Appendix A) calculated using:

$$f_{\alpha} = \frac{\exp\left(-A_s.W_{\sigma}^{\alpha}\right)}{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \exp\left(-A_s.W_{\sigma}^{\alpha}\right) \sin\varphi \, d\varphi \, d\theta} \tag{13}$$

with (see equation A.11 in Appendix A):

$$A_s = \frac{3\chi_0(T)}{\mu_0 M_s(T)^2} \frac{T^{RT}}{T}$$
(14)

 $\chi_0$  and  $M_s$  are the initial anhysteretic susceptibility (variation of anhysteretic magnetization with magnetic field) and saturation magnetization.  $\mu_0$ is the vacuum permeability (= $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$  Henry/m). T indicates the actual temperature and  $T^{RT}$  the room temperature.

A tensile test of magnitude  $\sigma$  along the macroscopic unit vector  $\vec{e}_3$  is now considered. The magneto-elastic energy expression is simplified into:

$$W^{\alpha}_{\sigma} = -\frac{1}{2}\lambda_{max}\sigma \left(3\cos^2\varphi - 1\right) \tag{15}$$

<sup>281</sup> The magnetostriction strain tensor is diagonal:

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\mu} = \frac{\pi \,\lambda_{max} \,S_2}{2 \,S_1} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} A_s \lambda_{max} \sigma\right) \, \left(\begin{array}{ccc} -1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & -1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{array}\right) \tag{16}$$

with

$$S_1 = 2\pi \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}A_s\lambda_{max}\sigma\right) \int_0^\pi \exp\left(\frac{3}{2}A_s\lambda_{max}\sigma\cos^2\varphi\right)\sin\varphi \,d\varphi \tag{17}$$

282 and,

$$S_2 = \int_0^\pi (3\cos^2\varphi - 1) \exp\left(\frac{3}{2}A_s\lambda_{max}\sigma\cos^2\varphi\right)\sin\varphi \,d\varphi \tag{18}$$

The apparent Young's modulus is measured by the resonance method corresponding to a low magnitude tensile loading. Considering the additivity of deformation (homogeneous stress) at a physical point, the apparent Young's modulus verifies:

$$\frac{1}{E_a} = \frac{1}{E} + \frac{1}{E_m} \tag{19}$$

with E the ideal Young's modulus and  $E_m$  the magnetostriction modulus. The latter satisfies:

$$\frac{1}{E_m} = \left. \frac{d\epsilon_{33}^{\mu}}{d\sigma} \right|_{\sigma=0} \tag{20}$$

Since an analytical expression of magnetostriction vs stress is available, the calculation is developed:

$$\epsilon_{33}^{\mu} = \frac{\pi \,\lambda_{max} \,S_2(\sigma)}{S_1(\sigma)} \,\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}A_s \lambda_{max}\sigma\right) \tag{21}$$

A derivation of  $\epsilon_{33}^{\mu}$  function with respect to stress at  $\sigma = 0$ , leads to, after few calculations:

$$\frac{1}{E_m} = \left. \frac{d\epsilon_{33}^{\mu}}{d\sigma} \right|_{\sigma=0} = \frac{\lambda_{max}^2 A_s}{5} = \frac{3\chi_0(T)\lambda_{max}^2}{5\mu_0 M_s(T)^2} \frac{T^{RT}}{T}$$
(22)

<sup>291</sup> Most of the terms are temperature dependent, including  $\lambda_{max}$ , that may <sup>292</sup> lead to a complex variation of the magnetostriction modulus with temper-<sup>293</sup> ature. It is possible to extend the proposed approach to other hypotheses <sup>294</sup> than homogeneous stiffness by reporting the localization operation in the <sup>295</sup> definition of  $\lambda_{max}$ . This point is addressed in the next section.

# 3.3. Numerical applications for pure isotropic polycrystalline nickel and in fluence of temperature

The parameter  $\lambda_{max}$  can be derived from magnetostrictive constants of 298 single crystal  $\lambda_{100}$  and  $\lambda_{111}$  following different assumptions, depending of ei-299 ther or not the magnetization rotation is considered, and depending on the 300 elastic behavior of the domain (single crystal stiffness constants) and the 301 average medium. An analytical calculation of the average magnetostrictive 302 tensor can be strictly made only at magnetic saturation, when the magne-303 tization is uniformly aligned along the external field direction. Grains q are 304 composed of single domains  $\alpha$  so that the magnetostriction strain in each 305 grain is the magnetostriction strain of the domain in the crystallographic 306 frame (CF): 307

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\mu}^{g} = \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\mu}^{\alpha} = \frac{3}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_{100}(\gamma_{1}^{2} - \frac{1}{3}) & \lambda_{111}\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2} & \lambda_{111}\gamma_{1}\gamma_{3} \\ \lambda_{111}\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2} & \lambda_{100}(\gamma_{2}^{2} - \frac{1}{3}) & \lambda_{111}\gamma_{2}\gamma_{3} \\ \lambda_{111}\gamma_{1}\gamma_{3} & \lambda_{111}\gamma_{2}\gamma_{3} & \lambda_{100}(\gamma_{3}^{2} - \frac{1}{3}) \end{pmatrix}_{CF}$$
(23)

The average magnetostriction strain is the solution of a thermo-elasticity problem [21]:

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\mu}^{sat} = <^{t} \mathbb{B}^{g} : \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\mu}^{g} > \tag{24}$$

where  ${}^{t}\mathbb{B}^{g}$  indicates the transpose of the stress concentration tensor and 308 < ... > denotes the averaging operation over the volume. The macroscopic 309 behavior being isotropic, previously defined equation (6) gives the average 310 saturation magnetostriction strain tensor with  $\lambda_{max} = \lambda_{sat}$  the saturation 311 magnetostriction. In case of high magneto crystalline anisotropy, domain 312 wall displacement and magnetization rotation can be considered as succes-313 sive (they are usually considered as concomitant) so that it is possible to 314 estimate another average magnetostriction tensor denoted average maximal 315 magnetostriction strain tensor. A calculation of analytical values is possible 316 using  $\lambda_{100} = 0$  for < 111 > easy directions materials or  $\lambda_{111} = 0$  for < 100 >317 easy directions materials: 318

• in case of low magneto crystalline energy (free rotation) or at the magnetic saturation:

$$\lambda_{max} = \lambda_{sat} = \frac{2}{5}\lambda_{100}k^a + \frac{3}{5}\lambda_{111}k^b$$

This value corresponds to the theoretical magnetostriction at the magnetic saturation.

