

* Crystal Structure of Ionic materials:
Ionic material must have crystal structures that ensure electrical neutrality, yet ^{Permit} ~~present~~ ions from the different sizes to be packed efficiently.

① Ionic Radii: the crystal structures of ionically bonded compound, is described by placing the anion of the normal lattice point cell and the cation located at one or more of the interstitial site.

② Electrical neutrality: the whole material have to be electrically neutral.

Allotropy: the ability of the element to exist more than one crystal structure depending on Temp. & pressure.

Polymorphisms Compound have more than one crystal structure.

Chapter 4

* "Crystals are like people it's the defects in them which tend to make them interesting" Colin Humphrey.

* Defect in Solids ^{Zero} 0 D, Point defects.

- Vacancies
- Interstitial,
- Impurities.

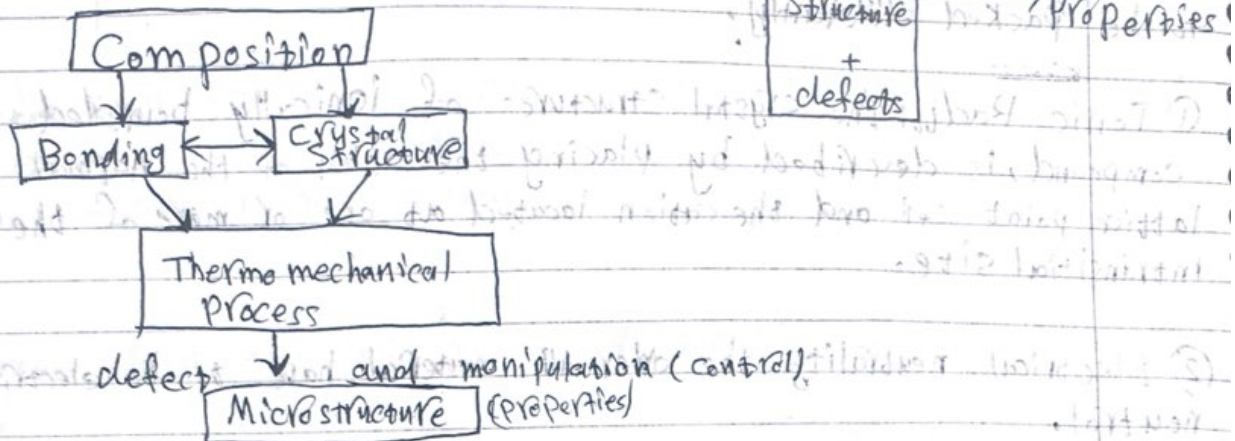
1-D: edge screw edge + screw

2-D: Surface defect

3-D: Volume defects



Defects:

The process determines the defects



Point defects atoms missing or in irregular places

① 1-D: group of atoms in irregular position

② 2-D: Interfaces between regions of material (grain boundaries)   interfaces

③ 3-D: Voids

Vacancies: is produced when an atom is missing from a normal site.

* the number of Vacancies increases exponentially as increase the Temperature

$$N_v = N \exp\left(\frac{-Q}{RT}\right)$$

N_v is the number of Vacancies Per m^3 .

N is the number of Lattice points $\approx m^3$.

Q is the energy required to produce a vacancy in $J \cdot mol^{-1}$

R is the gas constant

$$R = 1.987 \frac{\text{cal}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}}$$

$$R = 8.314 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}}$$

T : Temperature (K).

Ex: Copper

$$Q = 83700 \text{ J/mol}$$

Copper: FCC (Aluminum so too)

$$\text{Lattice parameter} = 0.361 \text{ nm}$$

Suggest a heat treatment that will provide 1000 times more

Vacancies in Copper

$$n = \frac{4 \text{ atoms/cell}}{(0.361 \text{ nm})^3} = 84.6$$

$$T = 25 + 273 = 298 \text{ K}$$

درجة حرارة الغرفة

$$n_v = n e^{\left(\frac{-Q}{RT}\right)}$$

$$n_v = 84.6 e^{\left(\frac{-83700}{(8.314)(298)}\right)}$$

$$n_v = 1.8 \times 10^{-13}$$

$$n_v = 1.774 \times 10^{14} \text{ vaca/m}^3$$

$$\text{New } n_v = 1.774 \times 10^{17} = () \exp\left(\frac{-83700}{(8.314)T}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow T = 375 \text{ K} = 100^\circ \text{C}$$

Ex: Calculate the # of Vacancies per cm^3 in copper at 1080°C (just below the melting point temp). The activation energy for vacancy formation is 20000 cal/mol .

