

Introduction to Materials Science and Engineering

10. 22. 2019 Eun Soo Park

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Chapter 7: Diffusion

I. Introduction of diffusion

: Movement of atoms to reduce its chemical potential µ.

II. Diffusion mechanisms

Vacancy diffusion vs. Interstitial diffusion

- (a) Self-diffusion
- (b) Interdiffusion

III. Steady-state diffusion

Concentration varies with position.

Fick's Frist law:

$$J = -D\frac{dC}{dx}$$

Estimation of Diffusion Depth:

$$\frac{C_x - C_0}{C_s - C_0} = 1 - erf\left(\frac{x}{2\sqrt{Dt}}\right)$$

IV. Non-steady-state diffusion

Concentration varies with time and position.

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2}$$

Diffusion coefficient:

$$D = D_0 exp\left(\frac{Q_d}{RT}\right)$$

V. Factors that influences diffusion

Diffusion FASTER for	Diffusion SLOWER for	
open crystal structures	close-packed structures	
lower melting T materials	higher melting T materials	
materials w/secondary bonding	materials w/covalent bonding	
smaller diffusing atoms	larger diffusing atoms	
cations	anions	
lower density materials	higher density materials	

시험범위 1장부터 – 7장까지 주교재 – 영문기준 207 page까지

10월 25일 6시 부터 9시 33동 225호, 226호

중간고사

IH : Chapter 7 연습문제

H2 : Chapter 7 example

Contents for previous class

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2-6:

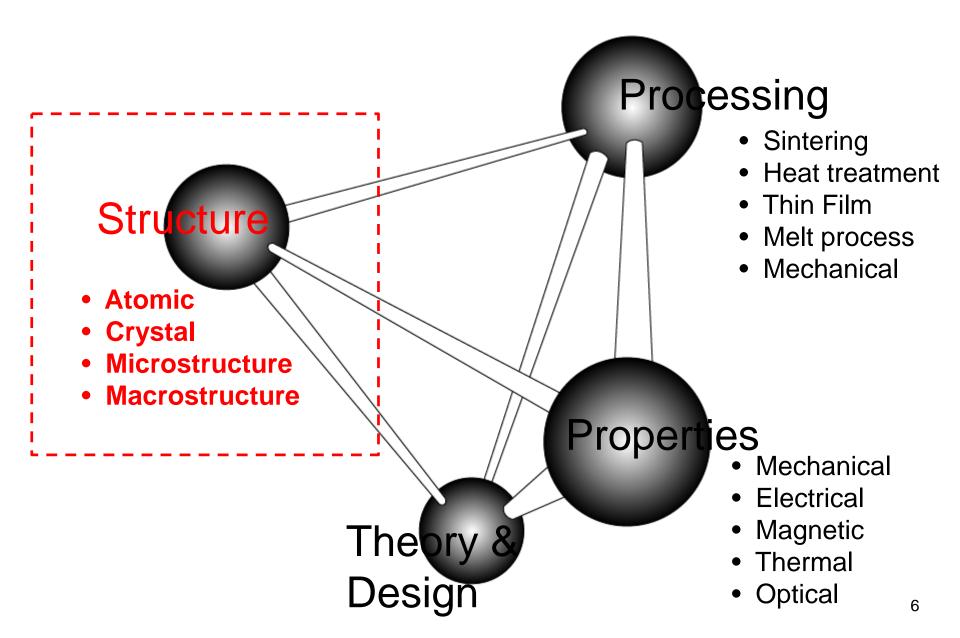
Atomic structure and interatomic bonding

Fundamentals of **crystallography** The structure of **crystalline solid** Structure of Polymers

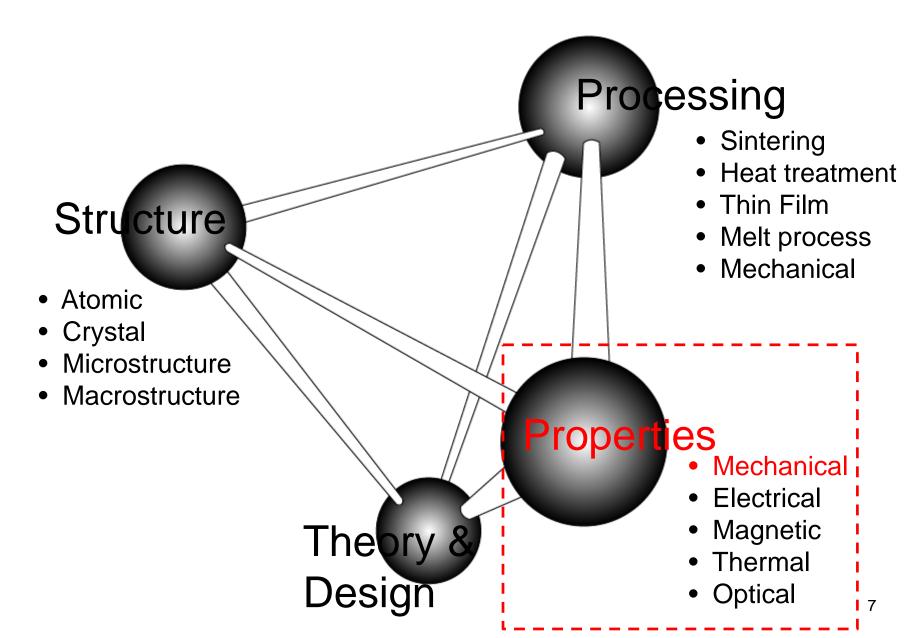
Imperfections in solids

Chapter 7: Diffusion

Materials Science and Engineering



Materials Science and Engineering



Chapter 8: Mechanical Properties of Metals

• Stress and strain:

What are they and why are they used instead of load and deformation?

• Elastic behavior:

When loads are small, how much deformation occurs? What materials deform least?

• Plastic behavior:

At what point do dislocations cause permanent deformation? What materials are most resistant to permanent deformation?

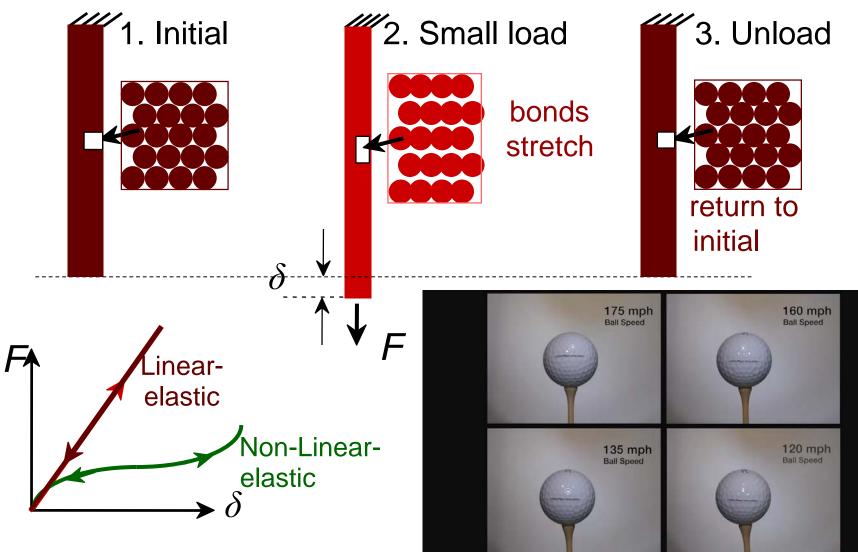
Toughness and ductility:

What are they and how do we measure them?

