

Diffusion

Diffusion - Mass transport by atomic motion

Mechanisms

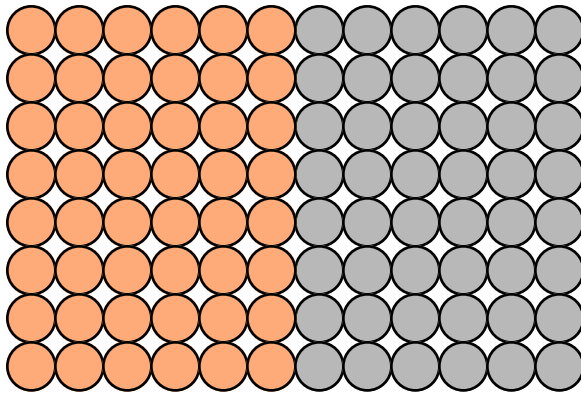
- Gases & Liquids – random (Brownian) motion
- Solids – vacancy diffusion or interstitial diffusion

Interdiffusion: In an alloy, atoms tend to migrate from regions of high conc. to regions of low conc.

Self-diffusion: In an elemental solid, atoms also migrate.

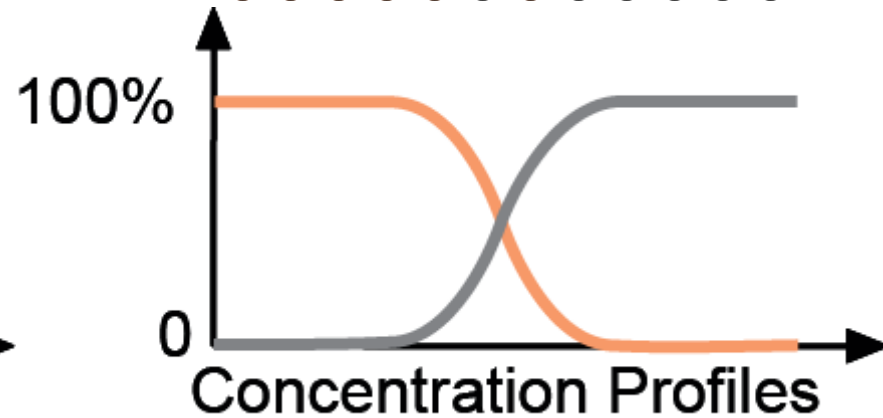
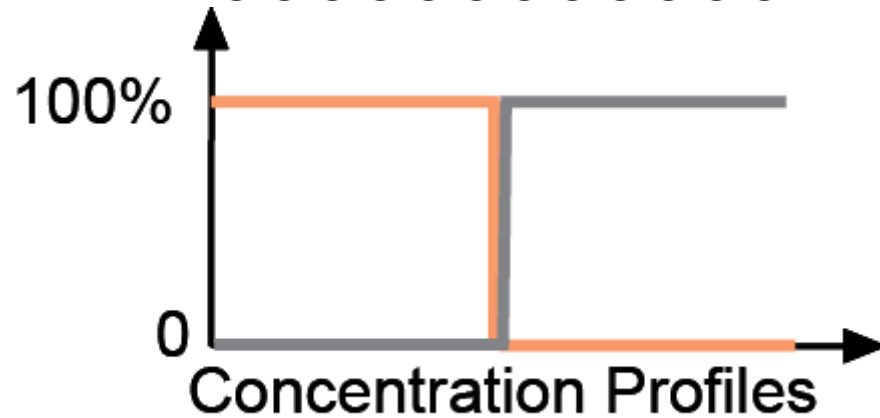
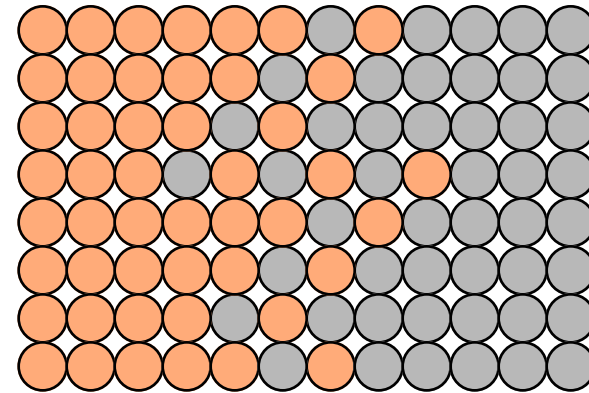
Interdiffusion

Initially



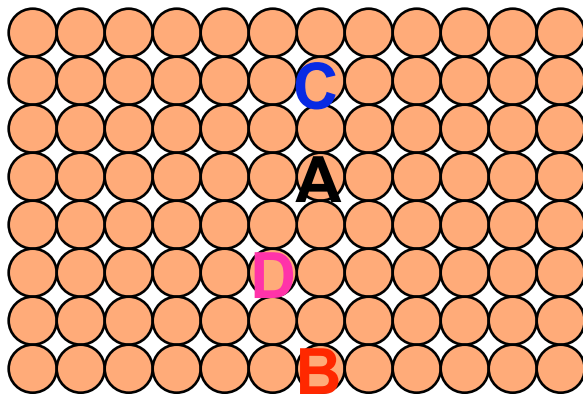
Adapted from
Figs. 5.1 and
5.2, *Callister*
7e.

After some time

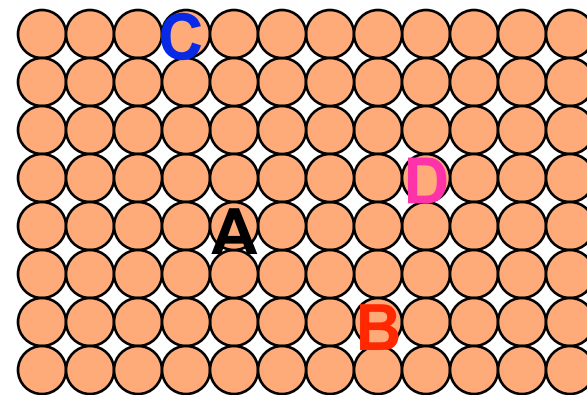


Self-diffusion

Label some atoms



After some time



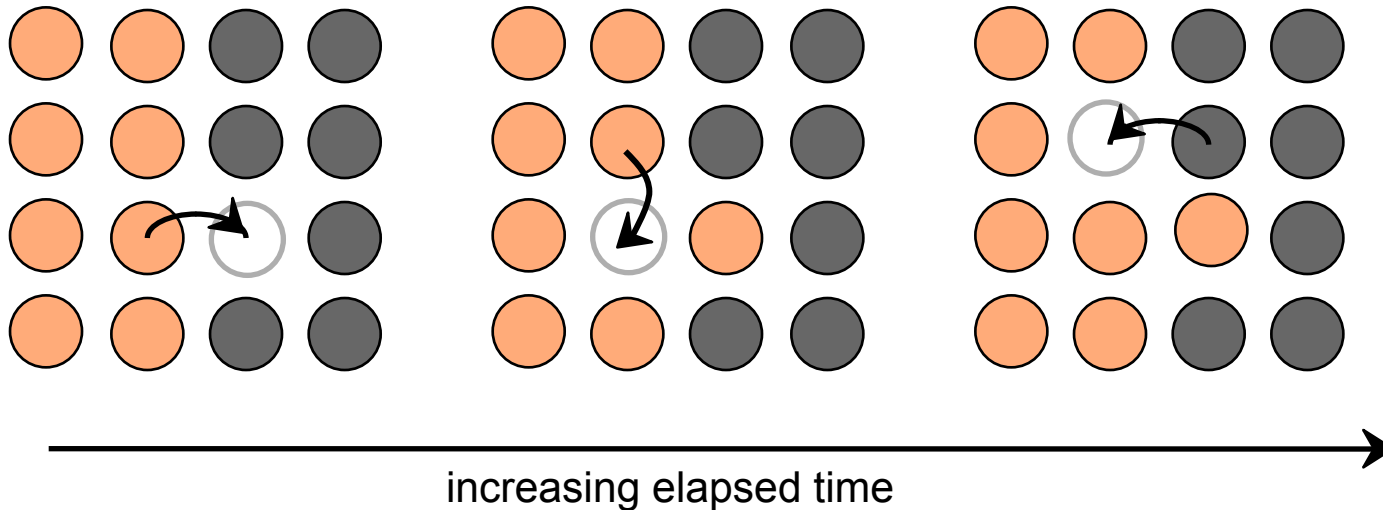
Diffusion mechanisms

Conditions:

- There must be an empty site available
- Atoms must have the energy to make the jump

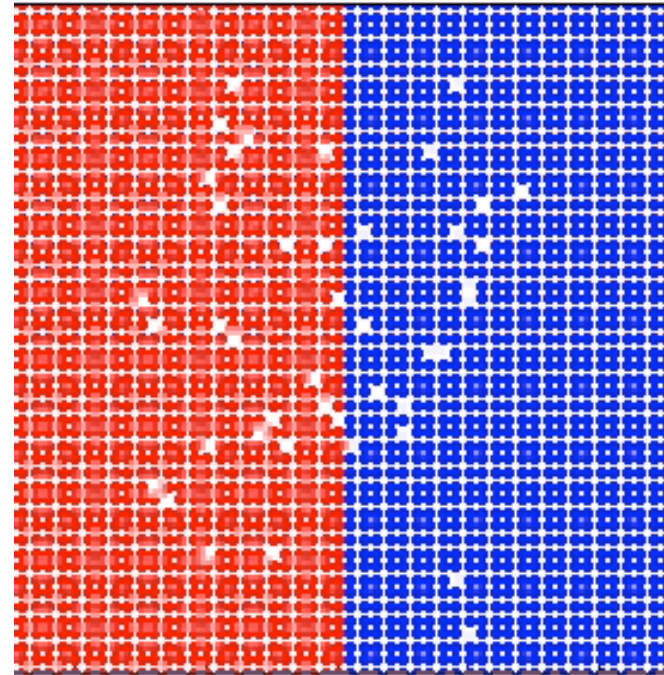
Vacancy Diffusion:

- atoms exchange with vacancies
- applies to substitutional impurities atoms
- rate depends on:
 - number of vacancies
 - activation energy to exchange.



Diffusion simulation

- Simulation of interdiffusion across an interface:
- Rate of substitutional diffusion depends on:
 - vacancy concentration
 - frequency of jumping.