• in case of high magneto crystalline energy (no rotation):

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{2}{5}\lambda_{100}k^a \quad \text{for materials with} \\ < 100 > \text{easy directions} \\ \lambda_{max} = \frac{3}{5}\lambda_{111}k^b \quad \text{for materials with} \\ < 111 > \text{easy directions} \end{cases}$$

 $k^{a}$  and  $k^{b}$  are homogenization parameters depending on the elastic properties. They are given by:

$$\begin{cases} k^{a} = \frac{\mu_{a}}{\mu_{eff}} \frac{\mu_{eff} + \mu^{*}}{\mu_{a} + \mu^{*}} \\ k^{b} = \frac{\mu_{b}}{\mu_{eff}} \frac{\mu_{eff} + \mu^{*}}{\mu_{b} + \mu^{*}} \end{cases}$$
(25)

 $\mu_a$  and  $\mu_b$  are the single crystal shear moduli (equation 26 - with  $C_{ij}$  the stiffness constants of the cubic symmetry single crystal).  $\mu_{eff}$  is the shear modulus of the effective medium given by equation (27).  $\mu^*$  (eq. 28) is the Hill's shear modulus, whose definition depends on  $\mu_o$  and  $\kappa_o$  the shear and compression moduli of the reference medium supposed isotropic (NB:  $\kappa_o = \kappa$ ).

$$\begin{cases} \mu_a = \frac{1}{2}(C_{11} - C_{12}) \\ \mu_b = \frac{1}{2}(C_{44}) \\ \kappa = \frac{1}{3}(C_{11} + 2C_{12}) \end{cases}$$
(26)

$$\mu_{eff} = \frac{5(\mu_a + \mu^*)(\mu_b + \mu^*)}{(3\mu_a + 2\mu_b + 5\mu^*)} - \mu^*$$
(27)

$$\mu^{\star} = \frac{1}{6} \mu_o \frac{9\kappa_o + 8\mu_o}{\kappa_o + 2\mu_o} \tag{28}$$

The value of these parameters (and finally of  $k^a$  and  $k^b$ ) depends on the homogenization approximations made:

• Homogeneous stress (Reuss hypothesis - *ie*:  $\mu_o=0$ ):  $k^a = k^b = 1$ 

• Homogeneous deformation (Voigt hypothesis - *ie*:  $\mu_o = \infty$ ):  $k^a = 5\mu_a/(2\mu_a + 3\mu_b)$  and  $k^b = 5\mu_b/(2\mu_a + 3\mu_b)$ 

• Hashin and Shtrikman upper estimation (*ie*:  $\mu_o = \mu_b$  - considering that  $\mu_b > \mu_a$ )

• Hashin and Shtrikman lower estimation (ie:  $\mu_o = \mu_a$  - considering that  $\mu_b > \mu_a$ )

• Self-consistent estimation (*ie*:  $\mu_o = \mu_{eff}$  so that  $\mu_{eff}$  is the result of the self-consistent equation:

$$8\mu_{eff}^3 + (9\kappa + 4\mu_a)\mu_{eff}^2 - (12\mu_a\mu_b + 3\kappa\mu_b)\mu_{eff} - 6\kappa\mu_a\mu_b = 0$$
(29)

Analytical expressions of  $k_a$  and  $k_b$  are not reported for the three last estimations due to their complicated expressions.

#### 340 3.3.1. Apparent Young's modulus at the room temperature

The physical constants for nickel used for the calculations are reported in 341 table 2. They are given at RT. The value of the second magneto crystalline 342 constant  $K_2$  strongly varies from one author to another (from one value 343 to its opposite) [6, 7]. The effect of this term is usually negligible when its 344 amplitude is close or inferior to the amplitude of the first magneto crystalline 345 constant  $K_1$ . Equation (30) gives the magneto crystalline energy expression 346 function of constants  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  and direction cosines  $\gamma_i$  of magnetization in 347 the crystal frame. 348

$$W_K^{\alpha} = K_1(\gamma_1^2 \gamma_2^2 + \gamma_2^2 \gamma_3^2 + \gamma_3^2 \gamma_1^2) + K_2(\gamma_1^2 \gamma_2^2 \gamma_3^2)$$
(30)

The magneto elastic energy can be calculated for a uniaxial stress  $\sigma_u$ along the direction [100] of the single crystal and a magnetostriction strain at the domain scale (23). It gives:

$$W^{\alpha}_{\sigma} = -\frac{1}{2}\lambda_{100}\sigma_u \left(3\gamma_1^2 - 1\right) \tag{31}$$

To estimate if rotation has to be or not taken into account at RT, a material with positive  $K_1$  (< 100 > easy magnetization direction) and a magnetization rotation of angle  $\theta$  in the  $(\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2)$  plane are considered. The magnetoelastic and magnetocrystalline energy of a domain  $\alpha_1$  oriented along  $\vec{e}_1$  can be written following:

$$\begin{cases} W_K^{\alpha_1} = K_1(\cos\theta^2 \sin\theta^2) \\ W_{\sigma}^{\alpha_1} = -\frac{1}{2}\lambda_{100}\sigma_u(3\cos\theta^2 - 1) \end{cases}$$
(32)

If no other magnetization mechanism or energy is considered, the variation of total energy is null at equilibrium so that:

$$\frac{dW_K^{\alpha_1}}{d\theta} = -\frac{dW_{\sigma}^{\alpha_1}}{d\theta} \tag{33}$$

An equalization of the two expressions for  $\theta = 0$  allows to estimate an uniaxial stress amplitude  $\sigma_u$  able to initiate a magnetization rotation. Its expression is reported in equation (34).

$$\sigma_u \approx \left| \frac{2K_1}{3\lambda_{100}} \right| \tag{34}$$

Using the numerical values reported in table 2, a stress  $\sigma_u$  higher than 100 MPa is obtained. This value is much larger than the value expected during the Young's modulus measurements (less than 1 MPa). The no rotation assumption can be made at RT so that  $\lambda_{max}$  is defined by:

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{3}{5} \lambda_{111} k_b \tag{35}$$

Table 2: Physical constants of pure nickel at RT [6, 7]; see figure 10 for  $\chi_0$  value.

Assuming finally an effective Young's modulus E of 223 GPa (in accordance with  $C_{ij}$  values), different estimations of the apparent Young's modulus can be made depending on the different estimations of  $k_b$ . They are reported in the following table:

Table 3: Different estimations of  $k_b$ ,  $\lambda_{max}$ ,  $E_m$ ,  $E_a$  and  $\Delta E/E(\%) = (E_a - E)/E \times 100$  at RT - magnetostriction is given in ppm (×10<sup>-6</sup>) and moduli in GPa - V: Voigt estimation, R: Reuss estimation, HS+: Hashin-Shtrikman upper estimation, HS-: Hashin-Shtrikman lower estimation, SC: self-consistent estimation.

