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MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
METALS PROCESSING LABORATORY

THE STRENGTH AND PLASTICITY OF ANISOTROPIC METALS

Technical Report WAL TR 834.12/2-1

by

W. A. Backofen

and

W. F. Hosford, Jr.

31 December 1962

Second Quarterly Report

Contract DA-19-020-ORD-5719
Boston Procurement District

Ordnance Management Structure Code 5010.11.8430051
Department of the Army Project 59332008
U. S. Army Materials Research Agency
Watertown 72, Massachusetts

Cambridge, Massachusetts

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Plastic deformation
Plasticity
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Abstract

Tension tests have been made on strip specimens cut at different angles from textured sheets. For a pure titanium sheet, RC-70 annealed, the angular variation of yield stress and strain ratio do not agree with the predictions of Hill's anisotropic plasticity theory. Relatively low R values observed in magnesium alloy (AZ31B) sheets with strong (0001) textures are interpreted as resulting from basal slip.

For cubic metals, a method is outlined for calculating the relationship of plastic anisotropy to crystallographic texture. The method, which is an extension of Taylor's analysis of plastic strains in polycrystalline metals, is used to predict the flow stress and strain ratio resulting from various textures.

Experimental Work on Textured Sheets of HCP Metals

Tension tests have been made on strip specimens cut from textured sheets at different angles to the reference (rolling and transverse) directions. The purpose was to check the anisotropic plasticity theory of Hill,¹ which makes predictions about the angular variation of yield stress and strain ratio.

Early in the testing program it became apparent that micrometer measurements to determine width strains for calculation of strain ratios led to a large experimental scatter. Small width variations from place to place because of machining irregularities or development of an "orange-peel" surface texture caused substantial variations in calculated strains. To avoid this difficulty, a travelling microscope was subsequently used to measure the width dimension between fixed gage points.

The results of tests on a 0.067-in.-thick sheet of commercially pure titanium (RC-70 annealed) are shown in Fig. 1. The variation of yield stress σ , with angle of testing is almost linear, the maximum occurring at 90° (the transverse direction) and the minimum at 0° (the rolling direction). The variation of the strain ratio R , is not so straightforward, however, with minima occurring at 0 and 90° and a maximum near 60° .

According to the theory,

$$\sigma = \left[F \sin^2 \alpha + G \cos^2 \alpha + H + (2N - F - G - 4H) \sin^2 \alpha \cos^2 \alpha \right]^{-1/2} \quad (1)$$

and

$$R = \frac{H + (2N - F - G - 4H) \sin^2 \alpha \cos^2 \alpha}{F \sin^2 \alpha + G \cos^2 \alpha} \quad (2)$$

where σ is the yield stress, R the strain ratio, and α the angle between the strip axis and the rolling direction. H , N , F , and G are anisotropy parameters of the material. When the measured strain ratios from Fig. 1 are substituted into Eq. 2, it is found that

at $\alpha = 0^\circ$	$G/H = 2.0$		
$\alpha = 90^\circ$	$F/H = 0.96$		
$\alpha = 22-1/2^\circ$	$N/H = 6.5$	(using $G/H = 2.0$;	$F/H = 0.96$)
$\alpha = 45^\circ$	$N/H = 6.4$	(" " ")
$\alpha = 67-1/2^\circ$	$N/H = 12.3$	(" " ")

With $G/H = 2.0$ and $F/H = 0.96$, Eq. 1 predicts a yield-stress minimum between $\alpha = 0$ and $\alpha = 90^\circ$ for any value of $N/H > 4.0$. The wide range of calculated N/H values and the absence of a yield-stress minimum clearly show that the data are not consistent with the Hill analysis. The difficulty may lie in the basic assumption that the sheet normal is an axis of two-fold, four-fold or rotational symmetry. Textural components with six-fold symmetry may be present in this and other sheets of HCP materials and thus contribute to the disagreement between theory and experiment.

Transverse and longitudinal tension tests were also made on a magnesium alloy AZ31B in both the hard (H-24) and soft (O) tempers, with results given in the table. In every test the R values increased markedly with strain.

Temper	Testing Direction	Strain Ratio R at axial strain of	
		1%	10%
H-24	Rolling	0.38	1.00
H-24	Transverse	1.76	2.89
O	Rolling	0.58	1.28
O	Transverse	1.56	3.04

The (0001) pole figures supplied with the sheets by the Dow Chemical Company indicate strong basal plane textures, with a slightly greater spread toward the rolling direction than toward the transverse direction. With this texture, slip on either prismatic or pyramidal planes ought to lead to R values higher than those given above. The low experimental values cannot be

explained by $\{10\bar{1}2\} \langle 10\bar{1}1 \rangle$ twinning because this should not occur under tension. The only other rationale for these results is that slip occurs on the basal plane despite its unfavorable orientation. The increase of R value with strain may be a consequence of the higher stresses acting to introduce more non-basal slip. Should the explanation be correct, a general increase of R would be expected at higher temperatures since the shear stress for non-basal slip decreases more rapidly with temperature than that for basal slip.

Before the plastic anisotropy of HCP metals can be related quantitatively to crystallographic textures, more information is required about the roles played by the several possible slip and twinning systems in the deformation of polycrystalline material. Deformation experiments on constrained single crystals are planned to generate such information. Several orientations of magnesium crystals are now being grown for plane-strain compression testing, the orientations being selected so that different slip or twinning systems will be activated. The resulting stress-strain curves and metallographic observations should aid materially in determining the relative importance of the different deformation mechanisms in textured polycrystals.

Theoretical Analysis of Plastic Anisotropy in Cubic Metals

In cubic metals, slip is by far the most important deformation mechanism. Except for low temperature twinning and high-temperature grain boundary sliding, it accounts for virtually all plastic flow. The FCC metals have four $\{111\}$ slip planes each containing three $\langle 110 \rangle$ slip directions, making a total of 12 possible $\{111\} \langle 110 \rangle$ slip systems. In the BCC metals, slip

on several types of planes, $\{110\}$, $\{112\}$ and $\{123\}$, has been reported, always in one of the four $\langle 111 \rangle$ directions.

With their greater multiplicity of slip systems, BCC and FCC metals are somewhat less anisotropic than HCP metals, and the reason for the anisotropy is not as obvious. However, a method for predicting quantitatively the effects of crystallographic texture on plastic properties of FCC metals has been devised. It also applies to BCC metals deforming by $\{110\} \langle 111 \rangle$ slip. This method is an extension of the analysis that Taylor developed for calculating the tensile (or compressive) stress-strain curves of randomly oriented polycrystals from the stress-strain curves of single crystals. Before presenting the new method, it is useful to review the Taylor analysis.^{2,3,4}

The Taylor Analysis: This is based on determining the amount of slip required in each grain during deformation, relating the strength of the grain to that amount of slip, and finding the average strength of grains with all possible orientation. When a polycrystalline metal is deformed, each grain changes shape in such a way as to maintain contact with neighboring grains. To account for continuity of displacements at grain boundaries, it was assumed that every grain undergoes the same strain as the aggregate in which it is imbedded. Under tensile loading the flow of a randomly oriented polycrystal is axially symmetric, the strains of the aggregate and therefore of the individual grains being:

$$\epsilon_y = \epsilon_z = -1/2 \epsilon_x; \epsilon_{yz} = \epsilon_{zx} = \epsilon_{xy} = 0 \quad (3)$$

where x , y and z are orthogonal axes, x being the axis of stressing. The single subscripts indicate normal strain and the double subscripts indicate shear strains, i.e., ϵ_x is the tensile strain parallel to x and ϵ_{xy} is the shear strain in the x plane and y direction.