(Courtesy P.M. Anderson)

Diffusion flux

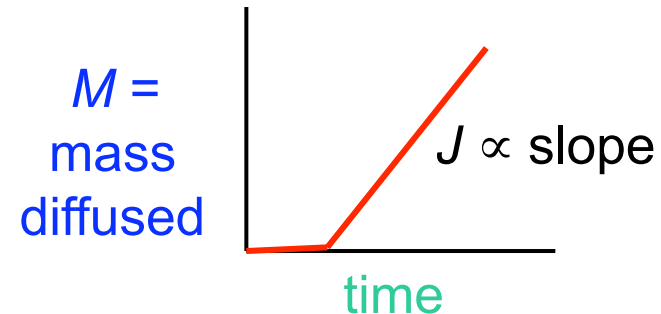
How do we quantify the amount or rate of diffusion?

$$J \equiv \text{Flux} \equiv \frac{\text{moles (or mass) diffusing}}{(\text{surface area})(\text{time})} = \frac{\text{mol}}{\text{cm}^2\text{s}} \text{ or } \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^2\text{s}}$$

Measured empirically

- Make thin film (membrane) of known surface area
- Impose concentration gradient
- Measure how fast atoms or molecules diffuse through the membrane

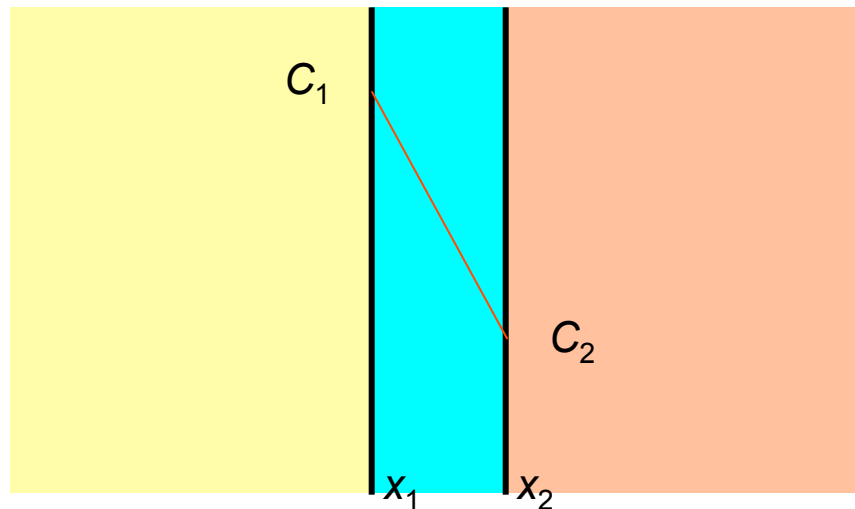
$$J = \frac{M}{At} = \frac{l}{A} \frac{dM}{dt}$$



Steady-state diffusion

Rate of diffusion independent of time

Flux proportional to concentration gradient = $\frac{dC}{dx}$



Fick's first law of diffusion

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

if linear $\frac{dC}{dx} \cong \frac{\Delta C}{\Delta x} = \frac{C_2 - C_1}{x_2 - x_1}$

D \equiv diffusion coefficient

Diffusion and temperature

- Diffusion coefficient increases with increasing T .

$$D = D_o \exp \left(- \frac{Q_d}{R T} \right)$$

D = diffusion coefficient [m²/s]

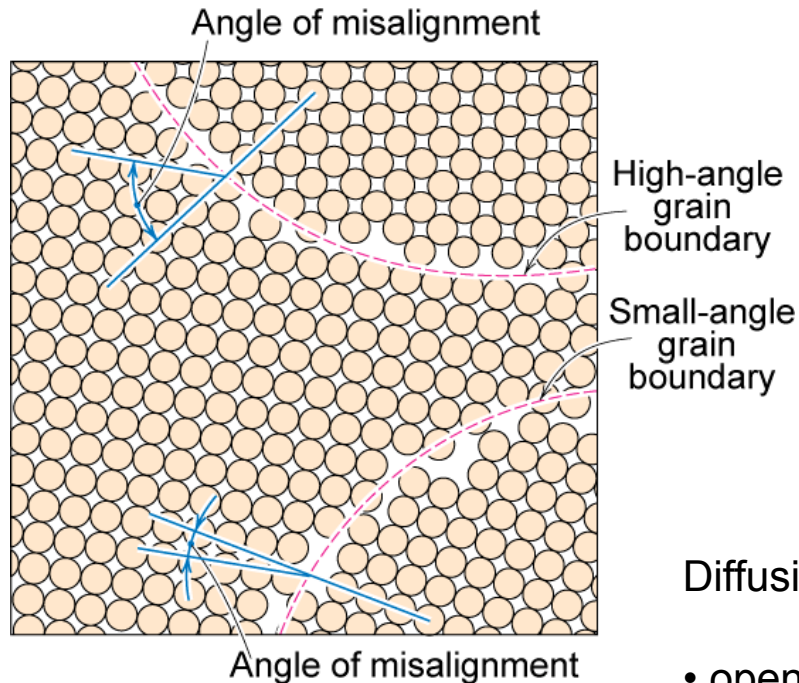
D_o = pre-exponential [m²/s]

Q_d = activation energy [J/mol or eV/atom]

R = gas constant [8.314 J/mol-K]

T = absolute temperature [K]

Diffusion paths



Diffusion **FASTER** for...

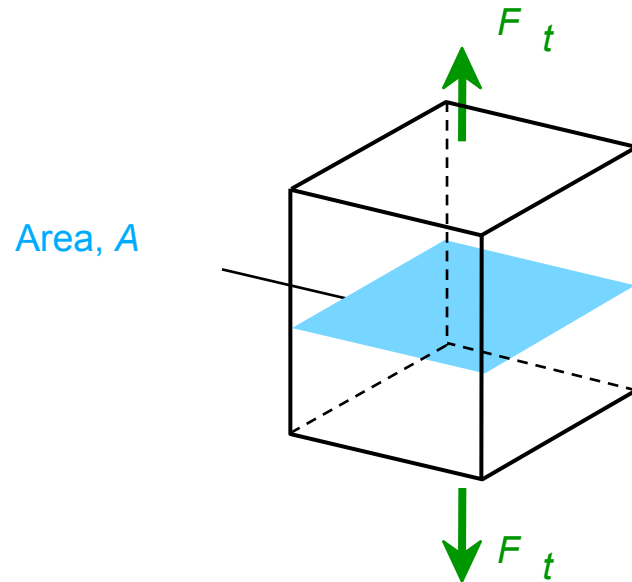
- open crystal structures
- materials w/secondary bonding
- smaller diffusing atoms
- lower density materials

Diffusion **SLOWER** for...

- close-packed structures
- materials w/covalent bonding
- larger diffusing atoms
- higher density materials

Engineering stress

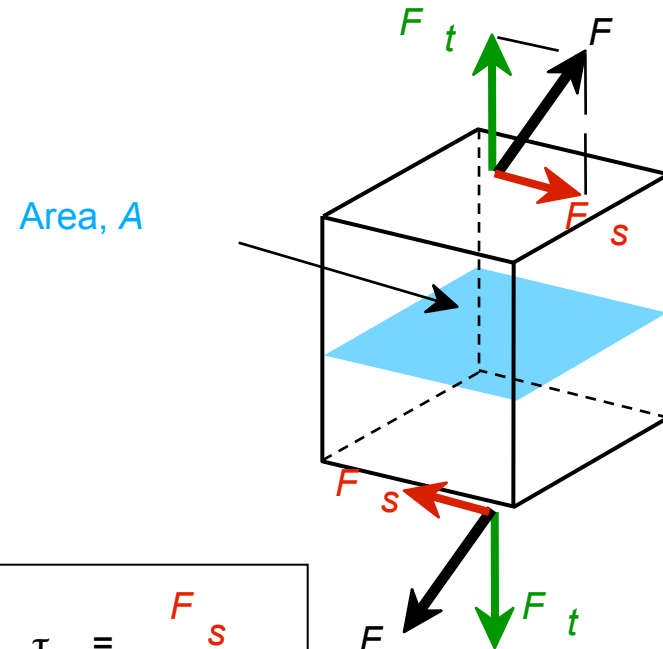
- Tensile stress, σ :



$$\sigma = \frac{F_t}{A_o} = \frac{\text{lb}_f}{\text{in}^2} \text{ or } \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}^2}$$

original area
before loading

- Shear stress, τ :



