

1      **Theoretical and Experimental Studies of Compression and Shear Deformation Behavior of**  
2      **Osmium to 280 GPa**

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7

## 8      **Abstract**

9      The compression behavior of osmium metal was investigated up to 280 GPa (volume compression  
10      $V/V_0 = 0.725$ ) under nonhydrostatic conditions at ambient temperature using angle dispersive axial  
11     x-ray diffraction (A-XRD) with a diamond anvil cell (DAC). In addition, shear strength of osmium  
12     was measured to 170 GPa using radial x-ray diffraction (R-XRD) technique in DAC. Both  
13     diffraction techniques in DAC employed platinum as an internal pressure standard. Density  
14     functional theory (DFT) calculations were also performed, and the computed lattice parameters  
15     and volumes under compression are in good agreement with the experiments. DFT predicts a  
16     monotonous increase in axial ratio ( $c/a$ ) with pressure and the structural anomalies of less than 1  
17     % in ( $c/a$ ) ratio reported below 150 GPa were not reproduced in theoretical calculations and  
18     hydrostatic measurements. The measured value of shear strength of osmium ( $\tau$ ) approaches a  
19     limiting value of 6 GPa above a pressure of 50 GPa in contrast to theoretical predictions of 24 GPa  
20     and is likely due to imperfections in polycrystalline samples. DFT calculations also enable the  
21     studies of shear and tensile deformations. The theoretical ideal shear stress is found along the  
22     (001)[1-10] shear direction with the maximal shear stress  $\sim 24$  GPa at critical strain  $\sim 0.13$ .

23     Keywords: osmium, incompressible materials, diamond anvil cell, compression and deformation  
24     behavior, lattice anomalies, density functional theory, ideal shear strength

25

## 26      **1. Introduction**

27      The fundamental understanding of behavior of materials under extreme conditions and  
28      search for materials with desirable mechanical properties like high shear strength are important  
29      endeavors in materials science. The most incompressible transition metal osmium has received  
30      extensive attention due to its high bulk modulus (incompressible nature), high shear modulus  
31      (resistance to deformation), and structural anomalies that have manifested themselves as  
32      anisotropic compression and have been attributed to changes in electronic structure under  
33      compression [1-5]. There are disagreements, however, into the location and existence of these  
34      structural anomalies in the hexagonal lattice  $c/a$  ratio. Dubrovinsky et al (2015) has reported  
35      osmium equation of state to 750 GPa where dips in  $c/a$  occurred at 150 GPa and 440 GPa  
36      respectively. These anomalies did not manifest themselves into the volumetric compression curve  
37      as it showed a monotonic decrease with pressure and were attributed to be topological changes in  
38      the Fermi surface (at 150 GPa) and electronic transitions for the higher-pressure region (at 440

39 GPa) [2]. Kenichi et al. (2004) reported a monotonic increase in c/a under quasi-hydrostatic  
40 conditions while results from Occelli et al. (2004) showed a change in slope of c/a around 25 GPa.  
41 More recent non-hydrostatic DAC compression to 207 GPa by Perreault et al. (2017) showed a  
42 broad minimum in c/a centralized at 75 GPa before a monotonic increase to the maximum pressure.  
43 Such disagreements warrant questions into the behavior of osmium lattice compression in relation  
44 to the degree of hydrostatic environment present in the DAC. Meanwhile, there are unresolved  
45 issues both in experiment and in the fundamental understanding of osmium under extreme  
46 conditions. The experimental uncertainty remains in achieving “true hydrostatic compression”  
47 conditions in the laboratory and measurement of axial (c/a) ratio under hydrostatic conditions and  
48 comparing the results with those obtained under “non-hydrostatic compression”. In addition,  
49 experimentally, there is always an issue of hardness or resistance to plastic deformation of osmium  
50 under high pressure, and a direct measurement of shear strength under high pressures is highly  
51 desirable. The challenge on the theoretical calculations is to investigate the compression and  
52 deformation behavior and relate it to electronic structure changes including electron transfer from  
53 the s-band to d-band under compression [6], and changes in the topology of Fermi surface at high  
54 pressures that may give rise to anomalies in the axial (c/a) ratio. It has been suggested that the  
55 anomaly in c/a ratio can be attributed to non-hydrostatic and preferred orientation or texturing in  
56 polycrystalline osmium under high pressures [7]. Our motivation for the present work is to perform  
57 hydrostatic pressure measurement via radial x-ray diffraction study in a diamond anvil cell and  
58 experimentally demonstrate the presence or lack of anomaly in (c/a) ratio under true hydrostatic  
59 strain conditions in osmium.

