

# Materials

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## Bonding between Atoms

### Attraction

Coulombic force between particles

$$F_A = q_1 q_2 / 4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2$$

$q_1, q_2$  – electric charge of the two ions

$\epsilon_0$  – permittivity of vacuum

$r$  – distance between particles

More simply

$$F_A = A' / r^2$$

Work done by  $F_A$  for pulling particle from infinity to position  $r$

$$E_A = \int_r^\infty F_A dr = -\frac{A}{r}$$

### Repulsion

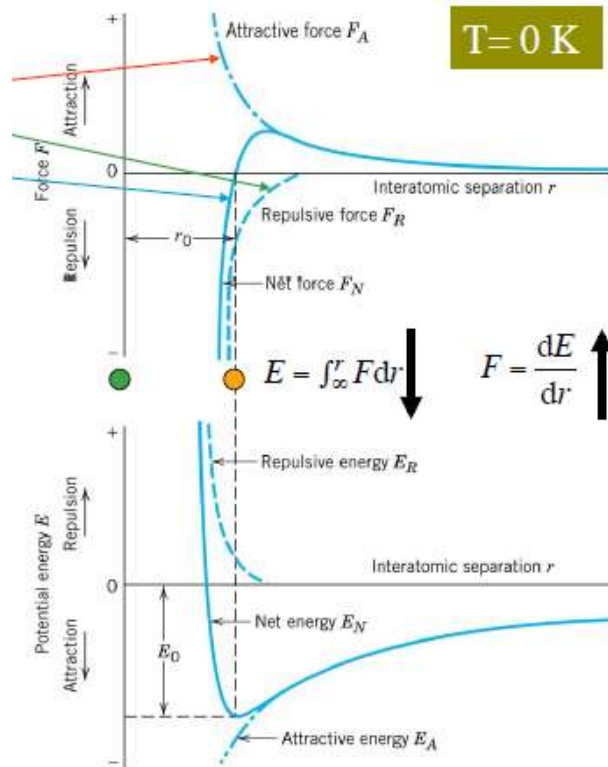
$$F_R = -\frac{B'}{r^{n+1}}$$

$$E_R = B / r^n$$

### Total

$$F_N = \frac{dE_N}{dr} = F_A + F_R = \frac{A'}{r^2} - \frac{B'}{r^{n+1}} \cong \frac{A'}{r^{m+1}} - \frac{B'}{r^{n+1}}$$

$$E_N = E_A + E_R = -\frac{A}{r} + \frac{B}{r^n} \cong -\frac{A}{r^m} + \frac{B}{r^n}$$



### Covalent bonding

Sharing electrons, strong primary bonds

$m < n$

### Metallic bonding

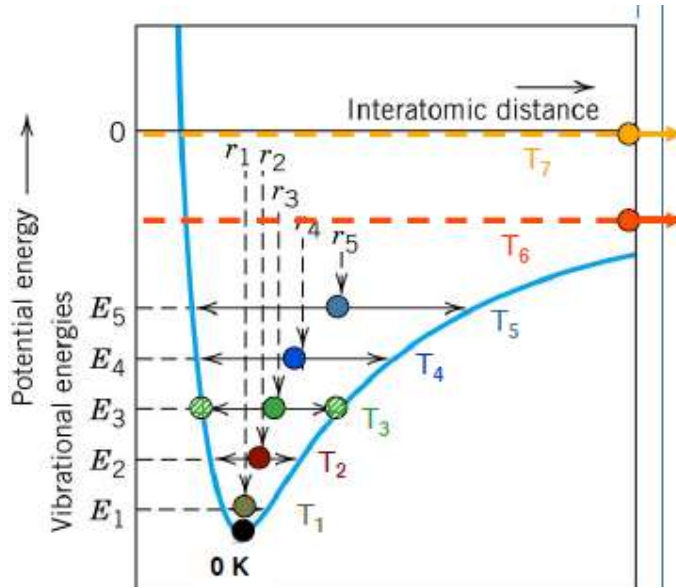
Valence electrons can move freely from atom to atom – not localised

$m < n$

### van der Waals bonding

Dipoles form and go at all times, attraction between oppositely charged poles, weak secondary bonds

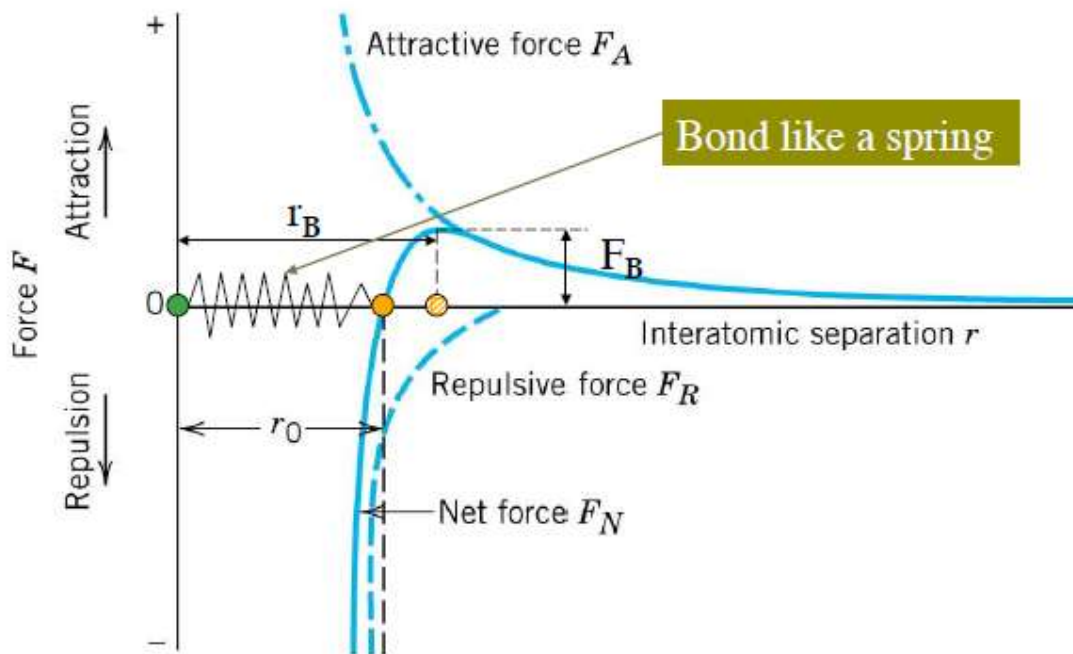
### Effect of Temperature



$$T_1 < T_2 < T_3 < T_4 < T_5$$

As temperature increases,  $r$  increases – thermal expansion

### Effect of Force



$r_B$ : breaking distance

$F_B$ : breaking force

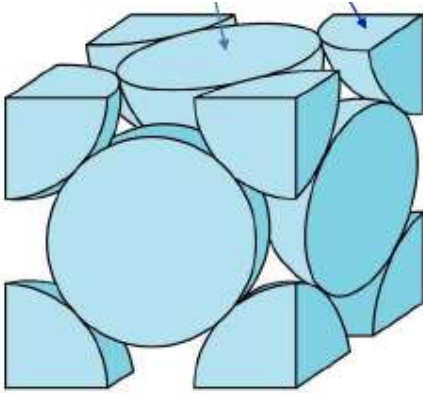
Once you have passed the breaking distance/force it becomes easier to pull the atom away

## Structure of Crystalline Solids

### General

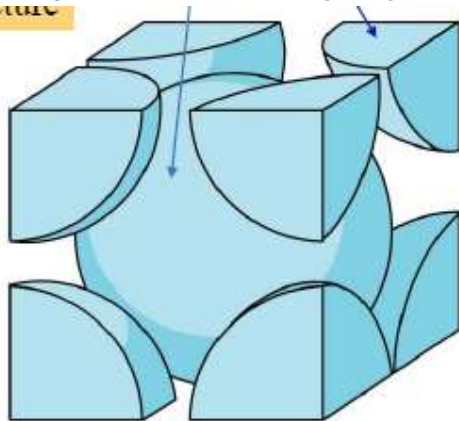
- Amorphous solids – packing of atoms is random
- Crystalline – periodic packing of atoms
- Unit cell – repeating unit in crystal
- Materials take certain structures so that the lowest potential is achieved

### Face-Centered Cubic (FCC)



Equivalent atoms	4
Length of a	$2\sqrt{2} * R$
Total volume of unit cell	$16\sqrt{2}R^3$
Total volume of atoms	$\frac{16}{3}\pi R^3$
Atomic packing factor (APF)	0.74
Packing type	AB

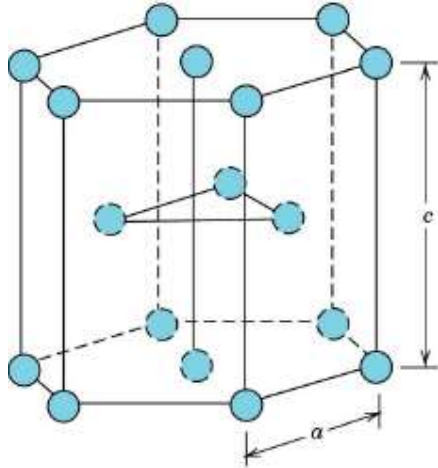
### Body-Centered Cubic (BCC)



Equivalent atoms	2
Length of a	$\frac{4R}{\sqrt{3}}$

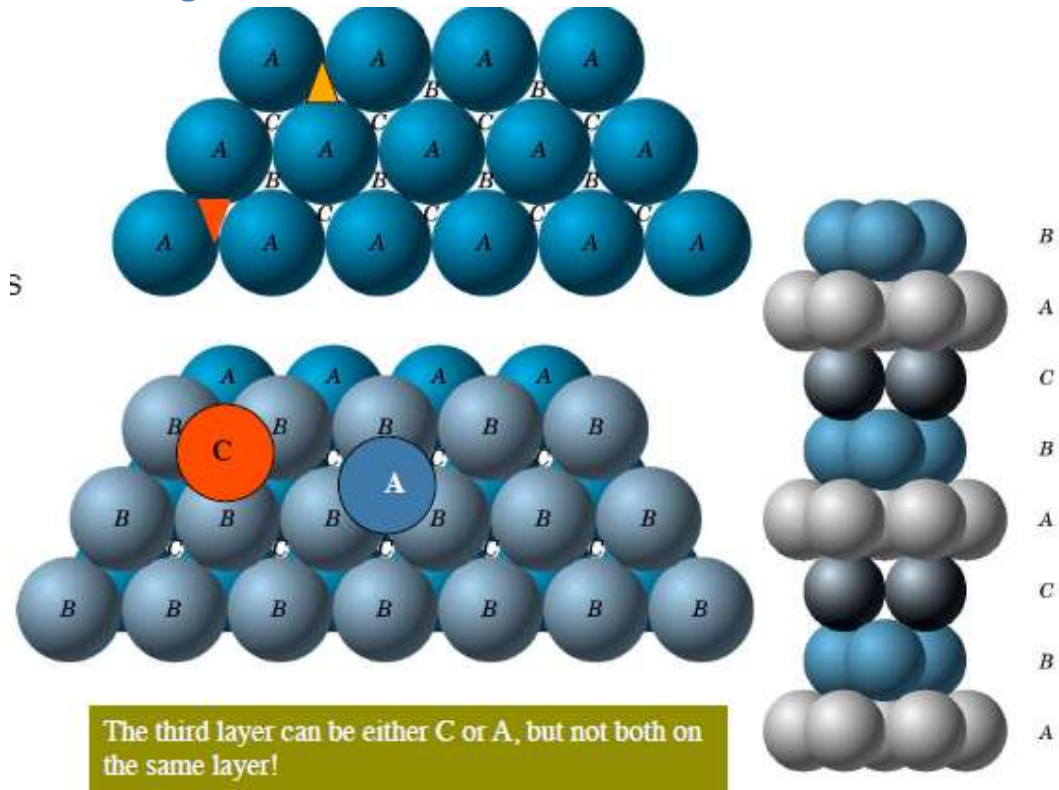
Total volume of unit cell	$\frac{64R^3}{3\sqrt{3}}$
Total volume of atoms	$\frac{8}{3}\pi R^3$
Atomic packing factor (APF)	0.68

