

# Nonlinear static and dynamic mechanical behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wire: experiment and analysis

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In this paper, the nonlinear mechanical behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires have been investigated by the quasi-static loading-unloading tensile and fatigue tests at the temperature of 77 and 300 K, respectively, which indicates that the quasi-static stress-strain curves and energy dissipations exhibit strong nonlinearity. Meanwhile, the nonlinear and linear unloading modulus are derived by considering the damage degradation, and the elastic-plastic constitutive is proposed to predict the quasi-static loading-unloading stress-strain responses and energy dissipation. Moreover, the damage evolution model has been conducted to elucidate the energy dissipation of fatigue tests for the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wire at the temperature of 77 and 300 K. The combination of experimental and theoretical results indicates that the nonlinearity of energy dissipation is caused by damage degradation during quasi-static loading and unloading tensile tests. Furthermore, the fatigue fracture modes of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires also have been analyzed, which indicated that the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-elements show brittle fracture at the temperature of 77 K while ductile fracture at the temperature of 300 K. These findings provide novel insights into the nonlinear mechanical behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires.

**Nonlinearity, Elastic-plastic constitutive, Energy dissipation, Damage degradation, Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires**

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## 1. Introduction

The international thermonuclear experimental reactor (ITER) is the largest and most complex experimental fusion facility with the stored energy of 51 GJ [1-4]. Due to high critical current density and reasonable price, Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires have been selected for the central solenoid and toroidal field coils to carry capacity in the ITER [5,6]. Moreover, Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires may become a candidate superconducting material for cutting-edge high-field magnets such as the future circular collider [7]. In the application to Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires, which undergo extremely complex working conditions such as low

temperature, strong magnetic field and large current, and also withstand cyclic electromagnetic and thermal loading. These harsh working conditions will undoubtedly lead to the degradation of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires' performance, which is a key engineering and science topic [8,9]. Over the past decades, numerous experiments and theoretical analyses have been carried out to focus on the effects of mechanical deformation for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires on the critical current density [7,10-16], critical magnetic field [17,18] and current sharing temperature [19-21]. In general, Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires are composed of brittle superconducting multifilament embedded in a ductile matrix exhibiting strongly nonlinear deformation [22]. Therefore, the nonlinear mechanical behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wire are mainly challenging obstacles to the development for high-field superconducting magnets [23].

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Nonlinear mechanical behavior in the loading-unloading process is one of the long-standing issues for metal matrix composites. The isotropic hardening model is the simplest elastic-plastic model to describe the stress-strain response in the loading-unloading process, in which the yield surface is only an extension without translation, but it cannot describe asymmetric plastic behavior. To overcome this problem of the isotropic hardening model, Prager [24] and Ziegler [25] proposed the linear kinematic hardening model, where the translation of the yield surface has been described by the evolution of the back stress. Subsequently, Armstrong et al. [26] introduced a nonlinear kinematic hardening model, which is better to describe nonlinear mechanical behaviors. Chaboche [27] improved the kinematic hardening model with multiple kinematic hardening terms and combined with the isotropic hardening model. With the increasing complexity in nonlinear loading-unloading deformation, multiple-yield surface models have been proposed [28-31]. Among them, the two-yield surface models are widely used because of relatively few parameters, the transient Bauschinger effect, work-hardening stagnation and permanent softening in large elastic-plastic deformation [28,29,32,33]. Numerous previous works have expanded the two-yield surface model [34-37]. For example, Sun and Wagoner [38] proposed a two-yield surface model, named as the quasi-plastic-elastic (QPE) model, to describe the nonlinear loading and unloading behaviors of dual-phase steel. This model introduced the QPE strain due to dislocation pile-up and multiplication, and applied the nonlinear unloading modulus function to describe the complex nonlinear mechanical behaviors. Furthermore, Lee et al. [39] combined the QPE model with a homogeneous anisotropic hardening model to simultaneously capture the unloading and plastic flow behavior. Lee et al. [40] proposed a new QPE model with one yield surface to reduce complexity and computation time without using the two-surface modeling. Hou et al. [41] modified the unloading modulus with power exponential form in the QPE model to describe nonlinear unloading behaviors under compressive deformation. However, the above-mentioned theoretical models do not consider the effects of damage degradation on nonlinear mechanical behaviors.

For the nonlinear mechanical behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wire, despite that numerous quasi-static loading-unloading experiments have been conducted, the existing elastic-plastic theoretical models do not completely resolve the nonlinear problems [42-46]. For example, in 2005, van den Eijnden et al. [42] constructed the four fitting functions to describe the nonlinear responses of the axial tensile stress-strain curves of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wire manufactured by the bronze routes, internal tin, and powder-in-tube method, respectively, but they are not suitable for all Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires in the full range of strain. In 2011, Bajas

[47] developed a nonlinear finite element simulation (FEM) method for modeling the mechanical behavior of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires, in which fifth order polynomial function or exponential function were used to fit the behaviors of the envelope curve and the behavior of loading and unloading response. In 2021, Du et al. [48] established a discrete element model of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires based on the discretization of the continuum and improved the cohesive model, in which the constitutive models of cohesive model used nonlinear fitting function of Bajas [47]. However, the nonlinear fitting function cannot be used for elastic-plastic constitutive of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires, and the elastic-plastic constitutive for nonlinear loading-unloading responses is also urgent.

Several elastic-plastic models have been proposed to reveal nonlinear unloading-reloading stress-strain responses. In 2016, Wang et al. [49] developed a multi-filament twist FEM model considering the influence of breakage of filaments to explore elastic-plastic behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires, where copper and bronze matrix were treated as combined hardening materials, and Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn filaments were treated as elastic materials. In 2019, Lenoir et al. [46] established the multiscale model of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires, in which copper was modeled with elastic-plastic behavior considering kinematic and isotropic hardenings, and homogenized the superconducting filamentary area using the representative volume element. Therefore, combining experimental and numerical results, it can be found that the existing elastic-plastic models do not precisely describe nonlinear stage during the unloading process and have redundant fitted parameters.

To the best of our knowledge, studies on the fatigue behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires are still lacking. In 1979, Cogan et al. [50] presented the simulated model of two-component composites with perfect elastic Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn filaments in a ductile matrix to analyze the fatigue behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires at cyclic load, which can well predicate the residual stress and matrix yield strength. In 2021, Riccioli [51] conducted the fatigue tests on the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires under cyclic tensile and compressive stresses at both cryogenic and room temperature, and obtained the strain evolution with fatigue cycles. Jiang et al. [52] investigated the damage evolution of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires under asymmetric strain cycling of various strain peaks and ranges at room temperature, and analyzed the nonlinear change of stiffness degradation and plastic accumulation with fatigue cycles. Nevertheless, these previous investigations have limited capability to explore fatigue mechanical behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires.