60 Ideal strength is an important material property, defined as the stress required to  
61 permanently deform a perfect material (without defects). The critical shear stress that makes the  
62 perfect lattice unstable provides an assessment of the theoretical upper limit of material strength  
63 under large deformation strain. The radial x-ray diffraction technique in DAC provides an  
64 important opportunity in this study to measure shear strength of osmium metal under high  
65 pressures for comparison with theoretical calculations. In addition, we extend our non-hydrostatic  
66 measurements on osmium to 280 GPa, and the hydrostatic measurement to 170 GPa. Density  
67 functional theory (DFT) calculations still have great challenges in some respects, such as  
68 calculating dislocations and cracks under large indentation loads. Nevertheless, the DFT  
69 calculation accurately shows the plastic deformation mode and the stress-strain relationship of the  
70 crystal, which is of great significance for understanding the fracture mechanism of the crystal  
71 under plastic deformation. Several studies have used theoretical methods to investigate the  
72 incompressible nature of osmium, but the shear deformation is seldomly investigated. Here, we  
73 perform *ab initio* calculations on the shear deformation of osmium, obtaining its first theoretical  
74 strain-stress relation. Our work on fundamental compression and deformation behavior of osmium  
75 is thereby important for application under extreme conditions and for exploration and design of  
76 ultra-incompressible materials.

## 77 2. Experimental and Computational Methods

78 Angle dispersive axial x-ray diffraction (A-XRD) was performed on the osmium and  
79 platinum mixture at the Advanced Photon Source (APS) using HPCAT beamline 16-ID-B. The x-

80 ray beam size was  $1 \mu\text{m} \times 2 \mu\text{m}$  and the wavelength was 0.4066 Angstroms (30.5 KeV). Diffraction  
81 patterns were collected using a Pilatus 1M area CCD detector. Pressure was applied using a gas  
82 membrane and the sample to detector distance was calibrated using a NIST CeO<sub>2</sub> standard.  
83 Platinum powder (Alpha Aesar 99.97 % purity) was mixed with the osmium sample (Alpha Aesar  
84 99.95 % purity) in a 1:3 volumetric ratio and used for sample pressure calibration up to 280 GPa.  
85 Compression to 280 GPa was conducted using a diamond anvil cell (DAC) apparatus utilizing  
86 toroidal diamond anvil technology. The culets of two 30-micron beveled diamond anvils were  
87 machined using a TESCAN LYRA 3 Focused Ion Beam to a culet diameter of 16 microns. A  
88 toroidal groove was machined around the culet to a depth of 3-5 microns and an outer diameter of  
89 60 microns. The toroidal design helps prevent sample outflow under compression as well as  
90 supporting the diamond anvil from undergoing large deformation that leads to premature failure.  
91 For sample placement, a steel gasket was indented to a thickness of 30 microns and laser drilled  
92 with a sample hole of 8 microns. Osmium sample powder (Alpha Aesar 99.95 % purity) was  
93 packed into the sample hole mixed with platinum powder (Alpha Aesar 99.97 % purity) in a 1:3  
94 volumetric ratio for pressure calibration.

95 For shear strength and estimation of experimental hydrostatic compression values, radial x-ray  
96 diffraction (R-XRD) at Beamline 16 BM-D, Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National  
97 Laboratory was conducted using beam energy of 30 keV and beam size  $3.4 \mu\text{m}$  vertical  $\times 4.4 \mu\text{m}$   
98 horizontal at FWHM. A Double Multilayer Monochromator (DMM) was used to collimate the  
99 pink x-ray beam of  $\lambda = 0.4133 \text{ \AA}$ . Pink x-ray beams allow for shorter x-ray diffraction exposure  
100 time due to increased photon flux as high as 50 times that of previous collimators at Beamline 16  
101 BM-D. Sample diffraction patterns were then collected on a MAR345 Image Plate with sample to  
102 detector distance of 286 mm calibrated using CeO<sub>2</sub> x-ray standard. A description of the R-XRD  
103 setup can be found in Ref. [8]. Sample compression for R-XRD experiments to 170 GPa was  
104 achieved using a panoramic Diamond Anvil Cell (DAC) with 70-micron beveled diamond anvils.  
105 The osmium and platinum sample were packed into a 25-micron sample hole in a Be gasket using  
106 the same volumetric ratio from the toroidal diamond anvil cell experiment. Both A-XRD and R-  
107 XRD experiments used bulk modulus values for platinum  $B_0 = 276.4 \text{ GPa}$   $B_0' = 5.12$  [9] employed  
108 in the 3<sup>rd</sup> order Birch Murnaghan equation of state (BM EoS).

109 Collected radial x-ray diffraction patterns were integrated in 72 azimuthal segments of  $\delta =$   
110 5 degrees around the entire pattern using MAUD X-ray diffraction analysis software [10]. The  
111 measured d-spacing ( $d_m$ ) of osmium sample for each 5-degree segment can be obtained using  
112 equation (1)[11]:

$$113 d_m(hkl) = d_p + d_p Q_{hkl} (1 - 3 \cos^2 \chi) \quad (1)$$

114 where  $d_p$  is the hydrostatic component of compression,  $Q_{hkl}$  is the lattice strain, and  $\chi$  is the angle  
115 between the DAC compression axis and the diffraction plane normal defined by  $\cos \chi =$   
116  $\cos \delta \cos \theta$ . The linear relationship between measured d-spacing  $d_m$  and the  $1 - 3 \cos^2 \chi$  term  
117 allows for direct calculation of the estimated hydrostatic d-spacing  $d_p$  by eliminating the  
118 directionally dependent lattice strain  $Q_{hkl}$  term when  $1 - 3 \cos^2 \chi = 0$ . When lattice strain  $Q_{hkl}$   
119 is present in a sample, the differential stress  $t$  and shear strength  $\tau$  can be determined by averaging  
120 the strain over all  $hkl$  and using equation (2):

