

Notes on Chapter 3: Structure and Manufacturing Properties

Vipin Kumar

Based on notes by Prof. Junlan Wang

Crystal Structures of Metals

Metals are characterized by the metallic bond

- A complete outer shell can not be formed by electron sharing or transfer
- Positive ions are surrounded by wandering, universally shared valence electrons
- Electrons are highly mobile
- High electrical and thermal conductivity
- Bond strength, material strength, and melting point vary
- Positive ions can move within the structure without the breaking of discrete bonds

Metals solidify into crystalline structures

Some metals can exist in the solid state in two or more lattice forms (allotropic polymorphic)

The change from one lattice form to another is called an allotropic transformation

Common Crystal Structures for Metals

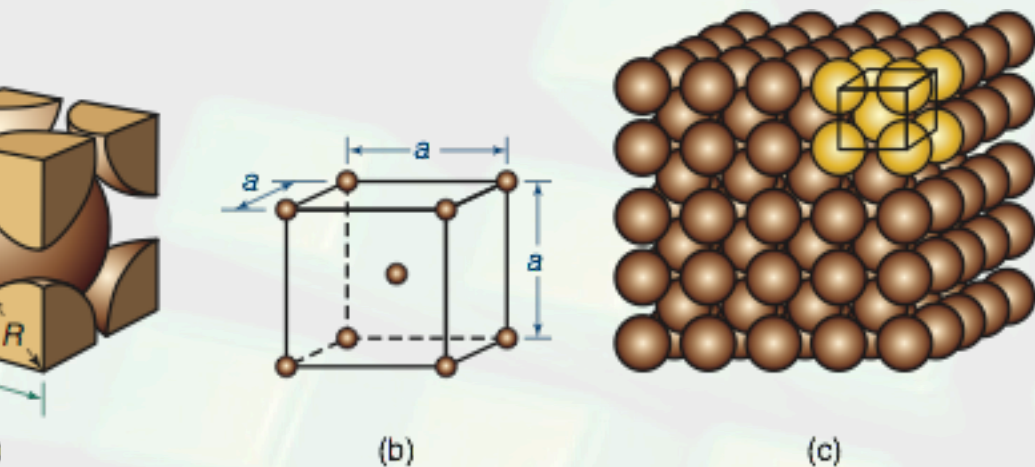


FIGURE 3.2 The **body-centered cubic (bcc)** structure: (a) hard-ball model; (b) unit cell; and (c) crystal with many unit cells. Common bcc metals include chromium, titanium, and tungsten. *Source:* After W.G. Moffatt.