To avoid later complications introduced by the rotation of crystal axes during deformation, attention will be focused here on the relations between small or incremental strains. For incremental strains, Eq. 3 becomes

$$d\epsilon_y = d\epsilon_z = -1/2 d\epsilon_x; \quad d\epsilon_{yz} = d\epsilon_{zx} = d\epsilon_{xy} = 0. \quad (4)$$

For a grain with a given crystallographic orientation, the set of strain increments relative to the specimen axes may be transformed into an equivalent set, $d\epsilon_1, d\epsilon_2, d\epsilon_3, d\epsilon_{23}, d\epsilon_{31}, d\epsilon_{12}$, relative to the cube axis of the grain. With constant volume,

$$d\epsilon_1 + d\epsilon_2 + d\epsilon_3 = 0 \quad (5)$$

or

$$d\epsilon_3 = - (d\epsilon_1 + d\epsilon_2),$$

and the number of independent strains is five. To produce these strains, five or more of the twelve slip systems must be operative. Not every combination of five slip systems can be used, however. To produce an arbitrary shape change, the five slip systems must be independent in the sense that the

shear caused by one could not be produced by any combination of the others. To identify the operative systems, Taylor assumed that only those would be active which gave the minimum value of $M = dy/de_x$, where dy is the sum of the incremental shear strains on all of the active slip systems needed to produce an increment of tensile strain, de_x . The minimum M value appropriate for a given orientation was obtained after first calculating values for many possible possible combinations of slip systems. Such calculations were made for grains of each of a number of orientations in the basic stereographic triangle, and the average value was found to be $\bar{M} = 3.06$.*

The next step was to relate the stress, σ_x , required for a grain to flow with axial symmetry to the total shear strain increment, dy . This was accomplished by assuming further that the shear stress, τ , to active slip would be the same for all systems, the work expended in slip throughout a unit volume of material then becoming

$$dW = \tau dy \quad (6)$$

which must be identical to the work per unit volume done by the applied stress in producing the extension

$$dW = \sigma_x de_x \quad (7)$$

* In Taylor's original work, many possible combinations of slip systems were still overlooked. However, the same $M = 3.06$ was later found by Bishop and Hill in an independent and more thorough analysis.⁵

Equating (6) and (7),

$$\frac{\sigma_x}{\tau} = \frac{d\gamma}{d\epsilon_x} = M = \frac{dW}{\tau d\epsilon_x} . \quad (8)*$$

In addition to relating the incremental shear and axial strains, M serves also to relate the tensile flow σ_x of a grain to the basic shear stress τ for slip. Thus M is, in effect, a relative strength.

Finally, the tensile stress-strain or $\sigma_x - \epsilon_x$ curve for a randomly oriented polycrystal was obtained from the $\tau - \gamma$ curve for a single crystal of the same material by using the \bar{M} averaged over all orientations ($\bar{M} = 3.06$) and by neglecting changes in \bar{M} from lattice rotation. Points on the $\sigma_x - \epsilon_x$ curve at $\sigma_x = 3.06\tau$ and $\epsilon_x = \frac{\gamma}{3.06}$ were simply taken from the corresponding points on the $\tau - \gamma$ curve. The polycrystalline $\sigma - \epsilon$ curve constructed in this way for aluminum was in reasonable agreement with experiment.

* Equation 8 is the multiple slip analog of the Schmid law⁶ for single slip:

$$\frac{\sigma_x}{\tau} = \frac{d\gamma}{d\epsilon_x} = \frac{1}{\cos \lambda \cos \phi}$$

where λ and ϕ are the angles between x and the slip direction and the slip-plane normal, respectively.

An Analysis by Bishop and Hill: More recently an equivalent but simpler method has been devised for calculating M in grains of various orientations.^{5,7} Simultaneous slip on five or more systems can occur only when the critical stress for slip, τ , is reached on these systems without being exceeded on any others. Bishop and Hill showed that this condition is satisfied only with a limited number of stress states or combinations of the terms, $A = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\tau} (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)$, $B = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\tau} (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)$, $C = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\tau} (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)$, $F = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\tau} \sigma_{23}$, $G = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\tau} \sigma_{31}$, and $H = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\tau} \sigma_{12}$, where the stresses σ are taken with reference to the cube axes of the crystal. The actual values that these terms may assume turn out to be $0, \pm 1/2, \pm 1$.

An expanded form of Eq. 8 is useful for calculating M .

$$M = \frac{dw}{\tau d\epsilon_x} = \frac{1}{\tau} \left[\sigma_1 \frac{d\epsilon_1}{d\epsilon_x} + \sigma_2 \frac{d\epsilon_2}{d\epsilon_x} + \sigma_3 \frac{d\epsilon_3}{d\epsilon_x} + 2 \sigma_{23} \frac{d\epsilon_{23}}{d\epsilon_x} + 2 \sigma_{31} \frac{d\epsilon_{31}}{d\epsilon_x} + 2 \sigma_{12} \frac{d\epsilon_{12}}{d\epsilon_x} \right] \quad (9)$$

Substituting the constant-volume relationship, Eq. 5,

$$M = \frac{1}{\tau} \left[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) \frac{d\epsilon_1}{d\epsilon_x} + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3) \frac{d\epsilon_2}{d\epsilon_x} + 2 \sigma_{23} \frac{d\epsilon_{23}}{d\epsilon_x} + 2 \sigma_{31} \frac{d\epsilon_{31}}{d\epsilon_x} + 2 \sigma_{12} \frac{d\epsilon_{12}}{d\epsilon_x} \right] \quad (10)$$

or

$$M = \sqrt{6} \left[-B \frac{d\epsilon_1}{d\epsilon_x} + A \frac{d\epsilon_2}{d\epsilon_x} + 2F \frac{d\epsilon_{23}}{d\epsilon_x} + 2G \frac{d\epsilon_{31}}{d\epsilon_x} + 2H \frac{d\epsilon_{12}}{d\epsilon_x} \right]. \quad (11)$$

M is evaluated for a given orientation (of cube axis relative to specimen axes) and for a specified shape change, defined by the ratios of the strain components along the specimen axes. The essential steps are outlined below:

1. The strain components along the specimen axes, x, y and z, are resolved into components along the cube axes of the crystal, 1, 2 and 3, with the expression, for $d\epsilon_1$,

$$d\epsilon_1 = l_{1x}^2 d\epsilon_x + l_{1y}^2 d\epsilon_y + l_{1z}^2 d\epsilon_z + l_{1y} l_{1z} d\epsilon_{yz} + \\ l_{1z} l_{1x} d\epsilon_{zx} + l_{1x} l_{1y} d\epsilon_{xy}$$

and similar formulations for the other normal and shear-strain components; the l terms are the cosines of the angles between cube axes and the specimen axes.

