

Chapter3

Dislocation and strengthening mechanisms

강의명: 기계재료공학 (MFA9009)

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Recap

- Crystal structure
- Defects, point, lines, and bulk
- Dislocation
- Mechanical properties.
 - Yielding
 - Plasticity
 - Strain hardening.

Objectives

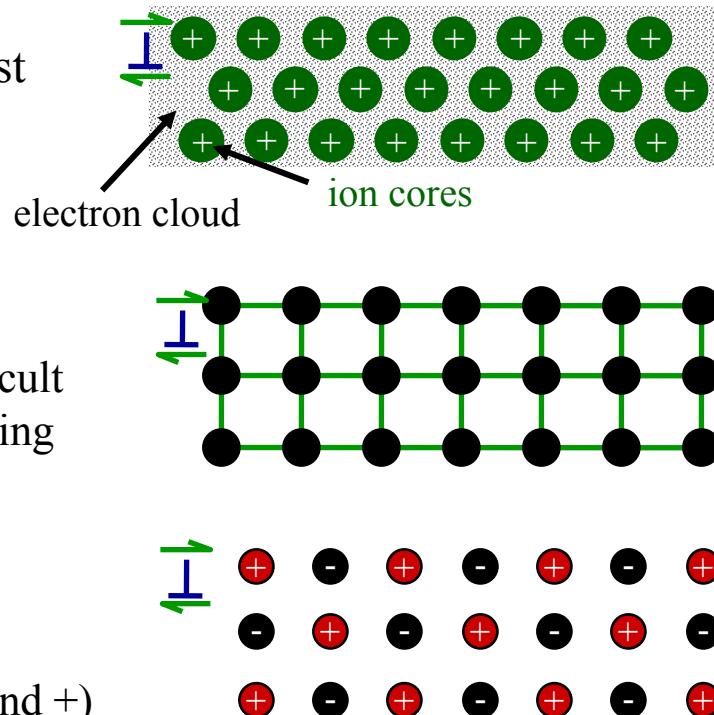
- 원자의 관점에서 살펴보는 전위 (edge, screw – 칼날 전위와 나사 전위)
- 전단 응력에 의한 전위의 이동 그에 따른 소성 변형
- Slip system
- 소성변형에 따른 금속의 입자 구조 변화
- 입계의 전위 이동 방해 – grain boundary acts as barrier to dislocations
- Substitutional solid solution strengthening – interaction between disl. And lattice distortion
- Interaction between dislocation and strain field – strain hardening (변형률 강화), cold working (냉간 가공)
- Heat treatment (열처리); Annealing, recovery, recrystallization and grain growth.

Theory of dislocation

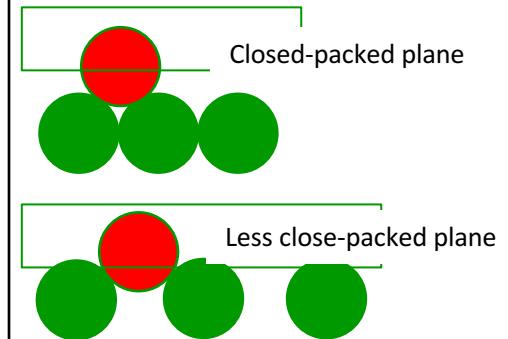
- 전위는 직접 발견되기 전에 이미 존재할 것으로 예상되었다.
 - 전위가 없는 완벽한 결정 구조의 강도의 계산치가 실제 실험치에 비교해 매우매우 컸다.
 - 전위가 있다고 가정한 후 계산하였더니, 실제 실험치와 근사 (1930)
 - 그 이후로 온갖 전위 이론들이 제시되었다.
- 차후 전자 현미경의 발달로 전위가 직접 관찰됨 (1950)
 - 위의 전위 이론들에 의해서 보였던 다양한 모델들을 전자 현미경으로 증명.

Dislocation and materials classes

- Metals (Cu, Al):
Dislocation motion easiest
 - **non-directional** bonding
 - **close-packed** directions for slip
- Covalent Ceramics (Si, diamond): Motion difficult
 - **directional (angular)** bonding
- Ionic Ceramics (NaCl):
Motion difficult
 - need to avoid nearest neighbors of like sign (- and +)



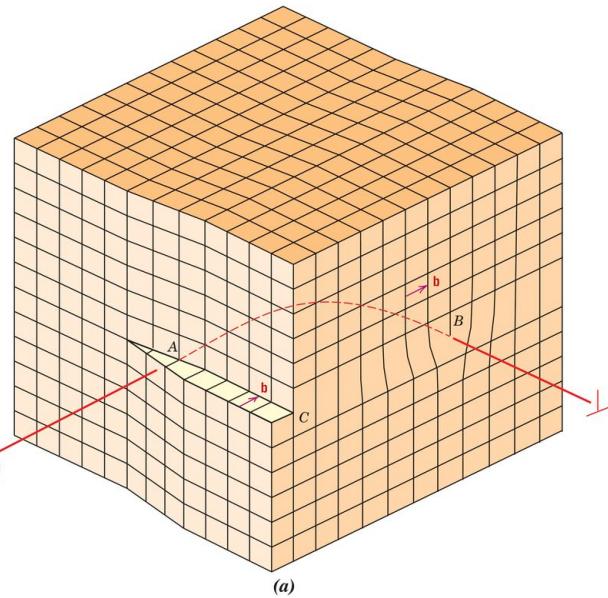
Q) Why does disl. move along close-packed direction?



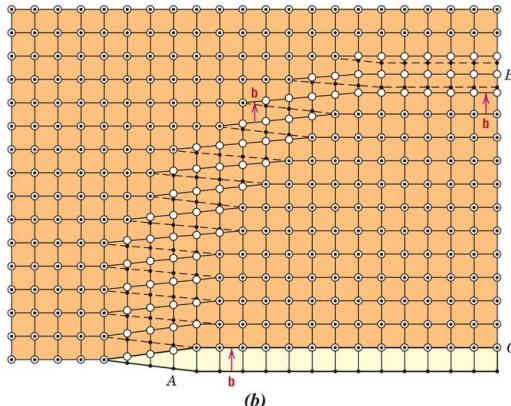
Q) Does slip only occurs on close-packed plane?

A) No. In case no close-packed plane exists, less closed-packed plane serves to accommodate dislocation slips.

Recap: dislocations



(a)

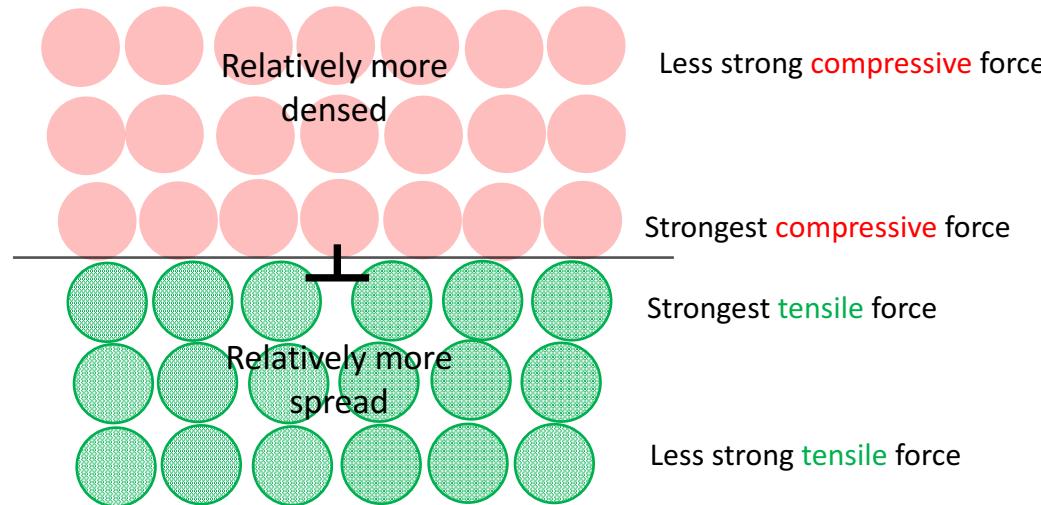


(b)

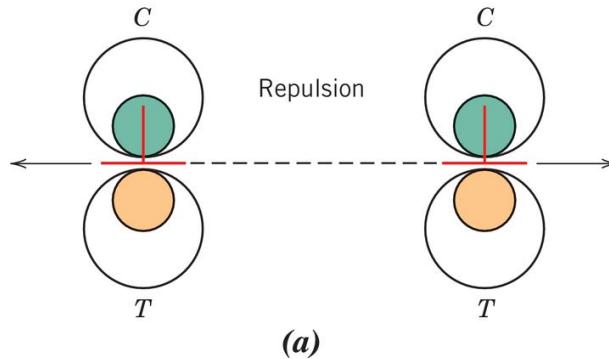
Figure (b) from W. T. Read, Jr., Dislocations in Crystals, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, NY, 1953.

Dislocation and strain field

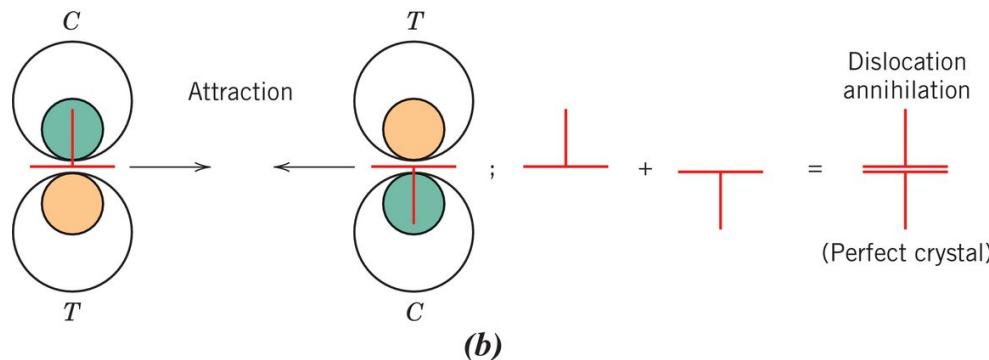
- Dislocation induces lattice distortion – 힘평형 상태에서 벗어난 원자간의 거리. 따라서 격자의 뒤틀림 변형률 (lattice distortion; lattice distortion strain) 그리고 그에 따라 뒤틀림 응력장 (stress field).



Interactions between dislocations



(a)

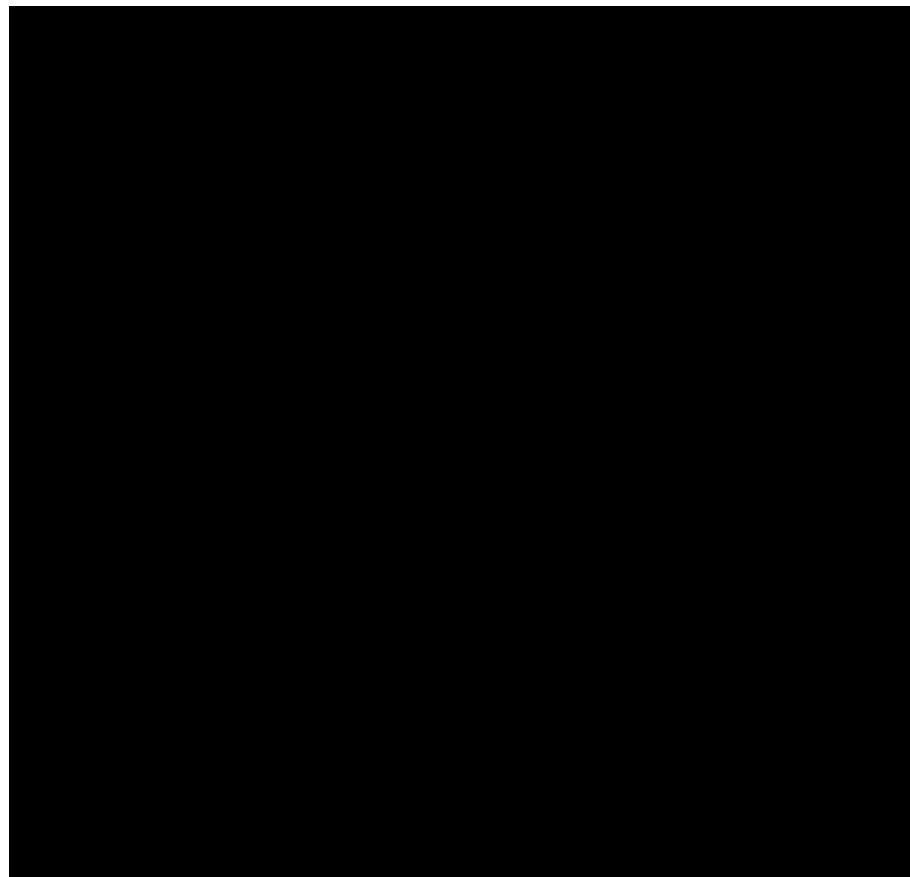


(b)

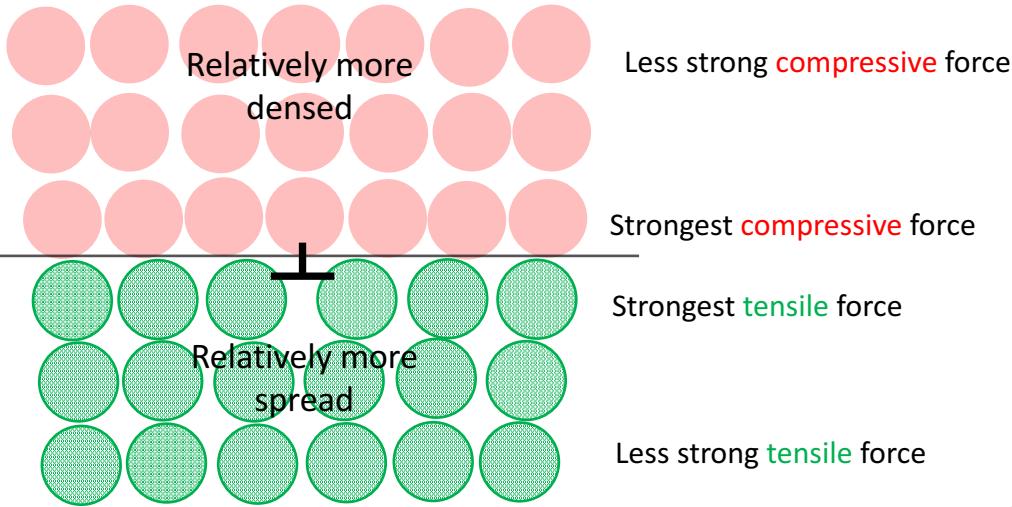
Adapted from H. W. Hayden, W. G. Moffatt, and J. Wulff, *The Structure and Properties of Materials*, Vol. III, Mechanical Behavior, p. 75. Copyright © 1965 by John Wiley & Sons, New York.