- Load The force applied to a material during testing
- Stress Force or load per unit area of cross-section over which the force or load is acting
- Strain Elongation change in dimension per unit length
- Engineering stress The applied load, or force, divided by the original cross-sectional area of the material
- Engineering strain The amount that a material deforms per unit length in a tensile test
- True stress The load divided by the actual cross-sectional area of the specimen at that load
- True strain The strain calculated using actual and not original dimensions, given by $\varepsilon_t \ln(|l|I_0)$
- Young's modulus (E) The slope of the linear part of the stress-strain curve in the elastic region, same as modulus of elasticity
 Shear modulus (G) - The slope of the linear part of the shear stress-
- Shear modulus (G) The slope of the linear part of the shear stressshear strain curve

I. Elastic deformation vs Plastic deformation

Elastic Deformation

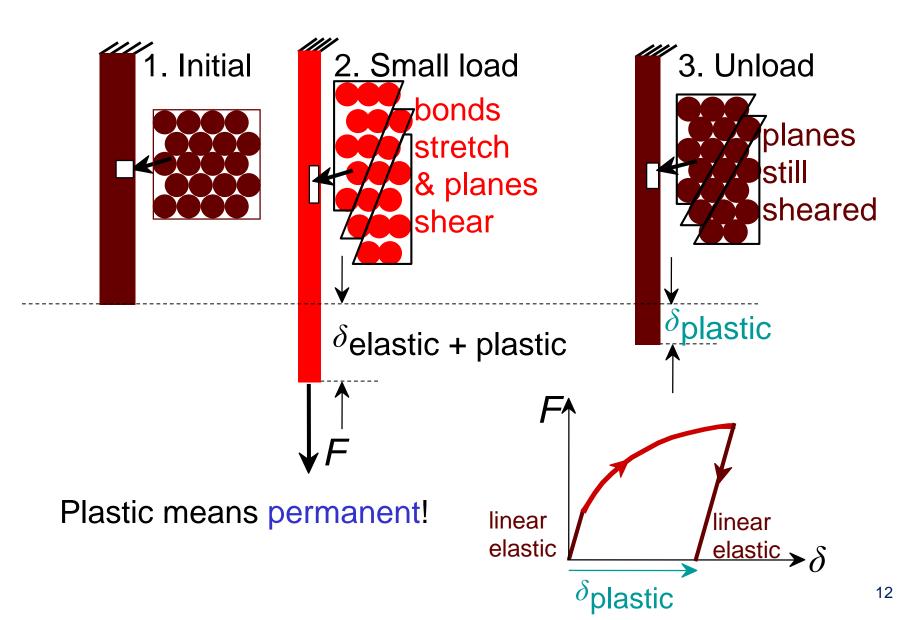


Elastic means reversible!

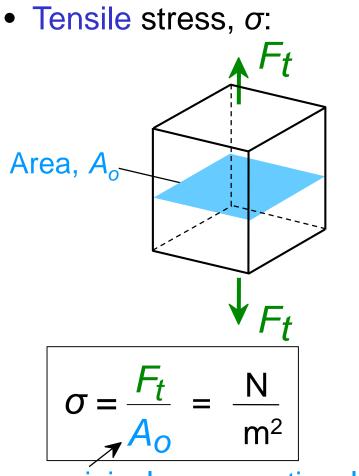


https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SIFfY-MS3yA

Plastic Deformation (Metals)



II. Engineering Stress



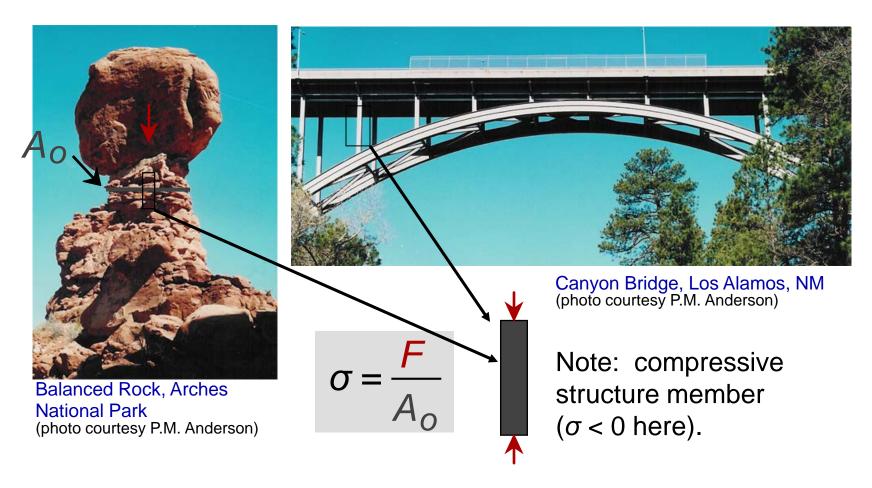
• Shear stress, *T*: Area, A $\tau = \frac{F_{\rm S}}{A_{\rm O}}$

original cross-sectional area before loading

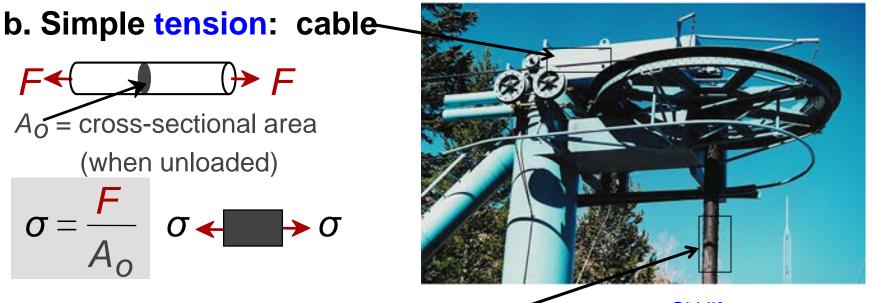
∴ Stress has units: N/m²

II. Common States of Stress

a. Simple compression:

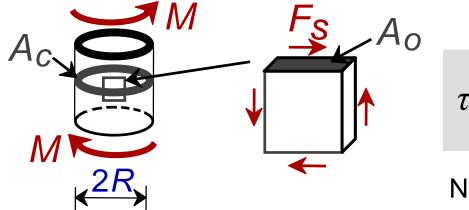


II. Common States of Stress



c. Torsion (a form of shear): drive shaft

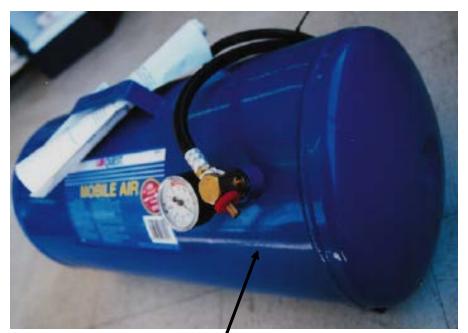
Ski lift (photo courtesy P.M. Anderson)



Note:
$$\tau = M/A_c R$$
 here.