2. If a relationship between $d\epsilon_x$, $d\epsilon_y$, $d\epsilon_z$, $d\epsilon_{zx}$, and $d\epsilon_{xy}$ is known, the strains along the cube axes are found relative to $d\epsilon_x$ and substituted into Eq. 11. For example, if the flow is axially symmetric (Eq. 4),

$$\frac{d\epsilon_1}{d\epsilon_x} = l_{1x}^2 - 1/2 l_{1y}^2 - 1/2 l_{1z}^2, \text{ etc.}$$

3. Finally, Eq. 11 is evaluated for each possible combination of A, B, H. The largest result is selected as the appropriate M value according to the principal of maximum virtual work.

Strength of Fiber Texture: Equation 11 was used to establish the orientation dependence of M for axially symmetric flow over the full stereographic triangle (Fig. 2). An average value of M_0 , identifying the relative strength of a randomly oriented polycrystal, has been calculated on this basis. However, the results may also be applied directly to predict the relative strength of wires with different fiber textures which also extend in axially symmetric flow. The strength is indicated by the M value corresponding to the orientation of the fiber axis. Thus a wire with a $[111]$ or $[110]$ fiber texture should be 50% stronger than one with a $[100]$ texture and about 20% stronger than if it were randomly oriented. The same relative strengths would be expected in compression.

Yielding and Plastic Strain in Textured Sheets: It was shown in the previous report that when texture-hardening was introduced, the yielding of a sheet being compressed in the thickness direction is equivalent to yielding under a state of balanced biaxial tension in the plane of the sheet. Accordingly, Fig. 2 may also be used to predict yielding resistance under the latter condition of loading if the texture is rotationally symmetric about the sheet normal. Therefore, textural components with $[111]$ and $[110]$ normal to the sheet have the effect of increasing strength when loads are applied in this way. As noted before, the same texture would also strengthen a sheet even if the principal tensile stresses should be somewhat "unbalanced".

The analysis may be broadened to include the anisotropy of yielding in textured sheets under simple tension. Of interest here are both the tensile yield stress and the width-to-thickness strain ratio $R = \frac{d\epsilon_y}{d\epsilon_z}$ of specimens taken in different directions in the sheet. To apply the analysis, the incremental shear-strain $d\gamma$ corresponding to $d\epsilon_x$ must be found, but this can be calculated only after the other normal strain increments are known relative to $d\epsilon_x$. If the tensile axis, x , is taken parallel to one of the principal axes of anisotropy, it is still reasonable to assume $d\epsilon_{yz} = d\epsilon_{zx} = d\epsilon_{xy} = 0$. Constancy of volume (Eq. 5) applies. Yet one strain component, $d\epsilon_y$ or $d\epsilon_z$, remains unspecified; this may be incorporated in a useful parameter

$$r = \frac{d\epsilon_y}{d\epsilon_y + d\epsilon_z} = \frac{R}{R + 1}, \quad (12)$$

so that

$$d\epsilon_y = -r d\epsilon_x; \quad d\epsilon_z = -(1-r) d\epsilon_x.$$

Now the ratios,

$$\frac{d\epsilon_1}{d\epsilon_x}, \frac{d\epsilon_2}{d\epsilon_x}, \frac{d\epsilon_{23}}{d\epsilon_x}, \frac{d\epsilon_{31}}{d\epsilon_x} \text{ and } \frac{d\epsilon_{12}}{d\epsilon_x}$$

in Eq. 11 can be expressed in terms of r , as

$$\frac{d\epsilon_1}{d\epsilon_x} = l_{1x}^2 - r l_{1y}^2 - (1-r) l_{1z}^2, \text{ etc.}$$

By assuming different values of r and calculating the corresponding values of $M = \frac{dy}{d\epsilon_x}$ from Eq. 11, an M vs. r plot may be generated. The minimum M of such a plot represents the least slip or least work with which the strain increment $d\epsilon_x$ could be produced and therefore corresponds to the expected behavior. The values of M and r at the minimum identify the relative strength $\frac{\sigma_x}{\tau}$ and the strain ratio $R = \frac{r}{1-r}$.

As an example, consider tension tests made on a sheet with the ideal $[1\bar{1}2]$ (110) texture characteristic of cold-rolled alpha-brass,⁸ (Fig. 3). From the minimum M of the M vs. r curve for a rolling-direction test, values $R = 1$ and $\frac{\sigma_x}{\tau} = 3.10$ are predicted. For a transverse direction test, the flat minimum from $r = 0.125$ to $r = 1.0$ makes the prediction of a single R impossible. In these plots each straight line section corresponds to the combination of A , B , F , G , and H which maximizes M in Eq. 11. For a sheet with an ideal $[1\bar{1}0]$ (111) (a textural component of cold-rolled steel⁸) tested in the rolling direction, the M vs. r curve is a single straight line sloping downward with increasing r so that an infinite R is predicted (Fig. 4). While these predictions are made for single ideal textures, small amounts of other textural components would modify the results, probably creating a unique minimum for the $[1\bar{1}2]$ (110) transverse test (Fig. 3) and shifting the minimum to finite R values in the $[1\bar{1}0]$ (111) rolling-direction test (Fig. 4).

The value of such calculations for ideal textures lies in the way results may be combined to predict the behavior of textured sheets of mixed components. The M vs. r curve for a material consisting of several textural components a , b , may be found from the weighted average

$$M = f_a M_a + f_b M_b \dots, \quad (13)$$

where f_a and f_b are the volume fractions of components a, b, The minimum will occur when

$$\frac{dM}{dr} = f_a \frac{dM_a}{dr} + f_b \frac{dM_b}{dr} + \dots = 0 . \quad (14)$$

If a fraction of the grains is randomly oriented, it can be treated as a component with isotropic plastic properties. The characteristic M vs. r curve for randomly oriented grain may be found by using the von Mises yield criterion and its associated flow rule. With these it can be shown that under an imposed ratio of strain $r = \frac{d\epsilon_y}{d\epsilon_x + d\epsilon_z}$ the work per unit volume dW, per increment of strain $d\epsilon_x$ is

$$\frac{dW}{d\epsilon_x} = X \sqrt{\frac{4}{3} (r^2 - r + 1)} , \quad (15)$$

where X is the yield stress under uniaxial tension. Combining Eqs. 15 and 8,

$$M = \frac{X}{\tau} \sqrt{\frac{4}{3} (r^2 - r + 1)} . \quad (16)$$

Using Taylor's value for the tensile yield stress of a randomly oriented polycrystal, $\frac{X}{\tau} = \bar{M} = 3.06$. Therefore

$$M = 3.06 \sqrt{\frac{4}{3} (r^2 - r + 1)} \quad (17)$$

describes the shape of the M vs. r curve for randomly oriented grains (Fig. 4). Because of the shape of this curve, the presence of some randomly oriented grains in a textured sheet will make R move toward unity. For example in a sheet with the $[\bar{1}\bar{1}0]$ (111) texture, if half of the grains become randomly oriented the minimum occurs at $R = 2.33$ instead of at $R = \infty$ (Fig. 4).

