



# Module #18

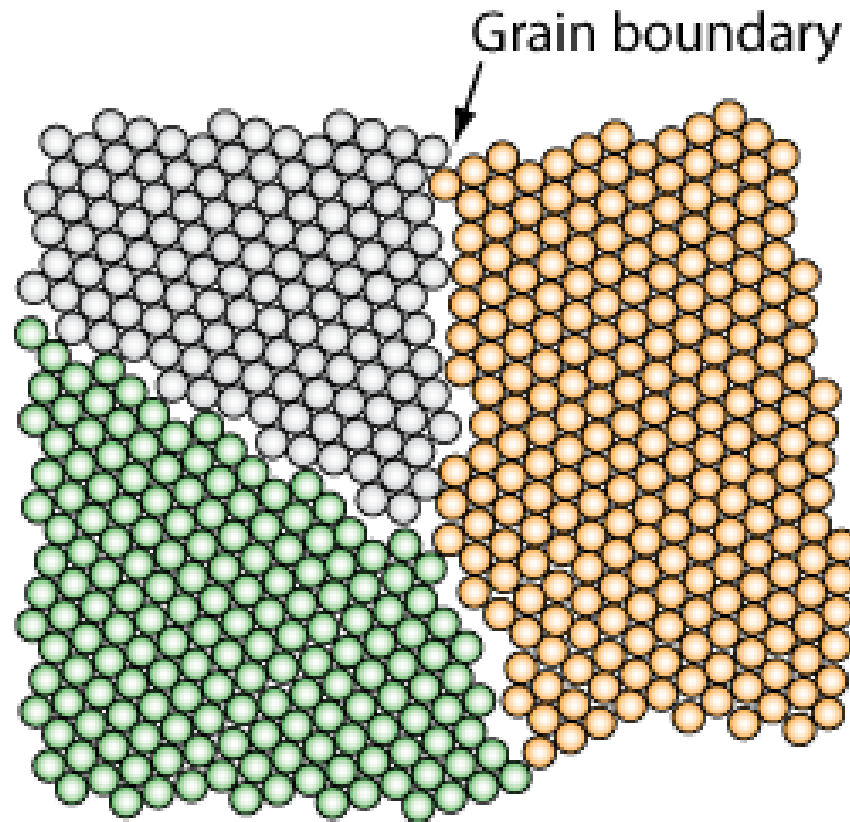
## Grain Size Hardening ("Hall-Petch Relationship")

### READING LIST

▶ **DIETER: Ch. 6, pages 188-197**

- J.C.M. Li, *Trans. AIME*, v. 227 (1963) pp. 239-247.
- H. Conrad, "Work-hardening model for the effect of grain size on the flow stress of metals," in Ultrafine-Grain Metals, edited by J.J. Burke and V. Weiss, Syracuse University Press (1970) pp. 213-229.





[From Ashby, Shercliff, and Cebon, 2007, p.120]

Misorientation between grains.

“Slip planes don’t line up.”

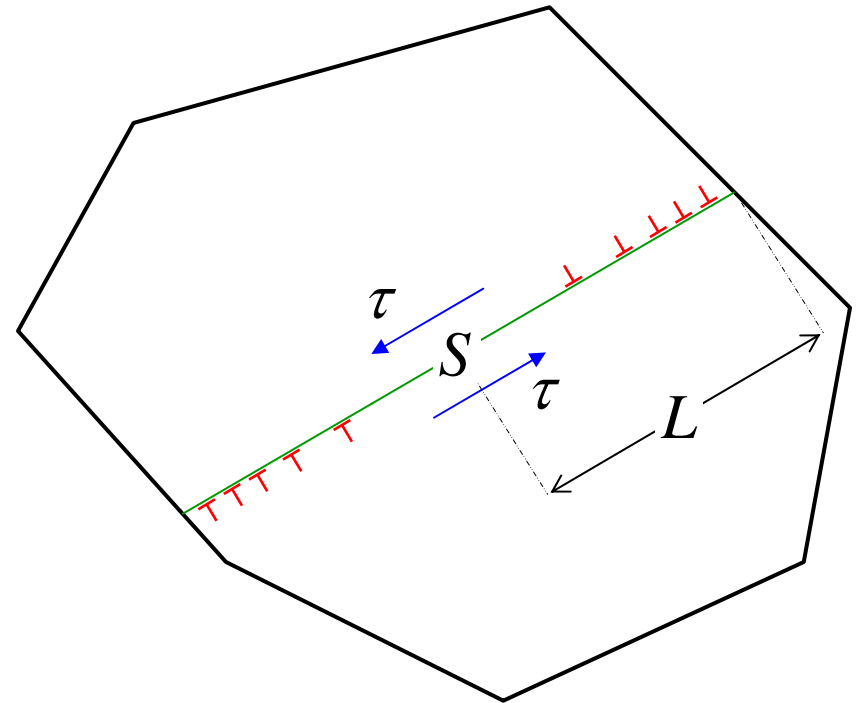
# Grain boundary strengthening (1)

- Grain boundaries also impede dislocation motion. Thus, they also contribute to strengthening.
- The *magnitude of* the observed *strengthening depends upon* the *structure of the grain boundaries* and the degree of *misorientation between grains*.
- Several models describe grain boundary strengthening. Nearly all of them reduce to the form of the original Hall-Petch relationship.
  - E.O. Hall, “The deformation and ageing of mild steel III. Discussion of results,” *Proceedings of the Physical Society B*, 64 (1951) p. 747.
  - N.J. Petch, “The cleavage strength of polycrystals,” *J. Iron Steel Inst.*, 174 (1953), p. 25.

# RECALL: Dislocation Pileups

- When dislocations generated by sources approach obstacles on slip planes, they often pile up. Suitable obstacles include:
  - ▶ Grain boundaries
  - Second phases
  - Sessile dislocations
  - Etc...

- Lead dislocation is acted on by applied shear stress and interaction forces (i.e., back stress) from other dislocations.



$$\tau(\text{lead dislocation}) \cong n\tau$$

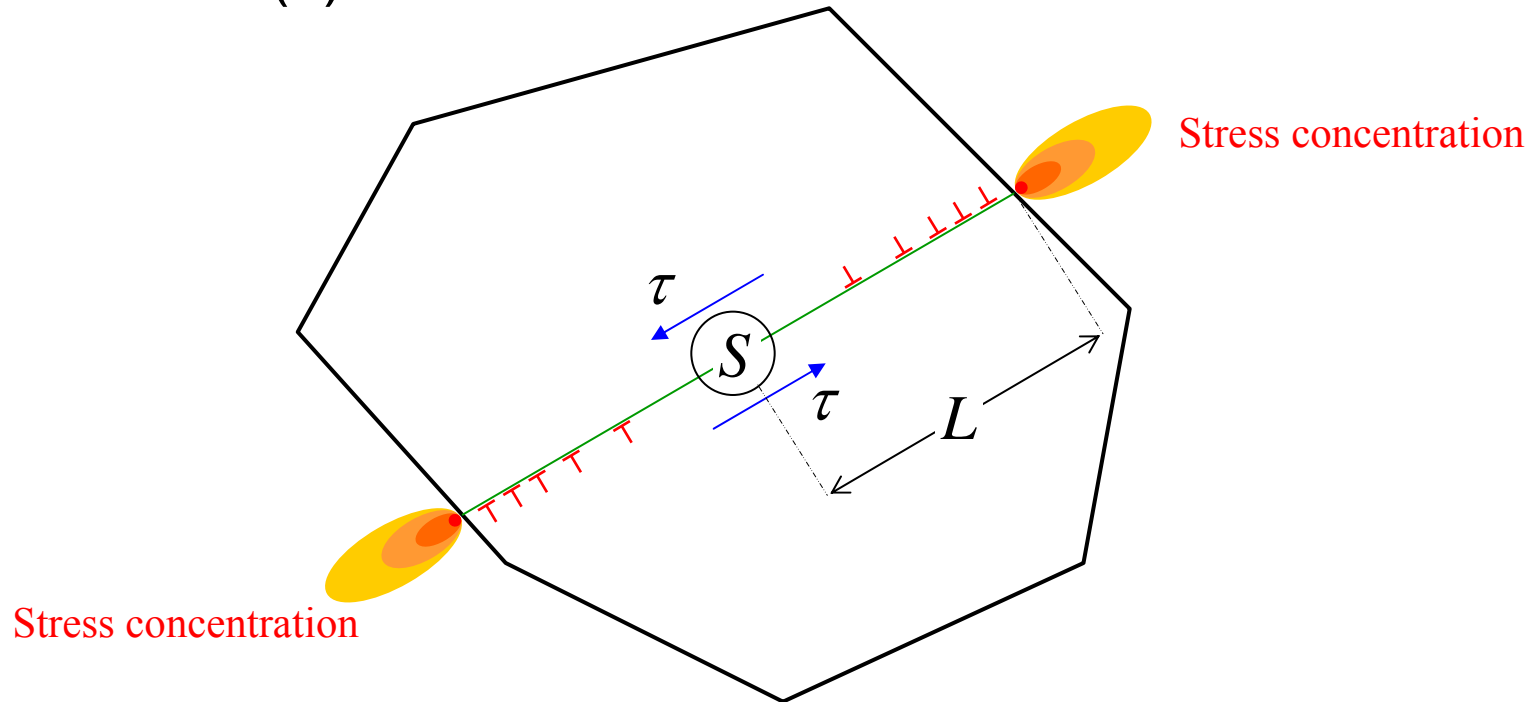
$$n = \frac{k\pi\tau L}{Gb} \quad \text{or} \quad n = \frac{k\pi\tau D}{4Gb}$$

[For  $\perp$  source in center of grain]

where  $k = 1$  for screw dislocations and  $(1-\nu)$  for edge dislocations.

## Grain boundary strengthening (2)

- Consider a grain that contains a single dislocation source ( $S$ ) in its center.



- Dislocations emitted from point sources within individual grains (e.g., Frank-Read sources) encounter a *lattice friction stress*  $\tau_0$  (i.e., a Peierls stress) as they move on a slip plane towards a grain boundary.

## Grain boundary strengthening (2)

- The lattice friction stress opposes the *applied shear stress*  $\tau_{applied}$ .
- The *effective shear stress*  $\tau_{eff}$  that contributes to plastic deformation (i.e., the stress to make a dislocation move) is then given by:

$$\tau_{eff} = \tau_{applied} - \tau_o$$

- Since dislocation motion is impeded by grain boundaries, dislocations will pile up at GBs until the stress is large enough for them to break through the GBs.

## Grain boundary strengthening (3)

- In this model, the shear stress at the GB is given by:

$$\tau_{gb} = \tau_{eff} \sqrt{\frac{D}{4r}} = (\tau_{applied} - \tau_o) \sqrt{\frac{D}{4r}}$$

$D$  = grain size

$r$  = distance from source

- The quantity:

$$\sqrt{\frac{D}{4r}}$$

represents stress concentration on lead dislocation.

## Grain boundary strengthening (3)

- For explanation only, if we assume that bulk yielding ( $\tau_{applied} = \tau_{ys}$ ) occurs at a critical value of  $\tau_{gb}$ , we can rearrange the preceding equation in terms of the applied shear stress.

$$\tau_{applied} = \tau_o + \tau_{gb} \sqrt{\frac{4r}{D}}$$

- $\tau_{gb}$  and  $r$  are essentially constant, which reduces this equation to:

$$\tau_{ys} = \tau_o + k'_y D^{-1/2} \quad \text{or} \quad \sigma_{ys} = \sigma_o + k_y D^{-1/2}$$

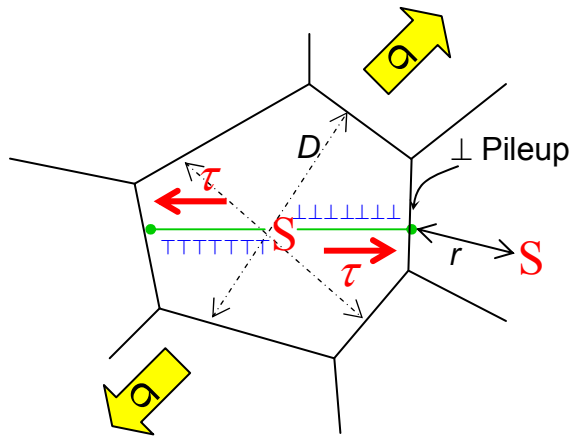
There are other models for GB strengthening  
(I've outlined a few of them on the next 3 pages)

This form of the HP equation is derived when we incorporate the Taylor factor, thus turning shear stress into a normal stress.



# Grain boundary strengthening (4)

- A.H. Cottrell (“Theory of brittle fracture in steel and similar metals,” *Trans. AIME*, 212, 1958, p. 192) modified the original Hall-Petch model.
- *Virtually impossible for dislocations to burst through grain boundaries.*



- Assumed that the stress concentration that produced a pileup in one grain activated a dislocation source in an adjacent grain.
- The maximum shear stress at a distance  $r$  ahead of the boundary is given by:

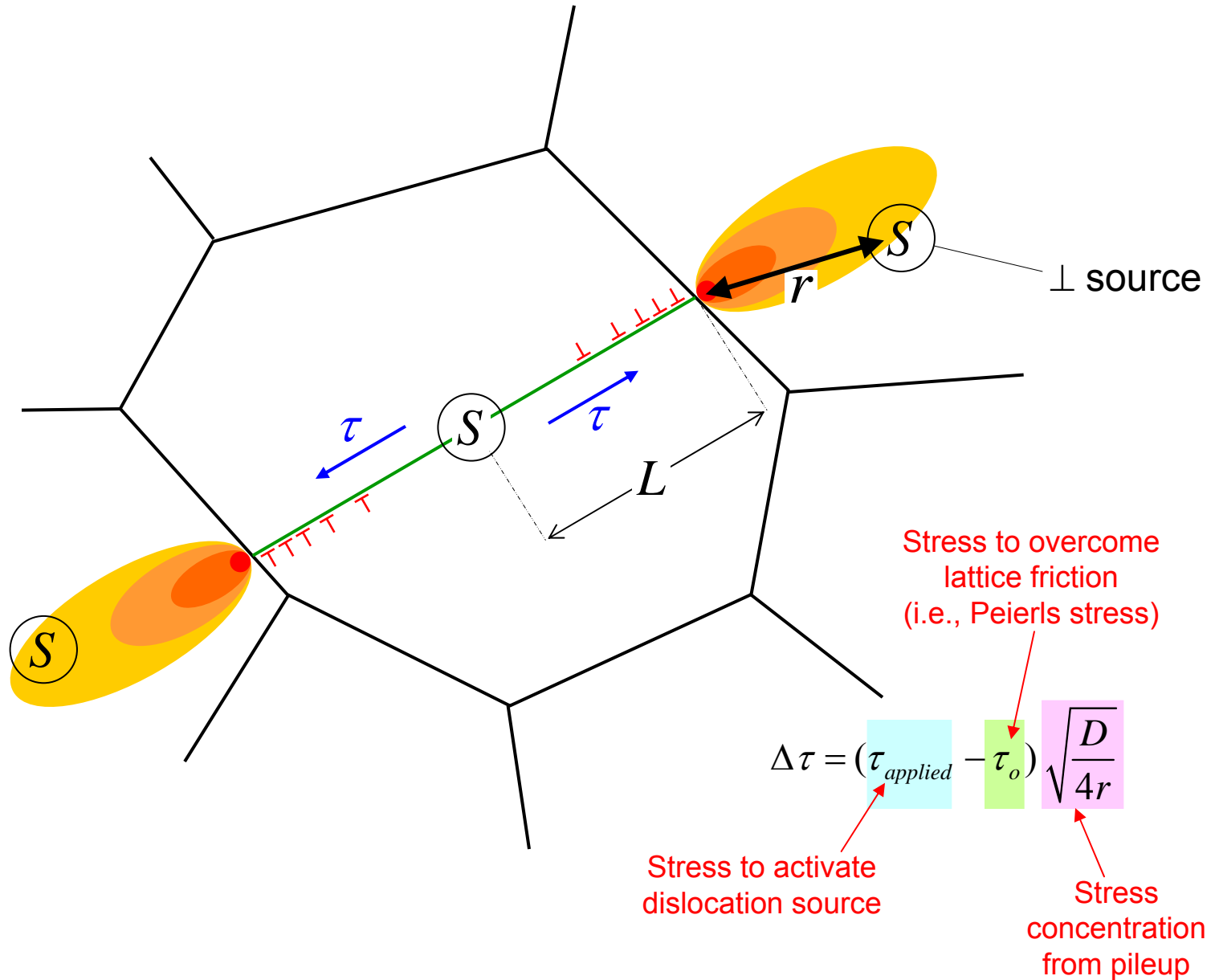
$$\Delta\tau = (\tau_{\text{applied}} - \tau_o) \sqrt{\frac{D}{4r}}$$

where  $\tau$  is the stress required to activate the source in the adjacent grain (i.e., stress required to initiate dislocation motion);  $\tau_{\text{applied}}$  is the applied shear stress at which the source becomes active; and  $\tau_o$  is the Peierls stress. In this model,  $r < D/2$ .

- $(D/4r)^{1/2}$  represents the stress concentration arising from the pileup. It increases as the number of dislocations increases (thus it  $\uparrow$  as  $D \uparrow$ ).

## Cottrell, 1958

- Assumed that the stress concentration is large enough to activate a dislocation source in an adjacent grain.



## Grain boundary strengthening (5)

$$\tau = (\tau_a - \tau_o) \sqrt{\frac{D}{4r}}$$

- Assuming that  $\tau_a = \tau_{ys}$ , this equation can now be rewritten as:

$$\tau_{ys} = \tau_o + \tau \sqrt{\frac{4r}{D}} = \boxed{\tau_{ys} = \tau_o + k'_y D^{-1/2}}$$

or

$$\boxed{\sigma_{ys} = \sigma_o + k_y D^{-1/2}}$$

- The Hall-Petch and Cottrell models have physical appeal. However, very few investigators have observed dislocation pileups at boundaries.

## Grain boundary strengthening (6)

- Li (“Petch relation and grain boundary sources,” *Trans. TMS-AIME*, 227, 1963, p. 239) considered that grain size effects were caused by dislocation emission from grain boundary ledges.
- In this model, the ability of a grain boundary to emit dislocation is characterized by new parameter  $\mu$ .

$$\mu = \frac{\text{total length of } \perp \text{ line emitted}}{\text{unit area of grain boundary}}$$

- The parameter  $\mu$  is also related to the dislocation density at yielding,  $\rho_{\perp}$ , by the relation:

$$\rho_{\perp} = \frac{3\mu}{D}$$

- Recall from our lectures on work hardening the following:

$$\tau = \tau_o + \alpha Gb\sqrt{\rho_{\perp}}$$

- Combining terms, we obtain:

$$\tau_y = \tau_o + \alpha Gb\sqrt{\frac{3\mu}{D}} = \tau_o + k'_y D^{-1/2} \text{ or } \boxed{\sigma_y = \sigma_o + k_y D^{-1/2}}$$

# Grain boundary strengthening (7)

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_o + k_y D^{-1/2} \quad \text{or} \quad \Delta\sigma_{gb} = k_y D^{-1/2}$$

## **A FEW IMPORTANT THINGS TO CONSIDER:**

- $k_y$  increases when the Schmid factor  $m$  increases.
- Higher values of  $k_y$  correlate with increasing strength.
- In metals it is “usually” necessary to produce grains that are smaller than 5  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter to gain appreciable strengthening.
- However, there are some notable exceptions...

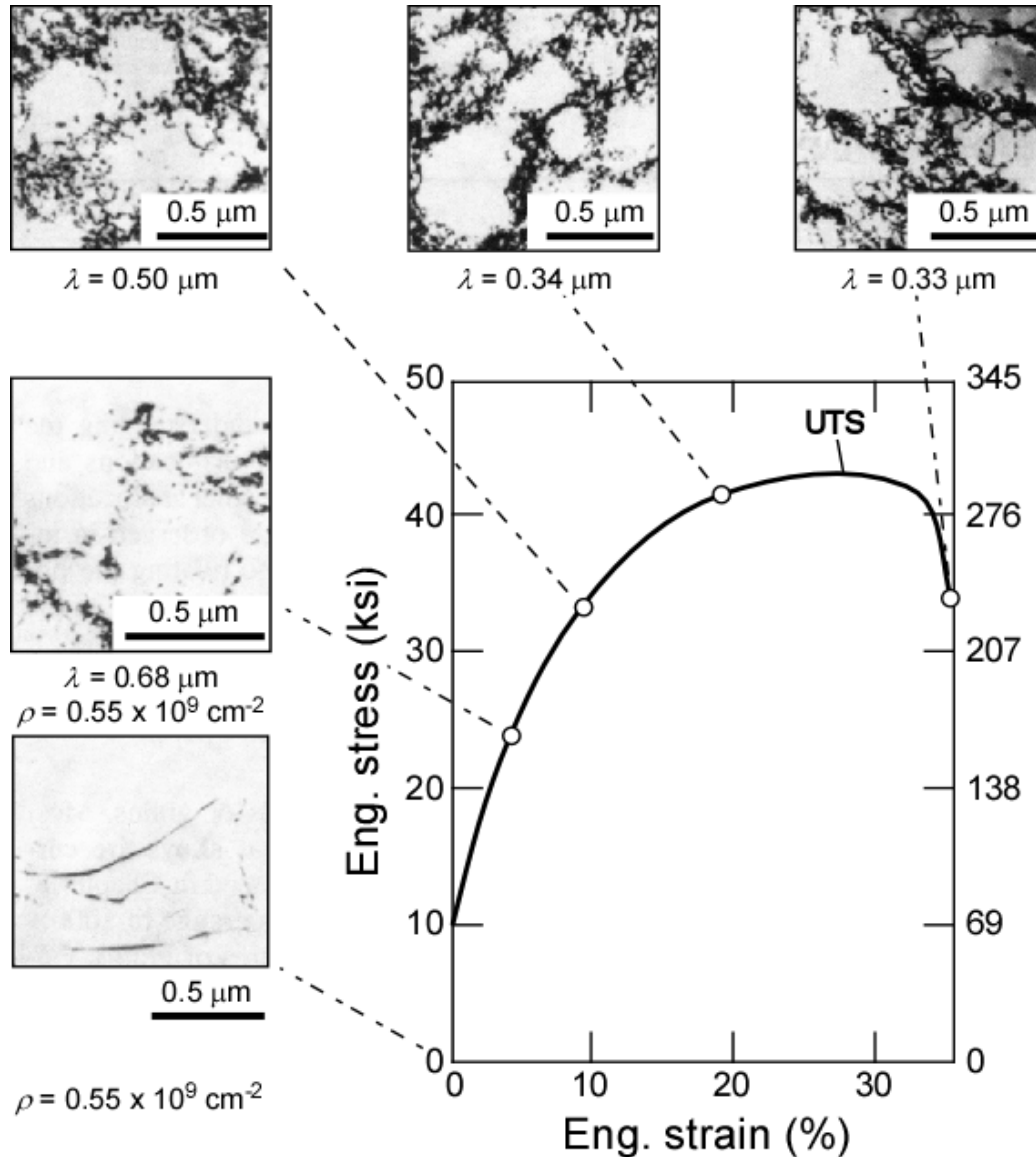
### Ex.: Nanocrystalline materials

- These are materials with grain sizes that are less than 100 nm (generally with GS near 10 nm).
- They can be viewed as composites consisting of small dislocation-free crystals in an amorphous matrix. Grain boundaries are on the order of 5 nm in width.

# Grain boundary strengthening (8)

## **MORE IMPORTANT THINGS TO CONSIDER:**

- The Hall-Petch relationship has been reported in a large number of crystalline materials.
- The degree to which grain boundary (i.e., grain size) strengthening can be effectively used depends on the material's Hall-Petch coefficient and the degree of grain-size refinement possible in the material.
- Example:
  - Engineered ceramics generally have finer grain sizes than metals and are thus much stronger. Of course this is also related to their complex crystal structures.
  - Fine grained ceramics are stronger and more fracture resistant than their coarse grained counterparts.
  - Nanocrystals?



## RECALL

$\rho_{\perp}$  increases as  $\varepsilon_p$  increases.  
Dislocation tangles and cells  
(i.e., subgrains) form.

Stress-strain behavior of 304 stainless steel at 650°C. Strain rate =  $3.17 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Figure adapted from J.R. Foulds, A.M. Ermi, and J. Moteff, *Materials Science and Engineering*, **45** (1980) 137-141.

## What is the impact of a change in $\varepsilon_p$ and $\rho_{\perp}$ ?

- Subgrains are analogous to small grains. However, they are not really grains as we typically think of them.
- This leads to a mild “grain boundary effect”. Similar to the Hall-Petch effect, which we will discuss next.
- It is easier to move  $\perp$ 's across cell boundaries than across GBs because the **misorientations between the different cells are very small in comparison to the misorientations between regular grains.**

$$\Delta\sigma'_{\perp} = \frac{k'_{\perp}}{\sqrt{s}}$$

$k'_{\perp}$  is the dislocation strengthening coefficient for the cell structure. It is smaller than the Hall-Petch constant.

In this equation  $s$  is the average cell diameter.

- Similar expressions exist for lamellar structures. Why could this be?

$$\Delta\sigma_{\lambda} \propto \frac{\text{const.}}{\sqrt{\lambda}}$$



## Summary of hardening/strengthening mechanisms for crystalline solids

Hardening Mechanism	Nature of Obstacle	Strong or Weak	Hardening Law
Work hardening	Other dislocations	Strong	$\Delta\tau = \alpha Gb\sqrt{\rho}$ (see [1])
Grain size / Hall-Petch	Grain boundaries	Strong	$\Delta\tau = k'_y / \sqrt{d}$ (see [2])
Solid solution	Solute atoms	Weak (see [3])	$\Delta\tau = G\varepsilon_s^{3/2} c^{1/2} / 700$ (see [4])
Deforming particles	Small, coherent particles	Weak (see [5])	$\Delta\tau = CG\varepsilon^{3/2} \sqrt{\frac{fr}{b}}$ (see [6])
Non-deforming particles	Large, incoherent particles	Strong (see [7])	$\Delta\tau = \frac{Gb}{(L - 2r)}$

[1]  $\alpha$  equals about 0.2 for FCC metals and about 0.4 for BCC metals.

[2]  $k'_y$  scales with inherent flow stress and/or shear modulus; therefore  $k'_y$  is generally greater for BCC metals than for FCC metals.

[3] Exception to weak hardening occurs for interstitials in BCC metals; the shear distortion interacts with screw dislocations leading to strong hardening.

[4] Equation apropos to substitutional atoms; parameter  $\varepsilon_s$  is empirical, reflecting a combination of size and modulus hardening.

[5] Coherent particles can be "strong" in optimally aged materials.

[6] Constant  $C$  depends on specific mechanism of hardening; parameter  $\varepsilon$  relates to hardening mechanism(s).

Equation shown applies to early stage precipitation. Late stage precipitation results in saturation hardening.

[7] Highly overaged alloys can represent "weak" hardening.

**SYMBOLS :**  $G$  = shear modulus;  $b$  = Burgers vector;  $\rho$  = dislocation density ;  $d$  = grain size;  $c$  = solute atom concentration (at.%);  $f$  = precipitate volume fraction;  $r$  = precipitate radius;  $L$  = spacing between precipitates on slip plane.

# Combination of Strengthening Mechanisms (up to this point)

## MORE IMPORTANT THINGS TO CONSIDER:

- For a single phase polycrystalline alloy with a dislocation density of  $\rho_{\perp}$ , the strength increase due to work hardening and grain size hardening can be crudely estimated by superimposing some of the terms that we have derived thus far.

$$\Delta\sigma = \Delta\sigma_{\perp} + \Delta\sigma_{gb} + \Delta\sigma'_{\perp} = k_{\perp}\sqrt{\rho_{\perp}} + \frac{k_y}{\sqrt{D}} + \frac{k'_{\perp}}{\sqrt{s}}$$

- This of course neglects the possibility of other strengthening mechanisms and any potential interactions between them.
- Keep in mind, other things do occur which significantly complicate our ability to develop generally applicable descriptions of strengthening.