It is worth noting that, for the nonlinear mechanical behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires, there are still three key problems that need to be explored: (1) Can the QPE model solve the nonlinear mechanical behaviors during the quasi-

static loading-unloading process? (2) If the QPE model does not resolve this problem, how can we establish a new elastic-plastic model? (3) Whether the energy dissipation characteristics of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires during the fatigue process are the same at the temperature of 77 and 300 K? In this work, the quasi-static loading-unloading and fatigue tests of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires are conducted at the temperature of 77 and 300 K to analyze its nonlinear mechanical behaviors. Meanwhile, new linear and nonlinear unloading moduli are derived by considering damage degradation, and the quasi-static elastic-plastic constitutive is proposed. In addition, the damage evolution model is derived by considering the proposed three-parameter damage model to obtain the energy dissipation during the fatigue tests of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires.

The paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, the experimental materials and methods of static loading-unloading tests and strain fatigue tests for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires are discussed. Section 3 is the experimental results. In Sect. 4, the unloading modulus is derived, and the quasi-static elastic-plastic constitutive is established. Section 5 introduced the damage evolution model and obtained the energy dissipation during fatigue processes. The discussions and concluding remarks are presented in Sects. 6 and 7, respectively.

## 2. Experiments and methods

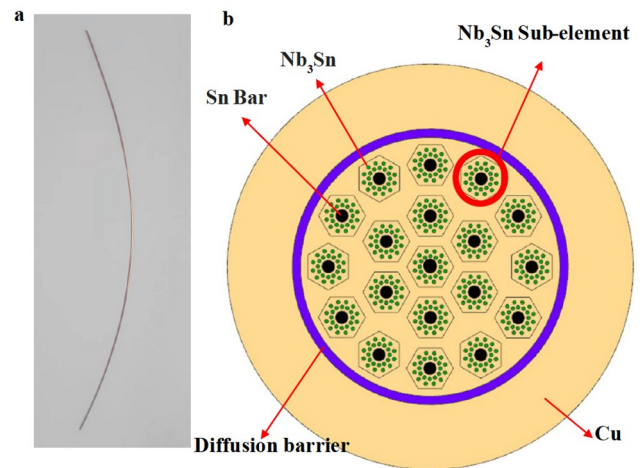
### 2.1 Materials

Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires are multi-filaments twist composites, where its matrix is bronze or copper, and Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-elements contained Nb filaments, Cu and Ta [53]. In this work, the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires were manufactured by the inner tin method [54] from Western Superconducting Technologies Co. Ltd. Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires consisted of 50% Cu matrix and 50% Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-elements. Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting

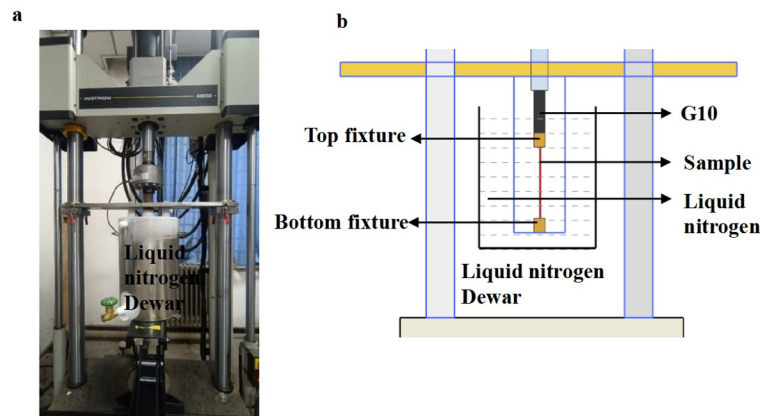
composite wires were heat-treated: 210 °C × 50 h + 340 °C × 25 h + 450 °C × 25 h + 575 °C × 100 h + 650 °C × 100 h. The diameter of all samples was 0.81 mm, and the length of the interception was 152 mm, as shown in Fig. 1.

### 2.2 Test methods

The quasi-static loading-unloading tests of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires were conducted with the electronic universal testing machine at 77 and 300 K. The loading rates were all set at 0.1 mm/min during the loading and unloading processes, respectively. Two samples were performed for each test. For the fatigue cyclic testing, the strain-controlled tension-tension fatigue tests were conducted with INSTRON 8802 fatigue machine at 77 and 300 K (see Fig. 2), and the sine cyclic waveform was applied at a frequency of 2 Hz during fatigue tests. The fatigue strain range ( $\Delta\varepsilon$ ) for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires varies from 0.005 to 0.0065, and the strain peak is 0.03. For each group of tests, at least two samples were performed.



**Figure 1** a Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires; b the schematic of cross section for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires.



**Figure 2** a Electronic universal testing machine; b the schematic of INSTRON fatigue machine, where G10 is adiabatic epoxy.

### 3. Experimental results

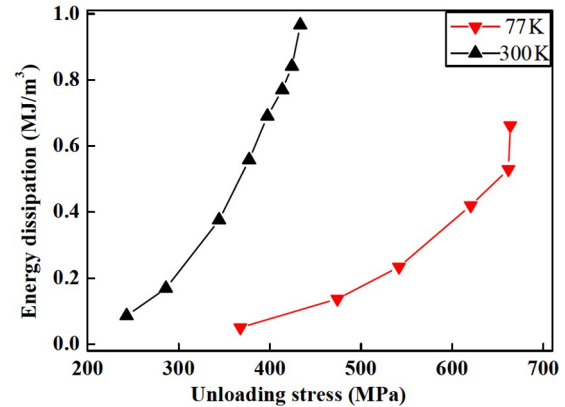
#### 3.1 Quasi-static mechanical behaviors

Figure 3 shows the stress-strain curves of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires with the temperature of 77 and 300 K. It can be seen that, the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires exhibit significant nonlinearity during the loading-unloading-reloading processes. Moreover, the nonlinearity at 300 K is more obvious than at 77 K due to the brittle of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wire of the former being weaker than that of the latter. The nonlinear mechanical response during the unloading-reloading process is caused by the anelastic strain linked with the reversible movements of microstructures, such as the dislocation pile-up and multiplication [55], and the anelastic strain will vanish during the unloading process.

Due to the nonlinear mechanical response, stress-strain hysteresis loops and energy dissipation can occur during loading-unloading processes. By integrating the area of stress-strain hysteresis loops, the relationship between the energy dissipation and unloading stress can be obtained (see Fig. 4), which indicated that the energy dissipations show nonlinearity behaviors with the increase of unloading stress. However, the nonlinearity of energy dissipations for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires is different from advanced high-strength steels in Refs [38,39], where the energy dissipations are linearly elevated as the unloading stress increases, which will be detailed interpreted by the elastic-plastic model in Sect. 6.