The present analysis may be used to predict R values for sheets with textures that are rotationally symmetric about the sheet normal. With a crystallographic plane, (hkl) parallel to the rolling plane, all directions in (hkl) will be aligned with the axis of a tensile specimen cut from the sheet. For the purpose of analysis, such a texture has been approximated with a number of components, each sharing the common (hkl) plane, but differing from one another by 5° or 10° rotations about the normal to the sheet. Figures 5, 6, and 7 show the M vs. r curves for each of the various components of the textures with (100), (110) and (111) respectively in the plane of the sheet. By averaging the curves for the various components, M vs. r curves were obtained for rotationally symmetric textures with (100), (110) and (111) planes in the sheet (Fig. 8). Although pure (111) and (110) textures should give infinite R values, a small amount of some other component would preclude this possibility. The curve for randomly oriented grains is added for comparison.

The calculated curves may be related to the observations of Whiteley and Wise⁹ on steel sheets. When these authors evaluated the relative amounts of (111), (110) and (100) components and compared the results with experimental R values, they found that (111) contributed to high R , (110) was

neutral, while a small amount of (100) strongly depressed R. Such findings are consistent with the slopes dM/dr of the three curves in the range $r = 1/2$ to $2/3$ ($R = 1$ to 2) that characterized their steels. If only (111) and (100) were present, the minimum M would occur when $f_{(100)} \frac{dM_{(100)}}{dr} + f_{(111)} \frac{dM_{(111)}}{dr} = 0$. At $R = 1.5$, $\frac{dM_{(100)}}{dr} = .9$ and $\frac{dM_{(111)}}{dr} = -.2$ so that the effect of a (100) component in depressing R would balance the elevating effect of 4 to 5 times as much (111) component.

Limitation of the Analysis: It is important to consider the limitations involved in extending Taylor's analysis to the prediction of plastic anisotropy in cubic metals. The basic assumptions of the original theory were that deformation is homogeneous (each grain undergoes the same shape change as the polycrystalline aggregate), that the active slip systems are determined by the condition of least shear, and that the work hardening of all active slip systems is the same and depends only on the total amount of prior slip. These assumptions may form the bases for several reasonable objections to the analysis.

Sometimes during deformation the individual grains of a polycrystal may undergo shape changes which are quite different from those of the polycrystal itself. In $[110]$ fiber-textured wires of iron and tungsten, the grains are ribbon-shaped instead of cigar-shaped after drawing.¹⁰ During the compression of polycrystalline aluminum, the flow of individual grains strongly departs from axial symmetry once a $[110]$ texture is developed.¹¹ The formation of deformation bands represents still another departure from homogeneous flow. The deviations from assumed behavior which are usually not large, probably

occur in such a way as to lower the total amount of work so that the predicted strengths should be regarded as reasonable upper bounds to actual values.

The assumption that work hardening depends only on the total amount of prior slip might be questioned in view of the different combinations of slip systems and dislocation interactions that would prevail in differently oriented grains. If this were a major complication, the orientation dependence of strength could not be described by M alone. To test the point, work hardening was recently studied in aluminum crystals subjected to constrained axially-symmetric flow by drawing through dies.¹¹ The results indicated that the orientation dependence of strength was in fact adequately described by the variation of M over the stereographic triangle.

Applying the analysis to BCC metals involves the assumption that slip is restricted to $\{110\} \langle 111 \rangle$ systems. Apparent slip on $\{112\}$, $\{123\}$ and non-crystallographic planes may be due to frequent cross-slip of screw dislocations from one $\{110\}$ plane to another, which should occur readily. Even if slip does occur on other crystallographic planes, the prediction of the analysis still ought to have value for suggesting useful textural components. The reason is that in the analysis, restricting slip to 4 $\langle 111 \rangle$ directions is more severe than confining slip to 6 $\{110\}$ planes; and the former restriction accounts for a greater part of the anisotropy.

There seems to be no reasonable way, however, to extend the present analysis to HCP metals, in which the many slip and twinning systems have different critical stresses for operation.

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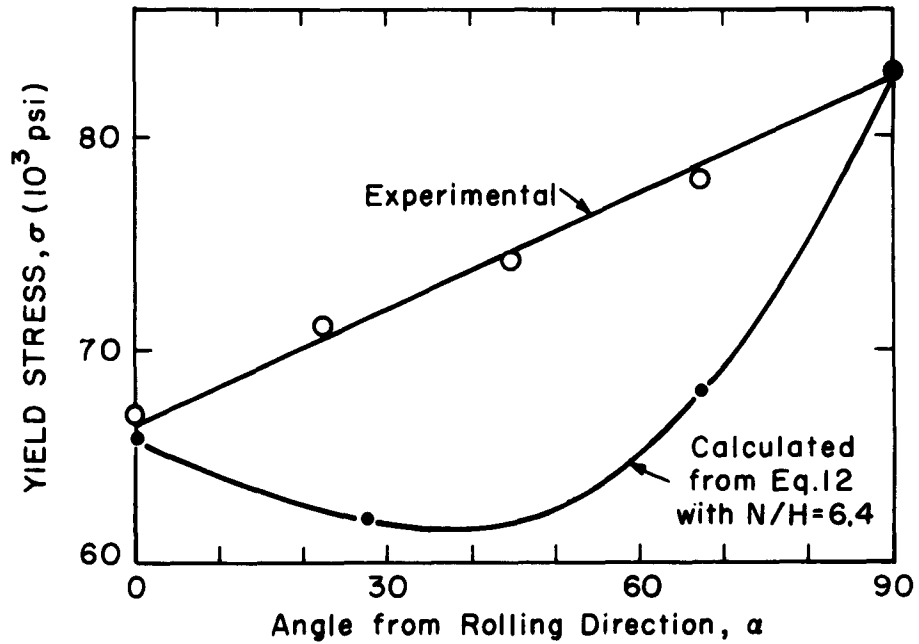
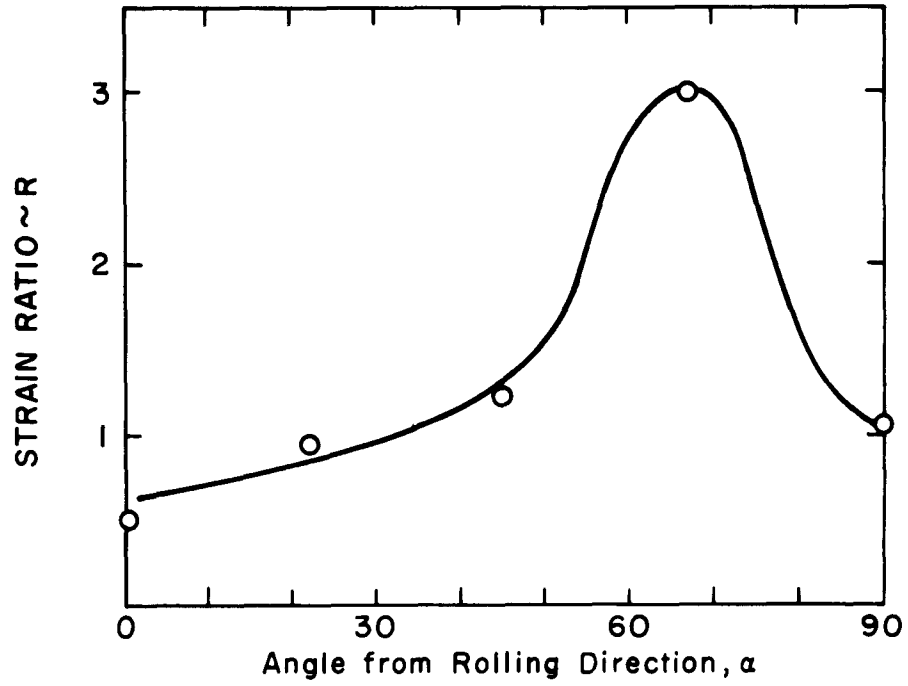