	V	HS+	SC	HS-	R
$k_b$	1.316	1.209	1.187	1.151	1
$\lambda_{max}$	-19.7	-18.1	-17.8	-17.3	-15.0
$E_m$	1573	1866	1934	2057	2726
$E_a$	195	199	200	201	206
$\Delta E/E(\%)$	-12.4	-10.7	-10.3	-9.8	-7.6

The sequence of estimations reported in the table is classical. Values are roughly consistent with the experimental results reported in figure 3 and [5, 6]. The homogeneous stress hypothesis giving an apparent Young's modulus of 206 GPa leads nevertheless to the best result. Since the EBSD measurement did not reveal any crystallographic texture, this result could be linked to an anisotropic distribution of domains. 376 3.3.2. Effect of increasing temperature on apparent Young's modulus

Temperature has a significant effect on the physical constants of nickel used in the analytical modeling.

• Figure 6 shows the experimental results obtained by Kirkham [22] and 379 Döring reported in [6] for the magnetostriction of a polycrystalline 380 nickel (confirmed by the more recent measurements of Tatsumoto [23]). 381 Magnetostriction is decreasing with increasing temperature. It reaches 382 zero at  $T_C$ . No data are available for single crystal parameters  $\lambda_{100}$ 383 and  $\lambda_{111}$ . One admissible assumption is to suppose that they behave 384 similarly than the saturation magnetostriction of the isotropic medium. 385  $\lambda_{max}$  would evolve similarly. 386



Figure 6: Effect of temperature on the magnetostriction of polycrystalline nickel [6, 22].

• Figure 7 shows the experimental results obtained by Honda [6] and Tatsumoto [24] for the magnetocrystalline constants of nickel. The amplitude of constants decreases drastically with increasing temperature.  $K_1$ , initially negative, reaches zero at approximatively 100°C for Honda or 200°C for Tatsumoto, then becomes slightly positive before coming back to zero close to  $T_C$ .  $K_2$  is positive and of lower amplitude than  $K_1$ . It decreases regularly to zero when temperature is approaching  $T_C$ .

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• Figure 8 shows the experimental results obtained by Kneller and reported by Ascher [25] for the saturation magnetization of nickel. The decrease of  $M_s$  with temperature is much less regular than magnetostrictive and magneto crystalline constants.  $M_s$  remains high up to a high temperature level. It drastically decreases to zero when the temperature approaches  $T_C$ .

• Finally, figure 9 shows the experimental results obtained by Kirkham 401 [22] for the initial susceptibility of nickel. A global strong increase 402 of susceptibility before a sharp decrease at  $T_C$  is observed. The ini-403 tial increasing is strongly modified by a non monotonous evolution at 404 a temperature (local maximum at T  $\approx 200^{\circ}$ C) that is interpreted by 405 Kirkham as a direct effect of the change of  $K_1$  sign (modifying the easy 406 magnetization axis from the < 111 > to the < 100 > direction). The 407 evolution of this term can be seen as a result of a new magnetic equilib-408 rium associated to new physical constants, as for Young's modulus. It 409 must be noticed that the susceptibility used in the analytical modeling 410 is the *anhysteretic* initial susceptibility, but the data reported are the 411 initial susceptibility of the first magnetization curve. Figure 10 reports 412 the typical cyclic and anhysteretic behaviors of pure polycrystalline 413 nickel measured at RT. The initial susceptibility of the first magne-414 tization curve is drastically different from initial susceptibility of the 415 anhysteretic curve. At RT, initial susceptibility of the first magnetiza-416 tion curve is close to 60 (in accordance with Kirkham measurements) 417 while initial susceptibility of the anhysteretic curve is at minimum ten 418 times higher (about 800). The variations with temperature of initial 419 susceptibility of the first magnetization curve give only a survey of the 420 anhysteretic susceptibility variations. 421

Let reconsider now the analytical expression of  $E_m$  equation 22, temperature dependent parameters are:  $\lambda_{max}$ ,  $\chi_0$  and  $M_s$ .  $K_1$  quickly decreases while the temperature increases, meaning that the rotation becomes progressively dominant (for a temperature around 100°C up to 200°C). The maximum



Figure 7: Effect of temperature on the magnetocrystalline constants of nickel - (a) results of Honda [6]; (b) results of Tatsumoto [24] - NB:  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are given in erg/cm<sup>3</sup> - 10 [erg/cm<sup>3</sup>] = 1 [J/m<sup>3</sup>].

<sup>426</sup> magnetostriction definition has to be reconsidered because it tends progres-



Figure 8: Effect of temperature on the saturation magnetization of nickel [25].



Figure 9: Effect of temperature on the initial susceptibility of nickel [22].

<sup>427</sup> sively to the saturation magnetostriction:

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{2}{5}\lambda_{100}k_a + \frac{3}{5}\lambda_{111}k_b \tag{36}$$



Figure 10: Typical cyclic and anhysteretic behaviors of pure polycrystalline nickel at RT.

Variations of  $\lambda_{100}$  and  $\lambda_{111}$  with temperature must be taken into account too. They are considered to follow the same variation with temperature than  $\lambda_{s}$  plotted in figure 6.

Variation of the anhysteretic initial susceptibility  $\chi_0$  with temperature is unknown since figure 9 refers to the hysteretic initial susceptibility. To simplify, a linear increasement of  $\chi_0$  with temperature is considered:

$$\chi_0(T) = \chi_0^{RT} \frac{T}{T^{RT}} \tag{37}$$

Such relation is in global accordance with the experimental variation
of hysteretic initial susceptibility and allows a simplification of the magnetostriction modulus expression:

$$\frac{1}{E_m} = \frac{3\chi_0^{RT}}{5\mu_0} (\frac{\lambda_{max}(T)}{M_s(T)})^2$$
(38)

Therefore new assessments of the magnetostriction modulus can be obtained considering the different previous estimations at a temperature of <sup>439</sup> 200°C. Parameters values at this temperature come from experimental re-<sup>440</sup> sults. They are reported in table 4.

Table 4: Physical constants of pure nickel at 200°C used for the estimation of the apparent Young's modulus (a linear variation of the ideal Young's modulus with temperature has been used to estimate the  $C_{ij}$  values using equation (40) - Poisson's ratio variations are not considered);  $\chi_0$  is supposed unchanged with temperature.