$$\tau = \frac{F_s}{A_o}$$

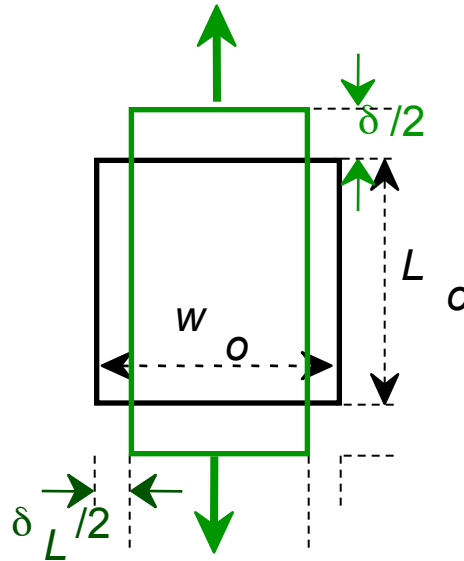
Engineering strain

- **Tensile strain:**

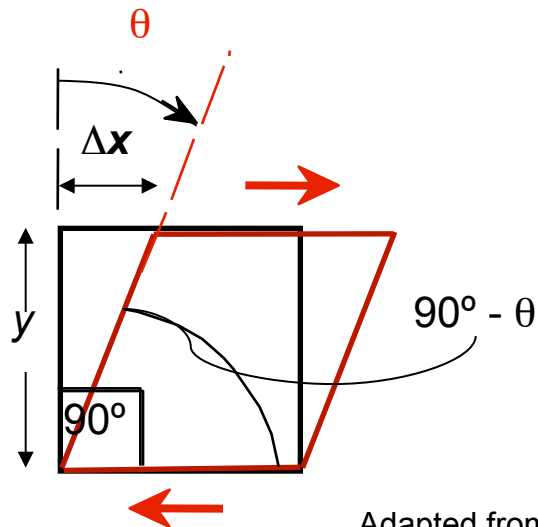
$$\varepsilon = \frac{\delta}{L_o}$$

- **Lateral strain:**

$$\varepsilon_L = \frac{-\delta_L}{w_o}$$



- **Shear strain:**



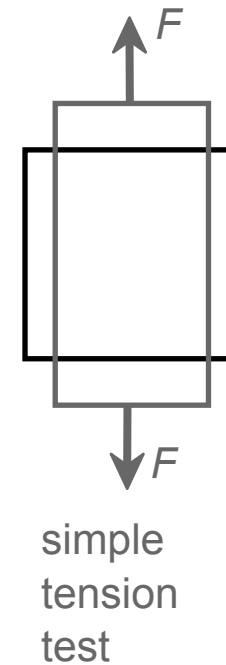
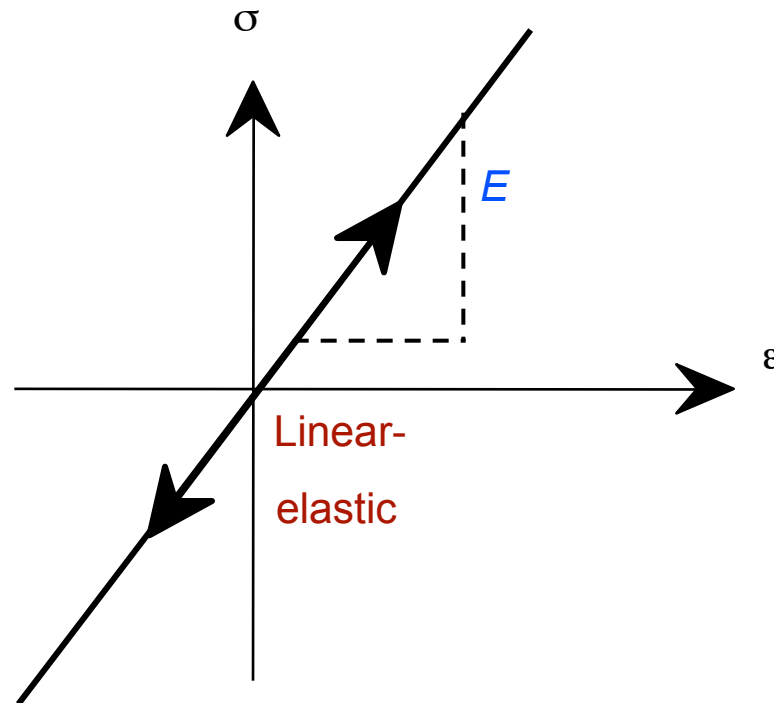
$$\gamma = \Delta x / y = \tan \theta$$

Adapted from Fig. 6.1 (a) and (c), *Callister 7e*.

Engineering strain

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

$$\sigma = E \varepsilon$$



Elastic properties of materials

- Poisson's ratio, ν :

$$\nu = - \frac{\epsilon_L}{\epsilon}$$

metals: $\nu \sim 0.33$

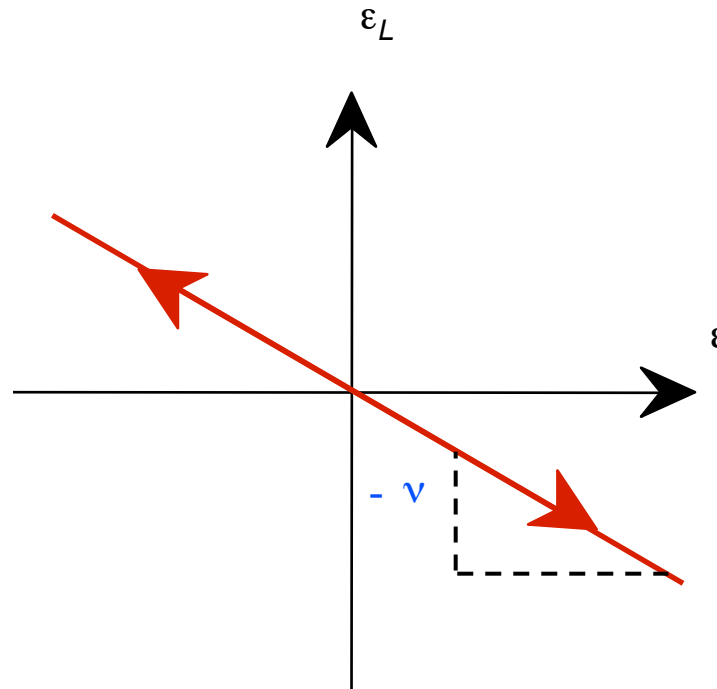
ceramics: $\nu \sim 0.25$

polymers: $\nu \sim 0.40$

Units:

E : [GPa] or [psi]

ν : dimensionless



$-\nu > 0.50$ density increases

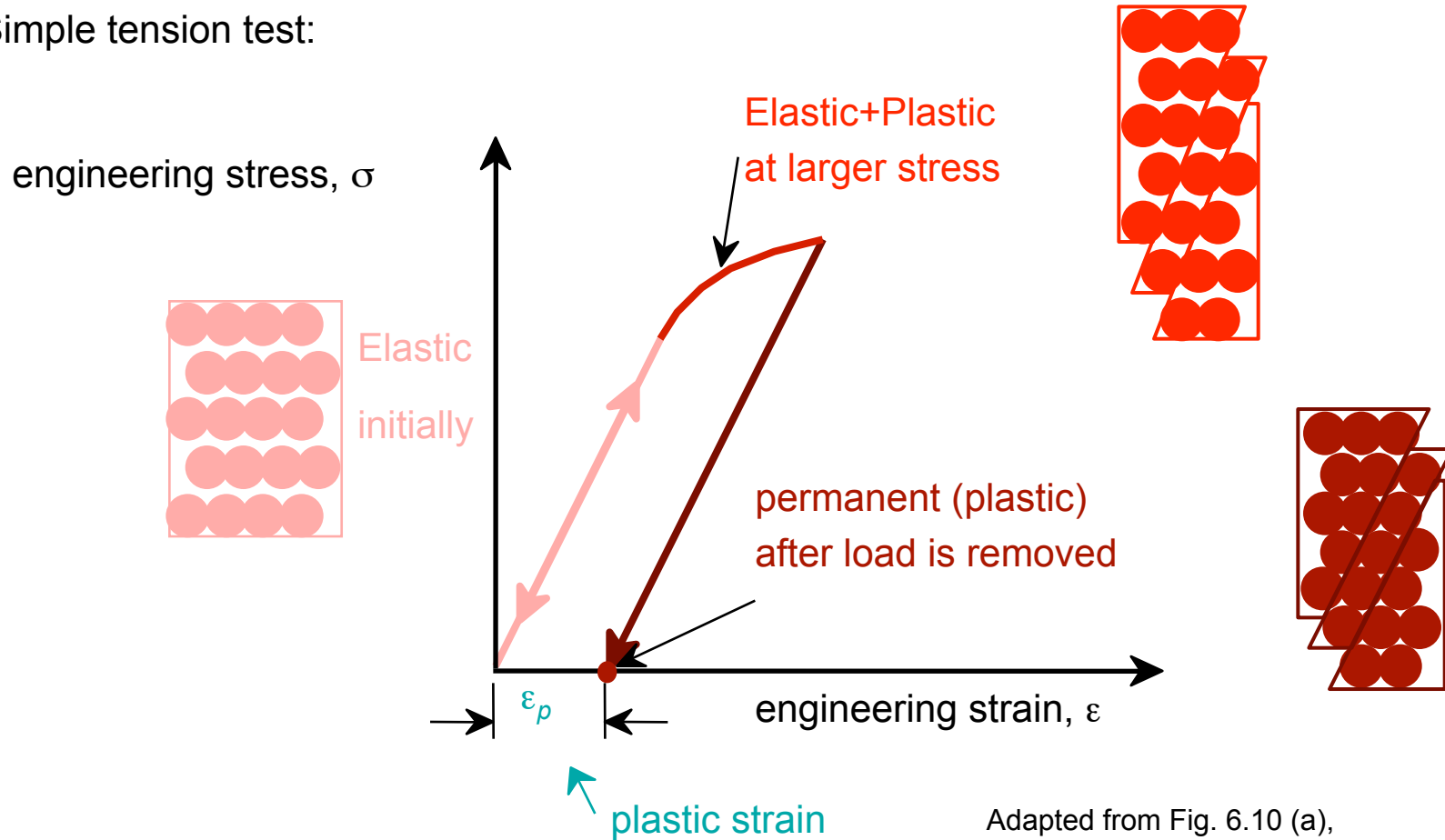
$-\nu < 0.50$ density decreases
(voids form)

–For *isotropic* materials

$$E = 2G(1+\nu)$$

Plastic deformation

- Simple tension test:

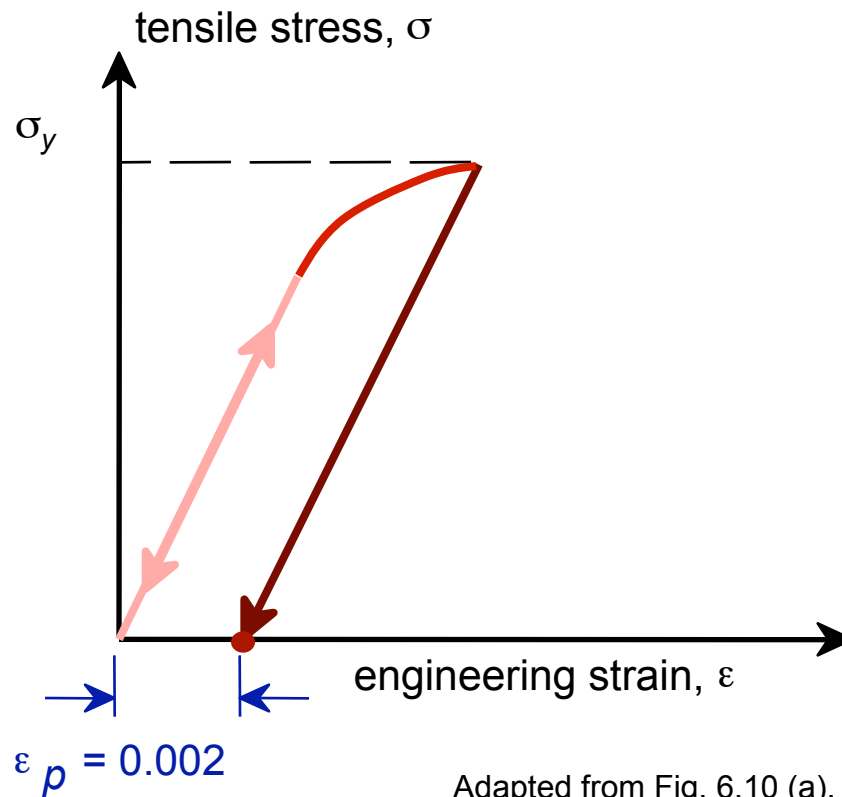


Adapted from Fig. 6.10 (a),
Callister 7e.