Dislocation density

- Dislocation density is quantified as
- The length of total dislocations [mm]/ volume $[mm]^{-3}$
- Its unit is then $[mm]^{-2}$ (or m^{-2}).
- Dislocation increase as plastic deformation is applied. After certain plastic deformation, the dislocation density can increase to $10^{10} mm^{-2}$;
- Frank-Read dislocation source ->



Lattice distortion induced by dislocation



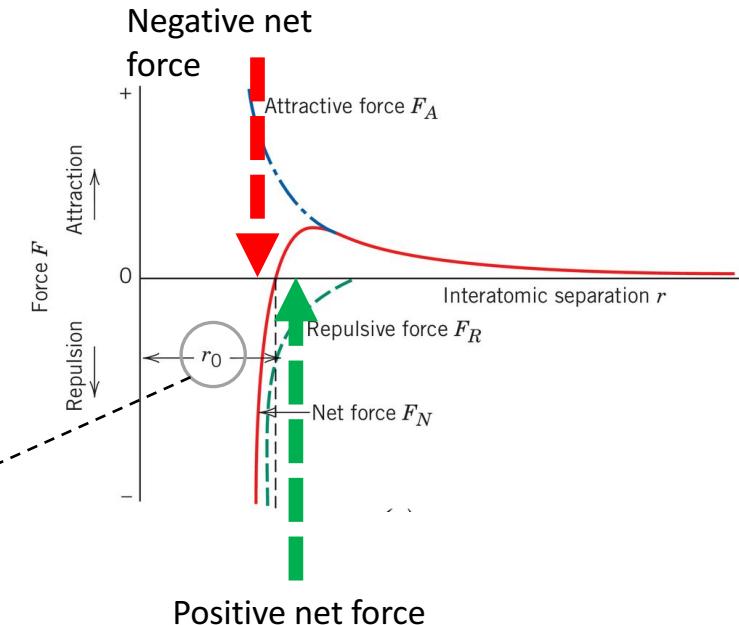
Remember $\sigma = E\varepsilon$, that is the Hooke's law in the elastic regime

Presence of dislocation causes 'elastic' strains to the neighboring atoms

In the scale of crystal lattice

$$\sigma = E \frac{\Delta a}{a_0}$$

$\frac{\Delta a}{a_0}$ is the engineering strain from lattice strain;
where a_0 is the lattice parameter when the **net force** between atoms is zero (force equilibrium)

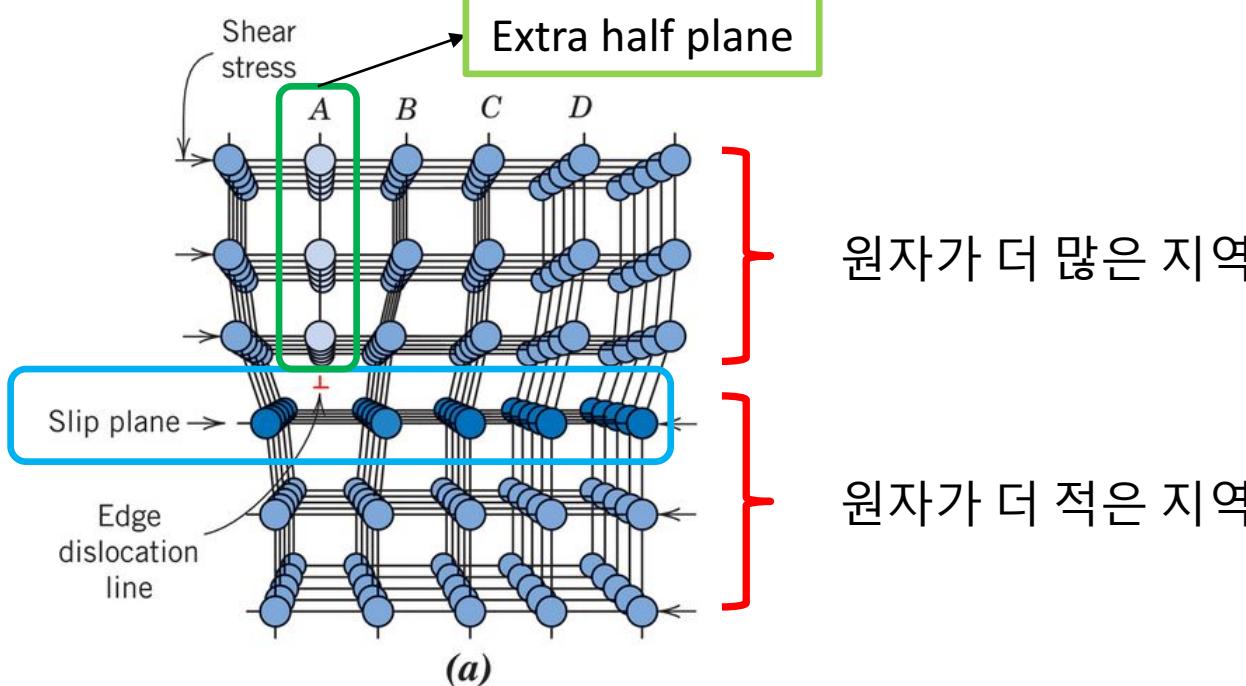


Compressive force means $\sigma < 0$; thus $\frac{\Delta a}{a_0} < 0$; That again means $\Delta a < 0$ so that $a_f < a_0$; Compressive strain

Tensile force means $\sigma > 0$; thus $\frac{\Delta a}{a_0} > 0$; That again means $\Delta a > 0$ so that $a_f > a_0$; Tensile strain

Dislocation slip 용어

- 전위의 의한 소성변형: 슬립 (slip) – 전위면이 서로 ‘미끄러지듯’ 층층이 움직이는 것을 빗대어.
- 이렇게 전위선이 (전위는 ‘선’ 결함임을 잊지말자) 가로지르는 면을 슬립면 (slip plane)이라고 한다.
- 전단 전위에서 슬립면은 과잉 반쪽 원자면 (extra half plane)의 끝단.



Adapted from A. G. Guy, Essentials of Materials Sc

Dislocation motion

Dislocation motion & plastic deformation

- Metals - plastic deformation occurs by **slip** – an edge dislocation (extra half-plane of atoms) slides through lattice.

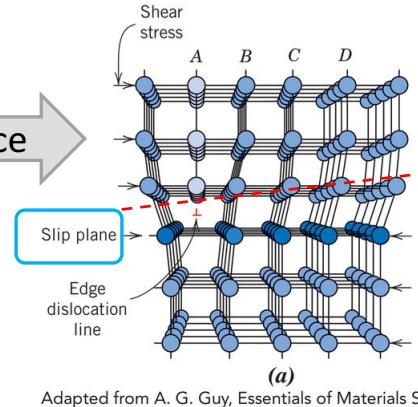
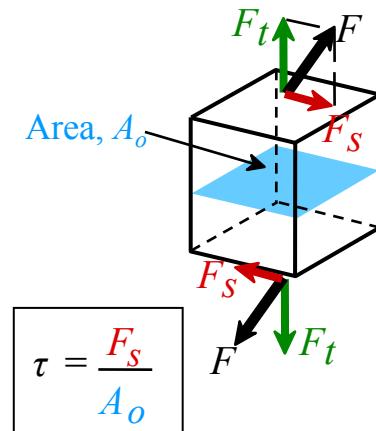
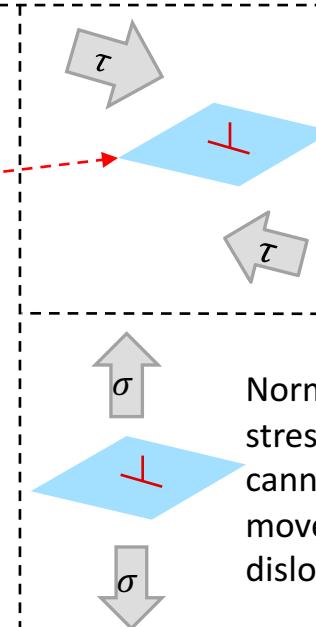


Figure 9.1, page 269

Adapted from A. G. Guy, Essentials of Materials Sc

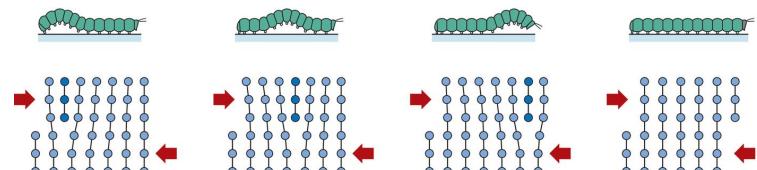
Dislocation moves by the shear force acting on the plane where dislocations are gliding

- 전위의 의한 소성변형: 슬립 – 전위면이 서로 '미끄러지듯' 층층이 움직이는 것을 빗대어.

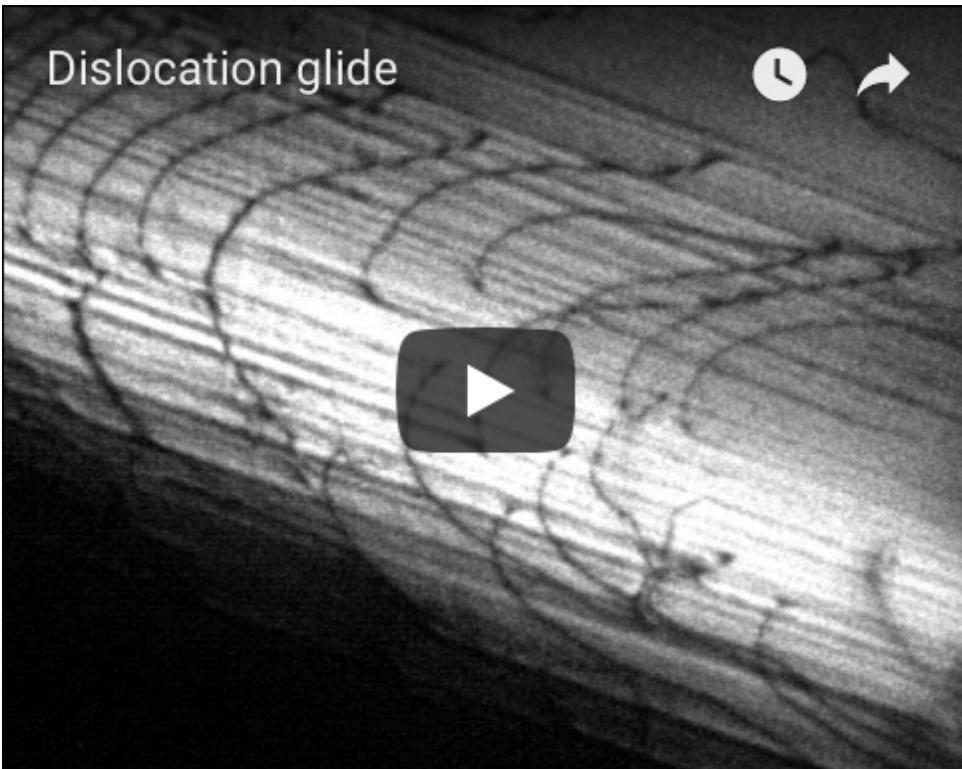


Slip 면에 대해 기울어진 힘의 경우 decompose

자벌레의 움직임에 비유-> Figure 9.1에서 A->B->C->D로
edge dislocation이 움직이는 것을 비유



Dislocation glide movie



Slip system and dislocation motion

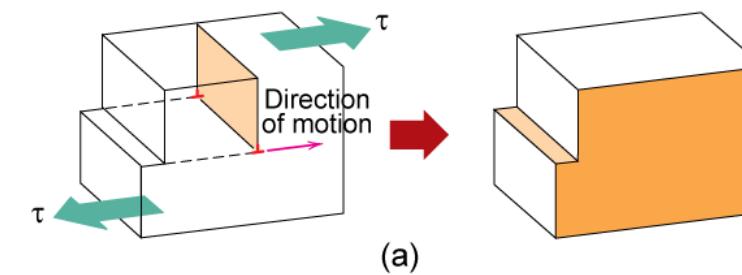
- A dislocation moves on a **slip plane** in a **slip direction** perpendicular to the dislocation line
- The slip direction is the same as the **Burgers vector** direction

Slip system: a set of slip plane and slip direction
Usually denoted as $\{hkl\} <uvw>$;
slip plane family; slip direction family

Slip systems are **usually** a set of close-packed plane and close-packed direction

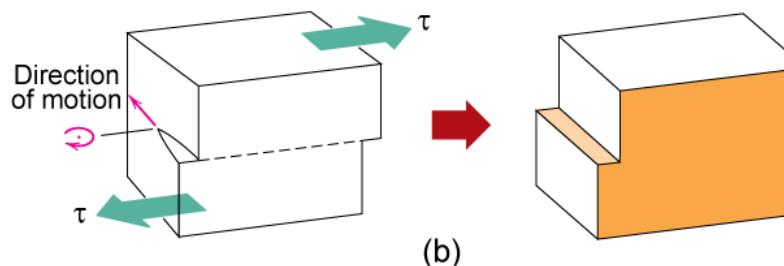
There are exceptions to this rule

Crystal structure	Slip system	**No.
FCC	$\{111\} <110>$	12
BCC	$\{110\}$ *pencil glide*	..
HCP	$\{0001\} <1120>$	3



Edge dislocation

Fig. 9.2, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.
(Adapted from H. W. Hayden, W. G. Moffatt,
and J. Wulff, The Structure and Properties of
Materials, Vol. III, Mechanical Behavior, p. 70.
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York. Reprinted by permission of John Wiley &
Sons, Inc.)



Screw dislocation

* $\{110\}$ Pencil glide means that any direction on $\{110\}$ plane may operate as a slip direction
 $\{110\} <111>$, $\{110\} <112>$, $\{110\} <123>$...

** No. does not account for shear sense.

Deformation mechanisms

Slip System

- **Slip plane** - plane on which easiest slippage occurs
 - Highest planar densities (and **large interplanar spacings**)
- **Slip directions** - directions of movement
 - Highest linear densities

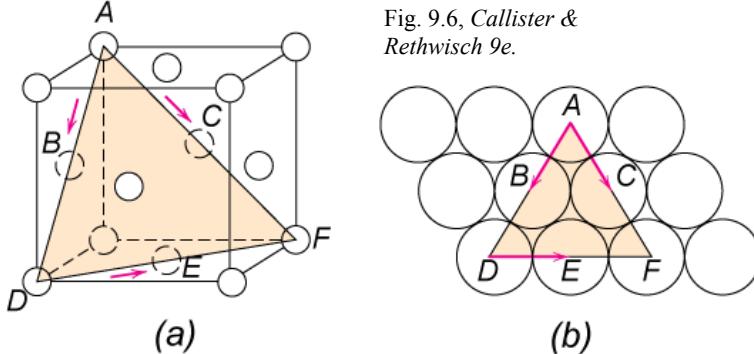
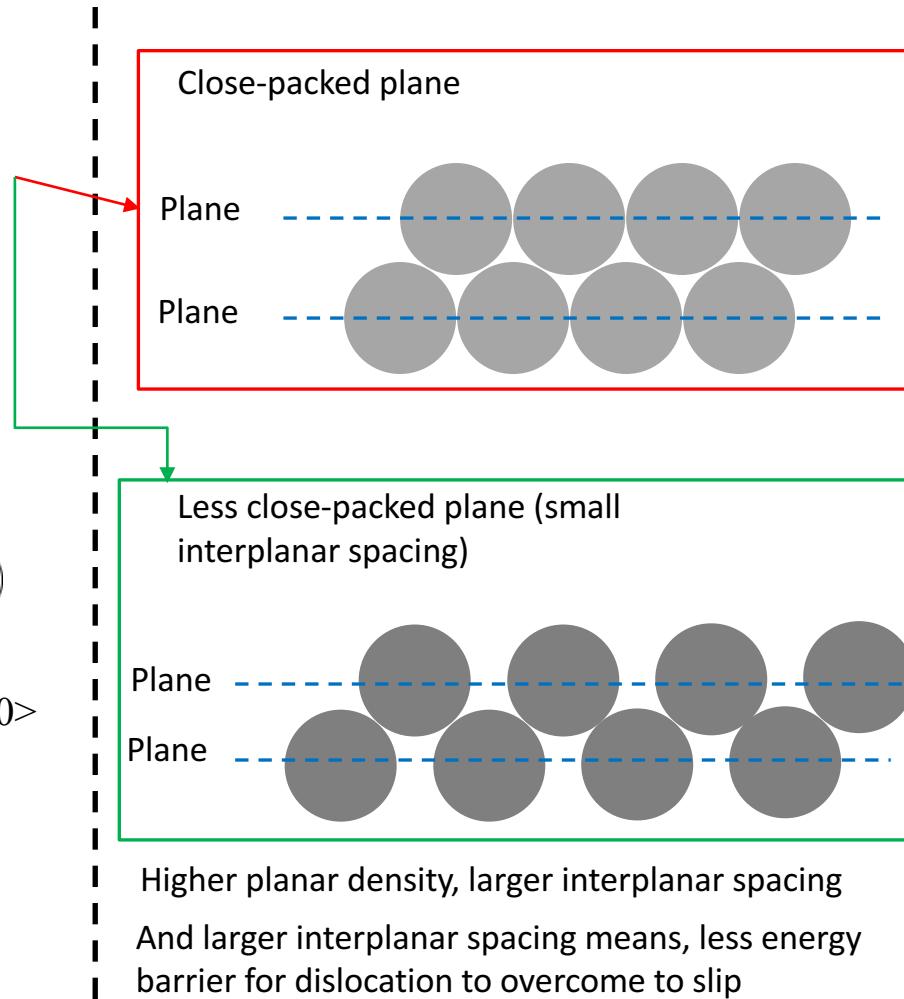


Fig. 9.6, Callister &
Rethwisch 9e.