$$a = 3.6151 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}$$

$$n = \frac{4}{a^3}, \quad n_v = 4.97 \times 10^{14} \text{ vac/cm}^3$$

التردد في تغيير درجة الحرارة بآثار بالتبريد ثم جرداً بالبرودة ولد يتبرد شيء شيء

Ex: The fraction of lattice points occupied by vacancies in solid Al at 660° is 10^{-3} . What is the activation energy required to create vacancies?

$$N_v = N \exp\left(-\frac{Q}{RT}\right) \Rightarrow \frac{N_v}{N} = 10^{-3}$$

$$Q = 12.800 \text{ cal/mol}$$

Ex: A sample of an FCC metal has 11.98 g/cm³ and the lattice parameter is 3.8902 Å. Calculate: Atomic weight = 1.064 g/mol

(a) the fraction of lattice points that contain vacancies.

(b) The total number of vacancies in cm³.

x: number of atoms real

$$\rho = \frac{(x)(1.064 \text{ g/mol})}{a_0 (\text{Avogadro})}$$

$$x = 3.9905$$

$$\text{fraction} = \frac{4 - 3.9905}{4} = 0.002375$$

$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ of vacancies} &= \frac{0.002375 \text{ vacancy/uc}}{(a)^3} \\ &= 1.61 \times 10^{20} \text{ vac/cm}^2 \end{aligned}$$

Ex: BCC metal has an $a = 3.5089 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}$ and contains one vacancy per 200 unit cell. Calculate: Atw = 6.94 g/mol

(a) # of vacancies/cm³.

(b) ρ .

$$\frac{1 \text{ vac}}{200 (a_0)^3} = 1.157 \times 10^{20} \text{ vac/cm}^3$$

$$\rho = \frac{(399/200)(6.94)}{(a_0)^3 \text{ Atw}}$$

Ex: uniaxial alloy is produced by introducing tungsten substitutional atoms in BCC structure eventually an alloy is produced that has an $a = 0.32554 \text{ nm}$ & $\rho = 11.95 \text{ g/cm}^3$. Calculate the fraction of the atoms in alloy that are tungsten.

$$11.95 = \frac{(x)(183.85) + (2-x)(92.91)}{(a_0)^3 [\text{Avg}]}$$

$$x = 0.69 \text{ atom/cell}$$

2 atom per cell in BCC

$$\text{frac} = \frac{0.69}{2} = 0.345$$

slide 20:

Screw dislocation

critical resolve shear stress:

Schmid's Law:

is used to understand the differences in behaviour of metals that have different crystal structures by examining the force required to initiate the slip process.

$$F_r = F \cos \lambda$$

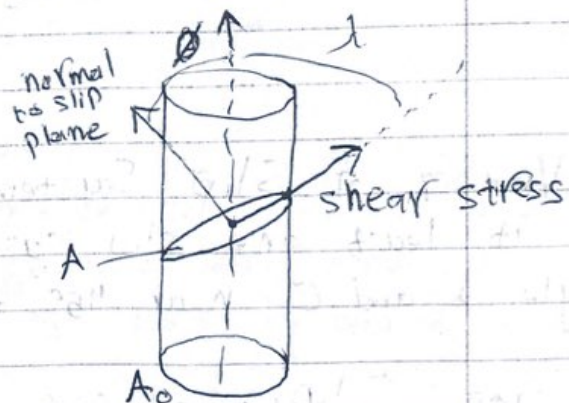
$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A_0}$$

$$A = A_0 / \cos \phi$$

$$\tau_r = \sigma \cos \phi \cos \lambda \quad (\text{Schmid's Law})$$

$\tau_r = \frac{F_r}{A} = \text{resolved shear stress in the slip direction.}$

$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A_0} = \text{unidirectional stress}$$



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Influence of Crystal Structures

① Critical Resolved Shear Stress (CRSS)

CRSS: The stress required to cause dislocation to move and cause slip.

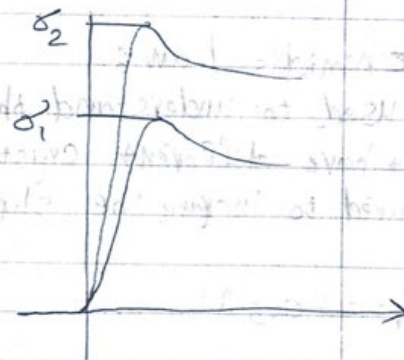
* If the CRSS in a metal is very high the applied stress (σ) must be high in order for τ_r to equal τ_{CRSS} .
A higher τ_{CRSS} implies a higher stress to plastically deform metals where a higher strength.