$\mathbf{M}_s$	$\lambda_{100}$	$\lambda_{111}$	$\chi_0$	$C_{11}$	$C_{12}$	$C_{44}$
$3.9{ imes}10^5$	-33.3	-16.7	800	227	136	229
A/m	ppm	ppm	-	GPa	GPa	GPa

The effective Young's modulus E is 206 GPa at 200°C (in accordance with  $C_{ij}$  values and experimental results). Different estimations of the apparent Young's modulus can be made depending on the different estimations of  $k_a$ and  $k_b$ . They are reported in table 5.

Table 5: Different estimations of  $k_a$ ,  $k_b$ ,  $\lambda_{max}$ ,  $E_m$ ,  $E_a$  and  $\Delta E/E(\%) = (E_a - E)/E \times 100$ at 200°C - magnetostriction is given in ppm (×10<sup>-6</sup>) and moduli in GPa - V: Voigt estimation, R: Reuss estimation, HS+: Hashin-Shtrikman upper estimation, HS-: Hashin-Shtrikman lower estimation, SC: self-consistent estimation.

	V	HS+	SC	HS-	R
$k_a$	0.525	0.687	0.719	0.773	1
$k_b$	1.316	1.209	1.187	1.151	1
$\lambda_{max}$	-20.2	-21.3	-21.5	-21.8	-23.3
$E_m$	977	881	863	835	731
$E_a$	170	167	166	165	161
$\Delta E/E(\%)$	-17.4	-19.0	-19.3	-19.8	-22.0

Whatever the estimation, a decreasement of the apparent Youngs modulus with temperature is clearly observed. This decreasement fluctuates between 36 MPa and 45 MPa depending on the estimation. These values are in good agreement with values observed in figure 3 and those reported in [6] (figure 4a and 4a after annealing). It can be noticed that the homogeneous stress estimation leads now to the lowest apparent Young's modulus (it was corresponding to the highest value for the calculations at RT). Homogeneous

stress estimation allows to get the highest variation of  $\Delta E$  effect with temper-452 ature. On the other hand it is interesting to compare these values with those 453 reported in table 6, where the no rotation condition has been maintained. A 454 clear increase of the apparent Young's modulus is observed, that does not fit 455 to the experimental results. It confirms that the variation of the apparent 456 Young's modulus with temperature is due to a combined effect of variation 457 of intrinsic physical constants and a relaxation of the magnetization rotation 458 enhancing the magnetostriction strain variation with stress. 459

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The Young's modulus remains to its effective value (196 MPa) when temperature reaches the Curie temperature (disappearance of ferromagnetic coupling), leading to the sharp increase of apparent Young's modulus.

Table 6: Different estimations of  $k_b$ ,  $\lambda_{max}$ ,  $E_m$ ,  $E_a$  and  $\Delta E/E(\%) = (E_a - E)/E \times 100$ at 200°C **using the no-rotation condition:**  $\lambda_{max} = \frac{3}{5}\lambda_{111}k_b$  - magnetostriction is given in ppm (×10<sup>-6</sup>) and moduli in GPa - V: Voigt estimation, R: Reuss estimation, HS+: Hashin-Shtrikman upper estimation, HS-: Hashin-Shtrikman lower estimation, SC: self-consistent estimation.

	V	HS+	SC	HS-	R
$k_b$	1.316	1.209	1.187	1.151	1
$\lambda_{max}$	-13.2	-12.1	-11.9	-11.5	-10.0
$E_m$	2289	2715	2813	2993	3966
$E_a$	189	191	192	193	196
$\Delta E/E(\%)$	-8.3	-7.1	-6.8	-6.4	-4.9

#### 464 4. Numerical implementation of E(T) and comparisons between 465 experiments and modeling

466 4.1. Multiscale model and simulation of apparent Young's modulus at the
 467 room temperature

The variations of nickel physical constants with temperature are now considered to propose a modeling of  $E_a(T)$  curve and compare it to the measurements. The previous calculations used the assumption of no effect of magnetization rotation on the magnetostrictive response. This assumption is acceptable for a high  $K_1$ . When  $K_1$  reaches 0, this assumption is not valid anymore. The analytical modeling can be made on the other hand when  $\lambda_{max}$ is known. The definition of  $\lambda_{max}$  is nevertheless not unique (known only for free rotation or no rotation situations). These different arguments motivate the choice of a numerical approach.

A multiscale (MS) model originally dedicated to build magneto-mechanical 477 constitutive laws for anisotropic polycrystalline media is used [13]. The main 478 characteristics of this model are recalled in Appendix A. MS model involves 479 three scales: domain scale, grain scale and polycrystalline scale (representa-480 tive volume element - RVE). Initially proposed by [26] at the grain scale, 481 it was extended to polycrystals by [13] and [27]. In the present study, an 482 isotropic grain distribution has been used (546 grains [13]). This model al-483 lows, among others, to simulate the  $\Delta E$  effect of nickel  $(\epsilon_{33}^{\mu}(\sigma))$  as reported in 484 figure 11 where the effect of homogeneous stress or self consistent conditions 485 are compared. 486



Figure 11:  $\Delta E$  effect for isotropic polycrystalline nickel as estimated by MS model at RT for homogeneous stress and self-consistent conditions.

The difference of slope a zero applied stress between the two simulations 487 is low: a slope of  $1.212 \times 10^{-12} \text{Pa}^{-1}$  is obtained for the homogeneous stress 488 condition and of  $1.345 \times 10^{-12} \text{Pa}^{-1}$  for the self-consistent condition. These 489 values correspond to  $E_m^{-1}$ . The corresponding apparent Young's modulus is 490 evaluated to 176 GPa and 172 GPa respectively (for a ideal Young's modu-49 lus of 223 GPa). These values are lower than the experimental values at RT 492 reported in figure 3 and different from the value obtained after the analyti-493 cal approach (206 GPa for homogeneous stress estimation and 200 GPa for 494 the self-consistent one) which considered that rotation was not occurring at 495 RT. Another estimation by the analytical approach of the apparent Young's 496 modulus at RT has been made, now considering a free rotation mechanism 49 (*i.e.*  $\lambda_{max} = \frac{2}{5}\lambda_{100}k_a + \frac{3}{5}\lambda_{111}k_b$ ). The different estimations of  $E_a$  (numerical and analytic approaches for homogeneous stress and self-consistent estima-498 499 tions) are reported in table 7. The analytical estimation considering a free 500 magnetization rotation leads to results closer to the numerical solution than 501 the no-rotation assumption, especially for the self-consistent estimation. The 502 variation of magnetostriction with stress must be considered as the result of 503 both wall displacement and magnetization rotation at RT. 504