High strength, moderate ductility

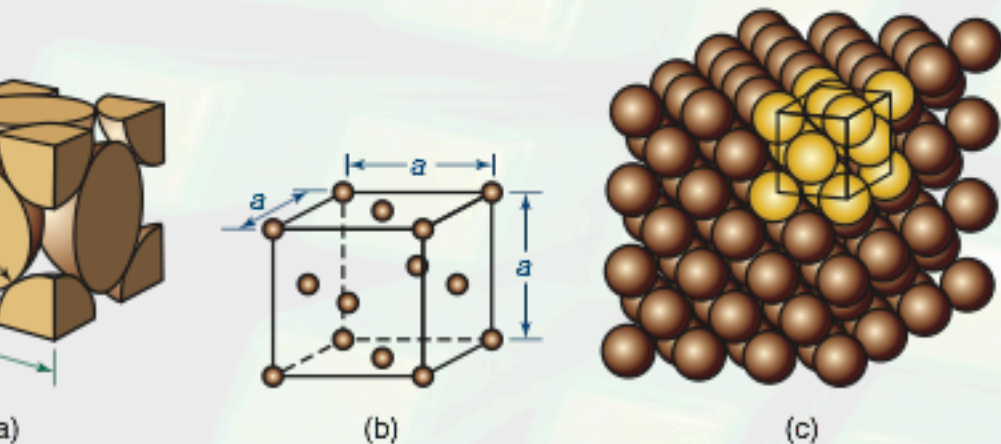


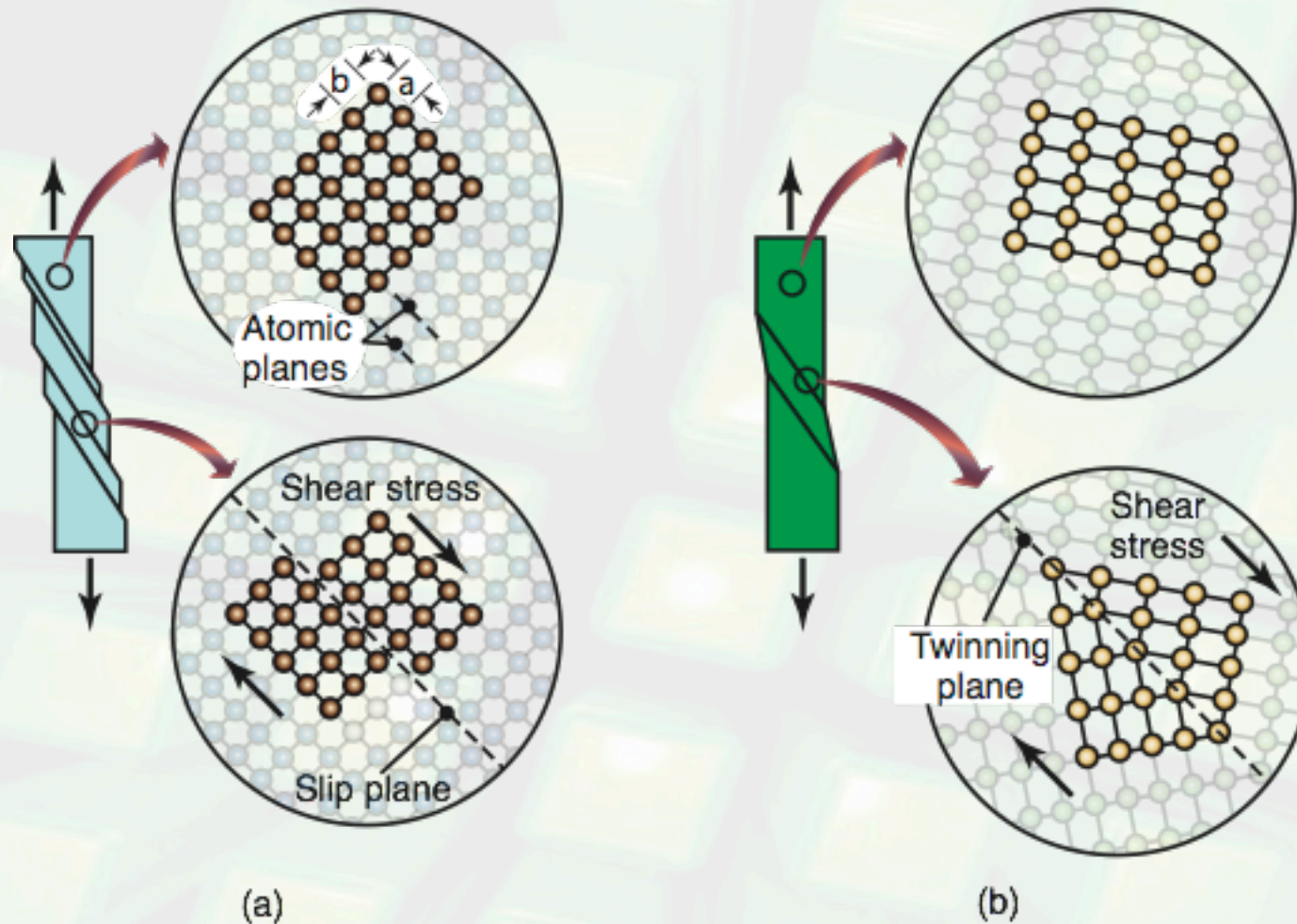
FIGURE 3.3 The **face-centered cubic (fcc)** structure: (a) hard-ball model; (b) unit cell; and (c) crystal with many unit cells. Common fcc metals include aluminum, copper, gold and silver. *Source:* After W.G. Moffatt.

Low strength, high ductility

FIGURE 3.4 The **hexagonal close-packed (hcp)** structure: (a) unit cell; and (b) single crystal with many unit cells. Common hcp metals include zinc, magnesium and titanium. *Source:* After W.G. Moffatt.

Low ductility, Brittle

Plastic Deformation in Crystals



Permanent deformation of a single crystal under a tensile load. The highlighted grid of atoms emphasizes the slip plane within the lattice. (a) Deformation by **slip**. The b/a ratio influences the magnitude of the shear stress required for slip, and the slip planes tend to align themselves in the direction of pulling. (b) Deformation by **twinning**. A "twin" is a mirror image of the original lattice across a line of symmetry subjected to shear. Note that the tensile load results in a shear stress.

Crystal Defects

Point

Linear

Planar (GB, phase boundary)

Volume or bulk

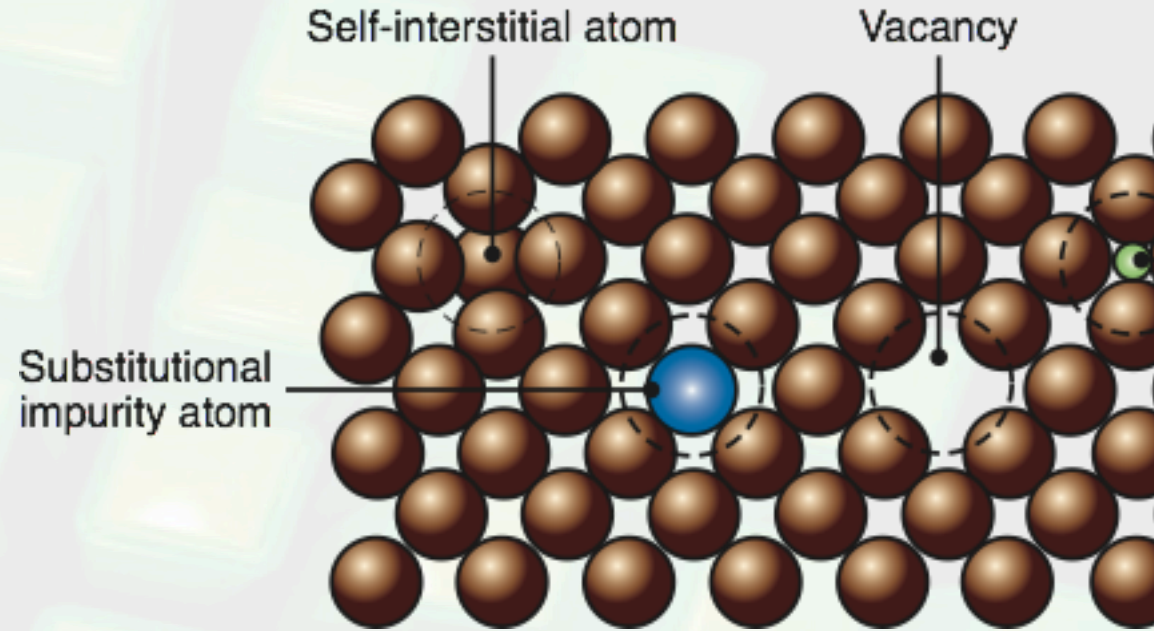


FIGURE 3.9 Various defects in a single-crystal lattice. Source: After W.G. Moffatt.

