



Appunti universitari

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Rilegature

NUMERO: 2383A

ANNO: 2018

A P P U N T I

STUDENTE: Pirro Giulia

**MATERIA: Pirro Giulia -Technology of Construction Material -
Prof. Matteis Serrapede**

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**ATTENZIONE: QUESTI APPUNTI SONO FATTI DA STUDENTIE NON SONO STATI VISIONATI DAL DOCENTE.
IL NOME DEL PROFESSORE, SERVE SOLO PER IDENTIFICARE IL CORSO.**

Steel production

World steel production (2016):

≈ 1630 million tons / year

≈ 210 kg / person / year

All other metals together:

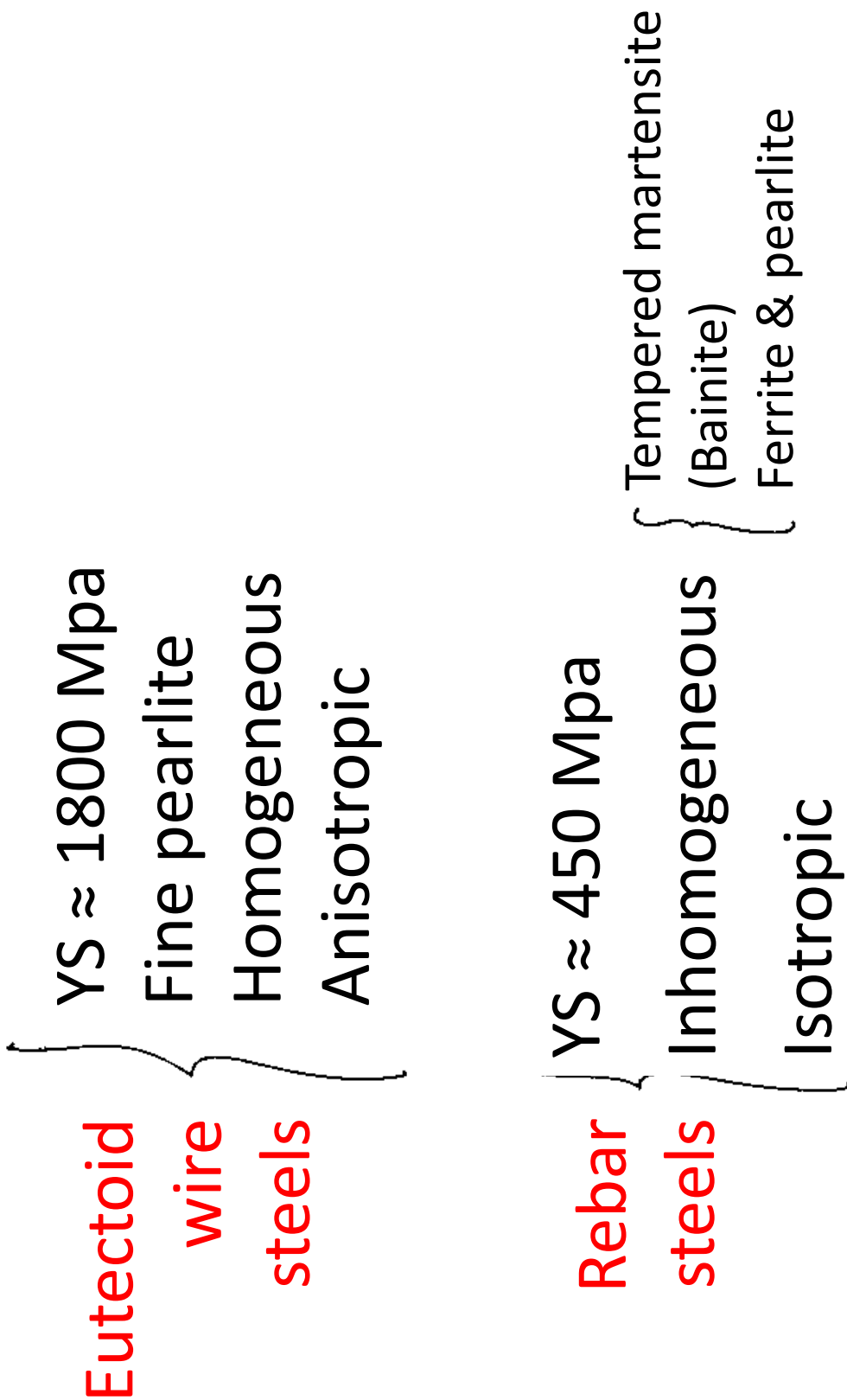
less than 100 million tons / year

Steel production by country (2016):

China (1st): ≈ 803 million tons / year

Italy (11th): ≈ 23 million tons / year

Steel grades - examples



6.03.18

lunedì 5 marzo 2018 17:32

1) EUTECTOID WIRE STEEL (0,8 carb) $\phi \approx 1 \text{ mm}$
 ↳ suspended structures, cables

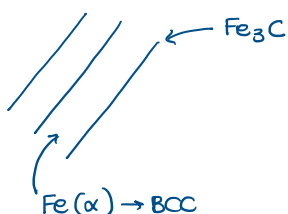
$$\sigma_s = 1800 \text{ MPa}$$

limit of elastic behaviour (yielding stress)

MICROSTRUCTURE

- Fine pearlite
- Homogeneous
- Not isotropic

~ microstructure: distribution of phases at the dimension of a micro
 ~ pearlite: very fine "lamelle" in two phases



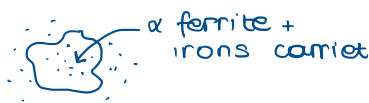
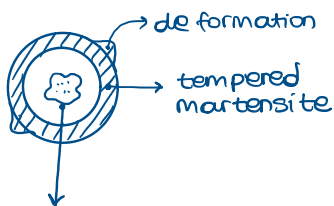
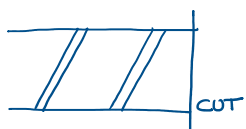
~ Not isotropic: because lamelles are oriented in only one direction (parallel to each other)

2) REINFORCEMENT BARS (0,2 carbon)

$$\sigma_s = 450 \text{ MPa (in Italy)}$$

↳ different in other countries

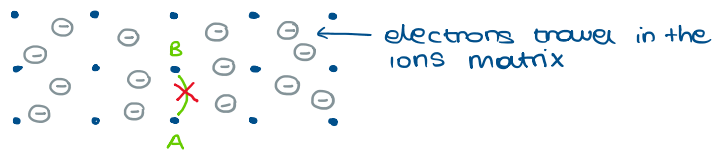
- NOT HOMOGENEOUS (in the most common case, in other cases it is homogeneous)



ferrite-pearlite
 (more rough than before so distance between lamelle is larger than $1 \mu\text{m}$ so larger than before ~ fine pearlite) + isotropic because lamelles are oriented in a random way

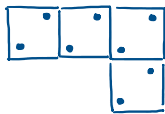
TENSILE TEST

LATTICE CRYSTAL (set of points)



METALLIC BOND: not direction (each ion isn't directly linked to only one of another: A isn't only linked to B, it's a combination of effect)
~ high stiff
~ high strength

To obtain the lattice we built a cell and repeat it in space



Metals (including **pure metals and alloys**) consist of **atoms** and are characterized by **metallic bonding** (i.e., the valence electrons of each atom are delocalized and shared among all the atoms).

Most of the elements in the Periodic Table are metals.

Alloys are classified according to their main element. The main classes of alloys are:

- **iron-based alloys** for structures;
- **copper-based alloys** for piping, thermal & electrical conduction, etc.;
- **aluminum-based alloys** for lightweight structures.

Usually metals are:

- Stiff => strength of the metallic chemical bond
- Conductors of electricity and heat => presence of mobile electrons inside metallic chemical bond

METALS

Most metallic materials have these crystal structures:

- body-centered cubic (BCC) or
- face-centered cubic (FCC) or
- hexagonal close-packed (HCP)

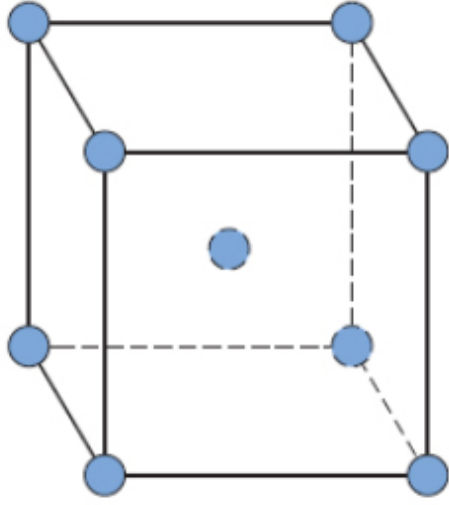
These structures are very common because they have:

high packing

if atoms are tightly packed, the free energy of the crystal is low and thus the crystal is **thermodynamically stable**

Body-centered cubic crystal structure (BCC)

Calculations



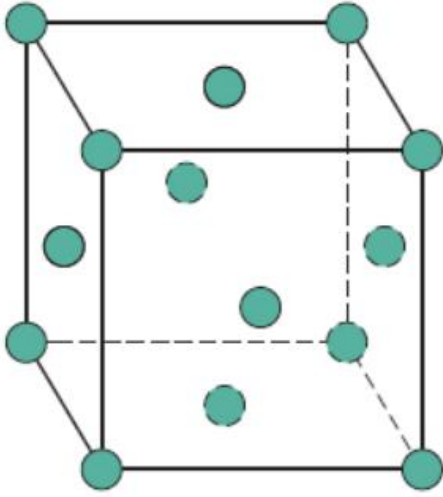
Unit cell contains:
 $1 + 8 \times 1/8$
 $= 2 \text{ atoms/unit cell}$

$$\frac{\text{atoms}}{\text{unit cell}} = \frac{2}{\frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}a}{4}\right)^3} = \frac{2}{\frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}a}{4}\right)^3} \times \frac{a^3}{a^3} = \frac{2}{\frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}a}{4}\right)^3} \times \frac{\text{volume}}{\text{volume}}$$

$\frac{\text{volume}}{\text{atom}}$
 $\frac{\text{volume}}{\text{unit cell}}$

Atomic packing factor (APF) =

Face-centered cubic (FCC) crystal structure calculations



Unit cell contains:
 $6 \times 1/2 + 8 \times 1/8$
= 4 atoms/unit cell

Atomic packing factor (APF):

$$\begin{aligned} &= \text{volume of four atoms} \div \text{volume of cube} \\ &= 4 \times (4\pi r^3/3) \div (16\sqrt{2}r^3) = \pi\sqrt{2}/6 = 74.05\% \end{aligned}$$

Stacking of close-packed planes in FCC and HCP crystals

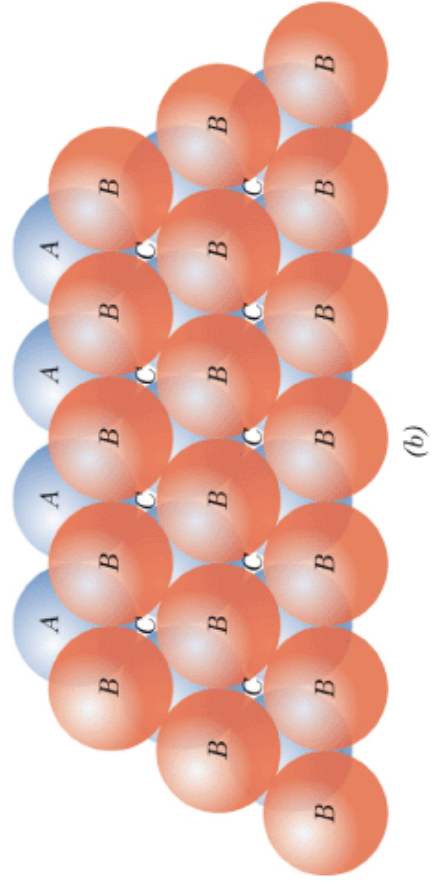
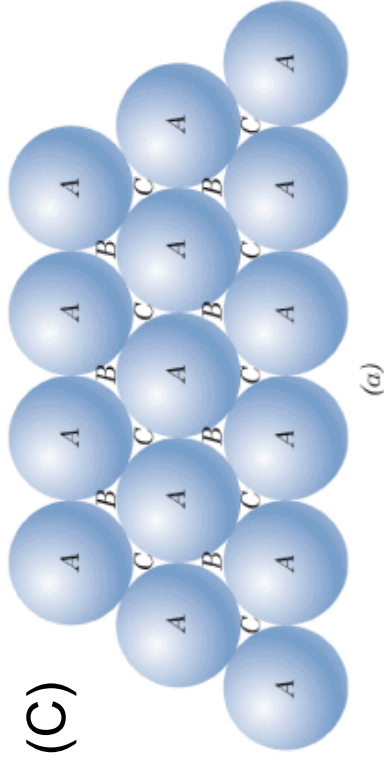
2nd plane - B:

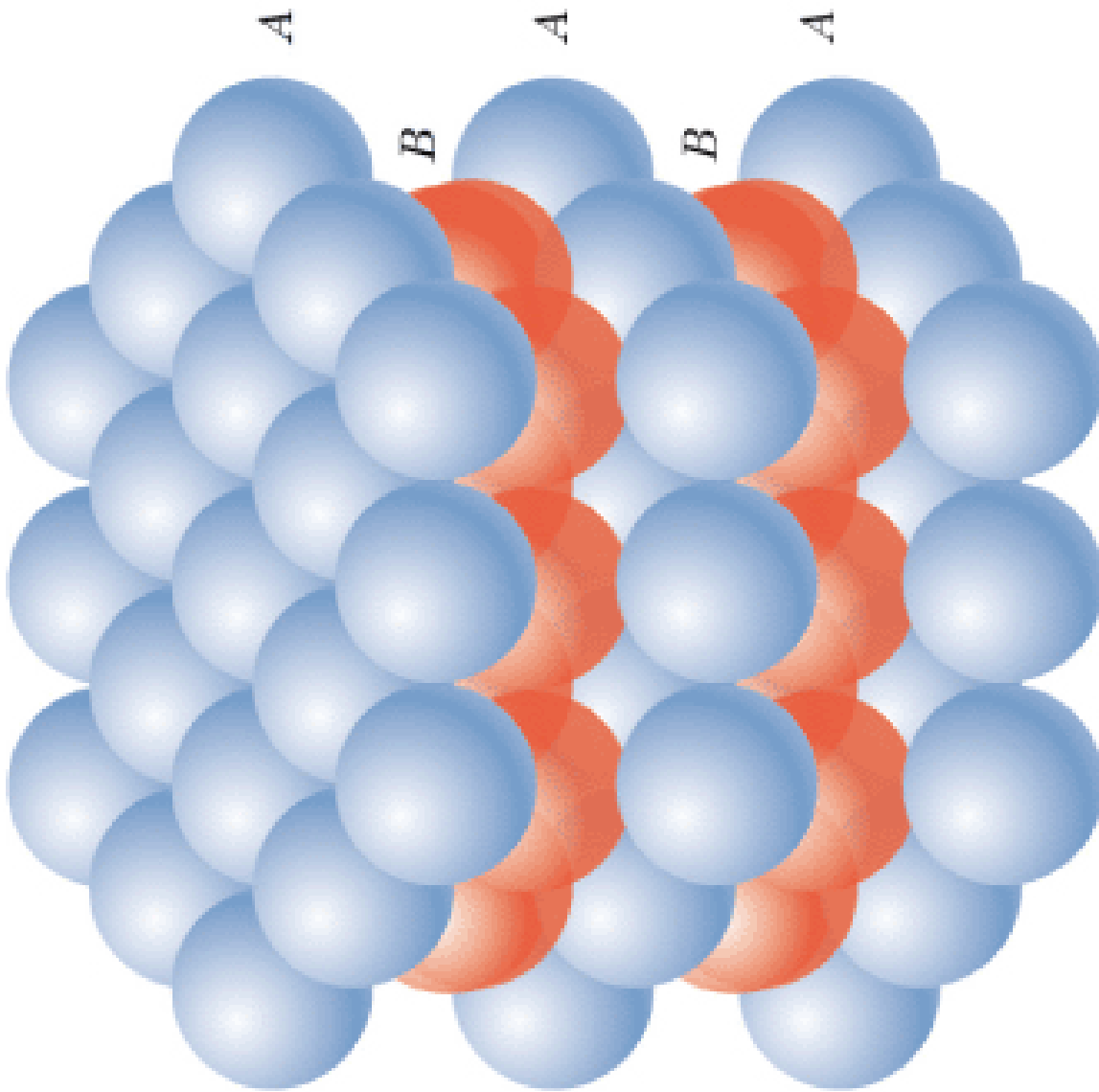
- Each 2nd-plane atom touches three 1st-plane atoms
- 50% of 1st-plane voids are used in the 2nd plane

3rd plane - 2 possibilities, C or A:

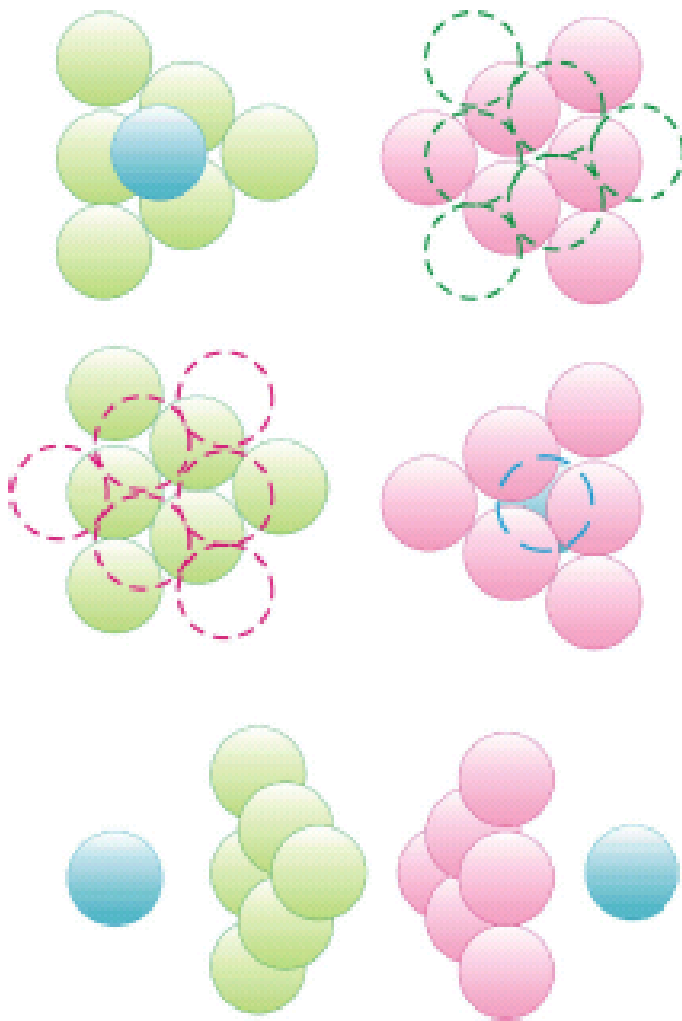
- on 1st plane voids not used by 2nd plane (C)
- or straight on 1st plane spheres (A)

2 different spatial arrangements:
ABCABC sequence → FCC lattice
ABABAB sequence → HCP lattice

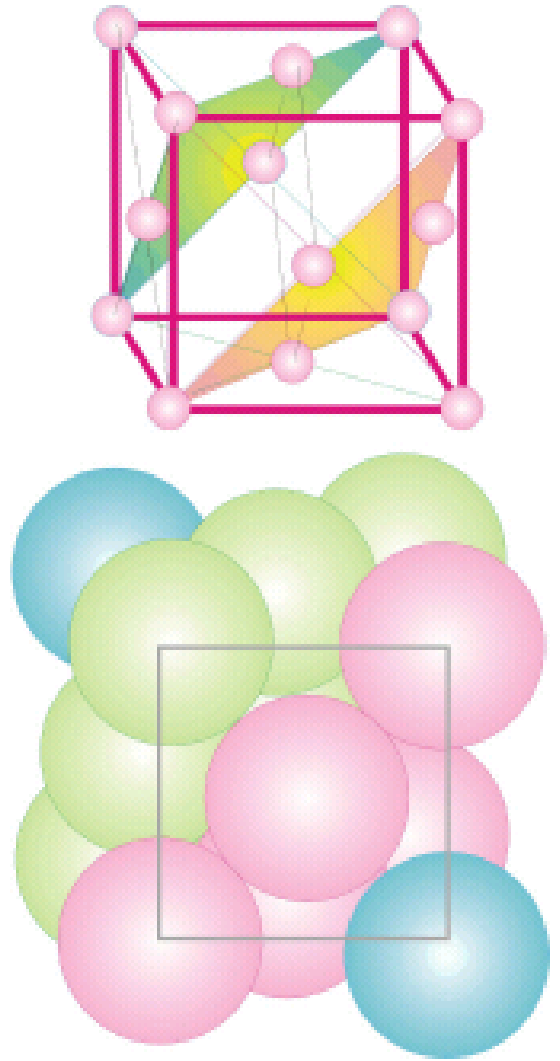




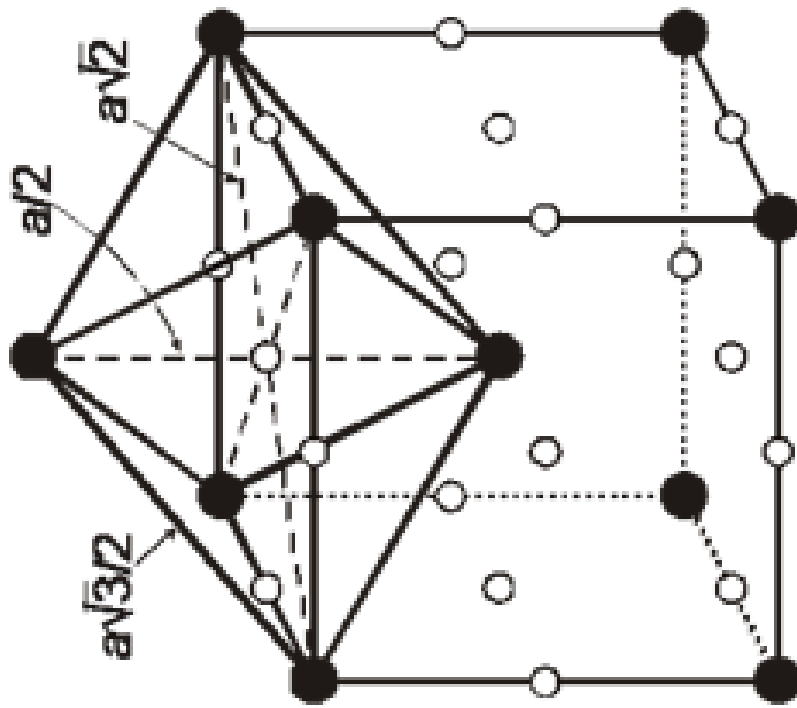
Close-packed plane stacking sequence for the HCP structure



Close-packed stacking sequence for the face-centered cubic structure.