### Hexagonal Close-Packed (HCP)



Equivalent atoms	6
Ratio $c/a$	1.633
Total volume	
Atomic packing factor (APF)	0.74
Packing type	ABC

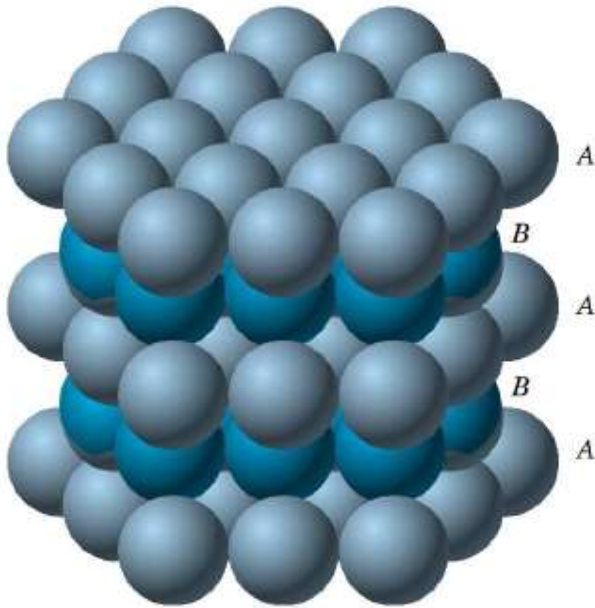
ABC Packing



Close-packed plane (layer A)

Interstitial sites: B (upright triangles), C (upside down triangles)

## AB Packing



## Miller indices

$\langle uvw \rangle$  is a family of directions  $[uvw]$ , every direction has the same arrangement of atoms

$\{uvw\}$  is a family of planes  $(uvw)$

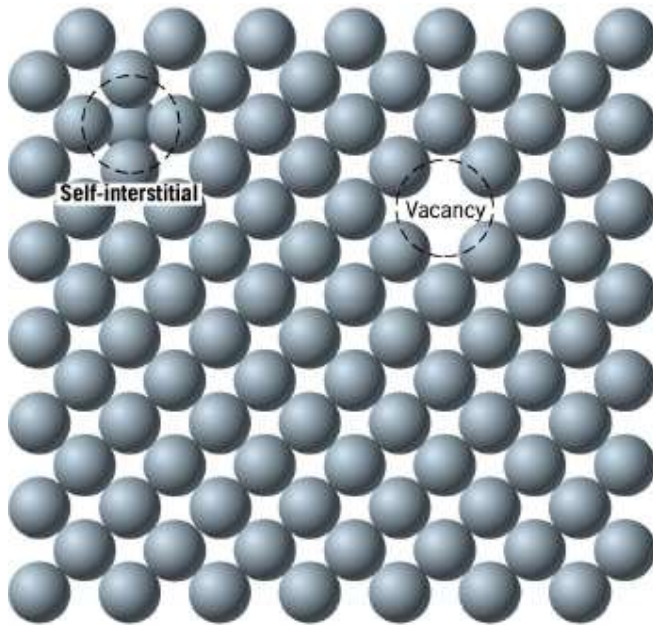
## Defects in Crystalline Solids

### General

- Perfect crystals have no irregularity
- Defects can give strength and rise to processes like diffusion
- Distortion is deviation of atoms from their sites
- Defects have higher energy

## Point defects

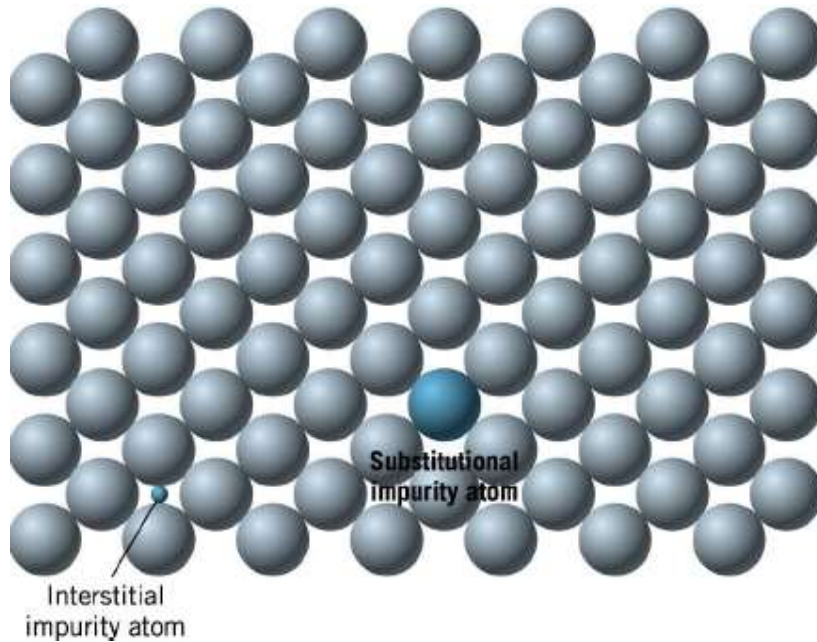
### Vacancy



- Atoms missing from lattice sites
- $\frac{N_V}{N} = \exp\left(-\frac{Q_v}{kT}\right)$ 
  - N - total number of lattice sites
  - $Q_v$  - formation energy of one vacancy
  - k - Boltzmann's constant
  - T - absolute temperature
- $N_v = 0$  only at  $T = 0$
- $N_v = 1$  at  $T = \text{infinity}$
- $N_v$  increases with T



## Impurity (Alloying)

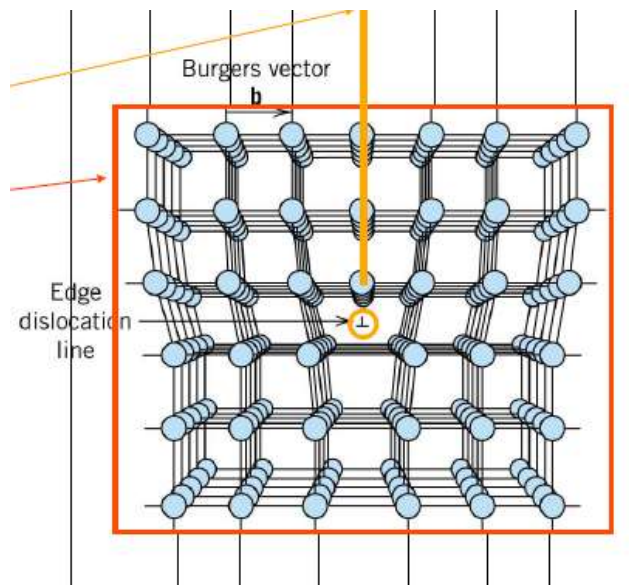


- Substitutional atoms occupy the lattice sites of host atoms
- Interstitial atoms stay between the host atoms

## Line defects

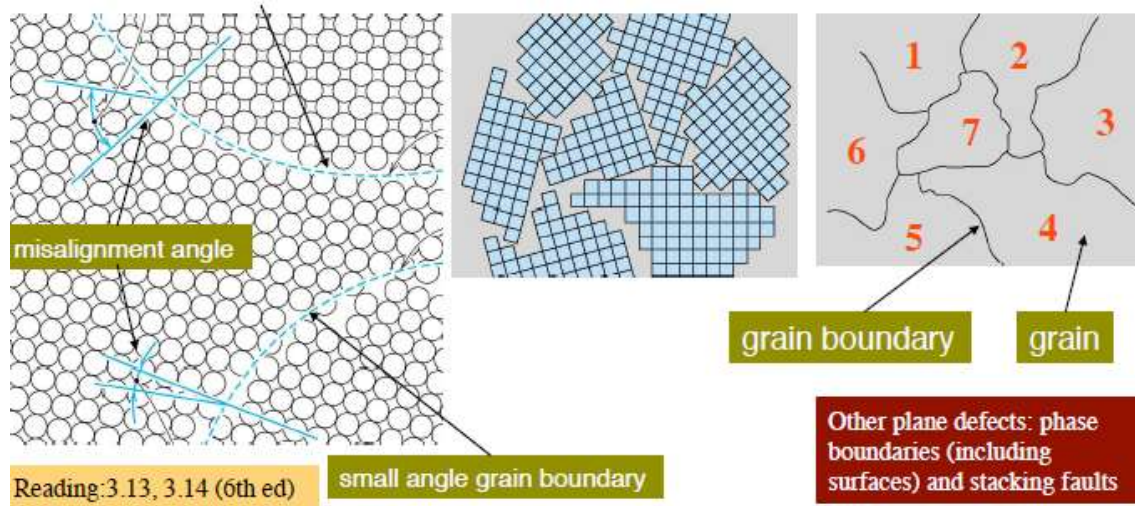
### Dislocations

- Edge dislocations: extra half plane of atoms, distortion around dislocation line with associated elastic energy due to changing distance between atoms.
- Screw dislocations: displaced atoms along dislocation line
- Mixed dislocations



## Plane defects

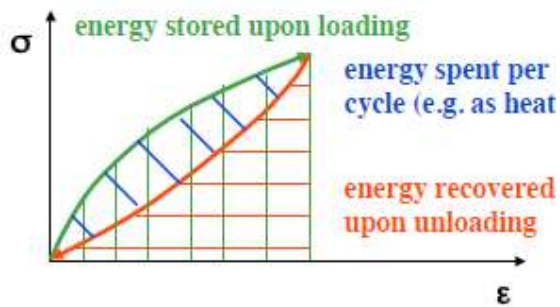
### Grain boundaries



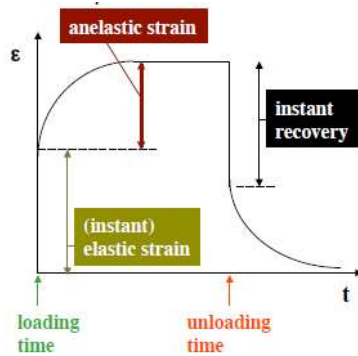
## Elastic Deformation

### General

- Bonds are being pulled apart, linear relationship for most materials (metal), nonlinear for some (rubber)
- Some materials lose energy during unloading



