计算物理模拟实验

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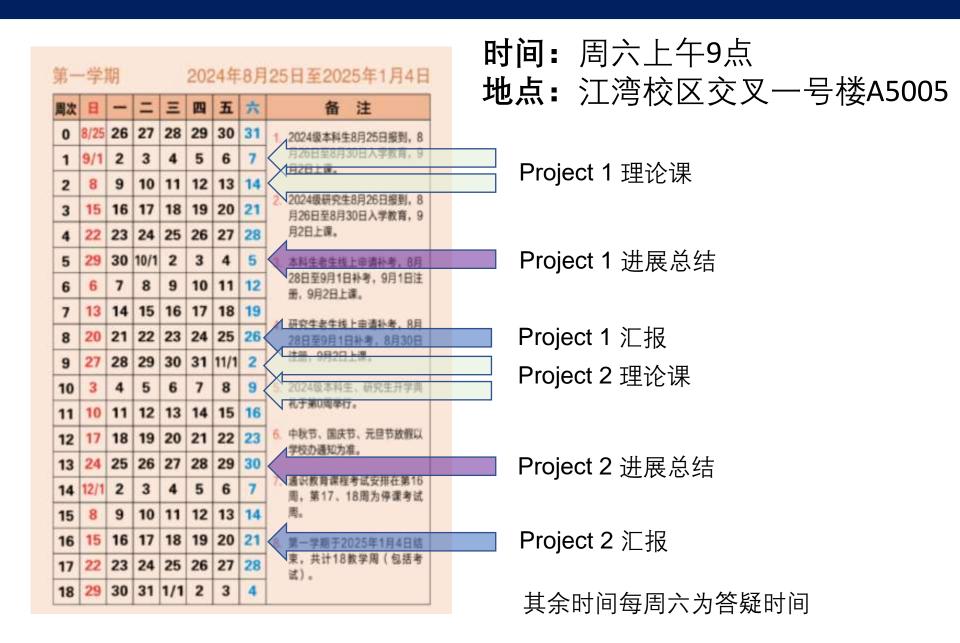
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课程微信群



课程安排



课程考核

课题汇报 (50%)

程序 +实验报告 (45%) 截止日期: 每次课题汇报后一周

课程反馈 (5%)

旨在借助计算模拟的方法去加深对物理学的重要知识点的理解,对编程技巧不做考核, 鼓励使用AI,但注意AI可能会误导!

写一个BFGS方法的晶格优化python程序

不适用 scipy库

BFGS (Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno) 方法是一种在数值优化中广泛使用的拟牛顿 方法,它用于寻找非线性优化问题的局部最优解。在材料料学和固体物理学中,BFGS方法常 用于晶体结构的优化,即调整原子的位置以最小化系统的总能量。

下面,我将为你提供一个使用BFGS方法进行局格优化的Python程序。这个例子将使用 scipy.optimize.minimize函数,它支持BFGS算法。我们将使用一个简单的势能模型(如 Lennard-Jones势)来模拟原子间的相互作用,以此作为优化的目标函数。

程序步骤

- 1. 定义情報函数: 使用Lennard-Jones特条模拟两个原子间的相互作用。
- 2. 初始化原子位置: 设置初始的原子位置。
- 3. 优化过程: 使用BFGS算法优化原子位置。

Python 代码实现

GPT-4-Turbo Poe ***



GPT-4-Turbo Poe ···

如果需要实现BFGS方法而不使用scipy库,我们可以直接编写BFGS算法的相关代码。这会涉及到更多的数值计算细节,包括梯度的计算和BFGS更新公式的实现。以下是一个不使用 scipy的BFGS方法的示例,该示例仍用于最小化Lennard-Jones势能函数。

Python 代码实现

```
python

import numpy as np

def lennard_jones_potential(r):
    sigma = 1.0
    epsilon = 1.0
    return 4 * epsilon * ((sigma / r)**12 - (sigma / r)**6)

def compute_gradients(positions):
    n_atoms = len(positions) // 3
    gradients = np.zeros_like(positions)
    for i in range(n atoms):
```

晶体弹性模拟计算实验

实验目的

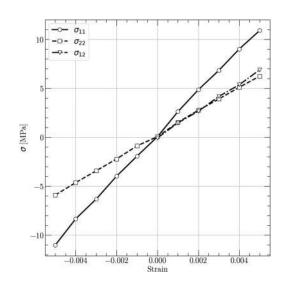
- 1. 了解固体力学性质和原子键合关系
- 2. 掌握弹性常数等力学量的计算方式
- 3. 理解弹性波在晶体中的传播
- 4. 认识温度对力学性能的影响

实验内容

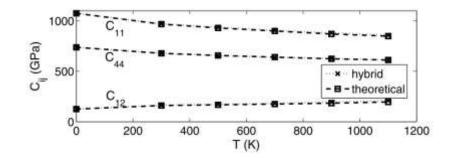
基于原子间相互作用势编写程序计算模拟金属铝和绝缘体金刚石的零温和有限温下的力学性质。并思考分析以下问题:

- 思考不同化学键对弹性常数以及物理性质的影响,分析计算误差来源与如何降低误差。探索不同晶系的独立矩阵元是否有不同。
- 2. 基于弹性常数计算两种体系的各种力学量和固体性质,模拟不同晶体中弹性波在 [100]、[110]、[111]方向的传播,观察横波和纵波的区别。

3. 模拟不同的Strain大小对应的Stress, 得到Strain-Stress relation, 思考在多大的范围内胡克定律成立?



4. 模拟金刚石不同温度下的弹性常数,观察不同弹性常数随温度变化的趋势。



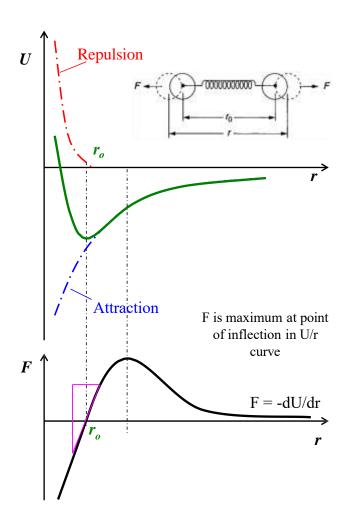
Elasticity

- Important because most engineering design is done in the elastic region. (Remember, plastic deformation generally constitutes failure.)
- Macroscopically, most polycrystalline materials are elastically isotropic.
- Microscopically, elastic behavior is inherently anisotropic for individual grains.
- Polycrystalline materials can be anisotropic if they exhibit strong crystallographic textures.

Elasticity

<u>Derived from atomic bonding</u>
 forces originating from long range
 attractive forces which draw atoms
 together until short range repulsive
 forces become large enough to
 balance them out.

 As such, elastic properties are an aggregate effect of individual deformations of interatomic bonds.



Bulk Elastic Behavior

- Applied force is transmitted by the network of bonds constituting the material.
- Thus, elastic behavior depends quantitatively on the magnitude of the interatomic forces.
- Elastic properties <u>do not</u> depend on microstructure of the material.

Forces Between Atoms

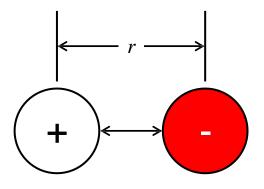
- Bonds form when atoms either share (e.g., covalent and metallic bonds) or transfer (e.g., ionic bonds) electrons between atoms.
- This occurs to achieve a minimum in potential energy for the system corresponding to a stable electron configuration.
- This has been modeled for ionic systems as follows:

Ionic Bond

 Electron transfer from one atom to another occurs due to electrostatic interaction between oppositely charged ions (e.g., Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in NaCl).

- Force of attraction between ions is $F_{attract}$
- Work is done to draw ions together. It is given by:

$$U_{attract} = \int_{\infty}^{r} F_{attract} dr = \frac{-q^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_o r} = \frac{-A}{r^m}$$



$$F_{attract} = \frac{q^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_o r^2}$$

q = charge of ion

 ε_o = permittivity of free space

r = ionic separation distance

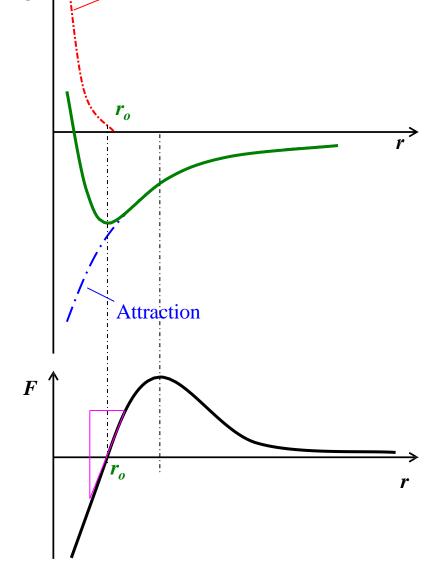
- Each atom maintains an electron cloud surrounding it. The outer surfaces of each atom are both negatively charged.
- Thus, at close distances, the electron clouds overlap and repel.
 The repulsive force can be written as:

$$U_{repel} = \frac{B}{r^n}$$

 The total energy of the system is thus the sum of the attractive and repulsive components. It can be expressed in general as:

$$U_{ ext{total}} = U_{ ext{attract}} + U_{ ext{repel}} = rac{-A}{r^m} + rac{B}{r^n}$$

 This is the well known Lennard-Jones potential. You might recall this from your chemistry or physics courses.



Repulsion

- The minimum energy point corresponds to the equilibrium separation (i.e., the equilibrium bond length, r_o).
- The force between atoms is simply the derivative (i.e., the slope) of the energy versus distance plot.

$$F = \frac{-dU_{total}}{dr}$$

 The bond stiffness is the derivative of the force versus distance plot.

$$S = \frac{dF}{dr} = \frac{d^2U_{total}}{dr^2}$$

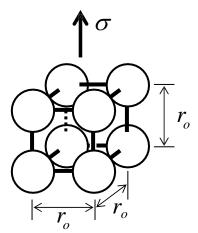
• At the equilibrium bond length, r_o , the variation of F with r is essentially linear, which means that the stiffness is essentially constant at small distances from r_o .

$$S_o = \frac{dF}{dr}\Big|_{r_o}$$

• Using this expression, the force to "stretch" *n* bonds in a solid is:

$$F = n \int_{r_o}^{r} S_o dr = n S_o \left(r - r_o \right)$$

where n is the number of bonds.