II. Common States of Stress

d. Bi-axial tension: e. Hyd

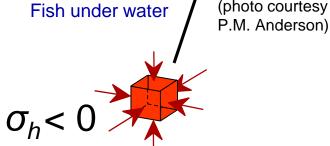


Pressurized tank (photo courtesy P.M. Anderson)

$$\sigma_{\theta} > 0$$

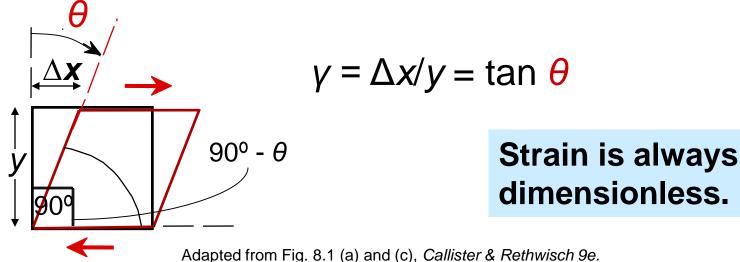
e. Hydrostatic compression:





III. Engineering Strain

• Tensile strain: $\varepsilon = \frac{\delta}{L_0}$ • Shear strain: • Tensile strain: $\varepsilon = \frac{\delta}{L_0}$ • Lateral strain: $\varepsilon_L = \frac{\delta_L}{W_0}$ • Lateral strain:



Stress-Strain Testing

Typical tensile test machine

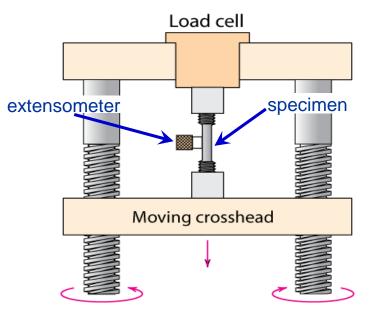
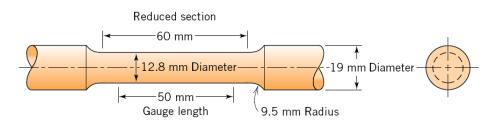




Fig. 8.3, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.

(Taken from H.W. Hayden, W.G. Moffatt, and J. Wulff, *The Structure and Properties of Materials*, Vol. III, *Mechanical Behavior*, p. 2, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1965.)

Typical tensile specimen



- > Other types of tests:
 - compression: brittle materials

(e.g. concrete)

- torsion: cylindrical tubes, shafts

Tensile testing of a steel specimen

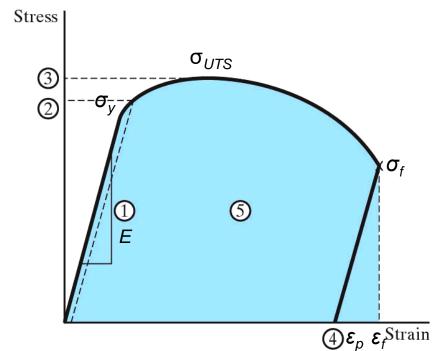


IV. Deformation

- Elastic vs. Plastic region
- Key points
 - 1. Elastic modulus (=Young's modulus), E

 $\sigma d\varepsilon$

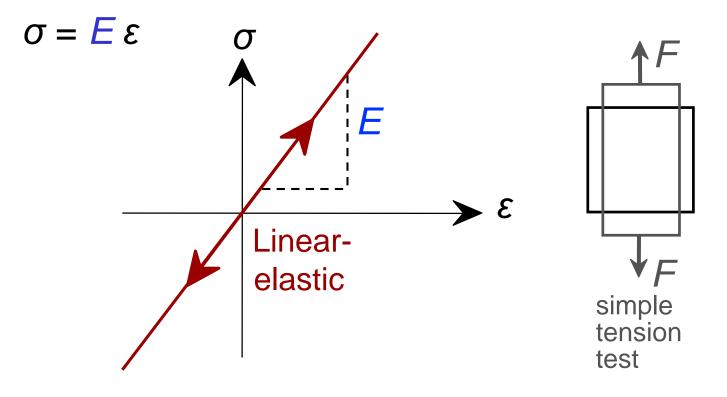
- 2. 0.2% (0.002 strain) yield stress, σ_y
- 3. Ultimate yield stress, σ_{UTS}
- 4. Ductility, ε_{p}
- 5. Toughness 🗕
- 6. Fracture stress, σ_f
- 7. Fracture strain, ε_f



a. Elastic Properties

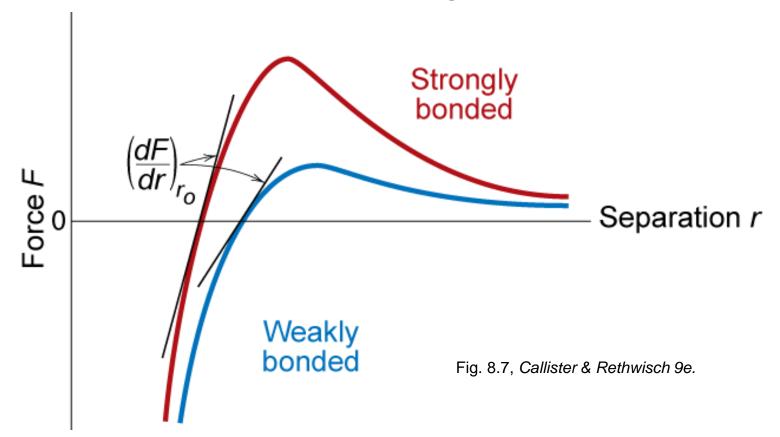
(1) Modulus of Elasticity, *E*: (also known as Young's modulus)

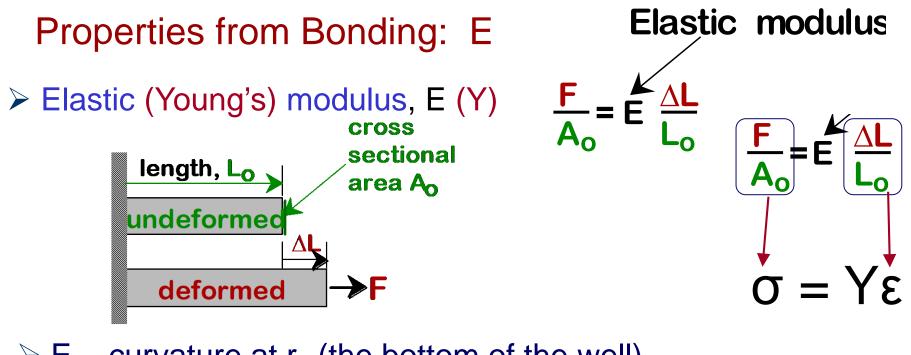
• Hooke's Law:



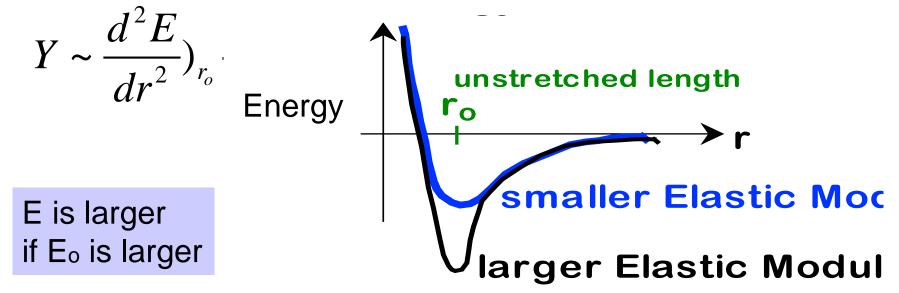
Properties from Bonding: E

 Slope of stress strain plot (which is proportional to the elastic modulus, E) depends on bond strength of metal