- Anelasticity – time dependent elastic deformation



## Formulas

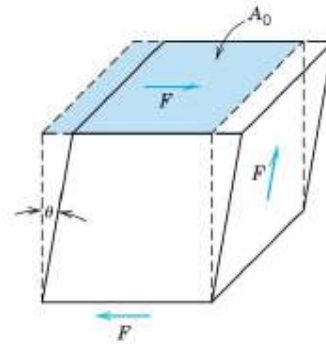
$$\text{Stress: } \sigma = \frac{F_n}{A_0}$$

$$\text{Shear stress: } \tau = \frac{F_s}{A_0}$$

$$\text{Strain: } \epsilon = \frac{l - l_0}{l_0} = \frac{\delta l}{l_0}$$

$$\text{Poissons: } \nu = -\frac{\epsilon_w}{\epsilon}$$

$$\text{Shear strain: } \gamma = \tan\theta$$



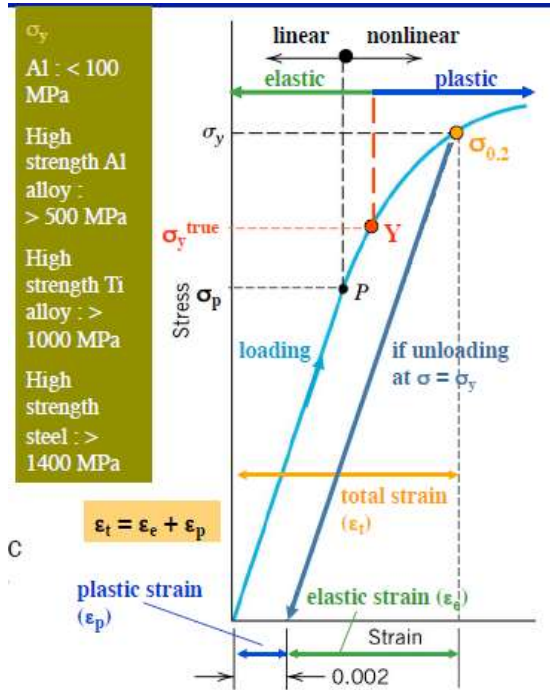
$$\text{Elastic modulus: } E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \text{ (Represents stiffness of bonds)}$$

## Plastic Deformation

### General

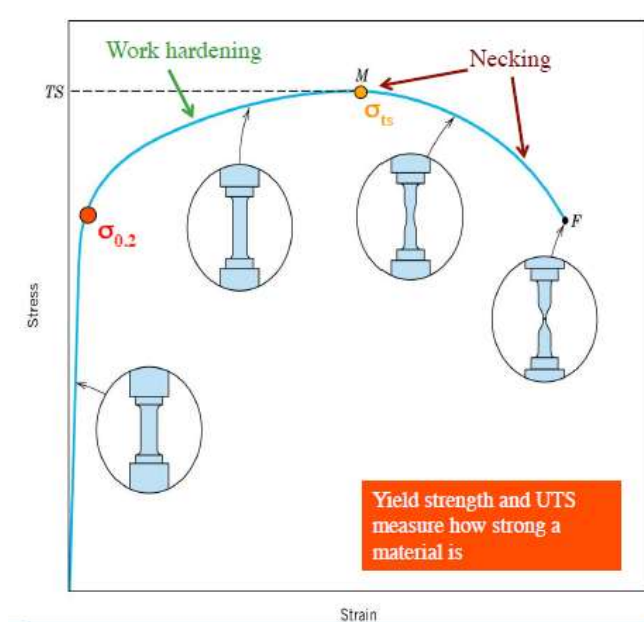
- Movement of dislocations
- Permanent deformation

## Yielding



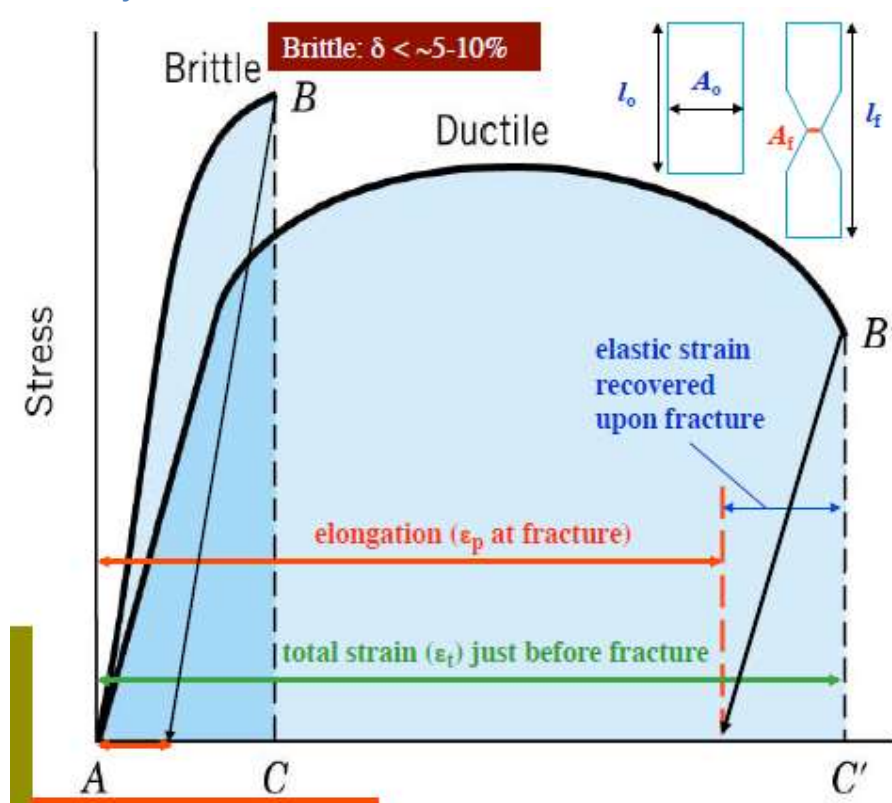
- Yield point – divides between elastic/plastic
- Proportional limit – divides between linear and nonlinear behaviour
- 0.2% proof stress – Approximates yield point with line parallel to linear region drawn from 0.2% strain

## Tensile Strength



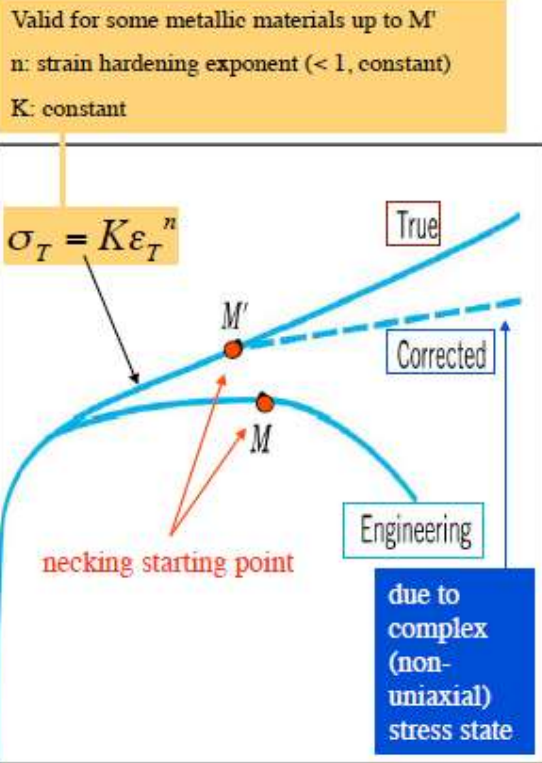
- Maximum stress material can withstand
- Higher than yield stress due to work hardening
- Necking happens after this point until fracture

Ductility



- Total plastic strain at fracture:  $\delta = \frac{l_f - l_0}{l_0}$
- Reduction in area:  $RA = \frac{A_0 - A_f}{A_0}$

## True Stress and Strain



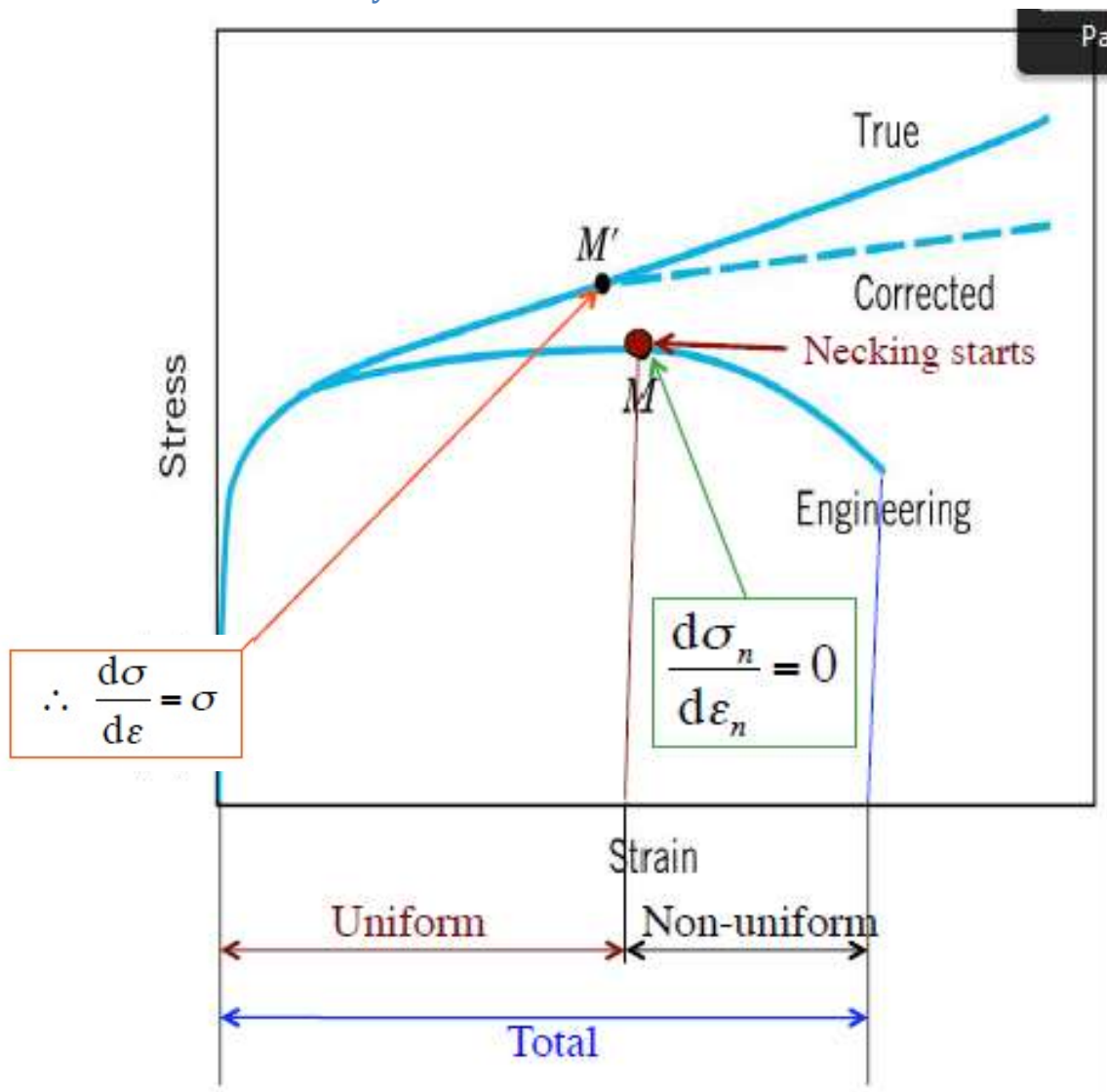
- Area/Length change as material is deformed
- $\sigma_T = \frac{F}{A_i}$
- $\epsilon_T = \int d\epsilon = \int_{l_0}^{l_f} \frac{dl_i}{l_i} = \ln\left(\frac{l_f}{l_0}\right)$
- In plotting the true stress vs true strain curve