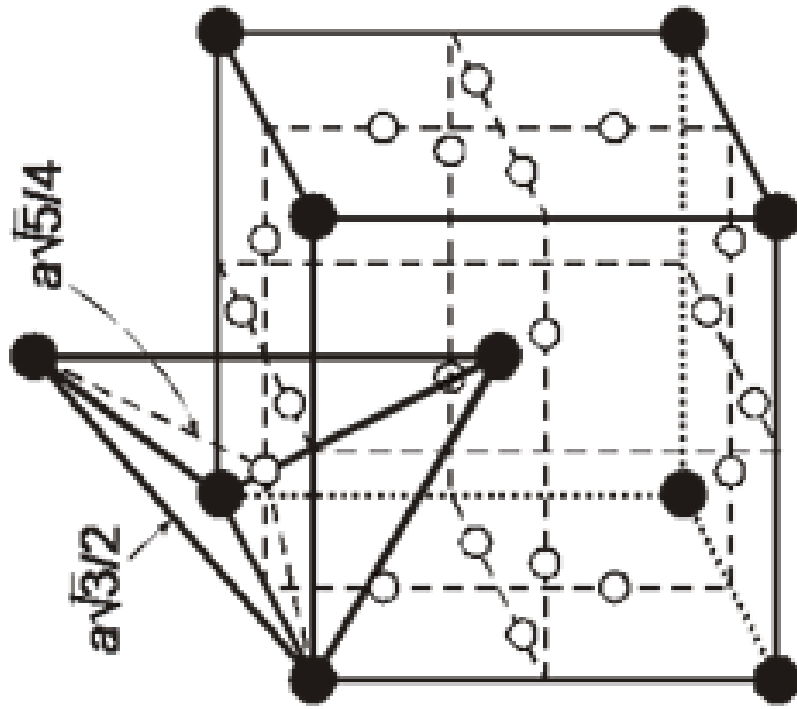


Interstitial sites (voids) in the BCC crystal structure



● Metal atoms

○ Center-points of octahedral (irregular) interstitial sites



● Metal atoms

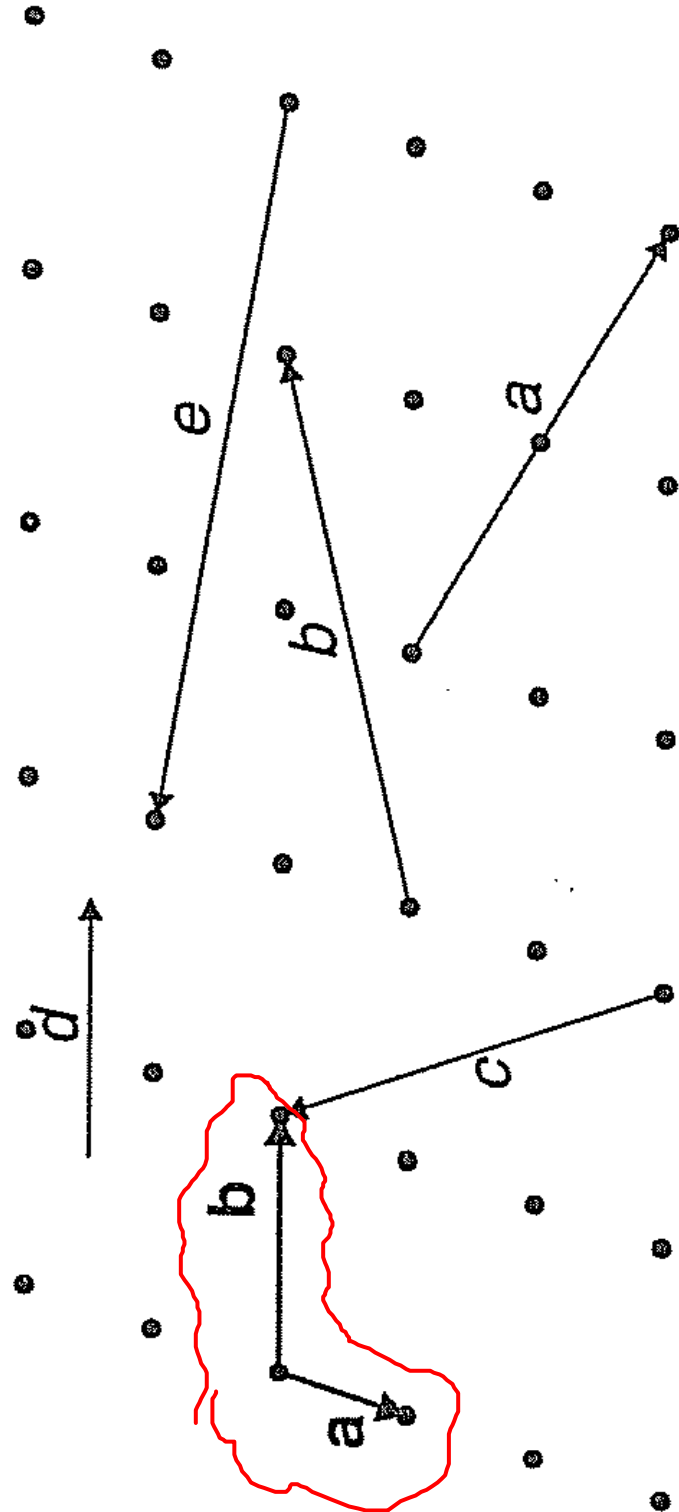
○ Center-points of tetrahedral interstitial sites

CRYSTAL STRUCTURES of METALS

II

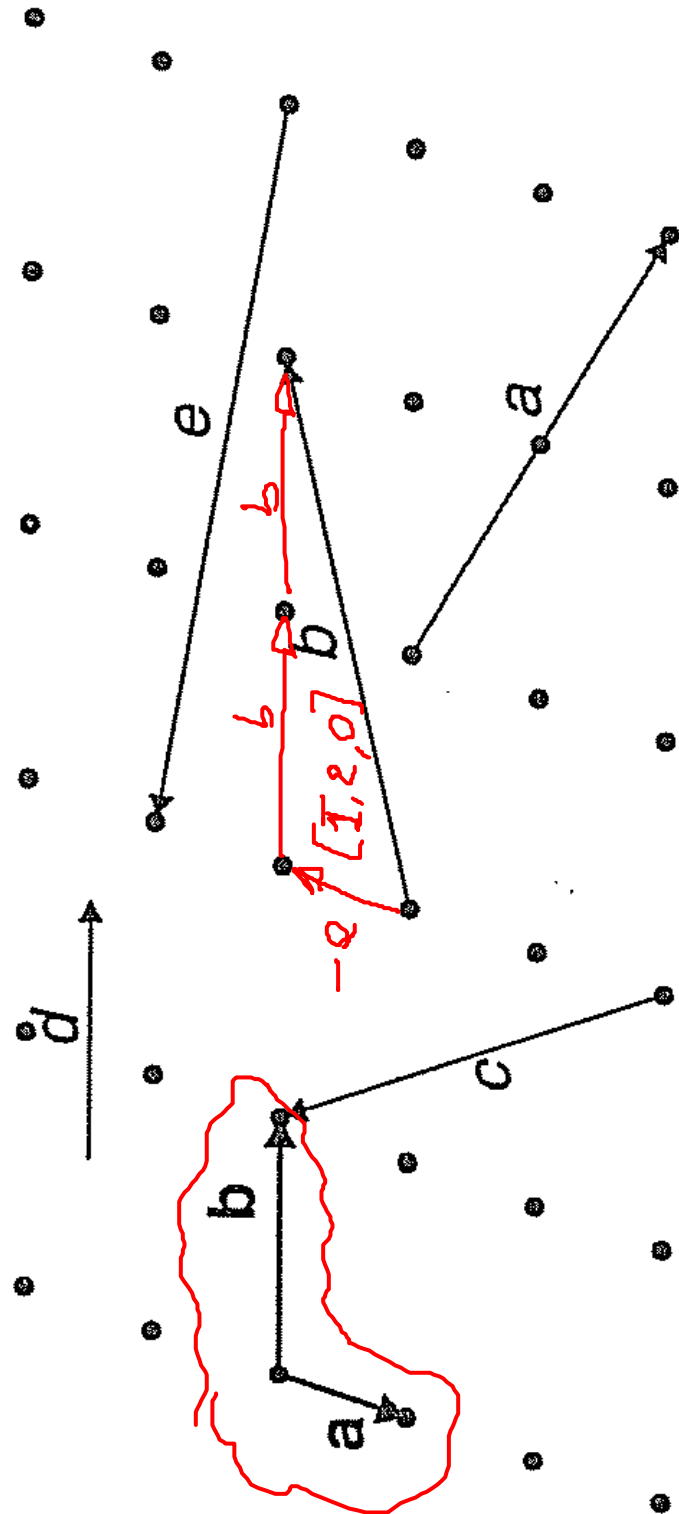
Problem 1

Give the indices of the directions marked on the figure below. In all cases the axis not shown is perpendicular to the plane of the paper and hence the index w is 0 in all cases.



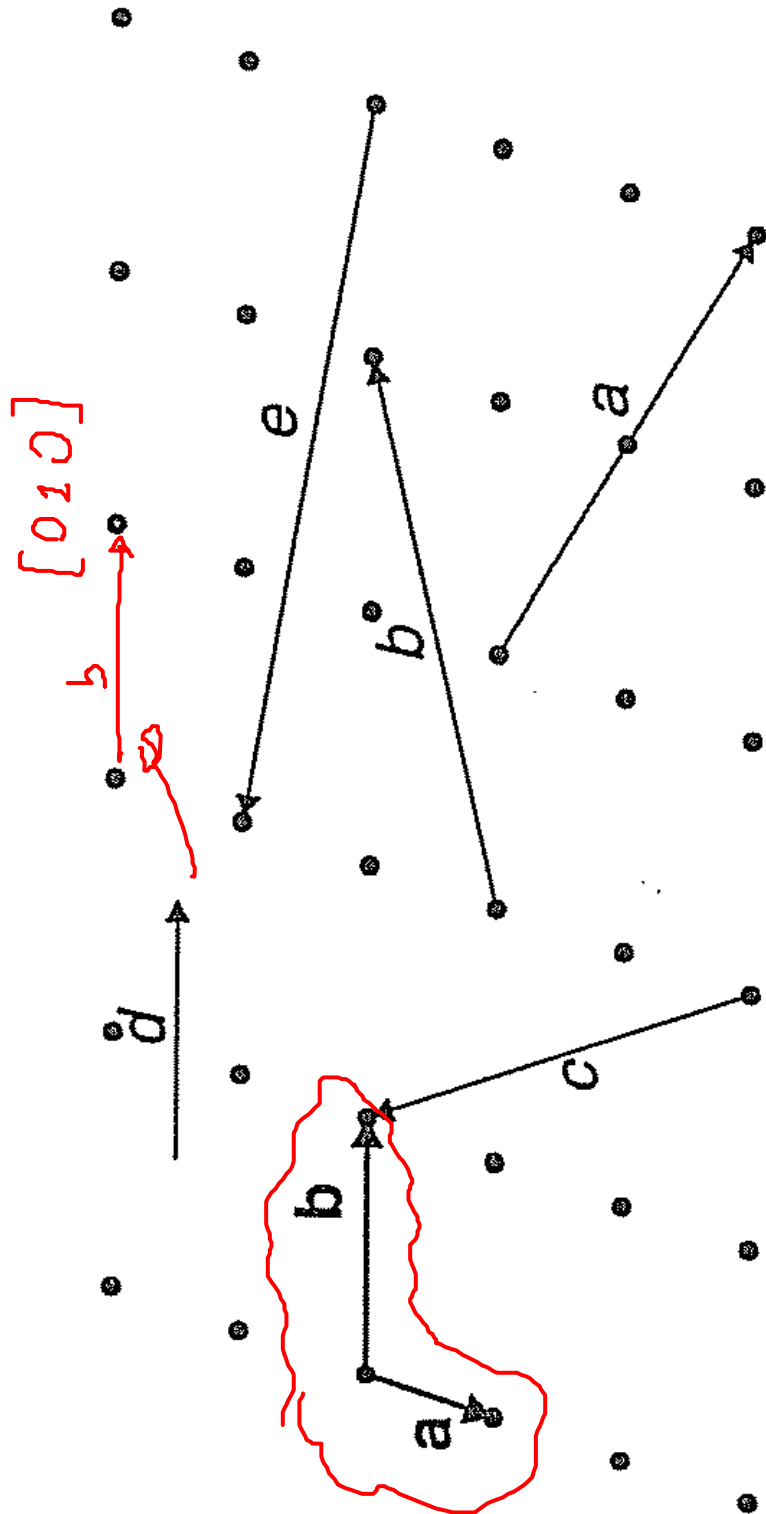
Problem 1

Give the indices of the directions marked on the figure below. In all cases the axis not shown is perpendicular to the plane of the paper and hence the index w is 0 in all cases.