• The applied stress is:

$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{nS_o\left(r - r_o\right)}{nr_o^2}$$

The strain can be expressed as:

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{r - r_o}{r_o}$$

Thus, stress becomes:

$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{nS_o(r - r_o)}{nr_o^2} = \frac{S_o}{r_o} \frac{S_o(r - r_o)}{r_o} = \frac{S_o}{r_o} \varepsilon$$

From Hooke's law:

$$\sigma = E\varepsilon$$

Thus,

$$E = \frac{S_o}{r_o} = \frac{1}{r_o} \frac{d^2 U}{dr^2} \bigg|_{r=r_o}$$

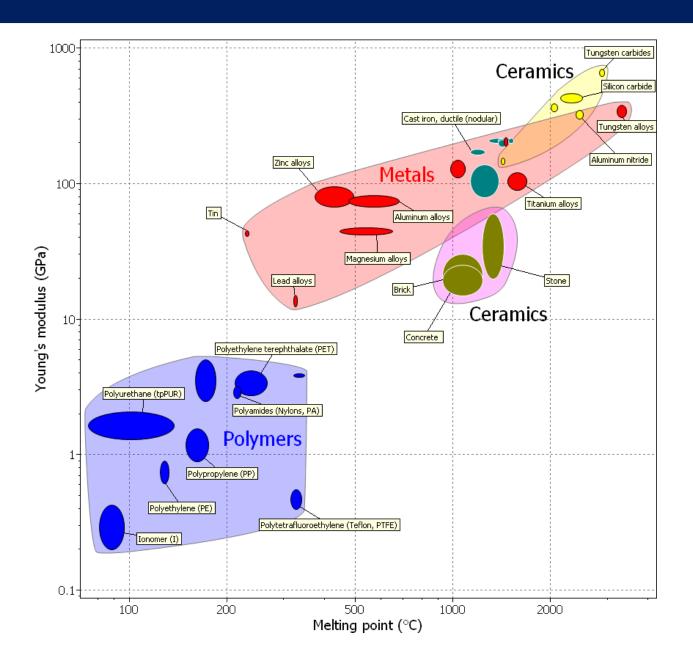
The derived expression shows that the modulus is dependent upon bonding.

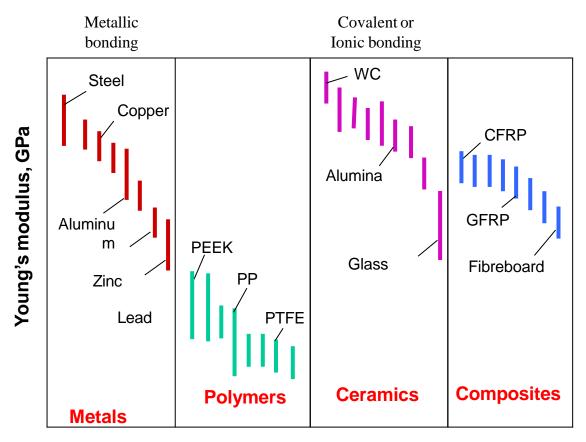
Modulus, and other elastic properties, are <u>structure insensitive</u>.

The directionality of elastic properties <u>does</u> depend upon atomic arrangement (crystallography) in single crystals. They tend to average out in polycrystals.

		Bondi		
Bonding Type	Material , Substan ce	kJ/mol	eV/Atom, Ion, Molecule	Melting Temperature °C
Ionic	NaCl	640	3.3	801
	MgO	1000	5.2	2800
Covalent	Si	450	4.7	1410
	C (diamond)	713	7.4	>3550
Metallic	Hg	68	0.7	-39
	Al	324	3.4	660
	Fe	406	4.2	1538
	W	849	8.8	3410
van der Waals	Ar Cl ₂	7.7 31	0.08 0.32	-189 -101
Hydrogen	NH ₃ H ₂ O	35 51	0.36 0.52	-78 0

[From W.D. Callister, Jr, Materials Science and Engineering: An Introduction, 7th Ed., (Wiley, New York, 2007) p.28]

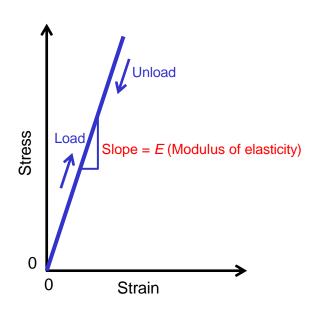




Courtesy of Granta Design

A bar chart illustrating Young's moduli for some common examples of the primary classes of materials (i.e., metals, ceramics, polymers and composites). Ceramics tend to exhibit the highest elastic moduli and polymers the lowest. The elastic moduli of composites are between those of their constituents.

stress is related to strain for an isotropic solid



Stress-strain plot for a linearly elastic material

Hooke's Law

 Isotropic Solids (properties are the same in all directions)

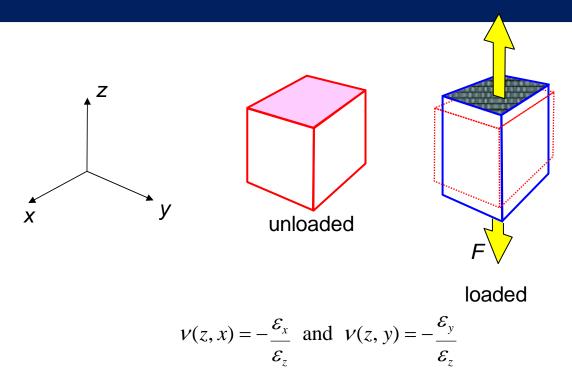
$$\sigma = \varepsilon E$$
 or $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{E}\sigma$

Anisotropic solids (properties are directional)

Need different definition

Let's consider both cases

First consider the Poisson effect

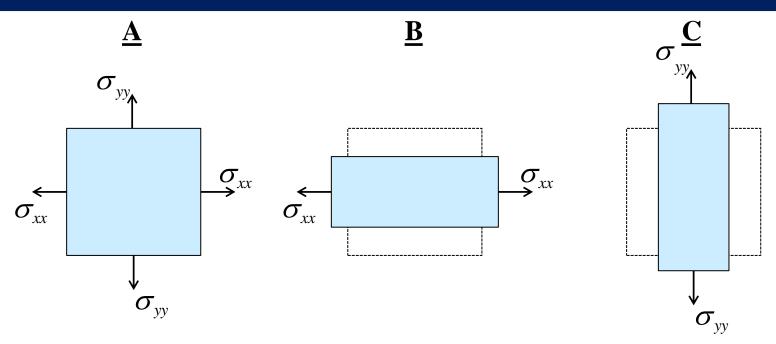


A tensile stress along the z axis causes the material to stretch along the z axis and to contract along the x and y axes.

Poisson's Ratio,
$$v = -\frac{\text{lateral strain}}{\text{longitudinal strain}}$$

Room- Temperature Poisson's Ratio for Selected Solids

Material Class	Material	ν	
Metallic solid	Ag	0.38	
(crystalline)	Al	0.34	
	Au	0.42	
	Cu	0.34	
	α-Fe	0.29	
	Ir	0.26	
	Ni	0.31	
	W	0.29	
Covalent solid	Ge	0.28	
(crystalline)	Si	0.27	
	Al_2O_3	0.23	
	TiC	0.19	
Covalent Ionic Solid	MgO	0.19	
Covalent Glass	Silica glass	0.20	
Network Polymer	Bakelite	0.20	
	Ebonite (hard rubber)	0.39	
Elastomer	Natural rubber	0.49	
Chain Polymer	Polystyrene	0.33	
	Polyethylene	0.40	
Van der Waal's Solid	Argon (at 0 K)	0.25	



The strains resulting from this stress state must be the sum of the strains associated with loading along each individual axis.

B:
$$\varepsilon_{xx}^{B} = \frac{\sigma_{xx}}{E}$$
, $\varepsilon_{yy}^{B} = -v\varepsilon_{xx}^{B} = -v\frac{\sigma_{xx}}{E}$

C: $\varepsilon_{yy}^{C} = \frac{\sigma_{yy}}{E}$, $\varepsilon_{xx}^{C} = -v\varepsilon_{yy}^{C} = -v\frac{\sigma_{yy}}{E}$

A = B+C: $\varepsilon_{xx} = \varepsilon_{xx}^{B} + \varepsilon_{xx}^{C} = \frac{\sigma_{xx}}{E} - v\frac{\sigma_{yy}}{E}$

There's a similar expression for ε_{yy}

Elastic Stress-Strain Relations

Stress

Strain in the x-direction

Strain in the y-direction

Strain in the z-direction

$$\sigma_{xx} \longrightarrow \varepsilon_{xx} = \frac{\sigma_{xx}}{E}$$

$$\varepsilon_{xx} = \frac{\sigma_{xx}}{F}$$

$$\varepsilon_{yy} = -\frac{v\sigma_{xx}}{E}$$

$$\varepsilon_{zz} = -\frac{v\sigma_{xx}}{E}$$

$$\sigma_{yy} \longrightarrow \varepsilon_{xx} = -\frac{V\sigma_{yy}}{F}$$

$$\varepsilon_{xx} = -\frac{v\sigma_{yy}}{F}$$

$$\varepsilon_{yy} = \frac{\sigma_{yy}}{F}$$

$$\varepsilon_{zz} = -\frac{v\sigma_{yy}}{E}$$

$$\sigma_{zz} \longrightarrow \varepsilon_{xx} = -\frac{v\sigma_{zz}}{F}$$

$$\varepsilon_{xx} = -\frac{v\sigma_{zz}}{E}$$

$$\varepsilon_{yy} = -\frac{v\sigma_{zz}}{E}$$

$$\varepsilon_{zz} = \frac{\sigma_{zz}}{E}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{xx} = \frac{1}{E} \left[\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{xx} - \boldsymbol{\nu} (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{yy} + \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{zz}) \right]$$

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{yy} = \frac{1}{E} \big[\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{yy} - \boldsymbol{\nu} (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{zz} + \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{xx}) \big]$$

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{zz} = \frac{1}{E} \big[\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{zz} - \boldsymbol{\nu} \big(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{xx} + \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{yy} \big) \big]$$

$$\tau_{xy} = G\gamma_{xy}; \, \tau_{yz} = G\gamma_{yz}; \, \tau_{xz} = G\gamma_{xz}$$

Variation in elastic strain for an isotropic solid because of the Poisson effect

Other Elastic Stress-Strain Relations for Isotropic Solid

• Bulk Modulus (*K*), also known as the *volumetric elastic modulus*:

$$K = \frac{\text{hydrostatic pressure}}{\text{volume change produced}} = \frac{\sigma_m}{\Delta} = \frac{-p}{\Delta} = \frac{1}{B}$$

where:
$$-p = \text{hydrostatic pressure,}$$

$$\sigma_m = \frac{\sigma_{xx} + \sigma_{yy} + \sigma_{zz}}{3}$$

$$\Delta = \text{dilatation (i.e., volume change)} = \varepsilon_{xx} + \varepsilon_{yy} + \varepsilon_{zz},$$

$$B = \text{compressibility.}$$

Other Elastic Stress-Strain Relations for Isotropic Solid

Now we can relate the elastic constants.