BCC
higher strength
ductility low

FCC
lower strength
ductility high

ذرات أكبر عني
مفصلة بقدر أصغر يكون

التقوية بالحب .
لما حبنا زنا القوة .
ومار عني مشاة عالية



② Number of Slip Systems

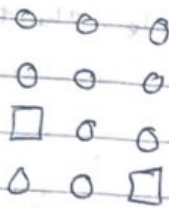
if at least one slip system is oriented to give the angle λ and ϕ near 45° then $\tau_r = \tau_{CRSS}$ at low stress

③ Cross Slip: when screw dislocation moving on one slip plane that encounters an obstacle and blocked from further movement

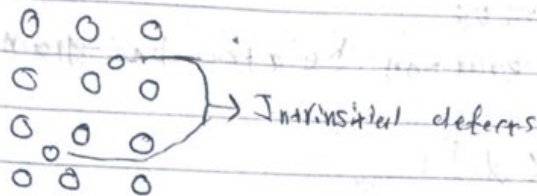
∴ the dislocation can shift to a second intersection slip section this is called cross slip.

تغير اتجاهه لتتأصل مع أصب

Vacancy defects:



Intrinsic defects:

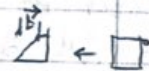


Burger Vector:

slide 27

If we follow a crystallographic plane one revolution around the axis on which the crystal is skewed, starting at point (X) and traveling equal atom spacing in each direction, we finish at point (Y) one atom below our starting point if the screw dislocation is not present the loop would be close.

The vector required to close the loop is called (Burger vector) b -vector



Importance of Defects:

- ① effect on mechanical properties via control the slip process.
- One imprefaction in the crystal raises the internal energy at the location of the imprefaction.
- * the local energy increased because near the imprefaction the atoms either are squessed too closely (compression) or forced too far apart (tension).

② Strain Hardening

③ Solid solution strengthening.

one of the point defect also disrupt the perfection of crystal structure solid solution is formed when atoms or ions are assimilated completely into the crystal structure of the host material.

defect هو التي بتخلي اصل
بناات نبتل من مكان آخر لكن في المجال

Toughness: the ability to absorb energy

Hardness: resistance of indentation

brittle: material has a little plastic deformation

④ grain size strengthening.



Surface Defects

Hall-Petch equation Relates the grain size of the σ_y strength

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_0 + K d^{-1/2}$$

σ_y : σ_y strength

d : is the average diameter of the grains.

σ_0 , K are constant for material.

Specification of grain size:

$$N = 2^{n-1}$$

N : number of grains per in^2 at magnification $\times 100$

n : ASTM grain size.

Ex: Copper 2 in alloy has the following prop.

grain diameter	strength	$d^{-1/2}$
0.015	170	8.165
0.025	159	6.325
0.035	151	5.345
0.05	145	4.472

Determine:

① the constants in the Hall-Petch eq.