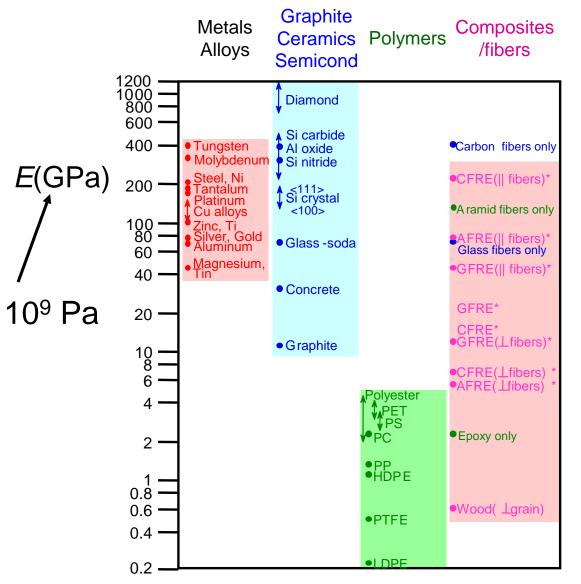




 \geq E ~ curvature at r_o (the bottom of the well)

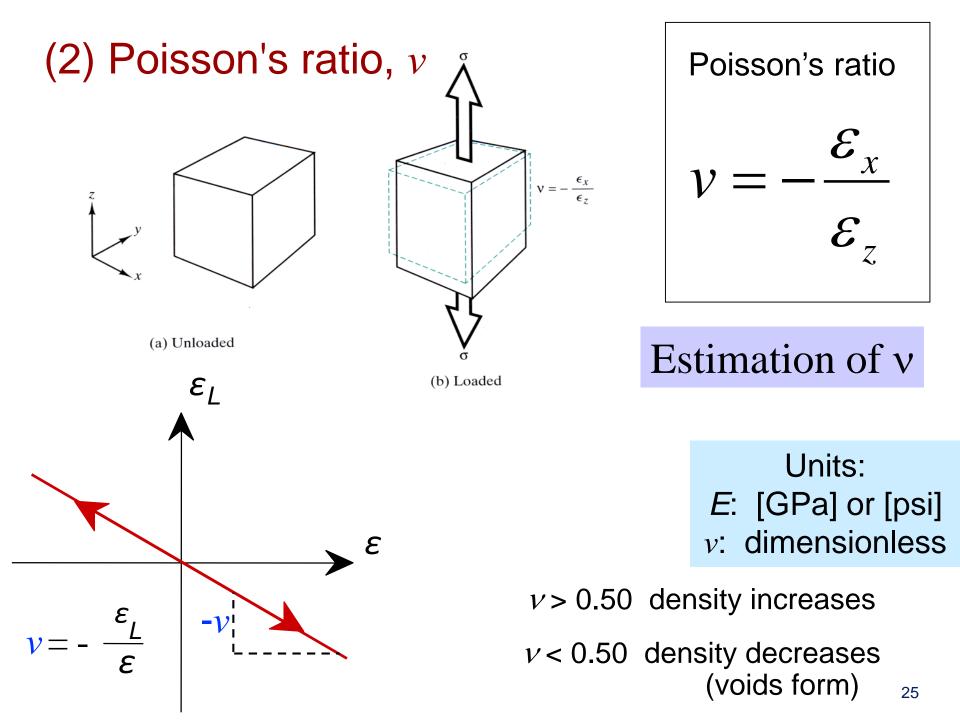


Young's Moduli: Comparison



Based on data in Table B.2, *Callister & Rethwisch 9e.* Composite data based on reinforced epoxy with 60 vol% of aligned carbon (CFRE), aramid (AFRE), or glass (GFRE) fibers.

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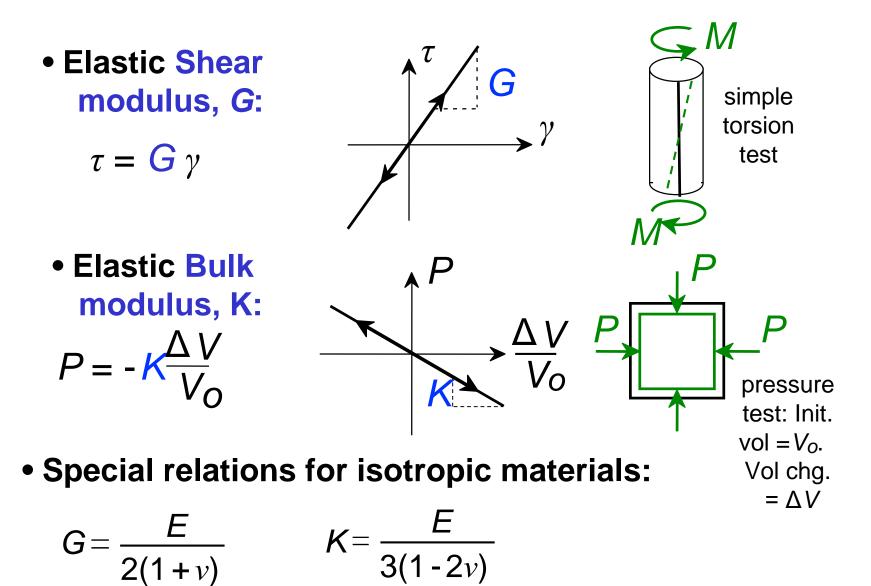
metals: *v* ~ 0.33

Measured values of Poisson's ratio ceramics: $v \sim 0.25$ polymers: $v \sim 0.40$

		v
1.	Al_2O_3	0.26
2.	BeO	0.26
3.	CeO_2	0.27 - 0.31
4.	Cordierite $(2MgO \cdot 2Al_2O_3 \cdot 5SiO_2)$	0.31
5.	Mullite $(3Al_2O_3 \cdot 2SiO_2)$	0.25
6.	SiC	0.19
7.	Si_3N_4	0.24
8.	TaC	0.24
9.	TiC	0.19
10.	TiO ₂	0.28
11.	Partially stabilized ZrO ₂	0.23
12.	Fully stabilized ZrO ₂	0.23-0.32
13.	Glass-ceramic (MgO $-Al_2O_3-SiO_2$)	0.24
14.	Borosilicate glass	0.2
15.	Glass from cordierite	0.26

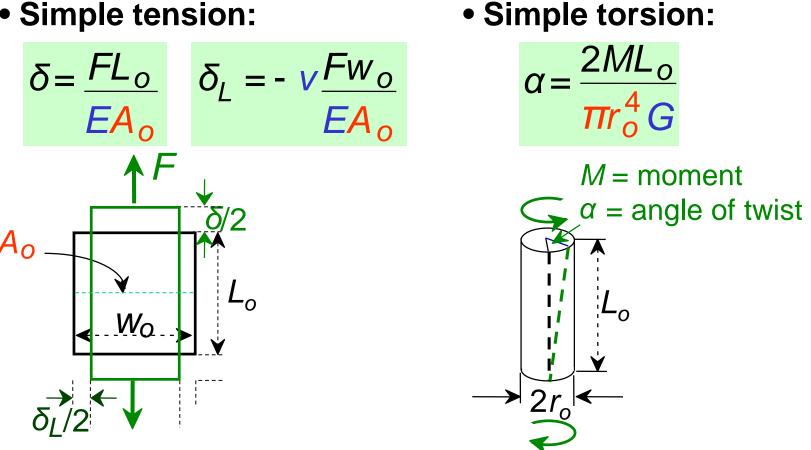
Source: Data from *Ceramic Source '86* and *Ceramic Source '87*, American Ceramic Society, Columbus, OH, 1985 and 1986.