Yield strength, σ_y

- Stress at which *noticeable* plastic deformation has occurred.

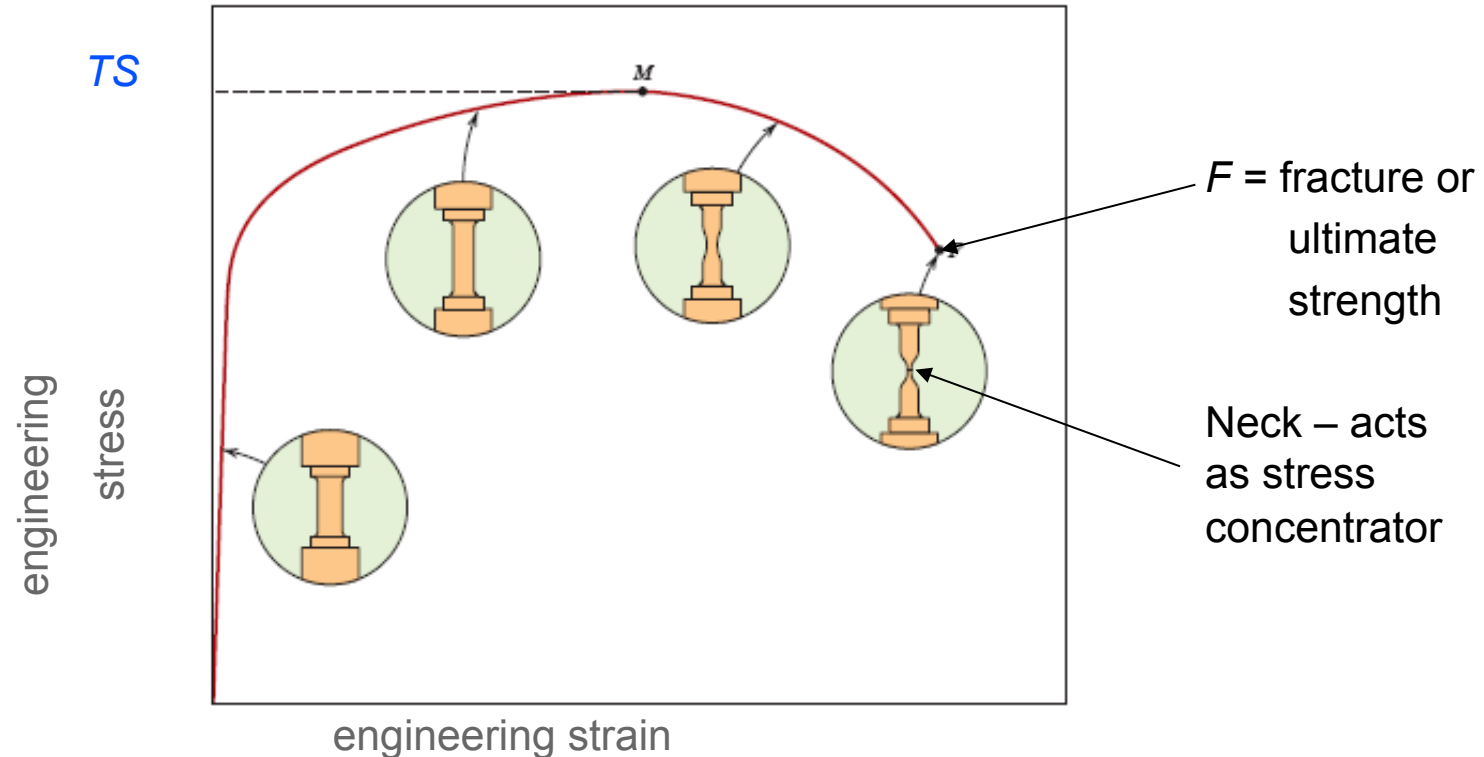
when $\epsilon_p = 0.002$



Adapted from Fig. 6.10 (a),
Callister 7e.

Tensile strength, TS

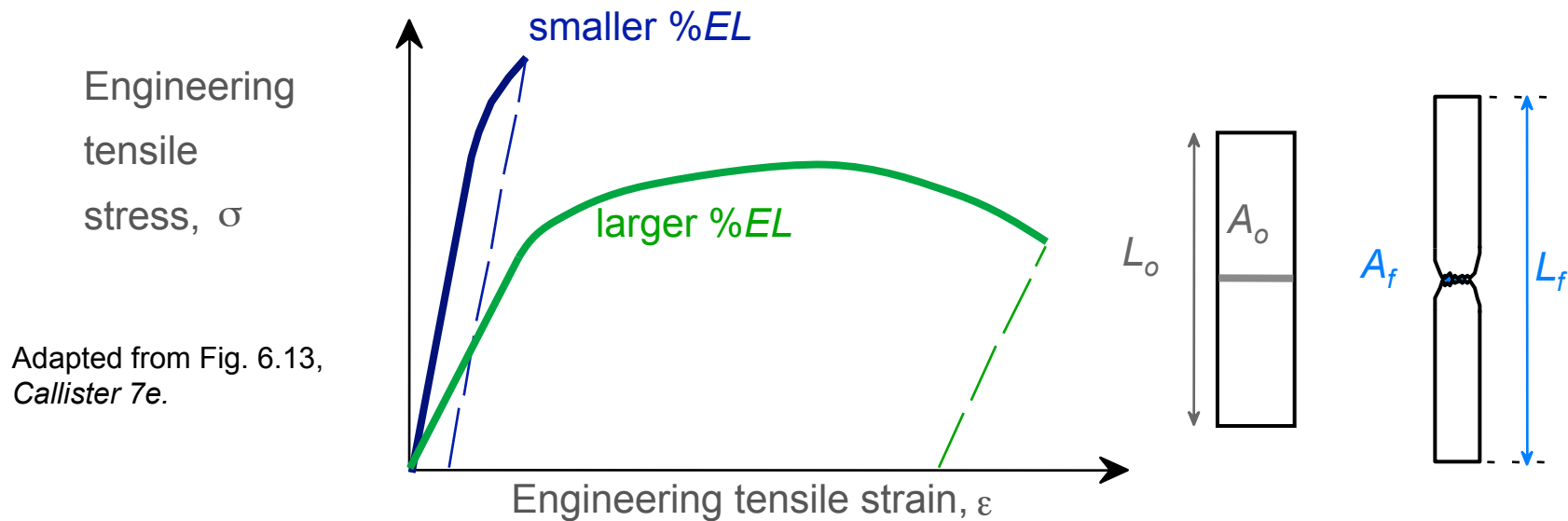
- Maximum stress on engineering stress-strain curve.



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

Ductility

- Plastic tensile strain at failure:
$$\% EL = \frac{L_f - L_o}{L_o} \times 100$$



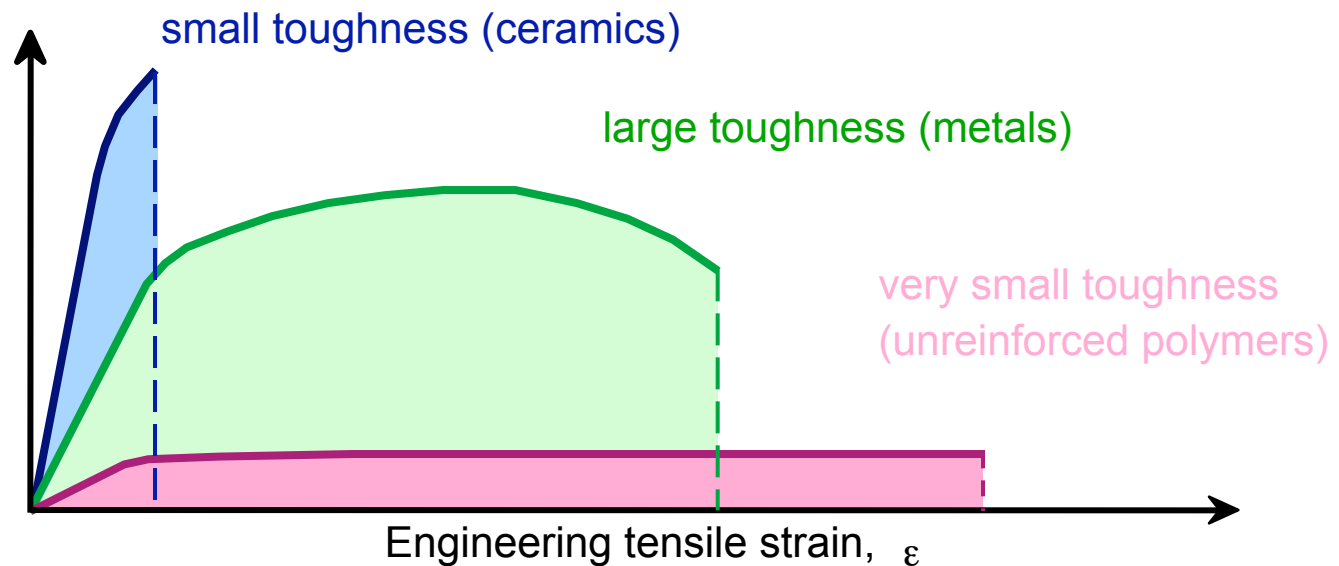
- Another ductility measure:
$$\% RA = \frac{A_o - A_f}{A_o} \times 100$$