#### 3.2 Fatigue mechanical behaviors

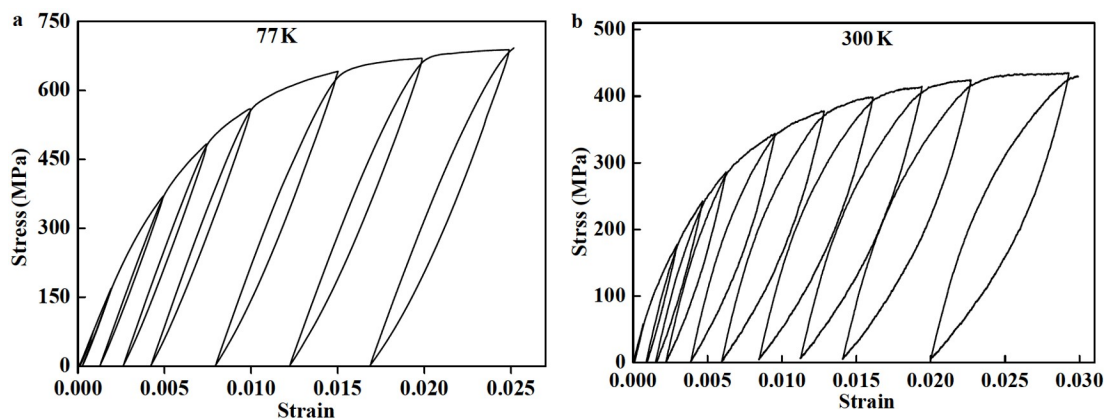
The stress-strain curves for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires during fatigue tests at  $\Delta\varepsilon = 0.005$  are shown in Fig. 5, which shows that the nonlinearity of the stress-strain responses at 300 K is larger than the temperature of 77 K during fatigue cycles. With the increase of fatigue cycles



**Figure 4** The relationship between energy dissipation and unloading stress for various temperatures.

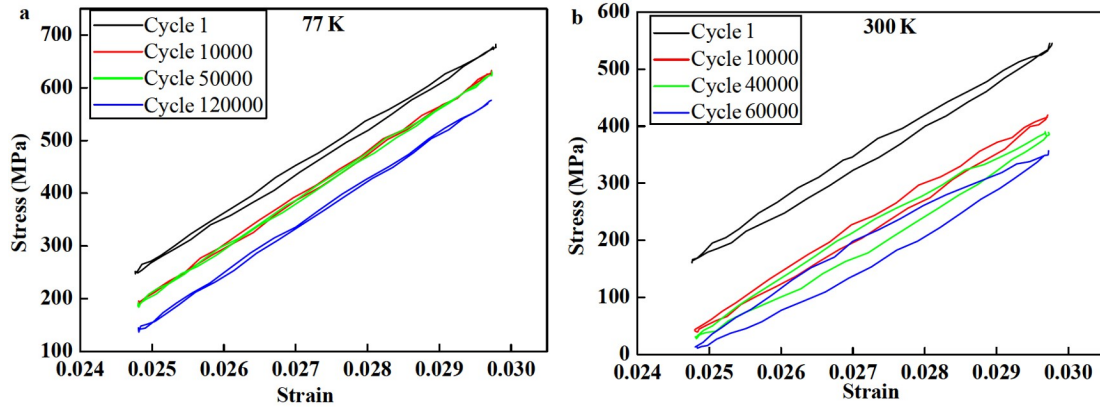
number, the nonlinearity of the stress-strain responses increases at the temperature of 300 K. Varying nonlinearity of the stress-strain responses will change energy dissipation, so there is an obvious difference in energy dissipation at the temperature of 77 and 300 K.

The relationship between energy dissipation and fatigue cycles number for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires with various strain ranges (0.005, 0.0053, and 0.0057) is shown in Fig. 6. It can be seen that energy dissipation increases with increasing fatigue cycles number of cycles at 300 K. However, when the fatigue test temperature is 77 K, the energy dissipations of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires show three stages: initially rapid drop, gradually steady and accelerated increase stages, which is the same as what happened to hybrid carbon nanotube/glass fiber/polymer composites [56], caused by residual stresses. In the initial rapid drop stage, the energy dissipation drops sharply due to the thermal residual stress [57] induced by thermal mismatch among the Nb, Sn, Cu and Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn in Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires slowly releases. Subsequently, the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires are brittle at 77 K, and energy dissipation changes are slow and

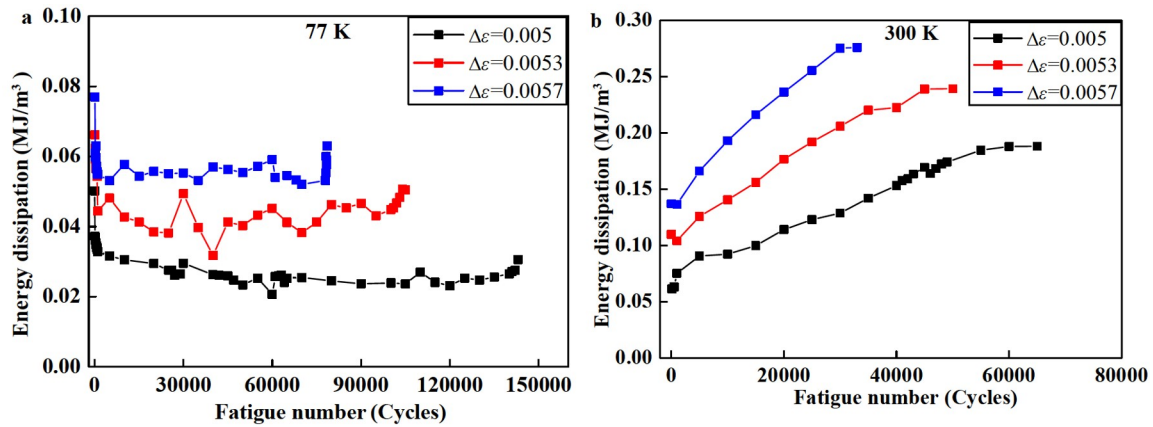


**Figure 3** The tensile stress-strain curves during loading-unloading processes of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wires with temperature of **a** 77 K and **b** 300 K.





**Figure 5** The stress-strain responses for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires during fatigue test at  $\Delta\varepsilon = 0.005$  with the temperature of **a** 77 K and **b** 300 K.



**Figure 6** The energy dissipation-fatigue cycles number curves for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires for various strain range with the temperature of **a** 77 K and **b** 300 K.

steady in the steady stage. In the accelerated increase stage, a large number of macroscopic cracks were formed, which led to the increase of plastic strain and caused an augment of energy dissipation. More results of fatigue damage have been shown in Sect. 1 of Appendix.

## 4. Quasi-static elastic-plastic model

### 4.1 Theory analyses

In Fig. 7, the outer surface called the yield surface represents a transition from elastic or anelastic behavior to plastic elastic. When the stress state is on the yield surface, Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires will appear plastic deformation and damage. In most of the studies, plastic damage is evaluated by applying the continuum damage mechanics (CDM) [58-60]. However, when the CDM method is applied to nonlinear unloading processes, the number of parameters will increase. To avoid more parameters, a plastic-strain-dependent linear unloading modulus  $E_{lu}$  and nonlinear unloading modulus  $E_{nu}$  (see Fig. 7) will be derived according to the chord modulus and unloading process.