Fig. 1. Angular dependence of strain ratio, R , and tensile yield stress, σ , in strip tensile specimens cut from a titanium sheet (RC-70, annealed).

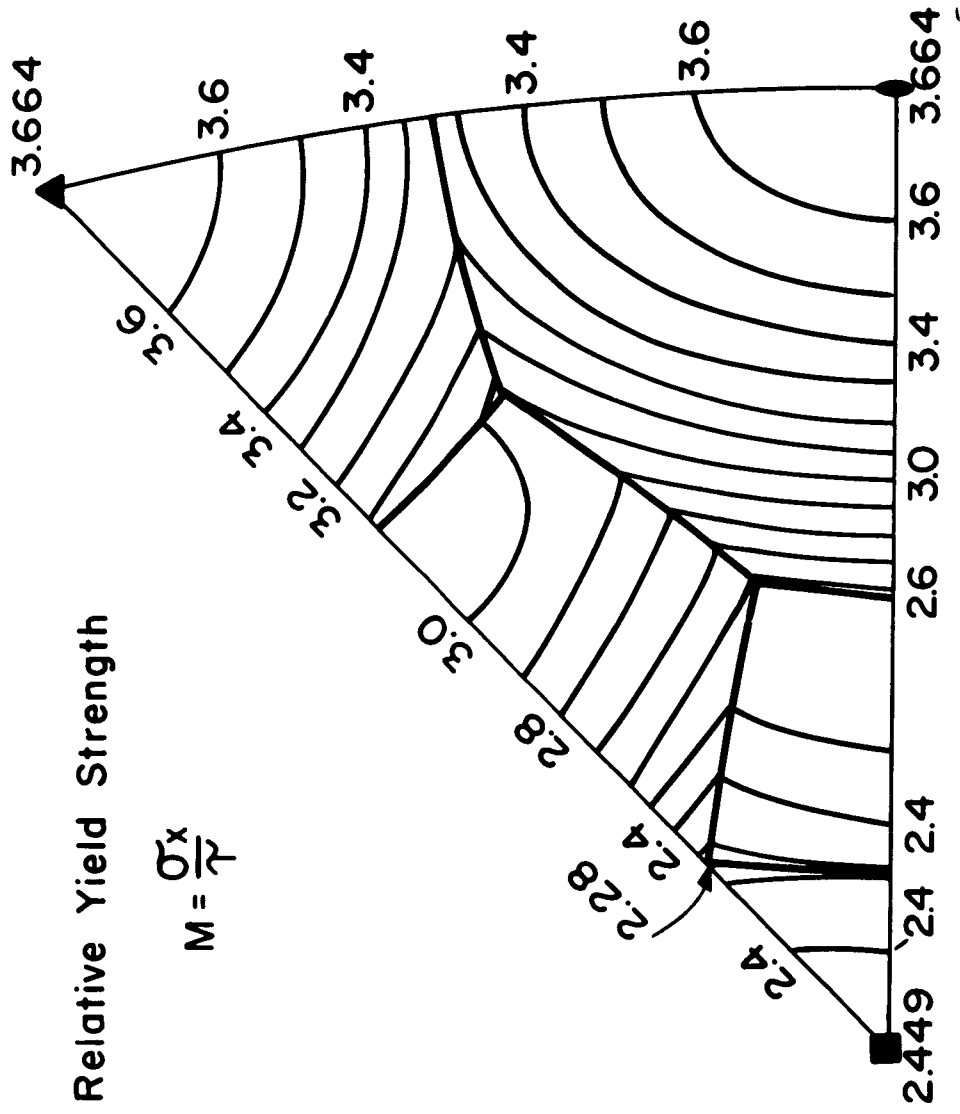


Fig. 2. Orientation dependence of M for axially symmetric flow.

