

MATERIAL SCIENCE

Crystal System & Bravais Lattice

Crystal System	Geometry		Bravais Lattices
Cubic	$a = b = c$	$\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	SC, BCC, FCC
Tetragonal	$a = b \neq c$	$\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	ST, BCT
Orthogonal	$a \neq b \neq c$	$\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	SO, BCO, FCO, ECO
Rhombohedral	$a = b = c$	$\alpha = \beta = \gamma \neq 90^\circ$	SR
Hexagonal	$a = b \neq c$	$\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ, \gamma = 120^\circ$	SH
Monoclinic	$a \neq b \neq c$	$\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ \neq \beta$	SM ECM
Triclinic	$a \neq b \neq c$	$\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq 90^\circ$	STr

- X-Ray diffraction is the technique used for determination of crystal structure.

Crystal structure characteristics

Characteristic ↓	BCC	FCC	HCP
a to r relation	$\sqrt{3}a = 4r$	$\sqrt{2}a = 4r$	$a = 2r$
Avg no. of Atoms (N _{av})	2	4	6
Co-ordination no.	8	12	12
Atomic Packing fraction	0.68	0.74	0.74
Examples	iron (except 910-1400°C) Tungsten (W) Chromium (Cr) Vanadium (V) Molybdenum (Mo) Tantalum (Ta)	iron (910-1400°C) Aluminium (Al) Copper (Cu) Nickel (Ni) Gold (Au) Silver (Ag) Platinum (Pt) Lead (Pb)	Magnesium (Mg) Zinc (Zn) Zirconium (Zr) Titanium (Ti) Cobalt (Co) Cadmium (Cd) Beryllium (Be)

Properties:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hard & Brittle • Grain refiners, control grain growth. • Added to cutting tools. 	• Strong & Ductile	• Easy shear, so used as solid lubricants
Stacking Sequence	ABABA ---- ∞	ABCBCA ---- ∞	ABABA ---- ∞

- Atomic packing factor (APF)

$$APF = \frac{\text{No.} \times \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3}{\text{Vol. of unit cell (a}^3\text{)}}$$

- Allotropy:- It is the tendency of an element to exist in different crystalline structure at diff. temp^r and pressure.
- Miller indices of plane (hkl)
 - rationalised reciprocals of intercept are known as miller indices of plane.
 - when a plane is parallel to a axis, its miller indices is zero along it.
 - two parallel planes will have quantitatively same miller indices, except for algebraic sign of non zero index.
 - Angle b/w two planes $(h_1 k_1 l_1)$ & $(h_2 k_2 l_2)$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{h_1 h_2 + k_1 k_2 + l_1 l_2}{\sqrt{h_1^2 + k_1^2 + l_1^2} \cdot \sqrt{h_2^2 + k_2^2 + l_2^2}}$$

$$h_1 h_2 + k_1 k_2 + l_1 l_2 = 0 \quad \text{for } \theta = 90^\circ$$

- Planes having low indices are far away from origin

$$d = \frac{a}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}}$$

; d = interplanar distance
a = edge length of unit cell

Miller indices of dirⁿ [uvw]

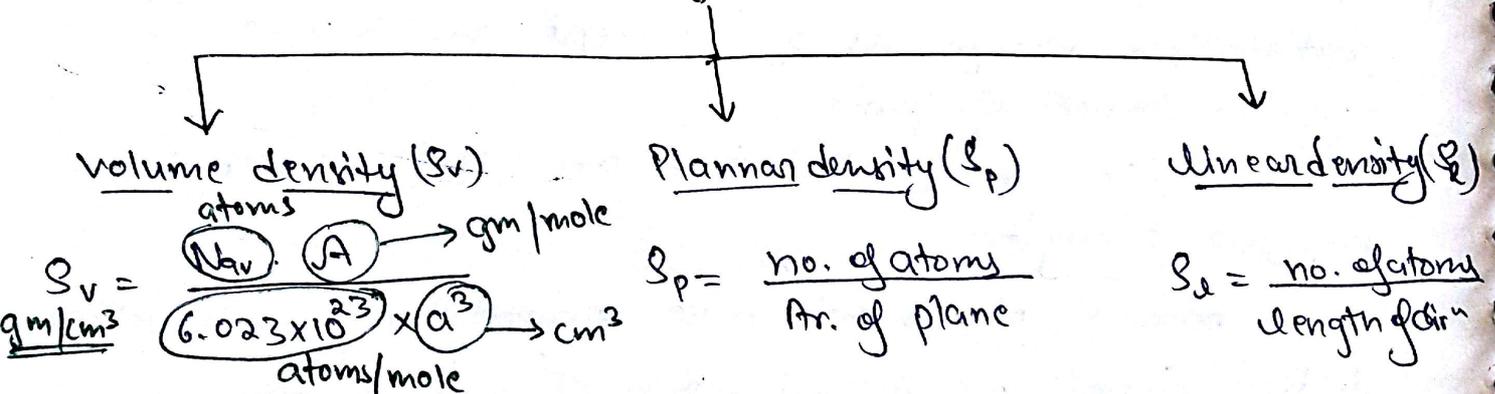
- rationalised components of a given direction vector.
- when a direction is far to an axis, its miller index on that axis is zero.
- two parallel dirⁿ will have quantitatively same indices
- angle b/w two dirⁿ $[u_1, v_1, w_1]$ & $[u_2, v_2, w_2]$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{u_1 u_2 + v_1 v_2 + w_1 w_2}{\sqrt{u_1^2 + v_1^2 + w_1^2} \cdot \sqrt{u_2^2 + v_2^2 + w_2^2}}$$

$$u_1 u_2 + v_1 v_2 + w_1 w_2 = 0 \quad \text{for } \theta = 90^\circ$$

- a dirⁿ vector & plane having same indices will be far to each other.

Density of crystal structure



• no. of atoms in planar density is the effective no. of circles enclosed in given plane.

• no. of atoms in linear density is the no. of atoms whose centers are intersected.

• no. of slip system = no. of closed packed plane
×
no. of closed packed dirⁿ

⇒ FCC more ductile than HCP bcz FCC have more no. of slip system

⇒ BCC is brittle compared to FCC (although BCC have more no. of slip system) bcz of randomness in closed packed planes.