Table 7: Various estimations of apparent Young's moduli  $E_a(\text{GPa})$  T=20°C. R: homogeneous stress: SC: self-consistent

R num.	SC num.	R no rot.	SC no rot.	R rot.	SC rot.
176	172	206	200	154	162

#### 505 4.2. Simulation of $E_a(T)$ for isotropic polycrystalline nickel

The simulation of the apparent Young's modulus with temperature requires to use relations between physical constants (ideal Young's modulus, magnetostriction, magnetocrystalline constant, saturation magnetization) and temperature. Some of these relations have a theoretical background, others have been built in former papers by different authors so that they fit properly the experimental data. The following functions are proposed:

• Ideal Young's modulus - All experiments (recent and former) show a linear decreasement of ideal Young's modulus E with temperature T.

The following linear relation is implemented in the model:

$$E = E_0 - k_0 T \tag{39}$$

with  $E_0=237.6$  GPa: Young's modulus at 0K;  $k_0=0.06603$  GPa/K. Figure 12 allows the comparison between the linear approximation and the experimental results. The same relation is used to consider the variation of  $C_{ij}$  stiffness constants with temperature (in the range of temperature considered in this paper):

$$C_{ij}(T) = C_{ij}(T^{RT}) \frac{E(T)}{E(T^{RT})}$$

$$\tag{40}$$

• Saturation magnetization - the theoretical variation of the saturation magnetization  $M_s$  with temperature is given by the self-consistent equation [32]:

$$\frac{M_s}{M_{s0}} = tanh(\frac{M_s/M_{s0}}{T/T_C}) \tag{41}$$

with  $M_{s0}$  the magnetization at 0K ( $M_{s0}$ =4.956×10<sup>5</sup> A/m). The temperature T is expressed in Kelvin.

Figure 13 allows the comparison between the experimental and modeled evolution of the saturation magnetization with the temperature. The model gives high quality results.

• Magnetocrystalline constants - The variation of magnetocrystalline constant K with temperature has been studied theoretically by Zener [28]. It is expressed as function of magnetization ratio,  $K^0$  the magnetocrystalline constant at 0K, and a constant n:

$$K(T) = K^0 (M_s / M_s^0)^n \tag{42}$$

<sup>527</sup> n=10 for a cubic symmetry. This value is justified considering that the <sup>528</sup> amplitude of magneto crystalline  $K_1$  is higher than the amplitude of <sup>529</sup>  $K_2$ , and considering the cubic symmetry (4<sup>th</sup> order of direction cosines). <sup>530</sup> This model is denoted model 1.

It has been shown that this relation did not fit very well the experimental results obtained for nickel. The relation has been modified by



Figure 12: Variation of Young's modulus with temperature for different specimens complemented by a linear approximation of ideal Young's modulus.

<sup>533</sup> Carr [30] to take account of the change of sign of  $K_1$  and an earlier <sup>534</sup> decreasement of magneto crystalline amplitude. This model is denoted <sup>535</sup> model 2.

$$K(T) = K^{0} \left(\frac{M_{s}}{M_{s}^{0}}\right)^{n} \left(1 - \alpha \frac{T}{T_{C}}\right)$$
(43)

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with n=10 and  $\alpha > 1$ 

Williams and Bozorth [6] proposed on the other hand to use the following empirical relation to define the evolution of magneto crystalline constants with temperature:

$$K(T) = K^0 exp(-kT^2) \tag{44}$$



Figure 13: Comparison between experiment (circles) and modeling (full line - see eq. 41) of the evolution of saturation magnetization with temperature.

It has been decided to use this formulation multiplied by a linear function of temperature in order to represent the change of sign of  $K_1$ . This model denoted model 3 is given by:

$$K_1(T) = K_1^0 exp(-k_1 T^2)(1 - \alpha \frac{T}{T_C})$$
(45)

with:  $K_1^0 = -82 \times 10^3 \text{ J/m}^3$ ,  $k_1 = 1.562 \times 10^{-5} \text{K}^{-2}$ ,  $\alpha = 1.338$ . Figure 14 gathers experimental points from various authors [6, 24, 29] and the results of the three models. The figure 15 is a zoom of figure 14. Model 3 gives clearly the best results.

Following Williams and Bozorth [6], equation (46) has been used to model the variations of  $K_2$  with temperature:

$$K_2(T) = K_2^0 exp(-k_2 T^2)$$
(46)



Figure 14: Comparison between experimental and modeled variation of  $K_1$  with temperature.

with:  $K_2^0 = \pm 28 \times 10^3 \text{ J/m}^3$ ,  $k_2 = 2.78 \times 10^{-5} \text{K}^{-2}$ .

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 $K_2^0$  will be considered either positive or negative during the modeling since the sign of  $K_2$  is controversial. Figure 16 gathers experimental points from various authors [6, 24] (including a negative estimation from [31]) and results of the model. The sensitivity of magnetostriction modulus to the  $K_2$  sign has to be estimated to verify if this uncertainty is significant or not.

 Magnetostriction constants - No theoretical relation between magnetostriction and temperature is available in literature. A polynomial variation is chosen to model the saturation magnetization of isotropic polycristal:

$$\lambda_s(T) = \lambda_s^i (1 - (T/T_C)^m) \tag{47}$$

with  $\lambda_s^i = -32 \times 10^{-6}$  and m = 3.4. Extension of this function to  $\lambda_{100}$  and  $\lambda_{111}$  constants is considered, leading to:



Figure 15: Comparison between experimental and modeled variation of  $K_1$  with temperature - zoom of figure 14.

$$\lambda_{100}(T) = \lambda_{100}^{i} (1 - (T/T_C)^m) \tag{48}$$

$$\lambda_{111}(T) = \lambda_{111}^i (1 - (T/T_C)^m) \tag{49}$$

with  $\lambda_{100}^{i}$ =-54×10<sup>-6</sup> and  $\lambda_{111}^{i}$ =-27×10<sup>-6</sup> so that the values at RT correspond to classical values (-50×10<sup>-6</sup> and -25×10<sup>-6</sup> respectively). Results are plotted in figure 17 showing a good ability of the function to model the experimental data.