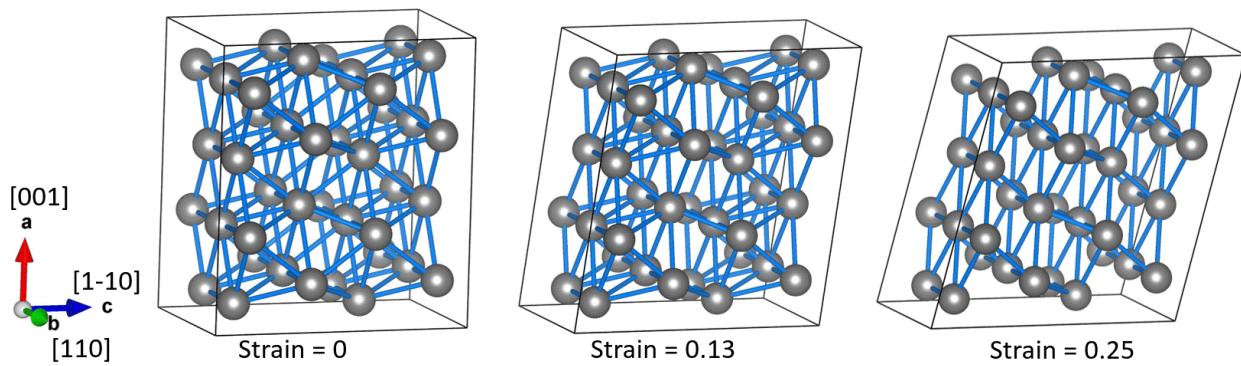
121  $6 < Q_{hkl} > = \frac{t}{G}, t = 2\tau, \quad (2)$

122 where  $G$  is the sample shear modulus.

123 In our electronic and structural calculations, plane-wave pseudopotential density functional  
 124 theory (DFT) [10, 11] calculation is performed using the projector augmented wave (PAW)  
 125 method [12, 13] as implemented in VASP (the Vienna ab initio simulation package, version 5.4.4)  
 126 [14, 15]. Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof generalized gradient approximation (GGA-PBE) [16] is  
 127 utilized for the exchange and correlation functional. The plane wave cut-off energy is set to 680  
 128 eV, and a  $\Gamma$ -centered Monkhorst-Pack highly dense grid of  $33 \times 33 \times 21$  (resolution =  $0.01 \times 2\pi/\text{\AA}$ )  
 129 mesh is used for the Brillouin zone integration. The structure relaxation convergence criterion of  
 130 atomic force is set to  $10^{-3}$  eV/ $\text{\AA}$ , and the self-consistent convergence criterion of the total energy  
 131 is set to  $10^{-7}$  eV/unit cell. A hexagonal primitive cell of osmium (space group P6<sub>3</sub>/mmc) is used.

132 VASP allows the use of strain–stress method [14, 15, 17] to calculated elastic constant.  
 133 The converged elastic constant can be obtained from the stress-strain relationship by imposing six  
 134 finite deformations on the optimized crystal lattice [17, 18]. Within this strain–stress method, the  
 135 final elastic constants are determined by the contributions of rigid ion deformation and ion  
 136 relaxation. After computing the elastic constants, the bulk and shear moduli of the system are  
 137 determined by using the Voigt–Reuss–Hill approximation [19-21].

138 To compute the shear and tensile strengths, we use the QE (Quantum ESPRESSO, version  
 139 6.3) DFT code [22-24], also with the PAW and GGA-PBE methods. We first calculate the optimal  
 140 equilibrium structure at zero pressure and zero temperature by fully relaxing the crystal structure.  
 141 The calculation setup and convergence criteria are the same as those used in the VASP  
 142 calculations. After structure optimization, we calculate the shear deformation on various planes  
 143 along different directions. Figure 1 shows an example of shear deformation on the (001) plane  
 144 along the [1-10] direction with different strain values, using a  $2 \times 2 \times 2$  supercell with a momentum  
 145 grid of  $5 \times 5 \times 9$  k-points. In each step of the shear deformation calculation, we fix the lattice  
 146 constant and atomic positions of the axis perpendicular to the shear plane ( $a$  axis in Figure 1), and  
 147 completely relax the lattice constants and atomic positions of the other two axes parallel to the  
 148 shear plane ( $b$  and  $c$  axes in Figure 1). The tensile strength is also calculated in a similar way with  
 149 tensile strain applied along the [001], [100] and [011] directions, using the  $2 \times 2 \times 2$  supercell with a  
 150 momentum grid of  $15 \times 15 \times 9$  k-points.

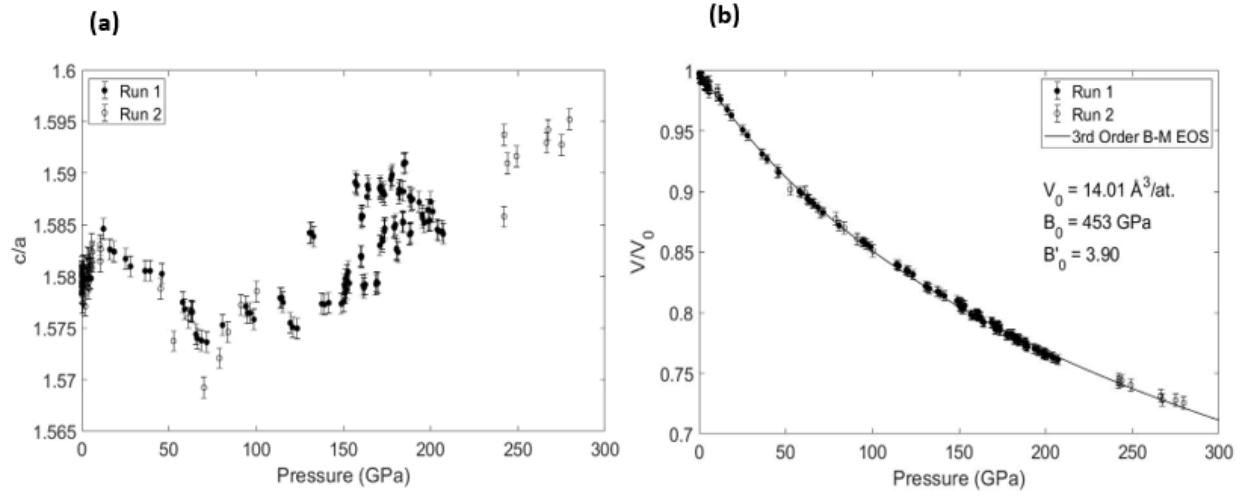


151  
 152 **Figure 1:** Shear deformation of osmium along the (001)[1-10] shear direction with strain values of 0, 0.13,

153 and 0.25, respectively. For neighboring atoms within 2.8 Å, they are connected by blue bonds. The VESTA  
154 software (version 3.4.8) is utilized to visualize the crystal structures [25].

155

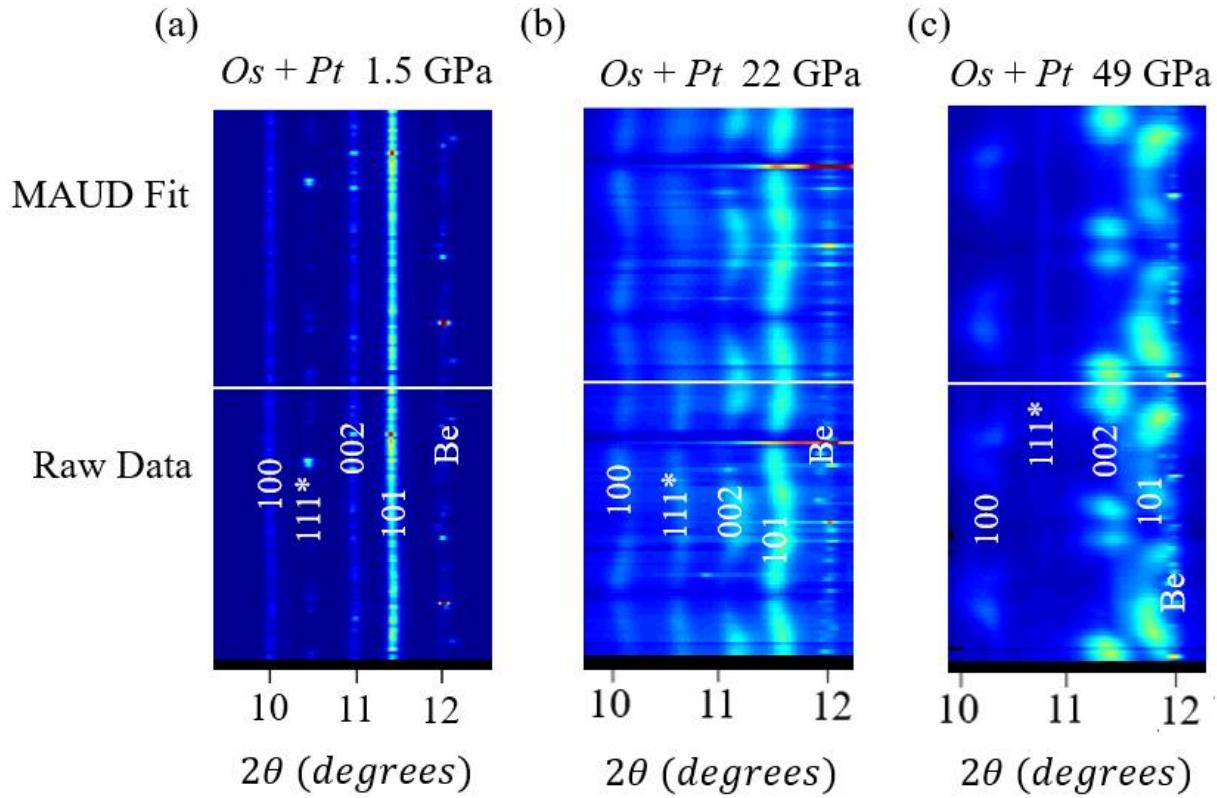
### 156 3. Results



157

158 **Figure 2:** (a) The measured value of axial ratio ( $c/a$ ) for the hexagonal close packed osmium for two non-  
159 hydrostatic experiments to 280 GPa. (b) The measured equation of state of osmium to 280 GPa along with  
160 the fit to the data.

161 Figure 2 displays the non-hydrostatic compression data for osmium  $c/a$  ratio for two  
162 experimental runs to 207 GPa (Run 1 [5]) and 280 GPa (Run 2), respectively. Both experimental  
163 runs revealed an anomaly between 50-70 GPa where  $c/a$  dropped from  $\sim 1.58$  to  $\sim 1.57$  before  
164 increasing linearly to the maximum pressure. Figure 2(b) plots the non-hydrostatic pressure-  
165 volume curve for each run to the maximum pressure with an overall volume compression of  $V/V_0$   
166 = 0.725 at 280 GPa. Non-hydrostatic equation of state fit to equation (1) results in a bulk modulus  
167 and its pressure derivative to be  $B_0 = 453 \text{ GPa}$  and  $B'_0 = 3.90$ .

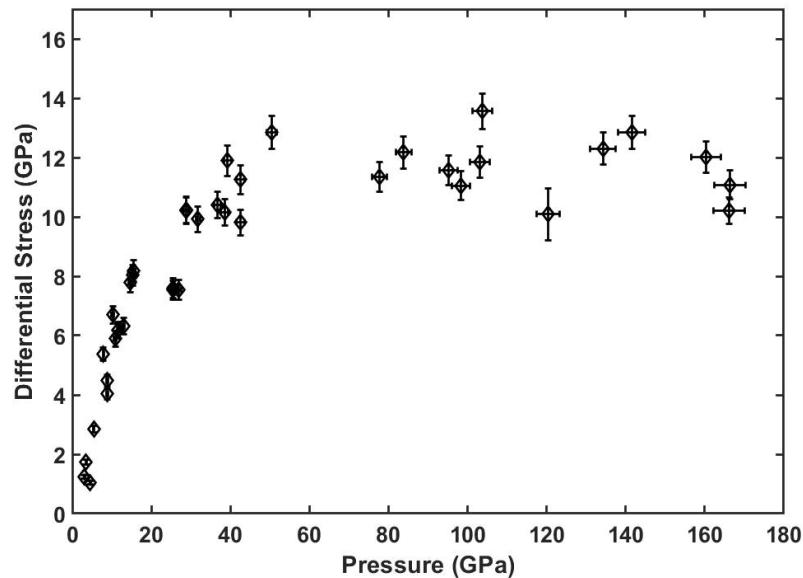


168

169 **Figure 3:** (a) Radial x-ray diffraction profile of Os-Pt mixture at 1.5 GPa corresponding to shear strength  
170  $\tau \sim 0.9 \text{ GPa}$  with labeled  $hkl$  values. (b) Radial x-ray diffraction profile of Os-Pt mixture at a pressure of  
171 22 GPa. (c) Radial x-ray diffraction profile of Os-Pt mixture at a pressure of 49 GPa corresponding to  
172 flattening of shear strength at  $\tau \sim 6 \text{ GPa}$ . Peaks labeled with asterisk (\*) represent platinum pressure  
173 marker. Diffraction lines on the bottom half represent integrated raw data files while those on top are  
174 Rietveld refined using MAUD.

175 Stress induced effects on osmium sample can be seen by comparing different R-XRD  
176 diffraction patterns in Figure 3. Figure 3(a) presents x-ray diffraction pattern of Os-Pt sample at  
177 0.8 GPa. The linearity of R-XRD  $hkl$  patterns in Figure 3(a) indicates diminutive shear effects  
178 present in the sample lattice structure. As internal stress and shear effects become prominent, the  
179 R-XRD  $hkl$  patterns display a curved profile as sample d-spacings are distorted maximally at  $\delta =$   
180 0. This can be most clearly seen in Figure 3(c) when the Os-Pt mixture is at 49 GPa.

181

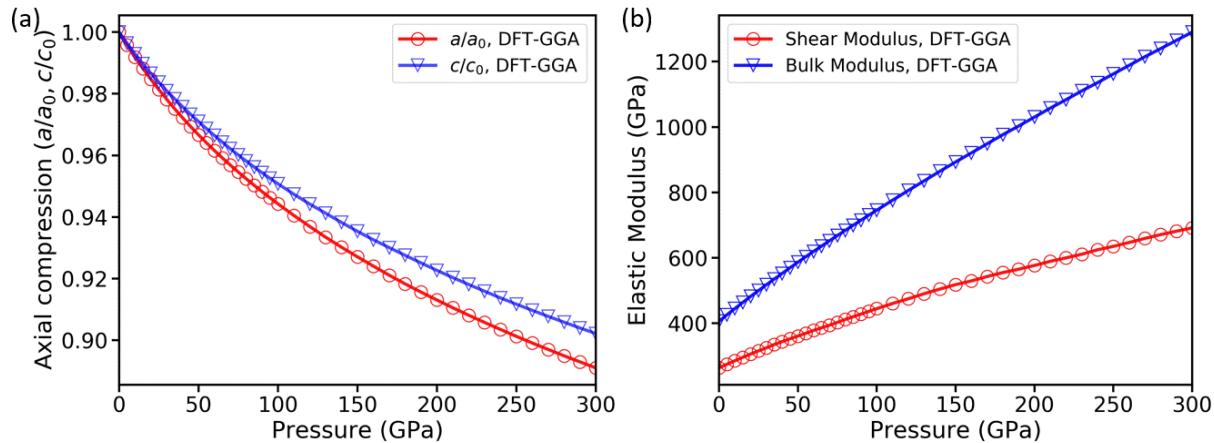


182  
183

**Figure 4:** Measured value of the differential stress ( $t$ ) using the shear modulus ( $G$ ) calculated from DFT.

184 The lattice strain  $Q_{hkl}$  is then averaged from the (100), (002), (101), and (102)  $hkl$  peaks  
185 and used in equation (2) to determine the differential stress. This is plotted in Figure 4 with the  
186 hydrostatic pressure values from platinum. The differential stress builds quickly between 0-40 GPa  
187 before plateauing at  $\sim t = 12$  GPa. Thus, the measured value of the shear strength for osmium is  
188 approximated to  $\tau \sim 6$  GPa

189 We next shift to our calculated results of osmium under hydrostatic pressure up to 300 GPa.  
190 The DFT-GGA estimated values of the lattice constant, volume, shear, and bulk moduli at ambient  
191 conditions are  $a_0 = 2.755$  Å,  $c_0 = 4.345$  Å,  $V_0 = 14.28$  Å<sup>3</sup>/atom,  $G_0 = 264$  GPa, and  $B_0 = 406$  GPa,  
192 respectively. The bulk moduli from different groups vary between 382 GPa to 476 GPa. In general,  
193 our calculation is consistent with the current experiment and other experimental and theoretical  
194 data reported previously [1-4, 26-28].

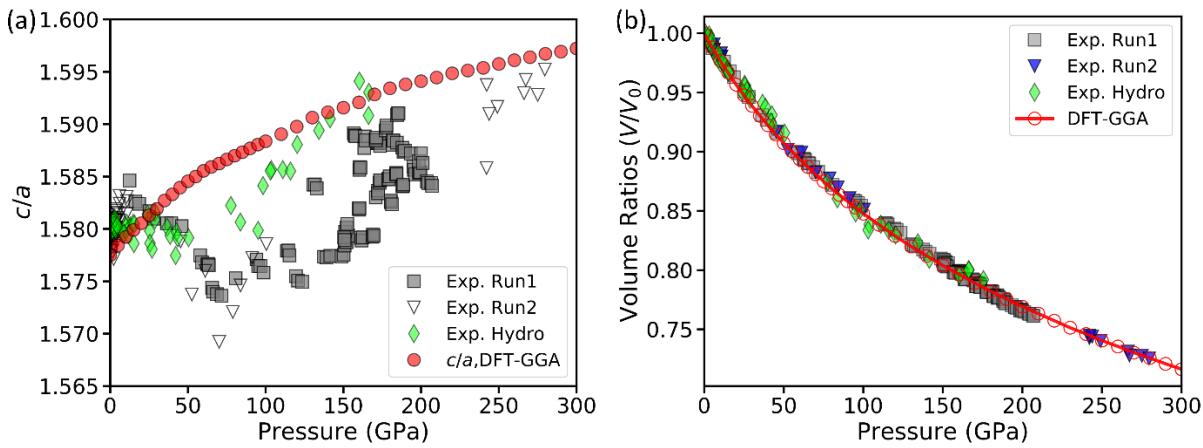


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196 Figure 5. Theoretical results based on density functional theory (DFT) with a generalized gradient  
197 approximation (GGA) functional. (a) Axial compression of lattice parameters  $a/a_0$  and  $c/c_0$  versus pressure  
198 up to 300 GPa for osmium. (b) Bulk and Shear moduli as a function of pressure.

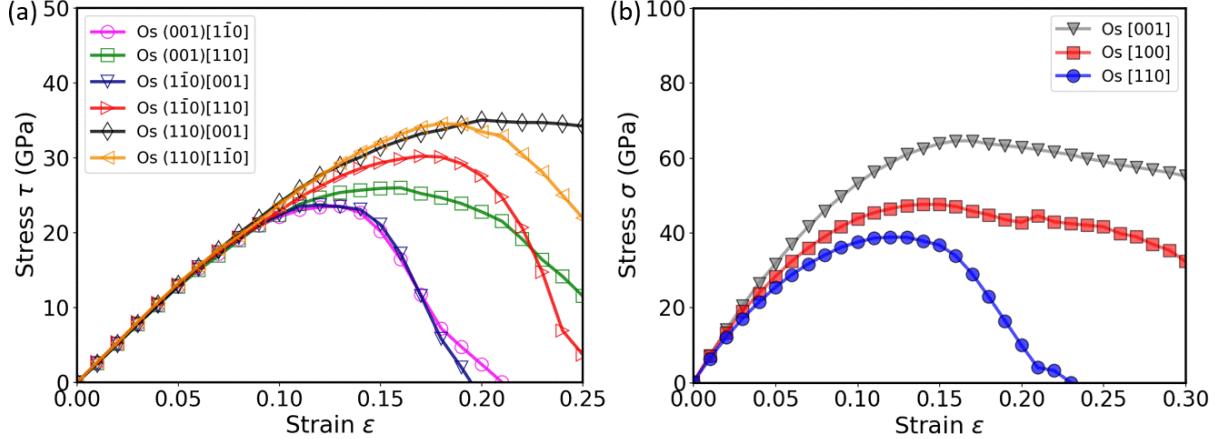
199 Figure 5(a) shows our theoretical results of hydrostatic pressure dependance of the axial  
 200 compression lattice parameters  $a/a_0$  and  $c/c_0$  up to 300 GPa. The material exhibits anisotropic  
 201 compression behavior and stability under high pressure. Compared with the experiments, the  
 202 ambient lattice parameters  $a_0 = 2.755 \text{ \AA}$  and  $c_0 = 4.345 \text{ \AA}$  are within the error margin of 1%. Figure  
 203 5(b) displays the bulk and shear moduli as a function of pressure. The high bulk and shear moduli  
 204 under compression demonstrate high incompressibility and deformation resistance of osmium.

205 The computed lattice parameter ratio  $c/a$  as a function of pressure is plotted in Figure 6(a)  
 206 along with the experimental data, including the hydrostatic experiment. The theoretical  $c/a$  ratio  
 207 does not show any obvious anomaly below 70 GPa. On the other hand, apart from the  
 208 abnormalities, the overall theoretical trend of an increasing  $c/a$  ratio with pressure is the same as  
 209 the experiment. Figure 6(b) shows the calculated volume compression  $V/V_0$  under pressure along  
 210 with the experimental data. The calculations are in excellent agreement with the experiments on  
 211 the overall compression of  $V/V_0 = 0.725$  achieved in osmium at 280 GPa.



212  
 213 **Figure 6:** Pressure dependences of (a) lattice parameter  $c/a$  ratio, and (b) fractional unit cell volume curve  
 214 up to 300 GPa for osmium, calculated by DFT-GGA plotted together with the experimental data obtained  
 215 from two non-hydrostatic and one hydrostatic experiment.

216 Figure 7 presents the ideal strength calculations for shear and tensile stresses applied along  
 217 difference directions. The stress versus strain curve increases linearly under small strains, and it  
 218 exhibits a nonlinear behavior under large strains. The ideal stress value can be identified by the  
 219 critical strain value where the stress begins to decrease. As seen in Figure 7(a), the ideal shear  
 220 strength, i.e., the lowest peak shear stress in all directions, occurs on the (001) plane along the [1-  
 221 10] direction. The ideal shear stress is  $\sim 23.53 \text{ GPa}$  at a critical strain value of 0.13. Figure 7(b)  
 222 displays the calculated tensile stress as a function of strain along the [001], [100], and [110]  
 223 directions. The ideal tensile strength occurs in the [110] direction, which is the weakest tensile  
 224 deformation direction of osmium. Table I summarizes the calculated data of maximal tensile and  
 225 shear stresses and their corresponding critical strain values.



226

227 **Figure 7:** Stress-strain curves of osmium under (a) shear deformation up to strain value of 0.25 along  
 228 various directions, (b) tensile deformation up to strain value of 0.30 in the [001], [100] and [110] directions.  
 229 The results are based on DFT-GGA calculations.

Osmium					
<i>Tensile deformation</i>			<i>Shear deformation</i>		
	$\sigma_{\max}$	$\varepsilon_{\max}$		$\tau_{\max}$	$\varepsilon_{\max}$
[001]	64.54	0.16	(001)[110]	25.99	0.16
[100]	47.56	0.14	(001)[1-10]	23.53	0.13
[110]	38.80	0.12	(110)[001]	35.03	0.20
			(110)[1-10]	34.57	0.18
			(1-10)[001]	23.67	0.12
			(1-10)[110]	30.21	0.17

230 Table I. [Left column] Peak stress  $\sigma_{\max}$  (in GPa) for tensile deformation and corresponding critical strain  
 231  $\varepsilon_{\max}$ . [Right column] Peak stress  $\tau_{\max}$  (in GPa) for shear deformation and corresponding strain  $\varepsilon_{\max}$ . The  
 232 results are based on DFT-GGA calculations for osmium.

#### 233 4. Discussion

234 The apparent dip in the  $c/a$  ratio between 50-70 GPa of about 1% [Figure 2(a)] causes  
 235 further inquiry into whether the observed effect is induced by non-hydrostatic pressure  
 236 environment, or if it is a physical phenomenon of the osmium crystal and electronic structure.  
 237 Several experimental groups also have reported anomalies in the axial ratio  $c/a$  [4, 29, 30], which  
 238 were attributed to an electronic topological transition (ETT) or known as a Lifshitz transition [31-  
 239 35]. This type of transition occurs when the Fermi surface topology is altered by external  
 240 perturbation. However, the simulated  $c/a$  ratios reported previously for osmium were inconsistent  
 241 with the non-hydrostatic experimental observations [1, 3, 26-28, 30, 36]. Our DFT calculations  
 242 also failed to observe anomalous  $c/a$  axial ratio upon non-hydrostatic compression. It needs to be  
 243 emphasized that our calculations were performed at absolute zero temperature under hydrostatic  
 244 pressure. Since the ETT effect causes the divergence of thermal expansion, the anomaly may not  
 245 be visible at absolute zero temperature in theoretical calculations. It is also likely that ( $c/a$ )  
 246 anomalies are due to non-hydrostatic strains in the crystal which are further enhanced due to any  
 247 preferred orientations of the polycrystalline grains during compression. A combined DFT with

248 dynamical mean field theory (DMFT) [37] has been utilized to tackle quantum fluctuation effects  
249 in osmium, reporting the correlation between ETT and lattice anomalies. However, in that work  
250 [37], the lattice parameters were obtained directly from experimentally measured equation of state.  
251 Currently, it remains theoretically very challenging to fully relax crystal structures under pressure  
252 directly within DFT+DMFT approaches. Therefore, it is beyond the scope of our current research  
253 to address if lattice anomalies and ETT are concurring with strong electron interaction effects.

254 The DFT calculations also show high bulk modulus, high linear stiffness, and anisotropic  
255 compression of osmium, which can be attributed to its high valence electron density and strong  
256 directional bonding in the electronic structure. However, high bulk modulus does not guarantee a  
257 high resistant ability against large plastic deformation. Therefore, we can learn more about the  
258 mechanical properties in the deformation from the ideal shear and tensile stress-strain relationships.  
259 The ideal shear strength is the minimum value obtained in all possible shear directions at a certain  
260 critical strain, where the structure becomes unstable under deformation [38,39]. Our calculations  
261 show that the ideal shear strength of osmium occurs along the (001)[1-10] direction, with a peak  
262 shear stress value  $\tau \sim 23.5$  GPa at critical strain  $\varepsilon \sim 0.13$ . The ideal strength of a material is related  
263 to the bonding in a crystal [40-42]. As seen in Figure 1, where atoms within 2.8 Å are connected  
264 by blue bonds, some bonds between osmium atoms are broken when the stress reached the critical  
265 strain along the (001)[1-10] direction.

266 Based on the Frenkel model [43], which uses a sinusoidal stress-strain relationship, the  
267 shear stress  $\tau$  can be written as

$$268 \quad \tau = \frac{G a}{2\pi h} \sin \frac{2\pi x}{a} \quad (9)$$

269 where  $G$  is the shear modulus,  $a$  is spacing between atoms in the direction of shear stress,  $h$  is  
270 spacing of the rows of atoms, and  $x$  is shear translation. When  $\sin \frac{2\pi x}{a} = 1$ , we can obtain the  
271 maximal shear stress value  $\tau_{max}$ . Since  $h \approx a$ , we have

$$272 \quad \tau_{max} \sim \frac{G}{2\pi} \sim \frac{G}{6} \quad (10)$$

273 When more refined models are used, the estimated maximal shear stress can vary from  $\tau_{max} \approx$   
274  $G/10$  to  $G/30$ . In our DFT calculations,  $\tau_{max}/G = 23.67/263.66 \approx 0.09$ . The experimental  
275 shear stress value, however, is much smaller than the theoretical one, potentially due to defects  
276 and imperfections in real crystals, which reduce the mechanical strength of materials.

277 Finally, we discuss the relation between shear  $\tau$  and tensile strength  $\sigma$ . Our shear strength  
278 results would suggest that the weakest tensile strength is along the [110] direction. Based on the  
279 relationship  $\sigma = \sqrt{3}\tau$  [44], the weakest tensile stress along the [110] direction is  $\sigma =$   
280  $\sqrt{3} \times 23.67 = 40.9$  (GPa). This estimated value is consistent with our calculations in Figure 7(b),  
281 where the weakest tensile stress is along the [110] direction, with a peak tensile stress value equal  
282 to 38.8 GPa at critical strain value 0.12.

283

284 **5. Conclusions**

285 Experimentally determined non-hydrostatic and hydrostatic elastic properties of polycrystalline  
286 osmium sample were obtained using a combination of angular dispersive axial x-ray diffraction  
287 (A-XRD) and radial x-ray diffraction (R-XRD) techniques. Density functional theory (DFT)  
288 calculations were also performed, and the computed lattice parameters and volumes under  
289 compression are in excellent agreement with the experiments. DFT predicts a monotonous increase  
290 in axial ratio ( $c/a$ ) with pressure and the reported structural anomalies of less than 1 % in ( $c/a$ )  
291 ratio below 150 GPa were not reproduced in theoretical calculations. The hydrostatic lattice  
292 parameter data obtained from R-XRD studies clearly indicate that anomalies in ( $c/a$ ) ratio are not  
293 present in true hydrostatic strain conditions providing experimental confirmation of earlier  
294 suggestions that ( $c/a$ ) anomalies are due to non-hydrostatic and texture effects [7]. The shear  
295 strength of osmium was measured up to 170 GPa and shown to plateau at a value of  $\tau \sim 6 \text{ GPa}$   
296 above 50 GPa. The DFT ideal strength calculations indicate that the weakest deformation direction  
297 is along the (001)[1-10] shear direction, with a maximal stress  $\tau_{max} \sim 24 \text{ GPa}$ , about 0.09 of the  
298 shear modulus  $G$ . The experimental shear stress of 6 GPa is much smaller and is likely due to  
299 imperfections in real crystals. Our comprehensive investigations of osmium under high pressure  
300 provide detailed information about compression and deformation behaviors, which are important  
301 for achieving fundamental understanding and for applications in extreme environments.

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