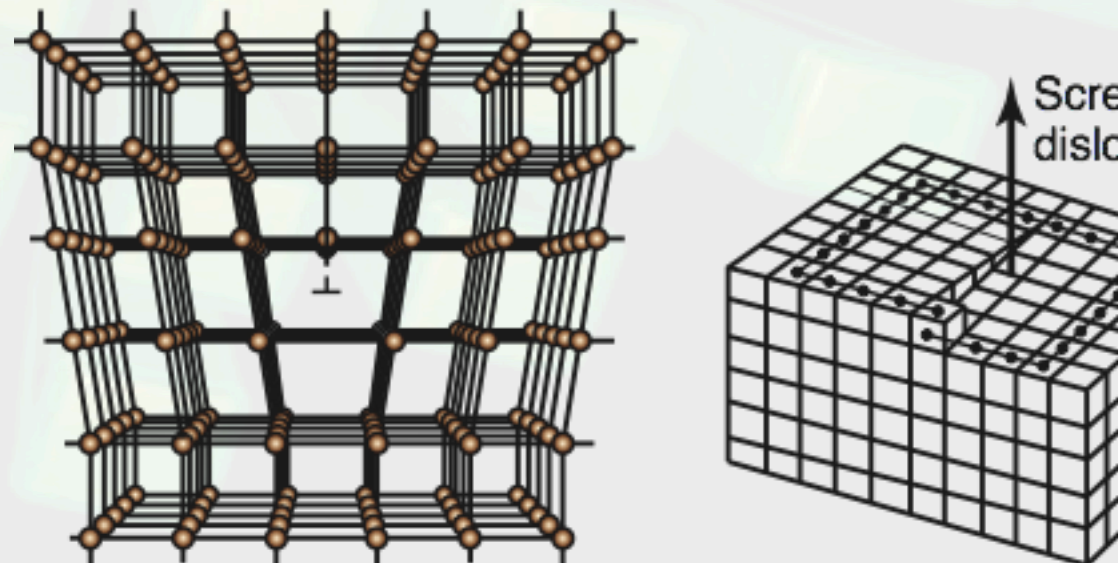


FIGURE 3.10 (a) Edge dislocation, a linear defect at the edge of an extra plane of atoms. (b) Screw dislocation, a helical defect in a three-dimensional lattice of atoms. Screw dislocations are so named because the atomic planes form a spiral ramp.

Movement of Edge Dislocation

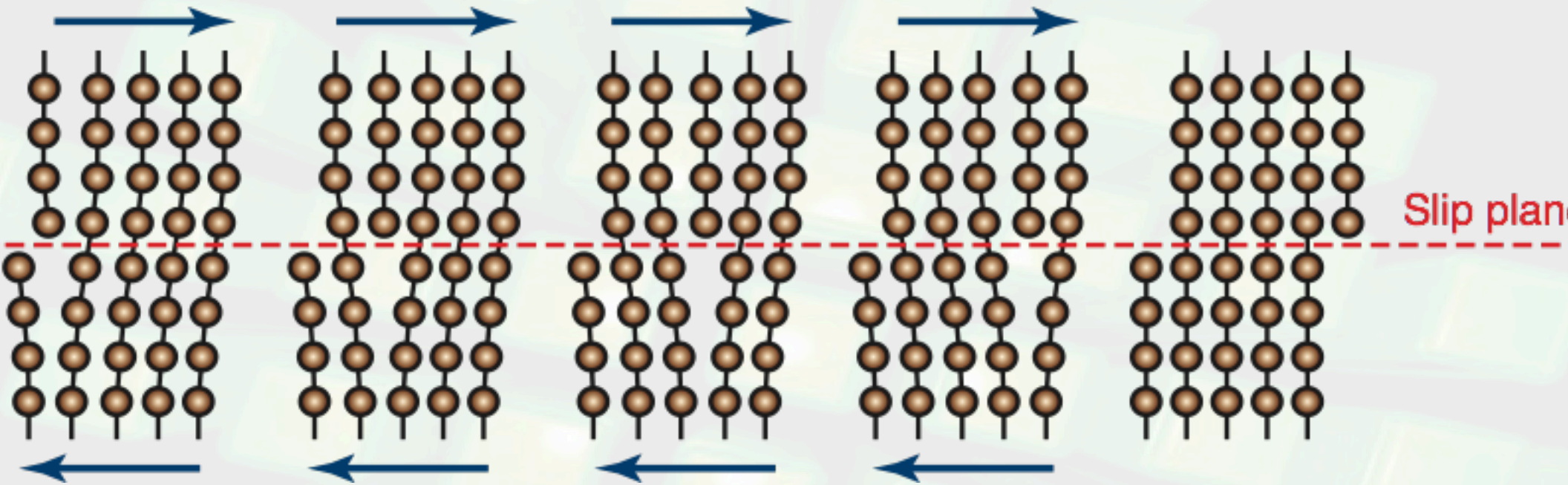


FIGURE 3.11 Movement of an edge dislocation across the crystal lattice under a shear stress. Dislocations help explain why the actual strength of metals is much lower than that predicted by atomic theory.