Toughness

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

Engineering
tensile
stress, σ

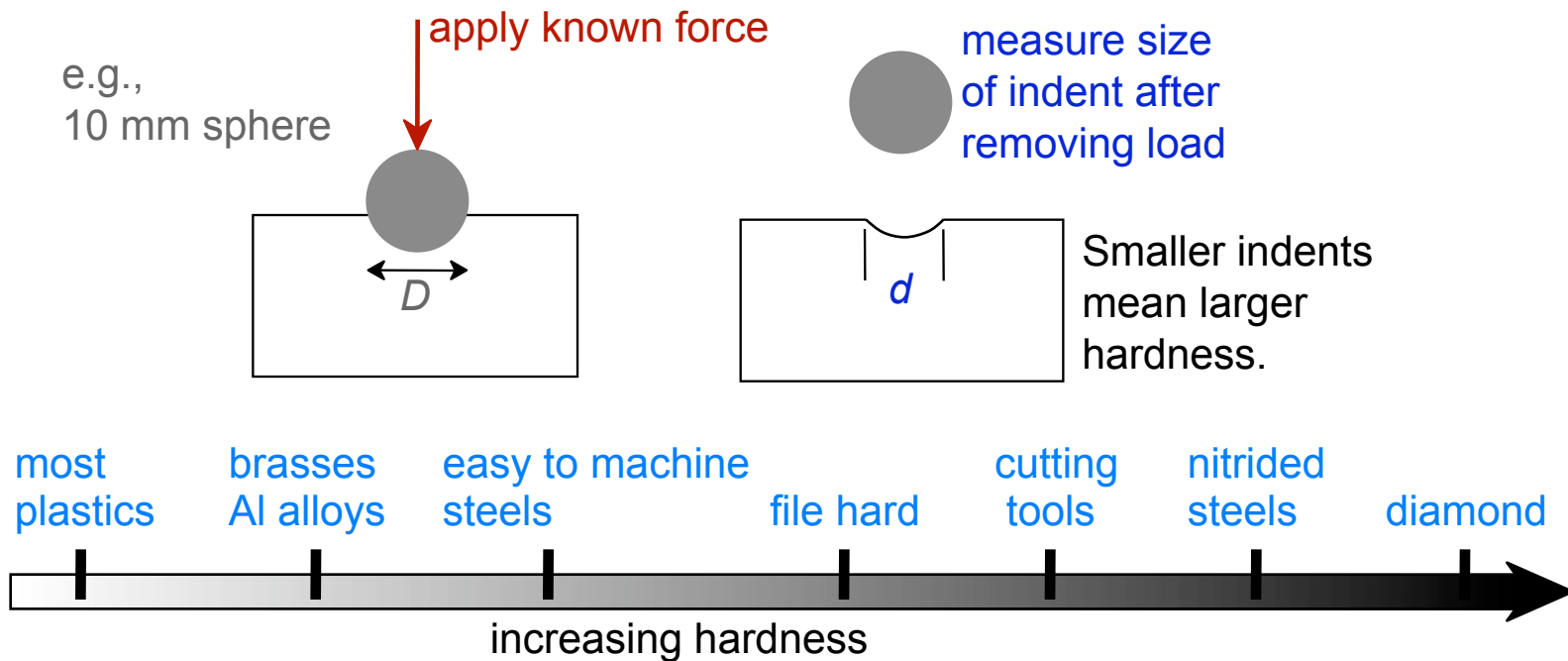
Adapted from Fig. 6.13,
Callister 7e.



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

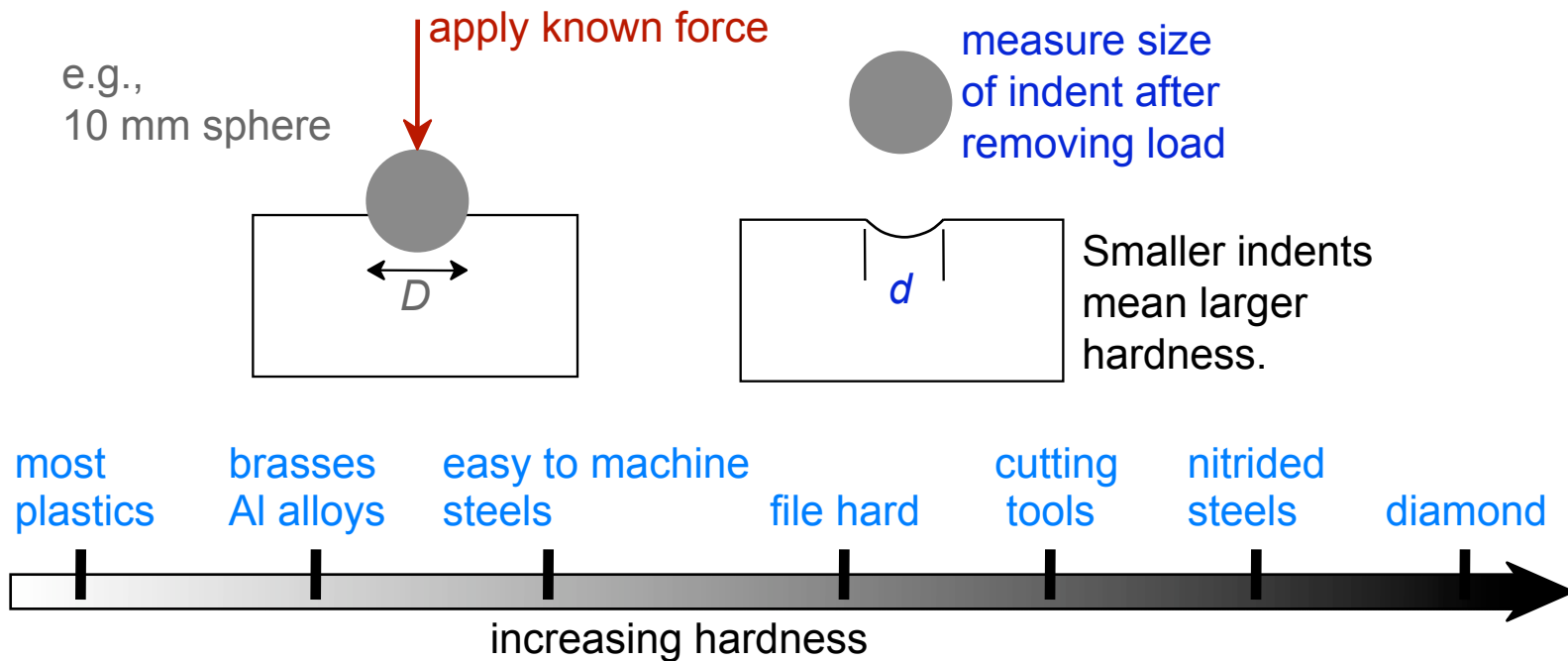
Hardness

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



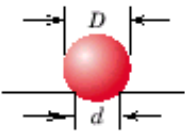
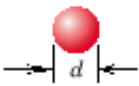
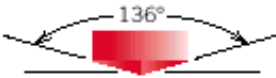
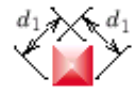
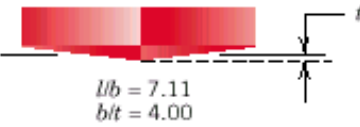
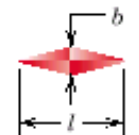
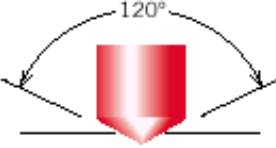



Hardness

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



Hardness Measurement

Table 6.5 Hardness Testing Techniques

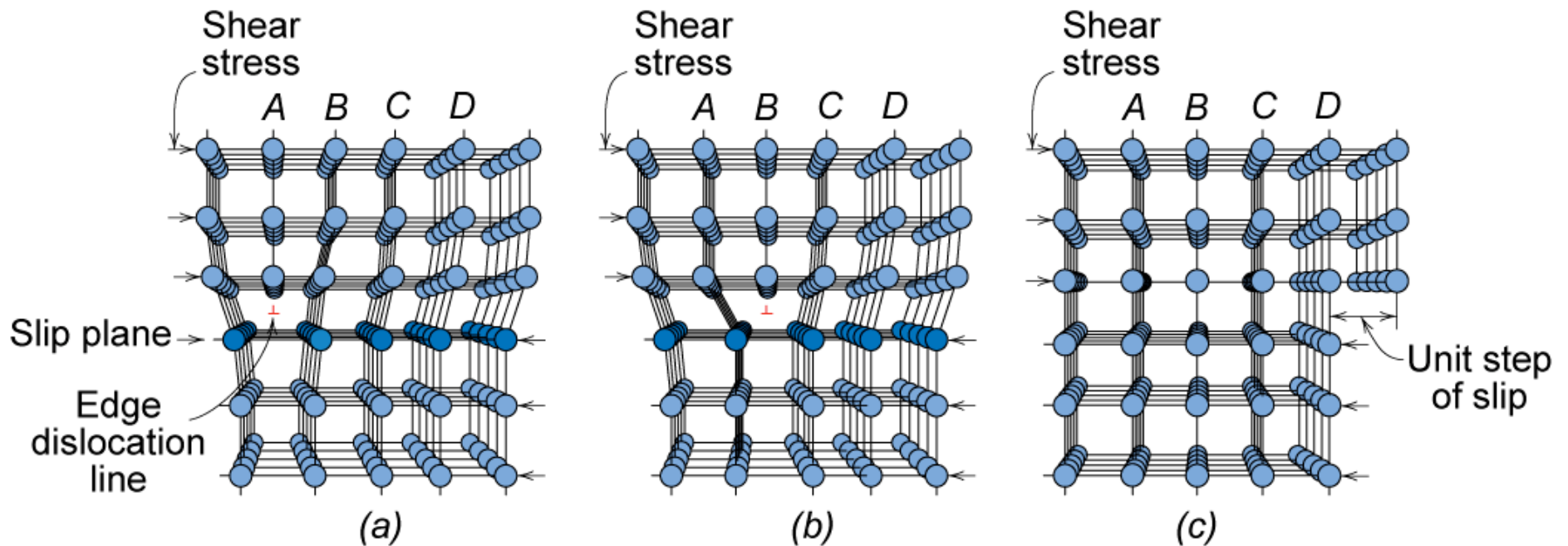
Test	Indenter	Shape of Indentation		Load	Formula for Hardness Number ^a
		Side View	Top View		
Brinell	10-mm sphere of steel or tungsten carbide			P	$HB = \frac{2P}{\pi D[D - \sqrt{D^2 - d^2}]}$
Vickers microhardness	Diamond pyramid			P	$HV = 1.854P/d_1^2$
Knoop microhardness	Diamond pyramid			P	$HK = 14.2P/l^2$
Rockwell and Superficial Rockwell	<div> <div>Diamond cone</div> <div>$\frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}$ in. diameter steel spheres</div> </div>	 	 	<div> <div>60 kg</div> <div>100 kg</div> <div>150 kg</div> </div> <div> <div>15 kg</div> <div>30 kg</div> <div>45 kg</div> </div>	<div>Rockwell</div> <div>Superficial Rockwell</div>

^a For the hardness formulas given, P (the applied load) is in kg, while D , d , d_1 , 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.