These various functions are introduced in the multiscale model (Appendix A). In order to estimate the magnetostriction modulus, the multiscale model is employed to model the effect of a small stress magnitude (*i.e.*  $\Delta \sigma_{33}=0.1$ MPa) on the magnitude of macroscopic magnetostriction  $\Delta \epsilon_{33}^{\mu}$ . It leads to:

$$\frac{1}{E_m} = \left. \frac{d\epsilon_{33}^{\mu}}{d\sigma} \right|_{\sigma=0} \approx \left. \frac{\Delta \epsilon_{33}^{\mu}}{\Delta \sigma_{33}} \right|_{\sigma_{33}=0} \tag{50}$$



Figure 16: Comparison between experimental and modeled variation of  $K_2$  with temperature.

The apparent Young's modulus  $E_a$  satisfies the rule of mixture:

$$\frac{1}{E_a} = \frac{1}{E} + \frac{1}{E_m} \tag{51}$$

The variation of apparent Young's modulus for isotropic polycrystalline 568 nickel with temperature is finally plotted in figure 18 using a homogeneous 569 stress assumption and in figure 19 for the self-consistent condition. Plotted 570 curves correspond to multiscale model (MS), analytical model without rota-57 tion, and analytical model with free rotation. The results obtained using the 572 MS model are qualitatively in good agreement with the experimental results 573 with a first decreasement with temperature followed by a strong increasement 574 up to the Curie temperature. The temperature corresponding to the min-575 imum apparent Young's modulus is in accordance with experimental data. 576 The global level of apparent Young's modulus is lower than expected from 577 the room temperature up to 200°C, and the self-consistent approach leads 578 to a clear underestimation of the Young's modulus variation. It can be ob-579 served by the way that the analytical model leads to a large (too large) frame 580



Figure 17: Comparison between experiment (circles) and modeling (full line) of the saturation magnetostriction with temperature. Representation of  $\lambda_{100}(T)$  and  $\lambda_{111}(T)$  functions.

of the MS solution in both cases for temperatures below 200°C. Above this temperature, analytical results do not frame the solution anymore (especially for the homogeneous stress estimation) indicating that the wall displacement mechanism hypothesis used to get the analytical modeling is not applicable any more. Since the homogeneous stress assumption gives results closer to experiments, it has been used for the next simulations.

Because of uncertainties concerning the  $K_2$  anisotropy constant, it has been decided to simulate the situation where  $K_2(T)$  is the exact opposite of previous function and the situation where  $K_2(T) = 0$ . Behaviors are plotted in figure 20 (using homogeneous stress condition). A very small change is observed meaning that  $K_2$  is a second order parameter. It has been kept positive for the next simulations.

Reasons that explain the discrepancy between experiment and modeling are numerous: representativity of RVE, various uncertainties on physical values,.... The main drawback is associated to the high uncertainty on the variation of initial anhysteretic susceptibility with temperature and a possible anisotropic initial distribution of domains. It must finally be kept in mind



Figure 18: Change of nickel Young's modulus with temperature - ideal and apparent Young's modulus - homogeneous stress estimation.

that the mechanical loading used to measure the apparent Young's modulus cannot be considered as an *anhysteretic* loading, meaning that comparisons between modeling and experiments should be considered at this step as mainly qualitative comparisons, waiting for a hysteretic version of the modeling (see [33, 34] for propositions of extension to hysteretic modeling).

#### <sup>603</sup> 4.3. Simulation of NiO coating effects

The experimental measurements reported in figure 3 show that the "stiffening" effect magnitude below  $T_C$  highly varies depending on the sample state (as-received, two sides oxidized, single side oxidized, peeled-off oxide) to another. To highlight and explain that effect, the following points have to be considered:

- nickel has a larger dilatation coefficient than the oxide.
- oxide is formed at high temperature  $(T_{Ox}=1100^{\circ}\text{C})$ .
- for any temperature below  $T_{Ox}$ , the oxide layer is in compression on the nickel.



Figure 19: Change of nickel Young's modulus with temperature - ideal and apparent Young's modulus - self-consistent estimation.

• the mechanical balance states that the nickel layer is submitted to an equibitension residual stress of amplitude  $\sigma_0$ .

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_r = \left( egin{array}{ccc} 0 & & \ & \sigma_0 & \ & & \sigma_0 \end{array} 
ight)$$

Experimental XRD measurements reported in section 2.3 and provided 613 at RT enable the estimation of  $\sigma_0$  magnitude for the 1-side oxidized and the 614 2-sides oxidized situations. For NiO-Ni-NiO system,  $\sigma_0$  is homogeneous in 615 the nickel layer and has been estimated to +9 MPa. For Ni-NiO, stress is 616 heterogeneous across the thickness. Overall the average value in the nickel 617 layer has been estimated to +3 MPa. For a more accurate modeling, it must 618 be taken into account that  $\sigma_0$  depends on temperature since it decreases 619 theoretically to zero at  $T_{Ox}$ . The following parametric formula can be used: 620

$$\sigma_0(T) = \sigma_0^0 - qT \tag{52}$$



Figure 20: Change of nickel Young's modulus with temperature - effect of  $K_2$  magneto crystalline constant - homogeneous stress estimation.

with  $\sigma_0^0 = \{11.42, 3.81\}$  MPa and  $q = \{8.25, 2.75\} \times 10^{-3}$  MPa/K for the  $\{2\text{-sides} oxidized, 1\text{-side oxidized}\}$  situations respectively.  $\sigma_0(T)$  functions are plotted in figure 21 in the temperature range of experiments.

The residual stress tensor is introduced in the multiscale model as a con-625 stant external loading (the relaxation of this stress with the magnetostriction 626 strain of the sample is not considered). The procedure explained above is 627 used to extract the magnetostriction modulus variations with temperature. 628 Results are plotted in figure 22. The expected saturation effect is observed. 629 The amplitude reduction is lower than observed experimentally. Uncertain-630 ties on the residual stress level and other approximations are probably at the 631 origin of these discrepancies. 632

In order to estimate the sensitivity to higher stress, the model has been tested for a superimposed constant uniaxial applied stress  $\sigma_{33} = \sigma_a$ . Results are illustrated in figure 23 where  $\sigma_a$  varies from 5MPa to 50MPa exhibiting the mechanical saturation phenomenon already discussed in literature [6] and reported in figures 3 (as received material) and 4b (cold rolled sample).



Figure 21: Evolution of residual stress associated to oxide layers with temperature.



Figure 22: Influence of residual stress associated to oxide layers on the apparent nickel Young's modulus - homogeneous stress estimation.



Figure 23: Change of nickel Young's modulus with temperature - effect of uniaxial applied stress - homogeneous stress estimation.