(3) Other Elastic Properties



(4) Useful Linear Elastic Relationships

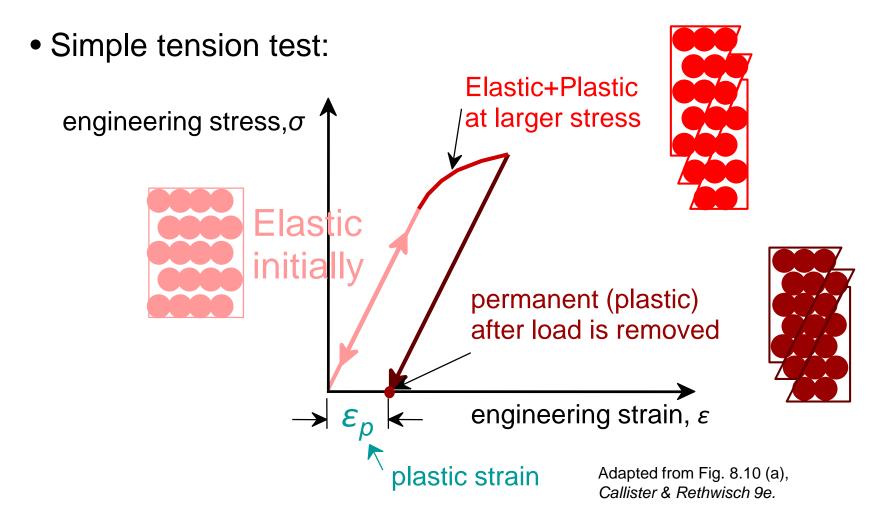
• Simple tension:



- Material, geometric, and loading parameters all contribute to deflection.
- Larger elastic moduli minimize elastic deflection.

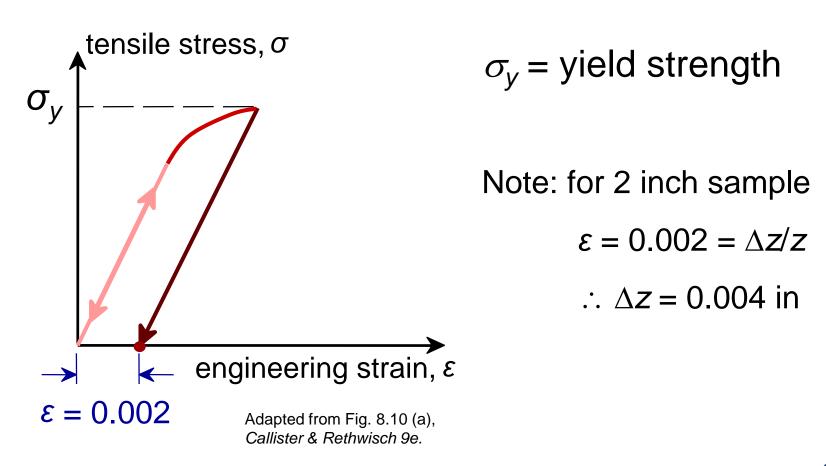
Plastic (Permanent) Deformation

(at lower temperatures, i.e. $T < T_{melt}/3$)

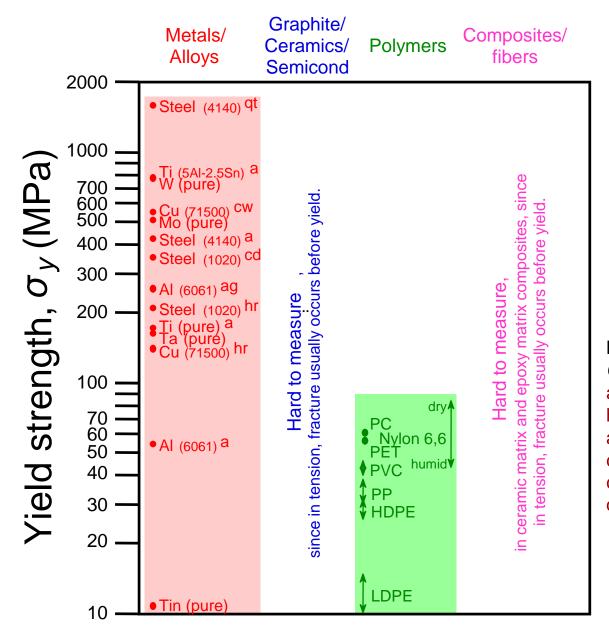


b. Yield Strength, σ_y

• Stress at which *noticeable* plastic deformation has occurred. when $\varepsilon = 0.002$



Yield Strength : Comparison

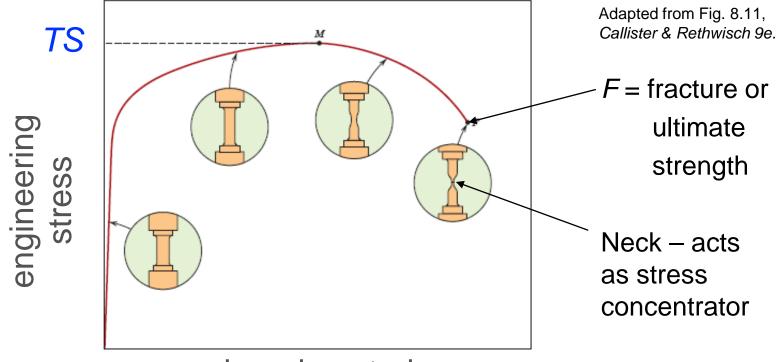


Room temperature values

Based on data in Table B.4, *Callister & Rethwisch 9e.* a = annealed hr = hot rolled ag = aged cd = cold drawn cw = cold worked qt = quenched & tempered

c. Tensile Strength, TS

• Maximum stress on engineering stress-strain curve.



engineering strain

- Metals: occurs when noticeable necking starts.
- Polymers: occurs when polymer backbone chains are aligned and about to break.