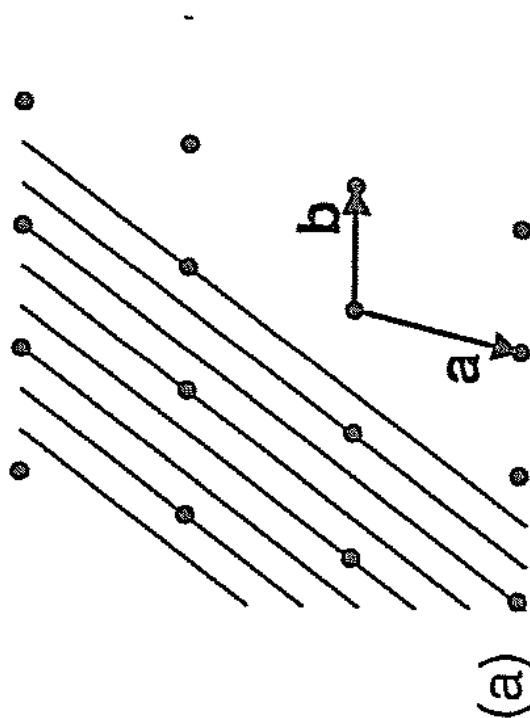
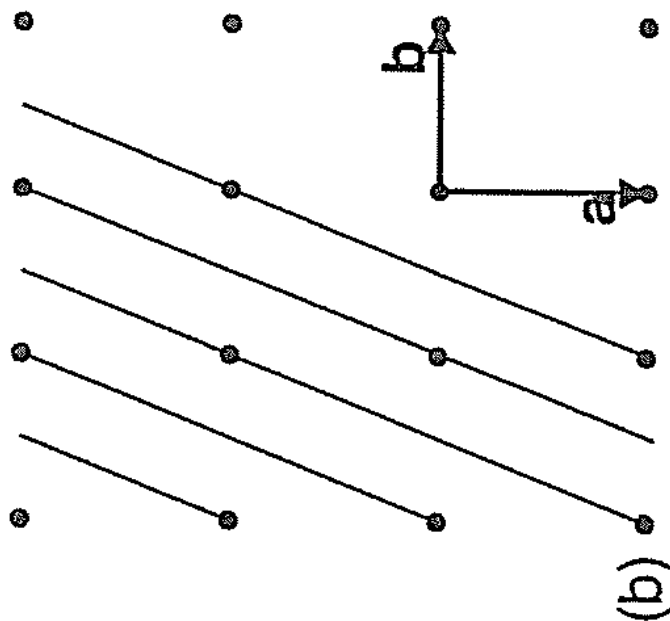
Problem 1

Give the indices of the directions marked on the figure below. In all cases the axis not shown is perpendicular to the plane of the paper and hence the index w is 0 in all cases.



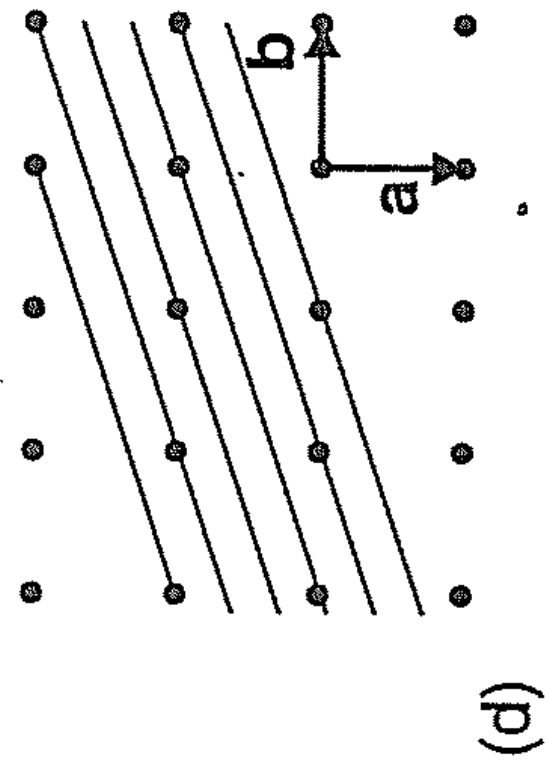
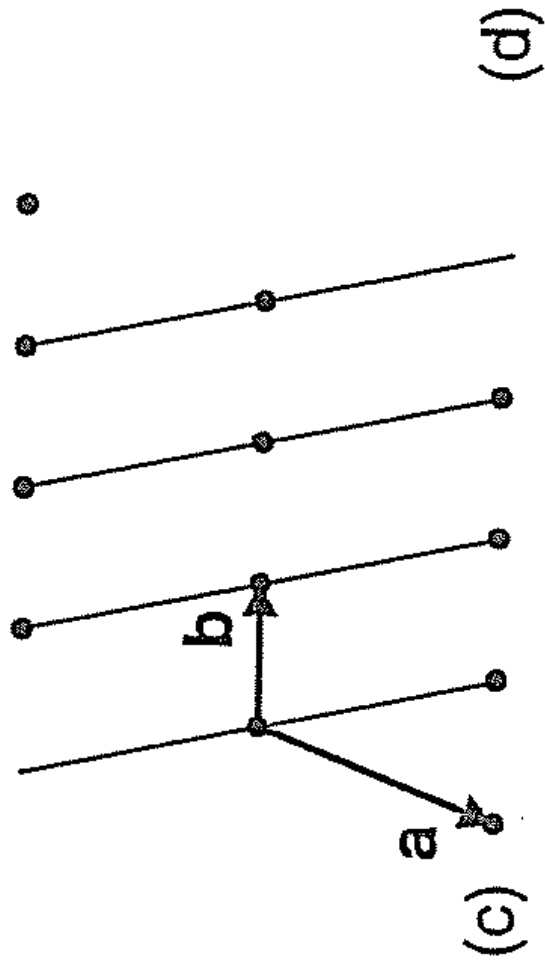
Problem 2

Index the lattice planes drawn in the figure below. The c -axis is normal to the plane of the page and hence the index l is 0 in all cases.

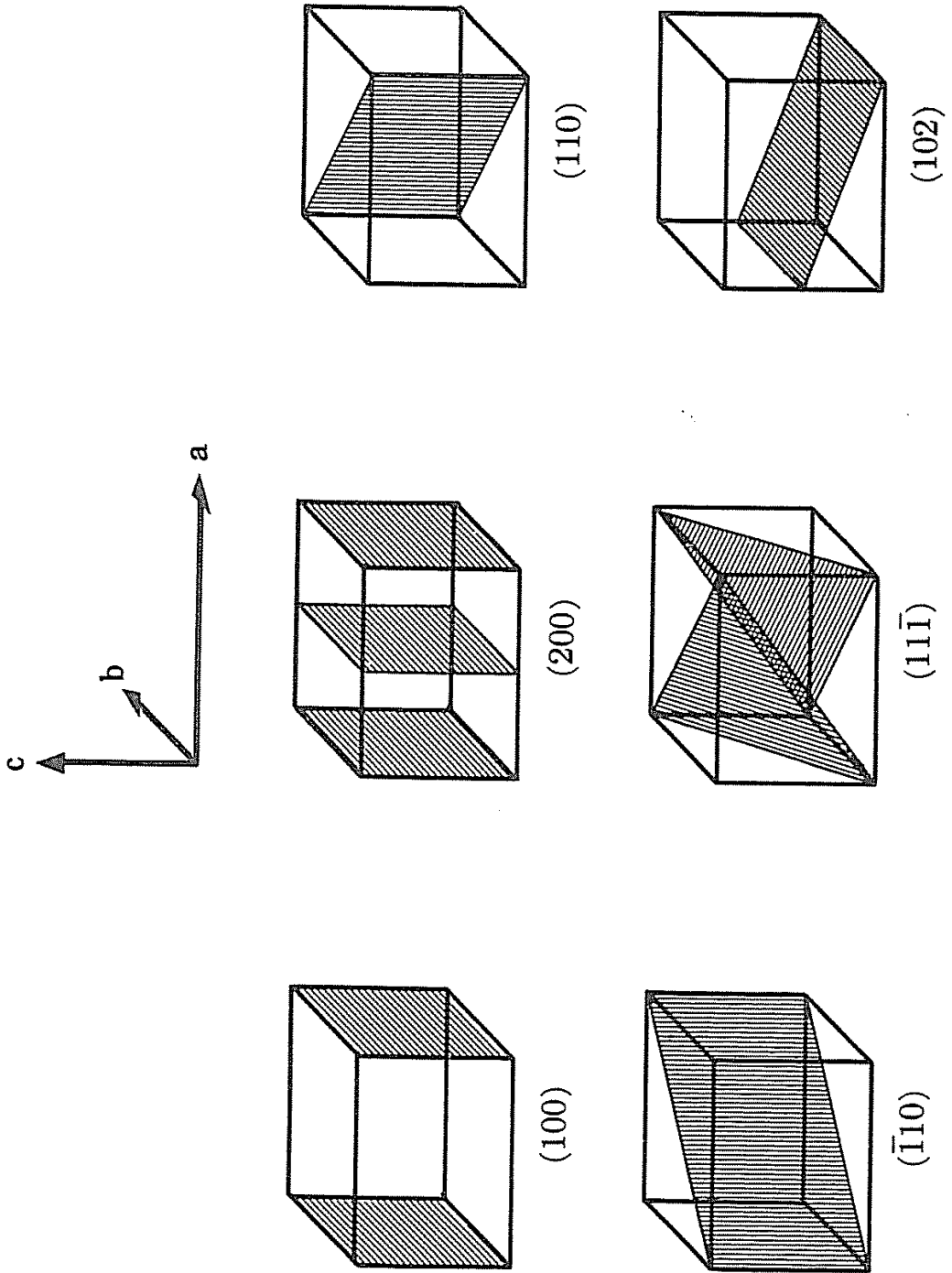


Problem 3

Index the lattice planes drawn in the figure below. The c -axis is normal to the plane of the page and hence the index l is 0 in all cases.



Planes - examples



Planes and directions in cubic crystals (1)

The unit of length is the side of the unit cell

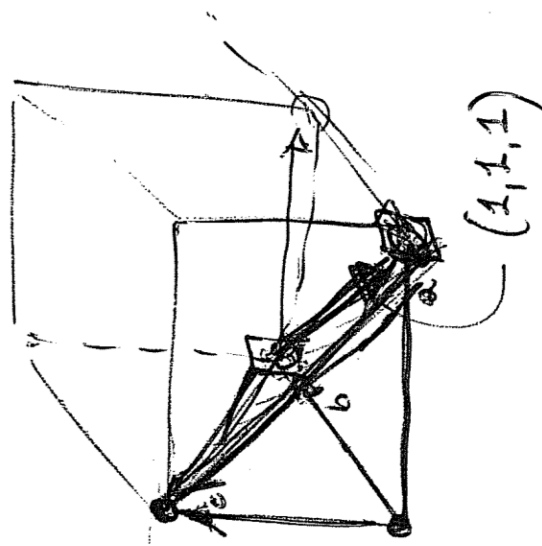
Lattice	Cartesian space
vectors $\vec{a}, \vec{b}, \vec{c}$	vectors $\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k}$ in the Oxyz cartesian space
directions $[h k \ell]$	$\vec{r} = h\vec{i} + k\vec{j} + \ell\vec{k}$
planes (h, k, ℓ)	$hx + ky + \ell z = m$ with $m \in \mathbb{N}$

Planes and directions in cubic crystals (3)

Does $[1\bar{1}0]$ belong to $(1,1,1)$?

Yes, because: $[1, \bar{1}, 0] \cdot [1, 1, 1] = 1 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot (-1) + 0 \cdot 1 = 0$

And also:



$$[10\bar{1}] \cdot [1,1,1] = 0$$

$$[01\bar{1}] \cdot [1,1,1] = 0$$

DEFECTS IN CRYSTALS – I

Point defects & line defects

POINT DEFECTS....