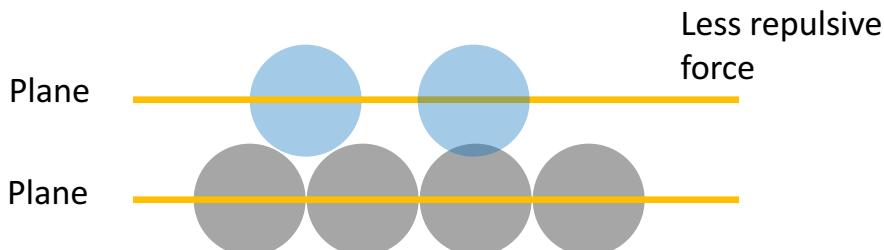
- FCC Slip occurs on $\{111\}$ planes (close-packed) in $<110>$ directions (close-packed)
=> total of 12 slip systems in FCC
- For BCC & HCP, there are other slip systems.

Note: BCC does not have closed-packed plane (to be discussed later)

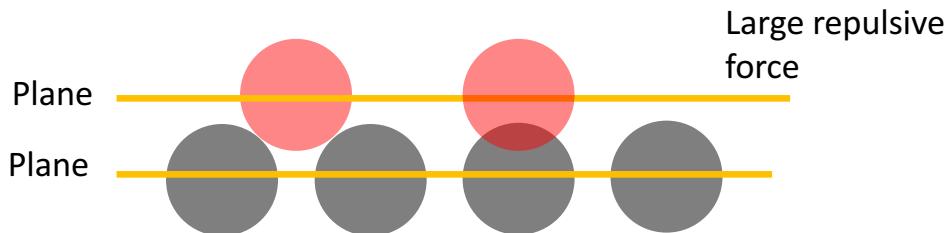


Close-packed plane

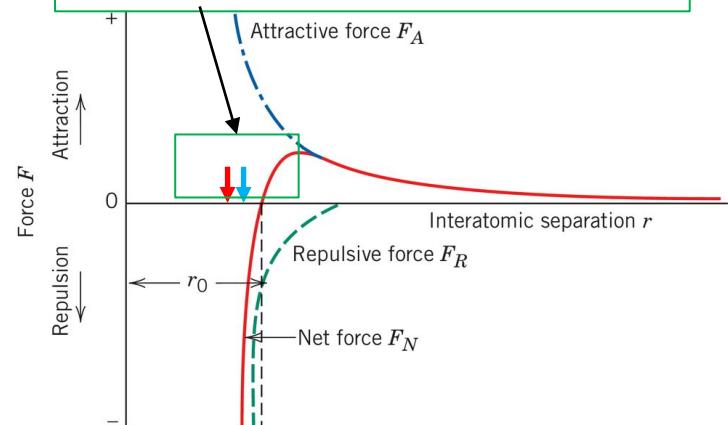
Close-packed plane



Less packed plane (small interplanar spacing)



Repulsive force occurs when disl. (atom) slips; the amount of repulsive force is less for close-packed planes

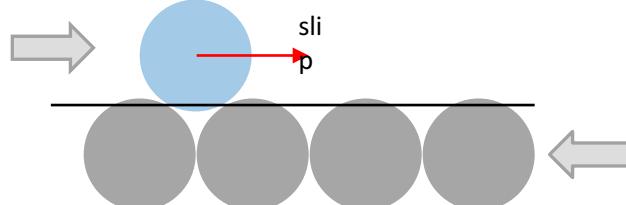


Easier to move on the close-packed crystallographic plane; The same reasoning is applied to easier motion along close-packed crystallographic direction

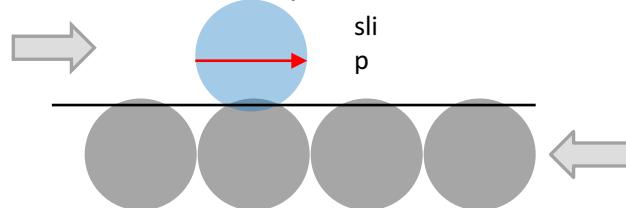
Shear force

For a dislocation to slip, a critical amount of force is necessary

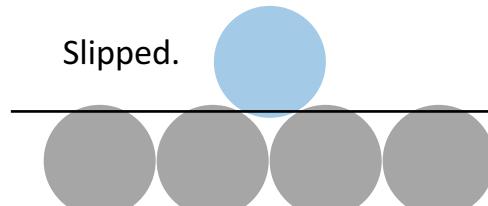
Slip Plane



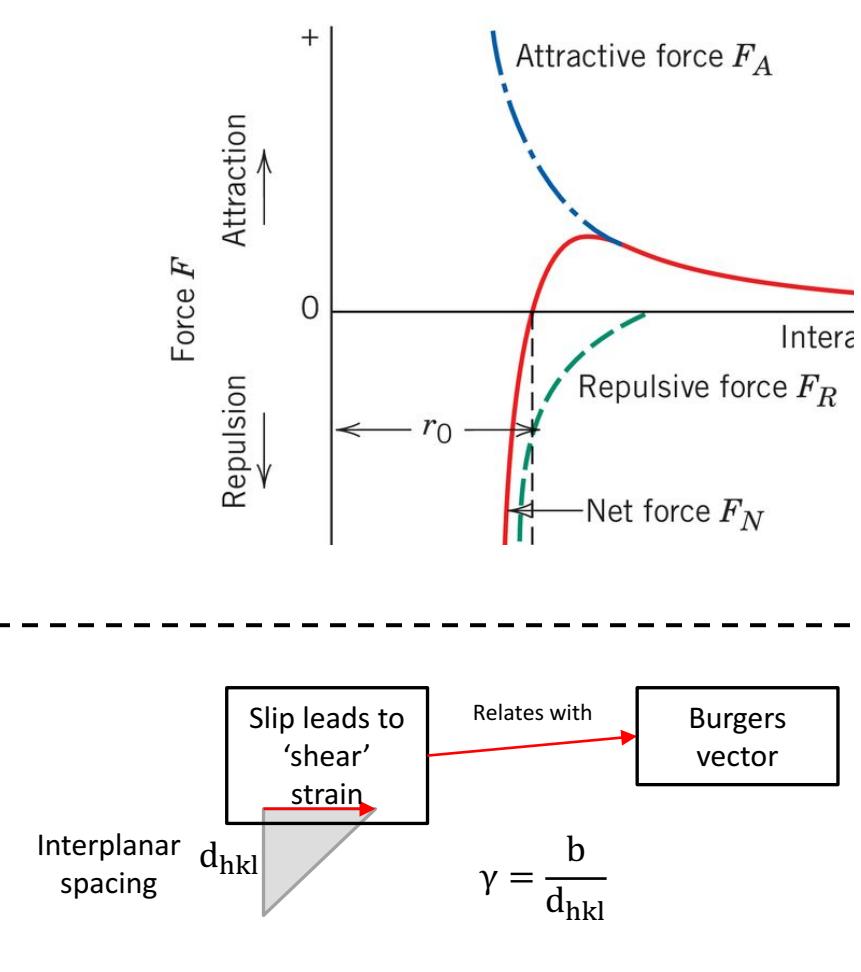
Maximum repulsive force



Slipped.



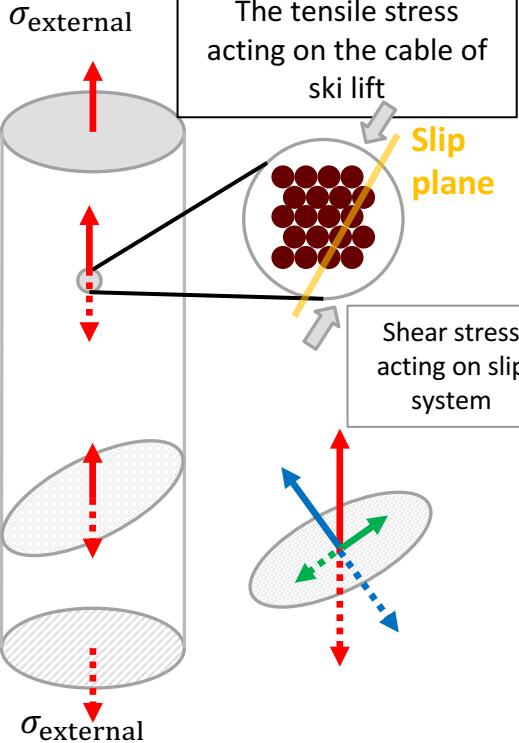
Shear force acting on the slip plane moves the dislocation



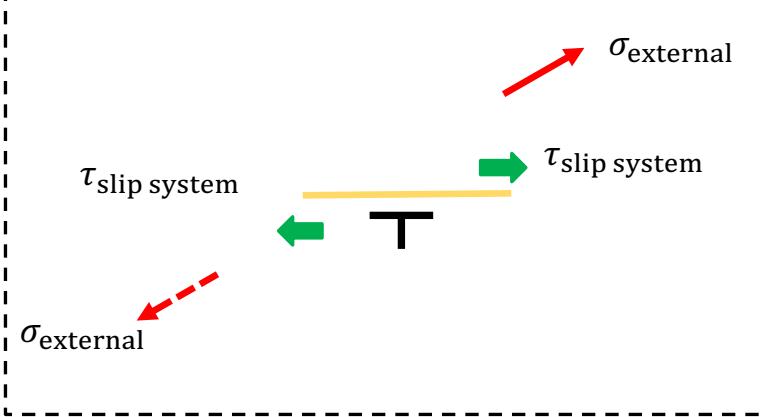
External load to shear force on dislocation

Shear force acting on the slip plane makes the dislocation move

In reality, we do not apply the force to individual dislocations



Remember cable of ski lift under tensile load

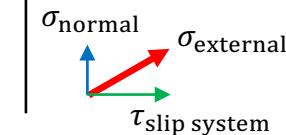


You can find what shear stress (τ) is acting on the slip plane along slip direction, provided that you know 1) the external stress (σ_{external}); 2) orientation of the slip system with respect to external loading

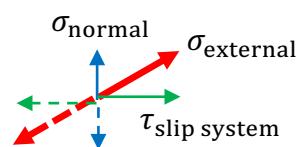
How?

By **resolving** the external load to slip system

여기서 resolve의 뜻은, 성분으로 '분해'하다.



Stress and Dislocation Motion

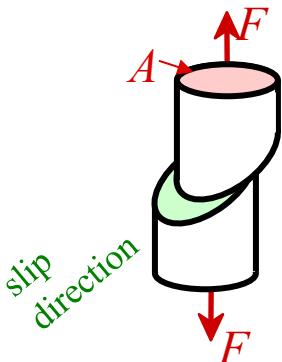


σ_{normal} does not contribute to dislocation slip;
 $\tau_{\text{slip system}}$ does;
 $\tau_{\text{slip system}}$ is called **resolved shear stress**

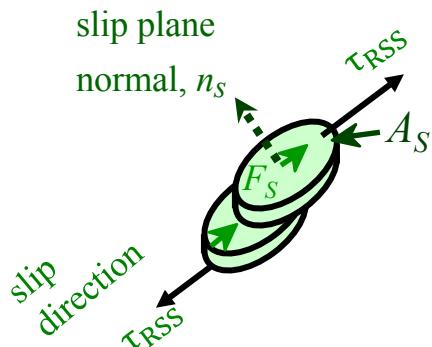
- Resolved shear stress, τ_{RSS} is obtained by resolving the externally applied stress on the slip system (plane/direction)

Applied tensile stress:

$$\sigma_{\text{external}} = F/A$$

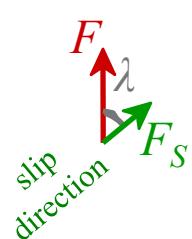


Resolved shear stress:
 $\tau_{\text{RSS}} = F_s/A_s$

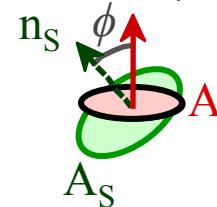


Relation between τ_{RSS} and σ_{external}

$$F_s = F \cos \lambda$$



$$A_s = \frac{A}{\cos \phi}$$



$$\tau_{\text{RSS}} = \frac{F_s}{A_s} = \frac{F \cos \lambda}{A / \cos \phi} = \frac{F}{A} \cos \lambda \cos \phi$$

$$\tau_{\text{RSS}} = \sigma \cos \lambda \cos \phi$$

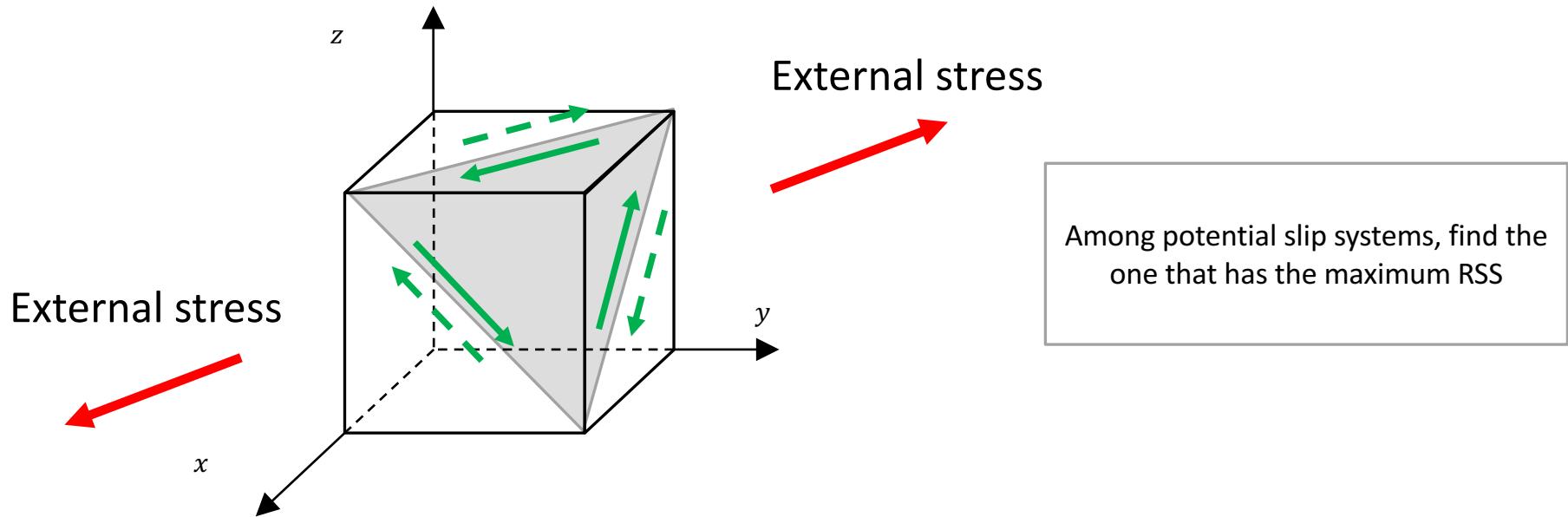
F: externally applied force
A: the cross sectional area of the external plane, on which F is operative
F_s: Force that acts on the slip system
A_s: the area of plane on which F_s is operative.

n_s: normal direction of the crystallographic slip plane
 τ_{RSS} : shear stress acting on the slip system (slip direction/plane)
 $\cos \lambda$: direction cosine between F and F_s
 $\cos \phi$: direction cosine between normals of slip plane and the external plane.