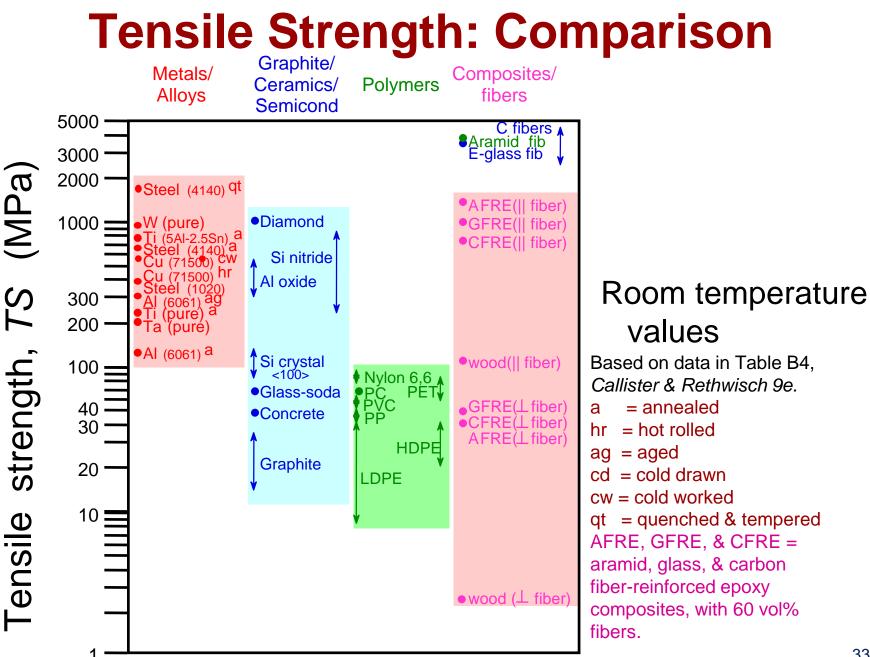
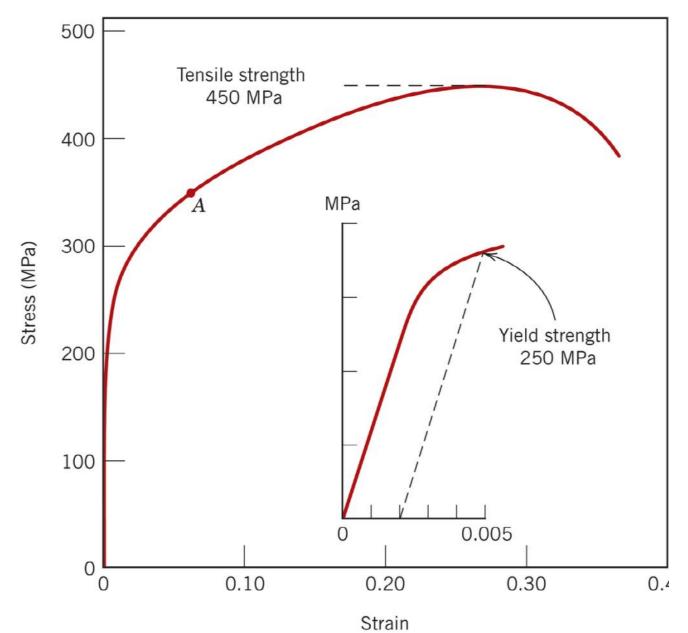


Figure 8.12 in the textbook



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d. Ductility

<u>°</u> x 100 %EL Plastic tensile strain at failure: smaller %EL Engineering tensile stress, σ larger %EL **L**0 Adapted from Fig. 8.13, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.

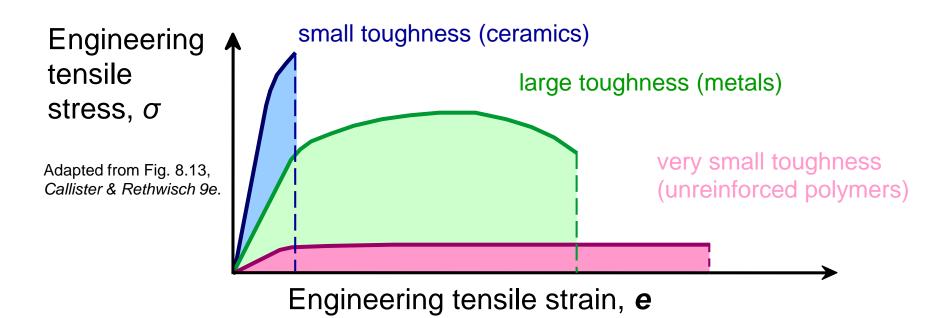
Engineering tensile strain, e

• Another ductility measure:

$$\% RA = \frac{A_o - A_f}{A_o} \times 100$$

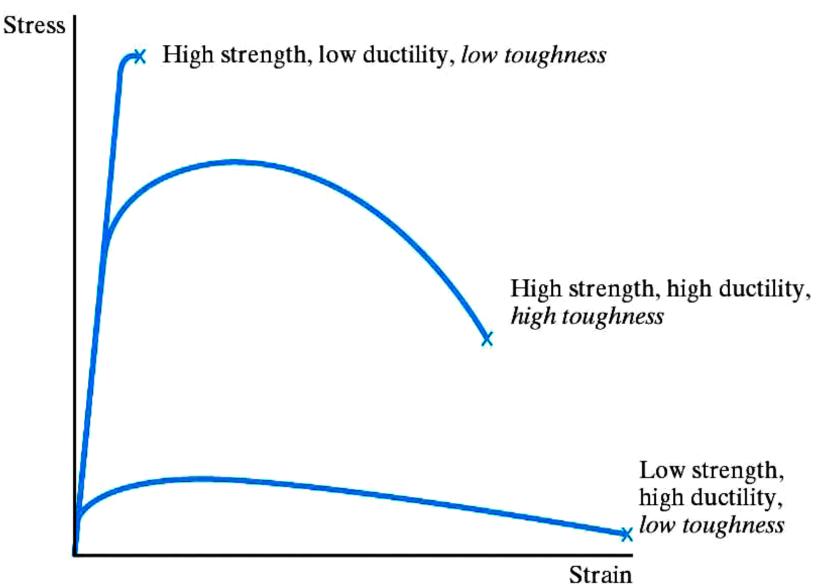
e. Toughness

- Energy to break a unit volume of material
- Approximate by the area under the stress-strain curve.



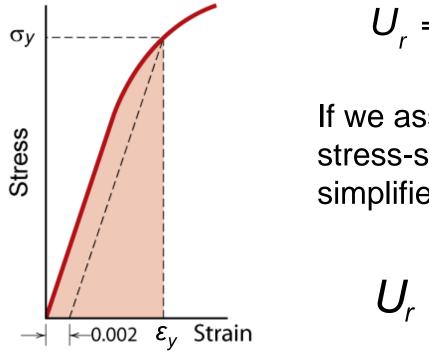
Brittle fracture: elastic energy Ductile fracture: elastic + plastic energy

Tensile Test



f. Resilience, U_r

- Ability of a material to store energy
 - Energy stored best in elastic region



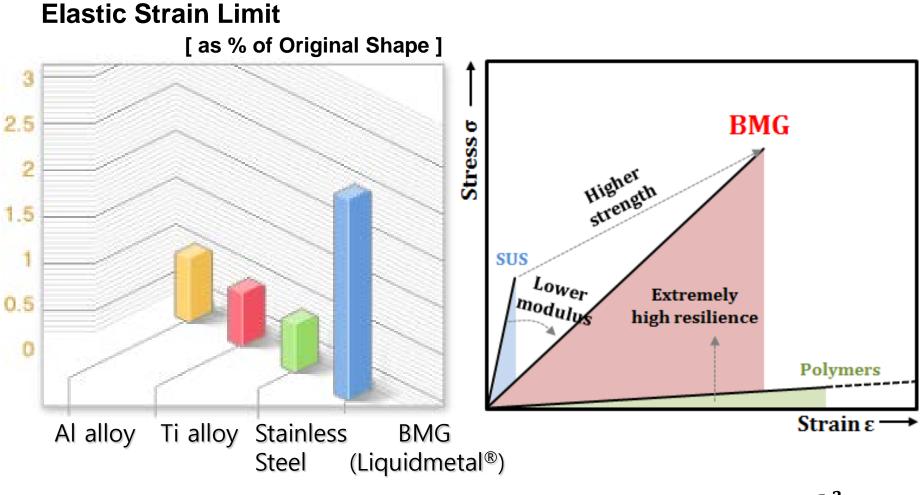
$$U_r = \int_0^{\epsilon_y} \sigma \ d\epsilon$$

If we assume a linear stress-strain curve this simplifies to

$$U_r \cong \frac{1}{2} \sigma_y \varepsilon_y$$

Fig. 8.15, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.