... are lattice defects of **atomic size** (1 atom)

A part of the crystal about 100 atomic radii wide around the defect is perturbed

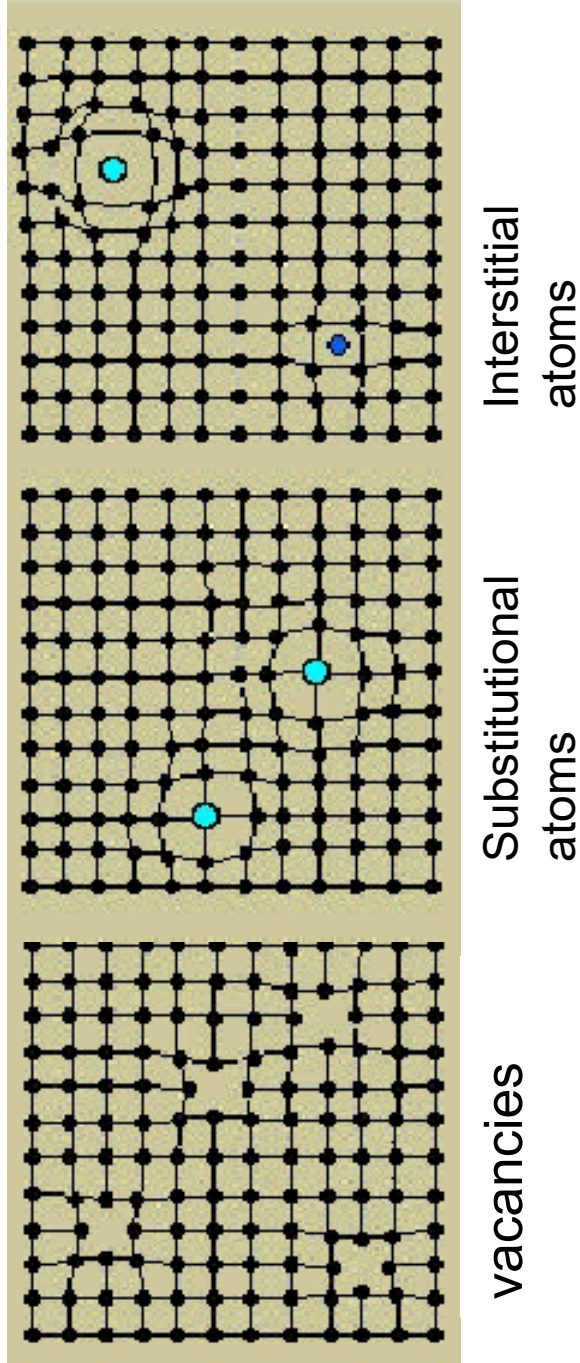
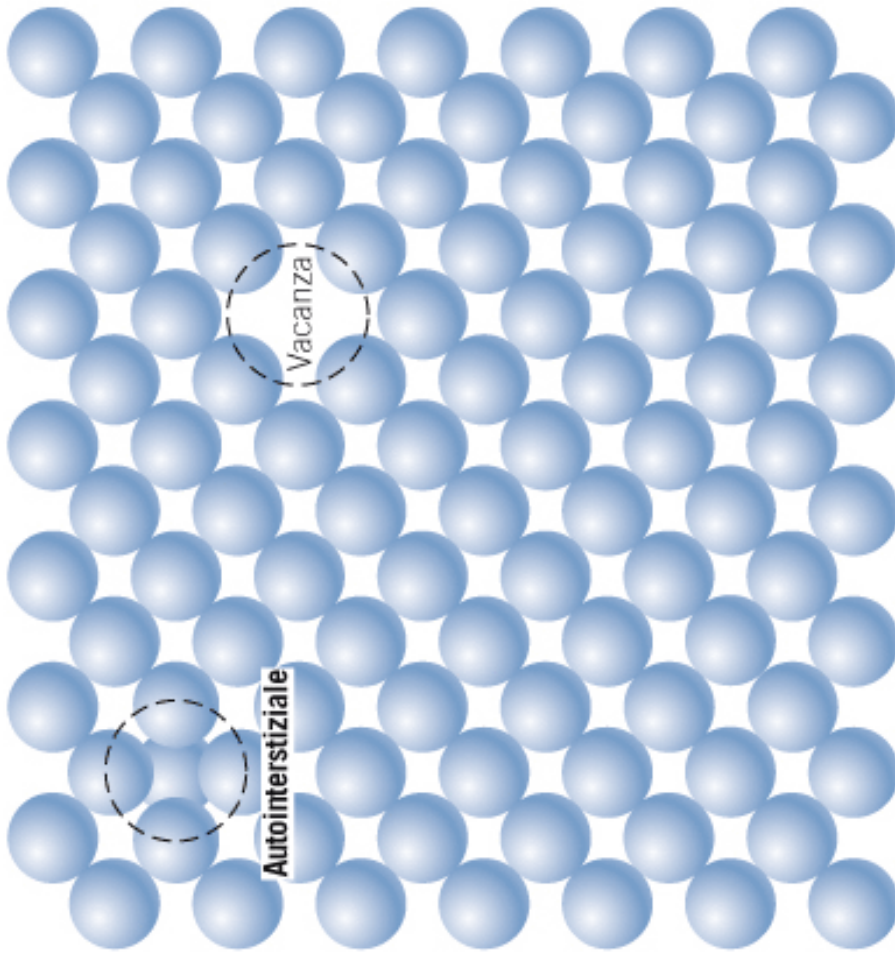


Figura 4.1 Rappresentazione bidimensionale di una vacanza e di un autointerstiziale. (Da W.G. Moffatt, G.W. Pearsall, and J. Wulff, *The Structure and Properties of Materials*, Vol. I, *Structure*, p. 77. Copyright © 1964 by John Wiley & Sons, New York. Riprodotta con il permesso della John Wiley & Sons Inc.).



Callister, Rethwisch

Scienza e Ingegneria dei Materiali
Edises

INTERSTITIAL ATOMS

atom	H	O	N	C	B
atomic radius (in A)	0,30	0,66	0,71	0,77	0,87

Knowing sites size is necessary to understand interstitial solid solutions.

Fe , BCC $a = 2,866 \text{ A}$ radius of octahedral site = $0,192 \text{ A}$
radius of tetrahedral site = $0,364 \text{ A}$

Fe , FCC $a = 3,646 \text{ A}$ radius of octahedral site = $0,536$

Interstitial elements show atomic radius bigger than the radius of the lattice holes, except for hydrogen.

The introduction of an interstitial atom causes stress in the crystal (atoms around it are displaced from their equilibrium positions).

The crystal can accept only a limited amount of stress and distorsion.

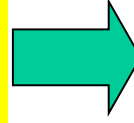
Not all interstitial sites can be occupied by interstitial atoms.

There is a limit of solubility of the interstitial atom in each lattice, related to the maximum stress accepted by the crystal

The introduction of some % fractions of substitutional atoms cause the substitutional solid solutions

Solubility limit between two elements or two compounds depends on:

- atomic size factor
- electronegativity
- crystal structure of the two pure elements
- element valences



Hume – Rothery laws

Line defects: DISLOCATIONS

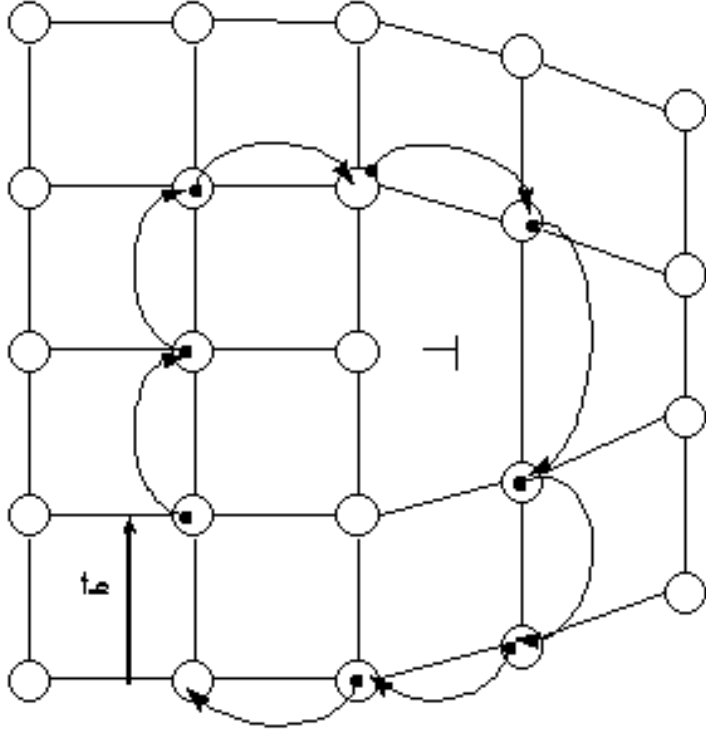
BURGERS VECTOR:

It indicates magnitude, direction and versus of atoms displacement around the dislocation

It can be calculated by using the Burgers' path method:

A clockwise path in each direction with the same step number is sketched: the connecting line is Burgers vector .

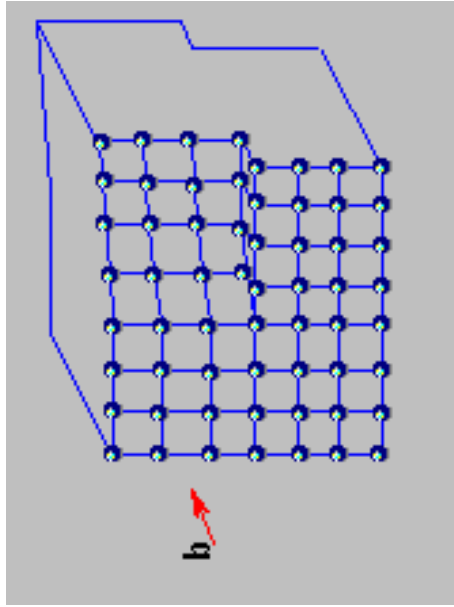
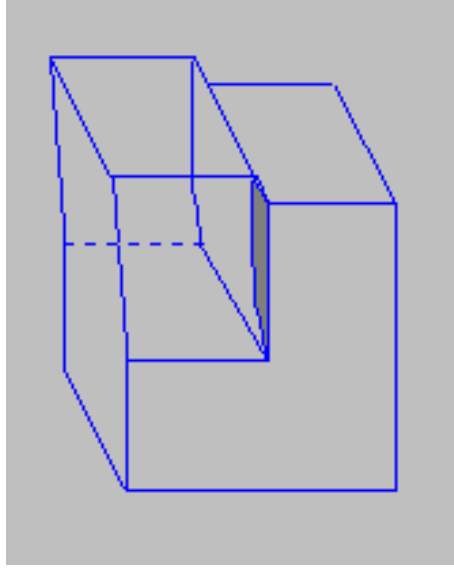
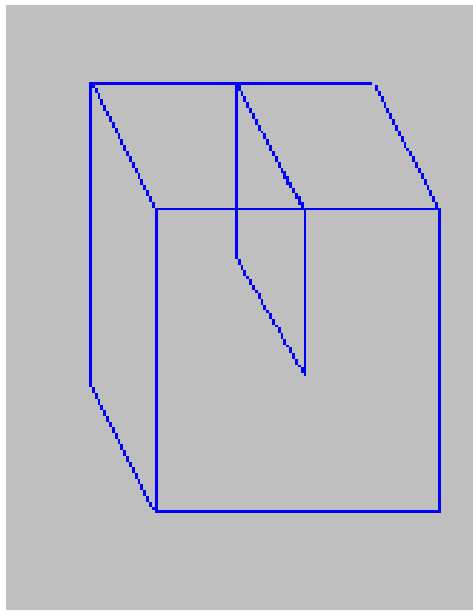
Perfect crystal: you go back to the starting atom \Rightarrow Burgers vector is 0;



In the case of edge dislocations, the Burgers vector is perpendicular to the dislocation line