$$\sigma_T = \sigma(1 + \epsilon)$$

$$\epsilon_T = \ln(1 + \epsilon)$$

After necking, use actual force area and length to calculate true stress and strain as these equations are no longer valid

## Plastic Instability

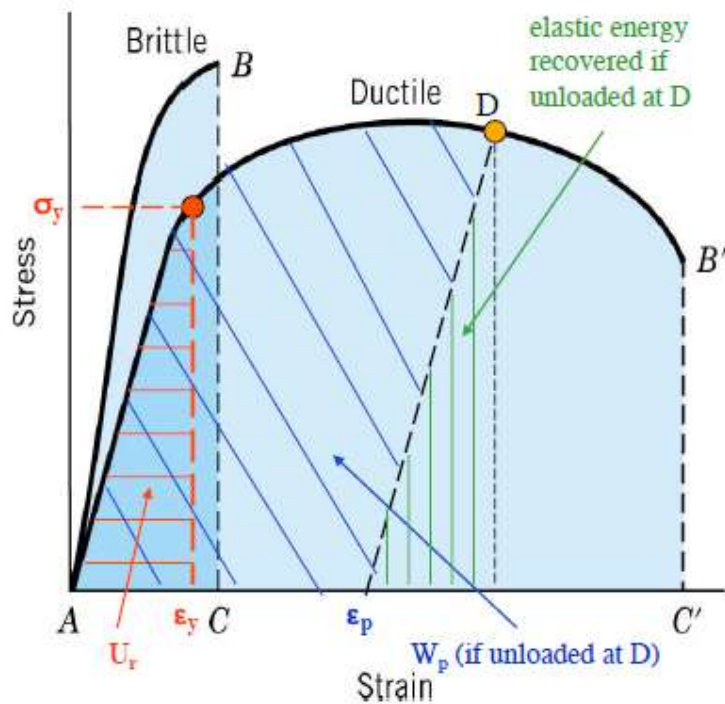


- Before UTS plastic deformation is uniform
- At UTS, necking starts and deformation becomes non-uniform (becomes localised at neck)
- Want to maximise uniform deformation
- Flow stress is the stress needed to cause flow (plastic deformation)

Flow force =  $A\sigma_T$  ( $A$  is the real area at the moment)

- in tension:  $A \downarrow$ ;  
 $\sigma_T \uparrow$  (work hardening)
- if  $\sigma_T \uparrow$  more than  $A \downarrow$  so that  $A\sigma_T \uparrow$ , flow not localised
- if  $\sigma_T \uparrow$  less than  $A \downarrow$  so that  $A\sigma_T \downarrow$ , flow localised = instability (necking)

## Resilience and plastic work



- Modulus of resilience is the elastic strain energy per volume stored in the material at point of yielding

$$U_r = \int_0^{\epsilon_y} \sigma d\epsilon$$

When Hooke's law applies

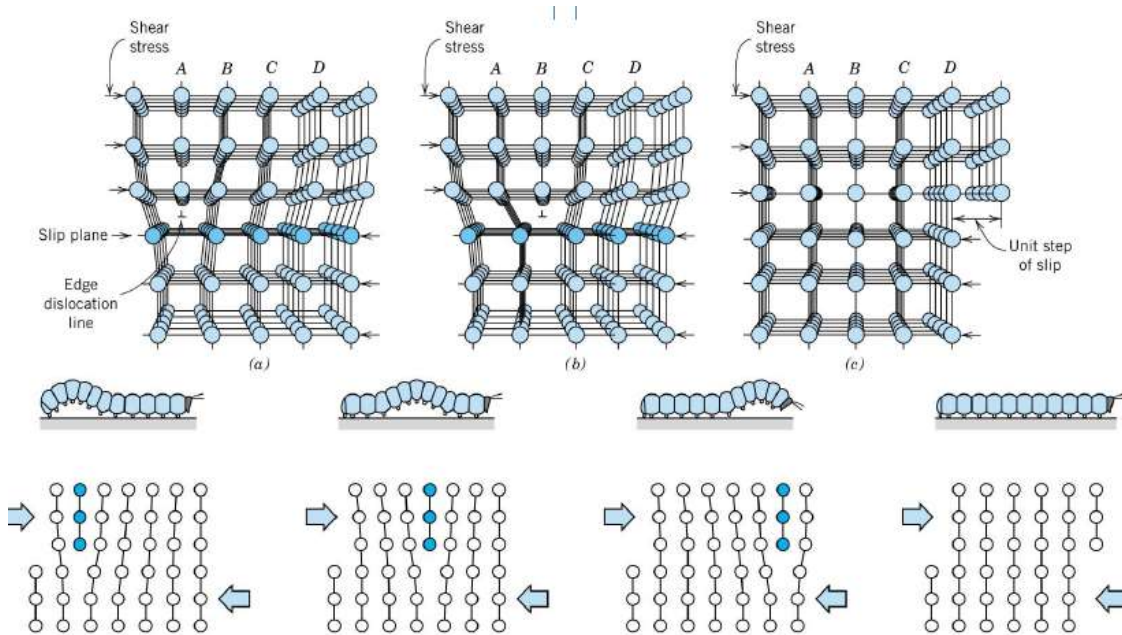
$$U_r \cong \frac{1}{2} \sigma_y \epsilon_y = \frac{\sigma_y^2}{2E}$$

- Plastic work per volume  $W_p$  – work done to cause a plastic strain of  $\epsilon_p$



## Dislocations & Plastic Deformation

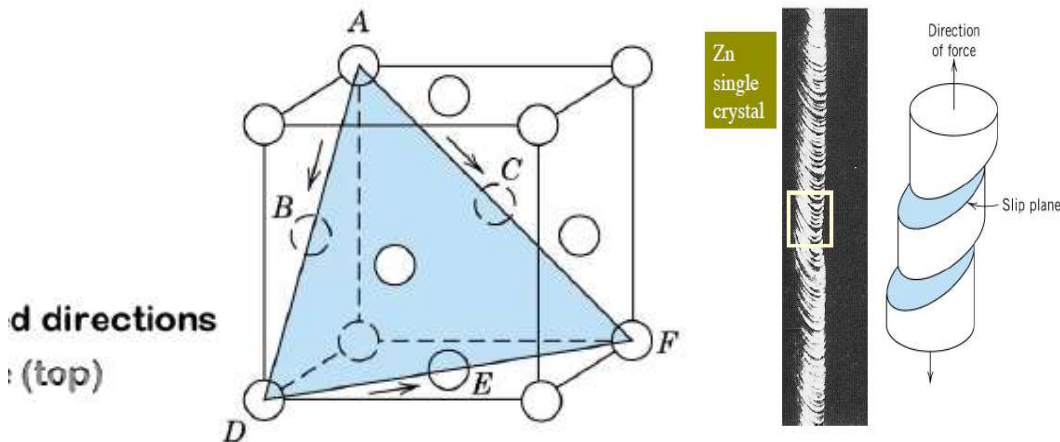
### Movement of dislocations



- Dislocation shifts across

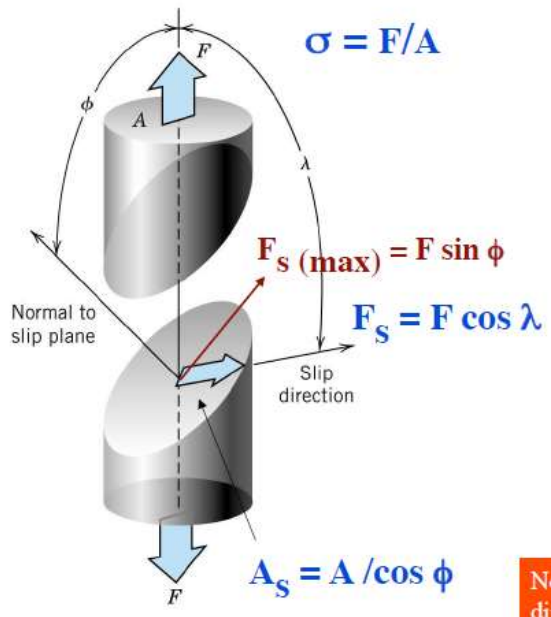
### Slip Systems

- 12 slip systems in a FCC structure: 4 x {111} planes & 3 <110> directions on each plane