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{xx} = \frac{1}{E} \left[\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{xx} - \boldsymbol{\nu} (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{yy} + \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{zz}) \right]$$

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{yy} = \frac{1}{E} \left[\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{yy} - \boldsymbol{\nu} (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{zz} + \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{xx}) \right]$$

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{zz} = \frac{1}{E} \left[\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{zz} - \boldsymbol{\nu} (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{xx} + \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{yy}) \right]$$

Summation yields:

$$\varepsilon_{xx} + \varepsilon_{yy} + \varepsilon_{zz} = \frac{1 - 2\nu}{E} \left(\sigma_{xx} + \sigma_{yy} + \sigma_{zz} \right) = \frac{1 - 2\nu}{E} 3\sigma_m = \Delta$$

$$\therefore K = \frac{\sigma_m}{\Delta} = \frac{E}{3(1-2\nu)}$$

Other Elastic Stress-Strain Relations for Isotropic Solid

In terms Elastic constants	Е, v	Е, G	<i>K</i> , v	Е, G	λ, μ
E [elastic]	=E	=E	$=3(1-2\nu)K$	$=\frac{9K}{1+3K/G}$	$=\frac{\mu(3+2\mu/\lambda)}{2(1+\mu/\lambda)}$
v	= v	$=-1+\frac{E}{2G}$	= v	$=\frac{1-2G/3K}{2+2G/3K}$	$=\frac{1}{2(1+\mu/\lambda)}$
G [shear]	$=\frac{E}{2(1+\nu)}$	=G	$=\frac{3(1-2\nu)K}{2(1+\nu)}$	=G	$=\mu$
K [bulk]	$=\frac{E}{3(1-2v)}$	$=\frac{E}{9-3E/G}$	=K	= <i>K</i>	$=\lambda+\frac{2\mu}{3}$
λ	$=\frac{Ev}{(1+v)(1-2v)}$	$=\frac{E(1-2G/E)}{3-E/G}$	$=\frac{3K\nu}{1+\nu}$	$=K-\frac{2G}{3}$	$=\lambda$
μ	$=\frac{E}{2(1+\nu)}$	=G	$=\frac{3(1-2\nu)K}{2(1+\nu)}$	=G	$=\mu$

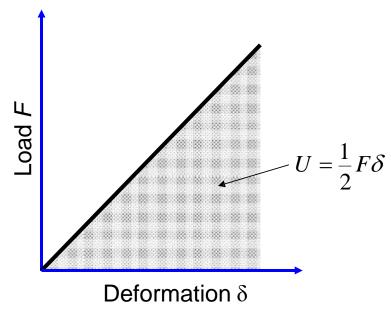
 λ , μ = Lame constants

Energy stored in a body due to deformation.

 Work to deform a body elastically is stored as <u>elastic strain</u> <u>energy</u>. It is recovered when the applied forces are released.

 Strain energy is proportional to the area under the loaddeformation (stress-strain) curve.

 We will elaborate on this concept on the next few pages.



• The first law of thermodynamics states:

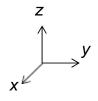
$$dU = \delta Q + \delta W = TdS - PdV$$
 where,

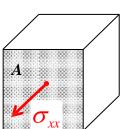
dU = internal energy δQ = heat δW = mechanical work done

- <u>During elastic deformation</u>, the amount of heat generated is negligible.
- Thus the work done on the body is converted into internal energy and is fully recovered upon unloading.

• Consider an elemental cube that is subjected to only an elastic tensile stress along the x-axis. The elastic strain energy, U, is:

$$U = \frac{1}{2}$$
 (load)(deformation)





$$\sigma_{xx} = \frac{F}{A}$$

$$\varepsilon_{xx} = \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$dU = \frac{1}{2}Fdu = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_{xx}A)(\varepsilon_{xx}dx) = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_{xx}\varepsilon_{xx})(Adx)$$

= total elastic energy absorbed by the material element.

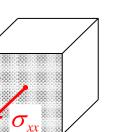
Since Adx is the volume, the elastic strain energy per unit volume (i.e., the strain energy density) is:

$$U_o = \frac{dU}{Adx} = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_{xx} \varepsilon_{xx}).$$

From Hooke's law,
$$\varepsilon_{xx} = \frac{\sigma_{xx}}{E}$$







$$U_o = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma_{xx}^2}{E} = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_{xx}^2 E$$
 [in tension]

$$U_o = \frac{1}{2} (\tau_{xy} \gamma_{xy}) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\tau_{xy}^2}{G} = \frac{1}{2} \gamma_{xy}^2 G$$
 [in pure shear]

 $\sigma_{xx} = \frac{F}{A}$ $\varepsilon_{xx} = \frac{du}{dx}$

In three dimensions, the general expression for elastic strain energy is:

$$U_o = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sigma_{xx} \varepsilon_{xx} + \sigma_{yy} \varepsilon_{yy} + \sigma_{zz} \varepsilon_{zz} + \tau_{xy} \gamma_{xy} + \tau_{xz} \gamma_{xz} + \tau_{yz} \gamma_{yz} \right).$$

In tensor notation, these general expressions become:

$$U_o = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_{ij}\varepsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}\frac{\sigma_{ij}^2}{E} = \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon_{ij}^2E.$$

If we substite into these expressions, the variation in elastic strain for an isotropic solid, accounting for the Poisson effect, we get:

$$U_{o} = \frac{1}{2E} \left(\sigma_{xx}^{2} + \sigma_{yy}^{2} + \sigma_{zz}^{2} \right) - \frac{v}{E} \left(\sigma_{xx} \sigma_{yy} + \sigma_{yy} \sigma_{zz} + \sigma_{xx} \sigma_{zz} \right) + \frac{1}{2G} \left(\tau_{xy}^{2} + \tau_{xz}^{2} + \tau_{yz}^{2} \right)$$

[for a 3D isotropic solid]

Expressed in terms of strains and elastic constants:

$$U_o = \frac{1}{2} \lambda \Delta^2 + G \left(\varepsilon_{xx}^2 + \varepsilon_{yy}^2 + \varepsilon_{zz}^2 \right) + \frac{1}{2} G \left(\gamma_{xy}^2 + \gamma_{xz}^2 + \gamma_{yz}^2 \right)$$

$$U_o = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sigma_{xx} \varepsilon_{xx} + \sigma_{yy} \varepsilon_{yy} + \sigma_{zz} \varepsilon_{zz} + \tau_{xy} \gamma_{xy} + \tau_{xz} \gamma_{xz} + \tau_{yz} \gamma_{yz} \right)$$

The derivative of U_o with respect to any strain component yields the corresponding stress component, or:

$$\frac{\partial U_o}{\partial \varepsilon_{ij}} = \lambda \Delta + 2G\varepsilon_{ij} = \sigma_{ij}$$

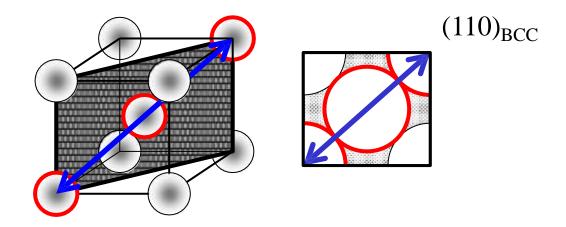
Similarly, the derivative of U_o with respect to any stress component yields the corresponding strain or:

$$rac{\partial U_o}{\partial oldsymbol{\sigma}_{ij}} = oldsymbol{arepsilon}_{ij}$$

You can use these terms to calculate stresses and strains in elasticty. Techniques for doing this include Castigliano's theorem, the theorem of least work, and the principal of virtual work.

Anisotropy and Single Crystals

Forces between atoms are directional.



They act along the "lines" connecting the atoms together.