SCREW DISLOCATIONS

It can be imagined that a screw dislocation is formed by shear stress



the Burgers vector b is parallel to the dislocation line

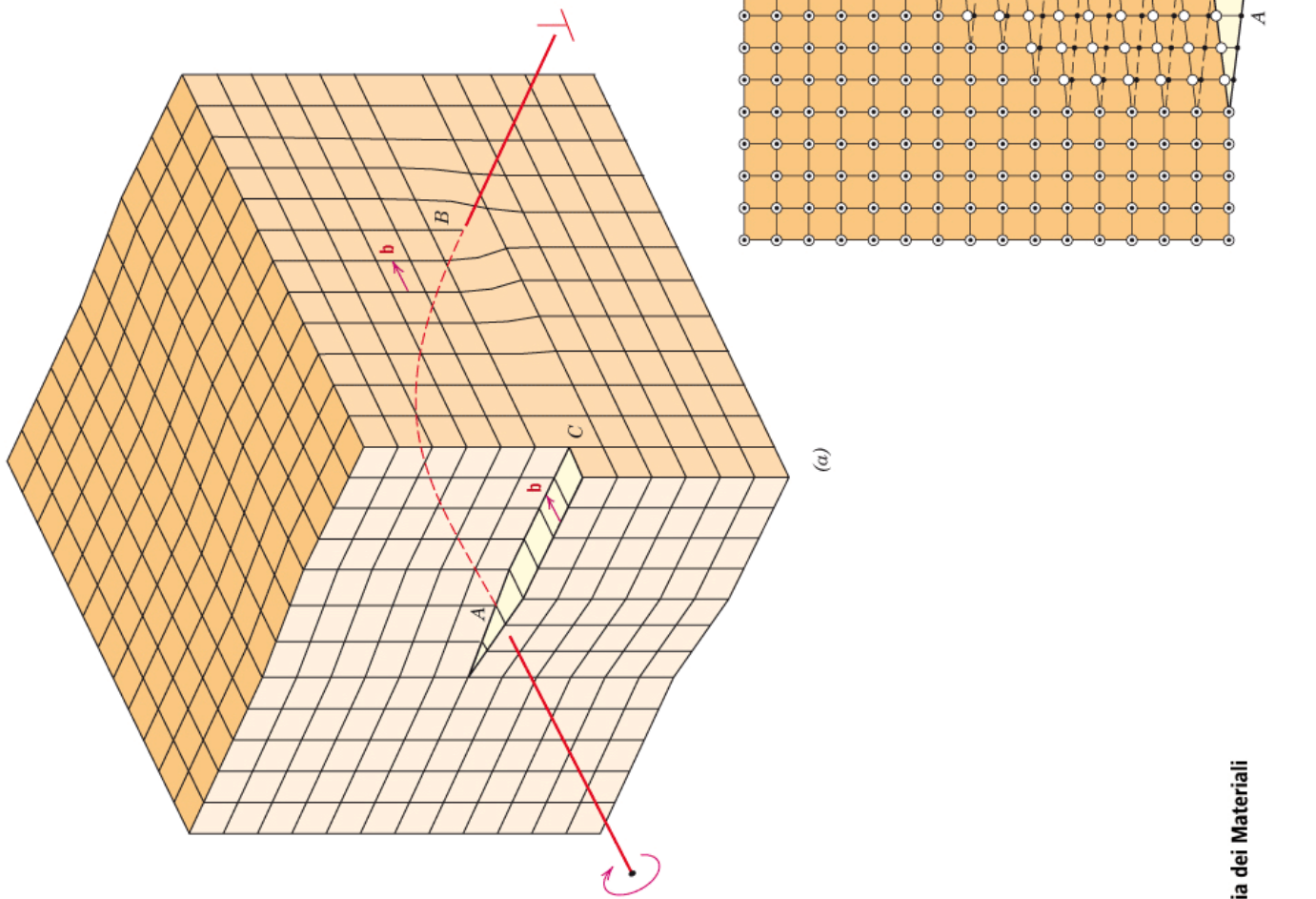


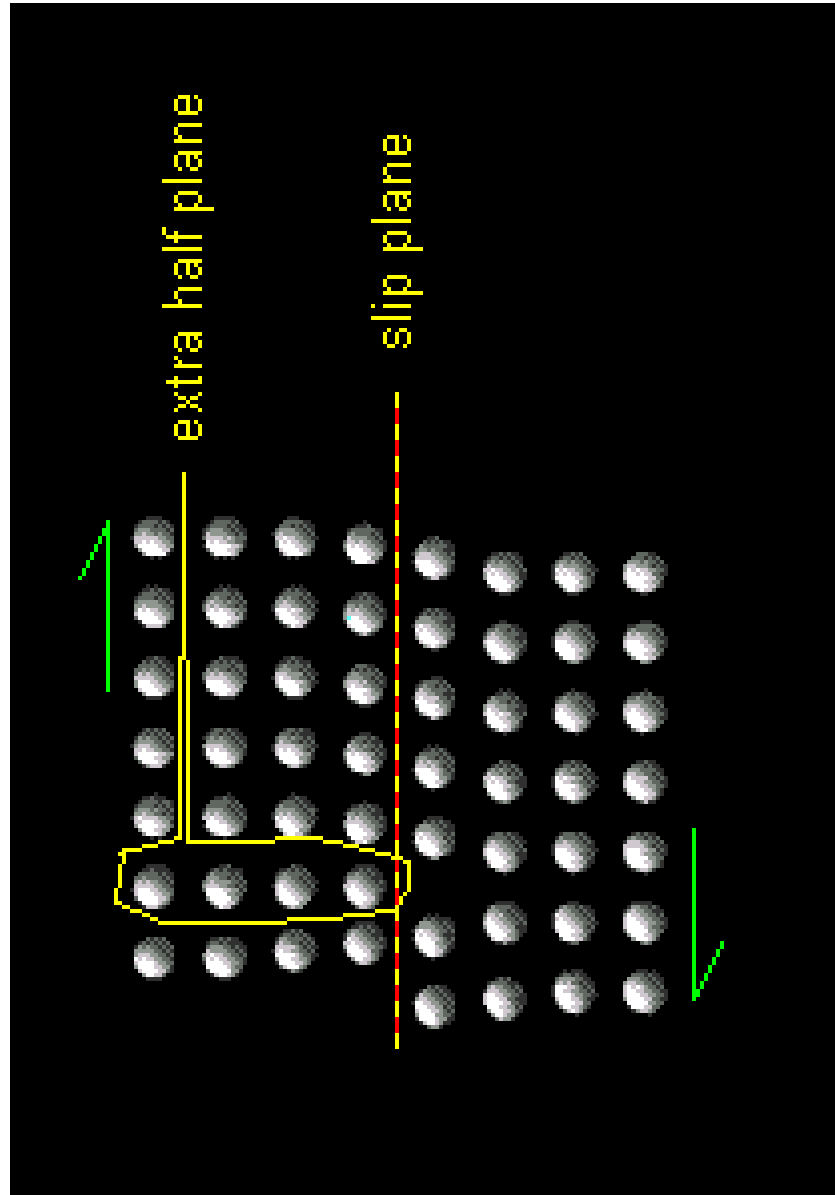
Figura 4.5 (a)

Rappresentazione schematica di una dislocazione che assume configurazioni a spigolo, a vite e mista. (b) Vista dall'alto, dove i cerchi vuoti rappresentano posizioni atomiche localizzate al di sopra del piano di scorrimento e i cerchi pieni le posizioni atomiche localizzate al di sotto. Nel punto *A*, la dislocazione è puramente a vite, mentre nel punto *B* è puramente a spigolo.

Per le zone della dislocazione comprese tra questi due punti dove l'asse di dislocazione è incurvato, il carattere della dislocazione è di tipo misto. [Figura (b) da W.T. Read, Jr., *Dislocations in Crystals*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1953].

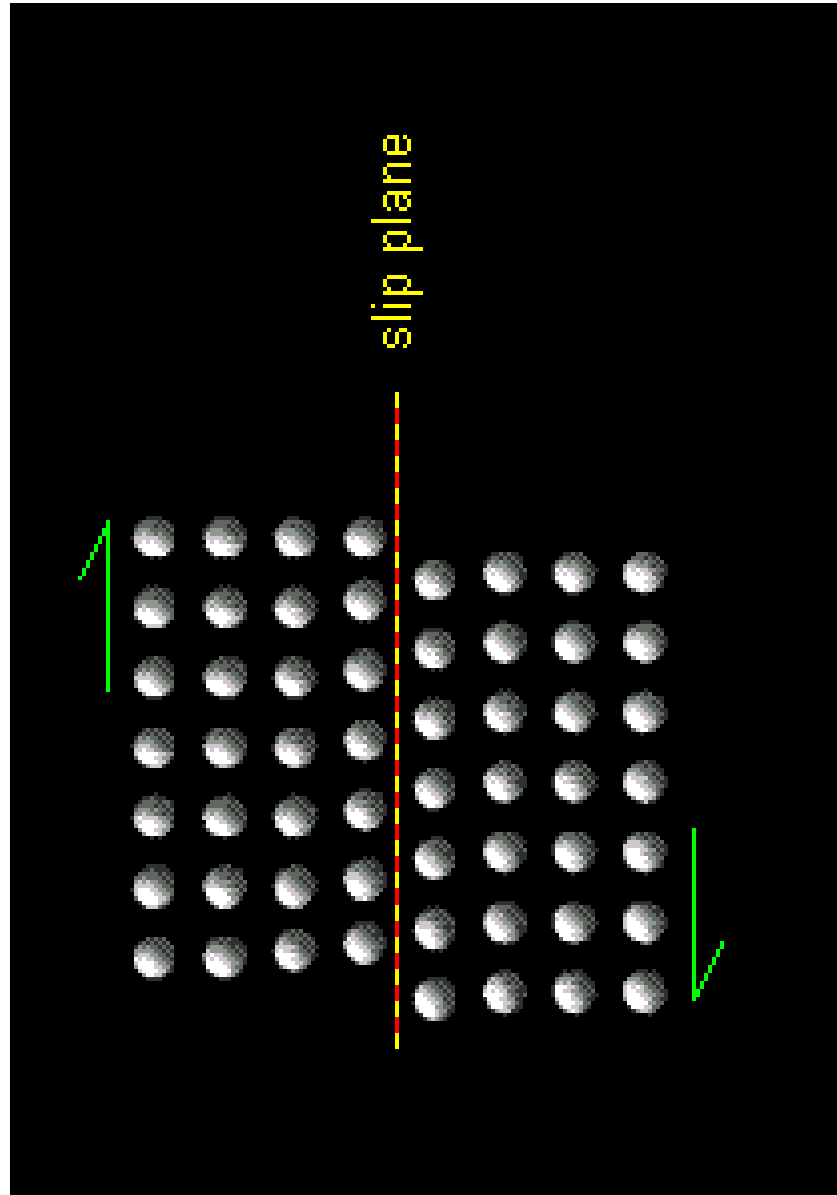
MOVEMENT OF DISLOCATIONS:

.....edge dislocations (Burgers vector perpendicular to dislocation line) move along a plane defined by the Burgers vector and by the dislocation line and in a direction perpendicular to the dislocation line.



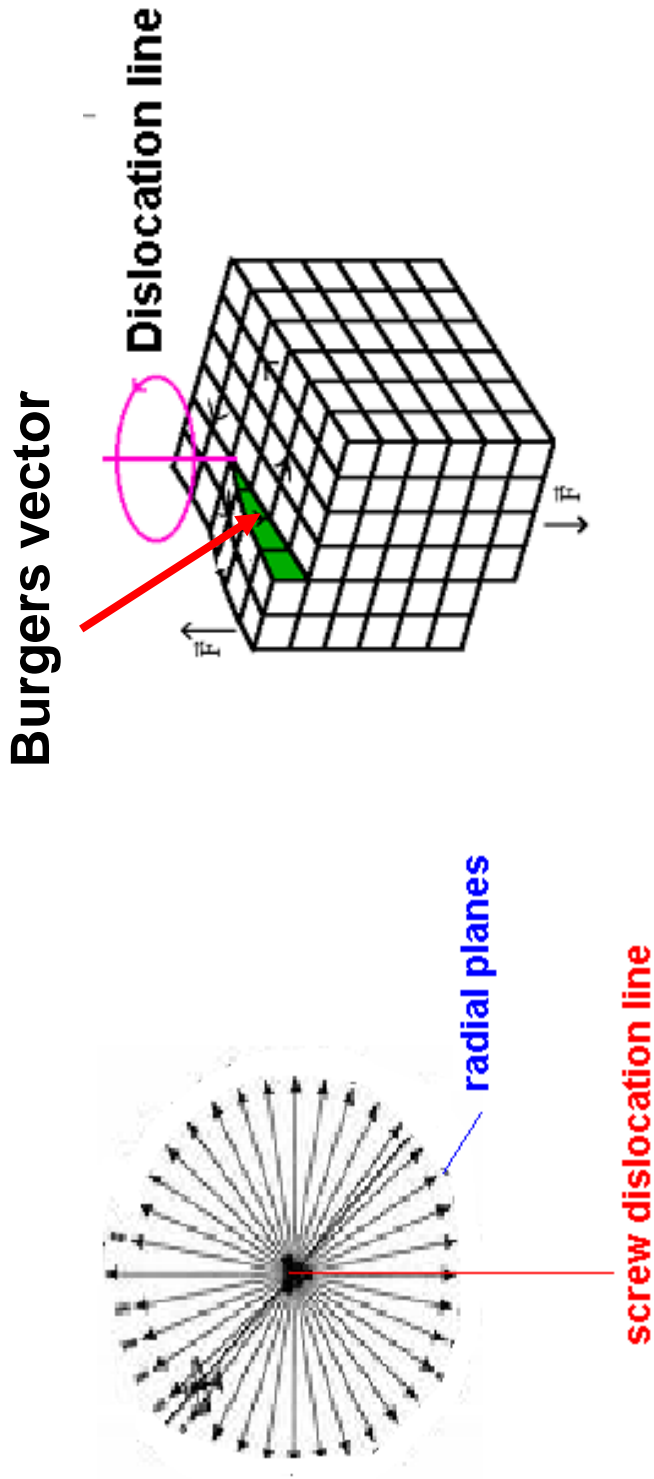
MOVEMENT OF DISLOCATIONS:

.....edge dislocations (Burgers vector perpendicular to dislocation line) move along a plane defined by the Burgers vector and by the dislocation line and in a direction perpendicular to the dislocation line.