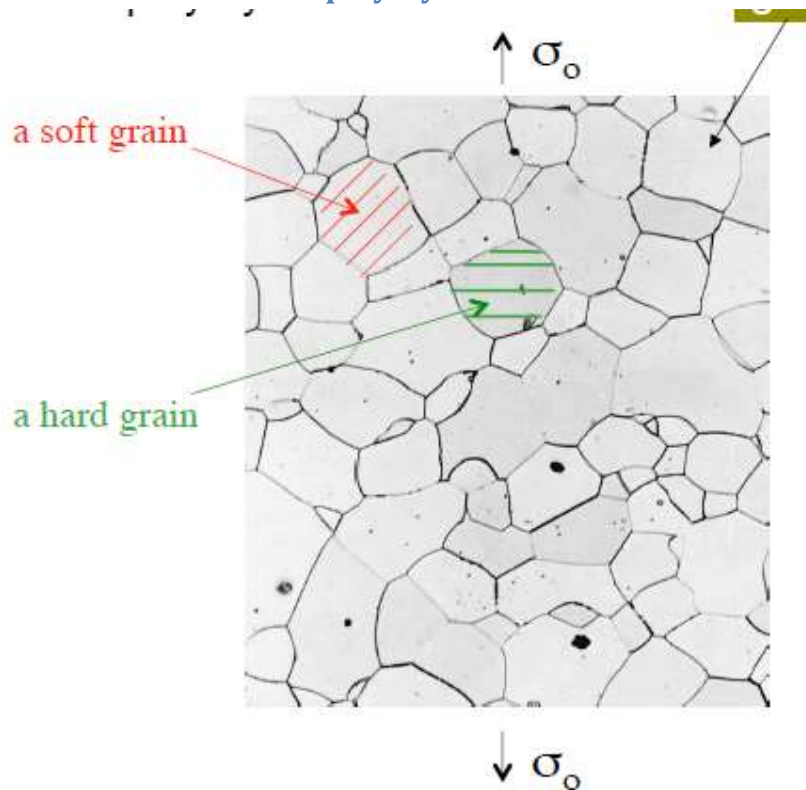
- Dislocation moves on slip plane
- Dislocation density increases with deforming
- Often takes place on close packed planes and directions because they require smallest stress to slip
- One slip plane + one slip direction = slip system

## Slip in single crystals



- $\phi$  is angle between normal to slip plane and force
- $\lambda$  is angle between force and slip direction
- *Schmidt factor* =  $\cos \phi \cos \lambda$
- $\tau_R = \frac{F_s}{A_s} = \sigma \cos \phi \cos \lambda$
- $\tau_{R(\text{MAX})} = \sigma \cos \phi \cos \lambda = \sigma \cos \phi \sin \phi, \lambda = \frac{\pi}{2} - \phi$
- The stress required to cause slip is the critical resolve shear stress  $\tau_{CRSS}$

## Plastic deformation of polycrystalline materials

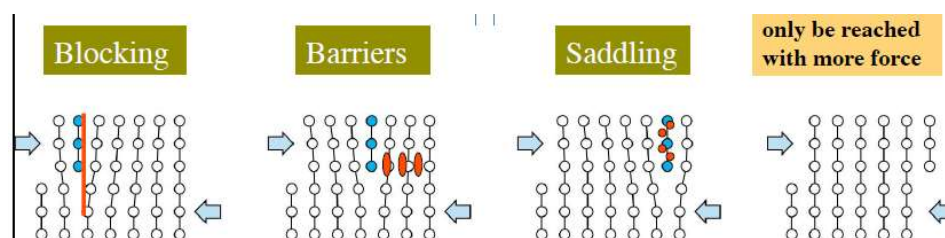


- Grains have their own usually random orientation
- Schmid factor varies, so an average behaviour is observed
- Yield strength is dependent on grain size

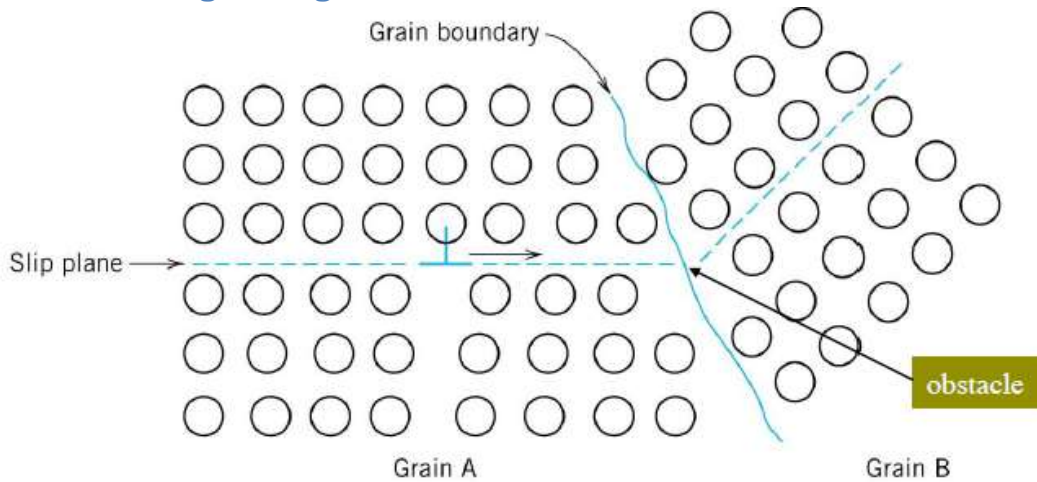
## Strengthening and Softening

### General

- Alloys typically stronger than pure
- Alloys stronger as more deformed
- Finer grain sizes are stronger
- Metals can be softer after exposure at higher temp
- Strengthening occurs by stopping movement of dislocations/increasing difficulty of movement
- Can be achieved by changing composition

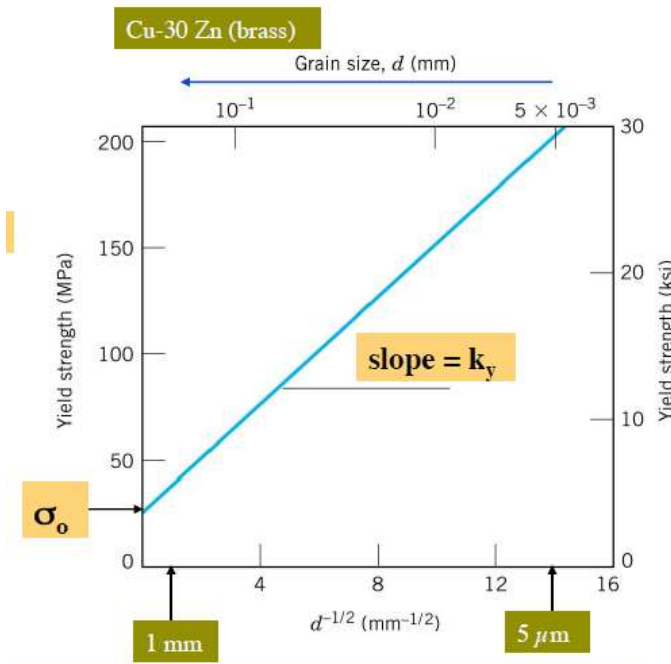


### Grain Size Strengthening

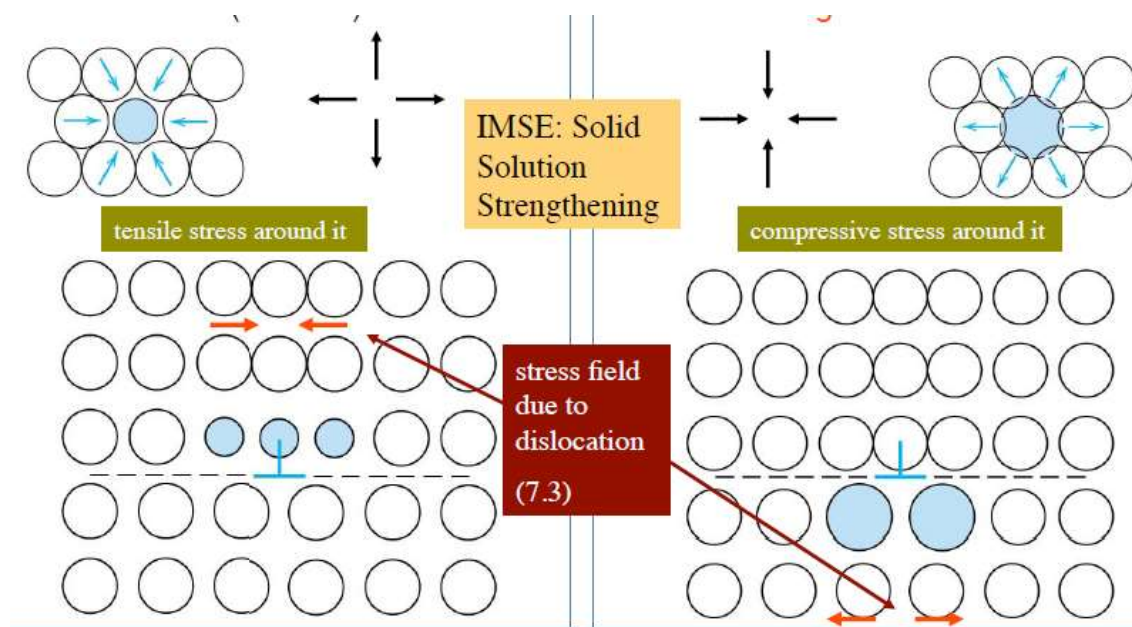
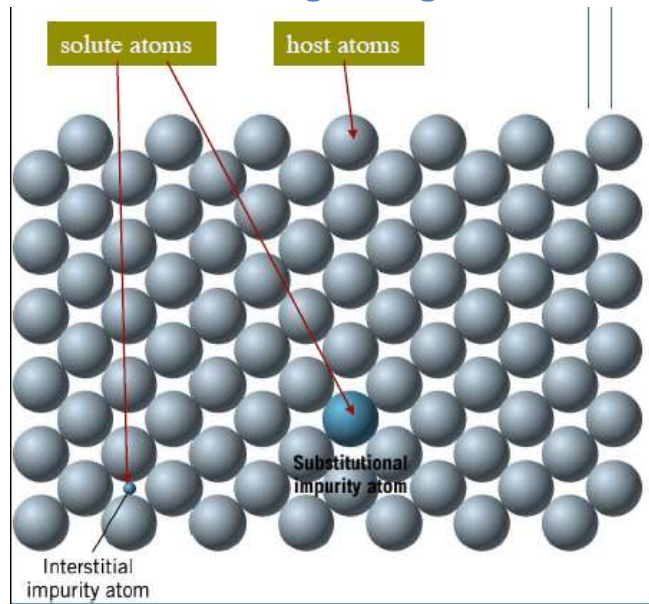


- Grain boundaries can be a barrier to dislocations
- Dislocations may not be able to continue between grains as they are different orientations
- Large angle boundaries are more effective
- Finer grains = more grain boundaries
- Hall-Petch relationship,  $\sigma_0$ ,  $k_y$  are constants.  
Yield strength increases rapidly with decreasing grain size. May not work at extreme small/large grain sizes.