Dislocation and plastic deformation

- Cubic & hexagonal metals - plastic deformation by **plastic shear or slip** where one plane of atoms slides over adjacent plane by defect motion (dislocations).

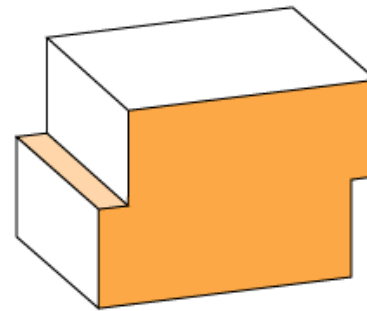
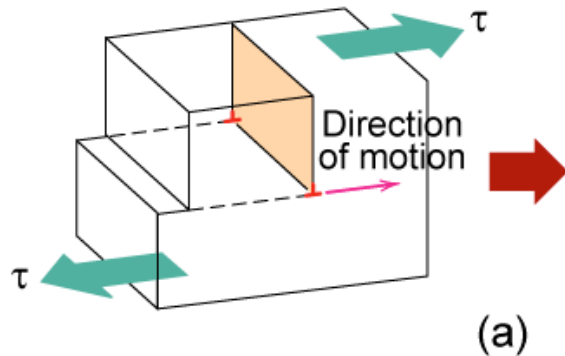


- If dislocations don't move, deformation doesn't occur!

Adapted from Fig. 7.1,
Callister 7e.

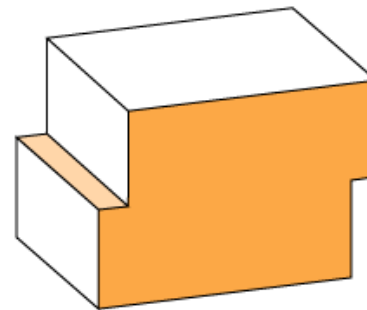
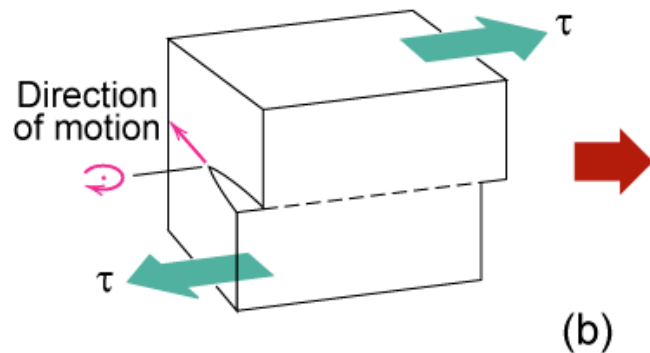
Dislocation motion

- Dislocation moves along **slip plane** in **slip direction** perpendicular to dislocation line
- Edge dislocations** move **parallel** to the applied force, **screw dislocations** move **perpendicular** to the applied force



Edge dislocation

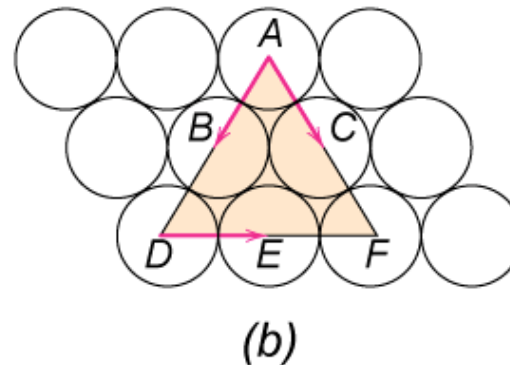
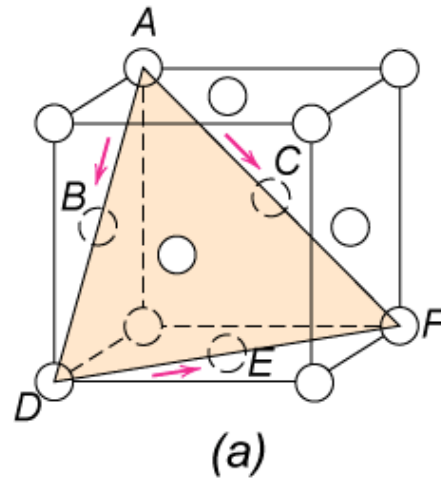
Adapted from Fig. 7.2,
Callister 7e.



Screw dislocation

Deformation mechanisms

- Slip System
 - Slip plane - plane allowing easiest slippage
 - Slip direction - direction of movement

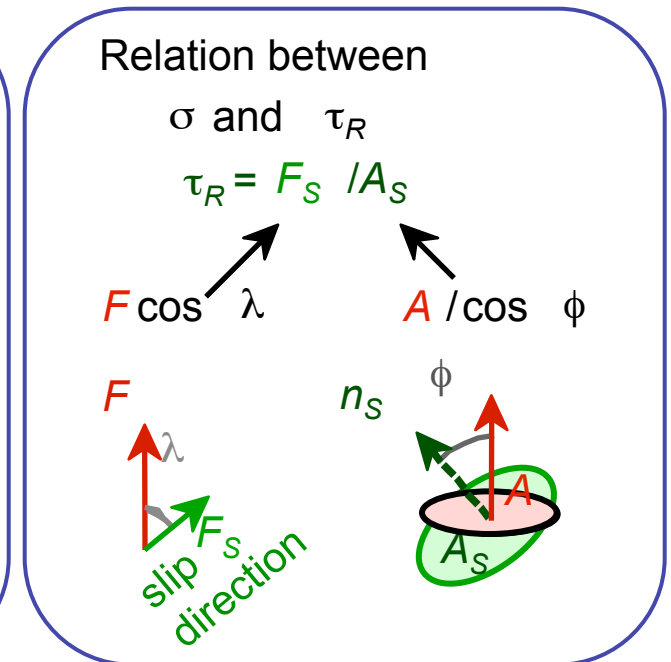
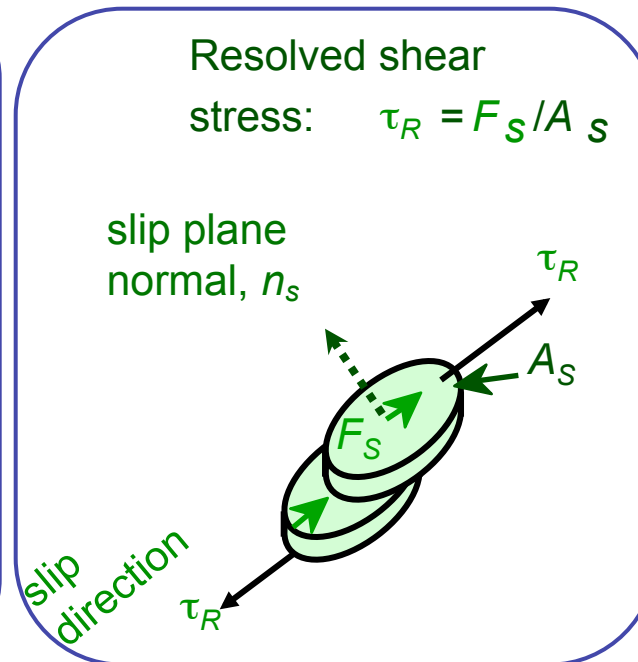
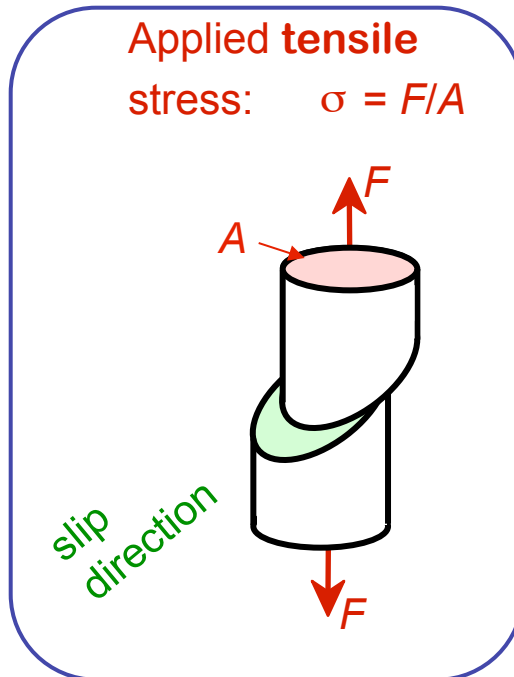


Adapted from Fig. 7.6, Callister 7e.

- FCC Slip occurs on $\{111\}$ planes (close-packed) in $\langle 110 \rangle$ directions (close-packed)
 - \Rightarrow total of 12 slip systems in FCC

Slip in single crystals

- Crystals slip due to a **resolved shear stress**, τ_R .
- Applied tension can produce such a stress.