In classical damage mechanics, the damage could be represented by the degradation of the linear unloading modulus  $E_{lu}$ . In general, damage  $D$  can be defined as

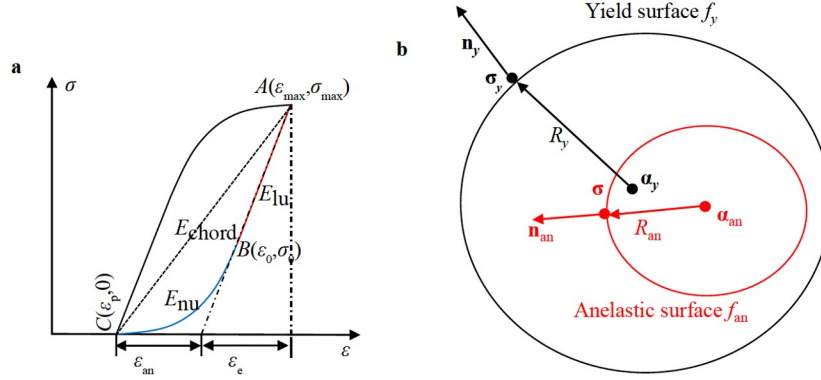
$$D = 1 - \frac{E_{lu}}{E_0}, \quad (1)$$

where  $E_0$  is the initial elastic modulus. It can be seen that the degradation of damage can lead to the lower linear unloading modulus  $E_{lu}$ .

In Fig. 7a, the anelastic surface can be separated from unloading and reloading processes into linear and nonlinear processes. The linear unloading process refers to going from the point  $A(\varepsilon_{max}, \sigma_{max})$  to point  $B(\varepsilon_0, \sigma_0)$ , and the nonlinear unloading process is from the point  $B(\varepsilon_0, \sigma_0)$  to point  $C(\varepsilon_p, 0)$  (see Fig. 7a). During the unloading process from point  $A$  to  $C$ , the relationship between strain and stress can be written as

$$E_{chord}(\varepsilon_p - \varepsilon_{max}) = \int_{\varepsilon_{max}}^{\varepsilon_0} E_{lu} d\varepsilon + \int_{\varepsilon_0}^{\varepsilon_p} E_{nu} d\varepsilon, \quad (2)$$

where  $E_{chord}$  is the slope from point  $A$  to  $C$ , and can be expressed as



**Figure 7** Description of variables in the two-surface model.

$$E_{\text{chord}} = E_0 - K(1 - e^{-\zeta p}). \quad (3)$$

Here,  $K = E_0 - E_a$ ,  $E_a$  is Young's modulus under infinitely large strain, and  $\zeta$  is a material constant [61].

In Eq. (2),  $E_{\text{nu}}$  is a nonlinear unloading modulus between the point  $B(\varepsilon_0, \sigma_0)$  to point  $C(\varepsilon_p, 0)$ . Sun and Wagoner [38] have defined the nonlinear unloading modulus in QPE model, which can be written as

$$E_{\text{nu}} = E_{\text{lu}} - E_1 \left( 1 - e^{-b_1 \|\text{dc} - \text{dc}_p\|} \right) \left( 1 - e^{-b_1 \|\text{dc} - \text{dc}_p\|} \right), \quad (4)$$

where  $E_1$  and  $b_1$  are material parameters determined from measured loading and unloading stress-strain curves, respectively.  $E_{\text{nu}}$  is reduced from linear unloading modulus  $E_{\text{lu}}$  during nonlinear unloading. If no damage degradation,  $E_{\text{lu}}$  is the initial elastic modulus  $E_0$ , which is the same as the QPE model. However, when damage degradation appears,  $E_{\text{lu}}$  is related to plastic strain, which does not be solved by the QPE model. As follows,  $E_{\text{lu}}$  considering degradation will be derived according to the relationship between the unloading path and chord modulus.

Substituting Eq. (4) into Eq. (2), that is

$$E_{\text{chord}}(\varepsilon_p - \varepsilon_{\text{max}}) = E_{\text{lu}}(\varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_{\text{max}}) + \frac{E_1}{b_1} e^{-b_1(\varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_p)} - \frac{E_1}{b_1} + (E_{\text{lu}} - E_1)(\varepsilon_p - \varepsilon_0), \quad (5)$$

and then the linear unloading modulus  $E_{\text{lu}}$  can be written as

$$E_{\text{lu}} = E_{\text{chord}} + \frac{1}{(\varepsilon_{\text{max}} - \varepsilon_p)} \left[ \frac{E_1}{b_1} e^{-b_1(\varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_p)} + E_1(\varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_p) - \frac{E_1}{b_1} \right], \quad (6)$$

which reflects the relationship among the chord modulus, plastic strain and linear unloading modulus.

Substituting Eq. (6) into Eq. (4), the nonlinear unloading modulus  $E_{\text{nu}}$  can be described as

$$E_{\text{nu}} = E_{\text{chord}} + \frac{1}{(\varepsilon_{\text{max}} - \varepsilon_p)} \left[ \frac{E_1}{b_1} e^{-b_1(\varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_p)} + E_1(\varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_p) - \frac{E_1}{b_1} \right] - E_1 \left[ 1 - e^{-b_1 \|\text{dc} - \text{dc}_p\|} \right]. \quad (7)$$

It is worth noting that  $\varepsilon_0$  can be considered as

$$\varepsilon_0 = \varepsilon_{\text{max}} - \frac{2R_{\text{an}}(p)}{E_{\text{lu}}}, \quad (8)$$

where  $R_{\text{an}}(p)$  represents the size of the linear unloading region [38] between point  $A(\varepsilon_{\text{max}}, \sigma_{\text{max}})$  and  $B(\varepsilon_0, \sigma_0)$ , which can be defined as

$$R_{\text{an}}(p) = A_{\text{an}}(1 - B_{\text{an}} \cdot e^{-\eta_{\text{an}} \cdot p}), \quad (9)$$

where  $A_{\text{an}}$  is the size of the linear unloading region under infinitely large strain,  $A_{\text{an}} - B_{\text{an}}$  is the initial size of the linear unloading region,  $\eta_{\text{an}}$  is the material parameter determined from measured loading and unloading stress-strain curves.

In the presented model, the linear and nonlinear unloading modulus can be given from Eqs. (6) and (7). In the QPE model, the linear unloading modulus  $E_{\text{lu}}$  is the initial elastic modulus  $E_0$ , and the nonlinear unloading modulus  $E_{\text{nu}}$  can be obtained from Eq. (4).

## 4.2 Constitutive model

To distinguish linear elastic and anelastic behaviors, the anelastic surface (see Fig. 7b) is defined in a three-dimensional (3-D) stress space as follows:

$$f_{\text{an}} = \phi_{\text{an}}(\boldsymbol{\sigma} - \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\text{an}}) - R_{\text{an}}(p) = 0, \quad (10)$$

where  $\phi_{\text{an}}$  is the anelastic surface function,  $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$  is the stress tensor,  $R_{\text{an}}$  is the size of the anelastic surface,  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\text{an}}$  is the center of the anelastic surface. Moreover, the yield surface represents a transition from elastic or anelastic behavior to plastic elastic can be expressed as

$$f_y = \phi_y(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_y - \boldsymbol{\alpha}_y) - R_y(p) = 0, \quad (11)$$

where  $\phi_y$  is the yield surface function,  $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_y$  is the stress tensor,  $R_y$  represents the size of the yield surface, and the tensor  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_y$  is the center of the yield surface. The variable  $p$  is the equivalent plastic strain, which can be given from von Mises yield functions:

$$dp = \left( \frac{2}{3} \text{d}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_p : \text{d}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_p \right)^{1/2}. \quad (12)$$

According to anelastic surface and yield surface, a stress point can only lie in a linear elastic state, anelastic state, or plastic state.