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_0 + \frac{k_y}{\sqrt{d}}$$

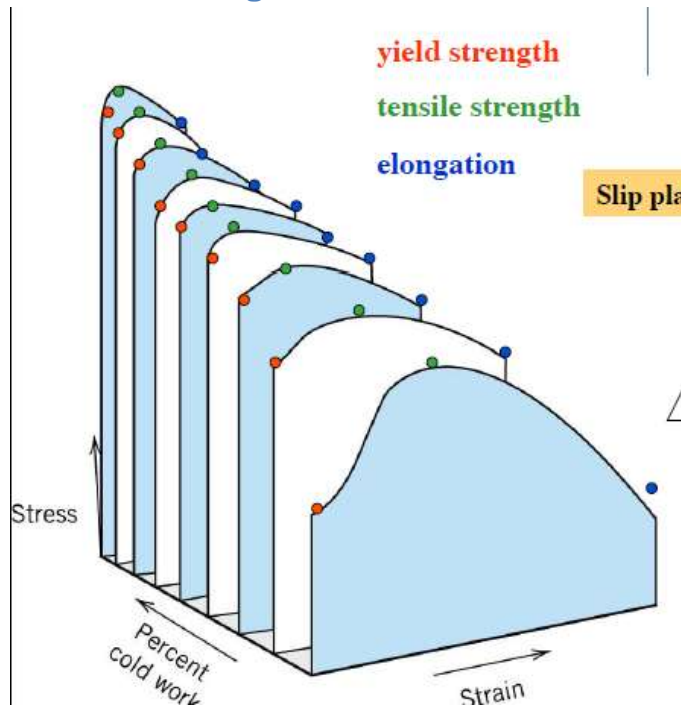


### Solid Solution Strengthening



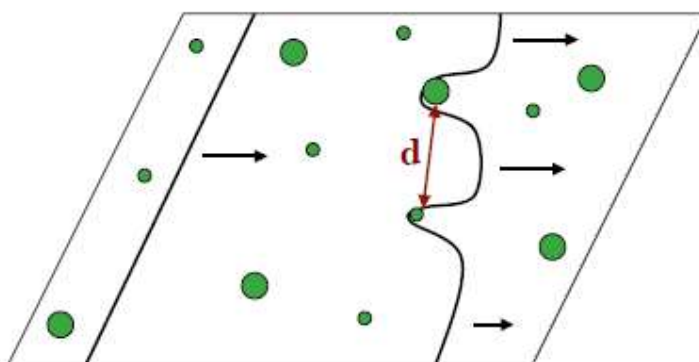
- Smaller/Larger atoms cause compressive/tensile stress fields around them.
- Atoms 'saddle' dislocations
- Makes it harder for dislocations to move
- $\Delta\sigma_y \propto \sqrt{C_{solute}}$ ,  $C_{solute}$  is the concentration of solute atoms

## Strain hardening



- Cold working (deforming material at low temp) hardens the material
- Yield strength/UTS increased but elongation reduced with increasing strain
- $\%CW = \frac{A_0 - A}{A_0} * 100$ ,  $A_0$  is area before deformation,  $A$  is area after deformation
- In cold working the density of dislocations increases and they interact with each other making dislocation movement more difficult
- $\Delta\sigma_y \propto \sqrt{P_{dislocation}}$

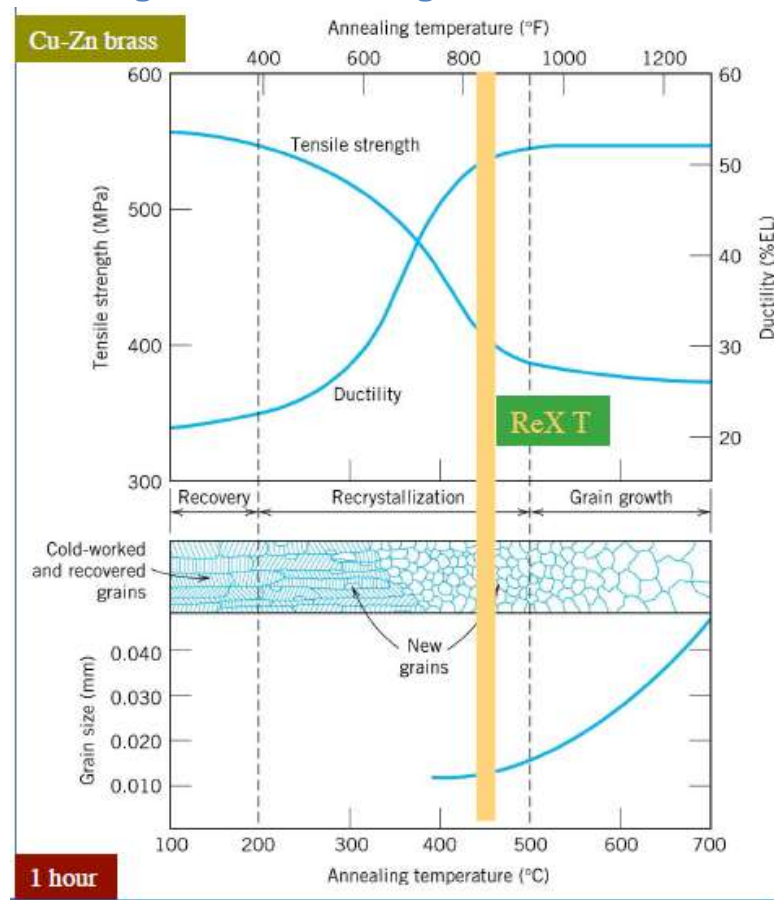
## Precipitation Strengthening



Slip plane

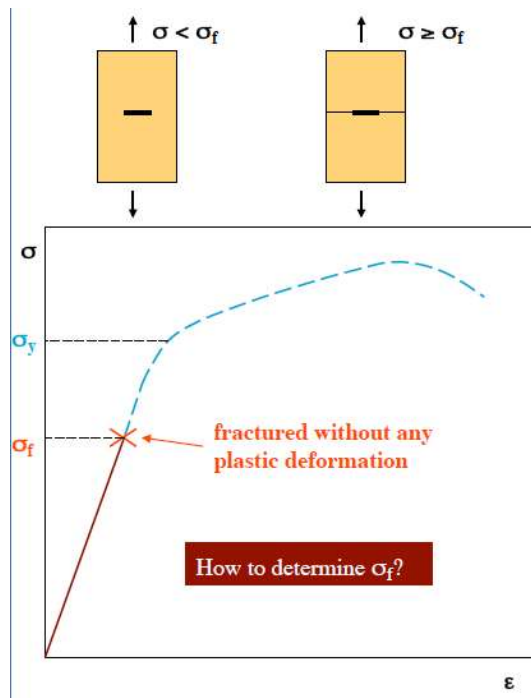
- Fine particles act as obstacles to dislocation
- Dislocations can pass through by looping or cutting through, requires extra stress
- $\Delta\sigma_y \propto \frac{1}{d}$ ,  $d$  is the average interparticle spacing

## Softening after cold working



- Recovery
  - Heating a cold worked material with moderately elevated T
  - Dislocations will rearrange themselves reducing amount of dislocations and lower energy configuration
  - Strength lowered
- Recrystallisation
  - Heating to above recrystallization temp creates new grains with low dislocation density from matrix of high strain energy
  - Reduces number of dislocations dramatically
  - Decrease in strength and increase in ductility
- Grain growth
  - Grains will become larger with time at elevated temp
  - Driven by reduction in grain boundary area

## Fast Fracture



## General

- Materials may have cracks in them
- Cracks can propagate
  - Very fast: sudden fracture
  - Slow: fatigue and creep failure
- Brittle fracture
  - Happens without plastic deformation first, most dangerous
- Can strengthen by diverting cracks/consuming energy and increase *toughness*



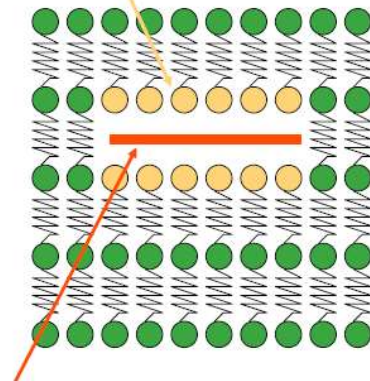
**Griffith Criterion**

- Energy of a crack

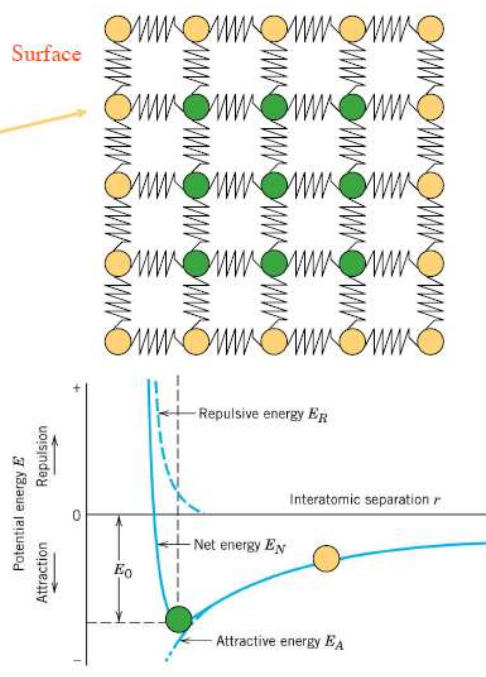
$$G_c = 2 \gamma_s$$

$\gamma_s$ : surface energy per area

atoms with higher energy due to less bonds



Crack (no bonding across it)



$$G_c = 2\gamma_s$$

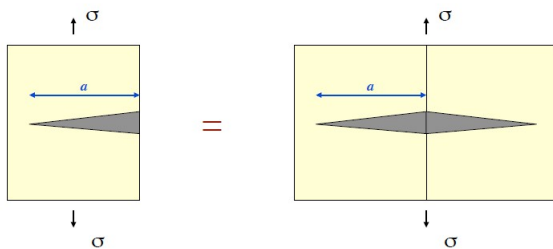
$\gamma_s$ : surface energy per area

- For a piece of material volume  $V$  containing a crack with area  $A$  with a given stress, total elastic energy stored is  $E^e V$ , total crack energy is  $G_c A$
- For fast propagation, energy released due to cutting bonds > increase in energy of crack due to larger size.
- Griffith Criterion

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{2E\gamma_s}{\pi a}} = \sigma_c$$

When stress reaches critical value, an internal crack with size of  $2a$  or surface crack with size of  $a$  becomes unstable and will propagate fast causing fracture.