There can be many slip systems due to (rotational) crystallographic symmetry
Among them, the one that exhibits the maximum RSS will preferably slip.

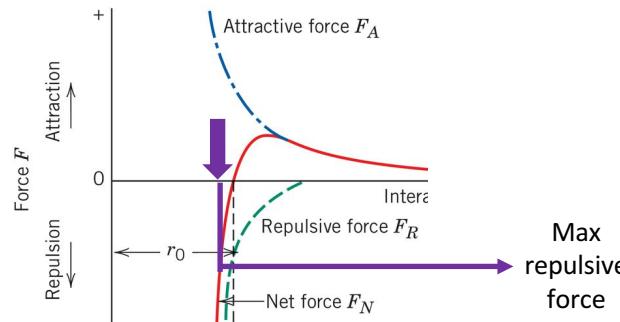
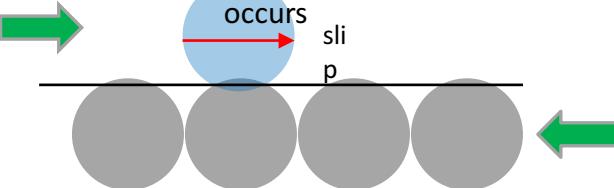
An inverse question: How to determine RSS? (next slide)

Critical Resolved Shear Stress



Critical Resolved Shear Stress (CRSS)

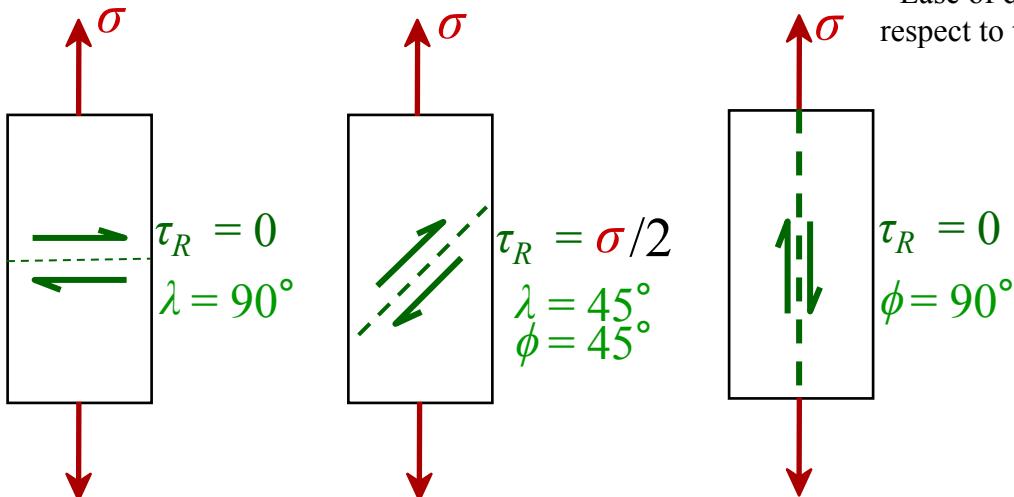
Atom position when maximum repulsive force occurs



For dislocation to slip, this max. force should be overcome

Max repulsive force is closely related with the resistance to slip (CRSS)

- Condition for dislocation motion (= condition for plastic yielding): If RSS reaches a certain (critical) value, the dislocation will start moving
- Ease of dislocation motion depends on crystallographic orientation with respect to the external loading direction



$$\tau_{RSS} = \sigma \cos \lambda \cos \phi$$

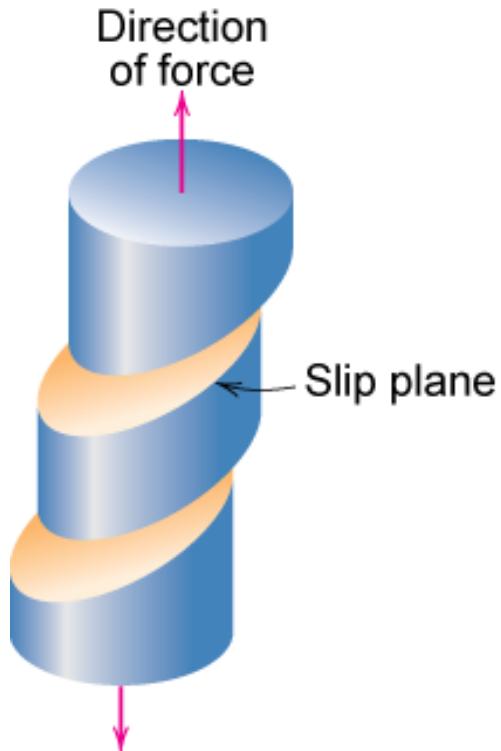
$\cos \lambda \cos \phi$: Schmid's (orientation) factor

Dislocation slip condition (\approx atomic yield condition)

$$\tau_{RSS} \geq \tau_{CRSS}$$

Slips of single crystal and polycrystal

Fig. 9.8, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.



Comparison



Adapted from Fig. 9.10, Callister & Rethwisch 9e. (Photomicrograph courtesy of C. Brady, National Bureau of Standards [now the National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD].)

Fig. 9.9, Callister & Rethwisch 9e. (From C. F. Elam, *The Distortion of Metal Crystals*, Oxford University Press, London, 1935.)

A single slip system is active.
Orientation of that slip system to external force is the same.

Orientations of grains are different from each other;
Active slip system in each grain depends on the orientation of each grain

Example: yield of single crystal

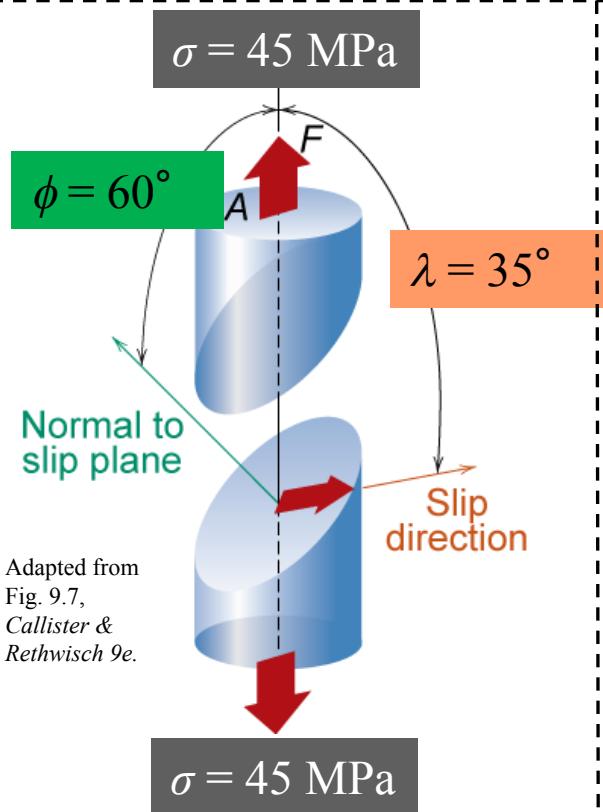
- a) Will the single crystal yield?
b) If not, what stress is needed?

$$\tau_{RSS} = \sigma \cos \lambda \cos \phi$$

We learned this equation that correlates the external loading (σ) and the orientation of slip system (λ, ϕ).

Condition 1. External load of 45 MPa

Condition 2. Slip system characterized by $\lambda = 35^\circ, \phi = 60^\circ$



Adapted from
Fig. 9.7,
*Callister &
Rethwisch 9e.*

Condition for dislocation to slip?

$$\tau_{RSS} \geq \tau_{CRSS}$$

Condition 1. $\tau_{CRSS} = 20.7 \text{ MPa}$

Condition 2. $\tau_{RSS} = \sigma \cos \lambda \cos \phi$
 $= 45 \cos 35^\circ \cos 60^\circ \text{ [MPa]}$
 $\approx 45 \times 0.819 \times 0.5 \approx 18.4 \text{ [MPa]}$

Check $\tau_{RSS} \geq \tau_{CRSS}$

45 MPa is not sufficient enough to cause this slip system ($\lambda = 35^\circ, \phi = 60^\circ$) to slip (yield)

Example: yield of single crystal

What external stress should be applied for a slip system to yield?

Dislocation slip condition:

$$\tau_{\text{CRSS}} = \tau_{\text{RSS}}$$

Dislocation slips when

$$\tau_{\text{CRSS}} \leq \tau_{\text{RSS}} = \sigma \cos \lambda \cos \phi$$

The yield stress (σ_Y) to this single crystal is:

$$\sigma_Y = \frac{\tau_{\text{CRSS}}}{\cos \lambda \cos \phi}$$

A single crystal is characterized by its orientation with respect to the external loading (λ, ϕ) and CRSS (τ_{CRSS})

Exercise 1.

For dislocation on (111)[1̄10] slip system to slip, what tensile stress should be applied? The slip system's orientation w.r.t. the tensile stress is characterized by two angles ($\phi = 30^\circ, \lambda = 25^\circ$) and its CRSS ($\tau_{\text{CRSS}} = 30 \text{ MPa}$)

$$\sigma_Y = \frac{\tau_{\text{CRSS}}}{\cos \lambda \cos \phi} = \frac{30 \text{ [MPa]}}{\cos 30^\circ \cos 25^\circ} \approx 38.2 \text{ [MPa]}$$

Therefore, for deformation to occur the applied stress must be greater than or equal to the yield stress of 38.2 [MPa]

Slip in polycrystals

- Polycrystals stronger than single crystals – **grain boundaries are barriers to dislocation motion.**
- Orientation of slip system (λ, ϕ) of a grain may differ from one to another.
- For a given external load, τ_{RSS} of a particular slip system will vary from one grain to another.
- Among various slip systems of many grains, the slip system with the largest τ_R yields first.
- Other (less favorably oriented) grains yield later.

Important conclusions:

If you make grains oriented in a particular way, you would be able to make the material stronger (by increasing the necessary σ_Y)

$$\sigma_Y = \frac{\tau_{CRSS}}{\cos \lambda \cos \phi}$$

Most of strengthening mechanisms focus on increasing τ_{CRSS}

~~Strengthening by crystal texture is limited for crystal structures with high crystallographic symmetry;~~

why?

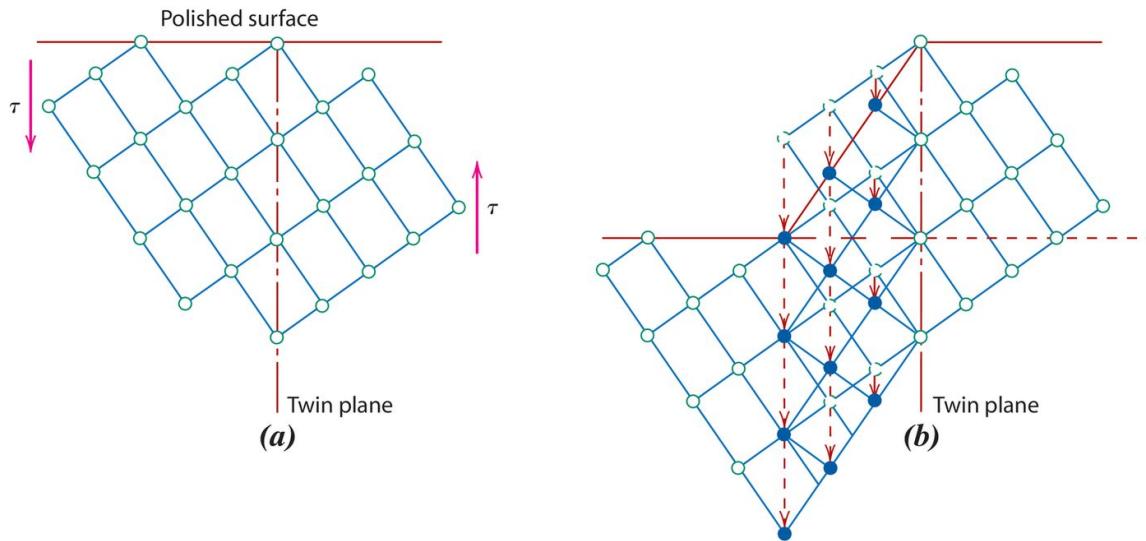
Because other members of the slip system family will become active if the orientation of grain is changed



Adapted from Fig. 9.10, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.
(Photomicrograph courtesy of C. Brady, National Bureau of Standards [now the National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD].)

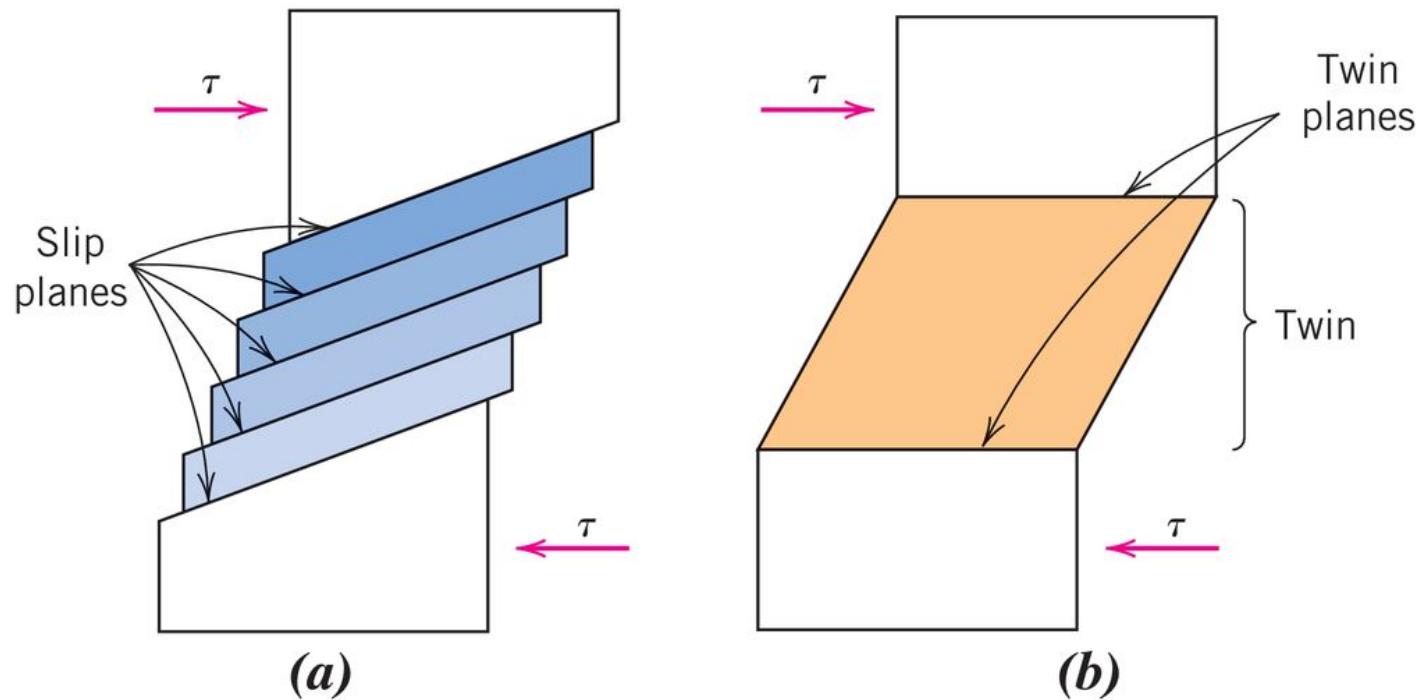
Twinning

- 지금까지 우리는 전위와 전위에 의한 소성변형 메카니즘인 슬립에 대해 배웠다.
- 사실 결정 상태의 금속이 소성변형을 일으키는 방법은 슬립만 있는 것은 아니다.
- 전단 응력을 받아 한 결정면을 중심으로 맞은 편의 원자들이 '거울'로 대칭이 되게 재정렬 (rearrangement)을 하는 경우가 있다. 이를 우리는 twinning이라고 한다.