② the grain size required to obtain the strength of 200

$$K = 6.77$$

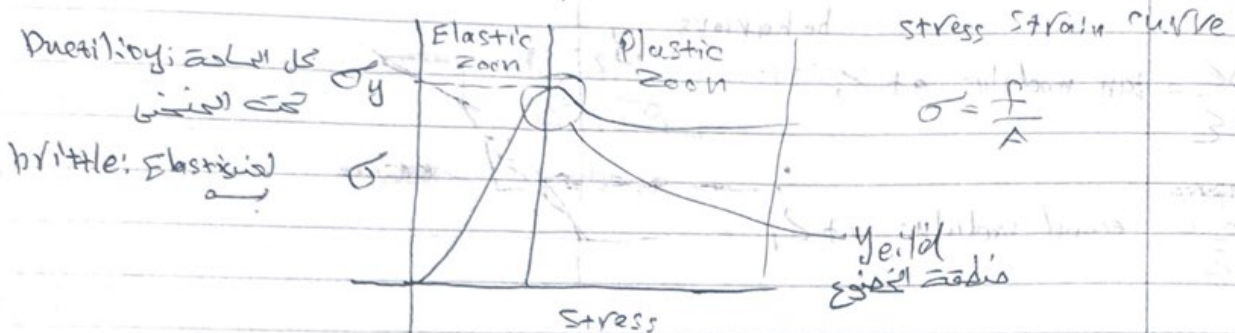
$$\sigma_0 = 114.7$$

من المعادلتين بحول σ_0 , K

$$200 = 114.7 + 6.77/\sqrt{d}$$

$$\Rightarrow d =$$

Chapter 6



Engineering Stress: $\sigma = \frac{F}{A}$

Strain: $\epsilon = \Delta L / L_0 (\times 100 \%)$

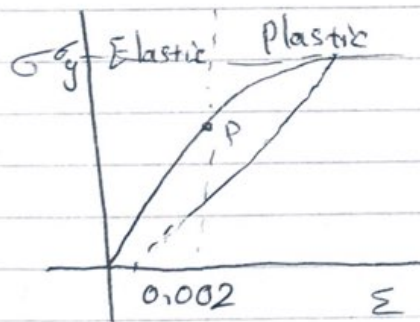
$\sigma, \epsilon (+) T$

$\sigma, \epsilon (-) C$

Shear stress: $\tau = \frac{F}{A_0}$

Shear strain: $\gamma = \tan \theta (\times 100 \%)$

Stress - Strain behavior



$\sigma = E \epsilon$

Strain (ε): change in the length, deflection = $\Delta L = L - L_0$

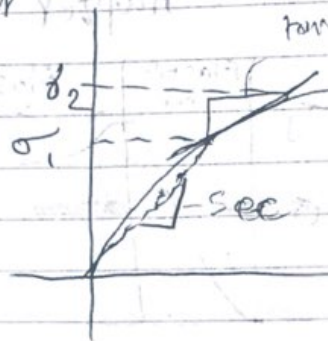
$\sigma = \frac{F}{A}, \frac{\delta}{L} = \epsilon$

$\sigma = E \epsilon$
Stress specific for material modulus

non-linear behaviors

$$\frac{\Delta \sigma}{\Delta \epsilon} = \text{tan modulus at } \sigma_2$$

$$\frac{\Delta \sigma}{\Delta \epsilon} = \text{Second modulus at } \sigma_1$$



* Anelasticity: الوقت لازم في عملية الاسترخاء (الزمن)
time dependence of elastic deformation.

* we have assumed that elastic deformation is time independent.

* But in reality deformation takes time (limit rate of deformation processes).

this time dependent elastic behavior is known as anelastic.

* The effect is normally small for metals but it is significant for polymers

* Poisson's Ratio:

$$\nu = -\frac{\epsilon_x}{\epsilon_z} = -\frac{\epsilon_y}{\epsilon_z}$$

$$\max = 0.5$$

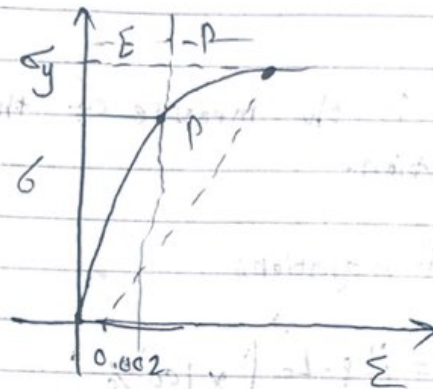
Typical value: 0.24-0.3

$\sigma_x = 0$ $\sigma_y = 0$ $\epsilon_z \neq 0$ plain stress plain strain

??

* Plastic Deformation:

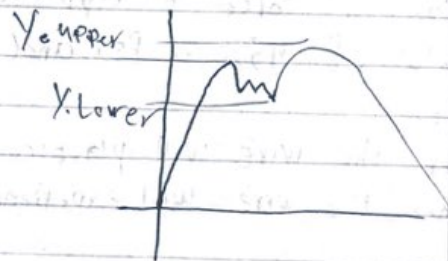
- * Stress and strain are not proportional.
- * the deformation is not reversible



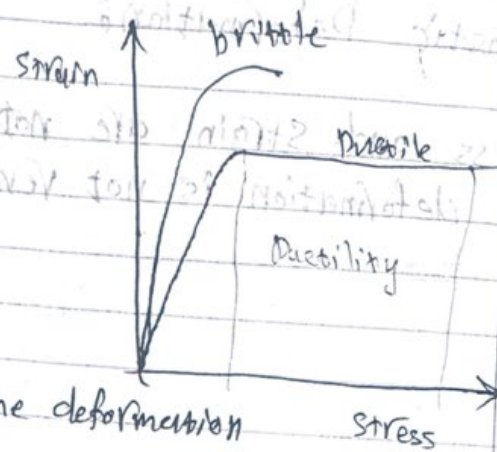
σ_y = yield strength; is chosen as that causing a permanent strain of 0.002.