Screw dislocations (the Burgers vector is parallel to the dislocation line) move along one of the radial planes.

Moreover, a screw dislocation can shift to another plane



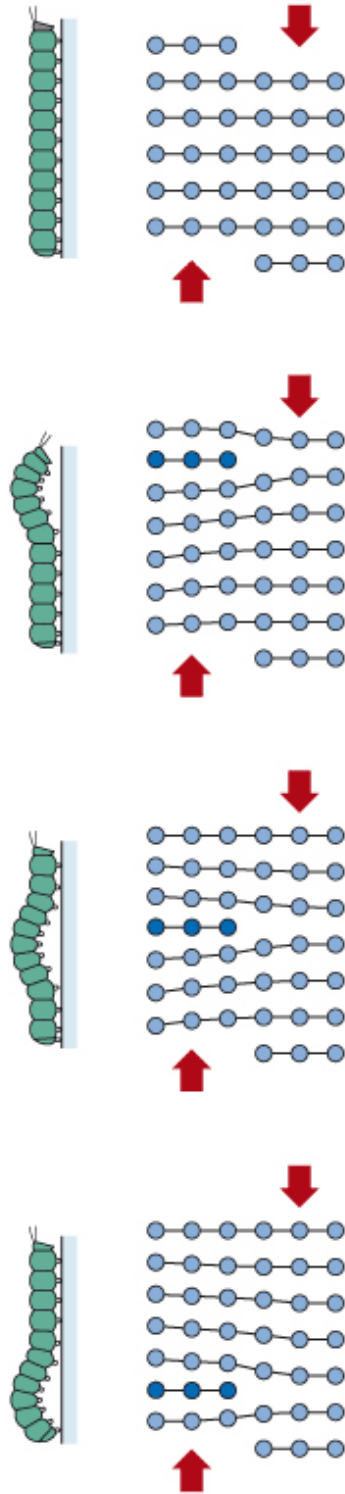


Figura 7.3 Analogia tra il moto di un bruco e quello di una dislocazione.

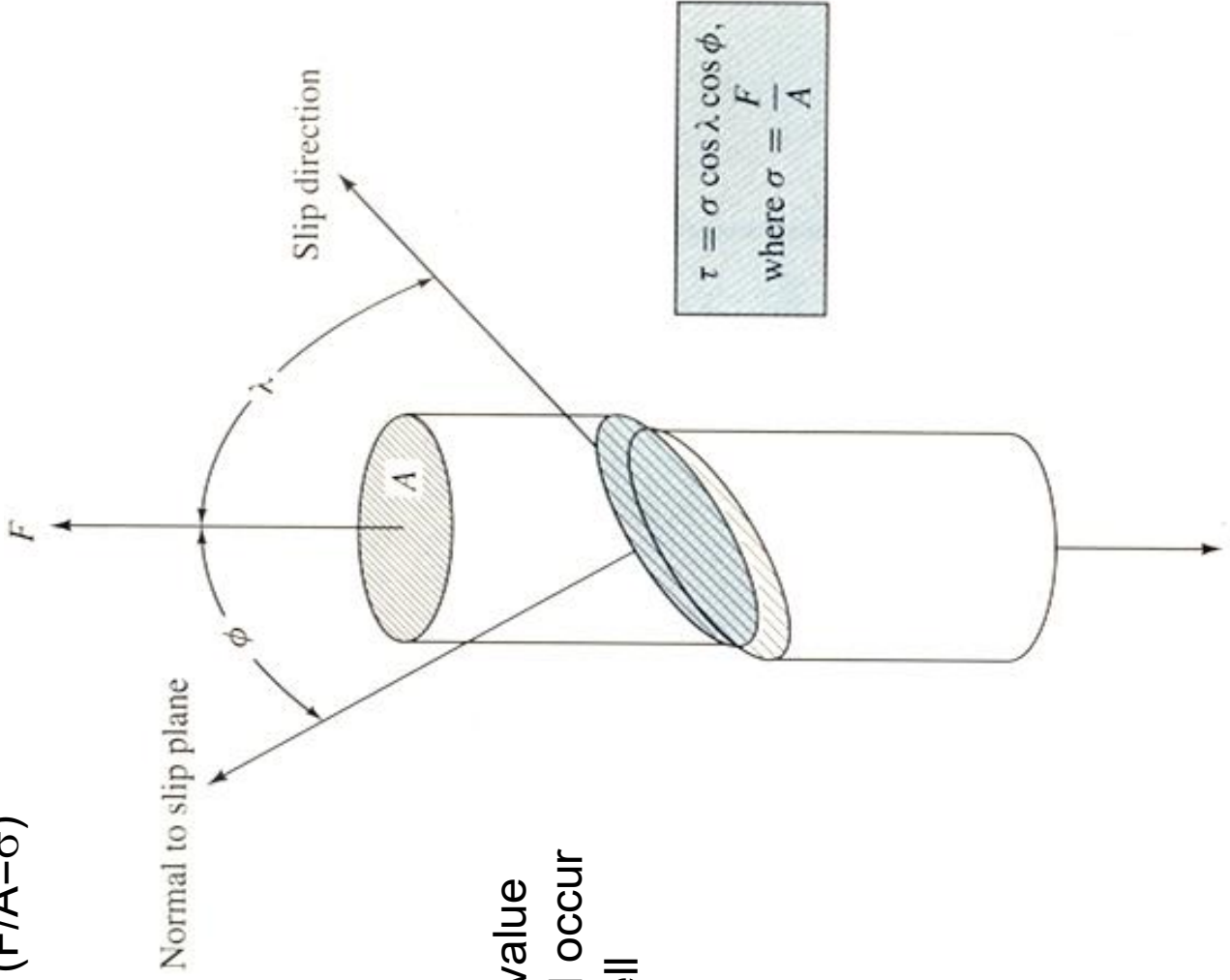
Tabella 7.1 Sistemi di scorrimento per metalli cubico a facce centrate, cubico a corpo centrato ed esagonale compatto

<i>Metalli</i>	<i>Piano di scorrimento</i>	<i>Direzione di scorrimento</i>	<i>Numero di sistemi di scorrimento</i>
Cu, Al, Ni, Ag, Au	Cubico a facce centrate {111}	$\langle \bar{1}\bar{1}0 \rangle$	12
Fe α , W, Mo	Cubico a corpo centrato {110}	$\langle \bar{1}\bar{1}1 \rangle$	12
Fe α , W	{211}	$\langle \bar{1}\bar{1}1 \rangle$	12
Fe α , K	{321}	$\langle \bar{1}\bar{1}1 \rangle$	24
	Esagonale compatto		
Cd, Zn, Mg, Ti, Be	{0001}	$\langle \bar{1}\bar{1}20 \rangle$	3
Ti, Mg, Zr	{10 $\bar{1}$ 0}	$\langle \bar{1}\bar{1}20 \rangle$	3
Ti, Mg	{10 $\bar{1}$ 1}	$\langle \bar{1}\bar{1}20 \rangle$	6



BCC lattice doesn't show an atomic packing as dense as FCC → BCC has lower plastic deformation than FCC, even if it has a relatively large number of slip systems.

effective shear strength operating on a slip plane when the material is submitted to macroscopic tensile force ($F/A=\sigma$)



If τ exceeds a critical value plastic deformation will occur with the slips of the well oriented dislocations.

Libri

Callister: cap. 4.2, 4.3, 4.5, 6.2, 7.2 – 7.6

Cigada & Pastore: cap. 1.3 (parte)

Barella & Gruttadauria: cap. 1.5.3, 2.1, 2.2

Bertolini: cap. 3.2.1, 3.2.2

Reardon: cap. 2 (parte)

Smallman: cap. 4 (parte)

Campbell: cap. 1 e 2 (parti)

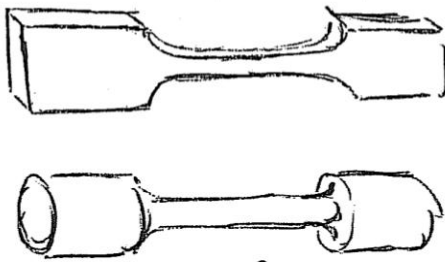
The tensile test

Tests on:

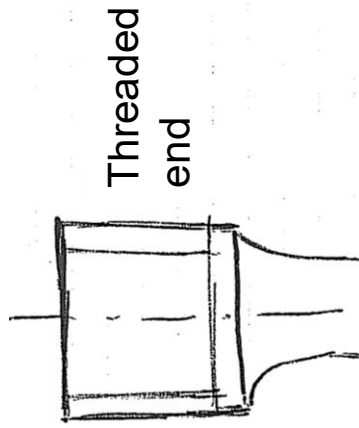
whole component (e.g.: rebar)



machined samples (round, flat)



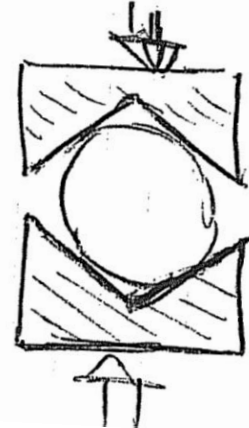
Grips



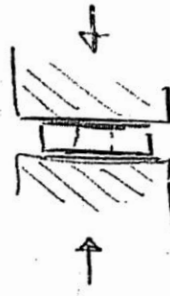
Shoulder end

Threaded end

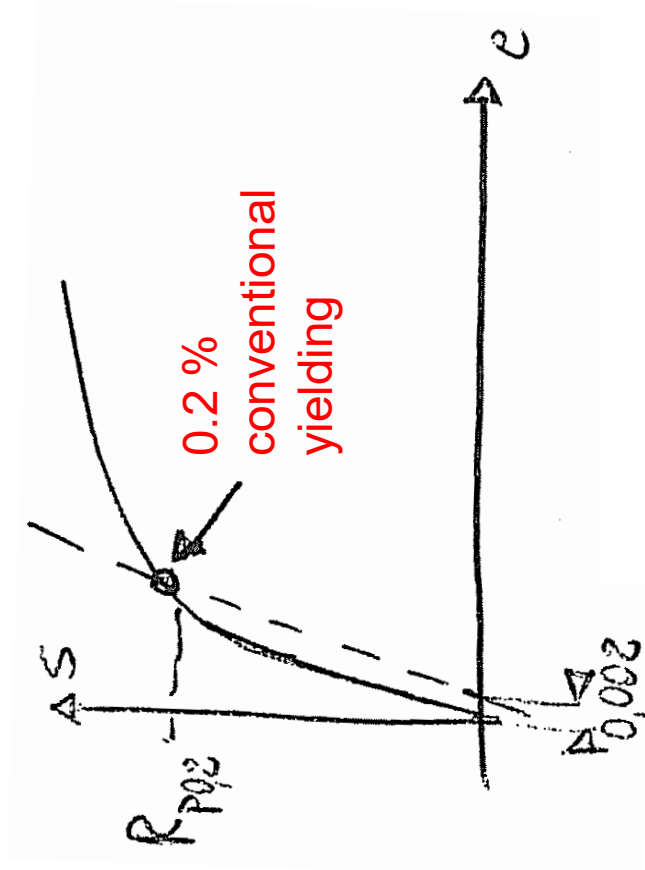
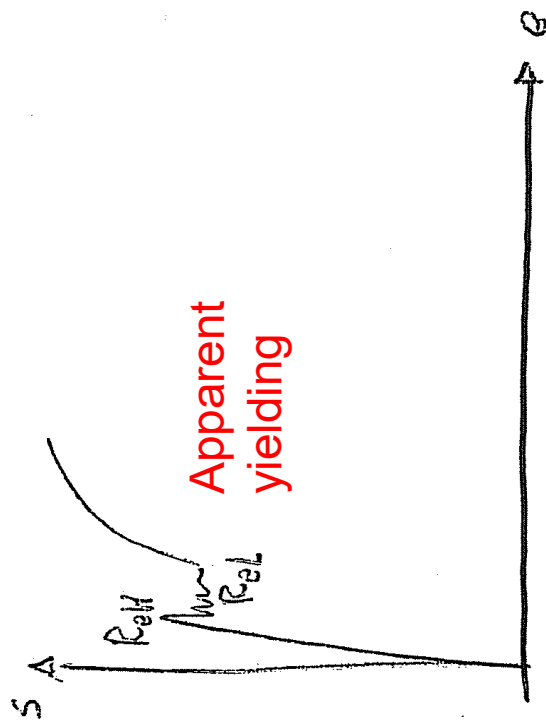
V - grip