Hardening

Very pure single crystals: $0 - 10^3 \text{ mm}^{-2}$

Annealed single crystals: $10^5 - 10^6$

Annealed polycrystals: $10^7 - 10^8$

Highly cold-worked metals: $10^{11} - 10^{12}$

Strain-hardening: increase of overall strength caused by dislocation entanglement and impediments to dislocation motion (GB, impurities, inclusions, etc).

Development of Grain Structure

A small particle of solid forms from the liquid, as the metal solidifies

Lattice structure that forms is characteristic of a given material

Metal solidifies as atoms attach themselves to the small particle (nucleation and growth)

Basic crystalline unit is called a unit cell and is repeated throughout the material

Grains are small continuous volumes of solid

Surfaces that divide grains are called grain boundaries

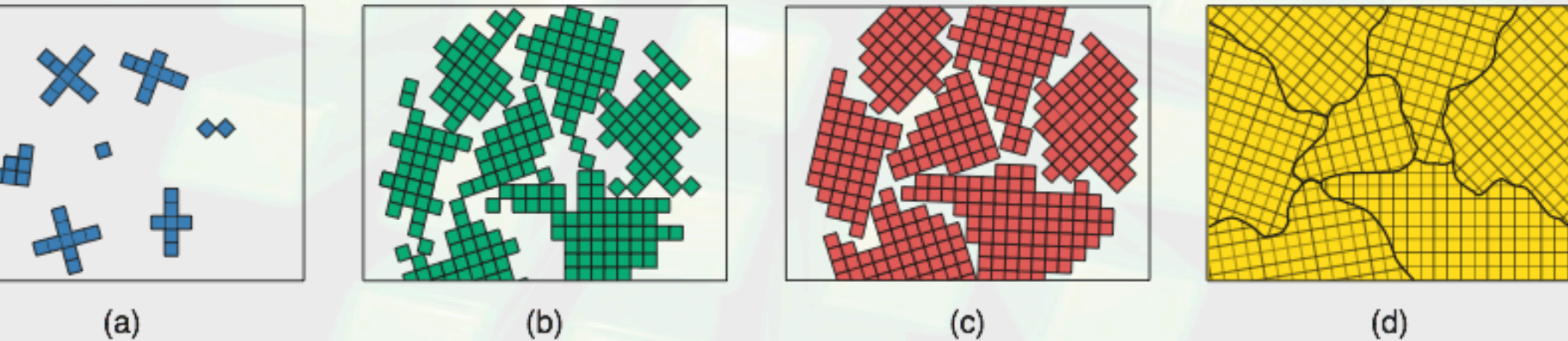


FIGURE 3.12 Schematic illustration of the various stages during solidification of molten metal. Each small square represents a unit cell. (a) Nucleation of crystals at random sites in the molten metal. Note that the crystallography

Grains

Smallest unit in a metal that can be observed by a light microscope

Grain structure impacts mechanical and physical properties

- Hall-Petch Equation

$$Y = Y_i + kd^{-1/2}$$

Grain size number is important for a design engineer

- ASTM grain size specification

- $N = 2^{n-1}$
- N is the number of grains per square inch at 100X

Summary

Crystal structures of Metals

- Metallic bonding
- Three crystal lattices
 - FCC, BCC, HCP
- Ideal shear and tensile strength of metals

Plastic deformation of metals

- Slip vs twinning
- Mechanisms of strain hardening

Grain formation during solidification

- Grain size characterization

The background of the slide features a repeating pattern of light green, three-dimensional cubes. These cubes are arranged in a staggered, grid-like fashion across the entire surface. Each cube has a slight shadow, giving it a 3D appearance. The overall color palette is soft, with the light green cubes contrasting gently against a pale lavender or light purple background.