P: Yield Point; the strain deviates from being proportional.

Y.S: is a measure of resistance to plastic deformation.



σ ϵ ~~Engineering~~ (U) A U : true stress



Ductility: is the measure of the deformation as fraction.

Percent of elongations

$$\% EL = \left(\frac{L_f - L_o}{L_o} \right) \times 100\%$$

Percent reduction in area

$$\% RA = \left(\frac{A_o - A_f}{A_o} \right) \times 100\%$$

Toughness: The ability to absorb energy up to fracture

Ex: A 850-lb force is applied to 0.15 in diameter's nickel wire have Y.S of 45,000 Psi and tensile strength of 55,000 Psi Determine,

- ① whether the wire will plastically deform?
- ② whether the wire will experience necking

① $\frac{F}{A} = \sigma = 48,100 \text{ Psi} > 45,000 \text{ Psi}$
the wire will plastically deform.

necking formed from ductility

② $48,100 < 55,000$
No necking will occur

Ex: A 3-in diameter rod of Copper is to be reduced to a 2-in diameter rod by being pushed through an opening. account for elastic strain, what should be the diameter of the opening.

$$E = 17 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$$

$$Y.S = 40,000 \text{ psi}$$

$$\epsilon = \sigma / E = 0.00235 \quad \text{Hooke's law}$$

$$\epsilon = \frac{(2 - d_o)}{d_o} = 0.00235$$

$$\Rightarrow d_o = 1.995 \text{ in}$$

Ex: A steel cable 1.25 in diameter and 50 ft long is to lift 20 ton load what is the length of the cable during lifting.

$$E = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$$

$$\sigma = E / A = 32,595 \text{ psi} \quad \leftarrow \text{القوة على المساحة}$$

$$\epsilon = \sigma / E = 0.0010865 \text{ in}$$

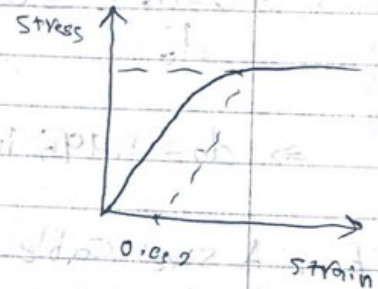
$$\epsilon = (L_f - 50) / 50 \Rightarrow L_f = 50.0543 \text{ ft}$$

Ex: The following data were collected from a standard 0.505 diameter ~~test~~ test specimen of copper alloy (initial length $L_o = 2 \text{ in}$) after fracture the gage length is 3.014 in and the diameter is 0.374 in. Plot the data.

Toughness: Ability of material to absorb energy

Load (in)	Gage length (in)	Stress (psi)	Strain
0	2	0	0
3,000	2.00167	15,000	0.000825
6,000	2.00333	30,000	0.001666
8,500	2.00417	37,500	0.002085
9,000	2.009	45,000	0.0045
10,500	2.04	52,500	0.02
12,000	2.26	60,000	0.13
12,400	2.5	60,000	0.25
11,400	3.02	57,000	0.51

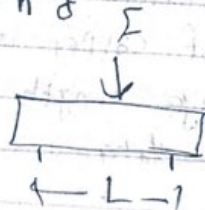
- a) 0.2 % offset Y. strength = 45,000 Psi
- b) tensile strength = 62,000 Psi
- c) $E = 18 \times 10^6$ Psi
- d) % elongation = 50.7 %
- e) % Reduction in area = 45.2 %
- f) Eng. stress at fracture = 57,000 Psi
- g) true stress at fracture = 103,770 Psi
- h) modulus of ~~resilience~~ resilience ~~George Basratt~~
- $\frac{1}{2} (Y. strength) (strain at Yield) = 39.1$ Psi



$$\text{Flexural Strength} = \frac{3FL}{2Wh^3}$$

Flexural

$$\text{Flexural modulus} = \frac{FL^3}{4Wh^3}$$



1: من التبيد للتبيد

Tensile Test

Bending Test

Hardness Test

الصور السابقة

* Fracture:

Fracture: Separation of a body into pieces due to stress or temp. below the melting point.

* Steps in fractures

- ① Crack formation.
- ② Crack propagation.

Two fracture modes:

- ① Ductile fracture - most metals (but not too cold)

* ~~Extensive~~ Extensive plastic deformation ahead of crack
 * Crack "Stable" resists further extension unless applied stress is increased.

- ② Brittle fracture, ceramic, cold material

* little plastic deformation.