#### 4.2.1 Linear elastic state

In the linear elastic state,  $\sigma$  is inside or on the anelastic surface and the normal to the surface at the loading point projecting inward. The sizes and centers of  $f_{an}$  and  $f_y$  are unchanged. Only elastic strain  $\epsilon_e$  occurs, and the governing equations are thus as follows:

$$d\epsilon = d\epsilon_e, \quad (13)$$

$$d\sigma = C_e : d\epsilon_e, \quad (14)$$

where  $C_e$  is the elastic stiffness tensor, and the elastic modulus can be obtained from Eq. (6).

#### 4.2.2 Plastic state

In the plastic state,  $\sigma$  is on the yield surface with its increment  $d\sigma$  projecting outward, and the anelastic surface is coincident with the yield surface when  $\sigma = \sigma_y$ . In this state, both elastic strain  $\epsilon_e$ , anelastic strain  $\epsilon_{an}$  and plastic strain  $\epsilon_p$  will occur. The governing equations are as follows:

$$d\epsilon = d\epsilon_e + d\epsilon_{an} + d\epsilon_p, \quad (15)$$

$$d\sigma = C_e : d\epsilon_e = C_p : d\epsilon_p, \quad (16)$$

where  $C_p$  is the apparent elasticity tensor at plastic state, and can be calculated as

$$C_p = \frac{E_{chord}}{E_0} C_e, \quad (17)$$

where  $E_{chord}$  can be obtained from Eq. (3).

Zang's model [62] described the plastic hardening behavior, revealing the relationship between flow stress and equivalent plastic strain:

$$R_y(p) = \sigma_{y0} + Q_y \left[ 1 - \exp(-b_y \cdot p) \right] + C_y \cdot p. \quad (18)$$

Therefore, the evolution of the yield surface can be written as

$$dR_y(p) = b_y Q_y \exp(-b_y \cdot p) dp + C_y, \quad (19)$$

where  $\sigma_{y0}$  is the initial size of the yield surface, and  $Q_y$ ,  $b_y$  and  $C_y$  are material parameters determined from loading and unloading stress-strain curves, respectively.

According to plastic flow rules, the equivalent plastic strain increment can be expressed as

$$d\epsilon_p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial \sigma}, \quad (20)$$

where  $d\lambda$  is the plastic multiplier, which is defined as  $d\lambda = dp$ .

#### 4.2.3 Anelastic state

In the anelastic state,  $\sigma$  is on the anelastic surface with its

increment  $d\sigma$  projecting outward but not in contact with the yield surface. In this state, the anelastic surface moves towards the yield surface. The center of  $f_y$  and the size of  $f_{an}$  are unchanged, and both elastic strain  $\epsilon_e$  and anelastic strain  $\epsilon_{an}$  will occur. The governing equations are as follows:

$$d\epsilon = d\epsilon_e + d\epsilon_{an}, \quad (21)$$

$$d\sigma = C_e : d\epsilon_e = C_{an} : d\epsilon, \quad (22)$$

$$d\alpha_{an} = \frac{n_{an} : d\sigma}{n_{an} : (\sigma_y - \sigma)} (\sigma_y - \sigma), \quad (23)$$

where  $C_{an}$  is an apparent elastic + an elastic stiffness tensor, and can be written as

$$C_{an} = \frac{E_{nu}}{E_0} C_e, \quad (24)$$

where  $E_{nu}$  can be obtained from Eq. (7).

The constitutive equation of the quantitative model can be implemented into ABAQUS/Standard 6.14 using the user subroutines UMAT [63], and the algorithm and numerical procedures were described in Refs. [38,64]. Therefore, the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires FE model has been constructed with 2976 nodes and 2397 C3D8I elements after mesh sizes and convergence analysis (see Fig. 8). The parameters for the present model and QPE model were fitted in Sect. 2 of Appendix.

## 5. Damage evolution model for fatigue processes

To relate the damage degradation and energy dissipation for the fatigue process, a damage evolution model has been conducted. Based on the stiffness degradation rule of composites [65], the damage factors of matrix and fiber can be defined as

$$D(N) = \frac{E_0 - E(N)}{E_0 - E_f}, \quad (25)$$

where  $E_0$  is the initial chord modulus;  $E_f$  is the chord modulus at failure; and  $E(N)$  is the chord modulus during fatigue process.

Generally, Lemaitre's plastic damage model [60] has been

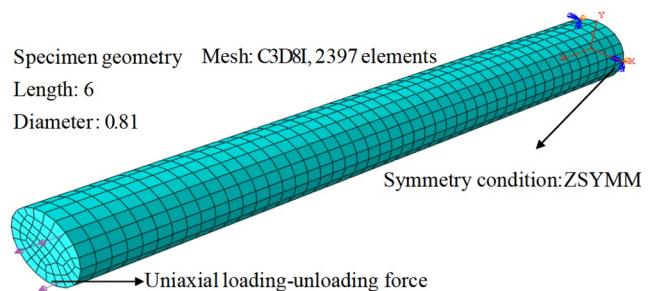


Figure 8 Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires FE model.

widely used for damage evolution analysis, which can be expressed as

$$\frac{dD(N)}{dN} = \frac{[\Delta\sigma(N)]^2}{2[1-D(N)]^2 E_0 S} \Delta\varepsilon_p(N), \quad (26)$$

where  $\Delta\varepsilon_p(N)$  is the plastic strain range,  $\Delta\sigma(N)$  is stress range, and  $S$  is the energy strength of damage. A cyclic relationship between  $\Delta\sigma(N)$  and  $\Delta\varepsilon_p(N)$  [66] can be written as

$$\Delta\varepsilon_p(N) = \left[ \frac{\Delta\sigma(N)}{K(1-D)} \right]^M, \quad (27)$$

where  $K$  and  $M$  are the model parameters. Substituting Eq. (27) into Eq. (26) yields

$$\frac{dD(N)}{dN} = \frac{K^2}{2E_0 S} [\Delta\varepsilon_p(N)]^{\frac{M+2}{M}}. \quad (28)$$

The energy dissipation is caused by plastic accumulation, and the common form is usually characterized by a stress-strain hysteresis loop area at one fatigue cycle [67], which can be written as

$$\Delta W(N) = \frac{1 - \frac{1}{M}}{1 + \frac{1}{M}} K [\Delta\varepsilon_p(N)]^{1 + \frac{1}{M}}. \quad (29)$$

Substituting Eq. (29) into Eq. (28), the relationship between energy dissipation and damage can be obtained as

$$\frac{dD(N)}{dN} = \frac{K^2}{2E_0 S} \left[ \frac{M+1}{(M-1)K} \right]^{\frac{M+2}{1+M}} [\Delta W(N)]^{\frac{M+2}{1+M}}. \quad (30)$$

The Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires exhibit three fatigue stages, namely, initially rapid damage, steady damage, and accelerated damage stages [52]. The three-parameter damage model considering the degradation of Cu matrix and Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-elements has been derived in previous work [52], which can be written as

$$D(N) = q \left( \frac{N}{N_f} \right)^{m_m} + (1-q) \left( \frac{N}{N_f} \right)^{m_f}, \quad (31)$$

where  $q$ ,  $m_m$  and  $m_f$  is material parameters related to the interfacial strength and volume fraction of each constituent.