Manufacturing Properties of Metals

Outline

Polycrystalline metals

- Tensile strength, GB effect, plastic deformation

Cold, hot, warm working and recrystallization

Fracture and Failure of metals

Physical and chemical properties

Categories of metals and alloys

- Ferrous, Nonferrous, Superalloys, Refractory, others

Tensile Stress In Polycrystalline Material

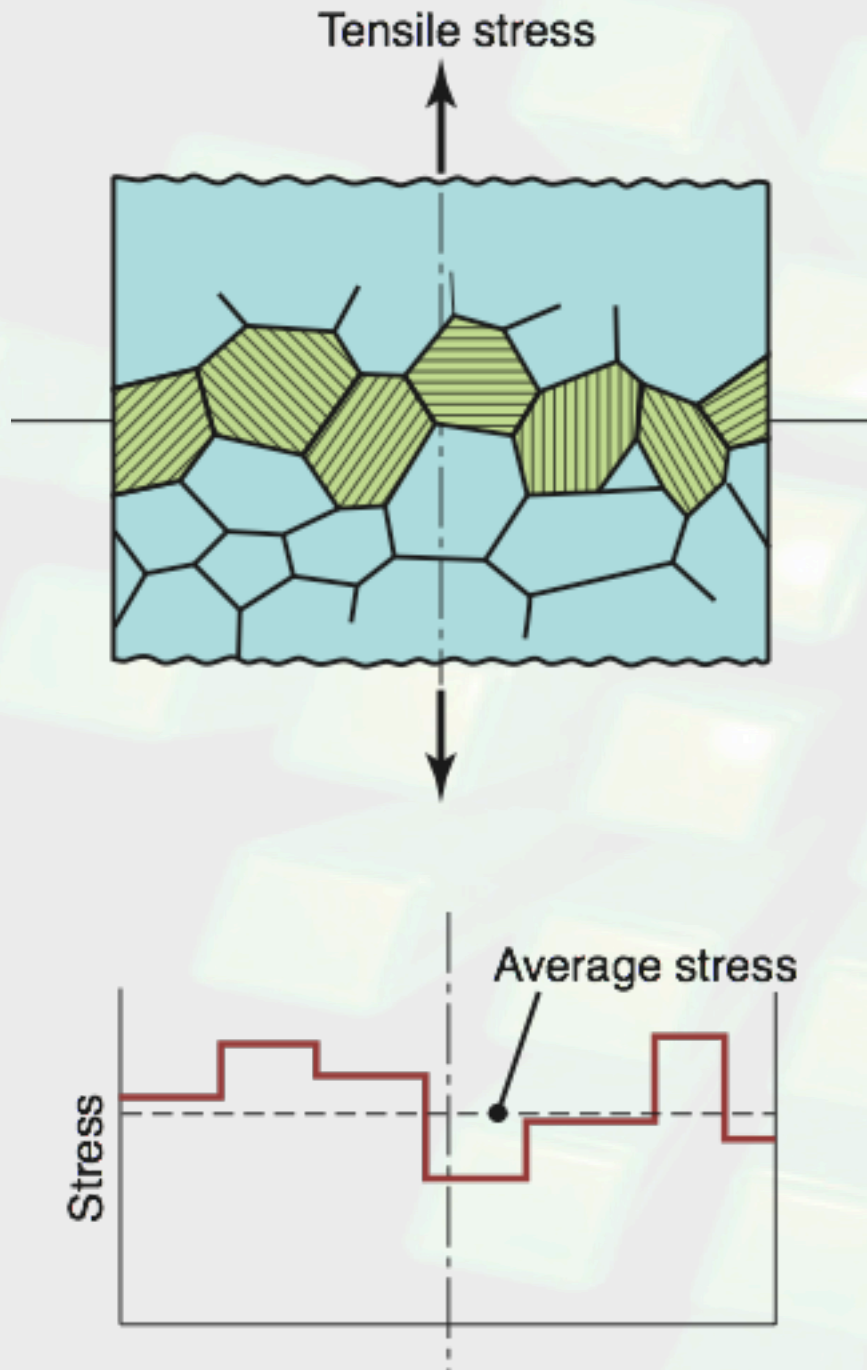


FIGURE 3.13 Variation of tensile stress across a polycrystalline metal specimen subjected to tensile stress. Note that the strength exhibited by each grain depends on its orientation.

Grain Boundary Effect

Interfere with dislocation movement

Grain boundary sliding → creep

Grain boundary embrittlement

Corrosion

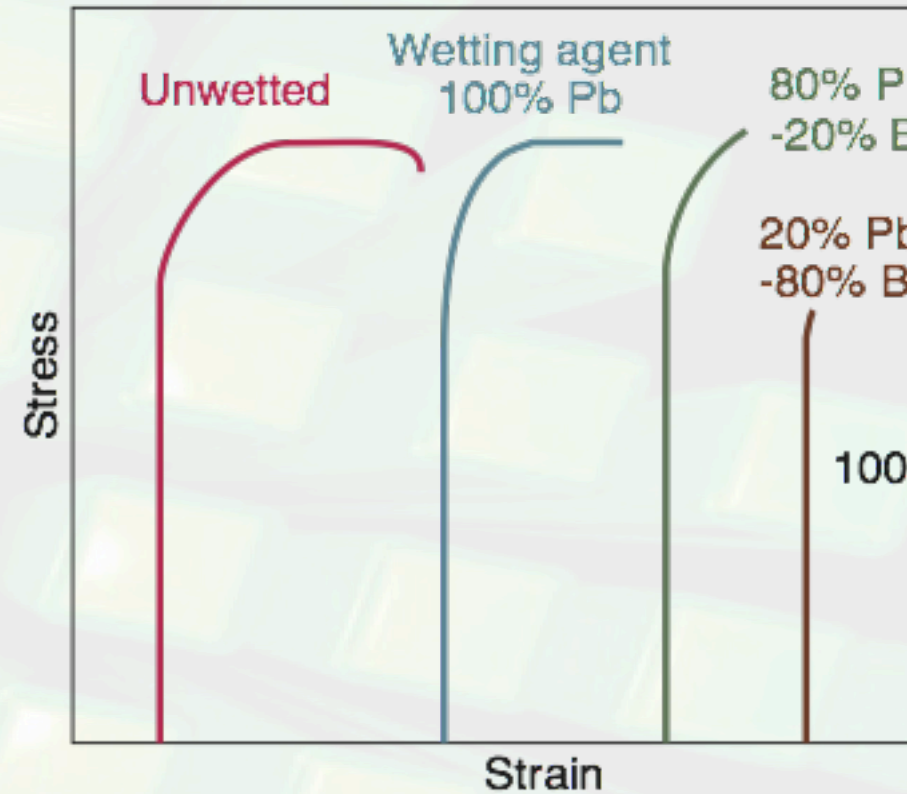


FIGURE 3.14 Embrittlement of copper by lead bismuth at 350°C (660°F). Embrittlement has important effects on the strength, ductility, and toughness of materials. *Source:* After W. Rostoker.