From G. E. Dieter, Mechanical Metallurgy, 3rd edition. Copyright © 1986 by McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York. Reproduced with permission of McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Compare twinned region with region that is slipped



Slip 이 발생한 경우 Slipped region에서의 결정 방위가 일어나지 않은 곳과 동일하다.

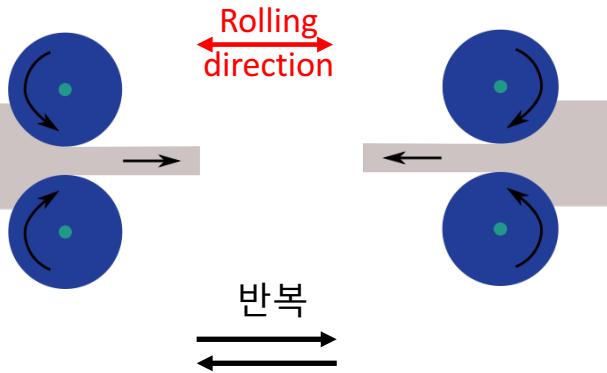
Twin 이 발생한 경우 Twinned region에서의 결정 방위가 일어나지 않은 곳과 다르다. – 단순히 다른 뿐만 아니라, mother region과 특정한 방위 관계를 가진다.

Anisotropy in σ_Y

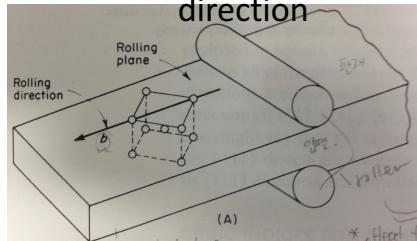
Strengthening by crystal texture is limited for crystal structures with high crystallographic symmetry; why?

Because other members of the slip system family will become active if the orientation of grain is changed

Yet, the crystal texture on yield stress is shown in polycrystalline metal alloys; particularly crystal structures with relatively low-symmetry

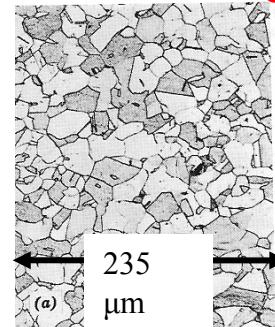


A certain crystal orientation is preferably aligned along a particular direction

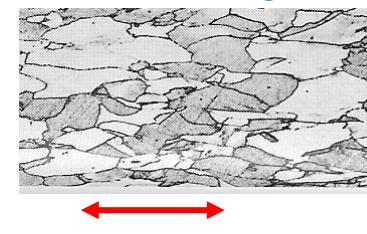


- Can be induced by rolling a polycrystalline metal

- before rolling



- after rolling

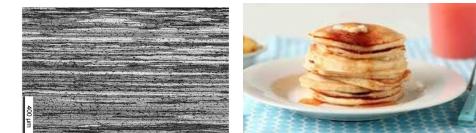


Adapted from Fig. 9.11,
Callister & Rethwisch 9e.
(from W.G. Moffatt, G.W.
Pearl, and J. Wulff, *The
Structure and Properties of
Materials*, Vol. I, *Structure*, p. 140,
John Wiley and Sons, New York,
1964.)

Rolling direction

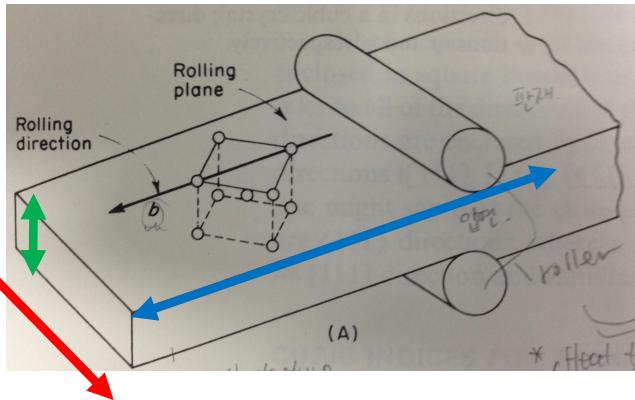
Isotropic
because grains are equiaxed
and randomly oriented.

Anisotropic
because rolling affects grain orientation
(crystal texture) and shape (morphological
texture; pancake structure).



Anisotropy in σ_Y

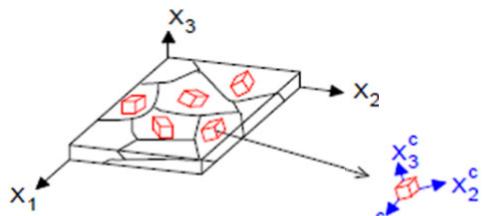
Image from Olaf Engler, MSEA Vol. 618 p654-662, 2014



ND; normal direction

RD; rolling direction

TD; transverse direction



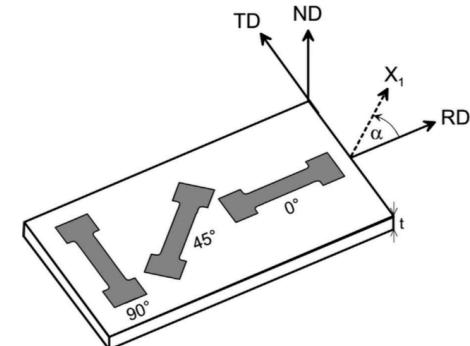
Each grain has a different crystal orientation

Isotropy

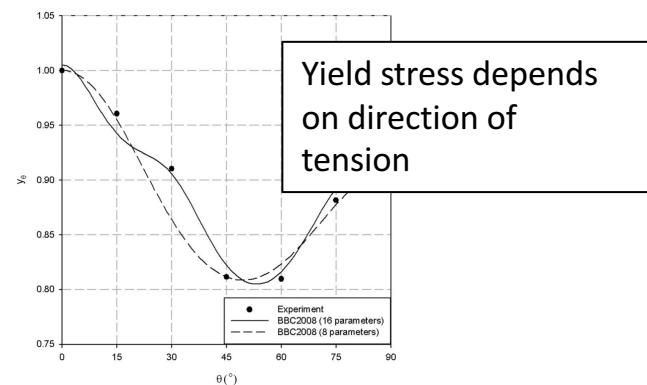
Statistically random

Statistically meaningful trend

Anisotropy



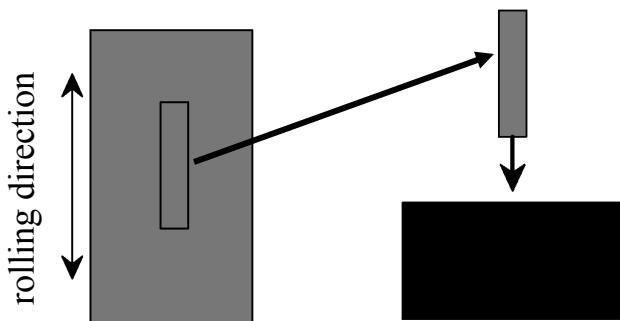
Cutting-off tensile specimens at various degrees from RD



Yield stress depends on direction of tension

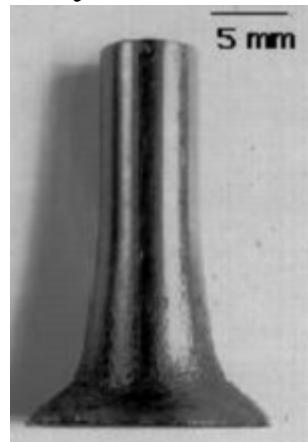
Anisotropy in Deformation

1. Cylinder of tantalum machined from a rolled plate:



2. Fire cylinder at a target.

3. Deformed cylinder



Photos courtesy of
G.T. Gray III, Los
Alamos National Labs.
Used with
permission.

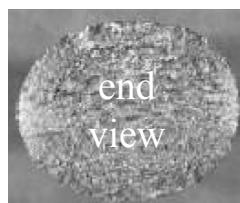


plate
thickness
direction



Earring profile of deep-drawn cups

- The noncircular (ellipsoidal) end view shows anisotropic deformation of rolled material.

Four Strategies for Strengthening:

1: Reduce Grain Size

- Grain boundaries are barriers to slip (discontinuous lattice)
- Barrier "strength" increases with increasing angle of misorientation
- Smaller grain size = more g.b. = more barriers
- Hall-Petch Equation:



$$\sigma_{\text{yield}} = \sigma_0 + k_y d^{-1/2}$$

σ_{yield} : 항복 강도

σ_0, k_y 재료 상수 (material constants)

d: average grain size (diameter)

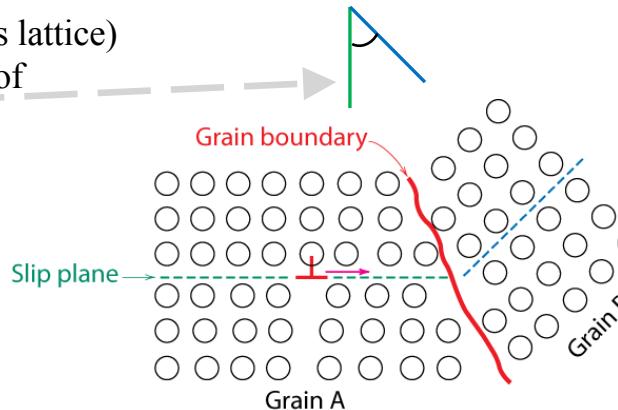
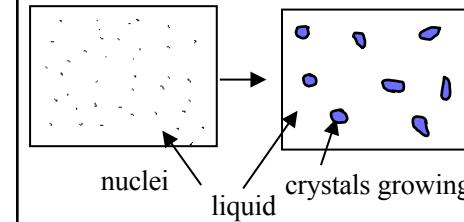


Fig. 9.14, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.
(From L. H. Van Vlack, *A Textbook of Materials Technology*, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1973.
Reproduced with the permission of the Estate of Lawrence H. Van Vlack.)

Methods to reduce grain size

1. Rapid cooling from liquid state

Inducing more nuclei to grow



2. Cold work

SPD; Grain fragmentation

Smaller grain size: more barriers to overcome



material strengthening

Four Strategies for Strengthening: 2: Solid Solutions Strengthening

Before discussing the solid solution hardening, we will briefly discuss what is a solid solution.

In chemistry, a solution is a homogeneous mixture of one or more solutes in a solvent.

Solute (용질): minor component

Solvent (용매): solute를 녹이는 물질 (host)

You all might be familiar with liquid solution such as saline water (소금물).

Saline water is a mixture of NaCl and H₂O. H₂O is the solvent, which is in its liquid state.

Notice that **1) NaCl is the minor component, whose amount is less than the solvent water** and **2) NaCl is 'homogeneously' distributed in the solvent.**



There are different types of solutions, where the solvent is in its gaseous or solidus state. For example, the air you inhale in the class room is a solution, which is a mixture of oxygen, nitrogen and others. Carbonated water (탄산수) is also a solution where the solute is a gaseous substance (dioxide; 이산화탄소) and the solvent is water.

Solid solution is a type of solution where solvent is in its solidus state. A good example is the steel, where Fe atoms are the solvent and carbons are dissolved in Fe. Development of hydrogen storage alloy is actively studied, which can serve to 'store' hydrogen safely.

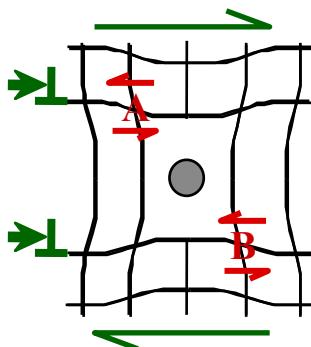
Four Strategies for Strengthening:

2: Solid Solutions Strengthening

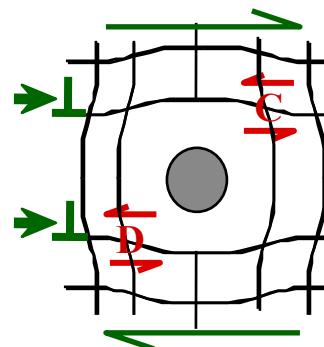
Impurity atoms distort the lattice & generate lattice stress (strains).

$$\sigma = E \frac{\Delta a}{a_0}$$

- These (stress) strains can act as barriers to dislocation motion (either repulsive or attractive).
- Smaller substitutional impurity
- Larger substitutional impurity



Repulsive force: 다가오는 dislocation을 막는다



Attractive force: 떠나가는 dislocation을 잡는다

Impurity generates local stress at **A** and **B** that opposes dislocation motion to the right.

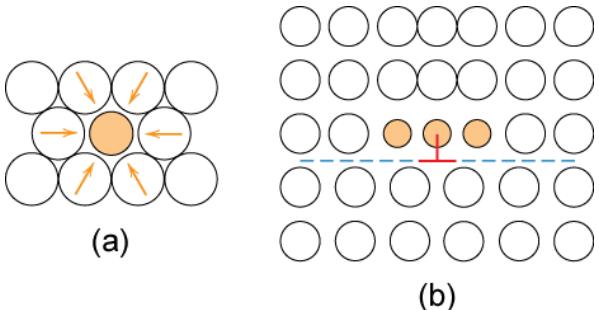
Lattice distortion (either compressive or tensile) prohibits dislocation motion



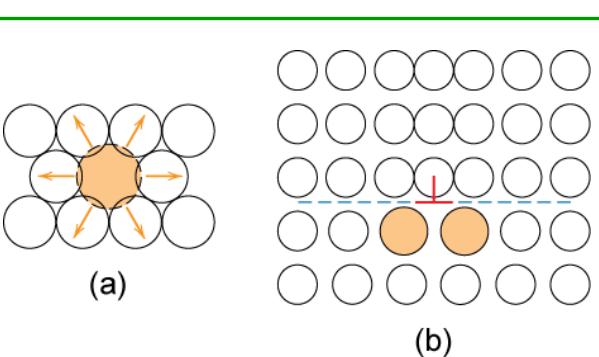
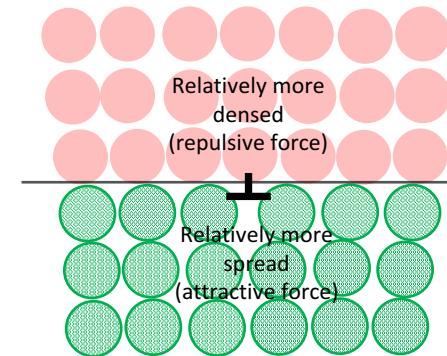
material strengthening

Four Strategies for Strengthening: 2: Solid Solutions Strengthening

- Large impurities tend to concentrate at dislocations (regions of **tensile** strains)



- Small impurities tend to concentrate at dislocations (regions of **compressive** strains)
 - partial cancellation of dislocation compressive strains and impurity atom tensile strains



Dislocations are 'pinned' by solutes
(either big or small)

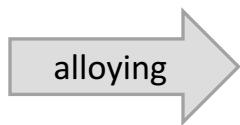


material
strengthening

Figs. 9.17, 9.18, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.