Flat grip



Yielding



In metals, the elastic (reversible strain) limit and the linear limit are almost the same

Elongation

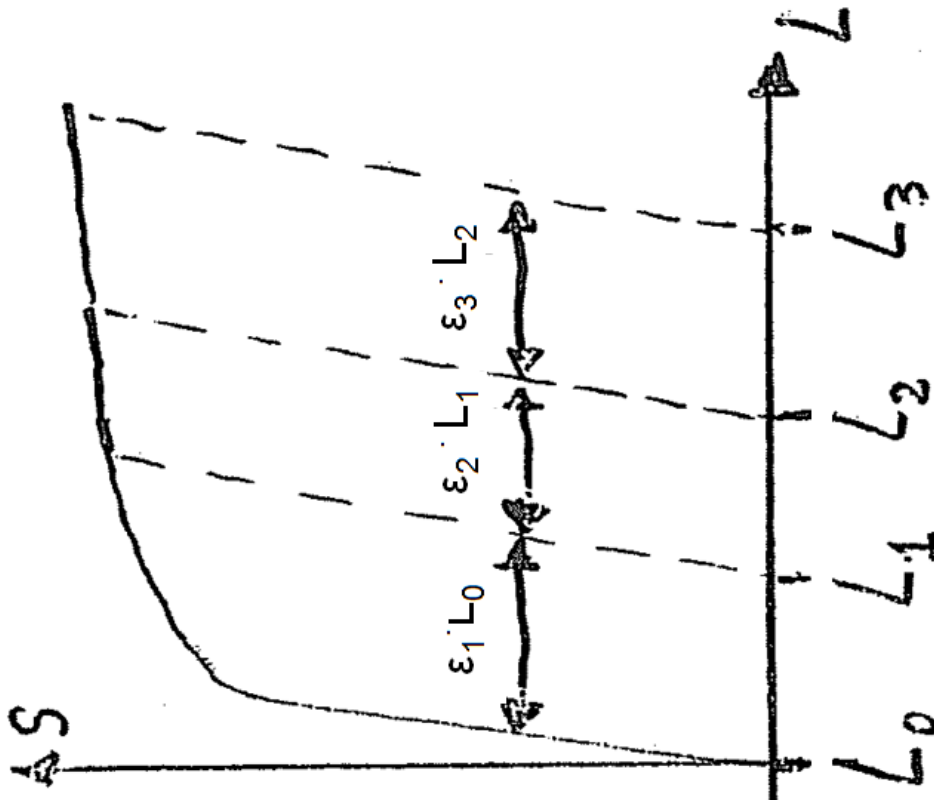
Uniform elongation:

must be measured with an extensometer
is independent from the specimen geometry
is used in some standards, including Italian national standard for rebar steel

Fracture elongation:

can be measured after fracture
is the most commonly used measure of ductility
includes the elongation due to necking
for the latter reason, it depends on the initial length L_0
(if L_0 is greater, necking is comparatively less relevant, and the fracture elongation is smaller)
in European standards, for round specimens, standard values A_5 or A_{10} are
measured with $L_0 = 5 D$ or $10 D$ (D being the diameter)
in European standards, for other cross sections, A_5 is measured with $L_0 = 5.65 \sqrt{S_0}$
in other cases, standard values are measured over fixed L_0 .

True strain



$$\Delta \epsilon_1 = \frac{L_1 - L_0}{L_0}$$

$$\Delta \epsilon_2 = \frac{L_2 - L_1}{L_1}$$

$$\Delta \epsilon_3 = \frac{L_3 - L_2}{L_2}$$

$$\epsilon = \Delta \epsilon_1 + \Delta \epsilon_2 + \Delta \epsilon_3 + \dots$$

$$= \frac{L_1 - L_0}{L_0} + \frac{L_2 - L_1}{L_1} + \dots + \frac{L_3 - L_2}{L_2} + \dots$$

$$= \int_{L_0}^{L_1} \frac{dL}{L} = \ln \left(\frac{L_1}{L_0} \right)$$

Necking

During the test, the variation of the force, dF , is due to the variations of the cross section, dS , which is negative, and of the flow stress (or true stress), $d\sigma$, which is positive (due to the strain hardening).

$$F = s \cdot S_0 = \sigma \cdot S \quad dF = \sigma dS + S d\sigma$$

Before the maximum load, the force increases because the increase of the flow stress prevails over the decrease of the cross section; after the maximum load, the opposite holds.

Before the maximum load, if a portion of the sample deforms more than the rest, it becomes stronger (because the increase of its flow stress more than compensates the reduction of its cross section); as a consequence, its deformation stops until the whole sample reaches the same strain level (i.e., the strain is homogeneous, or uniform).

After the maximum load, if a portion of the sample deforms more than the rest, it becomes weaker (because the increase of its flow stress cannot compensate the reduction of its cross section anymore); as a consequence, it deforms even more. Therefore, a macroscopic local deformation, or neck, is readily formed (i.e., a plastic instability occurs).

Books

Callister: chapters 7.6 and 7.7 (parts)

Campbell: chapter 7.3 (parts)

Methods of strengthening:

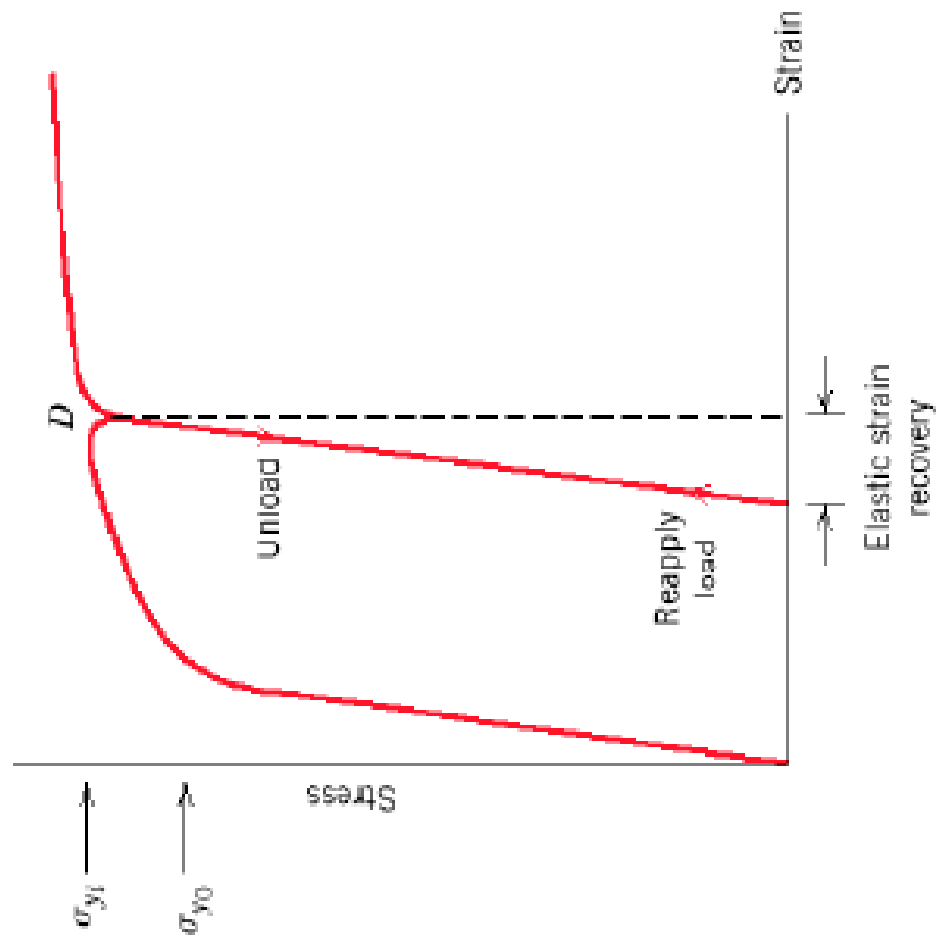
Dislocation move easily in undeformed pure metals => low yielding strength => need of strengthening

=> Strengthening methods are generally based on the idea of making the dislocations movement more difficult.

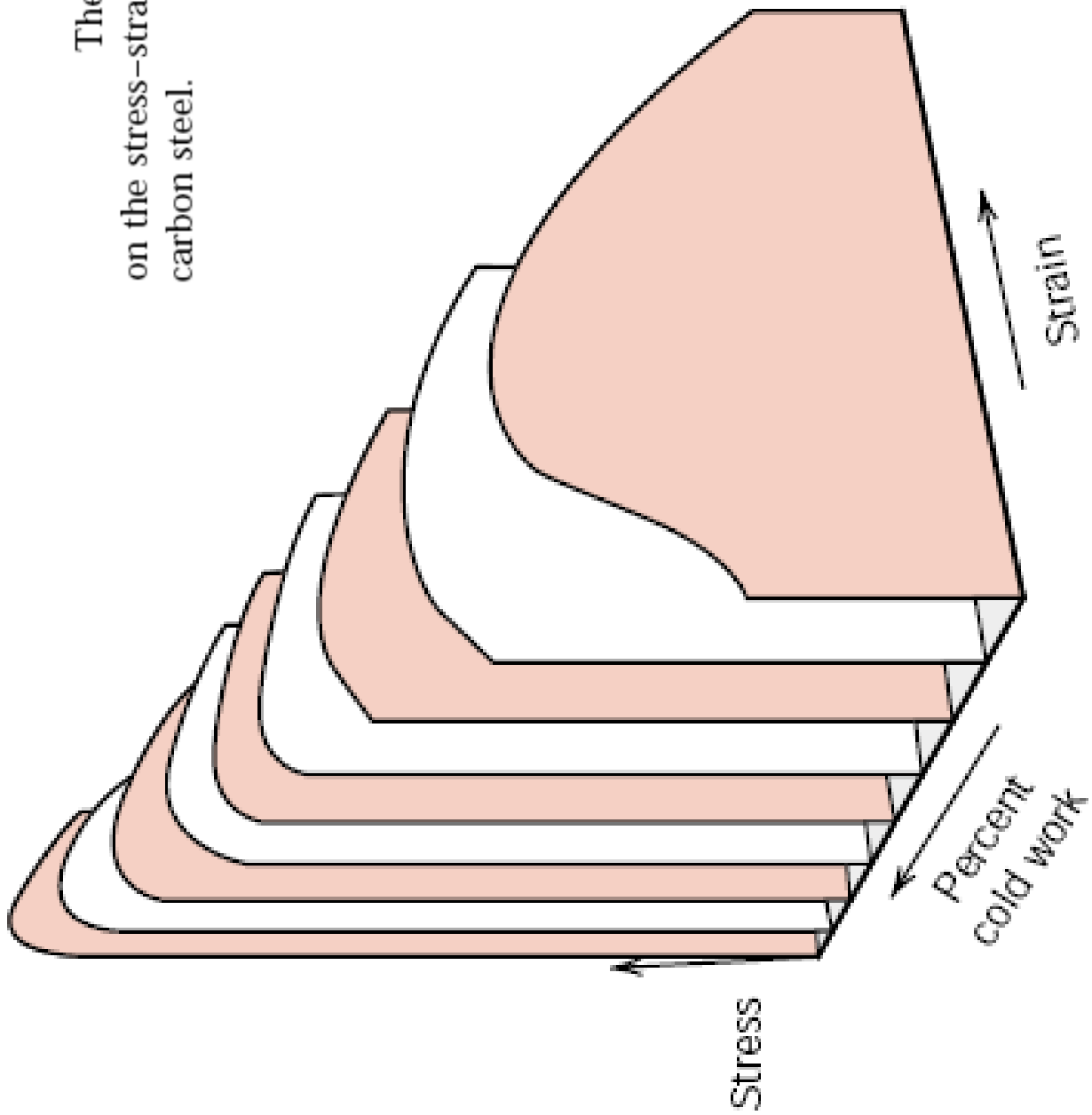
High dislocations density (strain hardening)

Dislocation density increases with plastic deformation and the motion of dislocation is hindered and stopped.

Strain Hardening (II)



The influence of cold work on the stress-strain behavior for a low-carbon steel.



STRENGTHENING – I

solid solution