Relations between stress and strain for anisotropic crystals

- Since force varies with direction, elastic constants will also vary.
- In general, we need to relate every stress component to every strain component.
- Thus we must define two new elastic constants:
 - $-C \equiv stiffness$
 - $-S \equiv compliance$
- We also re-write Hooke's law as:

$$\sigma_{ij} = C_{ijkl} \varepsilon_{kl}$$
 or $\varepsilon_{ij} = S_{ijkl} \sigma_{kl}$

Stiffness is a 4th rank tensor

$$3^4 = 81 \text{ terms}$$

$$\sigma_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{3} \sum_{l=1}^{3} C_{ijkl} \varepsilon_{kl}$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\sigma_{ij} = C_{ijkl} \varepsilon_{kl}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{zz} \\ \sigma_{zz} \\ \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{zz} \\ \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{zz} \\ \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{zz} \\ \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{zx} \\ \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{zy} \\ \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{xy}$$

Stress tensor Elastic Stiffness Strain tensor

LIBRIUM CONSIDERATIONS

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{\sigma}_{ij} &= oldsymbol{\sigma}_{ji} & oldsymbol{arepsilon}_{kl} &= oldsymbol{arepsilon}_{lkl} \ C_{ijkl} &= C_{jikl} & C_{ijkl} &= C_{jikl} \ C_{ijkl} &= C_{jikl} & C_{ijkl} &= C_{ijlk} \end{aligned}$$

Allow us to reduce the 81 to 36

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{zz} \\ \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{xy} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{xxxx} & C_{xxyy} & C_{xxzz} & C_{xxyz} & C_{xxxz} & C_{xxxy} \\ C_{yyxx} & C_{yyyy} & C_{yyzz} & C_{yyyz} & C_{yyxz} & C_{yyxy} \\ C_{zzxx} & C_{zzyy} & C_{zzzz} & C_{zzxz} & C_{zzxz} & C_{zzxy} \\ C_{yzxx} & C_{yzyy} & C_{yzzz} & C_{yzyz} & C_{yzxz} & C_{yzxy} \\ C_{xzxx} & C_{xzyy} & C_{xzzz} & C_{xzyz} & C_{xzxz} & C_{xzxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xzyy} & C_{xzzz} & C_{xzyz} & C_{xzxz} & C_{xzxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{xyxy} & C_{$$

$$(\sigma_{xx})$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{zz} \\ \sigma_{yz} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{xxxx} & C_{xxyy} & C_{xxzz} & C_{xxyz} & C_{xxxz} & C_{xxxy} \\ C_{yyxx} & C_{yyyy} & C_{yyzz} & C_{yyyz} & C_{yyxz} & C_{yyxy} \\ C_{zzxx} & C_{zzyy} & C_{zzzz} & C_{zzyz} & C_{zzxz} & C_{zzxy} \\ C_{yzxx} & C_{yzyy} & C_{yzzz} & C_{yzyz} & C_{yzxz} & C_{yzxy} \\ C_{xzxx} & C_{xzyy} & C_{yzzz} & C_{xzyz} & C_{xzxz} & C_{xzxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xzyy} & C_{xzzz} & C_{xzyz} & C_{xzxz} & C_{xzxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{E}_{xx} \\ \mathcal{E}_{yy} \\ \mathcal{E}_{xz} \\ \mathcal{E}_{xy} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_{ij} = C_{ijkl} \varepsilon_{kl} \longrightarrow C_{ijkl}$$
 is the STIFNESS matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{E}_{xx} \\ \mathcal{E}_{yy} \\ \mathcal{E}_{zz} \\ \mathcal{E}_{yz} \\ \mathcal{E}_{xz} \\ \mathcal{E}_{xy} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} S_{xxxx} & S_{xxyy} & S_{xxzz} & S_{xxyz} & S_{xxxz} & S_{xxxy} \\ S_{yyxx} & S_{yyyy} & S_{yyzz} & S_{yyyz} & S_{yyxz} & S_{yyxy} \\ S_{zzxx} & S_{zzyy} & S_{zzzz} & S_{zzyz} & S_{zzxz} & S_{zzxy} \\ S_{yzxx} & S_{yzyy} & S_{yzzz} & S_{yzyz} & S_{yzxz} & S_{yzxy} \\ S_{xzxx} & S_{xzyy} & S_{xzzz} & S_{xzyz} & S_{xzxz} & S_{xzxy} \\ S_{xyxx} & S_{xyyy} & S_{xyzz} & S_{xyyz} & S_{xyzz} & S_{xyxy} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{xy} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\varepsilon_{ij} = S_{ijkl} \sigma_{kl} \longrightarrow S_{ijkl}$$
 is the COMPLIANCE matrix

Matrix/Contracted Notation

 We often replace the indices with matrix (contracted) notation for simplicity [Voigt, <u>Lehrbuch der Kristallphysik</u> (Teubner VErlag, Berlin, 1910)].

$$xx \rightarrow 11 \rightarrow 1$$
 $yy \rightarrow 22 \rightarrow 2$ $zz \rightarrow 33 \rightarrow 3$
 $yz \rightarrow 23 \rightarrow 4$ $xz \rightarrow 13 \rightarrow 5$ $xy \rightarrow 12 \rightarrow 6$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
11 & 12 \leftarrow 13 \\
22 & 23
\end{pmatrix} \equiv
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 6 \leftarrow 5 \\
2 & 4
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
33
\end{pmatrix}$$

Thus, Hooke's law is often re-written in matrix form as:

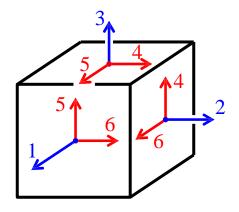
$$\sigma_p = C_{pq} \varepsilon_q$$
 or $\varepsilon_p = S_{pq} \sigma_q$

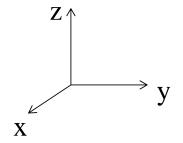
Additional note about contracted notation

 Numbers 1-3 are associated with normal stresses and strains.

 Numbers 4-6 are associated with shear stresses and strains.

 On the next slide I attempt to show you which stresses and strains are related to each elastic constant.





TENSOR
$$C_{ijkl} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{xxxx} & C_{xxyy} & C_{xxzz} & C_{xxxy} & C_{xxxz} & C_{xxxy} \\ C_{yyxx} & C_{yyyy} & C_{yyzz} & C_{yyyz} & C_{yyxz} & C_{yyxy} \\ C_{zzxx} & C_{zzyy} & C_{zzzz} & C_{zzyz} & C_{zzxz} & C_{zzxy} \\ C_{yzxx} & C_{yzyy} & C_{yzzz} & C_{yzyz} & C_{yzxz} & C_{yzxy} \\ C_{xzxx} & C_{xzyy} & C_{xzzz} & C_{xzyz} & C_{xzxz} & C_{xzxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ C_{xyxx} & C_{xyyy} & C_{xyzz} & C_{xyyz} & C_{xyxz} & C_{xyxy} \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C_{ijkl} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} & C_{14} & C_{15} & C_{16} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} & C_{23} & C_{24} & C_{25} & C_{26} \\ C_{31} & C_{32} & C_{33} & C_{34} & C_{35} & C_{36} \\ \hline C_{41} & C_{42} & C_{43} & C_{44} & C_{45} & C_{46} \\ \hline C_{51} & C_{52} & C_{53} & C_{54} & C_{55} & C_{56} \\ \hline C_{61} & C_{62} & C_{63} & C_{64} & C_{65} & C_{66} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tau, \varepsilon \qquad \tau, \gamma$$

Contracted vs. Tensor Notation

• Contracted notation is simple and convenient for conducting matrix inversions.

► However, for coordinate transformations or invariant determination, it is more useful to use the stiffness and compliances in tensor notation.

Note the change from tensor notation to matrix notation. See Chapter 8 in Nye for details.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ \sigma_2 \\ \sigma_3 \\ \sigma_4 \\ \sigma_5 \\ \sigma_6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} & C_{14} & C_{15} & C_{16} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} & C_{23} & C_{24} & C_{25} & C_{26} \\ C_{31} & C_{32} & C_{33} & C_{34} & C_{35} & C_{36} \\ C_{41} & C_{42} & C_{43} & C_{44} & C_{45} & C_{46} \\ C_{51} & C_{52} & C_{53} & C_{54} & C_{55} & C_{56} \\ C_{61} & C_{62} & C_{63} & C_{64} & C_{65} & C_{66} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{E}_1 \\ \mathcal{E}_2 \\ \mathcal{E}_3 \\ \mathcal{E}_4 \\ \mathcal{E}_5 \\ \mathcal{E}_6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_p = C_{pq} \mathcal{E}_q \longrightarrow C_{pq}$$
 is the STIFNESS matrix

 $\varepsilon_p = S_{pq} \sigma_q \longrightarrow S_{pq}$ is the COMPLIANCE matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{E}_{1} \\ \mathcal{E}_{2} \\ \mathcal{E}_{3} \\ \mathcal{E}_{4} \\ \mathcal{E}_{5} \\ \mathcal{E}_{6} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} & S_{13} & S_{14} & S_{15} & S_{16} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} & S_{23} & S_{24} & S_{25} & S_{26} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} & S_{23} & S_{34} & S_{35} & S_{36} \\ S_{31} & S_{32} & S_{33} & S_{34} & S_{35} & S_{36} \\ S_{41} & S_{42} & S_{43} & S_{44} & S_{45} & S_{46} \\ S_{51} & S_{52} & S_{53} & S_{54} & S_{55} & S_{56} \\ S_{61} & S_{62} & S_{63} & S_{64} & S_{65} & S_{66} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{1} \\ \sigma_{2} \\ \sigma_{3} \\ \sigma_{4} \\ \sigma_{5} \\ \sigma_{6} \end{pmatrix}$$

Stiffness and compliance matrices are also symmetric about the main diagonal

Required number of components reduces to 21

The number can be further reduced by considering crystal symmetry

Neumann's Principle

- "The symmetry of any physical property of a crystal must include the symmetry elements of the point group of the crystal."
- Point groups are the group of macroscopic symmetry elements possessed by the structure of a crystal.*
- Crystals exhibit specific point symmetries.
- Crystal "properties" will <u>include</u> the point group but can exhibit more symmetry than the point group.

^{*} Review pages 20-25 and 279-288 in Nye for a more complete treatment.

Possible Macroscopic Symmetry Elements

- Center of symmetry
- Mirror plane
- ► 1-, 2-, 3-, 4- or 6-fold rotation axes
- 1-, 2-, 3-, 4- or 6-fold inversion axes

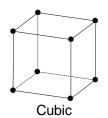
Crystal systems

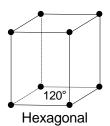
- The 32 crystal classes (i.e., point groups) are conventionally grouped into seven crystal systems.
- The requirements for membership in a given crystal system is that the symmetry of the class should possess a certain minimum characteristic.

