

Chpt 5: Imperfections in Solids

ISSUES TO ADDRESS...

- What types of defects arise in solids? Describe them.
- Can the number and type of defects be varied and controlled?
- How do defects affect material properties?
- Are defects undesirable?

Given masses or atomic weights of two or more elements in an alloy, calculate weight or atomic percentages.

Lattice Defects

The concept of a perfect lattice is adequate for explaining *structure-insensitive* properties (esp. for metals).

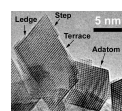
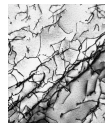
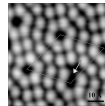
But, to understand *structure-sensitive* properties, it is necessary to consider numerous lattice defects.

Practically all mechanical properties are structure-sensitive properties.

(almost) structure-insensitive	structure-sensitive
elastic constants	Electrical conductivity
Melting points	Semiconducting properties
density	Yield stress
Specific heat	Fracture strength
coefficient of thermal expansion	Creep strength

Types of Imperfections

- Vacancy atoms
 - Interstitial atoms
 - Substitutional atoms
- Point defects**
- Dislocations
 - Edges, Screws, Mixed
- Line defects**
- Grain Boundaries
 - Stacking Faults
 - Anti-Phase and Twin Boundaries
- Planar defects**



We need to describe them and understand their effects.

Length Scale of Imperfections

point, line, planar, and volumetric defects

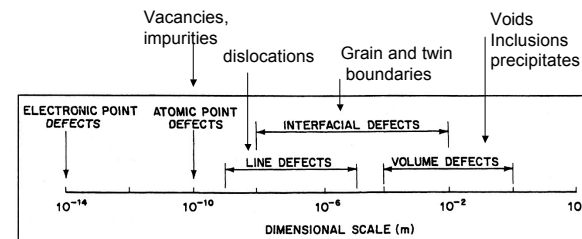
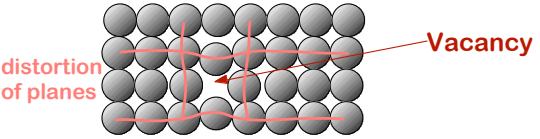


Figure 4.1 Dimensional ranges of different classes of defects.

Point Defects

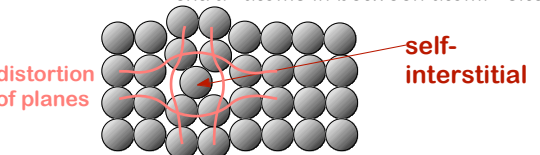
- Vacancies:** vacant atomic sites in a structure.



Vacancy

distortion of planes

- Self-Interstitials:** "extra" atoms in between atomic sites.

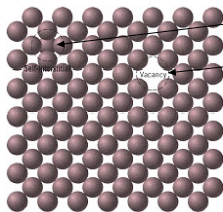


self-interstitial

distortion of planes

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Point Defects



Self-interstitial: atom crowded in 'holes'

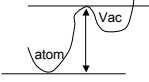
Vacancy: a vacant lattice site

It is not possible to create a crystal free of vacancies. About 1 out of 10,000 sites are vacant near melting.

Self-interstitials are much less likely in metals, e.g., as it is hard to get big atom into small hole - there is large distortions in lattice required that costs energy.

Thermodynamics (temperature and counting) provides an expression for

Vacancy Concentration: (see handout)

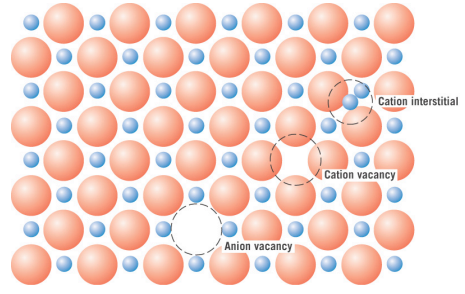
$$\frac{N_v}{N} = \exp\left(-\frac{Q_v}{k_B T}\right)$$


Q_v = vacancy formation energy
 $k_B = 1.38 \times 10^{-23}$ J/atom-K = 8.62×10^{-5} eV/atom-K
 $k_B/\text{mole} = R = 1.987$ cal/mol-K

Defects ALWAYS cost energy!

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Point Defects in Ceramics



Cation interstitial

Cation vacancy

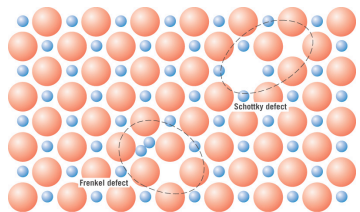
Anion vacancy

Why is it rather improbable that anion interstitials exist?

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Frenkel and Schottky Defects: paired anions and cations

- Electronic neutrality **must be maintained** in crystal.
- Defects must come in pairs to maintain $\Delta Q = 0$.
- Cation-vacancy + Cation-interstitial = **Frenkel Defect** ($\Delta Q = 0$)
- In AX-type crystals, Cation-vacancy + Anion-vacancy = **Schottky Defect** ($\Delta Q = 0$)



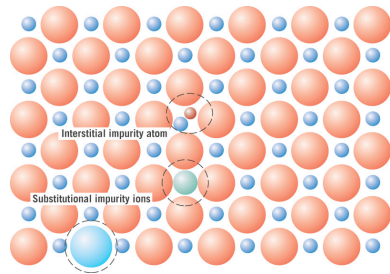
Schottky defect

Frenkel defect

Color centers: Balancing missing cation by bound extra electron is also possible.

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Ionic Crystals and Impurities: Interstitial, anion-substitutional, cation-substitutional



The diagram shows a 3D lattice of red spheres (anions) and blue spheres (cations). One blue sphere is located in an interstitial space, labeled 'Interstitial impurity atom'. Another blue sphere is replaced by a green sphere, labeled 'Substitutional impurity ions'.

Consider NaCl. (use charge neutrality)

- What point defects are possible when a Ca^{2+} substitutes for Na^+ ?
- How many of these defects exists for every Ca^{2+} ion?

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Ionic Crystals and Impurities: Interstitial, anion-substitutional, cation-substitutional

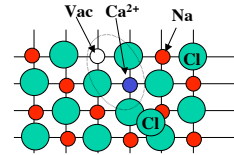
Consider NaCl. (use charge neutrality)

- What point defects are possible when a Ca^{2+} substitutes for Na^+ ?
- How many of these defects exists for every Ca^{2+} ion?

• Replacement of Na^+ by a Ca^{2+} introduces 1 excess positive (+1).

$\Delta Q=0$ only if

- a single positive charge is eliminated. (Make a Na^+ vacancy, -1)
- a single negative charge is added. (Make a Cl^- interstitial, -1)



The diagram shows a 2D lattice of green spheres (Cl-) and red spheres (Na+). A green sphere is labeled 'Cl', a red sphere is labeled 'Na', and a white circle is labeled 'Vac'. A green sphere is also shown in an interstitial space, labeled 'Ca2+'.

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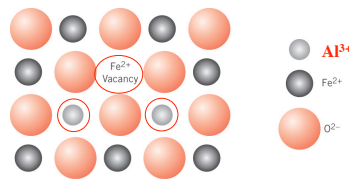
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Ionic Crystals and Impurities: Interstitial, anion-substitutional, cation-substitutional

- With multiple valences, it is possible not to have correct cation/anion ratio.
- e.g., NaCl or FeO are 1-to-1 ratio.

Consider Fe^{2+} O^{2-} and add Al^{3+} (via Al_2O_3) to replace Fe^{2+} .

- Add Al^{3+} in place Fe^{2+} (not neutral), so excess charge of +1 must be offset.
- What happens? With two Al^{3+} defects, need one Fe^{2+} vacancy for neutrality, i.e., $2(+1) - (+2) = 0$.



The diagram shows a 3D lattice of red spheres (O2-) and grey spheres (Fe2+). One grey sphere is replaced by a white circle, labeled 'Fe2+ Vacancy'. A legend shows a grey sphere as 'Al3+' and a red sphere as 'O2-'.

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Equilibrium Concentration of Point Defects

- Equilibrium concentration varies with temperature!

No. of defects

Activation energy

No. of potential defect sites.

Each lattice site is a potential vacancy site

$$C_v = \frac{N_D}{N} = \exp\left(\frac{-Q_D}{kT}\right)$$

Boltzmann's constant
(1.38×10^{-23} J/atom K)
(8.62×10^{-5} eV/atom K)

Temperature

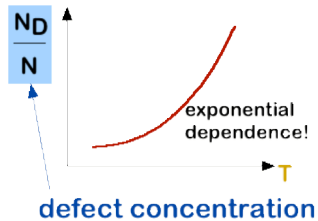
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Measuring Activation Energy

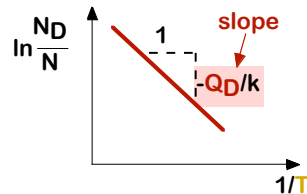
- We can get Q from an experiment.

- Measure this...



$$\frac{N_D}{N} = \exp\left(\frac{-Q_D}{kT}\right)$$

- Replot it...



Estimating Vacancy Concentration

- Find the equil. # of vacancies in 1m^3 of Cu at 1000C.
- Given: $\rho = 8.4\text{ g/cm}^3$ $A_{\text{Cu}} = 63.5\text{g/mol}$
 $Q_V = 0.9\text{eV/atom}$ $N_A = 6.02 \times 10^{23}\text{ atoms/mole}$

$$C_V = \frac{N_D}{N} = \exp\left(\frac{-Q_D}{kT}\right) = 2.7 \cdot 10^{-4}$$

$$\text{For } 1\text{m}^3, N = \rho \times \frac{N_A}{A_{\text{Cu}}} \times 1\text{m}^3 = 8.0 \times 10^{28}\text{ sites}$$

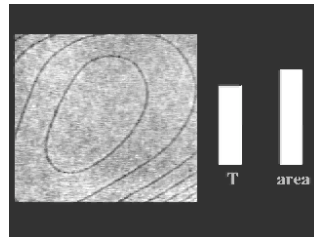
- Solve: $N_D = 2.7 \cdot 10^{-4} \cdot 8.0 \times 10^{28}\text{ sites} = 2.2 \times 10^{25}\text{ vacancies}$

* What happens when temperature is slowly reduced to 500 C, or is rapidly quenched to 500 C?

$$10^6\text{ cm}^3 = 1\text{ m}^3$$

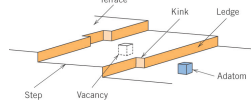
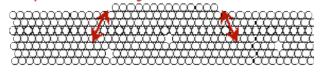
Observing Equil. Vacancy Concentration

- Low-energy electron microscope view of (110) surface of NiAl.
- Larger T causes surface island of atoms to grow.
- Why? Equilibrium vacancy conc. increases via atom motion from the crystal to the surface, where they join the island.



Reprinted with permission from Nature (K.F. McCarthy, J.A. Nobel, and N.C. Bartelt, "Vacancies in Solids and the Stability of Surface Morphology", Nature, 412, 622-625 (2001). Image is 5.75 μm by 5.75 μm .) Copyright (2001) Macmillan Publishers, Ltd.

Island grows/shrinks to maintain equil. vacancy conc. in the bulk.



Radiation damage creates numerous defects

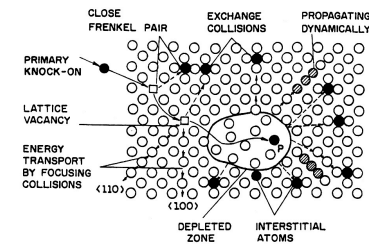


Figure 4.9 Seeger model of damage produced by irradiation. P indicates the position where the first "knock-on" terminates. (Reprinted with permission from A. Seeger, in *Proc. Symp. Radiat. Damage Solids React.*, Vol. 1, IAEA, Vienna, 1962, pp. 101, 105)

In nuclear reactor, this effects causes expected lifetime and failures.
 In space, charged particles bombard objects always.

Volumetric Defects from Radiation Damage

Cracks, voids, inclusions, pores, other phases usually caused by processing.

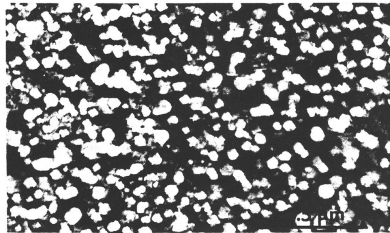


Figure 4.10 Voids formed in nickel irradiated using 400 keV $^{14}\text{N}^+$ ions to a dose of 40 dpa at 500°C; notice the voids with polyhedral shape. (Courtesy L. J. Chen and A. J. Ardell)

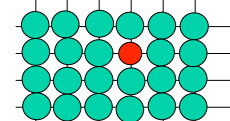
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Alloying: atoms mixed on a lattice Solid Solutions and Ordered Compounds

Two Possibilities for **Solid Solutions**: B atoms in A atoms

Substitutional

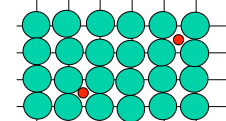
'new element replaces host atoms'



e.g. Ni in Cu, steels

Interstitials

'new element goes in holes'



e.g. semiconductor devices:
doped-Si C in Fe

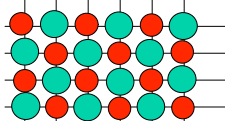
Can we roughly estimate what atoms will form solid solutions?

Alloying: atoms mixed on a lattice Solid Solutions and Ordered Compounds

Ordered Substitutional and Interstitials Compounds

Substitutional

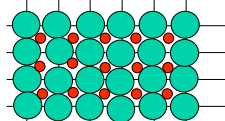
element replaces host atoms
in an orderly arrangement



e.g., Ni_3Al (hi-T yield strength),
 $\text{Al}_3(\text{Li,Zr})$ (strengthening)

Interstitial

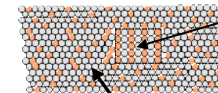
element goes into holes
in an orderly arrangement



e.g., small impurities, clays
ionic crystals, ceramics.

Particles of New Phase in Solid-Solution Alloys

- Solid solution of B in A plus particles of a new phase (usually for a larger amount of B)

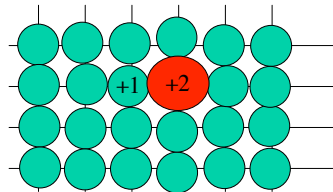


Second phase particle
--different **composition**
--often different structure.

Solid Solution phase B atoms in A

Hume-Rothery Rules for Alloys (atoms mixing on a lattice)

Will mixing 2 (or more) different types of atoms lead to a solid-solution phase?



Empirical observations have identified 4 major contributors through :

Atomic Size Factor , Crystal Structure, Electronegativity, Valences

Hume-Rothery Rules for Mixing

Empirical rules for substitutional solid-solution formation were identified from experiment that are not exact, but give an expectation of formation. Briefly,

1) Atomic Size Factor The 15% Rule

If "size difference" of elements are greater than $\pm 15\%$, the lattice distortions (i.e. local lattice strain) are too big and solid-solution will not be favored.

$$DR\% = \frac{r_{\text{solute}} - r_{\text{solvent}}}{r_{\text{solvent}}} \times 100\% < \pm 15\% \text{ will not disallow formation.}$$

2) Crystal Structure Like elemental crystal structures are better

For appreciable solubility, the crystal structure for metals must be the same.

3) Electronegativity DE ~ 0 favors solid-solution.

The more electropositive one element and the more electronegative the other, then "intermetallic compounds" (order alloys) are more likely.

4) Valences Higher in lower alright. Lower in higher, it's a fight.

A metal will dissolve another metal of higher valency more than one of lower valency.

Hume-Rothery Empirical Rules In Action

Example Applications Si-Ge semiconductor, Cu-Ni and Cu-Ag metal alloys.
Is solid-solution favorable, or not?

• Si-Ge Alloys

Rule 1: $r_{\text{Si}} = 0.117 \text{ nm}$ and $r_{\text{Ge}} = 0.122 \text{ nm}$.

$$DR\% = \frac{r_{\text{solute}} - r_{\text{solvent}}}{r_{\text{solvent}}} \times 100\% = 4\% \quad \text{favorable} \checkmark$$

Rule 2: Si and Ge have the diamond crystal structure. **favorable** \checkmark

Rule 3: $E_{\text{Si}} = 1.90$ and $E_{\text{Ge}} = 2.01$. Thus, $DE\% = 5.8\%$ **favorable** \checkmark

Rule 4: Valency of Si and Ge are both 4. **favorable** \checkmark

Expect Si and Ge to form S.S. over wide composition range.

In fact, S.S. forms over entire composition at high temperature.

Hume-Rothery Empirical Rules In Action

Is solid-solution favorable, or not?

• Cu-Ni Alloys

Rule 1: $r_{\text{Cu}} = 0.128 \text{ nm}$ and $r_{\text{Ni}} = 0.125 \text{ nm}$.

$$DR\% = \frac{r_{\text{solute}} - r_{\text{solvent}}}{r_{\text{solvent}}} \times 100\% = 2.3\% \quad \text{favorable} \checkmark$$

Rule 2: Ni and Cu have the FCC crystal structure. **favorable** \checkmark

Rule 3: $E_{\text{Cu}} = 1.90$ and $E_{\text{Ni}} = 1.80$. Thus, $DE\% = -5.2\%$ **favorable** \checkmark

Rule 4: Valency of Ni and Cu are both +2. **favorable** \checkmark

Expect Ni and Cu forms S.S. over wide composition range.

At high T, it does (helpful processing info), but actually phase separates at low T due to energetics (quantum mechanics).

Hume-Rothery Empirical Rules In Action

Is solid-solution favorable, or not?

• Cu-Ag Alloys

Rule 1: $r_{\text{Cu}} = 0.128 \text{ nm}$ and $r_{\text{Ag}} = 0.144 \text{ nm}$.

$$\text{DR}\% = \frac{r_{\text{solute}} - r_{\text{solvent}}}{r_{\text{solvent}}} \times 100\% = 9.4\% \quad \text{favorable} \checkmark$$

Rule 2: Ag and Cu have the FCC crystal structure. favorable \checkmark

Rule 3: $E_{\text{Cu}} = 1.90$ and $E_{\text{Ni}} = 1.80$. Thus, $\text{DE}\% = -5.2\%$ favorable \checkmark

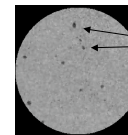
Rule 4: Valency of Cu is +2 and Ag is +1. NOT favorable

Expect Ag and Cu have limited solubility.

In fact, the Cu-Ag phase diagram (T vs. c) shows that a solubility of only 18% Ag can be achieved at high T in the Cu-rich alloys.

Alloying A Surface: Sn on Cu

- Low-energy electron microscope view of a (111) surface of Cu.
- Sn islands move on surface and "alloy" Cu with Sn making "bronze".
- Islands continually move into "unalloyed" regions and leave tiny bronze particles in their wake.
- Eventually, the islands disappear.



"Bronze"

Reprinted with permission from: A.K. Schmid, N.C. Bartelt, and R.Q. Hwang, "Alloying at Surfaces by the Migration of Reactive Two-Dimensional Islands", Science, Vol. 290, No. 5496, pp. 1561-64 (2000). Field of view is 1.5 μm and the temperature is 290K.

Defining Composition of Alloy

Amount of impurity (B) and host (A) in the **system**.

Two descriptions:

• Weight %

$$C_B = \frac{\text{mass of B}}{\text{total mass}} \times 100$$

• Atom %

$$C'_B = \frac{\# \text{ atoms of B}}{\text{total \# atoms}} \times 100$$

• Conversion between wt % and at% in an A-B alloy:

$$C_B = \frac{C'_{BAB}}{C'_{AAA} + C'_{BAB}} \times 100 \quad C'_B = \frac{C_{B/AB}}{C_{A/AA} + C_{B/AB}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mass of B} &= \text{moles of B} \times A_B \\ \text{mass of A} &= \text{moles of A} \times A_A \end{aligned}$$

atomic weight of B
atomic weight of A