* Crack is "unstable" propagates rapidly without increase in applied stress

* Stress Concentration:

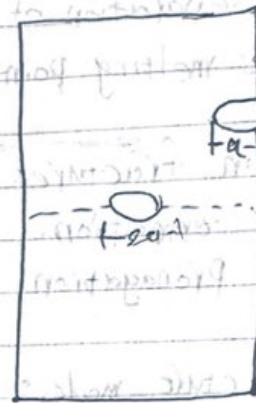
Fracture strength of a brittle solid is related to the cohesive forces between atoms.

The theoretical cohesive strength of a brittle material should be $E/10$, but experimental fracture strength is normally $E/100 - E/10000$

* This much lower fracture strength is explained by the effect of stress concentration of microscopic flaws.

* The applied stress is amplified at the tips of microcracks, voids, notches, surface scratches

that are called stress raisers



max stress near the crack tip is

$$\sigma_m = 2\sigma_0 \left(\frac{a}{P_b} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

σ_0 : is the applied stress,

a : is the half length of the crack

P_b : radius of the curvature of the crack tip

$$K_t = \frac{\sigma_m}{\sigma_0} \approx 2 \left(\frac{a}{P_b} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \text{Stress Concentration Factor}$$

Fatigue

Under fluctuating/cyclic stresses failure can occur at load ~~condition~~ considerable lower than tensile or yield strength of material under static load.

* 90% of all failures of metallic structures is due to fatigue.

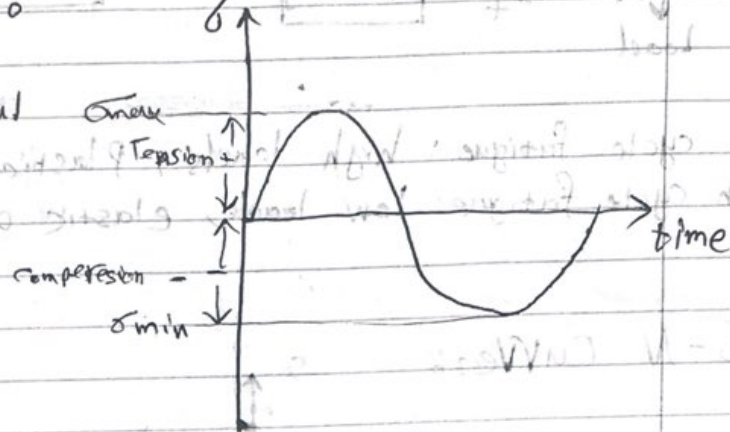
* Fatigue failure is brittle-like stages of fatigue.

Dr. George

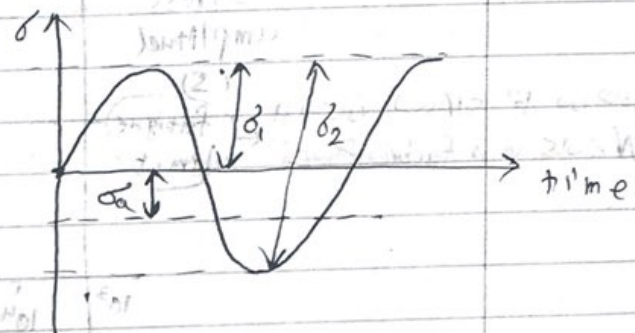
- ~~⑤ Crack Initiation in the~~ ③ Catastrophic failure
- ② Incremental Crack Propagation
- ① crack initiation in the areas of stress concentration

Fatigue cycle Stresses:

- ① Periodic and symmetrical about zero



- ② Periodic and asymmetrical about zero.



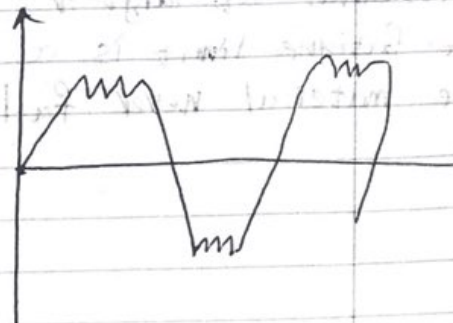
$$\text{Mean stress} = \sigma_m = (\sigma_{\max} + \sigma_{\min})/2$$