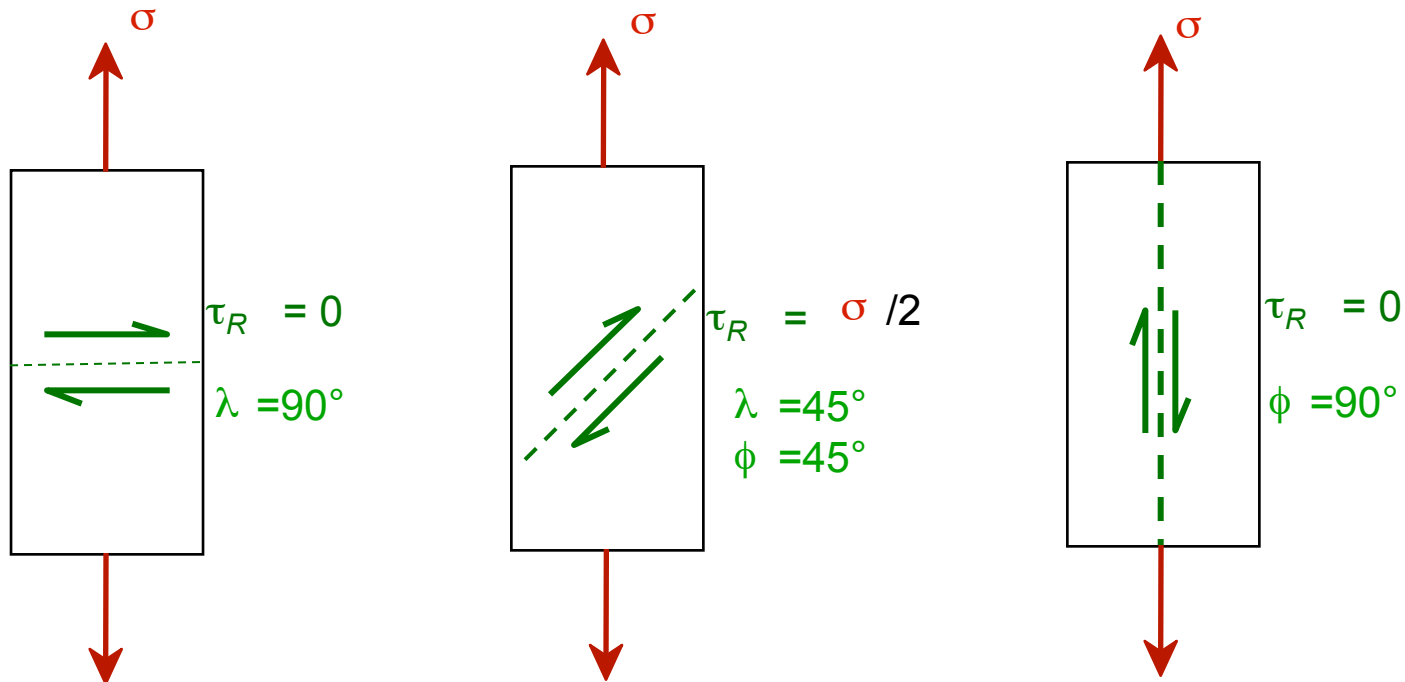


$$\tau_R = \sigma \cos \lambda \cos \phi$$

Critical resolved shear stress

- Condition for dislocation motion: $\tau_R > \tau_{CRSS}$
- Crystal orientation can make it easy or hard to move dislocation

$$\tau_R = \sigma \cos \lambda \cos \phi$$



τ maximum at $\lambda = \phi = 45^\circ$

Slip motion in polycrystals

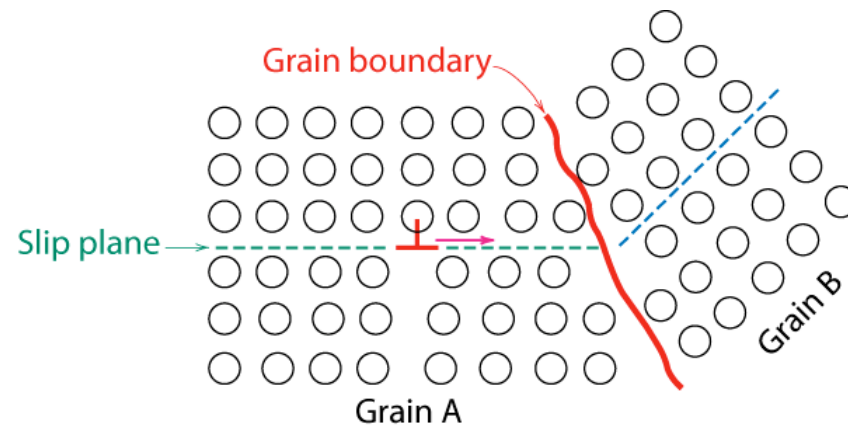
- Stronger - grain boundaries pin deformations
- Slip planes & directions (λ , ϕ) change from one crystal to another.
- τ_R will vary from one crystal to another.
- The crystal with the largest τ_R yields first.
- Other (less favorably oriented) crystals yield later.



Adapted from Fig. 7.10, *Callister 7e*. (Fig. 7.10 is courtesy of C. Brady, National Bureau of Standards [now the National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD].)

Strategies for strengthening: grain size reduction

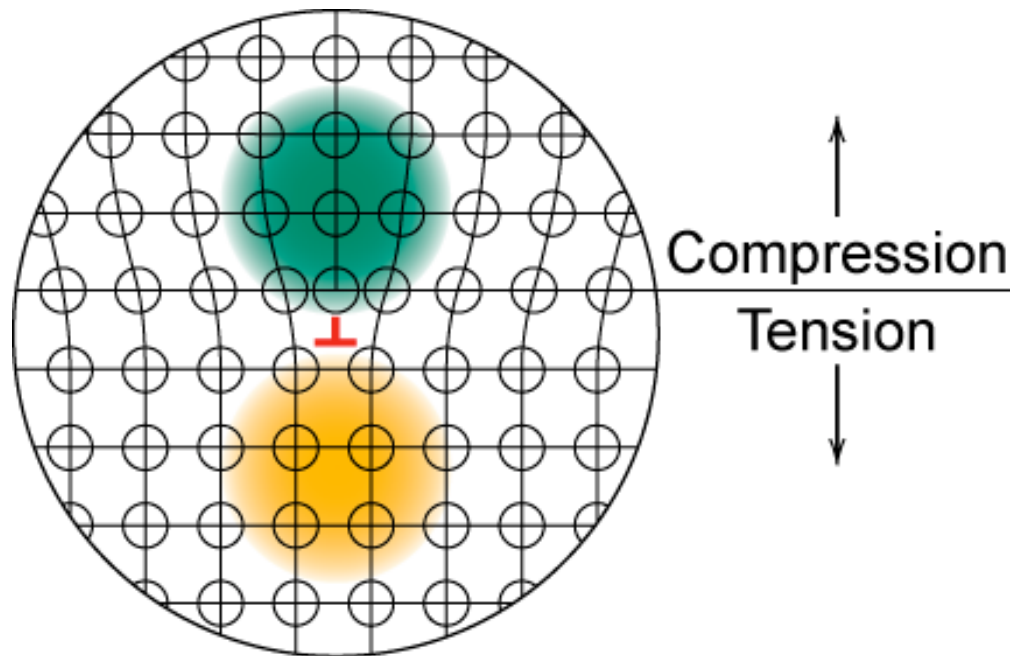
- Grain boundaries are barriers to slip.
- Barrier "strength" increases with increasing angle of misorientation.
- Smaller grain size: more barriers to slip.



Adapted from Fig. 7.14, *Callister 7e*.
(Fig. 7.14 is from *A Textbook of Materials Technology*, by Van Vlack, Pearson Education, Inc., Upper Saddle River, NJ.)

- Hall-Petch Equation: $\sigma_{yield} = \sigma_o + k_y d^{-1/2}$

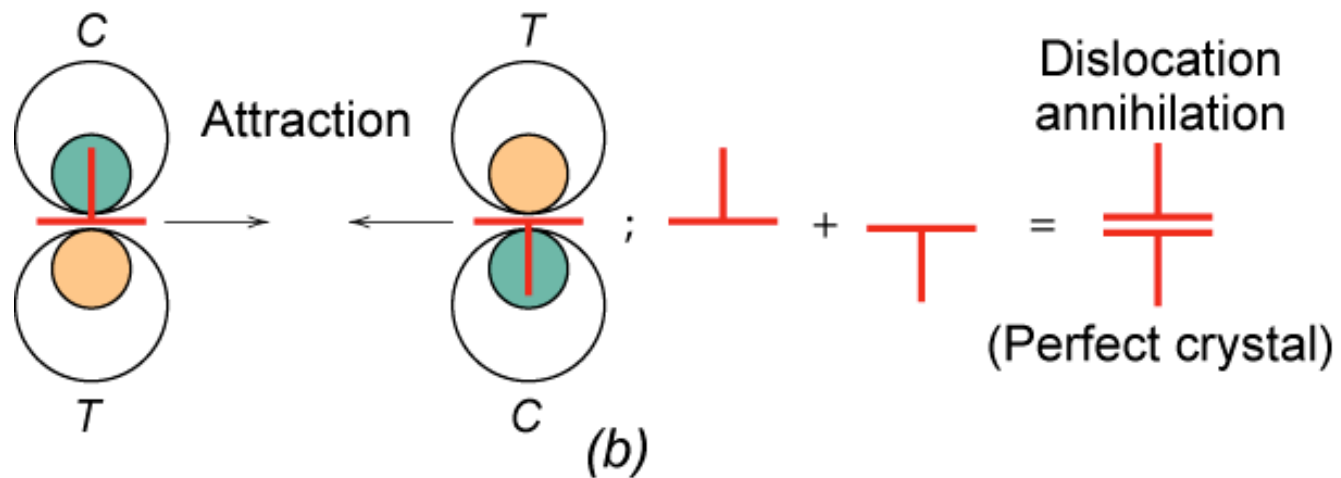
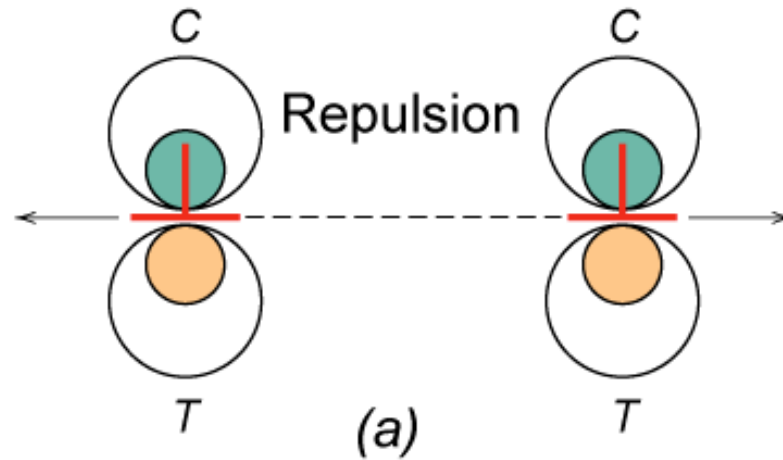
Strategies for strengthening: solid solutions



Adapted from Fig. 7.4,
Callister 7e.

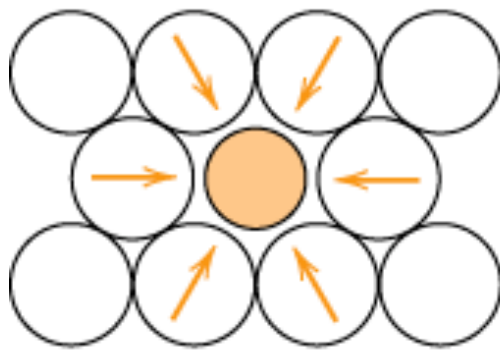
Effects of stress at dislocations

Adapted from Fig.
7.5, Callister 7e.