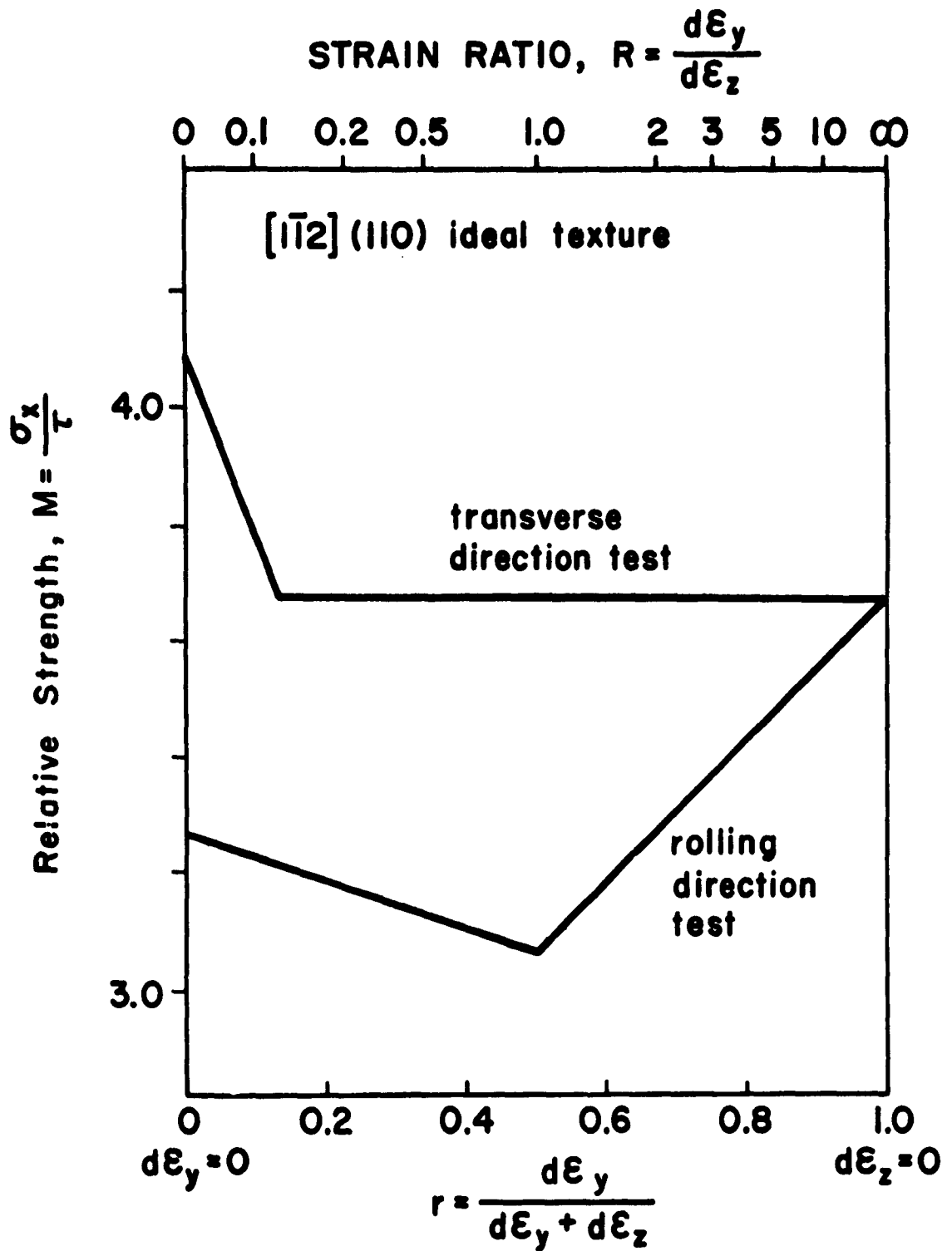


Fig. 3. Dependence of M on r for rolling and transverse direction tension tests in a sheet of ideal $[1\bar{1}2] (110)$ texture. Expected behavior corresponds to lowest M values.

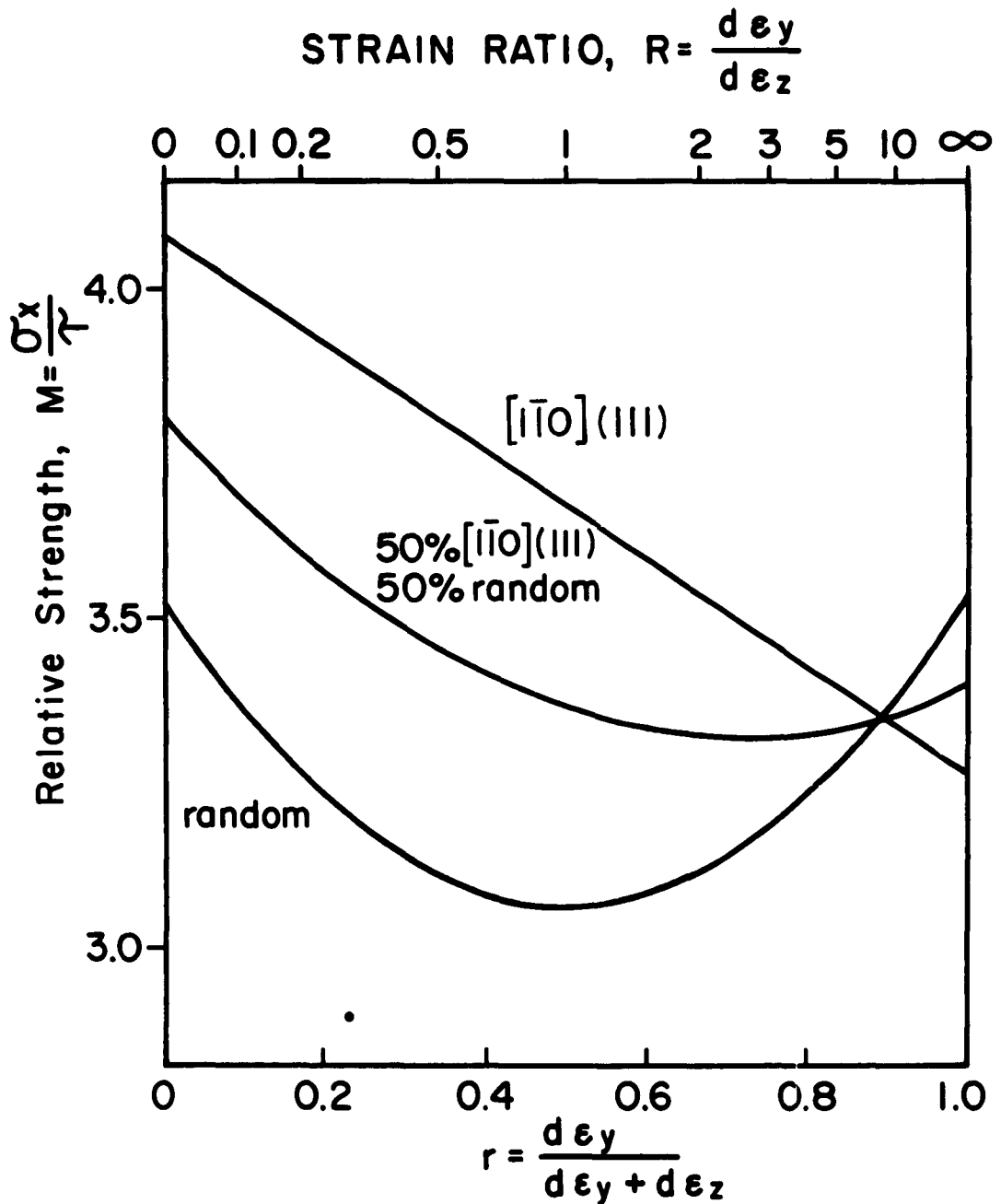


Fig. 4. Dependence of M on r for rolling direction tension tests of sheets with ideal $[1\bar{1}0](111)$ texture, with randomly oriented grains, and with equal mixture of ideal $[1\bar{1}0](111)$ and random components. The presence of 50% randomly oriented grains shifts the minimum M from $r = 1$, ($R = \infty$) to $r = 0.7$, ($R = 2.33$).