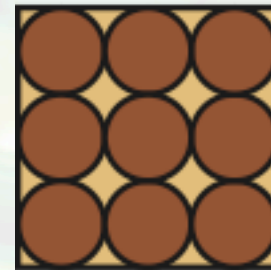
Plastic Deformation

Deformation of grain

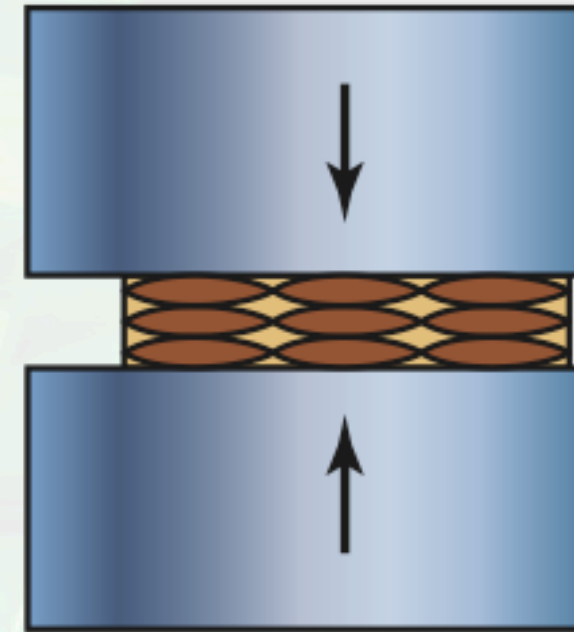
Increasing strength with increasing deformation

Anisotropy (texture)

- Preferred orientation
- Mechanical fibering
 - Alignment of impurities, inclusions, voids



(a)



(b)

FIGURE 3.15 Plastic deformation of idealized (equiaxed) grains in a specimen subjected to compression, such as done in rolling or forging of metals: (a) before deformation; and (b) after deformation. Note the alignment of grain boundaries along a horizontal direction.

Grain Growth

Recovery

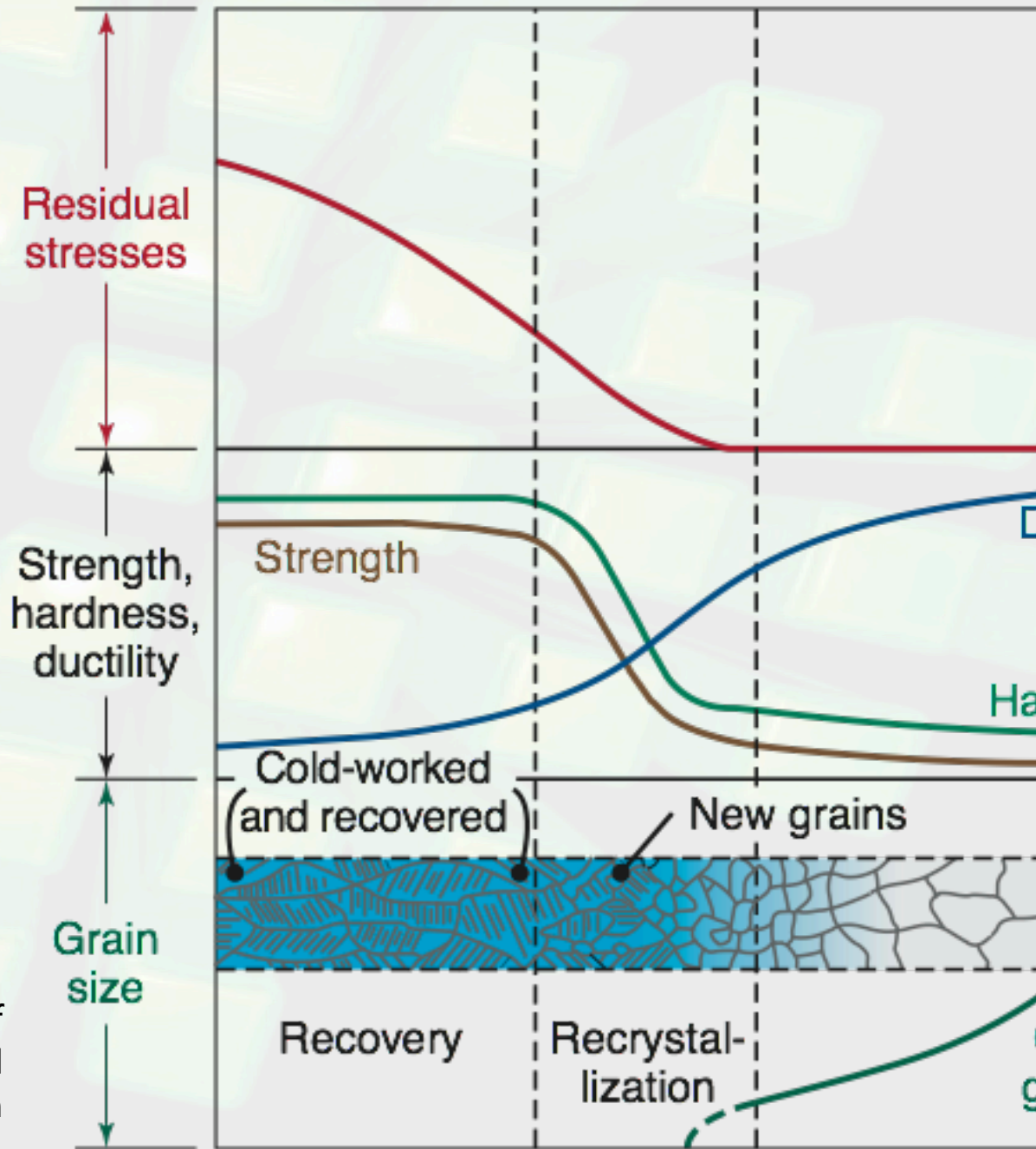
- Stress relieve in highly deformed region

Recrystallization

- Formation of equi-axed, stress-free grains
- $0.3-0.5 T_m$
- Decrease dislocation density
- Lowers metal strength, increase ductility
- Depends on prior cold work

Grain Growth

- Adverse effect on mechanical properties
- Orange-peel effect (rough surface)



3.17 Schematic illustration of the effects of recovery, recrystallization, and grain growth on mechanical properties and shape and size of grains. Note the formation of new grains during recrystallization. Source: After G.