The model gives also the opportunity to test the influence of a magnetic field on the apparent Young's modulus of nickel. The effect of a superimposed constant magnetic field  $H_3 = H_a$  is illustrated in figure 24.  $H_a$  varies from 1000A/m to 10000A/m exhibiting the magnetic saturation phenomenon already discussed in literature [6] and reported in figure 4a.



Figure 24: Change of nickel Young's modulus with temperature - effect of constant applied magnetic field - homogeneous stress estimation.

#### 643 5. Conclusion

In this work a modeling of the variation of Young's modulus with temper-644 ature of Ni and Ni-NiO layers has been proposed. The magnetic origin of this 645 behavior has first been underlined, justifying the use of a magneto mechanical 646 approach for the modeling. A first analytical modeling includes the change 647 of the saturation magnetization, of the initial anhysteretic susceptibility and 648 of the maximal magnetostriction with a relaxation of magneto-crystalline 649 anisotropy concomitant to increasing temperature. The second modeling is 650 a numerical modeling giving the average behavior of a representative volume 65 element composed of 546 regularly distributed grains. This modeling requires 652

<sup>653</sup> to define the temperature dependence of many magnetic and magnetostric-

tive parameters. It allows a continuous description of the change of Young's modulus with temperature.

The discrepancies observed with experiments concern the lower level of Young's modulus at room temperature up to 200°C (as observed for peeled-off, 1-side oxidized or 2-sides oxidized sample). Discrepancies can be explained mainly by the fact that the modeling is reversible although the physical phenomenon is irreversible (hysteresis effect) and that the variation of initial anhysteretic susceptibility with temperature remains unknown. Other uncertainties and approximations (infinite medium) are additive reasons.

It has also been shown that even if crystallographic texture remains roughly 663 isotropic after oxidizing at 1100°C, the grain size increases drastically for 664 high duration heat treatments [4]. This size may reach the thickness of the 665 layer leading to a surface effect whose magnetic and magnetostrictive conse-666 quences have been extensively discussed in [36]. This surface effect may have 667 important consequences on the global response of apparent elastic behavior 668 because the domain structure is strongly modified by free surface conditions. 669 The analysis proposed in this paper remains nevertheless sufficient to under-670 stand now clearly how the Ni-NiO system behaves. An extension to another 671 Ni / coating system or more generally another ferromagnetic substrate / coat-672 ing system is possible, opening to a wide range of applications. It could be 673 for example applied to the measurement of thickness deposits and/or to the 674 inverse identification of internal stress levels inside a substrate. 675

#### 676 6. acknowledgements

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#### 679 Appendix A. Multiscale modeling

The multiscale model involves three scales: domain scale, grain scale and 680 polycrystalline scale (representative volume element - RVE). It is especially 681 dedicated to estimate the macroscopic magnetization and magnetostrictive 682 responses to macroscopic magnetic field and/or stress loadings of polycrys-683 talline anisotropic media. Initially proposed by [26] at the grain scale, it was 684 extended to polycrystals by [13] and [27]. In the present study, it is used to 685 model the variation of magnetostriction with respect to stress  $(d\epsilon^{\mu}/d\sigma - \Delta E)$ 686 effect) considering: 687

- free specimen (peeled-off sample)
- 1-side oxidized sample (biaxial stress  $\sigma_0$ =3MPa)
- 2-sides oxidized sample (biaxial stress  $\sigma_0=9$ MPa)
- increasing uniaxial stress on a sample
- increasing magnetic field on a sample

An isotropic grain distribution has been used. Since this model always refers to equilibrium, modeling results must be compared to anhysteretic (reversible) experimental measurements.

#### 696 Appendix A.1. Micromagnetic model (grain scale)

A polycrystalline ferromagnetic media can be considered as an aggregate 697 of single crystals assemblied following the orientation data. The microscopic 698 model proposed by [26] is written using the volumetric fraction  $f_{\alpha}$  of each 699 domain family  $\alpha$  (six < 100 > or height < 111 > families depending on 700 easy directions), and magnetization rotation (two angles  $\theta_{\alpha}$  and  $\phi_{\alpha}$  per do-701 main family) as internal variables. The potential energy (A.1) is defined for 702 each magnetic domain family  $\alpha$  as the sum of the magneto-crystalline (A.2), 703 magnetostatic (A.3) and elastic (A.4) energies, detailed hereafter. 704

$$W^{\alpha} = W^{\alpha}_{K} + W^{\alpha}_{H} + W^{\alpha}_{\sigma} \tag{A.1}$$

$$W_K^{\alpha} = K_1(\gamma_1^2 \gamma_2^2 + \gamma_2^2 \gamma_3^2 + \gamma_3^2 \gamma_1^2) + K_2(\gamma_1^2 \gamma_2^2 \gamma_3^2)$$
(A.2)

$$W_H^{\alpha} = -\mu_0 \vec{H}^{\alpha} . \vec{M}^{\alpha} \tag{A.3}$$

$$W^{\alpha}_{\sigma} = \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\alpha} : \mathbb{C}^{\alpha - 1} : \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\alpha}$$
(A.4)

where  $\vec{M}^{\alpha} = M_s \vec{\gamma}^{\alpha}$  is the magnetization vector of the domain family  $\alpha$ 705  $(M_s:$  saturation magnetization),  $\vec{\gamma}^{\alpha}$  denotes the direction of magnetization 706  $(\gamma_i^{\alpha})$ : direction cosines) in the crystal frame.  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are the magnetocrys-707 talline energy constants.  $\vec{H}^{\alpha}$  is the magnetic field at the domain scale.  $\sigma^{\alpha}$ 708 is the stress tensor at the domain scale.  $\mathbb{C}^{\alpha}$  denotes the stiffness tensor of a 709 domain family (or grain  $\mathbb{C}^g = \mathbb{C}^{\alpha}$ ). Homogeneous field and deformation as-710 sumptions lead to a definition of magneto static and elastic energies involving 711 magnetic and mechanical loadings at the grain scale: 712

$$W^{\alpha}_{H} = -\mu_0 \vec{H}^g. \vec{M}^{\alpha} \tag{A.5}$$

$$W^{\alpha}_{\sigma} = -\boldsymbol{\sigma}^g : \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\alpha}_{\mu} \tag{A.6}$$

where  $\epsilon^{\alpha}_{\mu}$  denotes the magnetostriction strain tensor of a domain family  $\alpha$ , where  $\lambda_{100}$  and  $\lambda_{111}$  are the magneto-elastic constants:

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\mu}^{\alpha} = \frac{3}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_{100} (\gamma_{1}^{2} - \frac{1}{3}) & \lambda_{111} \gamma_{1} \gamma_{2} & \lambda_{111} \gamma_{1} \gamma_{3} \\ \lambda_{111} \gamma_{1} \gamma_{2} & \lambda_{100} (\gamma_{2}^{2} - \frac{1}{3}) & \lambda_{111} \gamma_{2} \gamma_{3} \\ \lambda_{111} \gamma_{1} \gamma_{3} & \lambda_{111} \gamma_{2} \gamma_{3} & \lambda_{100} (\gamma_{3}^{2} - \frac{1}{3}) \end{pmatrix}_{CF}$$
(A.7)

At the grain scale, the volume fraction  $f_{\alpha}$  of a family domain  $\alpha$  is calculated using a statistical approach (Boltzmann function - A.8) [37] assuming that a magnetic domain is much smaller than a representative volume element (considered as a small body immersed into a large closed thermodynamic system).  $\theta_{\alpha}$  and  $\phi_{\alpha}$  are the results of a minimization of the potential energy of a domain family (A.10).

$$f_{\alpha} = \frac{\exp(-A_s.W^{\alpha})}{\sum_{\alpha} \exp(-A_s.W^{\alpha})}$$
(A.8)

721 with

$$A_s = \frac{3\chi_0}{\mu_0 M_s^2} \tag{A.9}$$

$$\{\theta_{\alpha}, \phi_{\alpha}\} = min(W^{\alpha}) \tag{A.10}$$

 $\chi_0, M_s$  and  $\mu_0$  are the initial anhysteretic susceptibility (model expressed in reversible condition), the saturation magnetization and the vacuum permeability respectively. This formulation uses the assumption that initial magnetization process is due to magnetic wall displacement and that rotation mechanism is neglected. This assumption is true for nickel at RT. An increasing temperature may compromise this hypothesis (especially when  $K_1$ is reduced, that enhances the rotation mechanism).

 $A_s$ , through its relation with  $\chi_0$ , is a parameter that accounts for energetic terms not considered in the final expression (exchange energy, magneto static phenomena). Its expression evolves with temperature since saturation magnetization and initial anhysteretic susceptibility are temperature dependent. Moreover, a global inverse proportionality dependence to temperature should be considered for  $A_s$  following the reference statistical approach [37], leading to the final expression:

$$A_s = \frac{3\chi_0(T)}{\mu_0 M_s(T)^2} \frac{T^{RT}}{T}$$
(A.11)

<sup>736</sup> with  $T^{RT}$  the room temperature.

737

Assuming that the elastic behavior is homogeneous within a grain, the magnetostriction strain of a single crystal is written as the mean magnetostriction over the domains (A.12). The magnetization in a grain is defined as well (A.13).

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{g}_{\mu} = <\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\alpha}_{\mu} > = \sum_{\alpha} f_{\alpha} \, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\alpha}_{\mu} \tag{A.12}$$

$$\vec{M}^g = <\vec{M}^\alpha > = \sum_{\alpha} f_\alpha \, \vec{M}^\alpha \tag{A.13}$$

The discrete approach has been modernized by [27]. In this new version, the easy directions are not defined *a priori*. The possible directions  $\vec{\gamma}^{\alpha}$  are described through the mesh of a unit radius sphere (N unit vectors  $\vec{x}_n$ ). A <sup>745</sup> 34635 points mesh has been used in the present study. This new approach
<sup>746</sup> avoids the minimization operation A.10 and is less time consuming.

#### 747 Appendix A.2. Localization and homogenization

Previous calculations are made for each grain of the polycrystalline ag-748 gregate. The polycrystalline aggregate considered in the study is a regularly 749 distributed orientation data file made of 546 orientations [13]. The mag-750 netic behavior at the polycrystalline scale is defined as the average value of 751 magnetization (A.14). A local demagnetizing field in each grain due to the 752 magnetization of the surrounding grains can be introduced [13, 36]: the mag-753 netic field at the grain scale  $\vec{H}^g$  is defined as a function of the external field, 754 the mean secant equivalent susceptibility of the material  $\chi_m$ ,  $(\chi_m = M/H)$ 755 and the difference between the mean magnetization  $\dot{M}$  and the magnetiza-756 tion at the grain scale  $\vec{M}^{g}$  (A.15). The elastic behavior is obtained using 757 a self-consistent homogenization scheme. The macroscopic magnetostriction 758 strain (A.16) is estimated using the Eshelby's solution and considering the 759 local magnetostriction as a free strain;  $\mathbb{B}^{g}$  denotes the fourth order stress 760 concentration tensor. 761

$$\vec{M} = <\vec{M}^g> \tag{A.14}$$

$$\vec{H}^{g} = \vec{H} + \frac{1}{3 + 2\chi_{m}} (\vec{M} - \vec{M}^{g})$$
(A.15)

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\mu} = <^{t} \mathbb{B}^{g} : \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\mu}^{g} > \tag{A.16}$$

The magnetostriction strain at the grain scale is elastically incompatible and creates a stress that changes the magneto-elastic energy term (selfstress). The stress at the grain scale  $\sigma^g$  is derived from the implicit equation (A.17).

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{g} = \mathbb{B}^{g} : \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \mathbb{C}^{acc} : (\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\mu}^{g})$$
(A.17)

with the accommodation stiffness tensor:

$$\mathbb{C}^{acc} = ((\mathbb{C}^g)^{-1} + (\mathbb{C}^*)^{-1})^{-1}$$
(A.18)

and the stress concentration tensor:

$$\mathbb{B}^{g} = \mathbb{C}^{g} : (\mathbb{C}^{g} + \mathbb{C}^{\star})^{-1} : (\mathbb{C}^{0} + \mathbb{C}^{\star}) : (\mathbb{C}^{0})^{-1}$$
(A.19)

<sup>768</sup>  $\mathbb{C}^{\star} = \mathbb{C}^{0} : ((\mathbb{S}^{Esh})^{-1} - \mathbb{I})$  is the Hill's constraint tensor.  $\mathbb{C}^{0}$  is the stiffness <sup>769</sup> tensor of the effective medium. If a self-consistent scheme is chosen,  $\mathbb{C}^{0}$  refers <sup>770</sup> to the self-consistent stiffness tensor.  $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$  is the macroscopic stress.  $\mathbb{S}^{Esh}$  is the <sup>771</sup> so-called Eshelby tensor, calculated following Mura [35].

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