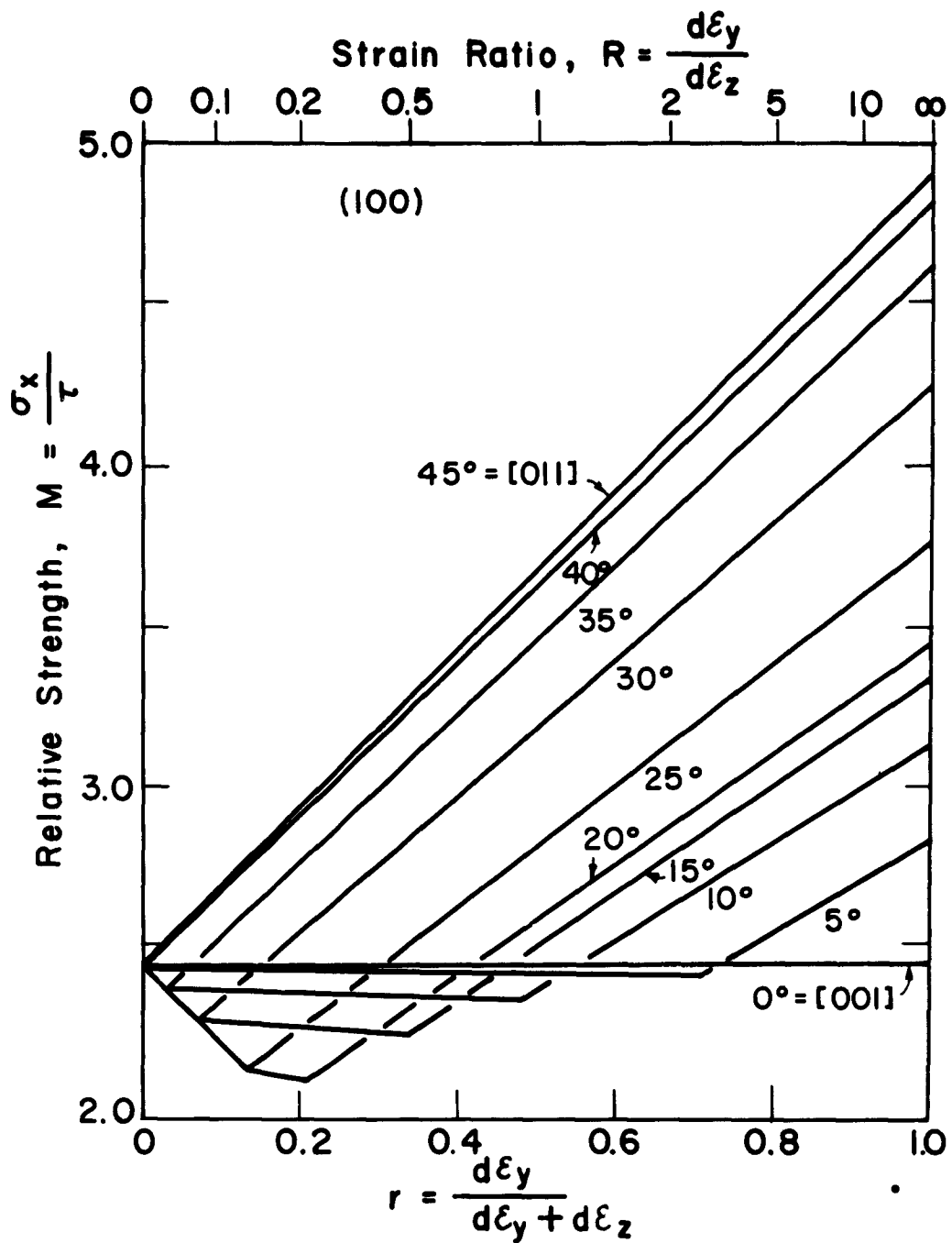


Fig. 5. M vs. r curves for various components of a (100) sheet texture. Angles between tensile axis and [001] are indicated for each component.

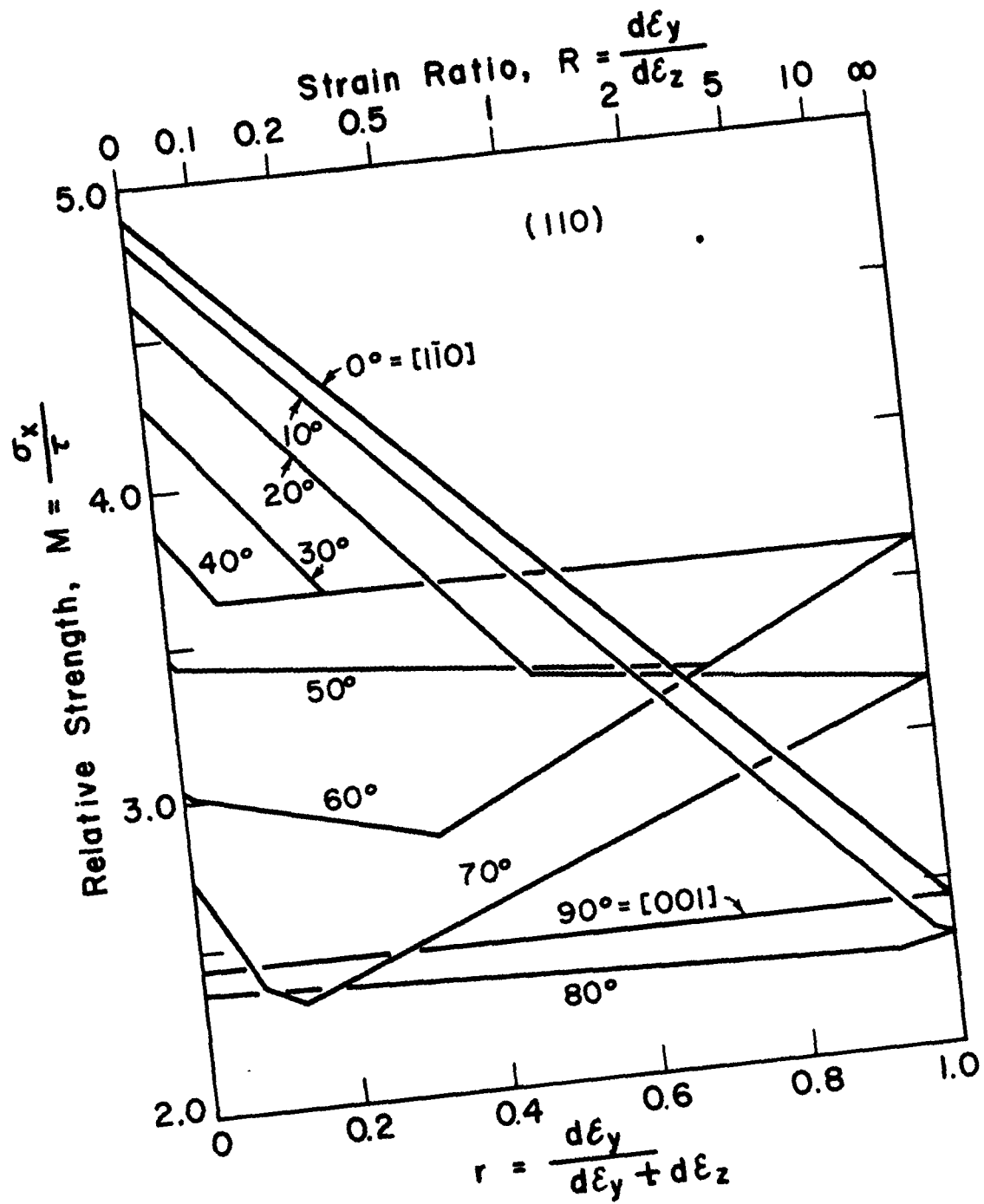


Fig. 6. M vs. r curves for various components of a (110) sheet texture. Angles between tensile axis and [110] are indicated for each component.