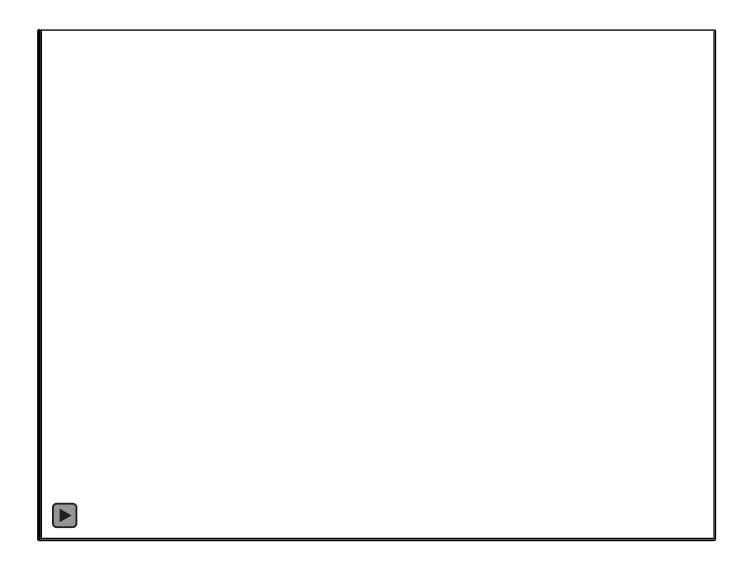
Large elastic strain limit of BMGs



* Resilience: ability to return to the original form, position, etc. $\rightarrow U = \frac{\sigma_v^2}{2E}$

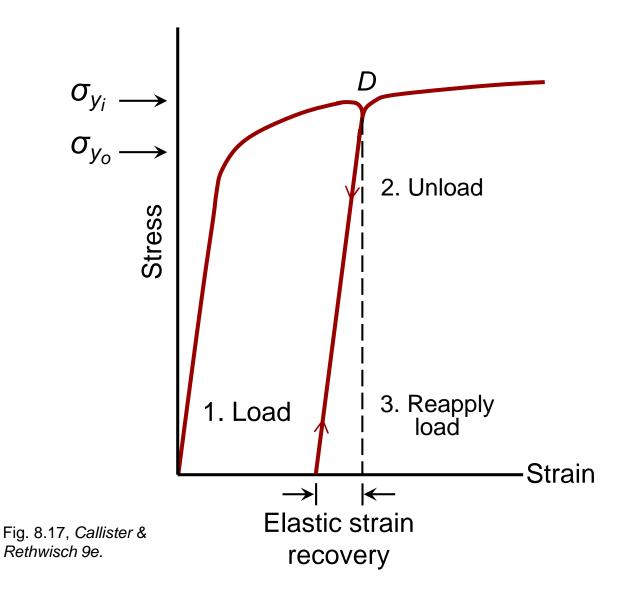


Large elastic strain limit of BMGs



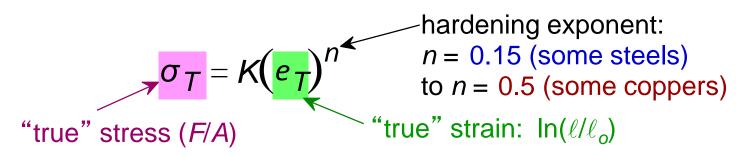


VI. Elastic Strain Recovery



VII. Hardening

- An increase in σ_y due to plastic deformation. σ_{y_1} large hardening σ_{y_0} small hardening
- Curve fit to the stress-strain response:



VIII. True Stress & Strain

Note: Cross-sectional area changes when sample stretched

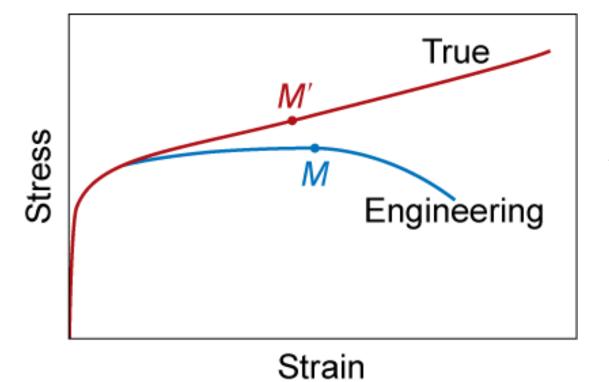
• True stress

• True strain

 $\sigma_{\tau} = F/A_{i}$ $\epsilon_{\tau} = \ln(\ell_{i}/\ell_{o})$

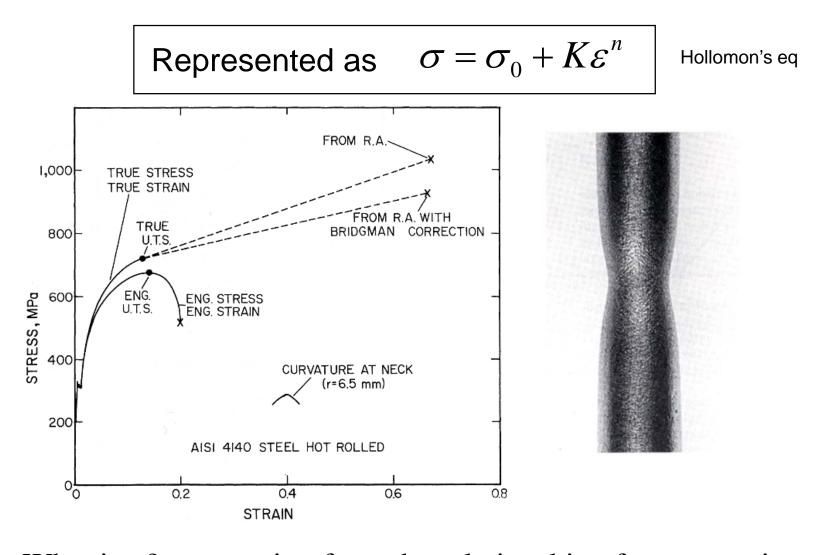
$$\sigma_{\tau} = \sigma (1 + \epsilon)$$

$$\epsilon_{\tau} = \ln(1 + \epsilon)$$



Adapted from Fig. 8.16, *Callister & Rethwisch 9e.*

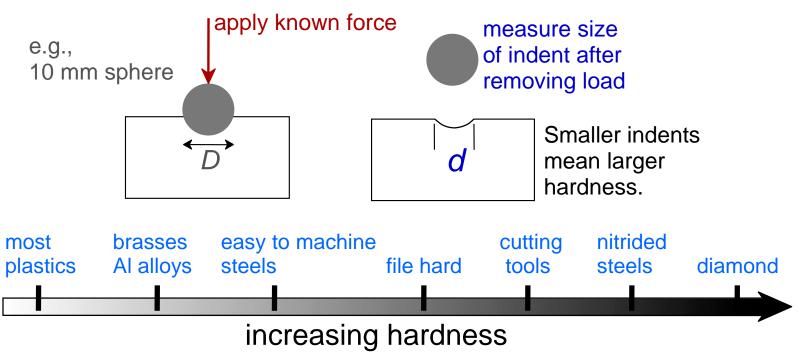
Necking – Work hardening





IX. Hardness

- Resistance to permanently indenting the surface.
- Large hardness means:
 - -- resistance to plastic deformation or cracking in compression.
 - -- better wear properties.