Substituting Eq. (31) into Eq. (30), the energy dissipation can be obtained as

$$\Delta W(N) = \frac{(M-1)K}{M+1} \left[ \frac{K^2}{2E_0 S} \right]^{\frac{2+M}{1+M}} \cdot \left[ q \frac{m_m}{N_f} \left( \frac{N}{N_f} \right)^{m_m-1} + (1-q) \frac{m_f}{N_f} \left( \frac{N}{N_f} \right)^{m_f-1} \right]^{\frac{2+M}{1+M}}. \quad (32)$$

Then, Eq. (32) also can be simplified as

$$\Delta W(N) = A \left[ q \frac{m_m}{N_f} \left( \frac{N}{N_f} \right)^{m_m-1} + (1-q) \frac{m_f}{N_f} \left( \frac{N}{N_f} \right)^{m_f-1} \right]^B. \quad (33)$$

Here, the parameters  $A$  and  $B$  are expressed as follows:

$$A = \frac{(M-1)K}{M+1} \left[ \frac{K^2}{2E_0 S} \right]^{\frac{2+M}{1+M}}, \quad (34)$$

$$B = \frac{2+M}{1+M}. \quad (35)$$

When Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires occur to fatigue failure, the energy dissipation at one cycle is defined as critical energy dissipation  $\Delta W_f$ . In this paper, the critical energy dissipation  $\Delta W_f$  can be obtained from experimental data.

When  $N = N_f$  and  $\Delta W(N) = \Delta W_f$ ,  $\Delta W(N)$  can be derived as

$$\Delta W(N) = \Delta W_f \left[ \frac{q \frac{m_m}{N_f} \left( \frac{N}{N_f} \right)^{m_m-1} + (1-q) \frac{m_f}{N_f} \left( \frac{N}{N_f} \right)^{m_f-1}}{q \frac{m_m}{N_f} + (1-q) \frac{m_f}{N_f}} \right]^B. \quad (36)$$

Therefore, the energy dissipation considering damage evolution of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires can be solved by Eq. (36) during fatigue tests with the temperature of 77 and 300 K. The parameters for Eq. (36) were fitted in Sect. 3 of Appendix.

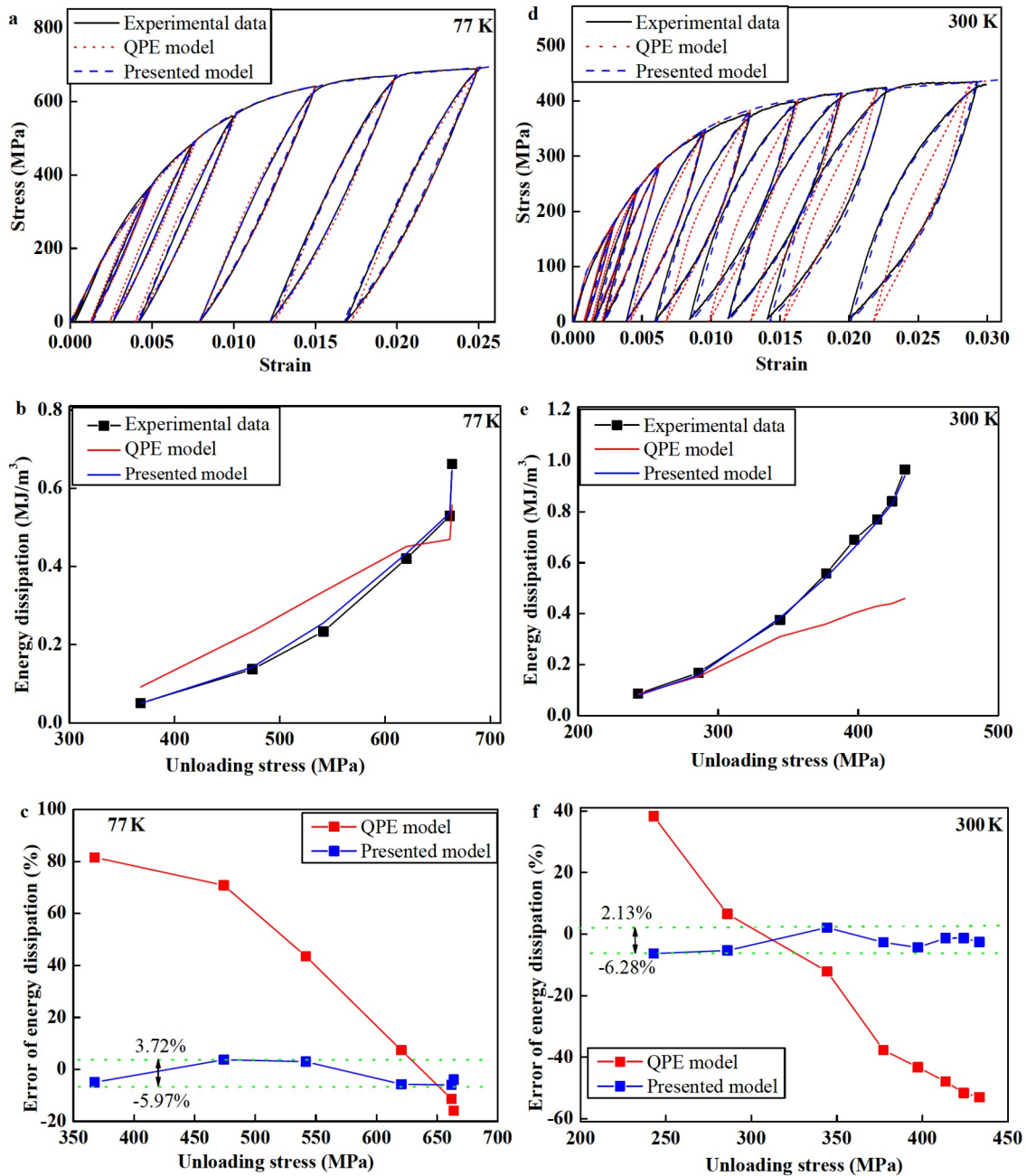
## 6. Discussion

### 6.1 Quasi-static theoretical prediction

The stress-strain hysteresis curves and energy dissipation of the theoretical models and experimental results are shown in Fig. 9 with the temperature of 77 and 300 K. Our theoretical model results show that the stress-strain hysteresis curves and energy dissipation are in good agreement with experimental data, and are more accurate than the QPE model at the temperature of 77 and 300 K. The energy dissipation errors of the presented model and QPE model are displayed in Fig. 9c and f. It can be seen that, at 77 K, the energy dissipation errors of the presented model are between -5.97% and 3.72%, while that of the QPE model are between -15.8% and 81.5% (see Fig. 9c). When the temperature of 300 K, the energy dissipation errors are between -6.28% and 2.13%, which are much less than that of QPE model, about -58.0% and 38.3% (see Fig. 9f). Therefore, our theoretical model can more accurately predict energy dissipation at various temperatures.