Example of Solid Solution Strengthening: Cu-Ni alloy

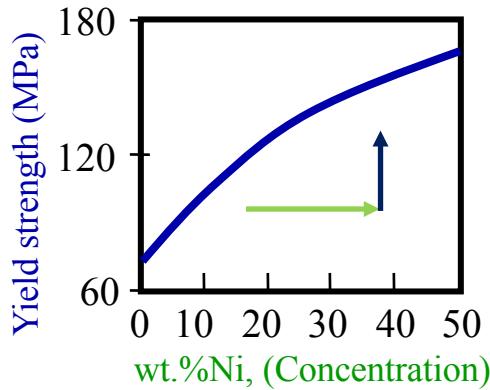
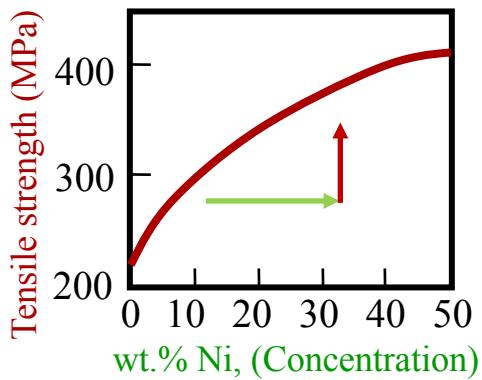
Pure metals are usually ductile and weak



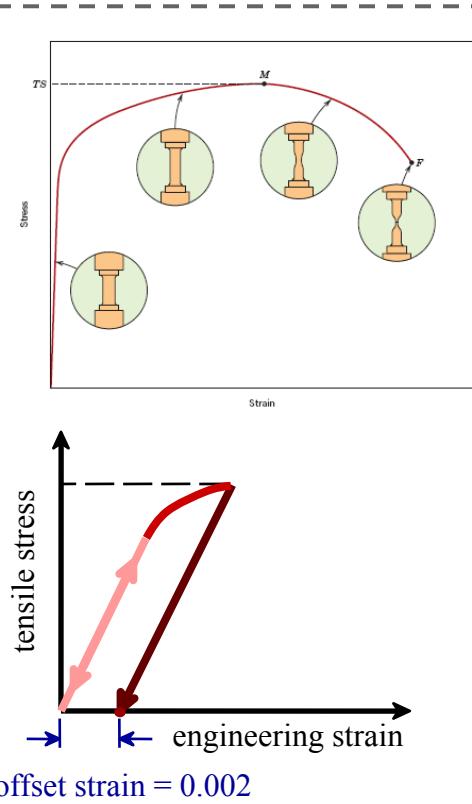
Strength ↑

Hardness ↑

- Tensile strength & yield strength increase with wt% Ni



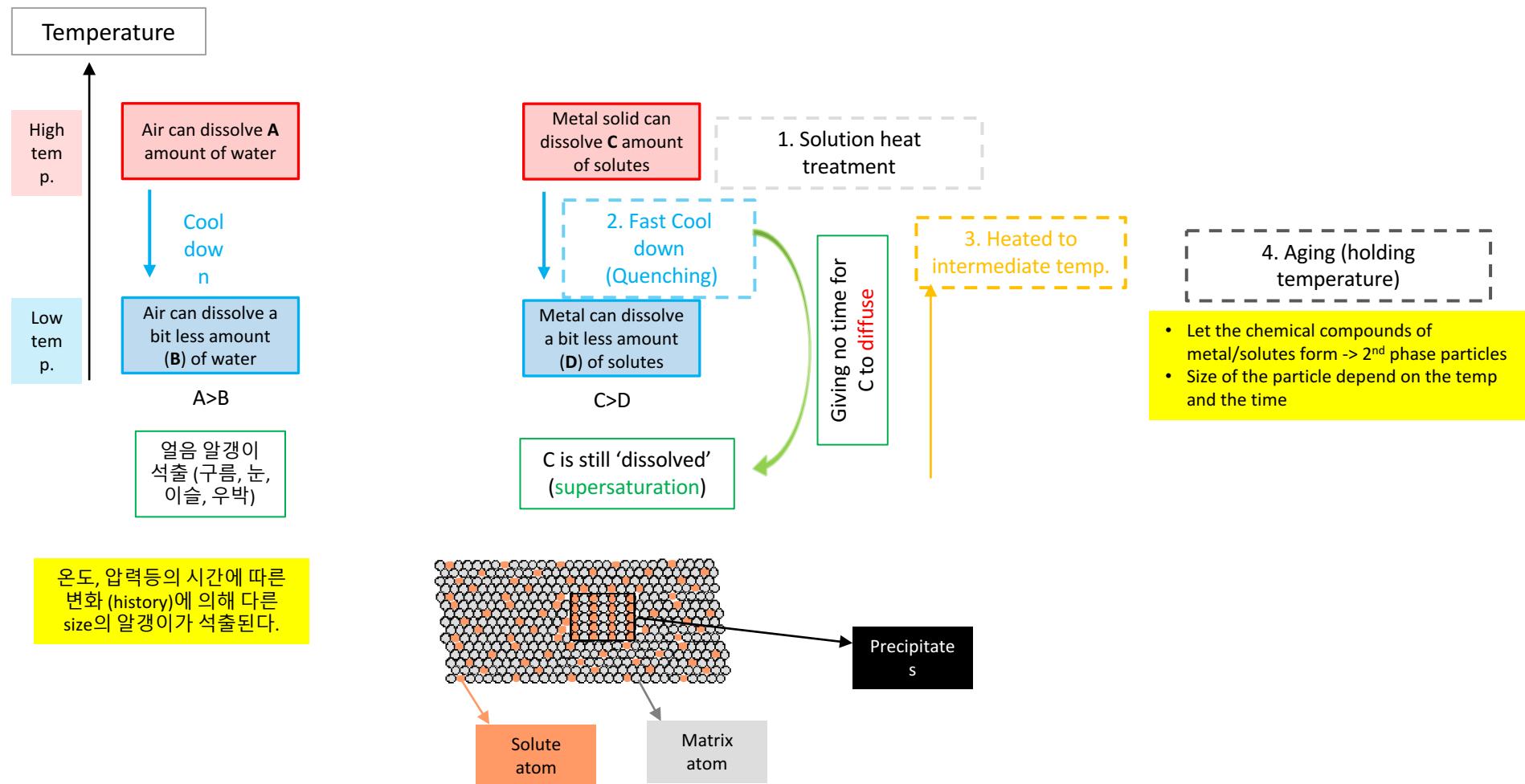
Adapted from Fig.
9.16 (a) and (b),
Callister &
Rethwisch 9e.



- Strength: 강도
- Hardness: 경도
- Concentration: 농도
- wt (%): weight percent; 무게비 (농도 단위); cf. at%; 원자비

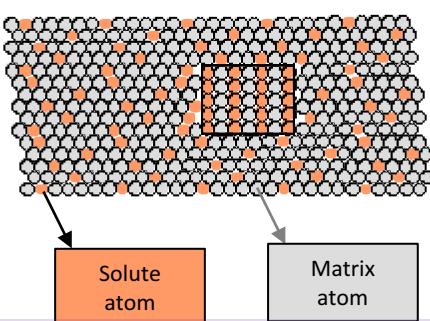
Four Strategies for Strengthening:

3: Precipitation Strengthening (Age hardening)

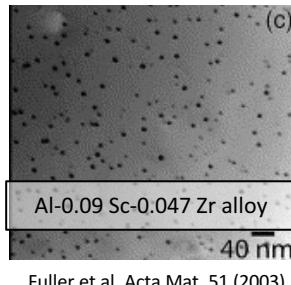


Four Strategies for Strengthening:

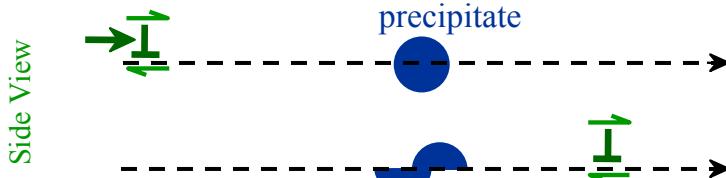
3: Precipitation Strengthening (Age hardening)



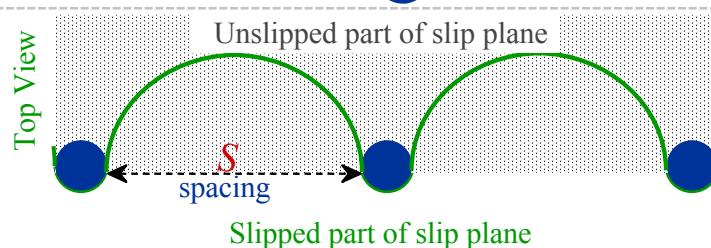
Precipitates: finely dispersed second phase particle



- Hard precipitates are difficult to shear.
Ex: Ceramics in metals (SiC in Iron or Aluminum).



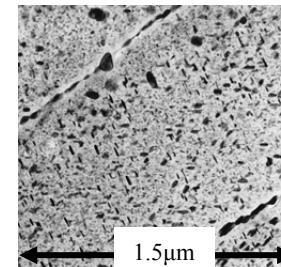
Large shear stress needed to move dislocation toward precipitate and shear it



Dislocation advances but precipitates act as 'pinning' sites with spacing S .



Applications



Aluminum is strengthened with precipitates formed by alloying.

Chapter-opening photograph, Chapter 11, *Callister & Rethwisch 3e.*
(Courtesy of G.H. Narayanan and A.G. Miller, Boeing Commercial Airplane Company.)

Adapted from Fig. 17.20, *Callister & Rethwisch 9e.* (Courtesy of G.H. Narayanan and A.G. Miller, Boeing Commercial Airplane Company.)

Dislocation Pinning Points

Dislocation pinning mechanisms provide strengthening by hindering dislocation motion

3 main sources of pinning points are discussed below

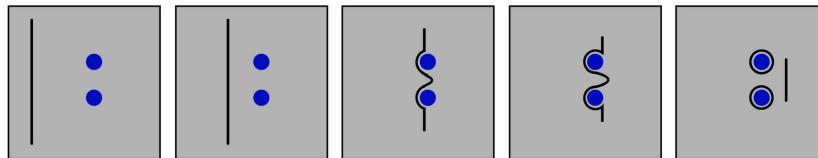
Point defects

Another dislocation;
Dislocation jogs, Dislocation kinks

Alloying elements

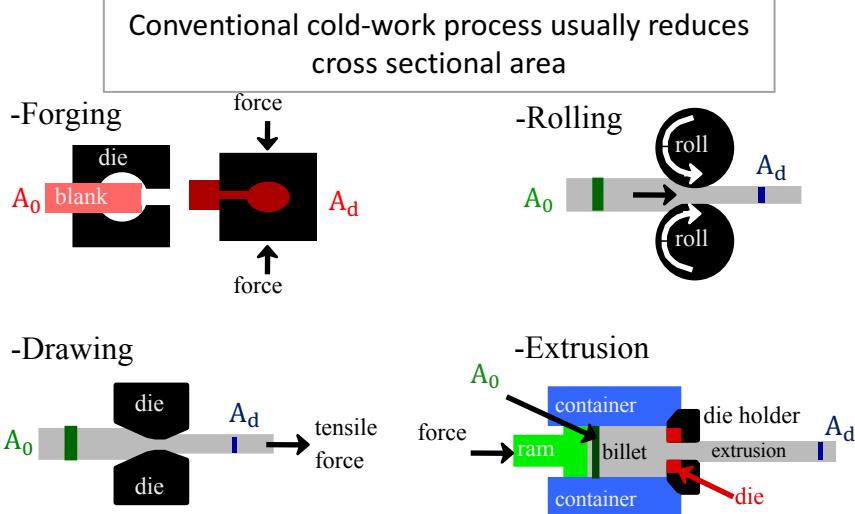
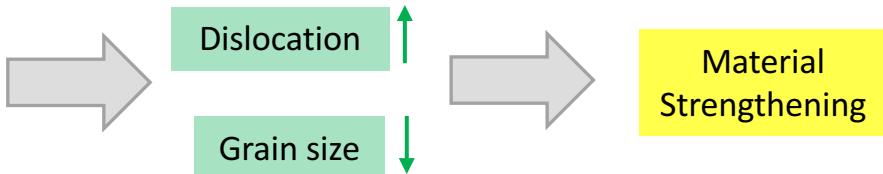
Alloying element is ‘foreign’ to matrix;
thus forming point defects which arise stress to the adjacent lattice

(2nd phase) Precipitates



Four Strategies for Strengthening: 4: Cold Work (Strain Hardening)

Cold Work (냉간 가공): deformation at room temperature (for most metals).

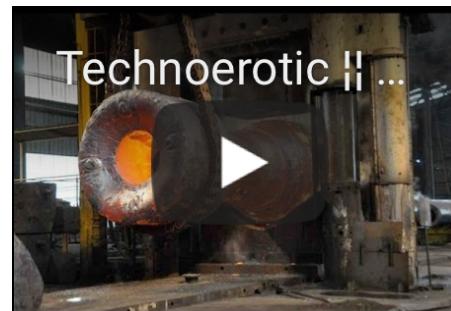


Adapted from Fig. 17.2, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.

Amount of cold-work is estimated by %CW

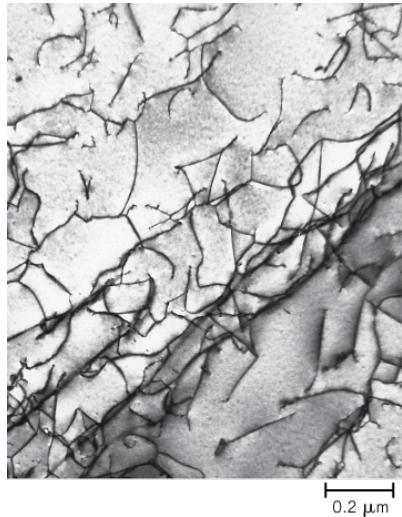
$$\%CW = \frac{A_0 - A_d}{A_0} \times 100$$

A_0 : initial cross section area
 A_d : final cross section area



Dislocation Structures Change During Cold Working

Plastic deformation that occurs during cold-work generates more dislocations, which means that the space between dislocations decreases (**disl. density increase**)



Dislocation structure in Ti after cold working.

- Dislocations entangle with one another during **cold work**.
- Dislocation motion becomes more difficult (**strengthening**)

Dislocation density 전위밀도 (ρ_d) =

- Carefully grown single crystals $\rightarrow 10^3 \text{ mm}^{-2}$
- Deforming sample increases density $\rightarrow 10^9\text{-}10^{10} \text{ mm}^{-2}$
- Heat treatment reduces density $\rightarrow 10^5\text{-}10^6 \text{ mm}^{-2}$

Yield strength increases as ρ_d increases

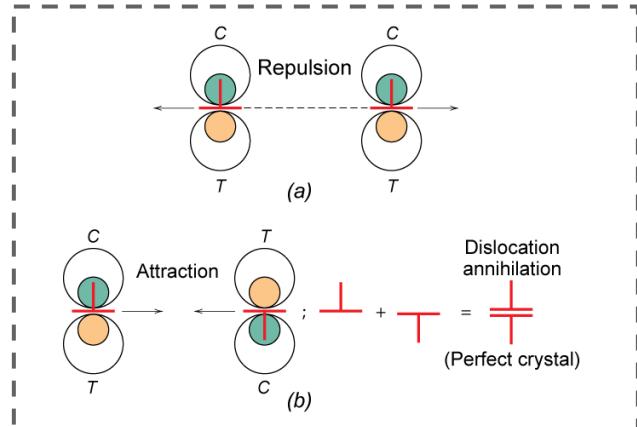


Fig. 6.12, Callister & Rethwisch 9e. (Courtesy of M.R. Plichta, Michigan Technological University.)