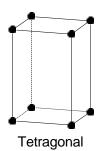
Symbolism for the symmetry elements of the 32 point groups

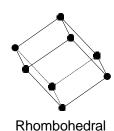
Symmetry element						Symbol on stereogram	International symbol				
centre of symmetry		2	72	000 #11	-	no symbol	7				
mirror plane .		¥	3	\$		full line (great circle)	m				
				Rot	ation	axes					
1-fold (monad).	•	*	70.	10	35	. no symbol 1					
2-fold (diad) .	66	\times		÷	*	•	2				
3-fold (triad) .		Ÿ		23	52	A	3 4				
4-fold (tetrad).	•	35	87	8	85	•					
6-fold (hexad)					•	6					
				Inv	ersion	axes					
1-fold (inverse mo metry	nad	() = c	entre	of s	ym-	no symbol	ī				
2-fold (inverse diad) = mirror plane normal to the axis					as for mirror plane	$\overline{2}~(\equiv m)$					
3-fold (inverse triad) ≡ 3-fold rotation axis plus a centre of symmetry						Δ	3				
4-fold (inverse tetrad) (includes a rotation diad axis)					•	7					
6-fold (inverse hexad) = a rotation triad axis plus a plane normal to it					(4)	$\overline{6}\ (\equiv 3/m)$					

- We can describe shapes and arrangements of points within shapes in terms of the symmetry exhibited by them.
- In crystal systems, the symmetry of a class of crystals should possess a certain characteristic symmetry (i.e., certain minimum symmetry elements).

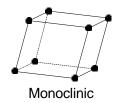


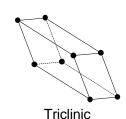












We describe crystal symmetry relative to specific crystallographic axes and symmetry elements operating on those axes

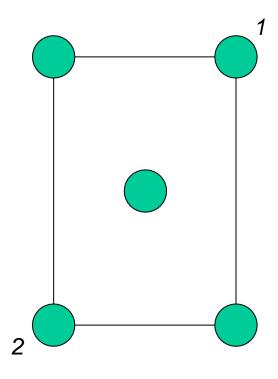
The order of Hermann-Mauguin symbols in point groups

Crystal System	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary		
Triclinic	_	_	_		
Monoclinic	[010], unique axis b	_	_		
	[001], unique axis c				
Orthorhombic	[100]	[010]	[001]		
Tetragonal	[001]	[100], [010]	$[1\overline{1}0], [110]$		
Trigonal, Rhombohedral Axes	[111]	[1 10], [011], [101]			
Trigonal, Hexagonal Axes	[001]	[100], [010], [110]			
Hexagonal	[001]	[100],[010],[1 10]	$[1\overline{1}0], [120, [\overline{2}\overline{1}0]$		
Cubic	[100],[010],[001]	[111],[1 11],[1 1],[1 1]	$[1\overline{1}0], [110], [01\overline{1}],$		
			$[011], [\overline{1}01], [101]$		

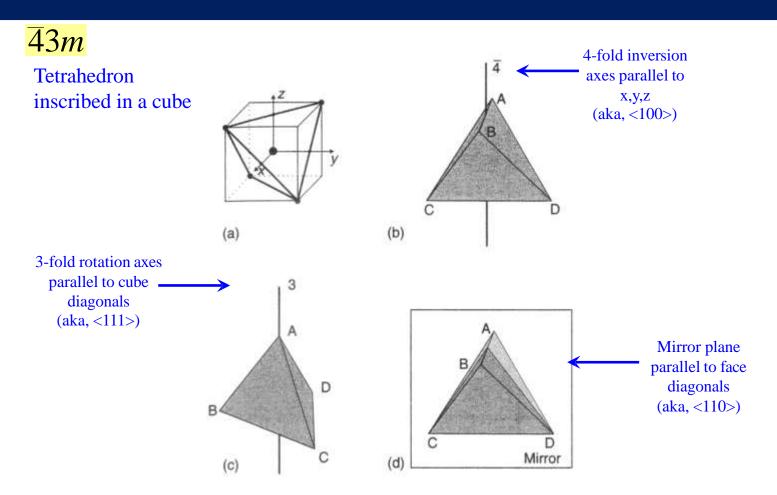
Table adapted from R. Tilley, *Crystals and Crystal Structures*, John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken, NJ, 2006, p. 73.

The concept of crystal symmetry is illustrated on the next six viewgraphs.

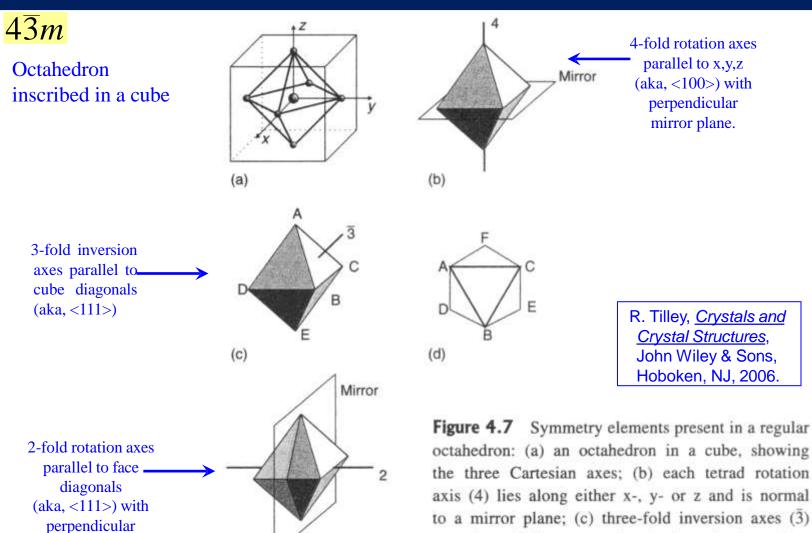
You should review this and related literature on your own time.



- Rotation about the center point.
- 180° rotation moves point
 "1" to "2" but produces
 same pattern.
- Second 180° rotation moves original point (labeled with a "1") back to its starting point.
- 2-fold rotation.



Symmetry elements in a regular tetrahedron. (a) tetrahedron inscribed in a cube showing three Cartesian axes; (b) 4-fold inversion axes along x [100], y [010] and z [001]; (c) 3-fold rotation axes passing through vertex and center of opposite triangular face (i.e., [111]); (d) mirror planes parallel to [110]. Adapted from Fig. 4.6 in R. Tilley, *Crystals and Crystal Structures*, John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken, NJ, 2006.



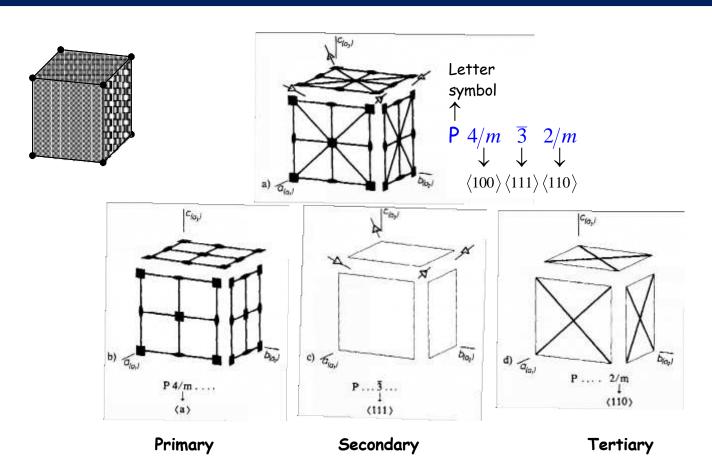
mirror plane.

(e)

octahedron: (a) an octahedron in a cube, showing the three Cartesian axes; (b) each tetrad rotation axis (4) lies along either x-, y- or z and is normal to a mirror plane; (c) three-fold inversion axes (3) pass through the centre of each triangular face; (d) a triangular face viewed from above; (d) diad axes through the centre of each edge lie normal to mirror planes

We describe lattice shapes and arrangements of lattice points in the same way.

Symmetry of the Cubic P-Lattice





Four 3-fold rotation axes parallel to cube diagonals (aka, <111>)

Fig. 6.24. a Space group $P 4/m \hat{3} 2/m$. In the other diagrams, only the symmetry elements corresponding to the symmetry directions (a), (111), (110) are shown.

b P 4/m ..., e P ... 3 ..., d P ... 2/m

Adapted from W. Borchardt-Ott, *Crystallography, 2nd Edition*, (Springer, Berlin, Germany, 1995) p. 99

- There are only 32
 crystal classes derived
 from the 7 crystal
 systems (i.e., shapes).
- Each has a certain characteristic symmetry.
- They are presented on stereograms on this viewgraph and the two that follow.

Table 21

Symmetry elements and conventions for the choice of axes in the 32 crystal classes

Symbols of centrosymmetrical classes are enclosed in boxes

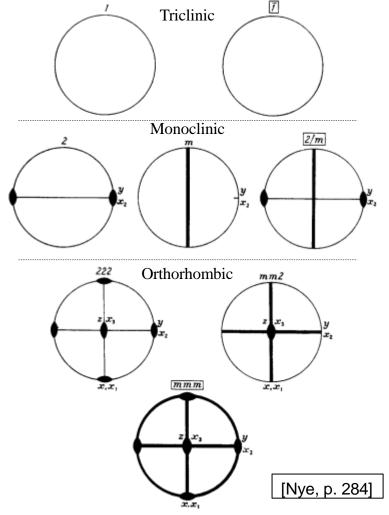


Table 21.3

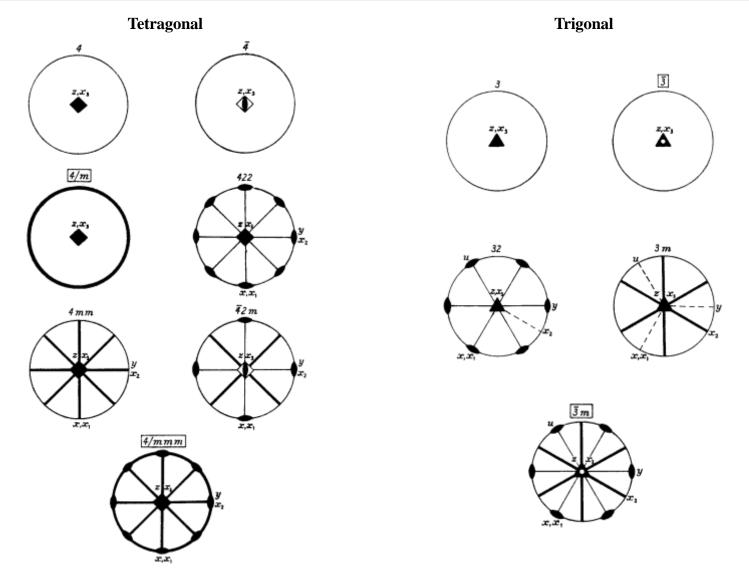


Table 21.2 Table 21.3

[Nye, pp. 285-286]

