The Science and Technology of Civil Engineering Materials

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J. Francis Young

Professor of Civil Engineering University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Sidney Mindess

Professor of Civil Engineering and Associate Vice President Academic University of British Columbia

Robert J. Gray

Consultant Vancouver, British Columbia

Arnon Bentur

Professor of Civil Engineering and Vice President Research Technion—Israel Institute of Technology



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Director of production and manufacturing: David W. Riccardi

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Preface

The modern civil engineer needs to deal with a variety of materials that are often integrated in the same structure, such as steel and concrete, or are used separately for construction projects, such as pavements from asphalt and portland cement concretes. Many of these construction materials have been with us for centuries, like timber, while others, like portland cement concrete and steel, are relatively new and have been used mainly during the last century. The civil engineering field is also making headway in the use of even more modern materials, such as polymers and composites. The modern principles of materials science have been applied extensively over the past three decades to construction materials, and the benefits of this approach can be seen clearly on site: The traditional construction materials used at present are far superior to those of the past (achieving, for example, concrete strength levels greater by an order of magnitude), and there is increased use of synthetic and composite materials that are specially formulated for civil engineering applications.

As a result of these changes and the expected dynamic developments in this field, there is a clear trend in the industry to move from the empirical-technological approach of the past to one which incorporates both the technology and materials science concepts. In view of this modern trend, there is a need for a revision in the materials education of the civil engineer. Traditionally, materials science and construction materials have been taught almost as separate entities. Materials science teaching was based mainly on texts developed for courses for engineering areas in which metals are of the greatest interest, with some reference to other materials, such as polymers and ceramics. Construction materials were taught thereafter independently, giving greater attention to their technology and much less to their science. As a result, civil engineers were limited in their overall view of construction materials and were lacking some of the concepts of materials science, such as surface properties, which are of prime importance in construction materials but receive hardly any attention in the traditional materials science texts.

This book offers a new approach, in which the science and technology are integrated. It is divided into four parts; the first two provide the general concepts of materials, referring to their fundamental structure and mechanical properties (Part I is titled "The Fundamentals of Materials," and Part II is "Behavior of Materials under Stress"). The other two parts of the book deal with specific construction materials (the titles are as follows: Part III, "Particulate Composites: Portland Cement and Asphalt Concretes"; Part IV, "Steel, Wood, Polymers, and Composites"). The parts of this book dealing with general materials science concepts are presented in an approach which is directed toward civil engineering needs and emphasizes surface properties and amorphous structures. The parts of this book dealing with the actual construction materials are written with the view of combining the materials science and engineering approaches with an emphasis on materials characteristics of particular interest for civil engineering applications.

This book is designed primarily for use at the undergraduate level, but it can also serve as a guide for the professional engineer. Thus it includes reference to

standards and specifications. It is intended to serve as a basis for a two-semester course. However, it is designed to be flexible enough to be adjusted for shorter courses. Such a course could be based on all of Part I, three of the chapters in Part II (Chapter 5, "Response of Materials to Stress," Chapter 6, "Failure and Fracture," and Chapter 7, "Rheology of Fluids and Solids"), and selected chapters dealing with specific construction materials, in view of the intended scope of the shortened course.

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1

Atomic Bonding

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Introductory courses in chemistry have discussed atomic structure and the way in which chemical bonds serve to ensure that atoms achieve stable electron configurations by adding, removing, or sharing electrons. In this chapter we will simply review the characteristics of the various types of bonds that can form in materials. These are summarized in Table 1.1 and Fig. 1.1 and can be divided into two major categories: the strong (primary) bonds between atoms (ionic, covalent, and metallic) and the weak (secondary) van der Waals bonds between molecules. The position of an element in the periodic table determines the type of chemical bonds it can form.

1.2 IONIC BONDS

Elements in Groups I and II readily lose electrons to form cations (i.e., they are strongly electropositive), while at the other end of the periodic table, elements in Groups VI and VII readily gain electrons (they are strongly electronegative). Thus, when these elements are brought together there will be an exchange of electrons to form ionic compounds containing M^+ and X^- , where M is a Group I element and X is a Group VII element; or M^{2+} and X^{2-} , where M is a Group II element and X is a Group VI element.

The interaction energy between a pair of ions is proportional to $(z^+z^-e^2)/r$, where z is the ionic charge and r is the distance between ions. However, we seldom find discrete ion pairs; rather ions of a given charge try to be surrounded by as many ions of the opposite charge as possible (Fig. 1.1b). In the crystalline state

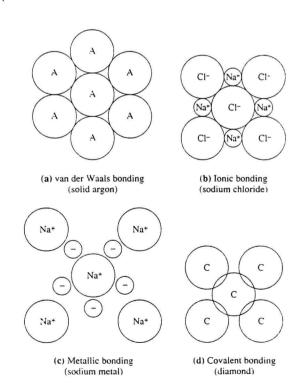
TABLE 1.1 Summary of bond types.

Bond Type	Bond Energies (kJ · mol ⁻¹)	Typical Materials	Typical Elements	Remarks
Ionic	500–1200 ^a	Ceramic Oxides Gypsum Rock salt Calcite	Compounds of Gp I, Gp II	All exist as crystalline solids.
Covalent	150–750 ^{a, b}	Diamond Glasses Silicon carbide	Gp IV. Gp V. Gp VI	States of matter at room temperature depend on intermolecular attraction.
Metallic	50–850 ^a	Metals	Elements of Gp I– III. Transition metals. Heavy elements of Gp IV and V.	May be liquid or solid depending on binding energies.
Hydrogen	10–30°	Water	F, O, N	Can be considered weak ionic or strong van der Waals. Strongly influences material behavior.
van der Waals	0.05-5	Thermoplastic polymers	Compounds of all elements	Primarily intermolecular bonds. Dominate the behavior and microstructure of construction material, such a concrete and asphalt.

^a Lattice energies of crystal.

^c Single hydrogen bond is about 2 kJ · mol⁻¹.

Figure 1.1 The principal types of crystalline binding. In (a) neutral atoms with closed electron shells are bound together weakly by the van der Waals forces associated with fluctuations in the charge distributions. In (b) electrons are transferred from the alkali atoms to the halogen atoms, and the resulting ions are held together by attractive electrostatic forces between the positive and negative ions. In (c) the valence electrons are taken away from each alkali atom to form a community electron sea in which the positive ions are dispersed. In (d) the neutral atoms appear to be bound together by the overlapping parts of their electron distributions.



b Isolated multiple covalent bonds (as formed in N_2 , for example) can be as strong as 950 kJ \cdot mol⁻¹.

(see Chapter 2), they take up specific arrangements to maximize the interactions between ions of opposite charge; but in the gaseous or liquid state these ions are free to move about. Hence, ionic solids will not conduct electricity unless they are either in the molten state or dissolved in water, where the ions are free to move under electric gradients.

1.3 COVALENT BONDS

For most elements, the need to lose or gain electrons will not be sufficient to form ions (or the ions will be unstable), and valency requirements are satisfied by sharing electrons. The simplest situation is the sharing of one pair of electrons between two elements, as in hydrogen (H_2) or methane (CH_4) , where there are four covalent C—H bonds. Two atomic orbitals, which each contain one electron, overlap and combine to form a single molecular orbital lying between the two atomic nuclei (Fig. 1.1d). When more than one covalent bond is formed by an element, the atomic orbitals may combine to adopt certain directional arrangements to increase their degree of overlap with other atomic orbitals and hence the strength of the covalent bond. This process is called hybridization. More than one atomic orbital from each atom may be involved, leading to multiple bonds between atoms.

Another complication is that electrons are seldom shared equally between two dissimilar atoms, but usually the electrons spend more time near the more electronegative atom (i.e., the atom with a greater tendency to attract electrons). There is thus a statistical separation of charge so that the bond has a permanent *dipole*. Such a bond is said to have partial ionic character, since an ionic bond implies complete separation of charge. Conversely, an ionic bond can be said to have some covalent character; in this case, the atomic orbitals of the ions are distorted, leading to a distortion of the ideal packing of ions in the crystal toward more directional arrangements that favor this distortion.

Covalent bonds thus lead to the formation of a specific grouping of atoms (molecules) in which all the atoms achieve stable electron configurations. Only a few materials are bound together principally by covalent forces acting between atoms in all directions; natural diamond and synthetic silicon carbide are common examples. Most covalent materials are composed of covalently bonded molecules; whereas the bonds between the atoms within the molecules are strong, the bonds between atoms in adjacent molecules are generally much weaker and involve van der Waals forces (see discussion in Sec. 1.5). Covalent molecules may range from simple molecules, like H_2 , to the very complex macromolecules, such as organic polymers, which may contain many thousands or millions of atoms in a single molecule.

1.4 METALLIC BONDS

Atoms of electronegative elements (e.g., chlorine, oxygen, or sulfur) can satisfy their electron needs through covalent bonding. But this possibility is not open to the electropositive elements since these elements wish to lose electrons while covalent bonding effectively adds electrons to an atom. This problem is solved by the metallic bond: All atoms give up electrons to a "common pool." becoming positive ions with a stable electron configuration. The free electrons occupy extended delocalized orbitals lying between the positive metal ions (Fig. 1.1c) so that the electrons are independent of any particular ion. These electron "clouds" bind the ions together but

Sec. 1.4 Metallic Bonds