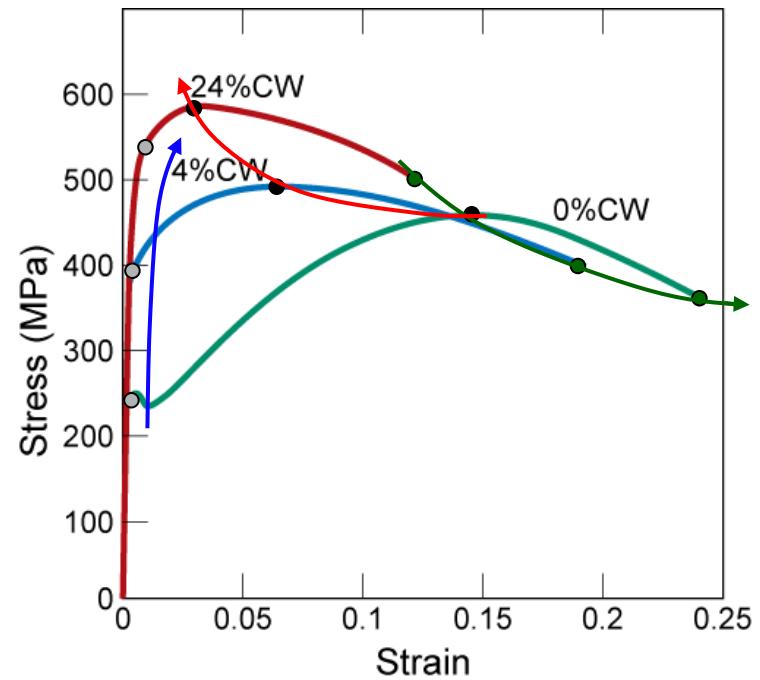
Impact of Cold Work

As cold-work is increased

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

보통 강도와 연성이 모두 높은 재료가 선호된다.
강도를 높이기 위해 냉간가공을 높이면 연성이
자연스럽게 낮아짐에 유의

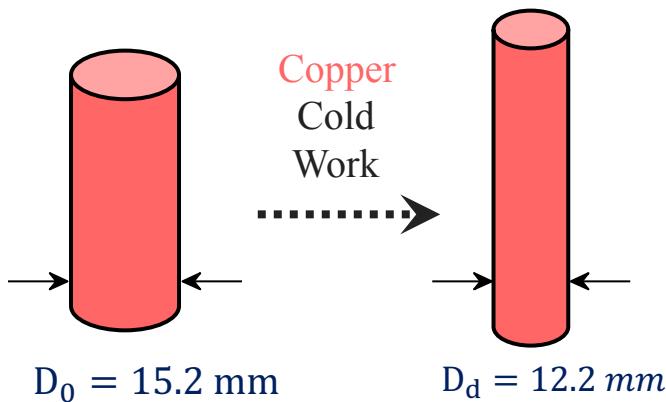
Changes in stress-strain curves of low carbon steels with increasing cold-work



Adapted from Fig. 9.20,
Callister & Rethwisch 9e.

Mechanical Property Alterations Due to Cold Working

- What are the values of yield strength, tensile strength and ductility after cold working Cu?



$$\% \text{CW} = \frac{A_0 - A_d}{A_0} \times 100 = \frac{\frac{\pi D_0^2}{4} - \frac{\pi D_d^2}{4}}{\frac{\pi D_0^2}{4}} \times 100 = \frac{D_0^2 - D_d^2}{D_0^2} \times 100$$

$$\% \text{CW} = \frac{15.2^2 - 12.2^2}{15.2^2} \times 100 \approx 35.6\%$$

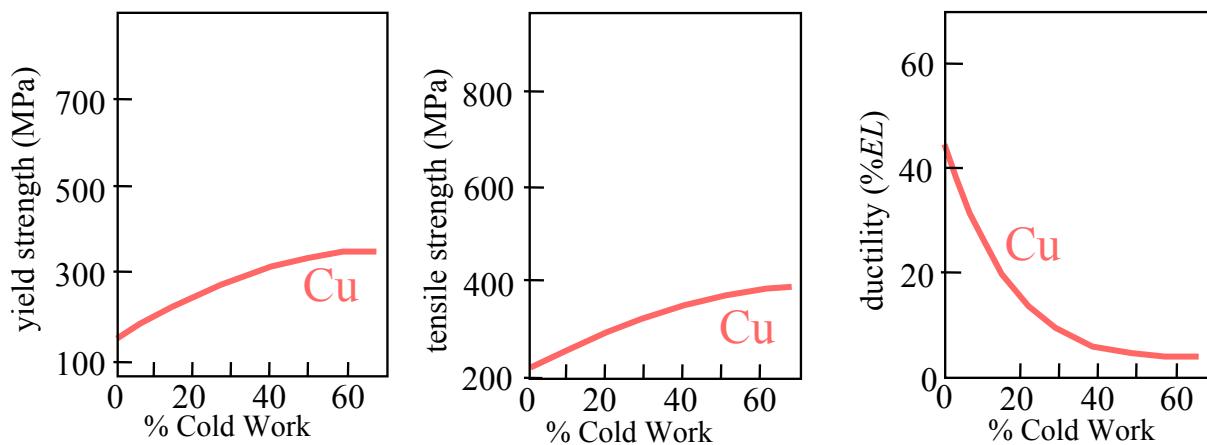


Fig. 9.19, Callister & Rethwisch 9e. [Adapted from *Metals Handbook: Properties and Selection: Irons and Steels*, Vol. 1, 9th edition, B. Bardes (Editor), 1978; and *Metals Handbook: Properties and Selection: Nonferrous Alloys and Pure Metals*, Vol. 2, 9th edition, H. Baker (Managing Editor), 1979. Reproduced by permission of ASM International, Materials Park, OH.]

Heat Treatment (열처리)

재료에 열을 가해 미세 조직을 변화시켜 원하는 물성 변화를 최종적으로 닾는 과정

다양한 열처리 기술이 존재한다 (시간과 온도 control)

Aging (Precipitation heat treatment): 석출물을 적절한 시간동안의 열처리를 통해 인위적으로 만들어내어 강도 증가: over-aging may reduce strength.

Annealing (풀림): 고온에 장시간 노출시킨후 천천히 냉각하는 공정. (상온->고온->상온)

Recovery: cold-work을 통해 얻어진 전위를 감소시키고, 내부 변형률 에너지 감소

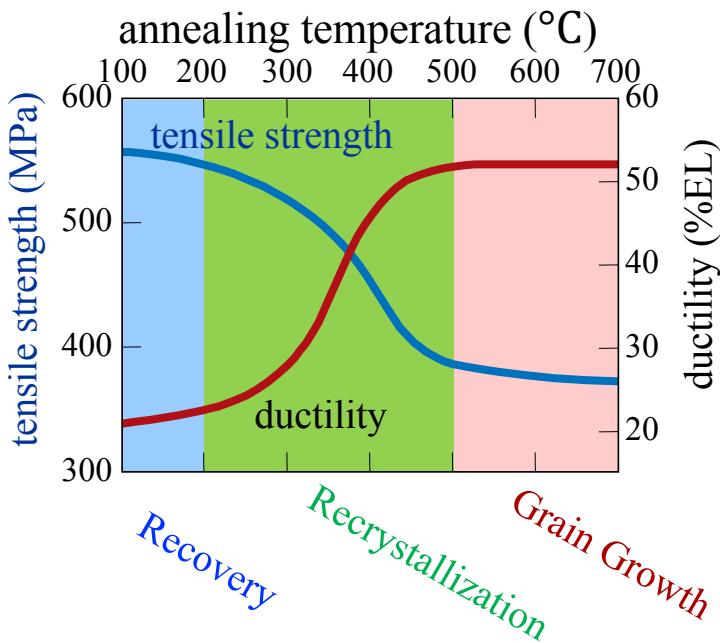
Recrystallization (재결정): cold-work 동안 dislocation과 내부 변형률 가득한 grain이 없어지고 새로운 grain (dislocation-free, strain-free)이 형성

Grain-growth; Grains created during recrystallization grows

Quenching (급속 냉각): 고온에 노출되어 있는 금속을 급속하게 냉각하는 공정; Steel의 경우 Martensite라는 불안정하지만 매우 강한 상(phase)을 얻을 수 있다.

Effect of Heat Treating After Cold Working

- 1 hour treatment at T_{anneal} decreases TS and increases $\%EL$.
- Effects of cold work (strength & hardness) are nullified!



- Three Annealing stages:
 1. Recovery
 2. Recrystallization →
 3. Grain Growth

To be discussed one
by one

Fig. 9.22, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.
(Adapted from G. Sachs and K. R. Van Horn,
*Practical Metallurgy, Applied Metallurgy
and the Industrial Processing of Ferrous and
Nonferrous Metals and Alloys*, 1940.
Reproduced by permission of ASM
International, Materials Park, OH.)

Anneal: (구워) 풀립하다
Nullify: 헛되게 하다

Three Stages During Heat Treatment: 1. Recovery

- Three Annealing stages:
 1. Recovery
 2. Recrystallization
 3. Grain Growth

Material is exposed to high temperature ($T > T_{\text{Room}}$) during annealing

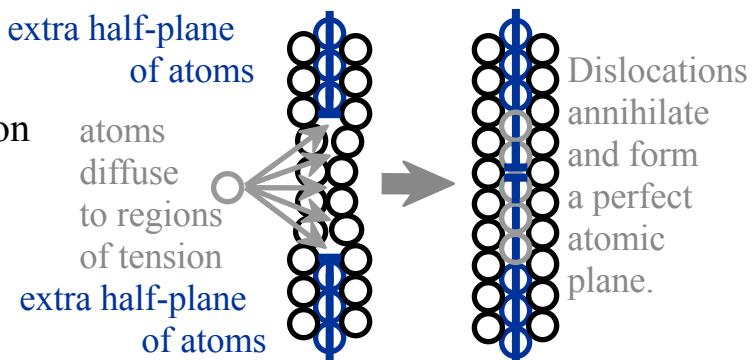
Note that **diffusion** (확산) of atoms are promoted at elevated temperature

*Diffusion is discussed in Chapter 7

Reduction of dislocation density by annihilation.

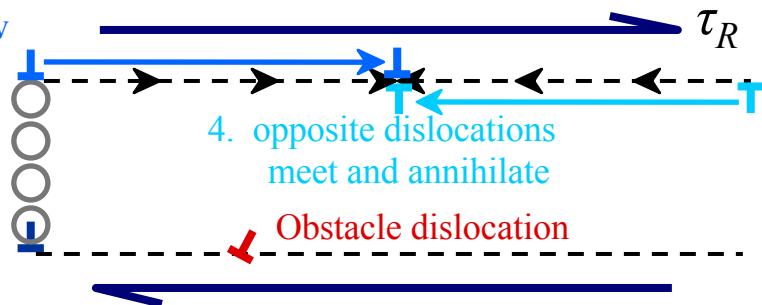
- Scenario 1

Results from diffusion



- Scenario 2

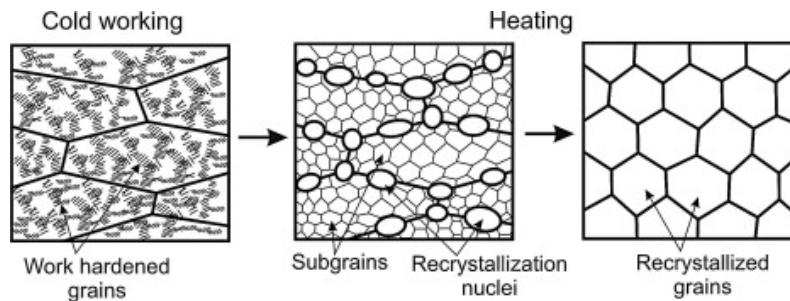
3. "Climbed" disl. can now move on new slip plane
2. grey atoms leave by vacancy diffusion allowing disl. to "climb"
1. dislocation blocked; can't move to the right



4. opposite dislocations meet and annihilate

Three Stages During Heat Treatment: 2. Recrystallization

- Three Annealing stages:
 1. Recovery
 2. Recrystallization
 3. Grain Growth



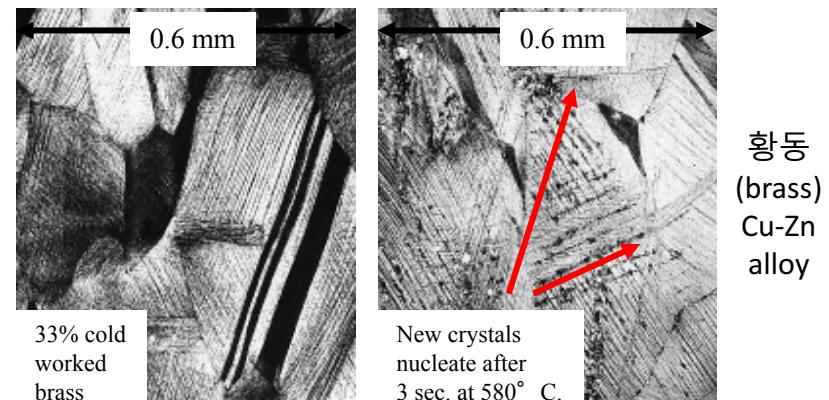
Energy state comparison
Grains with high dislocation density > Grains without dislocation

Grains without dislocation is energetically more preferred.

Heat assists grains with high energy to become new grains with low energy

See Fig. 9.21 Page 288

- New grains are formed that:
 - have low dislocation densities
 - are small in size
 - consume and replace parent cold-worked grains.

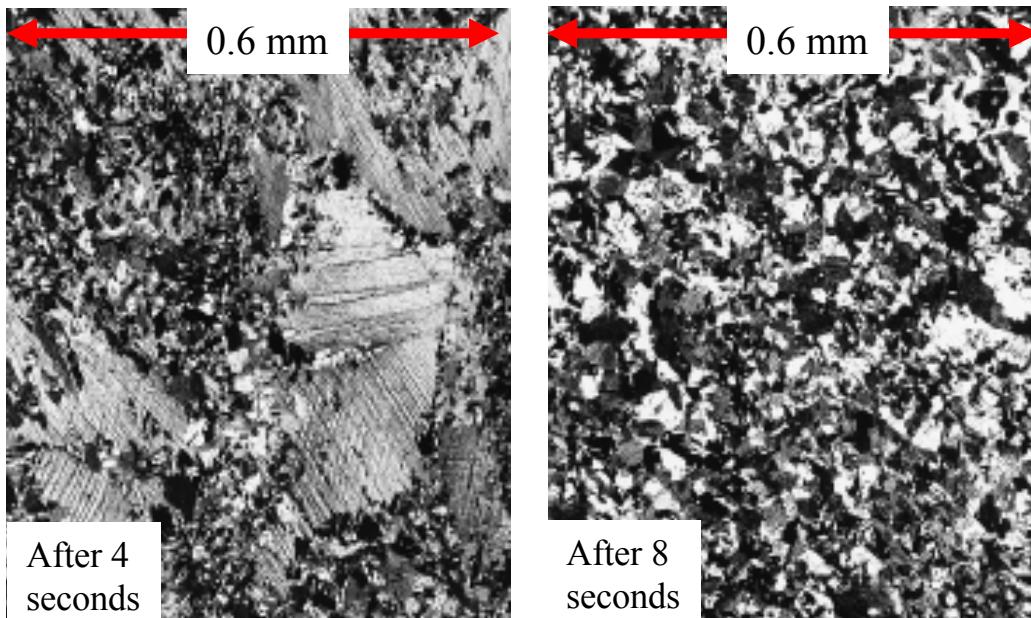


Adapted from Fig. 9.21 (a),(b), Callister & Rethwisch 9e. (Photomicrographs courtesy of J.E. Burke, General Electric Company.)

As Recrystallization Continues...

- Three Annealing stages:
 1. Recovery
 2. Recrystallization
 3. Grain Growth

- All cold-worked grains are eventually consumed/replaced.



Adapted from Fig.
9.21 (c),(d),
*Callister &
Rethwisch 9e.*
(Photomicrographs
courtesy of J.E. Burke,
General Electric
Company.)