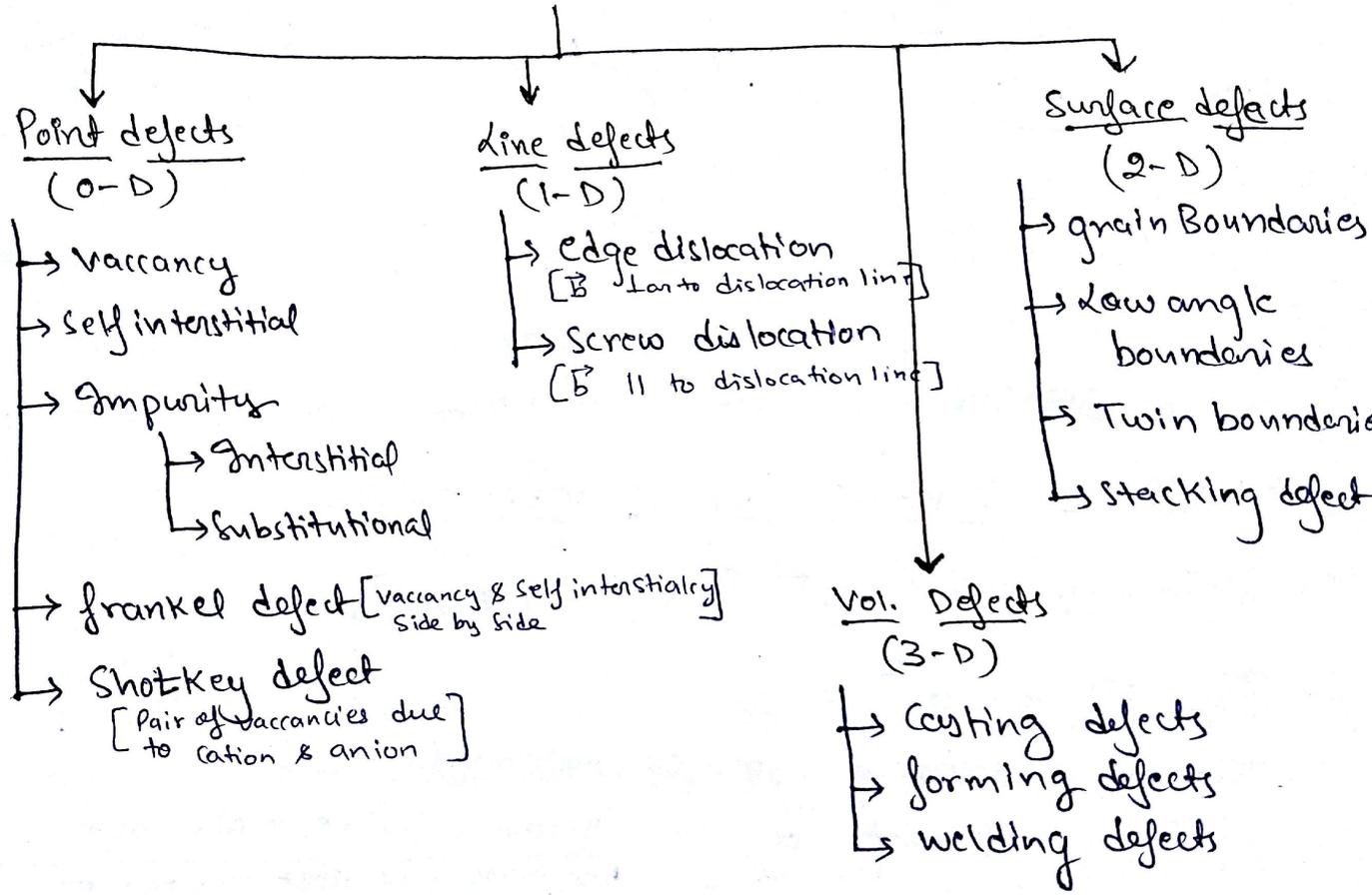
Ductility to Brittle transition conditions

- low temp
- High strain rate
- presence of surface notches
- residual stress due to cold working
- Sudden quenching
- Presence of interstitial carbide or nitride
- low Atomic packing factor or high void space.

main reasons

Secondary reasons

CHAPTER-2 STRUCTURAL IMPERFECTIONS



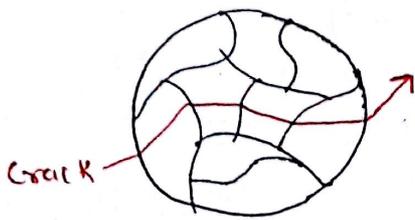
- Let n_v = no. of vacancies in metal
- n_t = total no. of lattice sites
- $\frac{n_v}{n_t}$ = vacancy concentration or fraction of vacancy.
- $\frac{n_v}{n_t} = e^{\left(\frac{-E}{KT}\right)}$ here, K = Boltzman const.
- T = absolute temp (K)
- E = enthalpy of formation of vacancy.

• Grain Boundary characteristics

- region of orientation mismatch
- region of high energy.
- low melting point region
- Region of heavy impurity concentration.

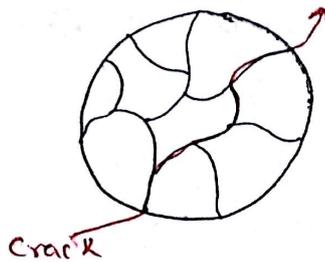
• grains \leftrightarrow Dendrite \leftrightarrow crystal

Equi-cohesive temp^r (T_e) = it is temp^r at which grain strength is equal to GB strength.



low temp^r
($T < T_e$)

Grain weaker
GB stronger



High temp^r
 $T > T_e$

Grain stronger
GB weaker

CHAPTER-3 STRENGTHENING MECHANISMS

A) Grain size refinement [Hall Petch effect]

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_i + kd^{-1/2}$$

σ_y = yield strength of polycrystalline material

σ_i = yield strength of material at infinite grain size

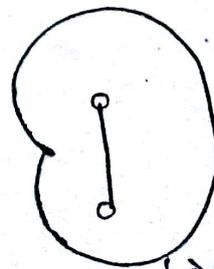
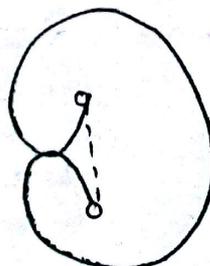
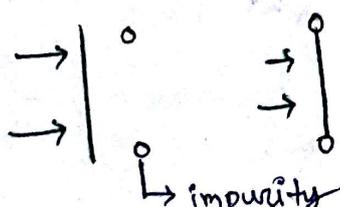
k = Hall Petch const.

d = avg grain dia.

- methods :-
1. Heat treatment
 2. Adding Alloying element
 3. Hot working.

B) Cold working [Frank - Reed source mechanism]

$$\tau = \tau_0 + A\sqrt{\rho}$$



\hookrightarrow Dislocation loop

c) Solid solution strengthening

- ↳ Interstitial solid solⁿ
- ↳ substitutional solid solⁿ

• reason for strengthening is lattice distortion due to impurity particle.

<u>Solid solⁿ</u>	<u>Compounds</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - made on wt % bases - Do not have formula - They have freezing range - named as "minor in major" <p>ex:- α-Ferrite solid solⁿ of carbon <u>in</u> iron.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - made on molar vol. bases - have fixed formula - They solidifies at a particular tempⁿ. - names as "major & minor" <p>ex: Fe₃C interstitial compound of iron <u>and</u> carbon</p>

Hume-Rothery's rule : [for extensive solid solubility]

- Crystal structure of two elements should be same.
- Diff. in atomic radii < 15%.
- There should be less chemical affinity.
- Solvent should have lower valency.

- Alloy is a substance having metallic character & composed of two or more elements out of which atleast one is a metal.
- Composites are composed of two or more elements, all of them can be non-metal. no mutual dissolution, no atomic bonding, can be transparent or translucent.
- Phase is defined as microstructurally distinct, chemically homogenous and mechanically separable part of system.

• Gibbs Phase rule:

$$P + F = C + N$$

N = variable available in alloy manufacturing process.
normally it is taken 1:

$F = 0$ → invariant reaction

$F = 1$ → univariant reaction

$F = 2$ → bivariant reaction

Classification of Binary alloys

Homogenous (single phase)

- Solid solⁿ
- Compounds

Mixtures (multi phase Alloys)

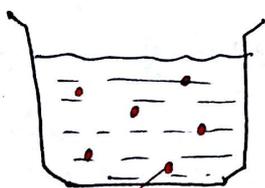
- 2 or more solid solⁿ
- 2 or more compound
- Solid solⁿ + compound

CHAPTER - 4 COMPOSITES

• Always two phase materials

- matrix (continuous)
- Reinforcement (Discontinuous)

A) Particulate Composites



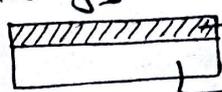
→ Tungsten Carbide
or
SiC

⇒ Dispersion strengthening

Hard Particles are dispersed in soft
matrix metal like Al or Cu.

B) Laminated Composites

[cladding]



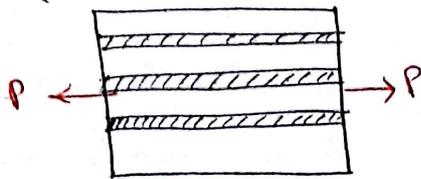
→ Reinforcement
→ matrix

- improve corrosion & wear strength
- improve creep & fatigue strength
- improve magnetic & elec. property.
- uniform heat Distribution

ex:- Al-clad, Cu-clad-Al, Cu-clad-steel

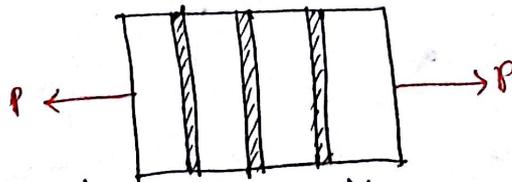
c) Fibre reinforced composite

longitudinal loading
(iso-strain condition)



$$E_c = E_m V_m + E_f V_f$$

Transverse loading
(iso-stress condition)



$$\frac{1}{E_c} = \frac{V_f}{E_f} + \frac{V_m}{E_m}$$

E_c = Young's modulus of composite

E_m = Young's modulus of matrix

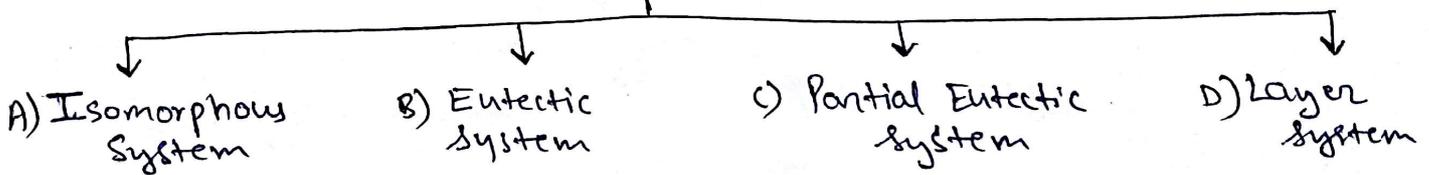
E_f = Young's modulus of fibre

V_f = Vol. fraction of fibre

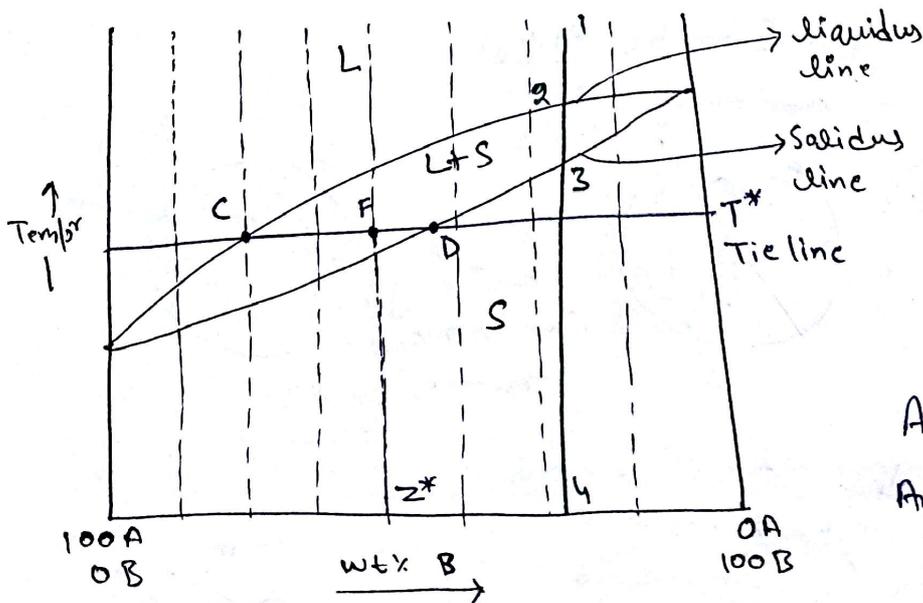
V_m = Vol. fraction of matrix

$$[\therefore E_f \gg E_m]$$

CHAPTER - 5 PHASE DIAGRAMS



A) Isomorphous system

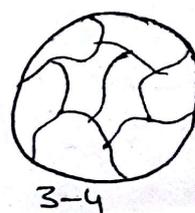
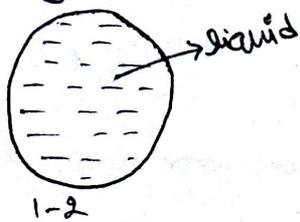


- two elements have complete solubility in solid as well as liquid
- ex - Cu-Ni, Au-Ag, Au-Cu, Ni-W
- Lever rule

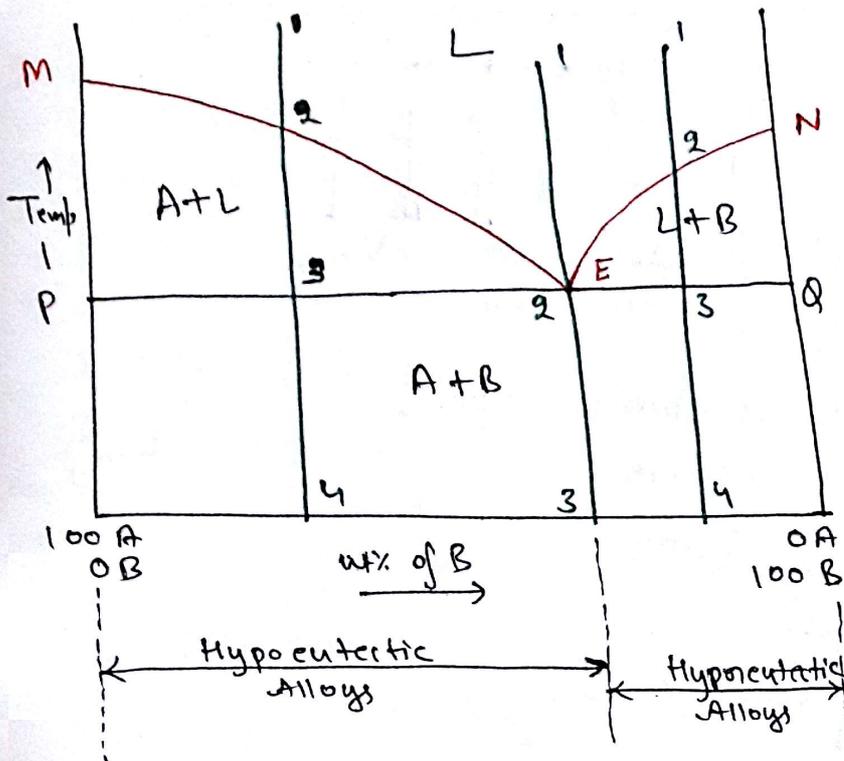
$$\text{Amount of Liquid} = \frac{FD}{CD} \times 100$$

$$\text{Amount of Solid} = \frac{CF}{CD} \times 100$$

cooling behaviour of the mixture



B) Eutectic System

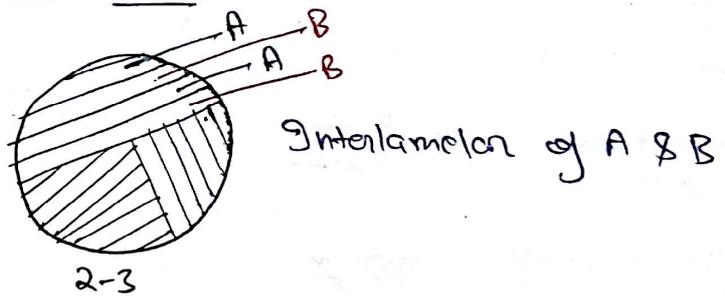
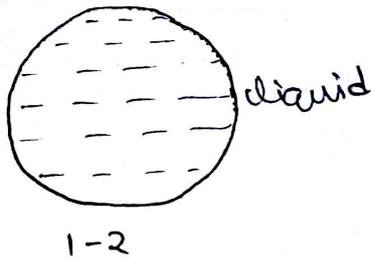


- two elements added will have complete solubility in liquid & insoluble in solids state.
- ex - Pb-As, Bi-cd, Au-Si

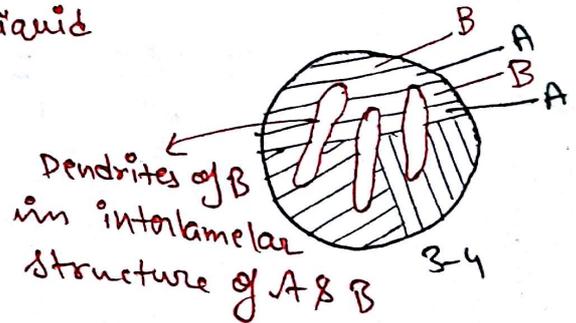
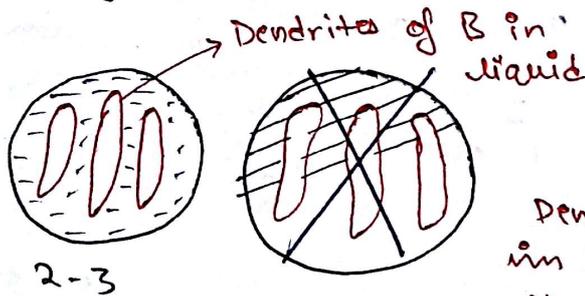
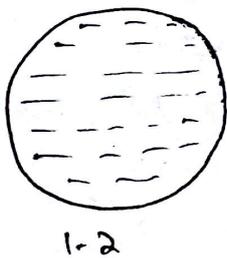
M = melting Point of A
 N = melting Point of B
 E = Eutectic point.

MEN = liquidus
 MPEQN = solidus

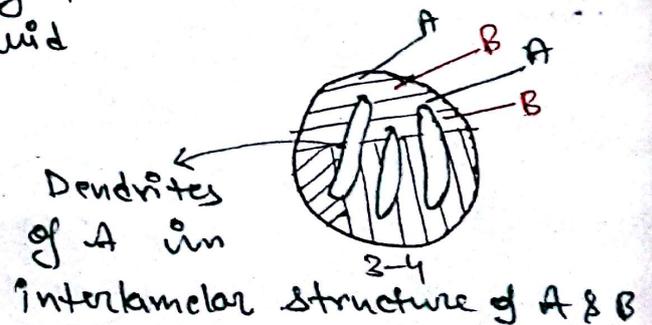
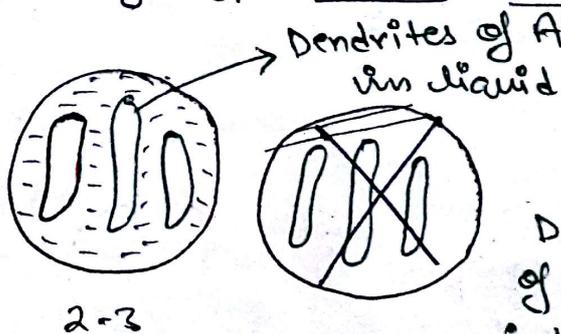
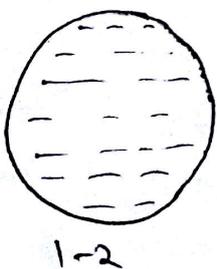
Cooling behaviour of Eutectic Alloys:



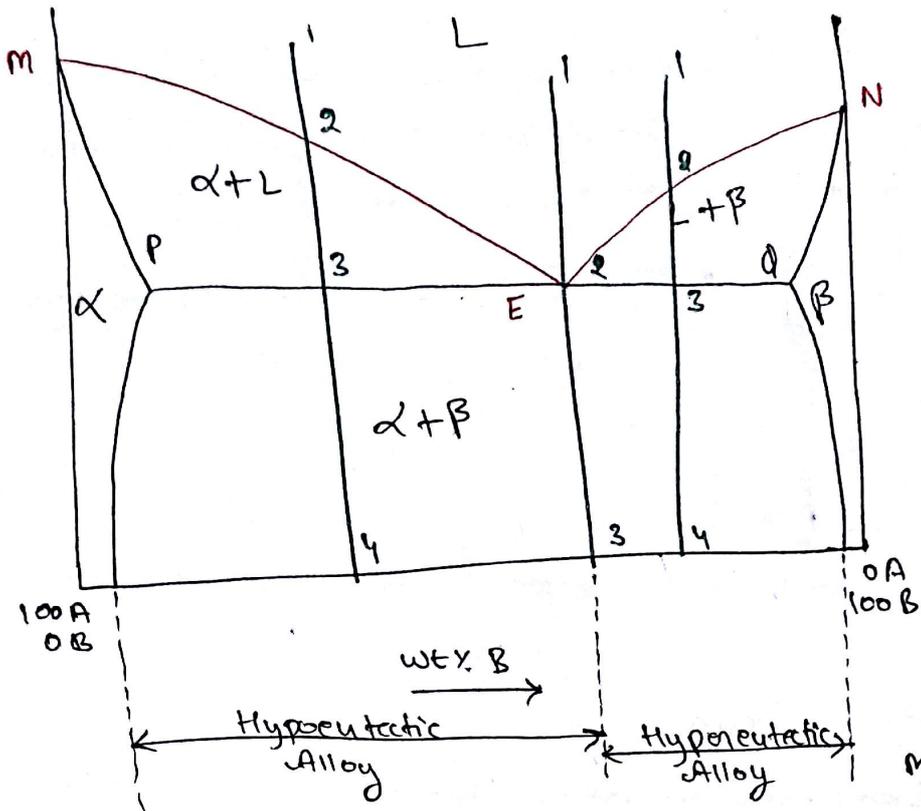
Cooling behaviour of hyper-Eutectic Alloys



Cooling behaviour of hypo-eutectic Alloys



c) Partial Eutectic System



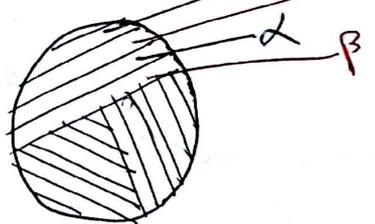
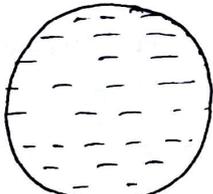
- two elements added will have complete solubility in liquid & partial solubility in solid state.

- ex - Ag-Cu, Pb-Sn, Sn-Bi, Pb-Sb
 ↓ Tin ↓ Antimony

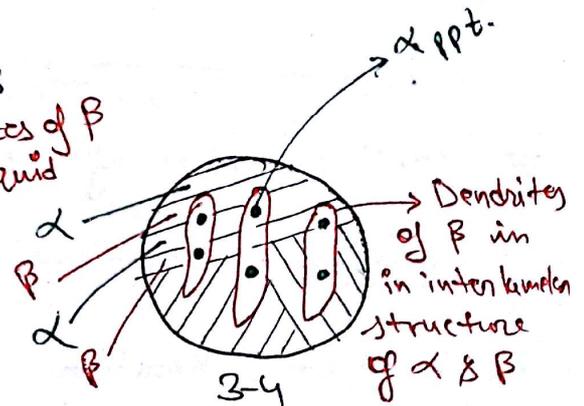
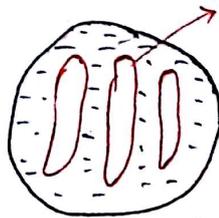
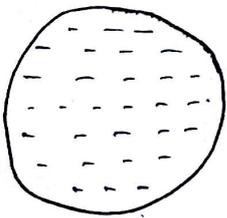
M = melting point of A
 N = melting point of B
 E = Eutectic Point
 MPEQN = Solidus
 MEN = liquidus

α = Solid soln of B in A
 β = Solid soln of A in B

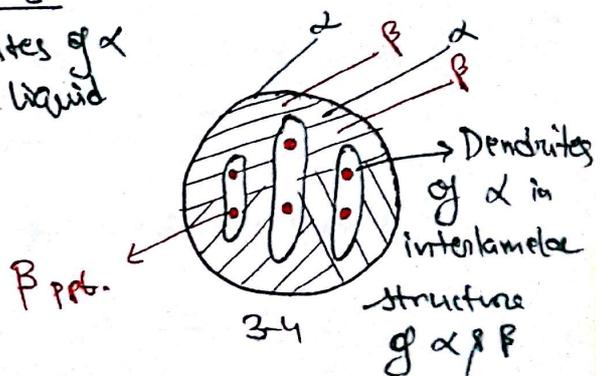
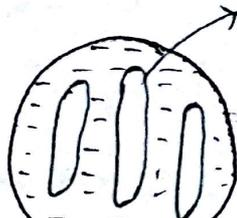
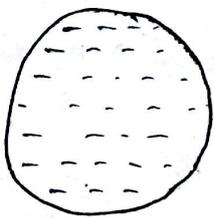
Cooling behaviour of Eutectic Alloys



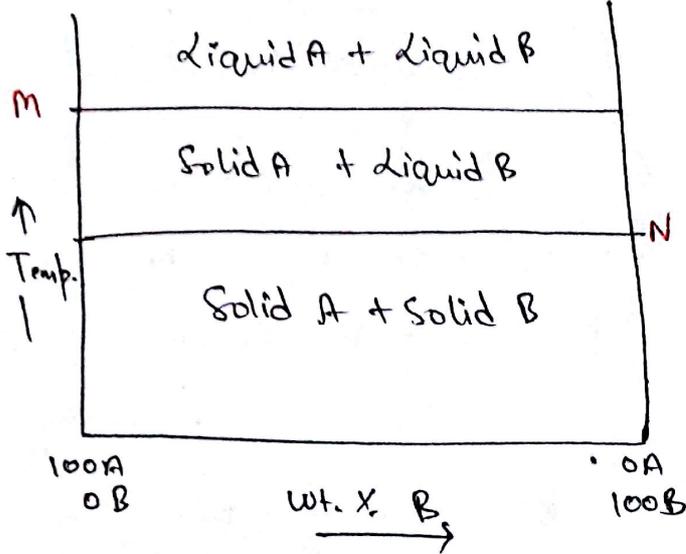
Cooling behaviour of hypereutectic Alloys



Cooling behaviour of hypoeutectic Alloys

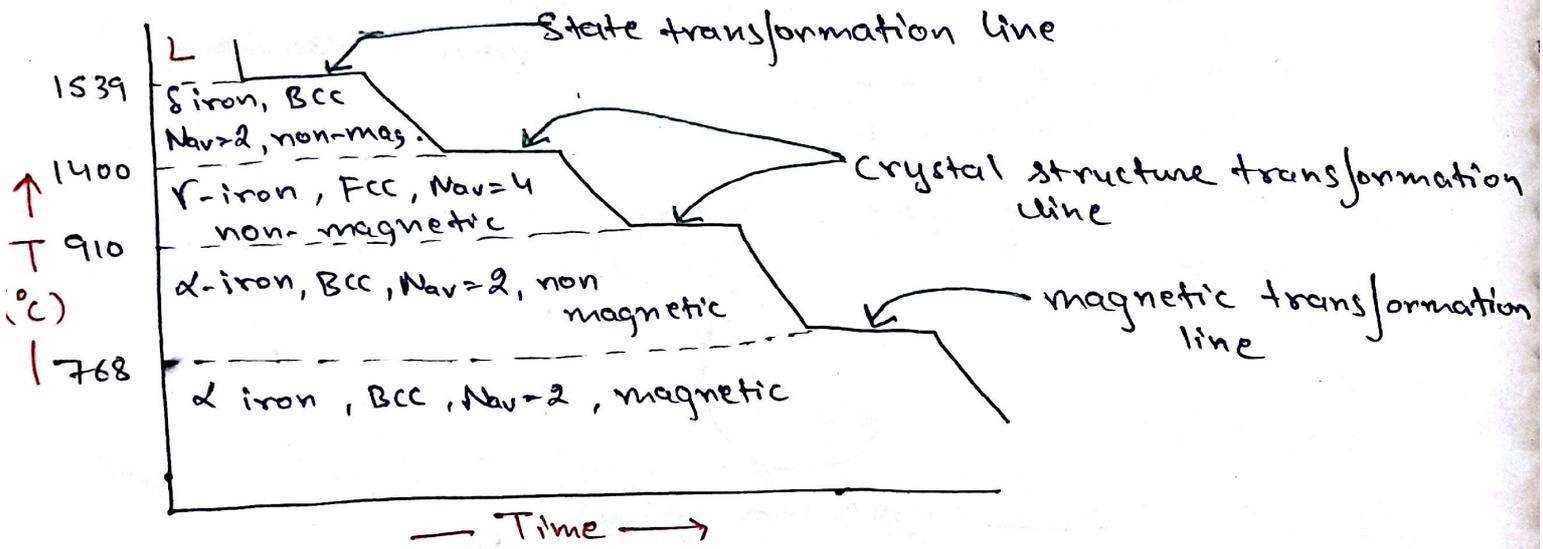


D) layer system



- two elements added are completely insoluble in liquid as well as solid state.
- eg:- Cu-Mo, Cu-W, Ag-W, Ag-Fe

Cooling Curve of Pure Iron



Cooling Curve of Iron-Iron Carbide

Invariant Reactions (F=0)

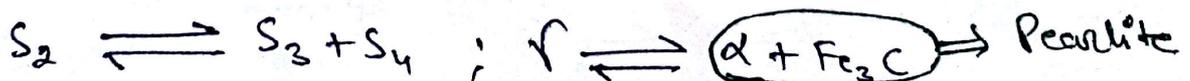
1. Peritectic Reaction at 1492°C & 0.18 wt% C

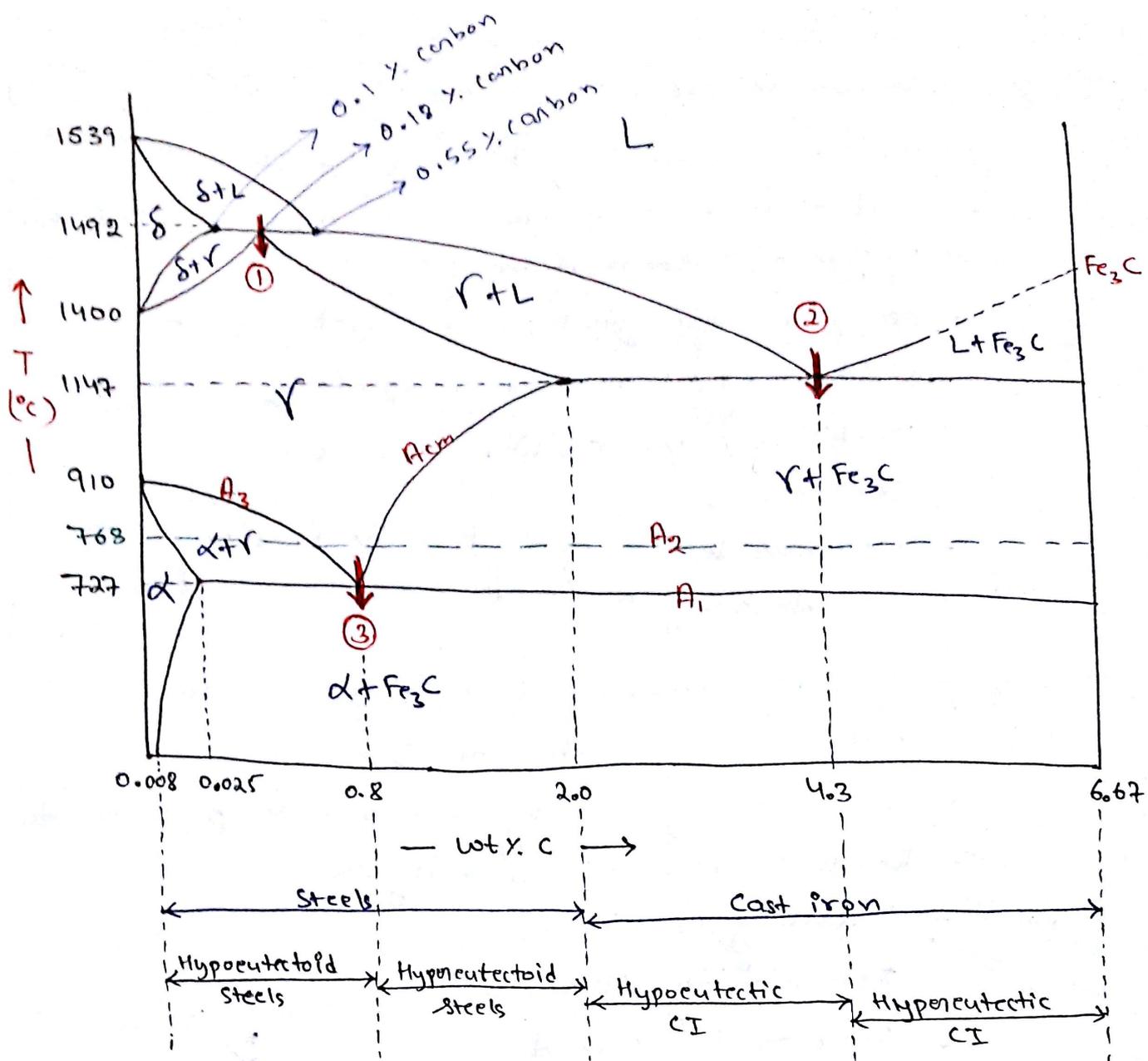


2. Eutectic Reaction at 1147°C & 4.3% Carbon



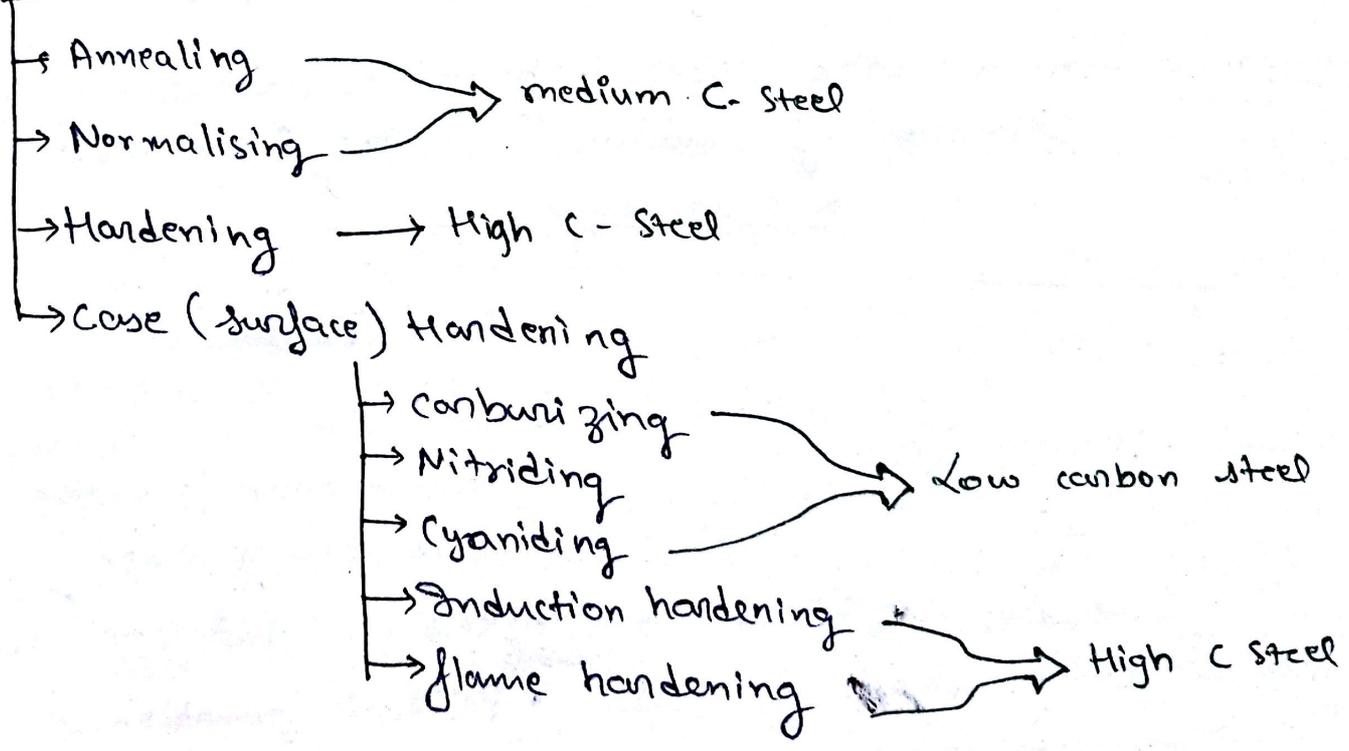
3. Eutectoid Reaction at 727°C & 0.8 wt% C



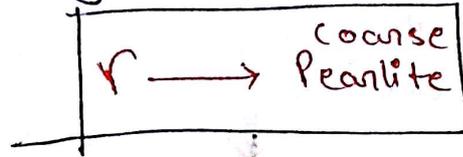


CHAPTER-6 HEAT TREATMENT

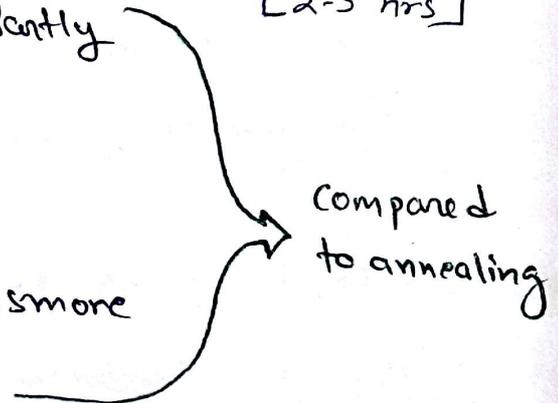
Classic heat treatment



1. Annealing
- cooling in furnace [takes 8-9 hrs]
 - Heated to completely γ range (+ 50-100°C)
 - Held at that temp. for 30-60 min for complete uniform austenitisation.
 - Recovery - Recrystallisation - Grain growth
 - Residual stress relieved completely
 - Ductility & formability increases
 - Strength ↓
 - Hardness ↓
 - machinability ↑



2. Normalising
- Heated to complete γ range + (50-100°C)
 - Held at that temp. for 30-60 min
 - followed by cooling to room temp. in open Air [2-3 hrs]
 - Residual stress relieved partly
 - Ductility will be less
 - Formability will be less
 - Fine grain formed
 - Strength & Hardness is more
 - machinability less



3. Hardening - High carbon steel is heated to about 1000°C followed by sudden Quenching in water.

Consequences

Structural changes

Problems

$\gamma \longrightarrow$ Martensite

FCC \longrightarrow BCT

↓
Hardness = Rc 65

Hardest known phase
in iron-iron carbide

- Corrosion
- Quench crack formation
- Distorsion of shape
- Retained Austenite (γ_{RA})
- Residual formation.

methods to eliminate retained Austenite (V_{RA})

- Sub zero cooling $V_{RA} \rightarrow M$
- Permanent deformation $V_{RA} \rightarrow M$
- High temp^r tempering $V_{RA} \rightarrow$ Bainite [stable at room temp]
 - \downarrow
 - BCC = Rc 55 ($\alpha + Fe_3C$)
- Carburising : Carburising + Quenching \Rightarrow 800 VHN (72 hrs)
- Nitriding : nitriding \Rightarrow 1000 VHN (no quenching)
- Cyaniding : cyaniding + Quenching \Rightarrow 900 VHN (15-20 mins)

Effects of Alloying elements

- Ni \Rightarrow Increase Toughness, Do not effect Ductility
- Cr \Rightarrow Increase corrosion resistance
- Silicon \Rightarrow Increase hardenability, it is strong deoxidiser
- Phosphorus \Rightarrow Increase hardenability, but result in cold cracking tendency in steels
- Sulphur \Rightarrow Increase hardenability but result in hot cracking tendency in steels.
- Manganese \Rightarrow Increase abrasive resistance
- Tungsten \Rightarrow Increase hot hardness
- molybdenum \Rightarrow Increase creep strength
- cobalt \Rightarrow Increase toughness
- Vanadium \Rightarrow Increase endurance strength

Carbon % age	Applications
low carbon steels	Screw, wires, nails, Boiler plates, structural works
Medium Carbon steels	Crank shaft, connecting rod, Gears
High Carbon steels	Hammers, cutting tools, ball bearings.

Cast Iron

1. White CI : made under fast cooling rates
 - made with low Silicon content
 - Fe_3C needles present in Pearlite matrix
 - Hard Brittle & wear resistant.
2. Grey CI : made under slow cooling rates
 - made with high Silicon content.
 - $Fe_3C \longrightarrow$ graphite flakes
 - long graphite flakes disturbs continuity of lattice & hence decrease strength & hardness.
3. Meehanite CI : Originally grey CI
 - Added with CaSi to refine flakes
 - CaSi breaks flakes & distribute uniformly
 - Composite type strength is observed.
4. Chilled CI : Produced in chilled moulds
 - outer layer - fast cooling
 - inner layer - slow cooling

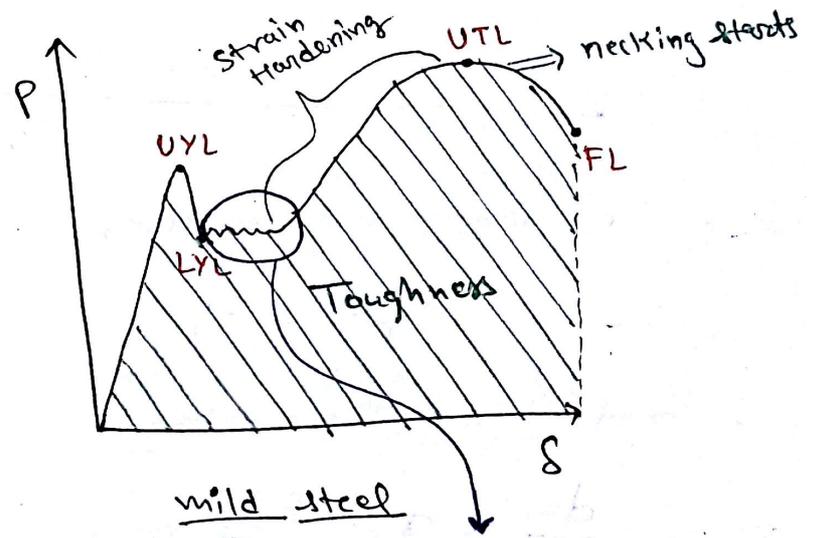
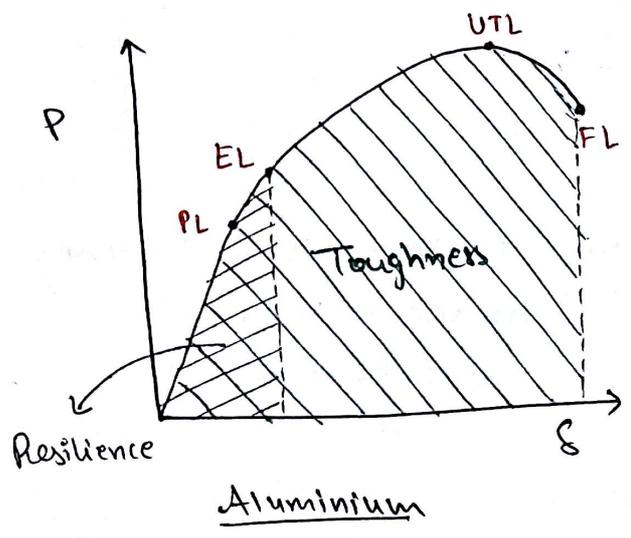
} Due to this transforms in flakes
5. Spheroidal CI : originally grey CI
 or
Nodular CI - Li/Na/K/Ba are added as alloying elements
 - Graphite flakes are spherical in shape
 - machinability \uparrow

Ceramics	
Properties	Application
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - non-metallic organic compounds like oxides, nitrides, carbides etc. - usually crystalline but can be amorphous. - thermal & electrical insulator - conduct electricity at high temp. - good in compression, weak in tension 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - semiconductor material in memory loops. - Bricks, cements - POP, lime - Refractory lining of furnace - floor tiles, wall tiles

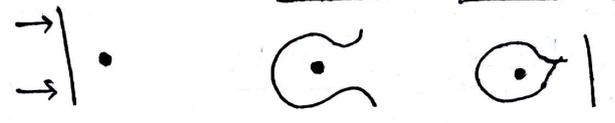
Polymers	Applications
Acrobotadiene Styrene (ABS)	Refrigerator lining
Acrylics / Perspex	lenses, Aircraft windows
Teflon	Anticorrosive seal, pipes, valves, Bearings
Polystyrene	Battery cases
PVC	floor covering covering, electric insulation
Epoxyes	Protective Coatings
Silicons	high temp. Insulations.

CHAPTER-7 MECHANICAL PROPERTIES (Testing & evaluations)

A) Tension test



Cottrell atmosphere

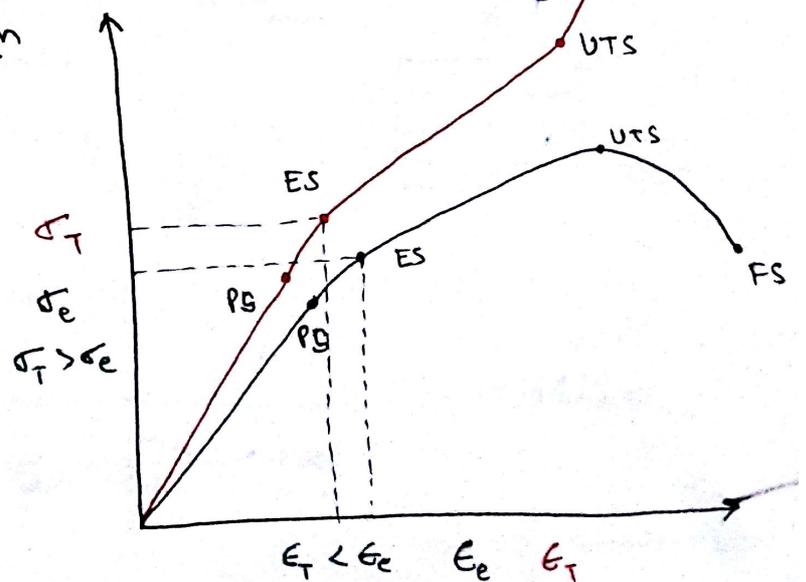


- % age elongation in length is taken as an index of Ductility
- % age reduction in Area is an index of malleability.

True stress & True strain
 (σ_T) (ϵ_T)

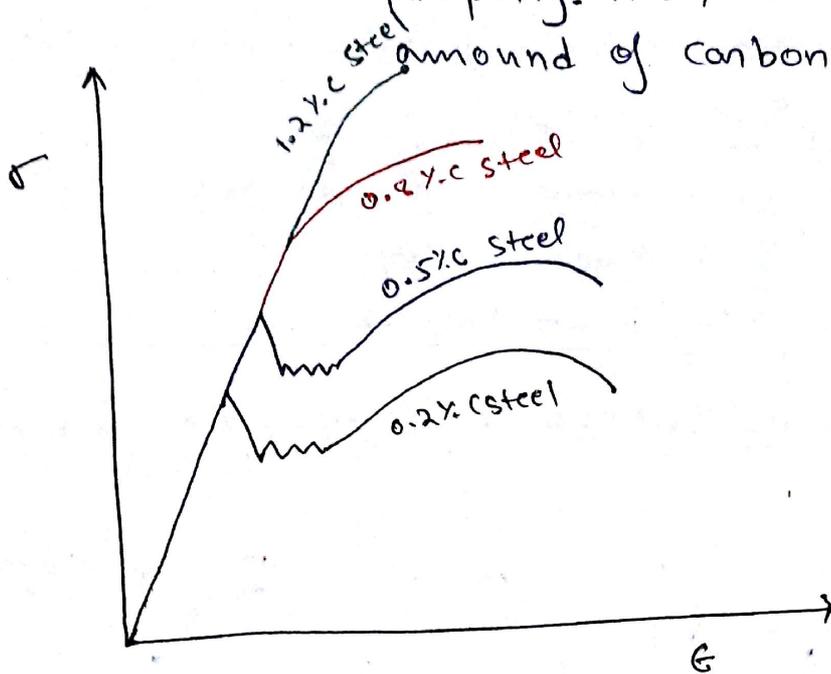
$$\sigma_T = \sigma_e (1 + \epsilon_e)$$

$$\epsilon_T = \ln(1 + \epsilon_e)$$



Young's modulus: it is an index of stiffness of material.

Young's modulus is structure insensitive property. Also, it does not depend on amount of carbon added to steels.



- Slope is same i.e. Young's modulus is same for all carbon content.

For permanent deformations

$$\sigma_T = K \epsilon_T^n$$

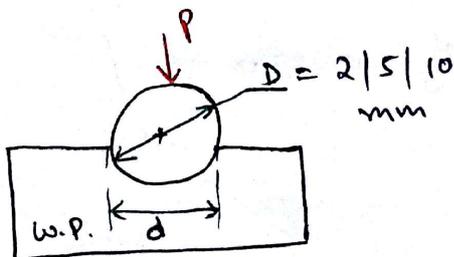
here, K = strength coefficient
 n = work hardening Exponent.

- Condition for necking

$$\frac{d\sigma_T}{d\epsilon_T} = \sigma_T \Rightarrow n = \epsilon_T$$

B) Hardness Tests

a) Brinnell's hardness test



Indenter = Hardened steel ball
 or
 Tungsten Carbide

Time of load = 10-30 seconds

$P = 3000 \text{ Kg}$ for Fe alloys
 $= 500 \text{ Kg}$ for non-Fe alloy for 10mm ϕ

$$\text{BHN} = \frac{2P}{\pi D \left(D - \sqrt{D^2 - d^2} \right)}$$

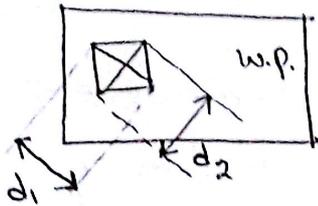
400 for Indentor

$$\frac{P}{D^2} = 30 \text{ Fe-alloys}$$

$$= 5 \text{ non-Fe alloys}$$

$\sigma_{ut} = 3.5 \text{ BHN}$

b) Vickers Hardness test

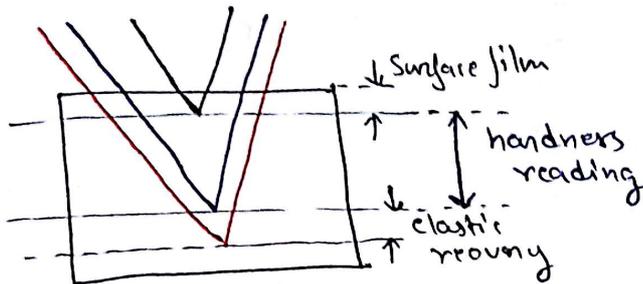


- Square base diamond pyramid as indenter
- included angle = 136°
- load = 1 to 120 Kg
- Time = 10-30 sec.

$$VHN = \frac{1.8544 P}{d^2} ; \text{ here } d = \frac{d_1 + d_2}{2}$$

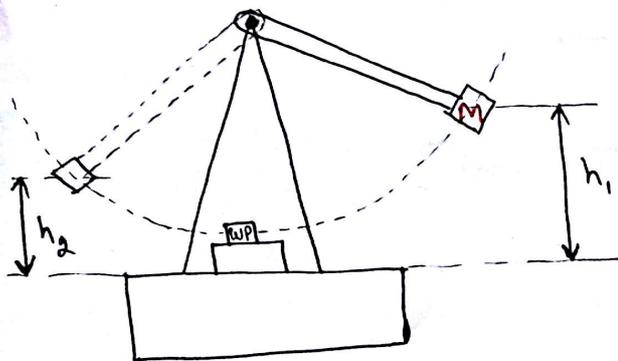
• it cannot be used for powder metallurgy materials.

c) Rockwell hardness test



- Readings are found directly on reader, no formula.
- Uses brale indenter
 \Downarrow
 conical black diamond.

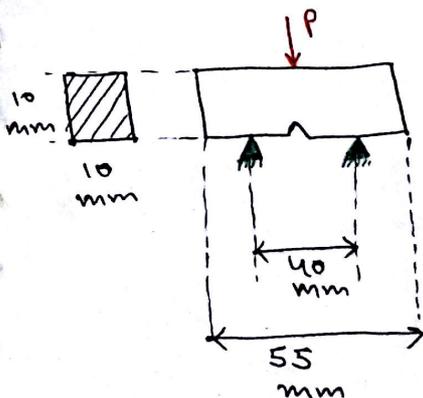
c) Impact test



- To find out dynamic toughness and notch sensitivity.
- To study ductile to brittle transition in metal.

$$\text{Dynamic Toughness} = Mg(h_1 - h_2)$$

Charpy test



Izod test