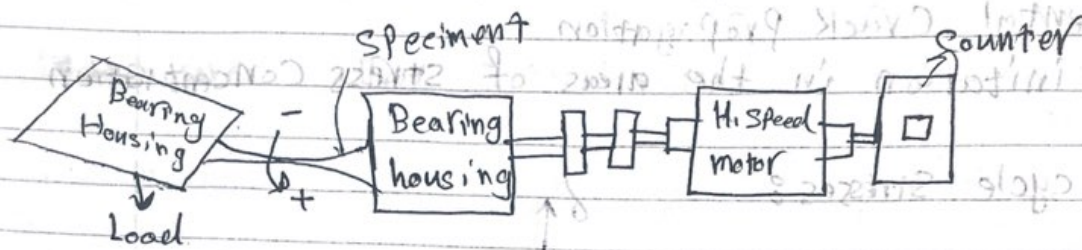
$$\text{Range of stress} = \sigma_r = \sigma_{\max} - \sigma_{\min}$$

$$\text{Stress amplitude} = \sigma_a = \sigma_r/2 = (\sigma_{\max} - \sigma_{\min})/2$$

$$\text{Stress Ratio} = \sigma_{\min} / \sigma_{\max}$$

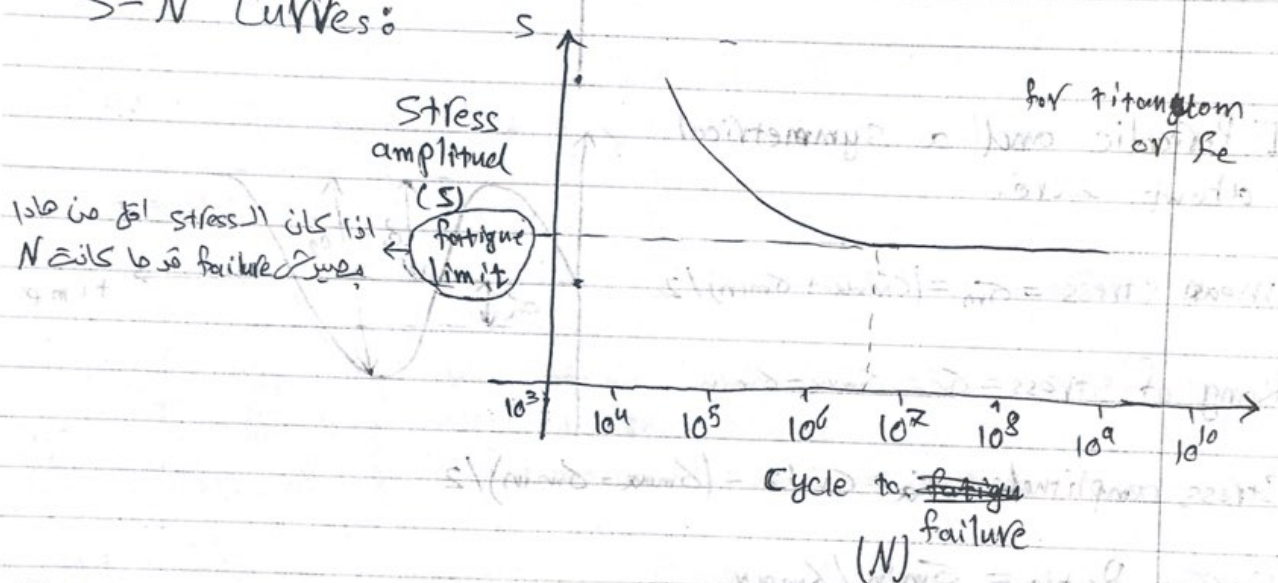
- ③ Random Stress



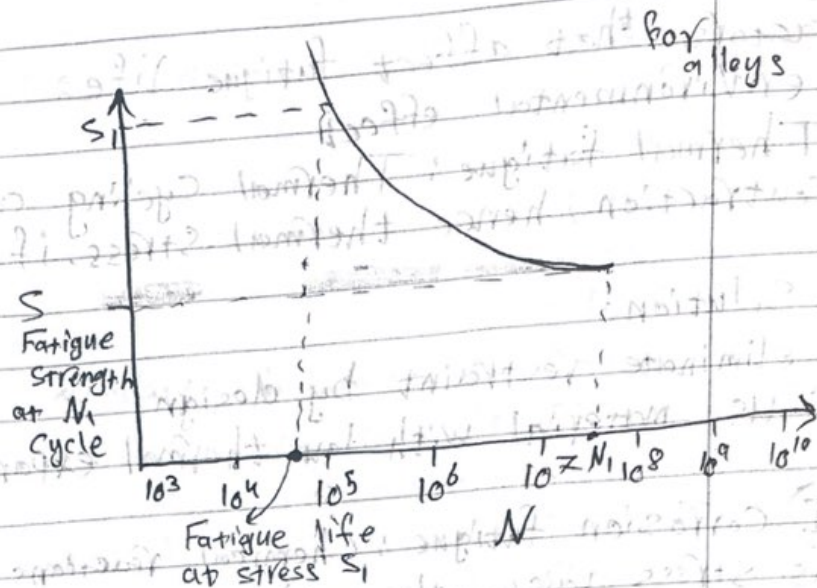


Low cycle fatigue: high loads, plastic and elastic deformation
 High cycle fatigue: low loads, elastic deformation, $N > 10^5$