With the increase of unloading stress, energy dissipations obtained by the presented model and experimental results show nonlinearity, but that of the QPE model show linearity, which indicated that nonlinearities of the energy dissipation for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires are mainly caused by fatigue damage.





**Figure 9** Comparison of nonlinearity between the theoretical model results and experimental data with various temperatures. **a-c** 77 K; **d-f** 300 K.

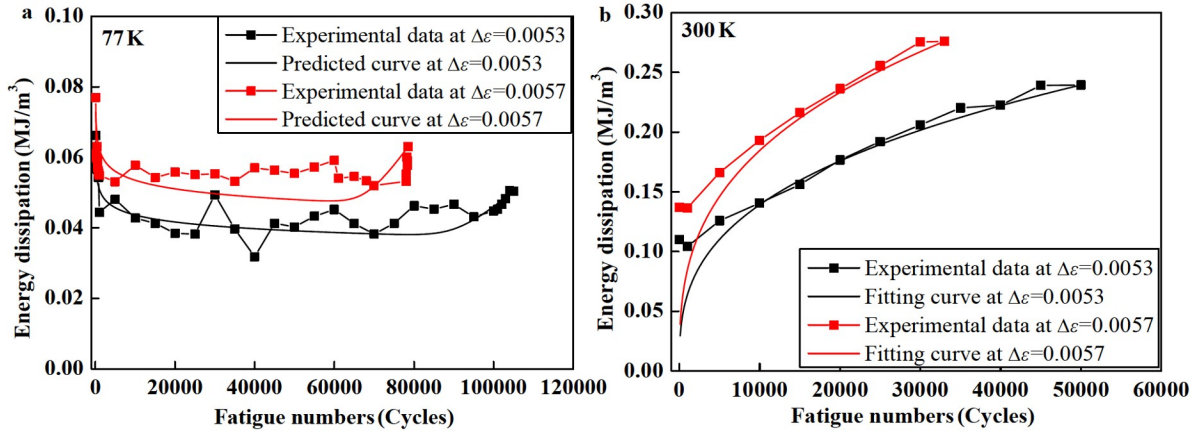
## 6.2 Energy dissipation of fatigue tests

The energy dissipation for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires with various strain ranges is shown in Fig. 10. It can be seen that the predicted results are in agreement with the experimental results. Therefore, the theoretical model Eq. (36) can predict the energy dissipation for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wire at the temperature of 77 and 300 K, which can exhibit the advantage of energy dissipation derived from damage degradation, and solve the different forms of energy dissipation. For superconducting

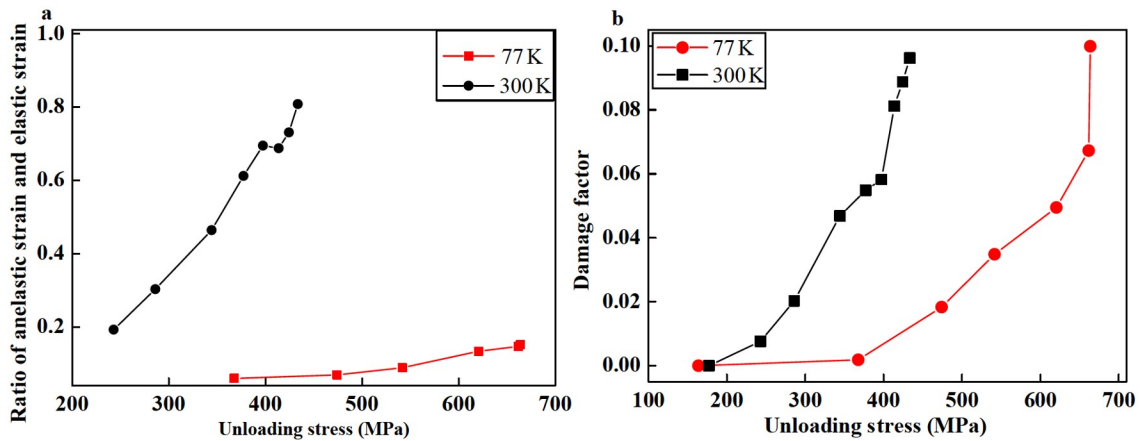
materials, large temperature change due to energy dissipation may cause quench, thermal strain and microscale damage [19,68].

## 6.3 Nonlinearity of quasi-static stress-strain responses

Anelastic strain is the nonlinear term in the unloading process (see Fig. 7). The ratio of anelastic and elastic strain can evaluate the strength in the nonlinearity of unloading-reloading stress-strain responses, which is positively correlated with the nonlinearity of unloading-reloading stress-



**Figure 10** The energy dissipation of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires with various strain ranges at the temperature of **a** 77 K, and **b** 300 K.



**Figure 11** The comparison of the nonlinearity at 77 K and 300 K. **a** The ratio of anelastic strain and elastic strain; **b** the damage factor.