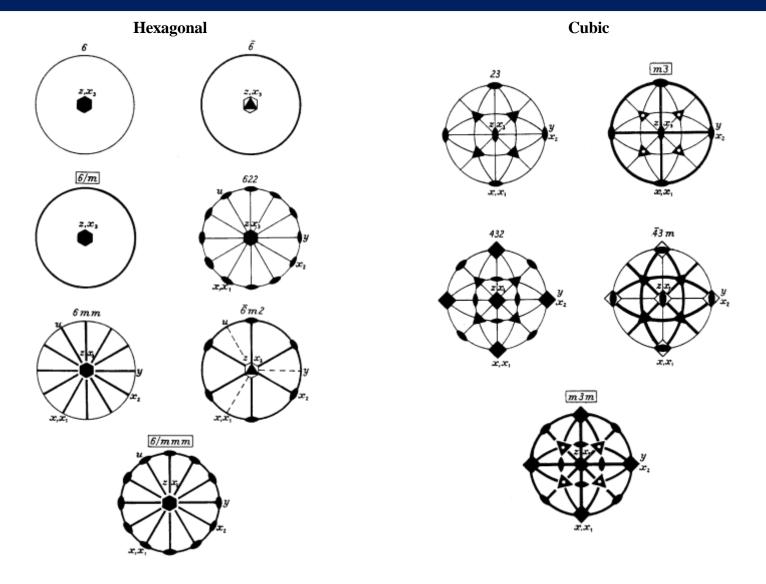
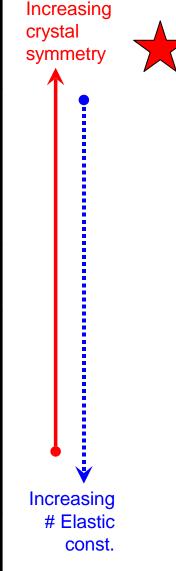


Table 21.4 Table 21.5

Influence of Crystal Symmetry on Number of Elastic Constants

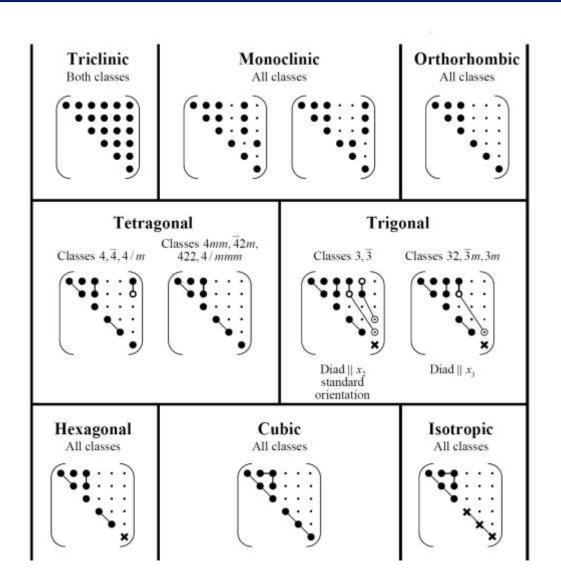
Crysta I Syste m	Axial Relation - ships	Interaxial Angles	Minimum Symmetry Elements	Number of Elastic Constants	
Cubic	a = b = c	$\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^{\circ}$	Four 3-fold rotation or rotoinversion axes parallel to body diagonals	3	
Hexagonal	a = b ≠ c	$\alpha = \beta = 90^{\circ};$ $\gamma = 120^{\circ}$	One 6-fold rotation or rotoinversion axis parallel to z-axis	5	
Tetragonal	a = b ≠ c	$ α = β = γ = 90^{\circ} $ One 4-fold rotation or rotoinversion axis parallel to z-axis		6 or 7	
Rhombohedral (Trigonal)	a = b = c	$\alpha = \beta = \gamma \neq 90^{\circ}$	One 3-fold rotation or rotoinversion axis parallel to z-axis	5, 6 or 7	
Orthorhombic	a≠b≠c	$\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^{\circ}$	Three 2-fold rotation or rotoinversion axes parallel to x,y,z-axes	9	
Monoclinic	a≠b≠c	$\alpha = \gamma = 90^{\circ} \neq \beta$	One 2-fold rotation or rotoinversion axis parallel to y-axis	13	
Triclinic	a≠b≠c	α ≠ β ≠ γ ≠ 90°	- None - One 1-fold rotation or rotoinversion axis	21	



Reduction of Elastic Constants with Increasing Symmetry

- A clear explanation of the reduction in the number of elastic constants due to crystal symmetry is provided in Chapter 6 of Wagoner and Chenot (pp. 196-207).
- Excellent explanations are also provided in Nye (i.e., Ch. 8 and Appendix B) and in Reid (Ch. 3).
- You are urged, but not required, to review some of this material.

Form of the elastic constant matrices for different symmetries

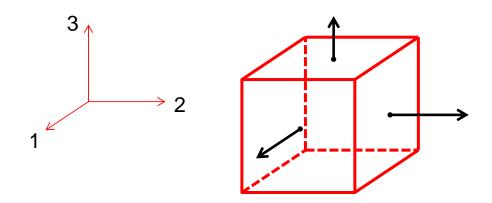




- Zero component (s = 0, c = 0)
- Non-zero component $(s \neq 0, c \neq 0)$
- Equal components
- •• Numerically equal but opposite
- $\bullet \bullet \bullet = 2 \bullet \text{ for } s; \bullet = \bullet/2 \text{ for } c$
- **x** =2 $(s_{11}-s_{22})$ or $(c_{11}-c_{22})/2$

Figure adapted from J.F. Nye, <u>Physical Properties of</u> <u>Crystals</u>, Oxford University Press (1985), p. 140-141.

Cubic Symmetry and Elastic Constants



 Application of a stress along the [100] direction evokes a certain elastic response. Stresses applied along the [010] or [001] axes will evoke an equivalent elastic response. Thus:

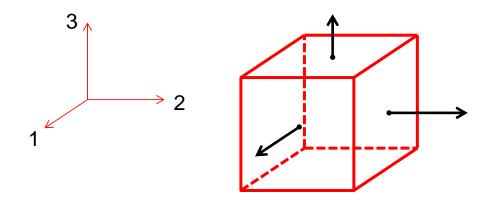
$$-C_{11} = C_{22} = C_{33}$$

• Similarly, applied shear stresses will evoke equivalent responses along the following axes:

$$-C_{44} = C_{55} = C_{66}; C_{12} = C_{13} = C_{23}$$

The number of independent elastic constants for a cubic material is 3.

Isotropy considerations



- Cubic materials are not necessarily isotropic.
- For these systems, anisotropy is defined by the Zener ratio, A:

$$A = \begin{cases} (C_{11} - C_{12})/2C_{44} \\ \text{or} \\ 2(S_{11} - S_{12})/S_{44} \end{cases}$$

NOTE: Some books (Ex., Hertzberg) present an inverted version of this equation. However, the implications are still the same.

When the Zener ratio = 1, the material is isotropic.

FOR CUBIC SOLIDS

$$\begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \cdot & C_{11} & C_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & C_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & C_{44} & 0 & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & C_{44} & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & C_{44} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C_{44} = \frac{C_{11} - C_{22}}{2}$$

$$C_{44} = \frac{C_{11} - C_{22}}{2}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} & S_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \cdot & S_{11} & S_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & S_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & S_{44} & 0 & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & S_{44} & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & S_{44} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$S_{44} = 2(S_{11} - S_{22})$$

$$S_{44} = 2(S_{11} - S_{22})$$

We can assume that most polycrystalline solids are isotropic but not all.

Many parameters are used to describe the elastic properties of materials

$$E = \frac{1}{S_{11}} \qquad G = \frac{1}{S_{44}} = \frac{1}{2(S_{11} - S_{12})} \qquad v = -\frac{S_{12}}{S_{11}}$$

These expressions are for isotropic solids. They are interrelated

$$G = \frac{E}{2(1+\nu)}$$

See Ch. 8 in Nye, Ch. 13 in Newnham, or Ch. 10 in Gersten for a more thorough explanation.

Wikipedia also provides a nice discussion.