S-N Curves:



Fatigue Limit (endurance limit): in this case, S-N curve become horizontal at large N , the fatigue limit is a max stress amplitude below which the material never fails, no matter how large N is.



- * Fatigue strength: Stress at which fracture occur after specified number of cycles (10^7)
- * Fatigue life: Number of cycles to fail at ~~stress~~ specified stress level.

Factors that affect fatigue life:

- ① magnitude of stress
- ② quality of surface (scratches, edges, sharp transition...)

Solution to increase life of fatigue:

- ① (Removes machining flow) Polishing.
- ② Shot peening
- ③ Case hardening (heat treatment)
- ④ optimizing geometry; avoid internal corners



* Factors that affect fatigue life:

environmental effect

* Thermal fatigue: Thermal cycling causes expansion & contraction, hence thermal stress, if component is restrained.

Solution:

- ① eliminate restraint by design
- ② Use material with low thermal expansion Coeff.

II Corrosion fatigue: Chemical reactions induce pits which act as stress raisers also enhance crack propagation.

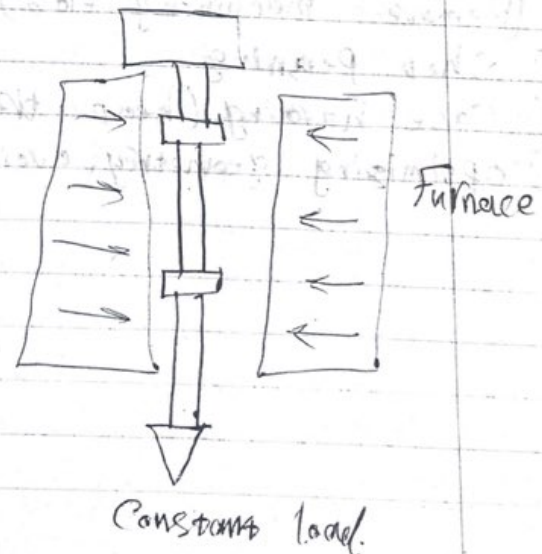
Solution:

- ① add protection surface coating.
- ② decrease corrosiveness medium.

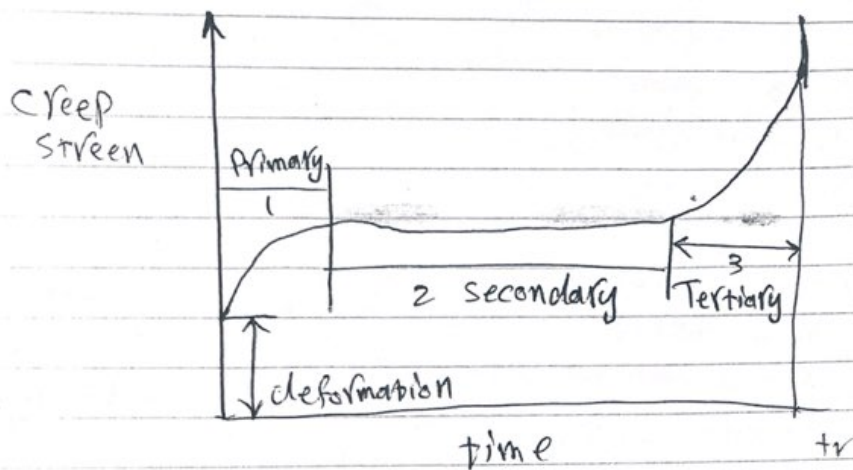
* Creep:

Creep is the time dependent and permanent deformation of materials when subjected to a constant load at a high Temperature ($> 0.4T_m$).

Examples: turbine blades, steam generators.



الزحف Hardness



- ① Instantaneous deformation
- ② Primary / transient creep
- ③ secondary / steady-state creep: Rate of straining is
- ④ Tertiary: Rapidly acceleration strain rate up to failure