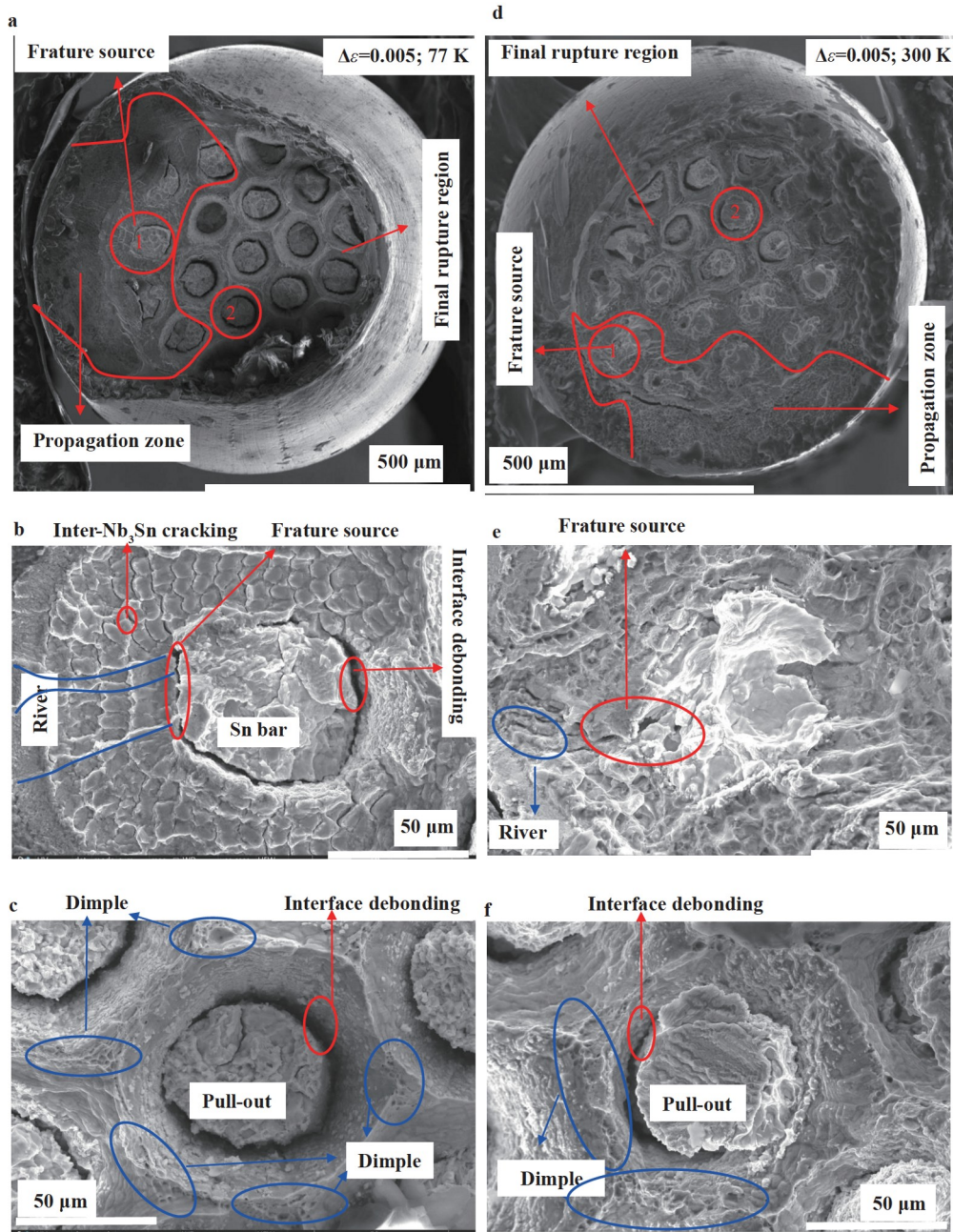
strain responses. When this ratio is zero, the unloading processes are linear unloading. For Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires, the ratio of anelastic and elastic strain can be obtained from Fig. 3, as shown in Fig. 11a. It can be seen that the ratio of anelastic and elastic strain at 300 K is larger than at 77 K due to the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires are brittle at 77 K. Then, the ratio in Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires nonlinearly increases with unloading stress, which is different from that of the low-strength, bake-hardenable and advanced high-strength steels [38,39], where the ratio of anelastic and elastic strain is a linear relationship with unloading stress. Moreover, the increasing speed of the ratio is larger at 300 K than 77 K, which is linked with the damage (see Fig. 11b). In Fig. 11b, the damage increases with unloading stress, and is larger at 300 K than 77 K.

#### 6.4 Analyses of the fracture modes

Figure 12a and d illustrates the fracture surface of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires after fatigue testing at a

strain range of 0.005. The results show that where fracture surfaces show typical fracture characteristics with three regions of fatigue source, propagation zone and final rupture region marked by the red arrows. Moreover, the fracture surface of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires at 300 K fatigue is rougher than at 77 K, and the phenomena indicate that Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires need to overcome larger dislocations and generate larger energy dissipation at 300 K, which is in agreement with the results in Fig. 6.

The Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-element of position 1 in fracture surface at 77 and 300 K are fatigue sources, shown in Fig. 12b and e, and fatigue source sites could be identified by tracking the river-like patterns [69]. The positions of fatigue sources are close to the diffusion barrier, because the outside of the diffusion barrier is the Cu matrix, and the outside of the diffusion barrier is the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-elements, which can cause obvious stress concentration. A closer examination reveals that there are interface debonding and inter-Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn cracking at the fatigue source in Fig. 12b and e. From the results, the fatigue source is caused by interface debonding



**Figure 12** The fracture morphologies of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wires during fatigue tests. **a** Fracture surface at 77 K; **b** Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-element of position 1 at Fig. 12a; **c** Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-element of position 2 at Fig. 12a; **d** fracture surface at 300 K; **e** Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-element of position 1 at Fig. 12d; **f** Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-element of position 2 at Fig. 12d.

at 77 K, and is caused by Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-element cracking at 300 K. From Fig. 12b and e, the fatigue failure of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-elements is brittle fracture at 77 K, and ductile fracture at 300 K.

The Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-element of position 2 in Fig. 12a and d are in the region at the end of fatigue, shown in Fig. 12c and f, where there are Sn bar pull-out, interface debonding and lots of dimples. At the end of fatigue, void nucleation and growth can cause lots of dimples in ductile metal, and dimples can be used to judge the final rupture region. In Fig.

12a and d, at the propagation zone, cracks grow stably, and the zone is essentially flat.

## 7. Conclusions

In this work, the nonlinear mechanical behaviors of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite wire have been investigated by experimental tests and theoretical analysis, such as the quasi-static loading-unloading stress-strain curves, energy



dissipation and fatigue at 77 and 300 K. The main conclusions can be summarized as follows.

The energy dissipations exhibit strong nonlinearity with unloading stress during the quasi-static loading-unloading process. After considering damage degradation, the new elastic-plastic constitutive model can accurately predict the quasi-static loading-unloading stress-strain responses and energy dissipation. According to the comparisons of the present model and QPE model, damage degradation can be considered as the main reason for the nonlinearity of energy dissipation.

The energy dissipations present two different modes at room temperature and liquid nitrogen during fatigue tests. At the temperature of 77 K, the energy dissipations show three stages: initial rapid drop, steady stage and accelerated increase, while at 300 K, they gradually increase with fatigue cycles. A new fatigue model based on the damage has been conducted, which can accurately predict the energy dissipations not only at room temperature but also at liquid nitrogen.

There are three typical fracture regions of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn composite wire whether 77 or 300 K: fatigue source, propagation zone and final rupture region. The positions of fatigue sources in Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-elements are close to the diffusion barrier. Fatigue cracks grow from the fatigue sources inside of the diffusion barrier, through the diffusion barrier, and extend to the Cu matrix until the strand breaks. Moreover, the fatigue source at 77 K is caused by interface debonding, while it is caused by Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn sub-element cracking at 300 K. The fatigue failure of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn/Cu sub-elements is a brittle fracture at 77 K, and ductile fracture at 300 K.

**Author contributions** You-He Zhou and Xingyi Zhang designed the research. Lang Jiang wrote the first draft of the manuscript, set up the experiment set-up and processed the experiment data. Xingyi Zhang helped organize the manuscript, and revised and edited the final version.

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## Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn超导复合股线非线性力学行为研究

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**摘要** 本文通过对Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn超导复合股线在77 K和300 K下进行准静态加卸载拉伸和疲劳实验, 研究了Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn超导复合股线的非线性力学行为, 结果表明: Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn超导复合股线的准静态应力-应变曲线和能量耗散具有很强的非线性. 同时, 考虑塑性应变产生的损伤退化, 推导了卸载过程中非线性和线性卸载模量, 提出了考虑损伤的双曲面弹塑性本构模型来预测准静态加卸载应力-应变响应和能量耗散; 通过疲劳损伤演化模型分析和预测Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn超导复合股线在77 K和300 K下疲劳过程中的能量耗散. 理论与实验结果对比表明: 准静态加卸载拉伸实验中损伤退化是能量损耗产生非线性的主要原因. 此外, 对Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn超导复合股线的疲劳断裂模式进行了分析, 结果表明: Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn芯丝组在77 K时表现为脆性断裂, 在300 K时表现为韧性断裂. 这些新发现为研究Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn超导复合股线的非线性力学行为提供了新的视角.