Elastic Moduli in Cubic Materials

We can use the different relations among elastic constants to ascertain elastic moduli in any crystallographic orientation

$$\frac{1}{E_{hkl}} = S_{11} - 2\left(S_{11} - S_{12} - \frac{1}{2}S_{44}\right)\left(\alpha^2\beta^2 + \beta^2\gamma^2 + \alpha^2\gamma^2\right)$$

Where α , β , and γ are the direction cosines between the [hkl] crystal direction and the [100], [010], and [001] directions (i.e., the x,y,z axes).

$$\alpha = \cos(\angle[hkl][100]); \beta = \cos(\angle[hkl][010]); \gamma = \cos(\angle[hkl][010])$$

TABLE 1.3 Stiffness and Compliance Constants for Selected Crystals^a

	(10 ¹⁰ Pa)					(10 ⁻¹¹ Pa ⁻¹)				
Material	c ₁₁		c ₁₂		C44	s ₁₁		s ₁₂		S44
Cubic										
Aluminum	10.82		6.13		2.85	1.57		-0.57		3.51
Copper	16.84		12.14		7.54	1.50		-0.63		1.33
Gold	18.60		15.70		4.20	2.33		-1.07		2.38
Iron	23.70		14.10		11.60	0.80		-0.28		0.86
Lithium fluoride	11.2		4.56		6.32	1.16		-0.34		1.58
Magnesium oxide	29.3		9.2		15.5	0.401		-0.096		0.648
Molybdenum ^b	46.0		17.6		11.0	0.28		-0.08		0.91
Nickel	24.65		14.73		12.47	0.73		-0.27		0.80
Sodium chloride ^b	4.87		1.26		1.27	2.29		-0.47		7.85
Spinel (MgAl ₂ O ₄)	27.9		15.3		15.3	0.585		-0.208		0.654
Titanium carbide ^b	51.3		10.6		17.8	0.21		-0.036		0.561
Tungsten	50.1		19.8		15.14	0.26		-0.07		0.66
Zinc sulfide	10.79		7.22		4.12	2.0		-0.802		2.43
	c_{11}	c_{12}	c_{13}	c33	C44	s ₁₁	s ₁₂	s ₁₃	833	844
Hexagonal										
Cadmium	12.10	4.81	4.42	5.13	1.85	1.23	-0.15	-0.93	3.55	5.40
Cobalt	30.70	16.50	10.30	35.81	7.53	0.47	-0.23	-0.07	0.32	1.32
Magnesium	5.97	2.62	2.17	6.17	1.64	2.20	-0.79	-0.50	1.97	6.10
Titanium	16.0	9.0	6.6	18.1	4.65	0.97	-0.47	-0.18	0.69	2.15
Zinc	16.10	3.42	5.01	6.10	3.83	0.84	0.05	-0.73	2.84	2.61

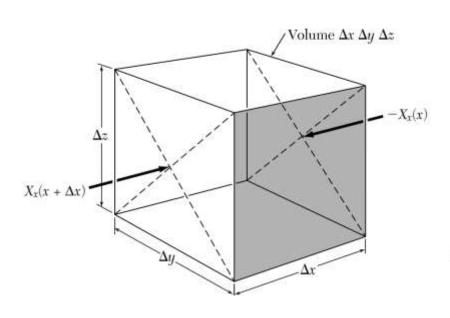
^a Data adapted from H. B. Huntington, Solid State Physics, Vol. 7, Academic, New York, 1958, p. 213, and K. H. Hellwege, Elastic, Piezoelectric and Related Constants of Crystals, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1969, p. 3.

^b Note that $E_{100} > E_{111}$.

Elastic properties of polycrystals

- In single crystals elastic constants are determined by bonding between atoms. As such, most single crystals are mechanically anisotropic.
- In polycrystals, the anisotropic behavior of each grain "averages out" because: (a) grain orientations tend to be random; and (b) the deformation of one grain is dependent on the deformation of its neighbor.
- Exceptions occur when the material is textured (i.e., the grains exhibit a preferred orientation).
- Page 34 in Hosford lists some possibilities.

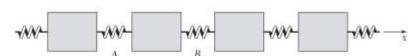
Elastic Waves in Cubic Crystals



Equation of Motion in X direction

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial X_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial X_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial X_z}{\partial z}$$

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = C_{11} \frac{\partial e_{xx}}{\partial x} + C_{12} \left(\frac{\partial e_{yy}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial e_{zz}}{\partial x} \right) + C_{44} \left(\frac{\partial e_{xy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial e_{zx}}{\partial z} \right)$$



Equations of Motion

$$\rho \; \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = C_{11} \; \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + C_{44} \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} \right) + (C_{12} + C_{44}) \left(\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x \; \partial y} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x \; \partial z} \right)$$

$$\rho \, \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial t^2} = C_{11} \, \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} + C_{44} \left(\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial z^2} \right) + \left(C_{12} + C_{44} \right) \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \, \partial y} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y \, \partial z} \right)$$

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial t^2} = C_{11} \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial z^2} + C_{44} \left(\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} \right) + (C_{12} + C_{44}) \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial z} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y \partial z} \right)$$

Elastic Waves in Cubic Crystals

Waves in the [100] Direction

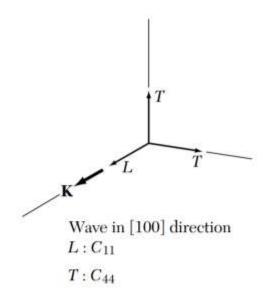
One solution is given by a longitudinal wave $u = u_0 \exp[i(Kx - \omega t)]$

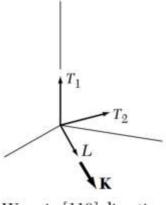
$$u = u_0 \exp\left[i(Kx - \omega t)\right]$$

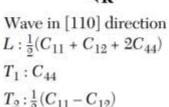
$$\omega^2 \rho = C_{11} K^2$$

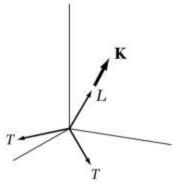
the velocity /K of a longitudinal wave in the [100] direction is

$$v_s = \nu \lambda = \omega / K = (C_{11} / \rho)^{1/2}$$









Wave in [111] direction
$$L: \frac{1}{3}(C_{11} + 2C_{12} + 4C_{44})$$
$$T: \frac{1}{3}(C_{11} - C_{12} + C_{44})$$

Temperature dependence of elastic moduli

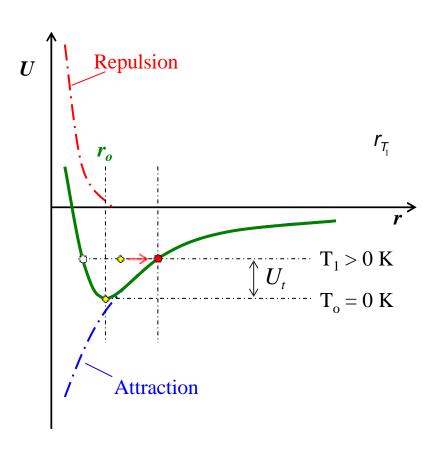
- Young's modulus does vary with temperature.
- For metals and ceramics there are some general rules of thumb for temperatures lower than half of the melting temperature.

Metals:
$$E(T) = E(0 \text{ K}) \cdot \left(1 - 0.5 \frac{T}{T_{mp}}\right)$$

Ceramics: $E(T) = E(0 \text{ K}) \cdot \left(1 - 0.3 \frac{T}{T_{mp}}\right)$

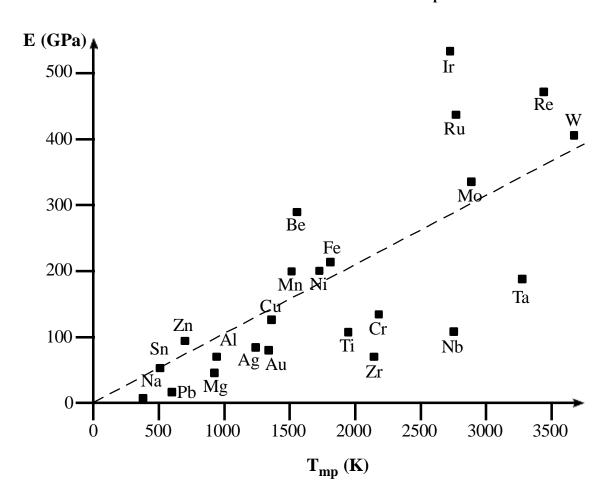
Different rules apply for polymers.

Origin of T dependence



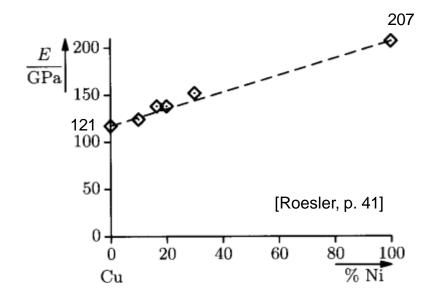
- Raising T increases the energy of the atoms by an amount U_t causing them to oscillate about their equilibrium positions.
- The repulsive interaction is short range in comparison to the attractive interaction.
- The mean distance between atoms thus grows when temperature is increased due to oscillation.
- Thermal expansion increases and E decreases with increasing T.

Young's modulus also tends to scale with $T_{\mbox{\scriptsize mp}}$ for similar reasons.

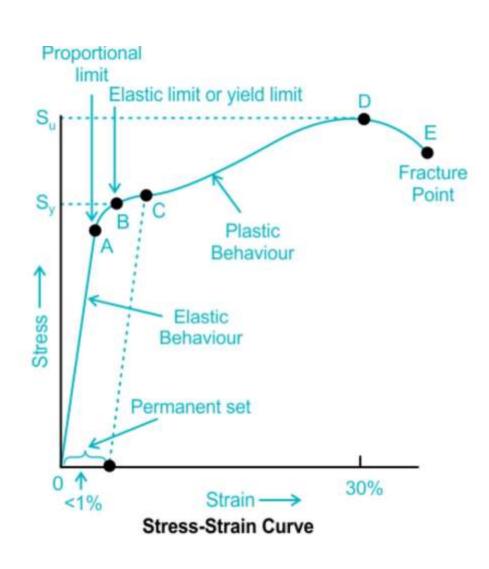


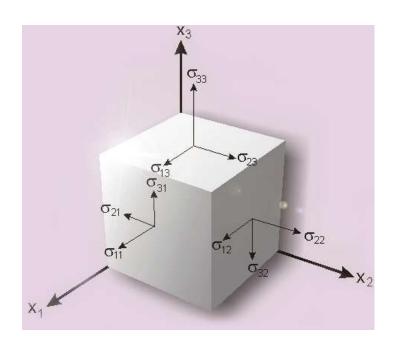
Influence of alloying

- Alloying generally has little influence on the stiffness of materials. This is because the solubility of alloying elements is generally very small (<10%).
- As noted by Roesler et al., the elastic modulus for Al alloys varies by roughly 10% while their strengths can be significantly altered by alloying.
- The Cu-Ni system is an exception to the rule. Ni is 100% soluble in Ni.