- Surface crack is more dangerous



## Fracture toughness

- Can rewrite Griffith criterion

$$\sigma\sqrt{\pi a} = \sqrt{2E\gamma_s} = \sqrt{EG_c}$$

- Criterion for fast fracture

$$Y\sigma\sqrt{\pi a} = K$$

$K$  = stress intensity factor

$Y$  = constant,  $Y \cong 1$  for small cracks

$\sqrt{EG_c} = K_c$ , Critical stress intensity factor = fracture toughness

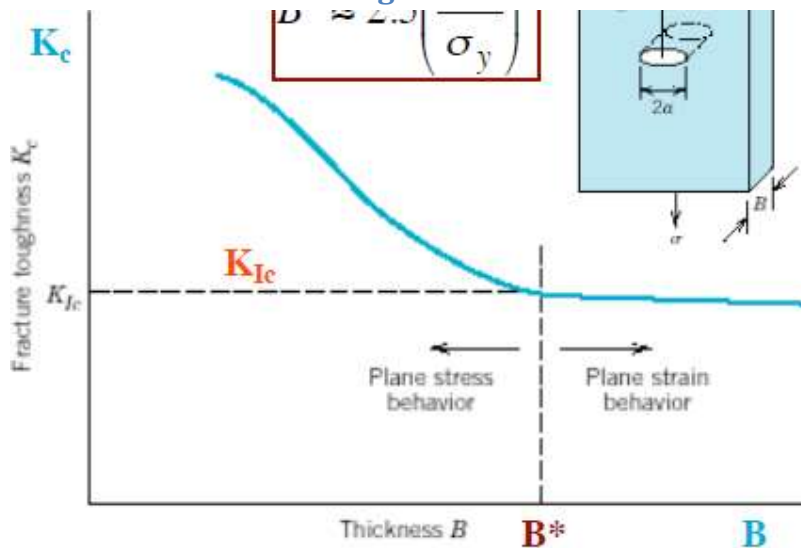
$K = K_c$  for fast fracture

$$Y\sigma\sqrt{\pi a} = K_c$$

$$\sigma = \frac{K_c}{Y\sqrt{\pi a}} = \sigma_c \text{ Critical Fracture Stress}$$

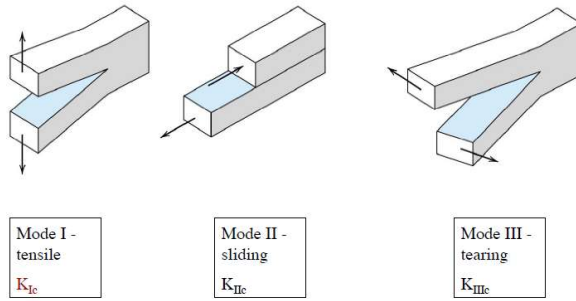
$$a = \frac{1}{\pi} \left( \frac{K_c}{\sigma Y} \right)^2 = a_c \text{ Critical Crack Size}$$

## Plane strain fracture toughness

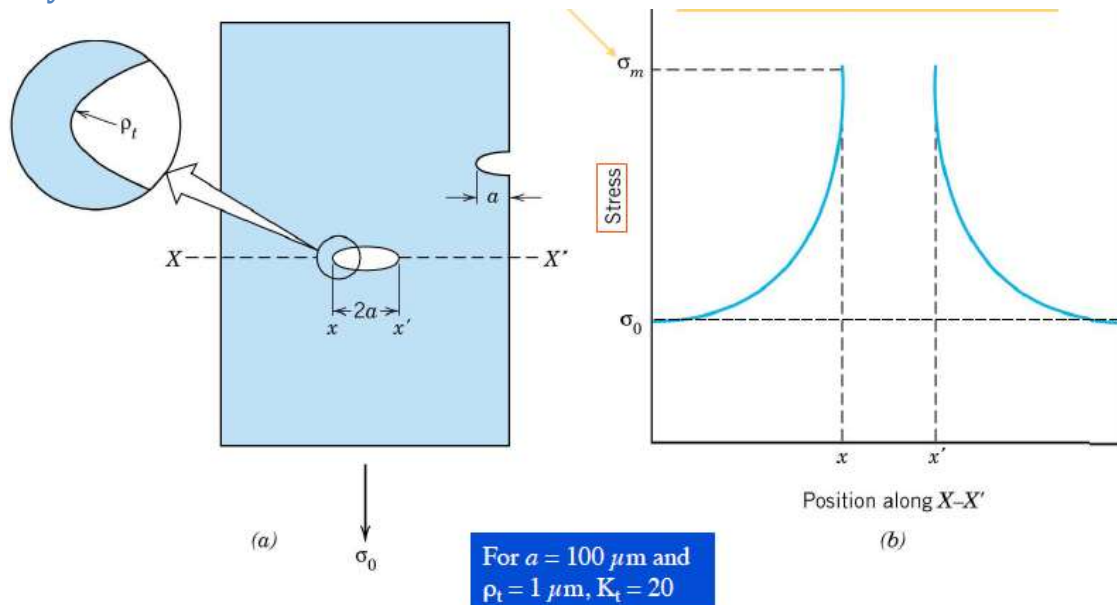


- $K_c$  changes with  $B$  (thickness of plate) when  $B < B^*$
- When  $B > B^*$ ,  $K_c = \text{constant} = K_{Ic}$

- $B^* \cong 2.5 \left( \frac{K_{Ic}}{\sigma_y} \right)^2$

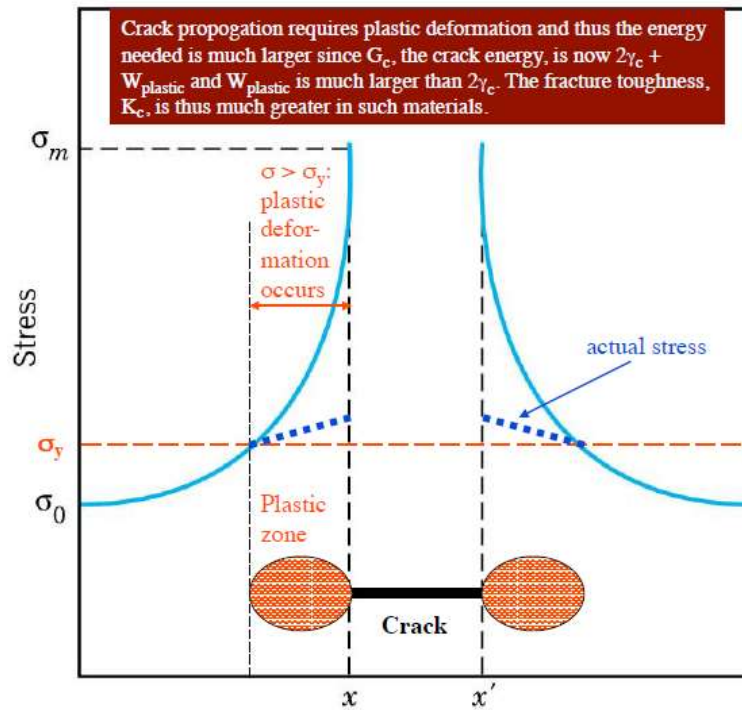


### Physics of Fast Fracture



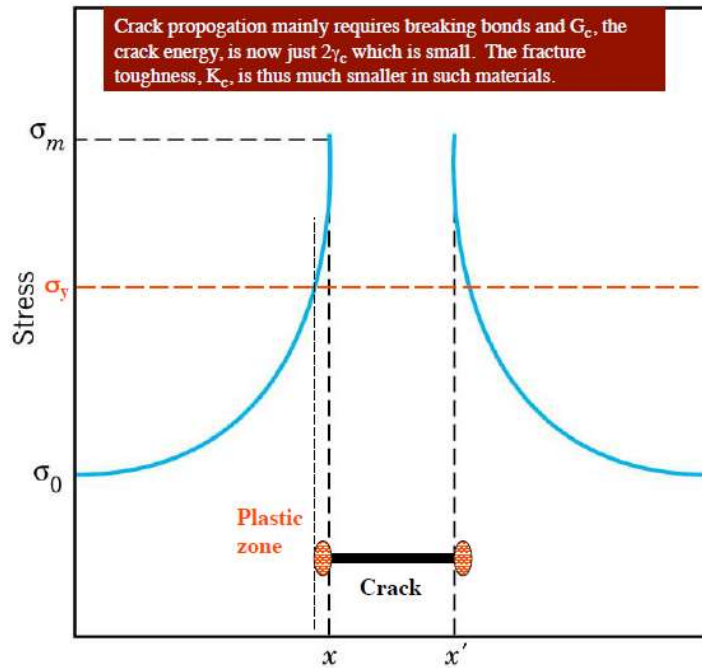
- Smaller the radius of curvature at the crack tip, the sharper the crack.
- Stress concentration factor  $K_t = \frac{\sigma_m}{\sigma_o} = 2 \sqrt{\frac{a}{\rho_t}}$ ,  $\sigma_m = 2\sigma_o \sqrt{\frac{a}{\rho_t}}$

## Ductile Fracture



- Material with moderate yield strength (metal)
- Plastic zone exists near crack tip
- Role of plastic deformation
  - Stress decreases
  - Radius of tip increases (blunting)
  - Critical stress intensity increases as the plastic work takes a lot of energy
- Higher temperature

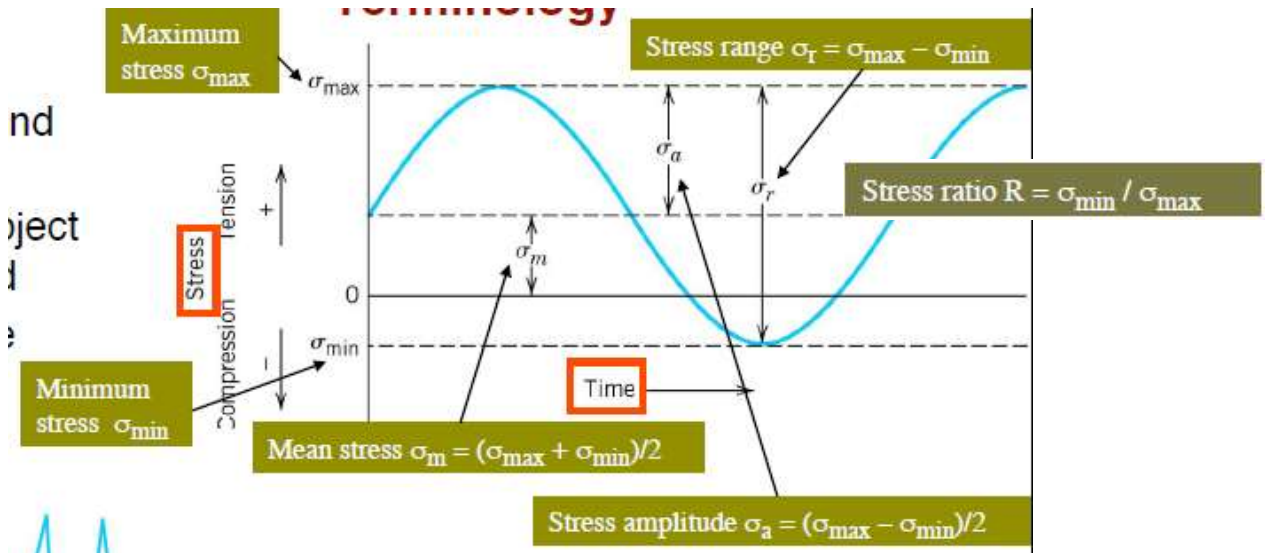
### Brittle Fracture



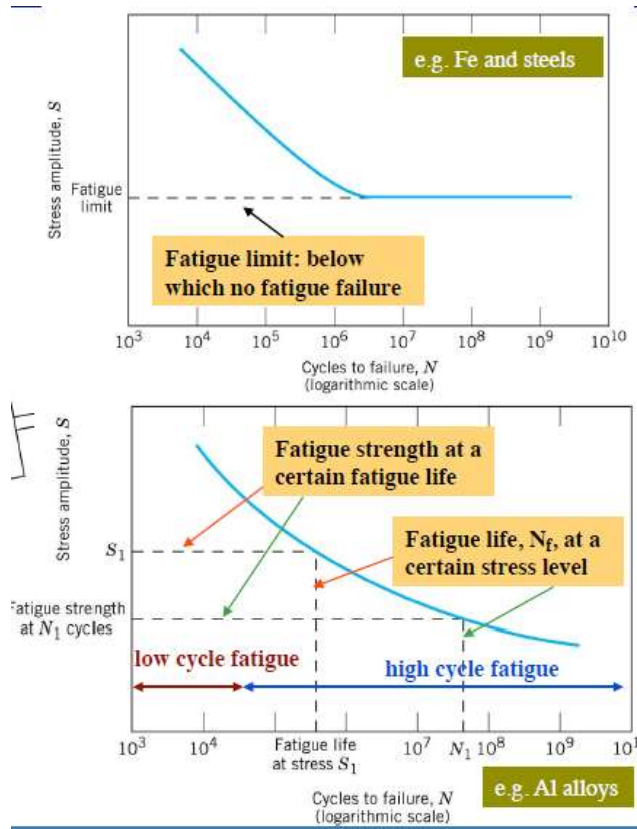
- Material with high yield strength (ceramic)
- Near the crack tip the plastic zone is very small, plastic deformation not significant
- Lower temperature