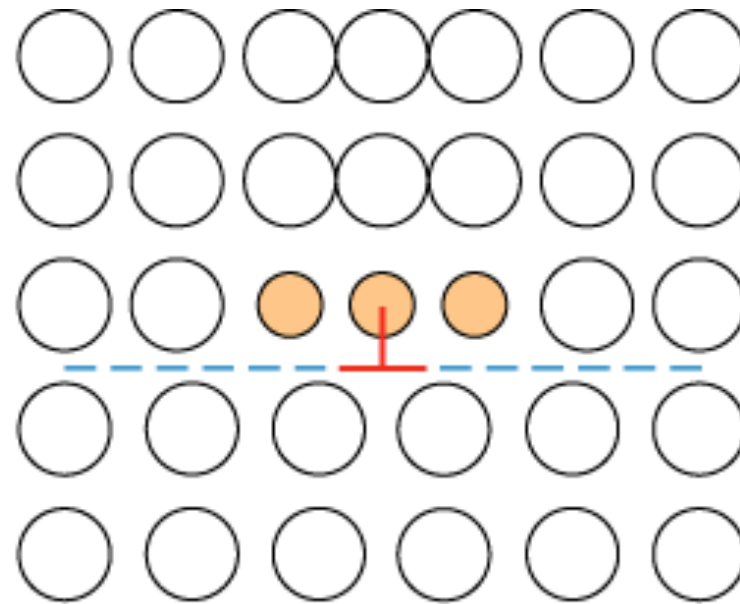


Strengthening by alloying

- small impurities tend to concentrate at dislocations
- reduce mobility of dislocation \therefore increase strength



(a)

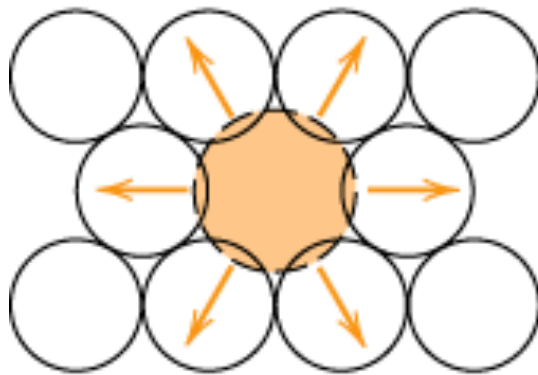


(b)

Adapted from Fig.
7.17, *Callister 7e*.

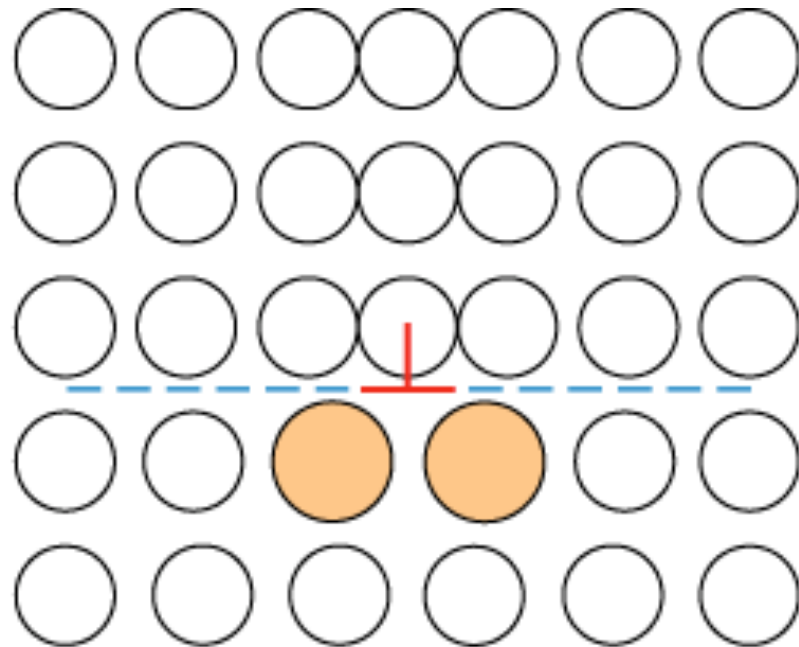
Strengthening by alloying

- large impurities concentrate at dislocations on low density side



(a)

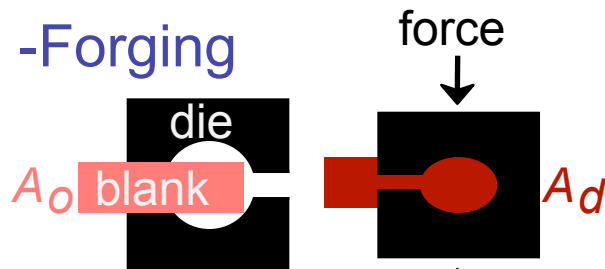
Adapted from Fig.
7.18, *Callister 7e*.



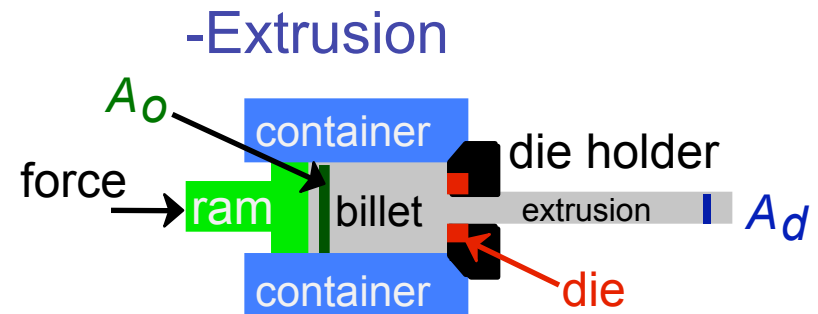
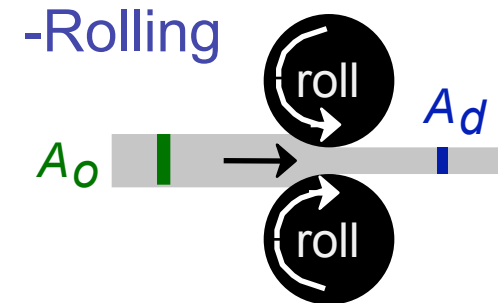
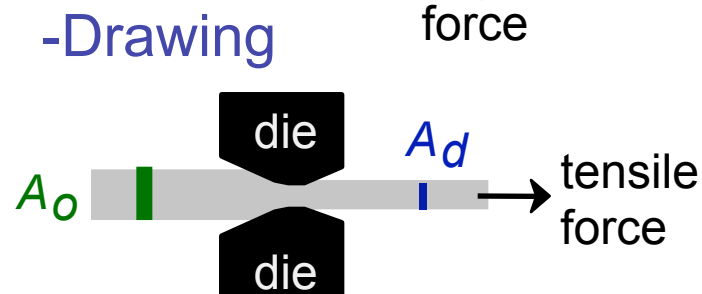
(b)

Strategies for strengthening: Cold work (%CW)

- Room temperature deformation.
- Common forming operations change the cross sectional area:



Adapted from Fig.
11.8, Callister 7e.

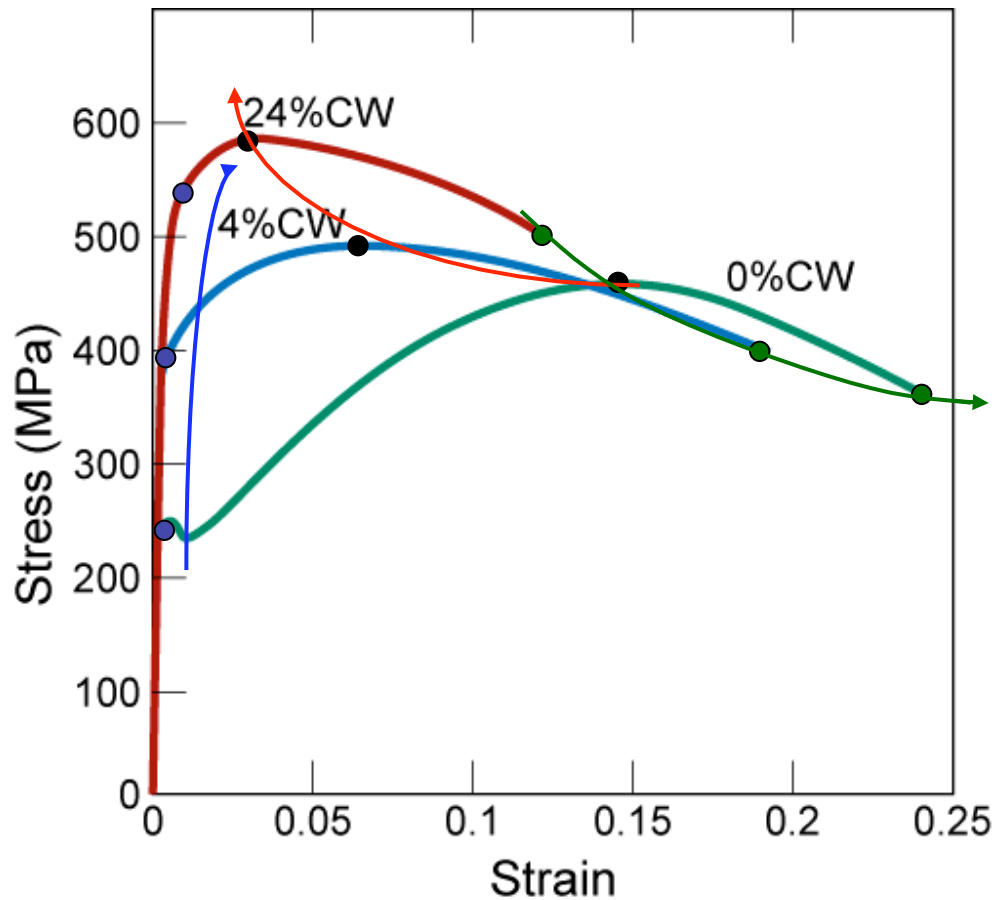


$$\%CW = \frac{A_o - A_d}{A_o} \times 100$$

Impact of cold work

As cold work is increased

- Yield strength (σ_y) increases.
- Tensile strength (TS) increases.
- Ductility (%EL or %AR) decreases.



Adapted from Fig. 7.20,
Callister 7e.