材料的弹性性质模拟





Stress tensor

$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_{yy} & \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{xz} & \sigma_{yz} & \sigma_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$

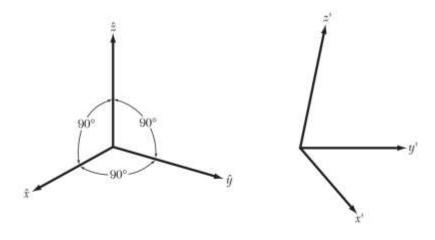
Strain tensor

$$\begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{xx} & \epsilon_{xy} & \epsilon_{xz} \\ \epsilon_{xy} & \epsilon_{yy} & \epsilon_{yz} \\ \epsilon_{xz} & \epsilon_{yz} & \epsilon_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$$

Stress-Strain relation

$$\sigma_{ij} = \sum C_{ijkl} \, \varepsilon_{kl}$$

Elastic constant



Unstrained

Deformed

$$\mathbf{x}' = (1 + \epsilon_{xx})\hat{\mathbf{x}} + \epsilon_{xy}\hat{\mathbf{y}} + \epsilon_{xz}\hat{\mathbf{z}} ;$$

$$\mathbf{y}' = \epsilon_{yx}\hat{\mathbf{x}} + (1 + \epsilon_{yy})\hat{\mathbf{y}} + \epsilon_{yz}\hat{\mathbf{z}} ;$$

$$\mathbf{z}' = \epsilon_{zx}\hat{\mathbf{x}} + \epsilon_{zy}\hat{\mathbf{y}} + (1 + \epsilon_{zz})\hat{\mathbf{z}} .$$

 $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta}$ define the deformation; they are dimensionless and have values << 1 if the strain is small

模拟流程

确定平衡结构

0 K Lattice Relaxation Finite Temperature NPT MD

计算Stress Tensor

基于经验势计算

构建 Strain Stress relation













微扰晶胞

通常是3个tensile、 3个 Shear

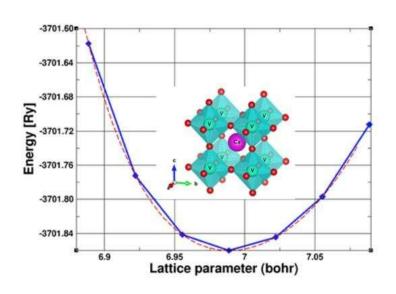
确定Strain tensor

注意Strain tensor 三个 Shear 分量 重复02-05 求解弹性常数

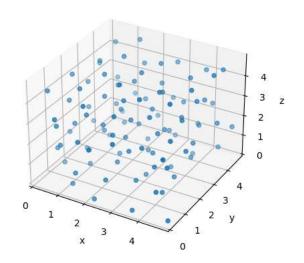
最少需要六次

1. 确定平衡结构

0 K - 晶胞优化



有限温度- NPT 分子动力学



2. 微扰晶胞

定义一个 deformation gradient 矩阵F,

$$F = \begin{bmatrix} F_{xx} & F_{yx} & F_{zx} \\ F_{xy} & F_{yy} & F_{zy} \\ F_{xz} & F_{yz} & F_{zz} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \delta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

将F与原始晶胞相乘得到deform以后的新晶胞,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{2x} & b_{2x} & c_{2x} \\ a_{2y} & b_{2y} & c_{2y} \\ a_{2z} & b_{2z} & c_{2z} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} F_{xx} & F_{yx} & F_{zx} \\ F_{xy} & F_{yy} & F_{zy} \\ F_{xz} & F_{yz} & F_{zz} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{1x} & b_{1x} & c_{1x} \\ a_{1y} & b_{1y} & c_{1y} \\ a_{1z} & b_{1z} & c_{1z} \end{bmatrix}$$

以fcc为例,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & a\delta & 0 \\ 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \delta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$$

注意: 微扰完晶胞需要对原子位置进行优化

OK 结构优化 有限温度 NVT 分子动力学

3. 计算 Stress Tensor

对晶格施加微小应变,计算应变后的总能量 $E(\epsilon)$

计算 Stress Tensor:

Numerical : Finite difference

计算量较大,因为需要对系统进行多次微小扰动,每次扰动都需要重新计算能量或力,因此计算速度较慢,且数值精度受限于微小扰动的大小。

Analytical : Depends on the energy functional

在有限温度下,材料的能量 E 对体积 V 和晶格变形参数的导数可以得到应力张量的表达式。 考虑到体积变形和剪切变形,应力张量的表达为:

$$\sigma_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{1}{V} \frac{\partial E}{\partial \epsilon_{\alpha\beta}}$$

其中, $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta}$ 是应变张量的分量

4. 确定 Strain Tensor

小应变理论中的应变定义在连续介质力学中可以用变形梯度张量F表示:

$$\varepsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} (u_{i,j} + u_{j,i}) = \frac{1}{2} (F_{ij} + F_{ji}) - \delta_{ij}$$

只关注形变影响,通过Green-Lagrange strain tensor的推导,我们可以得到,

$$E = \frac{1}{2}(F^T F - I)$$

放到小应变假设下,就可以省去二阶以上的高阶项,就有 $E \approx \varepsilon$

从而可以得到Strain Tensor的各个分量,继而得到Stress Tensor

5. Stress - Strain relation

Stiffness张量通过弹性常数 C_{ij} 将Stress分量与Strain分量关联起来

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{zz} \\ \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{xy} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} & C_{14} & C_{15} & C_{16} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & C_{23} & C_{24} & C_{25} & C_{26} \\ C_{13} & C_{23} & C_{33} & C_{34} & C_{35} & C_{36} \\ C_{14} & C_{24} & C_{34} & C_{44} & C_{45} & C_{46} \\ C_{15} & C_{25} & C_{35} & C_{45} & C_{55} & C_{56} \\ C_{16} & C_{26} & C_{36} & C_{46} & C_{56} & C_{66} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{xx} \\ \epsilon_{yy} \\ \epsilon_{zz} \\ 2\epsilon_{yz} \\ 2\epsilon_{xz} \\ 2\epsilon_{xy} \end{bmatrix}$$

Strain分量 " ϵ " 和Stress分量 " σ " 由上述表达式通过一组方程联系起来,这些方程中的未知数是弹性常数 C_{ij} 。在下一步中,我们将收集更多这样的方程,直到我们拥有足够多的方程组来找到所有的 C_{ij} 。

6. 求解弹性常数

使用彼此独立的deformation,直到完成6种deformation。任何6种deformation的组合都是可以的,只要它们是独立的

$$F_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \delta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad F_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 + \delta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad F_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 + \delta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$F_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \delta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad F_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \delta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad F_6 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \delta \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

 F_1 - F_3 代表 tensile deformations, F_4 - F_6 代表 shear deformation.

6. 求解弹性常数

为这6种deformation各自写出Stress-Strain relation,并将它们以矩阵形式表示。

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{13} & \sigma_{14} & \sigma_{15} & \sigma_{16} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{23} & \sigma_{24} & \sigma_{25} & \sigma_{26} \\ \sigma_{31} & \sigma_{32} & \sigma_{33} & \sigma_{34} & \sigma_{35} & \sigma_{36} \\ \sigma_{41} & \sigma_{42} & \sigma_{43} & \sigma_{44} & \sigma_{45} & \sigma_{46} \\ \sigma_{51} & \sigma_{52} & \sigma_{53} & \sigma_{54} & \sigma_{55} & \sigma_{56} \\ \sigma_{61} & \sigma_{62} & \sigma_{63} & \sigma_{64} & \sigma_{65} & \sigma_{66} \end{bmatrix}$$

在这个方程中要特别注意指标。在stress tensor和 strain tensor σ_{ij} 或 ε_{ij} 中,这里ij作为index的含义,与我们至之前使用的ij含义不同。列指标j指的是Deformation的编号(第一次Deformation,第二次Deformation,加 而行指标 i 指的是在Voigt表示法中的位置,如 σ_{24} 是第四次变形的 σ_{yy} 分量。

$$=\begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} & C_{14} & C_{15} & C_{16} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & C_{23} & C_{24} & C_{25} & C_{26} \\ C_{13} & C_{23} & C_{33} & C_{34} & C_{35} & C_{36} \\ C_{14} & C_{24} & C_{34} & C_{44} & C_{45} & C_{46} \\ C_{15} & C_{25} & C_{35} & C_{45} & C_{55} & C_{56} \\ C_{16} & C_{26} & C_{36} & C_{46} & C_{56} & C_{66} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{11} & \epsilon_{12} & \epsilon_{13} & \epsilon_{14} & \epsilon_{15} & \epsilon_{16} \\ \epsilon_{21} & \epsilon_{22} & \epsilon_{23} & \epsilon_{24} & \epsilon_{25} & \epsilon_{26} \\ \epsilon_{21} & \epsilon_{22} & \epsilon_{23} & \epsilon_{24} & \epsilon_{25} & \epsilon_{26} \\ \epsilon_{31} & \epsilon_{32} & \epsilon_{33} & \epsilon_{34} & \epsilon_{35} & \epsilon_{36} \\ \epsilon_{41} & 2\epsilon_{42} & 2\epsilon_{43} & 2\epsilon_{44} & 2\epsilon_{45} & 2\epsilon_{46} \\ 2\epsilon_{51} & 2\epsilon_{52} & 2\epsilon_{53} & 2\epsilon_{54} & 2\epsilon_{55} & 2\epsilon_{56} \\ 2\epsilon_{61} & 2\epsilon_{62} & 2\epsilon_{63} & 2\epsilon_{64} & 2\epsilon_{65} & 2\epsilon_{66} \end{bmatrix}$$

6. 求解弹性常数

如果使用之前推荐的Deformation模式.则我们得到上式右边的矩阵E,

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_1 + \frac{\delta_1^2}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \delta_1 + \frac{\delta_1^2}{2} & 0 & \frac{\delta_2^2}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \delta_1 + \frac{\delta_1^2}{2} & 0 & \frac{\delta_2^2}{2} & \frac{\delta_2^2}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \delta_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \delta_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \delta_2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

这时我们只需要求解矩阵E的逆。在上式左右两边同时乘以 E^{-1} ,我们就可以得到Stiffness tensor:

$$\Sigma E^{-1} = C$$