### Fatigue

#### General



- Caused by cyclic stressing which produces slow crack growth resulting in fast fracture
- S-N curve (Stress vs Number of cycles in log scale)
- Cannot fail due to fatigue below a certain fatigue limit

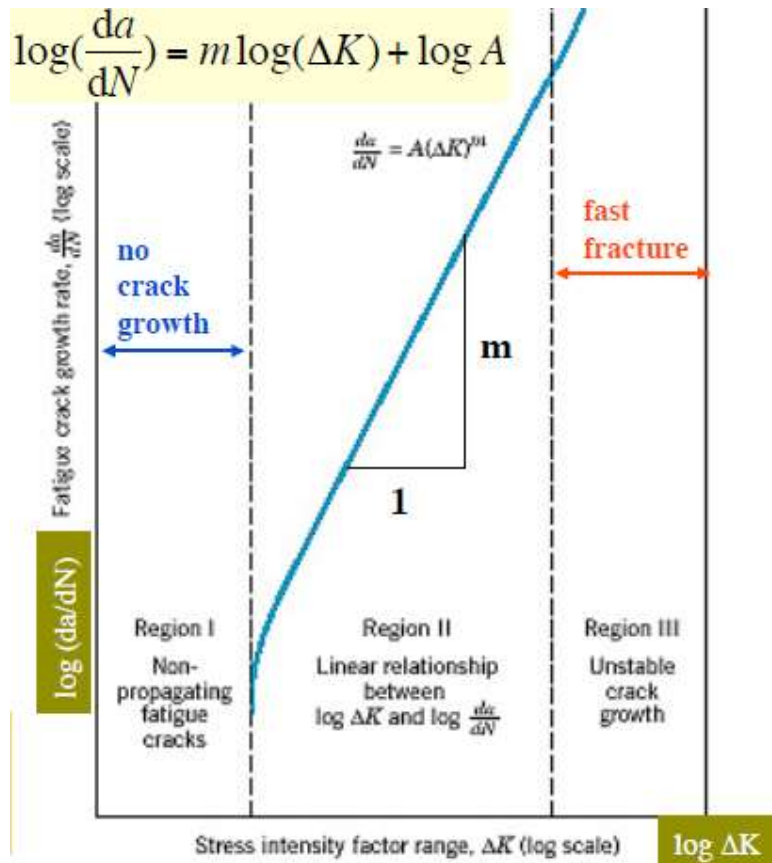


## Fatigue process

- Cyclic stressing causes slow crack growth
- Cracks nucleate on surface/defect
- Propagation
  - Stage 1 – Along planes with high resolved shear stress
  - Stage 2 – Perpendicular to applied tensile stress
- Fast fracture

## Crack propagation rate

- Applies to high cycle fatigue ( $>10^4$ )
- $\frac{da}{dN} = A(\Delta K)^m$
- $\Delta K = Y\Delta\sigma\sqrt{\pi a}$ ,  $\Delta\sigma = \sigma_{\max} - \sigma_{\min}$



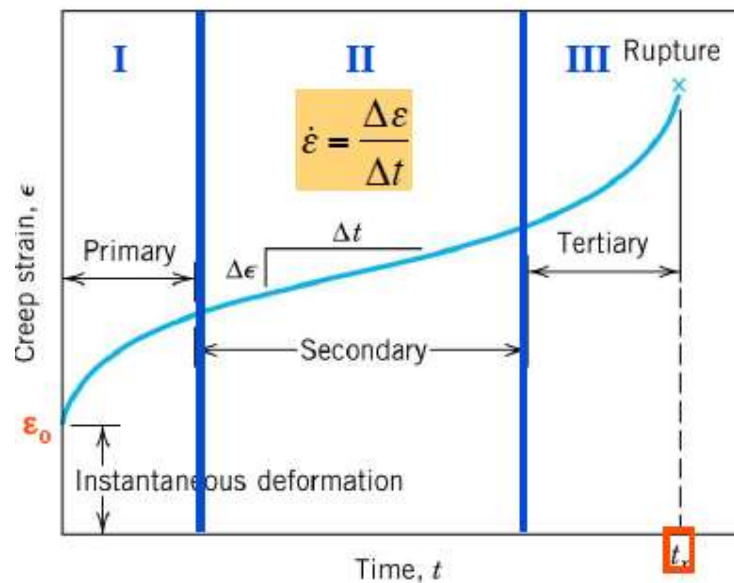
### Fatigue life

- Only the life for crack propagation
- Life for crack initiation MAY be significant depending on situation. Assumed to be not needed as there are always existing defects.

$$N_f = \frac{1}{\left(A\pi^{\frac{m}{2}}\Delta\sigma^m\right)} \int_{a_0}^{a_c} \frac{1}{Y^m a^{\frac{m}{2}}} da$$

## Creep

### General



- Time dependent plastic deformation
- Important at higher temperatures ( $>0.4$  Melting Temp)
- Eventually leads to rupture

### Creep Stages

- Three stages
  - Primary – Creep rate decreases
  - Secondary – Creep rate is constant
  - Tertiary – Creep rate increases until fracture
- At a constant  $T$ , creep rate increases and creep life decreases with increasing stress
- Second state creep rate dependent on stress,  $n$  is stress exponent and  $K_1$  is constant.
 
$$\dot{\epsilon}_s = K_1 \sigma^n$$
- At constant stress, creep rate increases and creep life decreases with increasing temperature
- Second state creep rate dependent on temperature,  $Q_c$  is activation energy for creep and  $K_1$  is constant

$$\dot{\epsilon}_s = K_2 \exp\left(-\frac{Q_c}{RT}\right)$$

- Therefore the steady state creep rate is

$$\dot{\epsilon}_s = K \sigma^n \exp\left(-\frac{Q_c}{RT}\right)$$

- $n$  and  $Q_c$  are important
  - $n=1$ : diffusional creep
  - $n=1-2$ : grain boundary sliding
  - $n=3$ : viscous glide of dislocations
  - $n=4-5$ : dislocation climb



- $Q_c$  can be compared to activation energies for various diffusion processes that may control creep

### Extrapolation methods

- Impractical to test for creep with real temperatures as it may take too long
- Larson-Miller parameter, is constant at a certain stress level (C is a constant)

$$LMP = T(C + \log t_r)$$

### Creep resistance

- High melting temp
- High elastic modulus
- Large grain size

## Mechanical Properties Summary

### Stiffness

- Resistance to elastic deformation
- Elastic modulus (E,G, etc)

### Strength

- Resistance to plastic deformation
  - Yield strength
- Limited by fracture
  - Fracture Strength

### Ductility

- How much plastic deformation without fracture
- Tensile elongation or area reduction

### Toughness

- Resistance to fast fracture
- Fracture toughness (K<sub>c</sub>)

# Mechanics

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$$\epsilon = \frac{du}{dx}$$

Strain = Change in Displacement

$$\gamma_{xy} = \frac{du_2}{dx} + \frac{du_1}{dy}$$

Shear Strain (angle)

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$$

Hooke's Law

$$\epsilon_{xy} = \frac{1 + \nu}{E} \sigma_{xy}$$

Hooke's Law (Shear)

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{xx} \epsilon_{xx}$$

Strain Energy Density

$$\begin{aligned} \iint \delta U \, dx dy &= \iint P_x \delta u_1 + P_y \delta u_2 \, ds \\ &+ \iint B_x \delta u_1 + B_y \delta u_2 \, dx dy \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Virtual Work

$$\frac{dV}{dP} = u, \frac{dV}{dM} = \theta$$

Castigliano's Theorem

$$U = \int_0^L \frac{M^2}{2EI} dx, \text{ where } M = EI \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$$

Strain Energy in beam

$$V = \frac{1}{2} P \delta = mg(h + \delta) \text{ (massless)}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2} P \delta = mgh + (m + m_c)g\delta \text{ (mass)}$$

Strain energy in impact loading

$$P = \sigma A = \frac{EA\delta}{L}, \delta = \frac{PL}{AE}$$

$$V = mgh + (m + m_c)\delta g$$

$$P = mg \left( 1 + \sqrt{1 + 2h \left( \frac{EA}{mgL} \right)} \right)$$

$$\delta = \frac{mgL}{EA} + \sqrt{\left[ \left( \frac{mgL}{EA} \right)^2 + 2h \left( \frac{mgL}{EA} \right) \right]}$$

Mass falling onto massless flange

$$\delta = \frac{PL^3}{48EI}$$

$$P = mg \left( 1 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{96EIh}{mgL^3}} \right)$$

Mass falling onto a massless beam

$$P_{cr} = \frac{n^2 \pi^2}{L^2} EI$$

$$y = A \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}$$

Critical load and buckling mode (central load)

$$\delta = e \left[ \sec \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \sqrt{\frac{P}{P_{cr}}} \right) - 1 \right]$$

*Deflection with eccentric load*

$$\sigma_{max} = \frac{P}{A} \left[ 1 + \frac{ec}{r^2} \sec \left( \frac{L}{2r} \sqrt{\frac{P}{EA}} \right) \right]$$

$$\sigma_{max} = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{\frac{L}{r^2}}, \text{ for } e$$

$$= 0, \text{ failure when } P = P_{cr}$$

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{I}{m}}$$

*Secant Formula*

$$\sigma_{xmax} = \frac{M_{max}c}{I}$$

*Flexure*

$$\sigma_1 - \sigma_3 > \sigma_Y$$

$$\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \sigma_3$$

$$\text{Max shear stress} > \frac{\sigma_Y}{2}$$

*Tresca Criterion (more conservative)*

$$\sigma_v = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1 \sigma_2}$$

*Von mises Criterion for plane stress, (most accurate)*