Recrystallization vs Prior Cold Work

Under same cold work, less time with increasing temperature

More prior cold work, lower temperature for recrystallization

Higher amount of deformation, smaller resulting grain size during recrystallization

Anisotropy due to preferred orientation persists during recrystallization; require higher temperature to remove

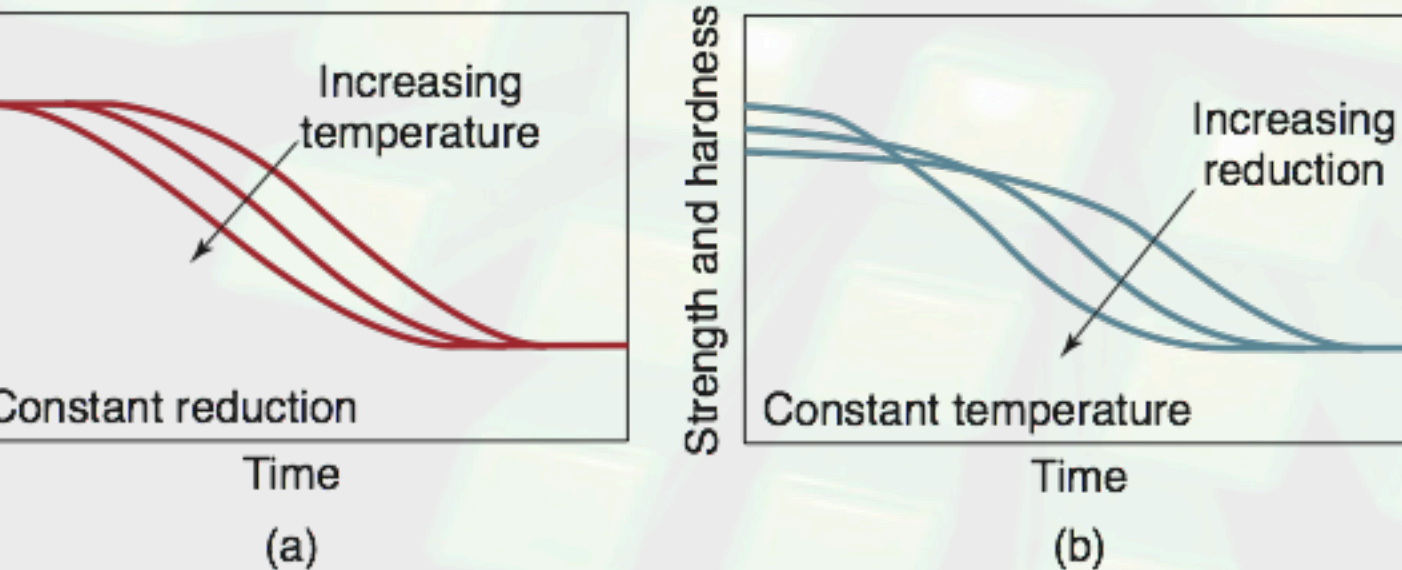


FIGURE 3.18 Variation of strength and hardness with recrystallization temperature, time, and prior cold work. Note that the more a metal is cold

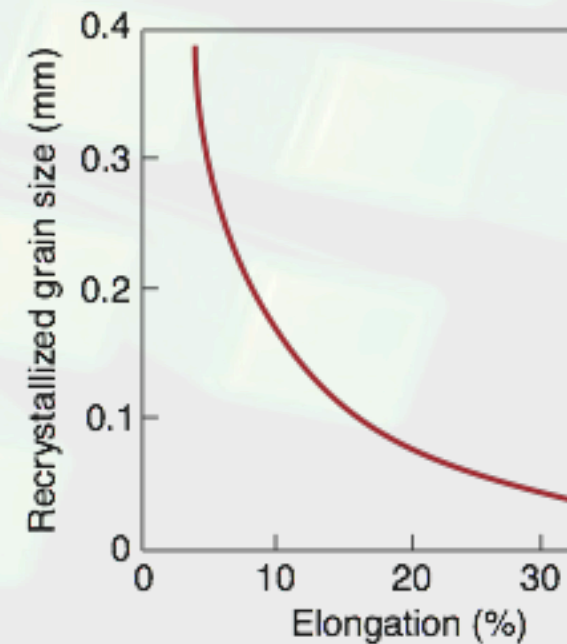


FIGURE 3.19 The effect of prior cold work on the recrystallized grain size of alpha brass. Critical elongation (at min.) for recrystallization is approximately 5%.