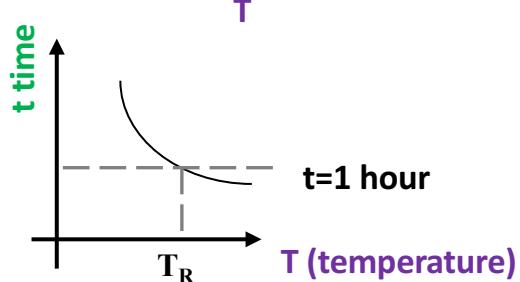
Recrystallization temperature

Recrystallization rate depends on **temperature** and **time**.

Recrystallization process



t varies depending on temperature



Changes in cold-worked brass during 1 hour of annealing at various temperature

Changes in mechanical properties

Changes in grain size

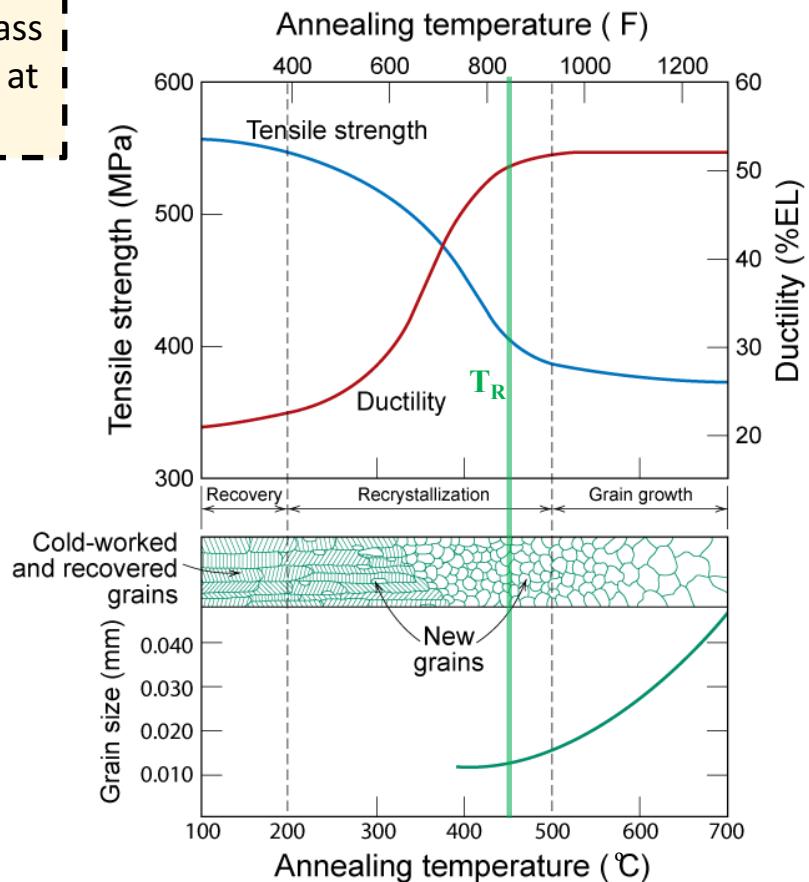


Fig. 9.22, Callister & Rethwisch 9e. (Adapted from G. Sachs and K. R. Van Horn, *Practical Metallurgy, Applied Metallurgy and the Industrial Processing of Ferrous and Nonferrous Metals and Alloys*, 1940. Reproduced by permission of ASM International, Materials Park, OH.)

Recrystallization temperature; Summary

Recrystallization process



T_R = **recrystallization temperature** = temperature at which recrystallization just reaches completion **in 1 hour**.

$$0.3T_m < T_R < 0.6T_m \quad T_m: \text{melting temperature}$$

For a specific metal/alloy, T_R depends on:

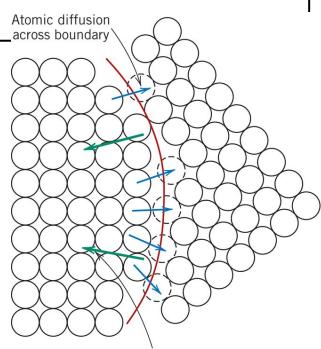
- The amount of cold work (%CW): T_R decreases with increasing %CW
- Purity of metal: T_R decreases with increasing purity; Adding alloying elements will delay completion of recrystallization.

Three Stages During Heat Treatment: 3. Grain Growth

- Three Annealing stages:
 1. Recovery
 2. Recrystallization
 3. Grain Growth

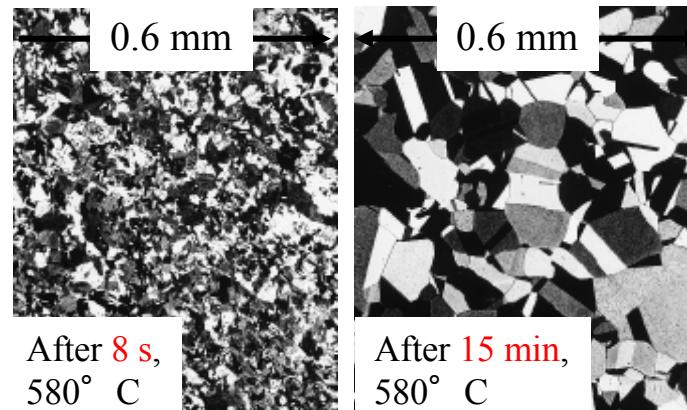
After recrystallization, the grains are dislocation-free. However, if exposed to heat, grains further

grow. The driving force for grains to grow comes from grain boundaries (the energy state of g.b. is higher than that of grain). Therefore, by growing grains (=reducing g.b.), the total energy reduces.



Adapted from L. H. Van Vlack, Elements of Materials Science and Engineering, 6th edition. © 1989 by Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

- At longer annealing time, average grain size **increases**.
 - Small grains shrink (and ultimately disappear)
 - Large grains continue to grow



Adapted from Fig. 11.21 (d),(e), Callister & Rethwisch 9e. (Photomicrographs courtesy of J.E. Burke, General Electric Company.)

- Empirical Relation (eq. 9.9):

exponent typ. ~ 2

grain diam.
at time t.

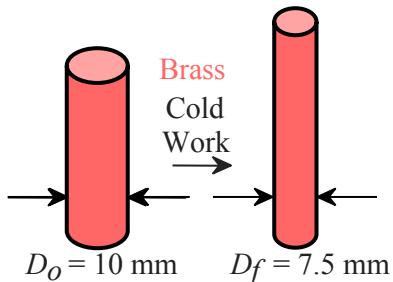
$$d^n - d_o^n = Kt$$

coefficient dependent
on material and T .
elapsed time

Diameter Reduction Procedure

A cylindrical rod of **brass** originally **10 mm** in diameter is to be cold worked by drawing. The circular cross section will be maintained during deformation. A cold-worked **tensile strength in excess of 380 MPa** and a **ductility of at least 15 %EL** are desired. Furthermore, **the final diameter must be 7.5 mm**. Explain how this may be accomplished.

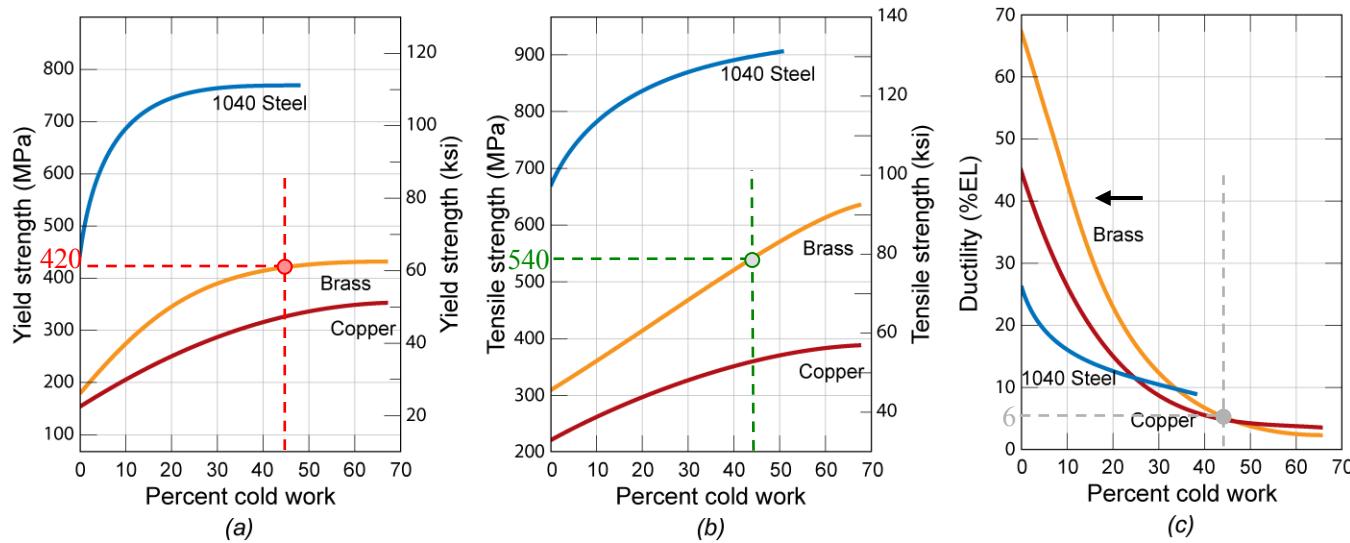
What are the consequences of directly drawing to the final diameter?



$$\begin{aligned}\% \text{CW} &= \left(\frac{A_o - A_f}{A_o} \right) \times 100 = \left(1 - \frac{A_f}{A_o} \right) \times 100 \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{\pi D_f^2 / 4}{\pi D_o^2 / 4} \right) \times 100 = \left(1 - \left(\frac{7.5}{10} \right)^2 \right) \times 100 = 43.8\%\end{aligned}$$

The influence of cold-work on mechanical properties should be found from database.

Diameter Reduction Procedure – Solution (cont.)

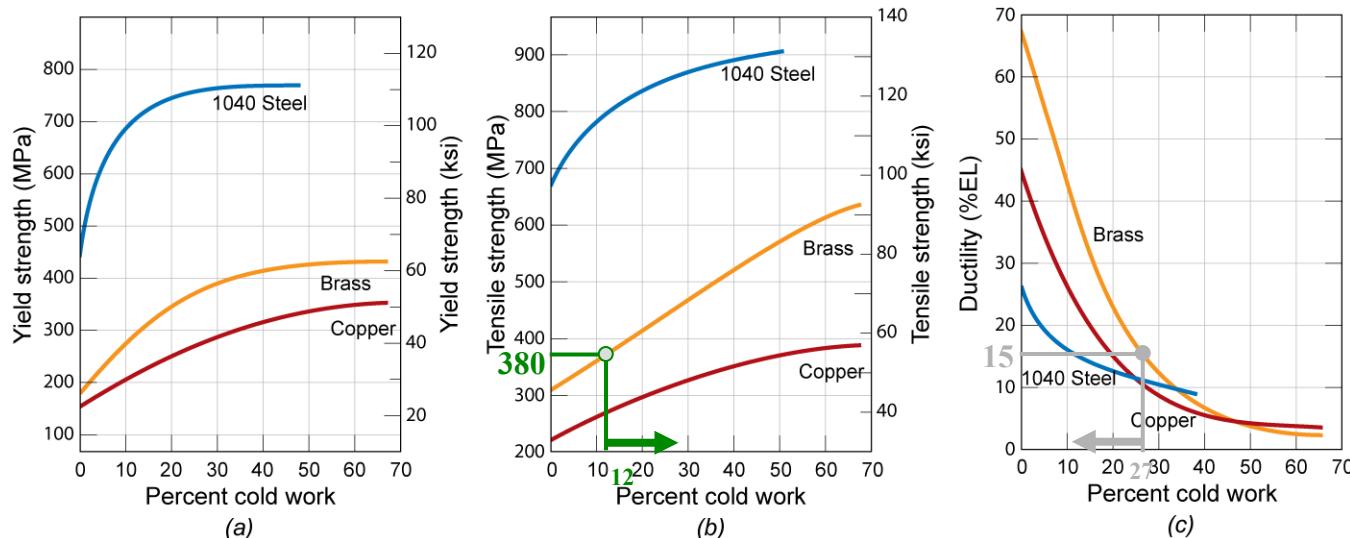


- For %CW = 43.8%
 - $\sigma_y = 420 \text{ MPa}$
 - $TS = 540 \text{ MPa} > 380 \text{ MPa}$
 - $\%EL = 6 < 15$
- This doesn't satisfy criteria... what other options are possible?

Fig. 9.19, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.

[Adapted from *Metals Handbook: Properties and Selection: Irons and Steels*, Vol. 1, 9th edition, B. Bardes (Editor), 1978; and *Metals Handbook: Properties and Selection: Nonferrous Alloys and Pure Metals*, Vol. 2, 9th edition, H. Baker (Managing Editor), 1979. Reproduced by permission of ASM International, Materials Park, OH.]

Diameter Reduction Procedure – Solution (cont.)



For $TS > 380 \text{ MPa}$

→ $> 12 \% \text{ CW}$

For $\%EL > 15$

→ $< 27 \% \text{ CW}$

∴ our working range is limited to $12 < \% \text{ CW} < 27$

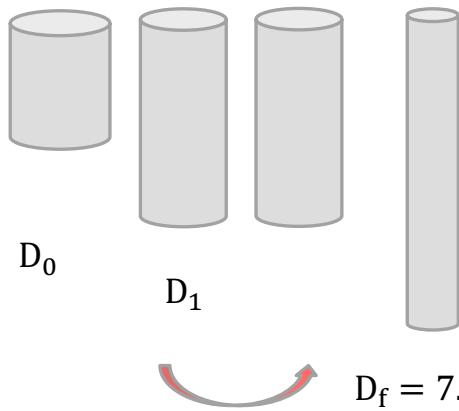
Fig. 9.19, Callister & Rethwisch 9e.

[Adapted from *Metals Handbook: Properties and Selection: Irons and Steels*, Vol. 1, 9th edition, B. Bardes (Editor), 1978; and *Metals Handbook: Properties and Selection: Nonferrous Alloys and Pure Metals*, Vol. 2, 9th edition, H. Baker (Managing Editor), 1979. Reproduced by permission of ASM International, Materials Park, OH.]

Diameter Reduction Procedure – Solution (cont.)

Suggested solution: 1) Cold work, 2) then anneal, then 3) cold work again

- For objective we need a cold work of $12 < \%CW < 27$
 - We'll use **20 %CW**
- Diameter after 1st cold work stage (but before 2nd cold work stage) is calculated as follows:



Find what value of the intermediate diameter D_1 will allow us to have the CW% of 20.

$$(1 - D_f^2/D_1^2) \times 100 = 20$$

$$(1 - 7.5/D_1^2) \times 100 = 20$$

$$D_1 = 8.39 \text{ [mm]}$$

Anneal – nullify the effects of CW

Diameter Reduction Procedure – Summary

Stage 1: Cold work – reduce diameter from 10 mm to 8.39 mm

$$\%CW_1 = \left(1 - \left(\frac{8.39 \text{ mm}}{10 \text{ mm}} \right)^2 \right) \times 100 = 29.6$$

Stage 2: Heat treat (allow recrystallization) -> recover to properties before cold-work

Stage 3: Cold work – reduce diameter from 8.39 mm to 7.5 mm

$$(1 - 7.5^2/8.39^2) \times 100 = 20 [\%CW]$$

Fig 9.19
⇒

$\sigma_Y \approx 340 \text{ MPa}$
 $\sigma_{TS} \approx 410 \text{ MPa}$
 $\%EL \approx 23\%$

Therefore, all criteria satisfied.

Recap

- 전단 응력에 의한 전위의 이동 그에 따른 소성 변형
- Dislocation and lattice distortion
 - Interaction between dislocations
- Slip system – closed-packed plane and close-packed direction.
- Twinning. Difference between twinning and slip.
- 입계의 전위 이동 방해 – grain boundary acts as barrier to dislocations
- Interaction between dislocation and strain field – strain hardening (변형률 강화), cold working (냉간 가공)
- Heat treatment (열처리); Annealing, recovery, recrystallization and grain growth.

Recap