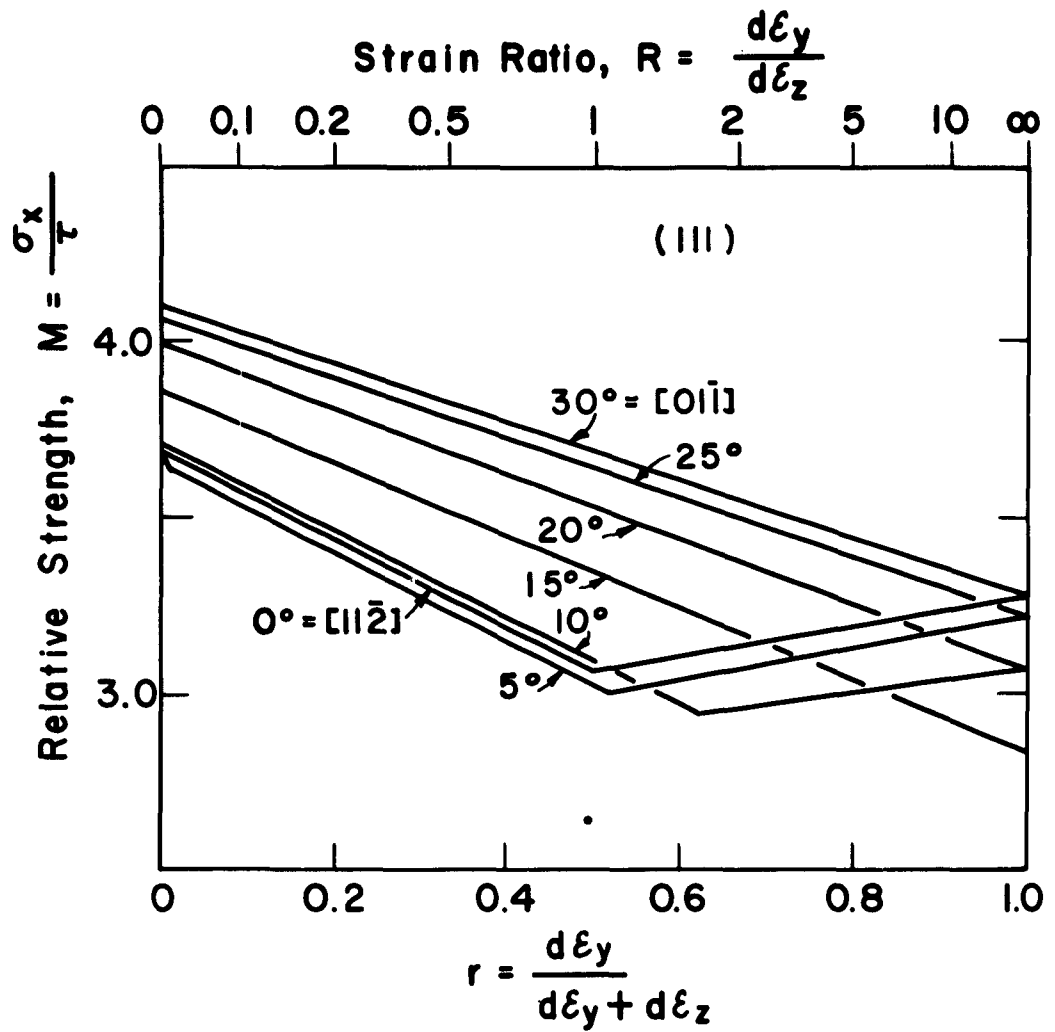


Fig. 7. M vs. r curves for various components of a (111) sheet texture. Angles between tensile axis and $[11\bar{2}]$ are indicated for each component.

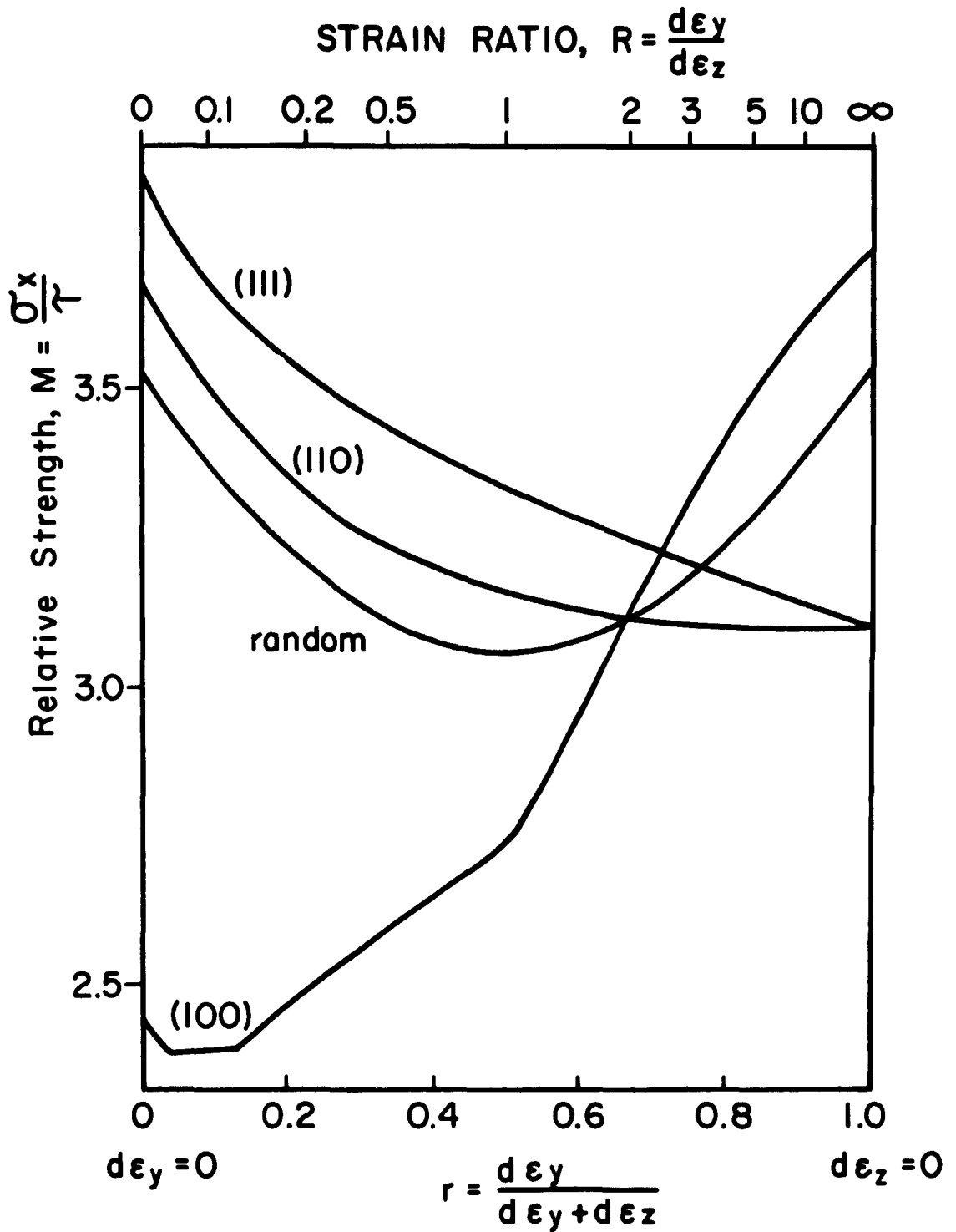


Fig. 8. M vs. r curves for textures which are rotationally symmetric about the sheet normal. Curves are shown for sheets in which (111), (110) and (100) are parallel to the rolling plane, and for randomly oriented sheets.

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