Hardness: Measurement

- Rockwell
 - No major sample damage
 - Each scale runs to 130 but only useful in range 20-100.
 - Minor load 10 kg
 - Major load 60 (A), 100 (B) & 150 (C) kg
 - A = diamond, B = 1/16 in. ball, C = diamond
- HB = Brinell Hardness
 - TS (psia=pounds per square inch) = 500 x HB
 - $TS (MPa) = 3.45 \times HB$

Hardness: Measurement

Table 8.5 Hardness Testing Techniques

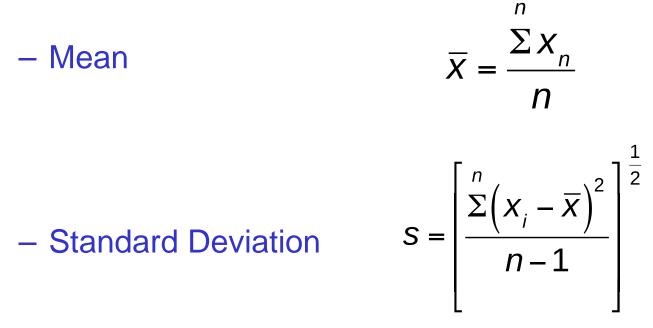
Test	Indenter	Shape of Indentation			Formula for
		Side View	Top View	Load	Hardness Number ^a
Brinell	10-mm sphere of steel or tungsten carbide		_; ⊷ d «	Р	$HB = \frac{2P}{\pi D[D - \sqrt{D^2 - d^2}]}$
Vickers microhardness	Diamond pyramid			Р	$HV = 1.854P/d_1^2$
Knoop microhardness	Diamond pyramid	<i>l/b</i> = 7.11 <i>b/t</i> = 4.00		Р	$\mathbf{H}\mathbf{K} = 14.2P/l^2$
Rockwell and Superficial Rockwell	$\begin{cases} Diamond \\ cone \\ \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2} \text{ in.} \\ diameter \\ steel spheres \end{cases}$			100 150 15 30	kg kg kg kg kg Superficial Rockwell kg

^a For the hardness formulas given, P (the applied load) is in kg, while D, d, d₁, and l are all in mm.

Source: Adapted from H. W. Hayden, W. G. Moffatt, and J. Wulff, The Structure and Properties of Materials, Vol. III, Mechanical Behavior. Copyright © 1965 by John Wiley & Sons, New York. Reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

X. Variability in Material Properties

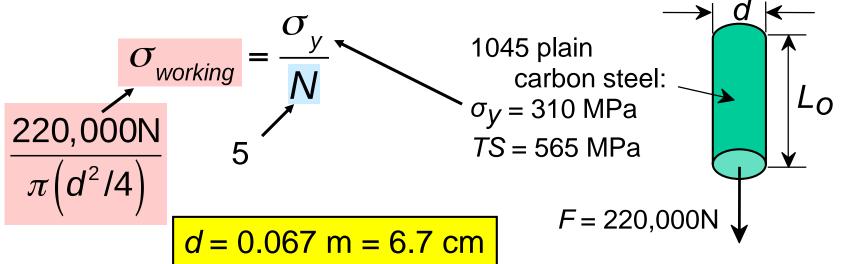
- Elastic modulus is material property
- Critical properties depend largely on sample flaws (defects, etc.). Large sample to sample variability.
- Statistics



where *n* is the number of data points

XI. Design or Safety Factors

- Design uncertainties mean we do not push the limit.
- Factor of safety, N $\sigma_{working} = \frac{\sigma_y}{N}$ Often N is between 1.2 and 4
- Example: Calculate a diameter, *d*, to ensure that yield does not occur in the 1045 carbon steel rod below. Use a factor of safety of 5.



Summary

Chapter 8: Mechanical Properties of Metals

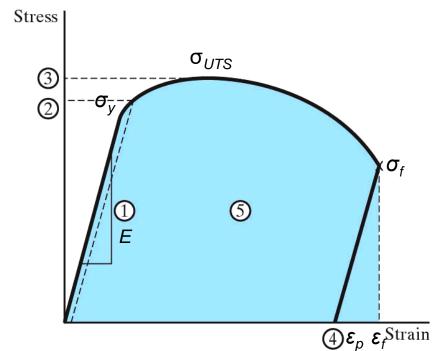
- Stress and strain: These are size-independent measures of load and displacement, respectively.
- Elastic behavior: This reversible behavior often shows a linear relation between stress and strain. To minimize deformation, select a material with a large elastic modulus (*E* or *G*).
- Plastic behavior: This permanent deformation behavior occurs when the tensile (or compressive) uniaxial stress reaches σ_v .
- Toughness: The energy needed to break a unit volume of material.
- Ductility: The plastic strain at failure.

Deformation

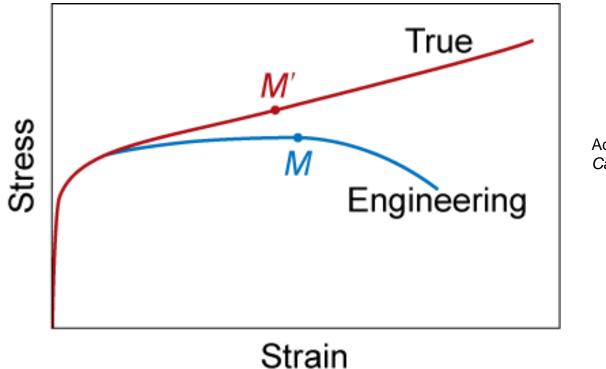
- Elastic vs. Plastic region
- Key points
 - 1. Elastic modulus (=Young's modulus), E

σdε

- 2. 0.2% (0.002 strain) yield stress, σ_y
- 3. Ultimate yield stress, σ_{UTS}
- 4. Ductility, ε_{ρ}
- 5. Toughness 🕳
- 6. Fracture stress, σ_f
- 7. Fracture strain, ε_f



Engineering vs True Stress & Strain



Adapted from Fig. 8.16, *Callister & Rethwisch 9e.*

Variability in Material Properties : need to Statistics

Material design considering $\sigma_{working} = \frac{\sigma_y}{N}$ Often *N* is between 1.2 and 4 Safety factor: