



# Statistics of Grain Size Distributions

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27-750 Texture, Microstructure, and Anisotropy

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# Outline

- **Why grain size distributions?**
- **Statistical considerations of distributions**
  - The log-normal distribution
  - PDFs and CDFs
- **Theoretical approaches to grain size distributions**
  - Hillert distribution
  - Mullins distribution
- **Analysis of real microstructures**
  - Visualizations
    - Histograms
    - eCDFs
    - Probability plots
  - Sampling
  - Extreme value theory



# Why grain size distributions?

- Grain size has a measurable effect on material properties

Hall-Petch: 
$$\sigma_y \propto \frac{C}{\sqrt{D}}$$

$\sigma_y$  = yield stress  
 $C$  = constant  
 $D$  = 'grain size'

Creep: 
$$\dot{\epsilon} \propto D^n$$

$\dot{\epsilon}$  = strain rate  
 $n$  = creep exponent  
 $D$  = 'grain size'

- Real grain sizes exhibit dispersion, which leads to a *grain size distribution*
- So why only one 'grain size' in the phenomenological relationships?



# Why grain size distributions?

- **Answer: no one likes to deal with statistics**
- **Another answer: it's hard**
- **Kurzydowski attempted to incorporate grain dispersion into Hall-Petch by defining a constant size of grains (CSG) polycrystal**
- **Berbenni extended Kurzydowski by defining a size-dependant constitutive equation for elasto-viscoplastic behavior**
- **Both these approaches assume log-normal distributions of grains; but are grain size distributions really log-normal?**



# Log-normal distribution

The log-normal distribution describes a random variable whose natural logarithm follows the normal distribution. The ***cumulative distribution function*** (CDF) of a log-normal distribution is:

$$F_{\mu,\sigma}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left[ -\frac{\ln(x) - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}} \right] = \Phi \left[ \frac{\ln(x) - \mu}{\sigma} \right]$$

The ***probability density function*** (PDF) of a log-normal distribution is:

$$f_{\mu,\sigma}(x) = \frac{1}{x\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(\ln x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$



# PDFs and CDFs

- The PDF of a random variable defines the probability of that variable taking a particular value (think 'bell curve' e.g. normal distribution)

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = 1$$

The integral of a PDF along its domain must equal 1 (i.e., if discrete, all probabilities sum to 1)

- The CDF of a random variable defines the probability that a value of the variable will be found  $\leq x$  (think 's-curve')

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt$$

The CDF can be defined as the integral of the PDF up to  $x$



# Theoretical approaches: Hillert

- Hillert derived a limiting grain size distribution based on a presumed growth equation
- Assume grain boundary velocity is proportional to the local curvature:

$$v = M \Delta P = M \sigma \left( \frac{1}{\rho_1} + \frac{1}{\rho_2} \right)$$

**V** = velocity

**M** = mobility

**P** = pressure

**$\sigma$**  = grain boundary energy

**$\rho$**  = radii of curvature



# Theoretical approaches: Hillert

- The rate of change should be equivalent to the integral of the velocity around the grain boundary surface
- This allows us to rewrite the velocity as a rate of change for the grain size:

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \alpha M \sigma \left( \frac{1}{R_{cr}} - \frac{1}{R} \right)$$

**R = circle/sphere equivalent radius**

**R<sub>cr</sub> = critical radius**





# Theoretical approaches: Hillert

- **By the n-6 rule, the rate of change for grain size in 2D becomes:**

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \frac{M\sigma}{R} \left( \frac{n}{6} - 1 \right)$$

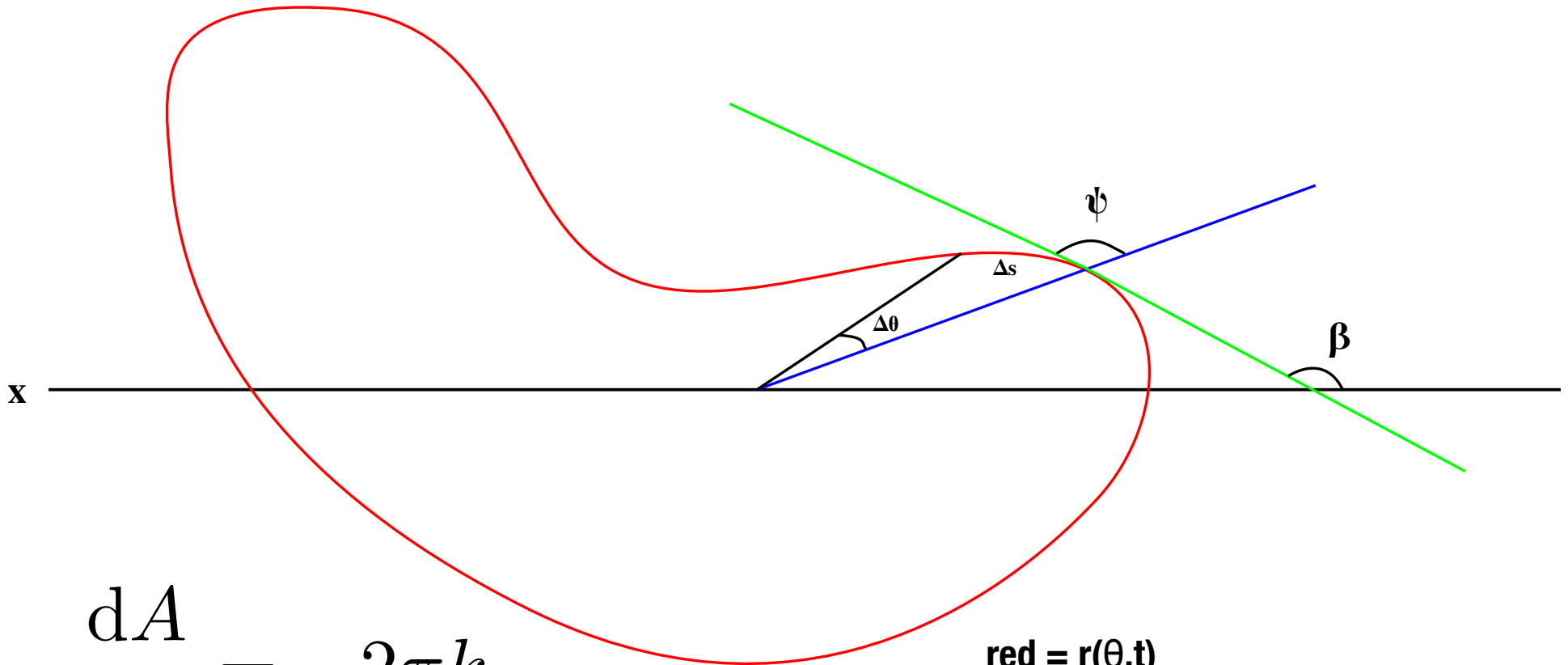
**n = number of sides**

- **But where does n-6 come from? Originally derived by von Neumann for soap froths, extended by Mullins**



# n-6 rule

Consider a plane curve  $r(\theta, t)$



$$\frac{dA}{dt} = -2\pi k$$

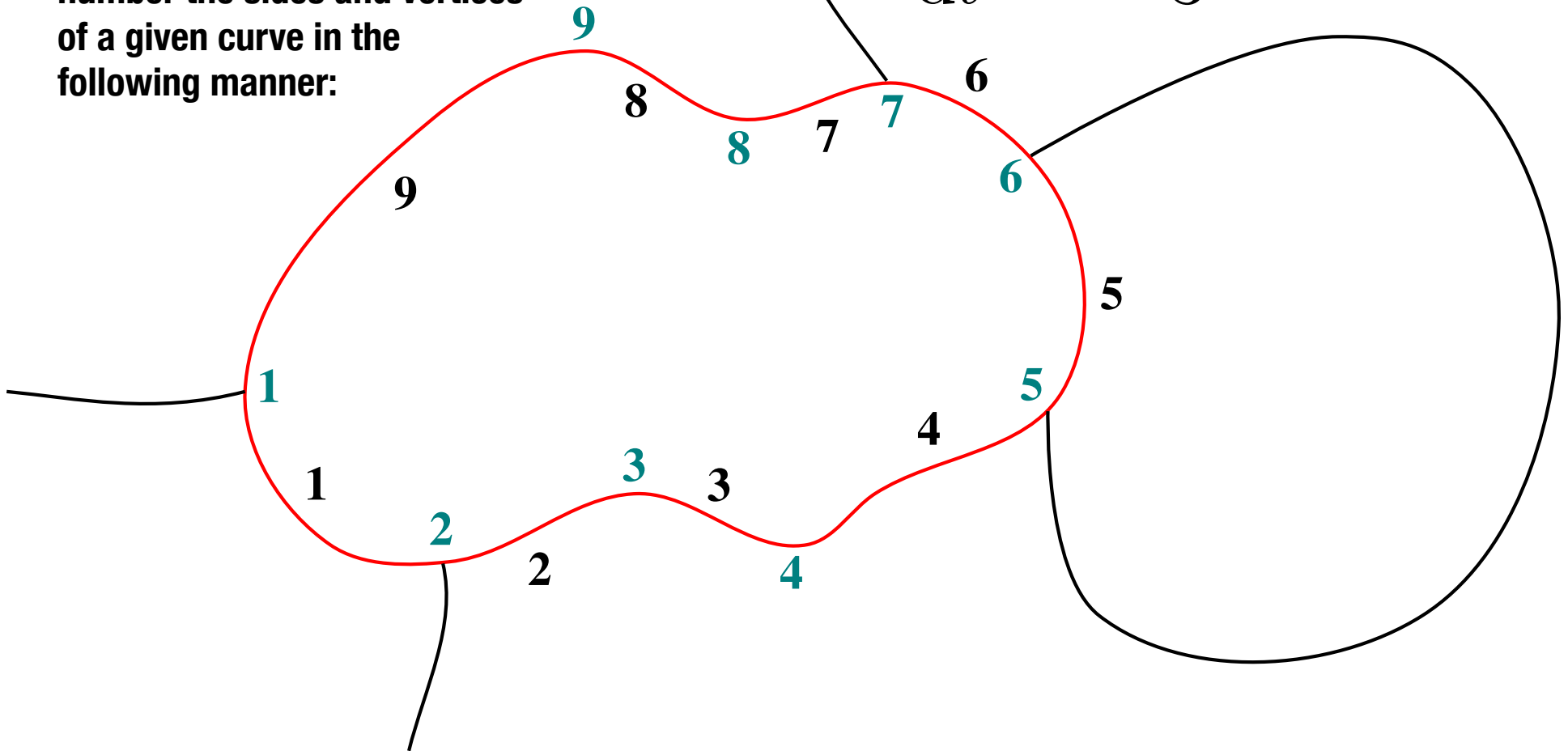
red =  $r(\theta, t)$   
 blue = polar vector  
 green = (directed) tangent  
 $k = M\sigma$



# n-6 rule

Consider a network of  $r_N(\theta, t)$  curves where all vertices terminate at angles of  $2\pi/3$ ; number the sides and vertices of a given curve in the following manner:

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = k \frac{\pi}{3} (n - 6)$$





# Theoretical approaches: Hillert

Now determine the average number of sides:

$$n = 6 + 6\alpha \left( \frac{R}{R_{cr}} - 1 \right) \longrightarrow$$

$$\bar{n} = 6 + 6\alpha \left( \frac{\bar{R}}{R_{cr}} - 1 \right) \longrightarrow$$

$$\bar{R} = R_{cr} \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{2}$$



# Theoretical approaches: Hillert

Finally, after some calculus, arrive at the growth equation:

$$\frac{du^2}{d\tau} = \gamma(u - 1) - u^2$$

$$u = R/R_{cr}$$

$$\gamma = 2\alpha M\sigma(dt/dR_{cr}^2)$$

$$\tau = \ln R_{cr}^2$$



# Theoretical approaches: Hillert

The goal is now to arrive at a PDF for the limiting grain size distribution. After some (more) calculus:

$$P(u) = \frac{\beta u}{(2-u)^{2+\beta}} (2e)^{\beta} \exp \frac{-2\beta}{2-u}$$

Is it a PDF?

$$\int_0^2 P(u) du = 1 \quad \text{YES!}$$



# Theoretical approaches: Mullins

- Mullins derived a more general form for the limiting grain size distribution that can extend up to  $\infty$  (as opposed to just 2)
- The distribution requires a function of the number of sides of a grain ( $s(x)$ ) and a function  $G(x)$  that is conceptually describes whether grains of a particular size will grow or shrink:

$$G(x) = x - \frac{d}{P} \int_x^{\infty} P(x') dx'$$

$x = R/\langle R \rangle$   
 $d = \text{dimensionality}$   
 $P = \text{PDF}$

**NB: the integration need not be taken to  $\infty$ !**



# Theoretical approaches: Mullins

Inverting  $G(x)$  yields an expression for the PDF:

$$P(x) = \frac{d}{x - G} \exp\left[-\int_0^x \frac{d}{x' - G(x')} dx'\right]$$

Not all  $G(x)$  *necessarily* yield a true PDF!

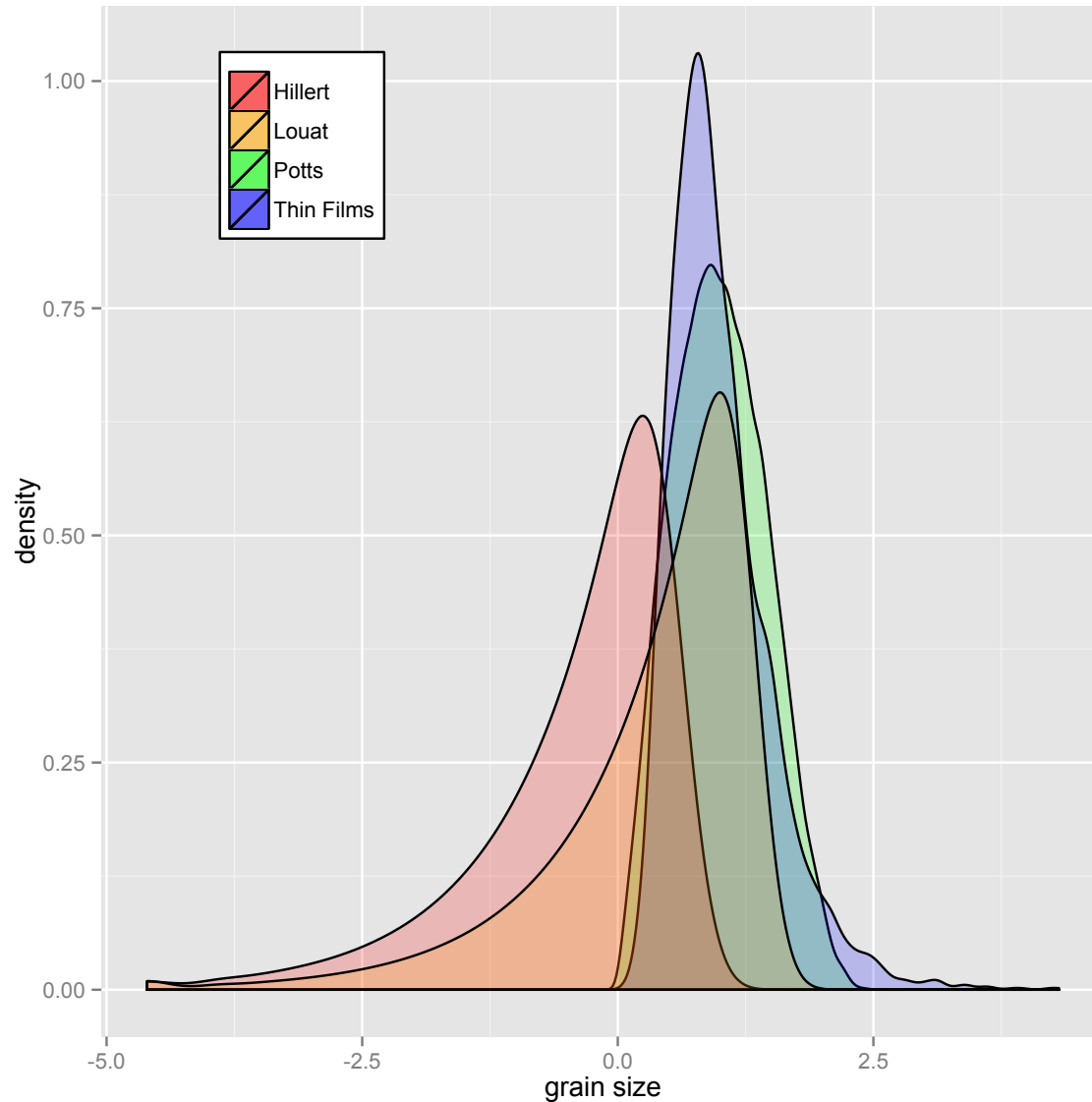
If  $s(x)$  is defined (in 2D) as a linear function of the number of sides, then Mullins is degenerate to Hillert!

There is no (closed-form) analytical solution in 3D since we lack a well-defined n-6 rule in higher dimensions





# Are they log-normal?



**Answer: not really...  
(they fail the standard  
tests)**

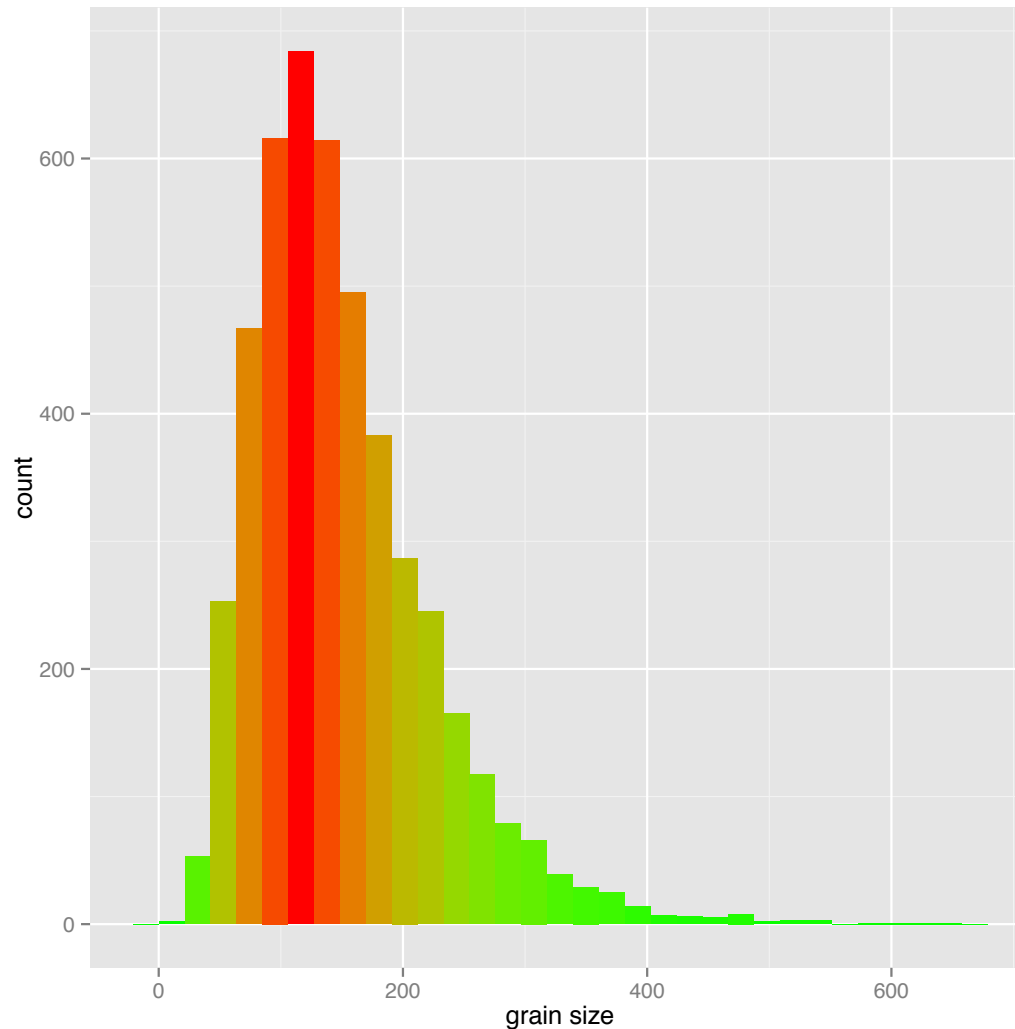
**They are not really  
close to real grain size  
distributions (or  
simulations) either!**

**So where do we go  
from here?**



# Visualizing grain size

Histograms provide a way to visualize the PDF

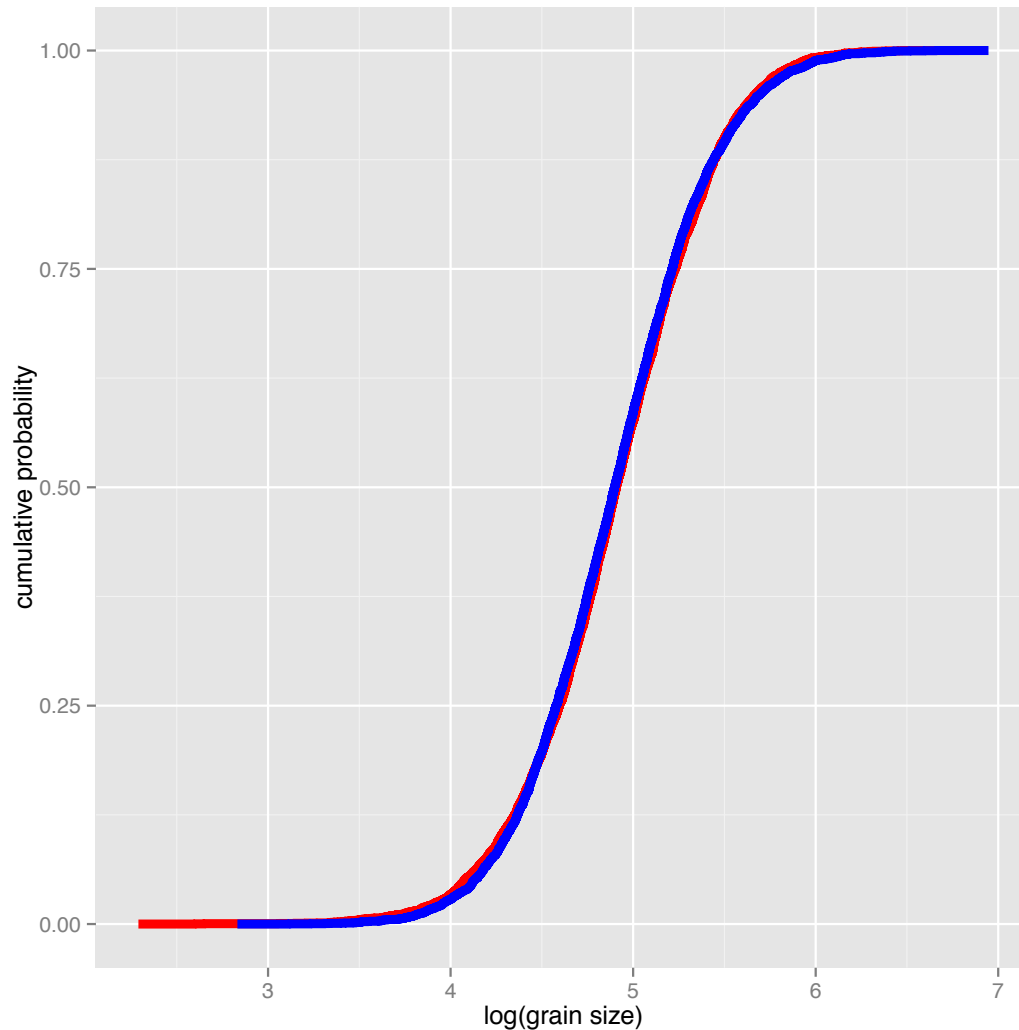


A histogram discretizes the data by separating it into *bins* (x axis). The y axis is then the total number of data points that fall in each bin



# Visualizing grain size

Empirical CDFs (eCDF) provide a way to visualize the CDF



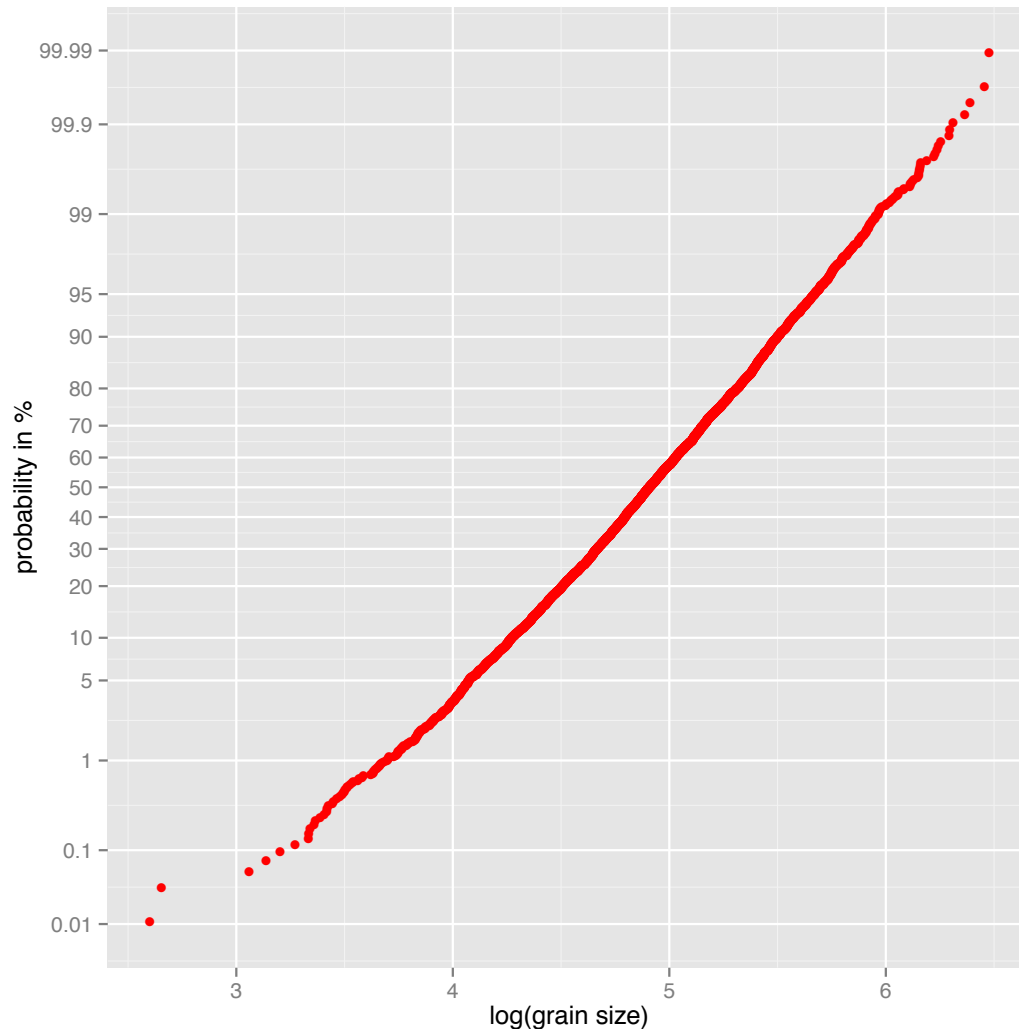
The eCDF is a *step function* that jumps by  $1/x$  for each of the  $x$  data points

red = actual data  
blue = sampled from  
ideal normal



# Visualizing grain size

**Probability plots compare empirical data to a theoretical distribution**



**Probability plots may have different types of axes (quantiles or probabilities)**

**The shape of the curve on a probability plot determines the shape of the underlying distribution**



# Sampling

- **Actual problem: how does one sample data points from a given PDF?**
- **One answer: *inverse transform sampling***
- **Inverse transform sampling requires knowing the *quantile function*, which is the inverse of the CDF:**

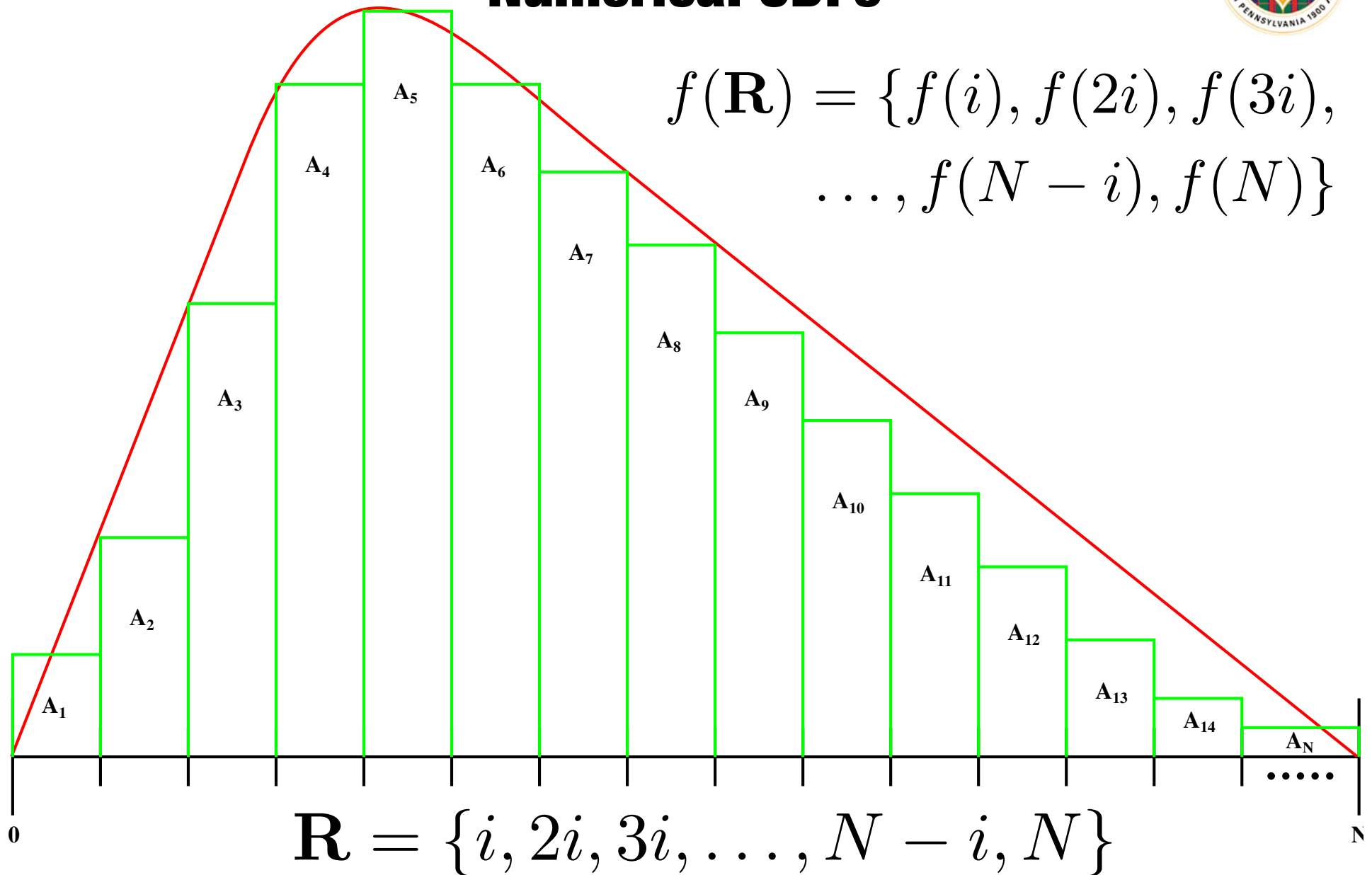
$$Q(p) = F^{-1}(x) = \inf\{x \mid F(x) \geq p, 0 < p < 1\}$$

- **Unfortunately, not all CDFs can be expressed in terms of elementary functions, and thus cannot be inverted (not even the normal distribution); this is the case for the general Mullins, but not for the Hillert**



# Numerical CDFs

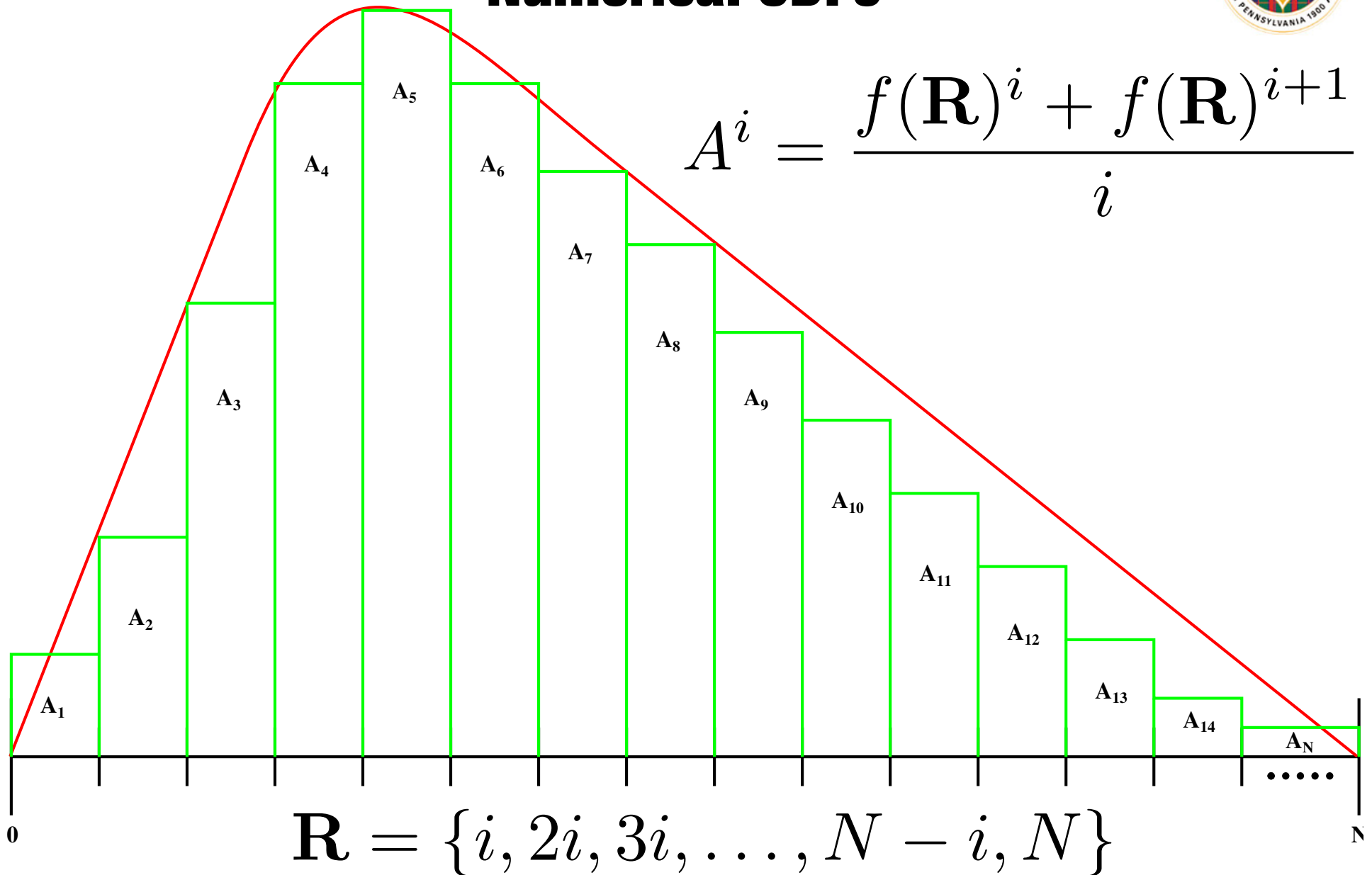
$$f(\mathbf{R}) = \{f(i), f(2i), f(3i), \dots, f(N - i), f(N)\}$$





# Numerical CDFs

$$A^i = \frac{f(\mathbf{R})^i + f(\mathbf{R})^{i+1}}{i}$$





# Numerical CDFs

**Construct a numerical CDF by computing the cumulative sum of the areas:**

$$\mathbf{P} = \{A^i, A^i + A^{2i}, A^i + A^{2i} + A^{3i}, \dots\}$$

**A grain size can now be sampled by finding a random (real) number,  $Q$ , on the interval  $[0,1]$ , and comparing it to the set  $P$ :**

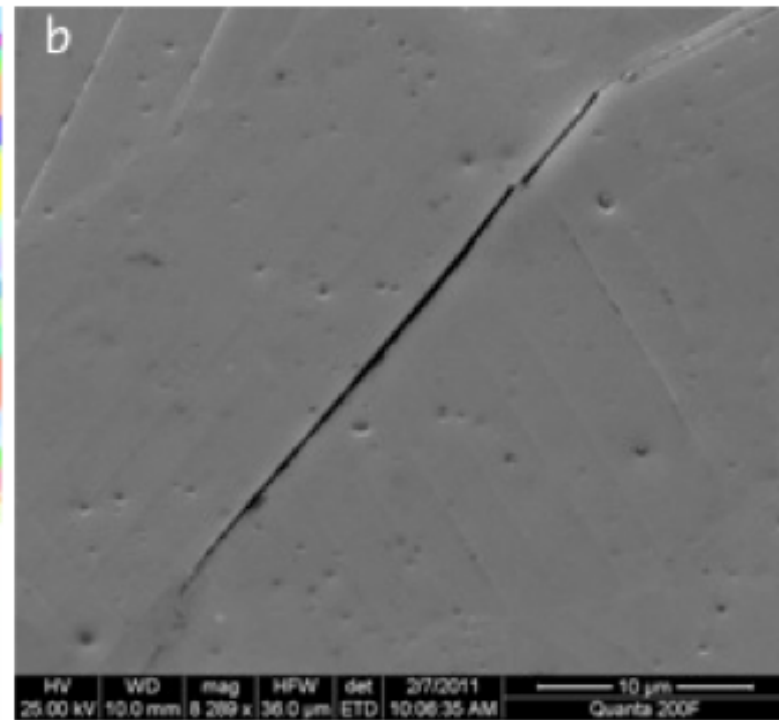
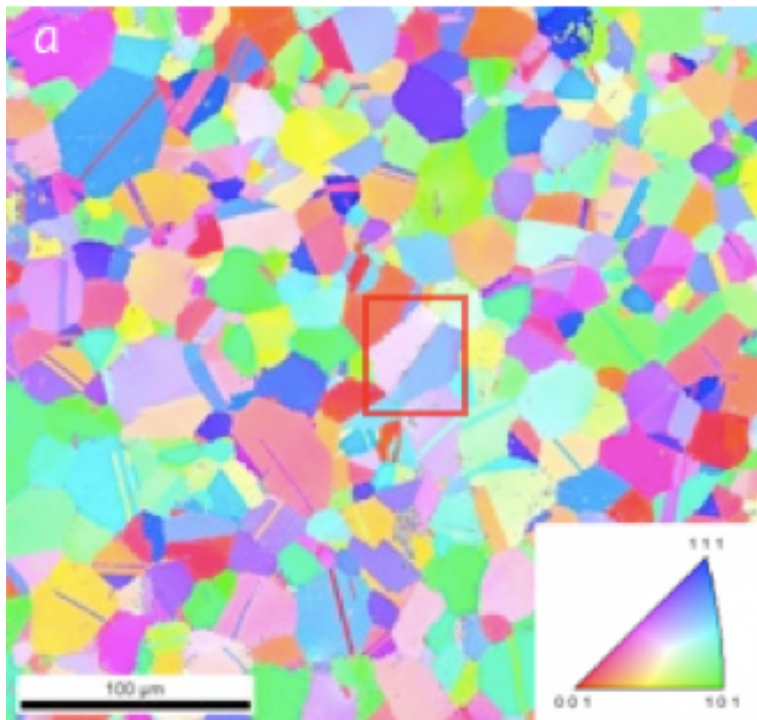
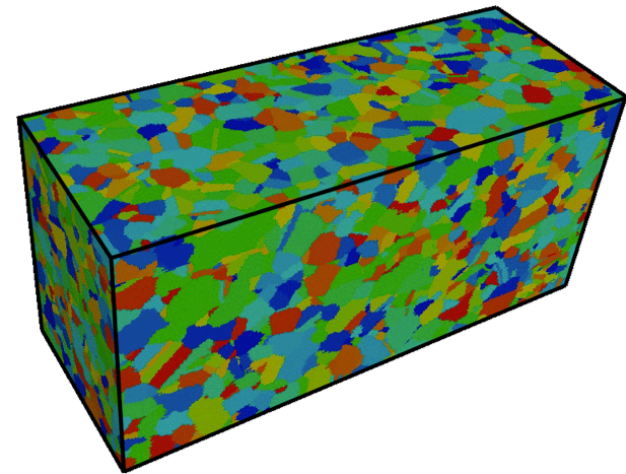
$$R_{size} = \min\{|P^i - Q^i|\}$$





# Extreme value theory

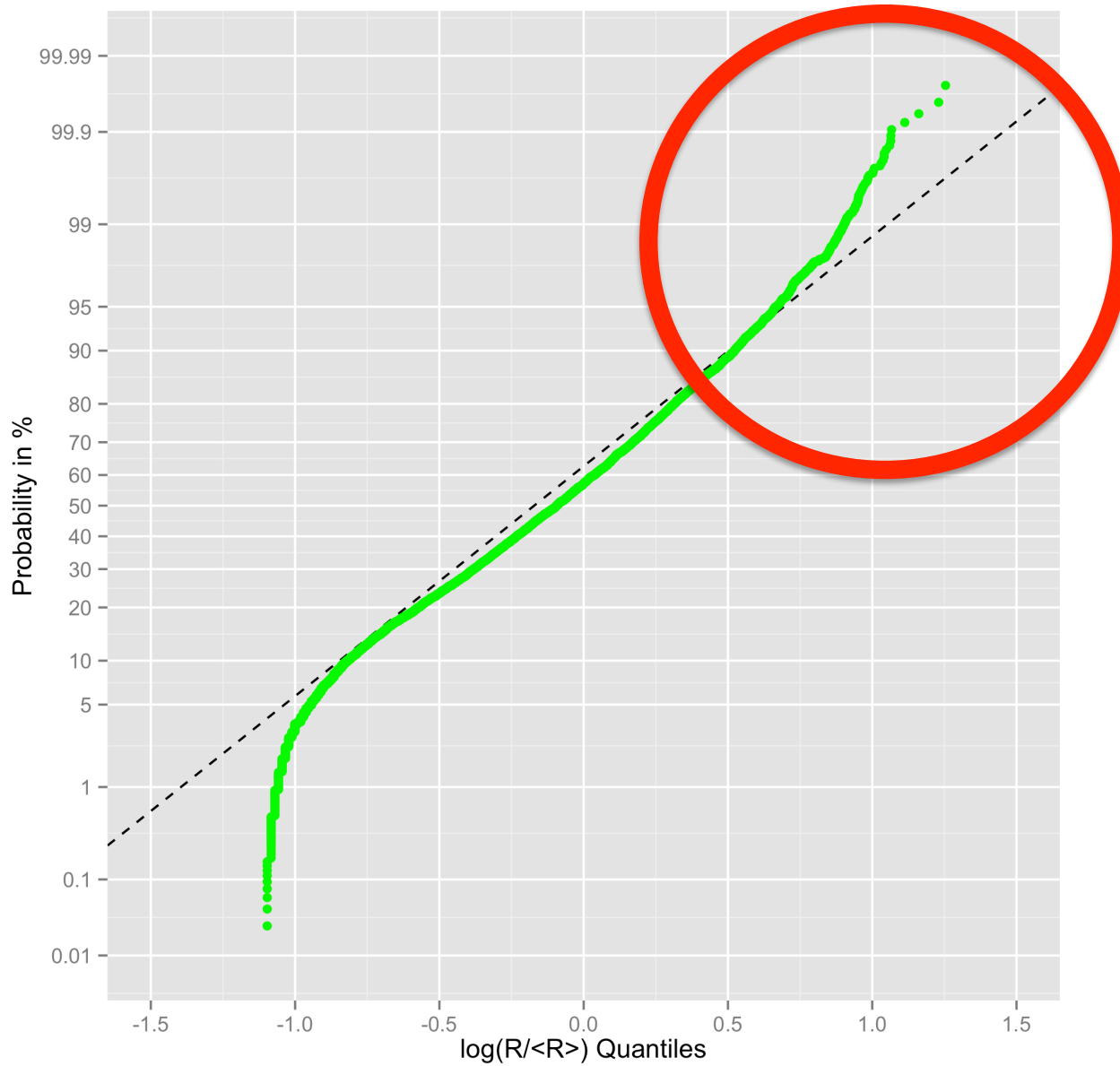
In some material systems, large grains (“as-large-as”, or ALA) play an important role in failure, since they often serve as the nucleation site for fatigue cracks





# Extreme value theory

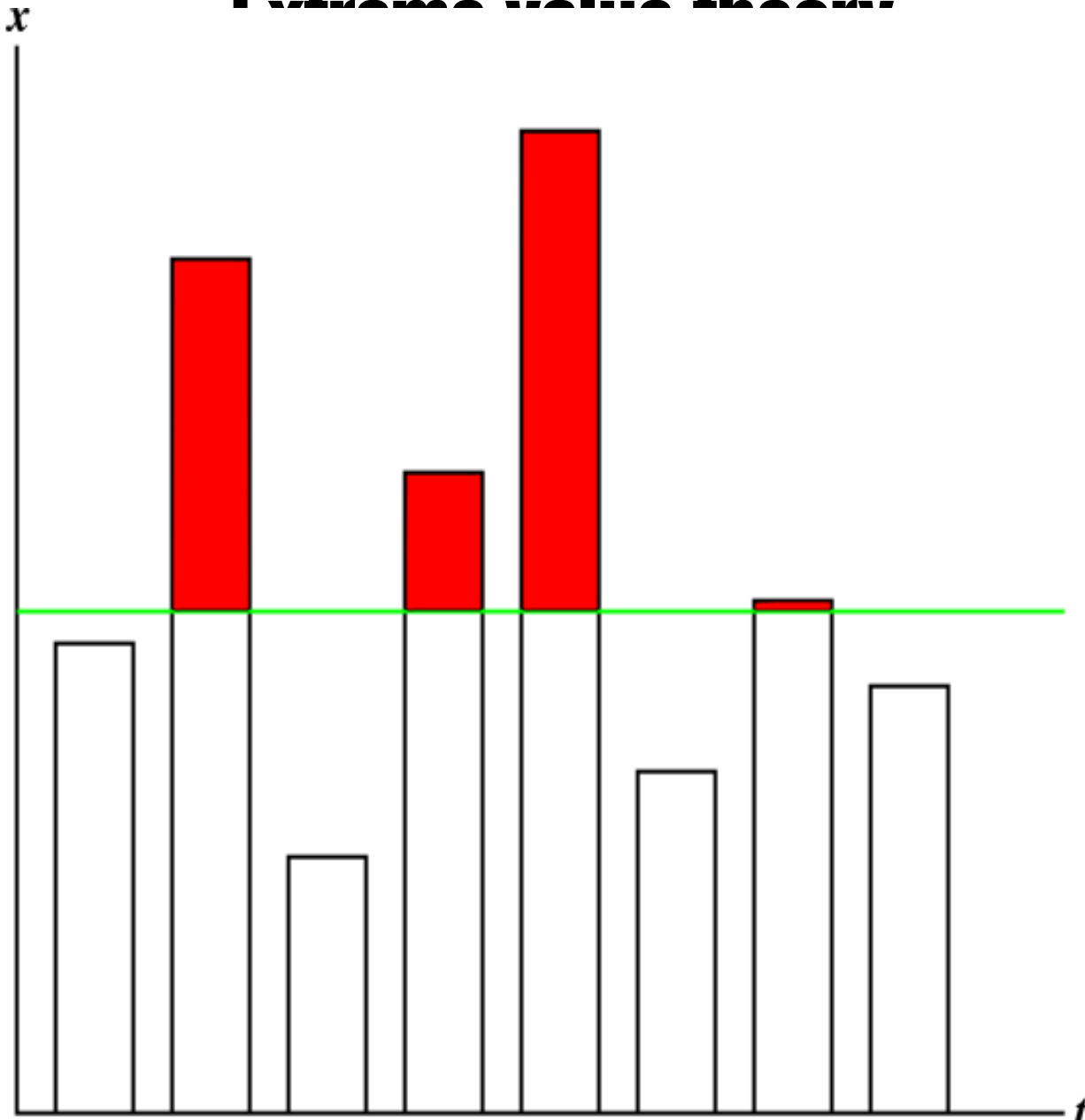
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# Extreme value theory

- **Fisher**  
random  
Gumbel
- **Pickands**  
distrib  
beyond  
genera



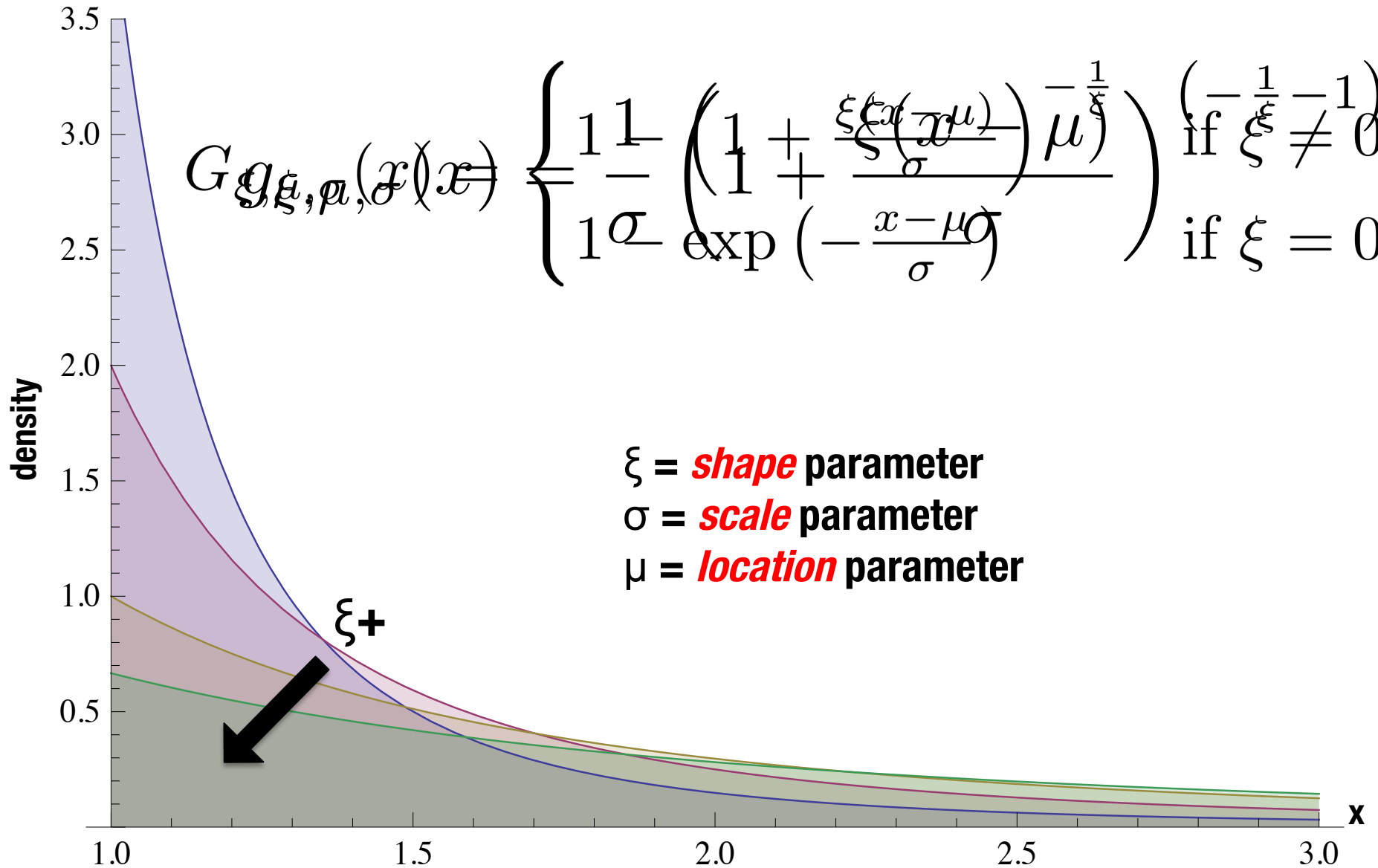
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R.A. Fisher and L.H.C. Tippett, *Mathematical Proceedings of the Cambridge Philosophical Society*, vol. 24, pp. 180-190, 1927  
 J. Pickands, *Annals of Statistics*, vol. 3, pp. 119-131, 1975



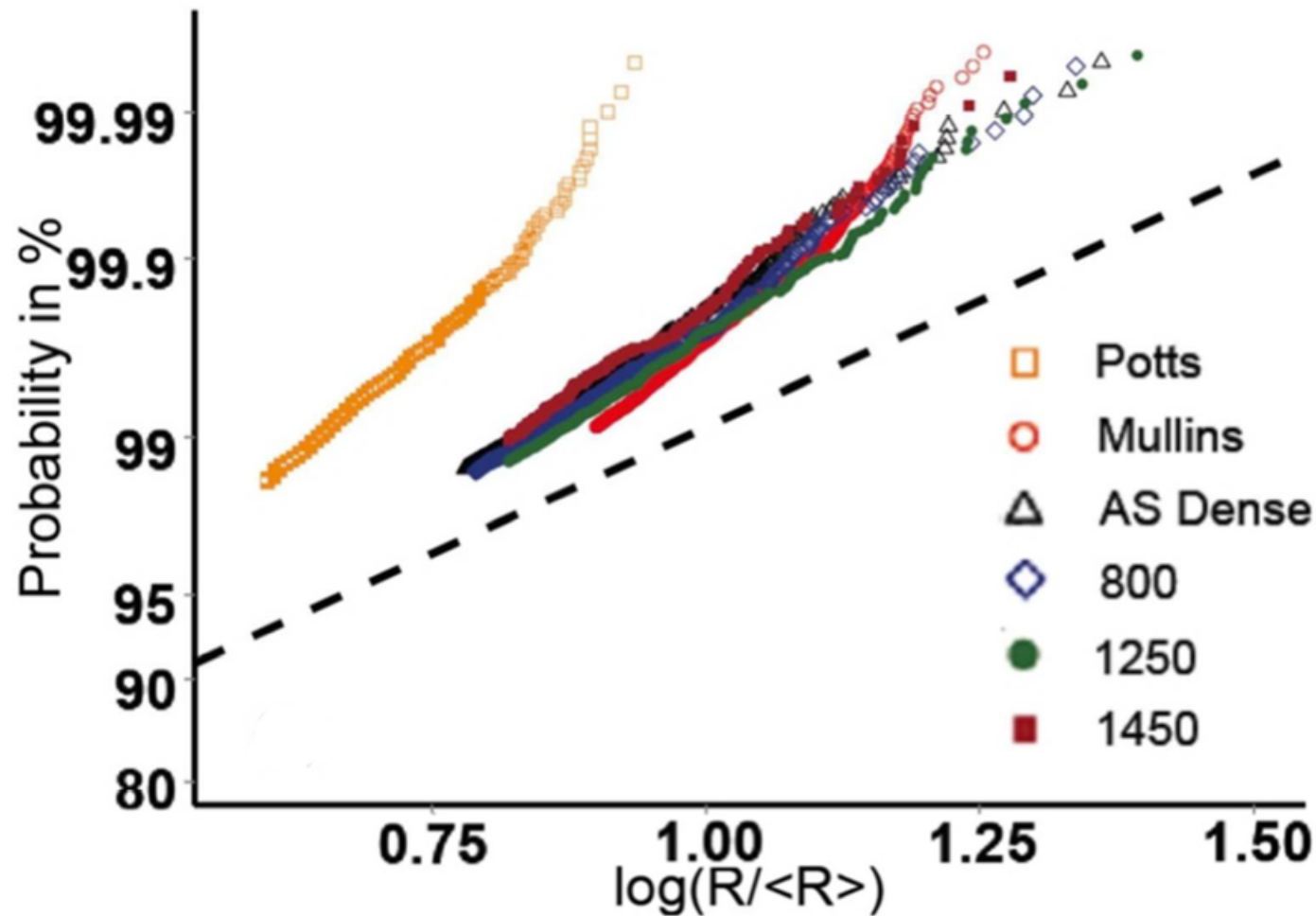
# Extreme value theory

$$G_{\xi, \sigma, \mu}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sigma} \left( 1 + \frac{\xi(x-\mu)}{\sigma} \right)^{-\frac{1}{\xi}} & \text{if } \xi \neq 0 \\ \exp\left(-\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) & \text{if } \xi = 0 \end{cases}$$





# Extreme value theory



**The tails of different grain size distributions can be quantitatively compared (given suitable normalization)**



# Extreme value theory

- The shapes of the upper tails of grain size distributions appears correlated to grain growth kinetics: upper tails become longer (more akin to log-normal) as the microstructure stagnates
- Analytical approaches to plane curve evolution indicate that the limiting (self-similar) size distribution is *uniquely* determined by the initial tail distribution
- “Analytical approaches” means application of *mean curvature flow* to a collection of disjoint plane curves