Surface Roughness due to Grain Growth

Orange peel effect

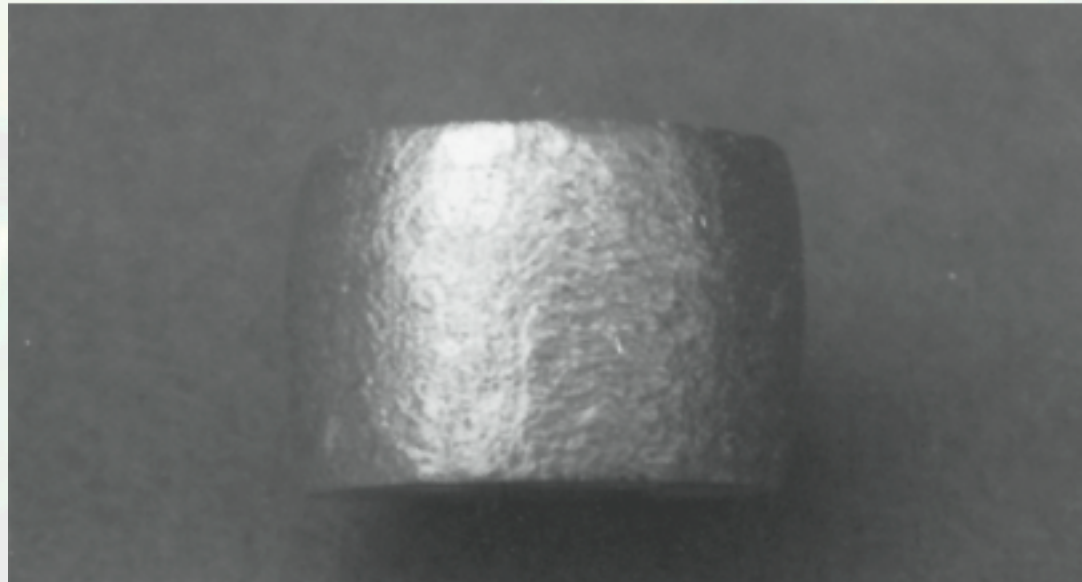


FIGURE 3.20 Surface roughness on the cylindrical surface of an aluminum specimen subjected to compression. *Source:* A. Mulc and S. Kalpakjian.

Cold, Warm, Hot Working

Hot working: above recrystallization temperature

Cold working: below recrystallization temperature

Warm working: intermediate temperature

Process	T/T_m
Cold working	< 0.3
Warm working	0.3 to 0.5
Hot working	> 0.6

TABLE 3.2 Homologous Temperature Ranges for Various Processes.

Hot worked product:

- Less dimensional accuracy
 - Uneven thermal expansion/contraction
- Rougher surface appearance and finish
 - Oxidation layer

Failure

Two types of Failure: Fracture (brittle, ductile) and Buckling

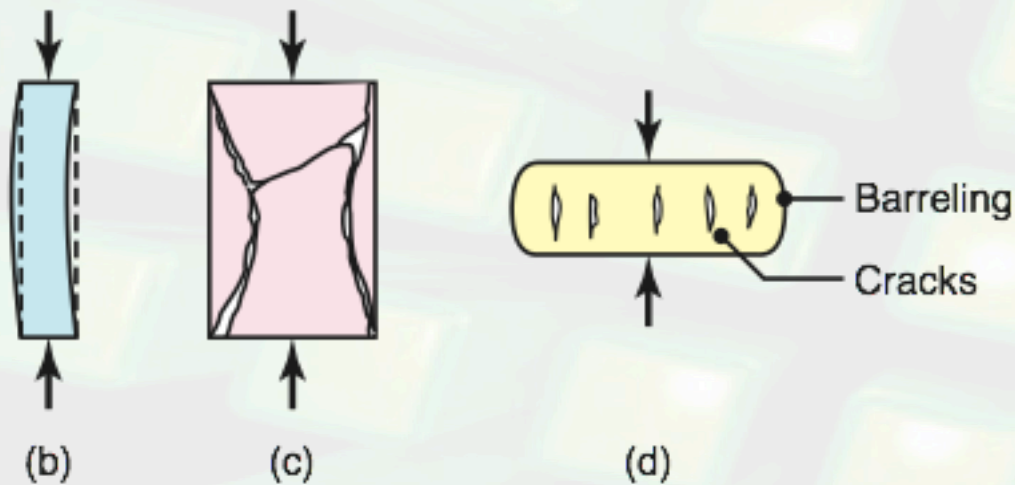


FIGURE 3.21 Schematic illustration of types of failure in materials: (a) necking and fracture of ductile materials; (b) buckling of ductile materials under a compressive load; (c) fracture of brittle materials in compression; (d) buckling on the barreled surface of ductile materials in compression. (See also Fig. 6.1b)

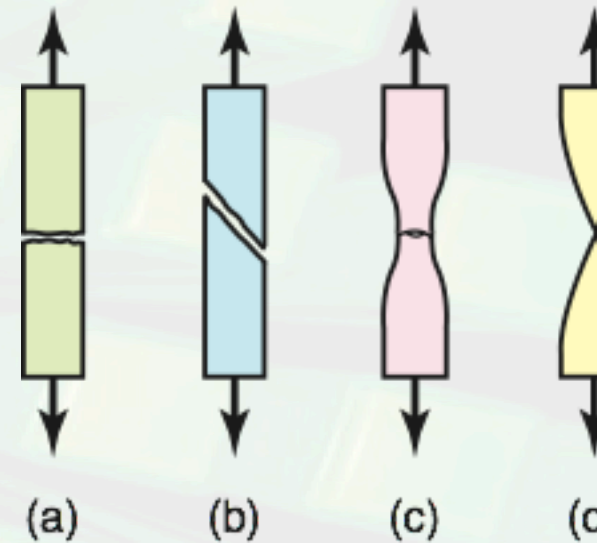


FIGURE 3.22 Schematic illustration of types of fracture in tension: (a) brittle fracture in polycrystalline metals; (b) shear fracture in ductile single crystals (see also Fig. 3.5a); (c) ductile cup-and-cone fracture in polycrystalline metals (see also Fig. 2.2); (d) ductile fracture in polycrystalline metals, showing necking and reduction of area.

Ductile Fracture Surface

Fibrous pattern with dimples

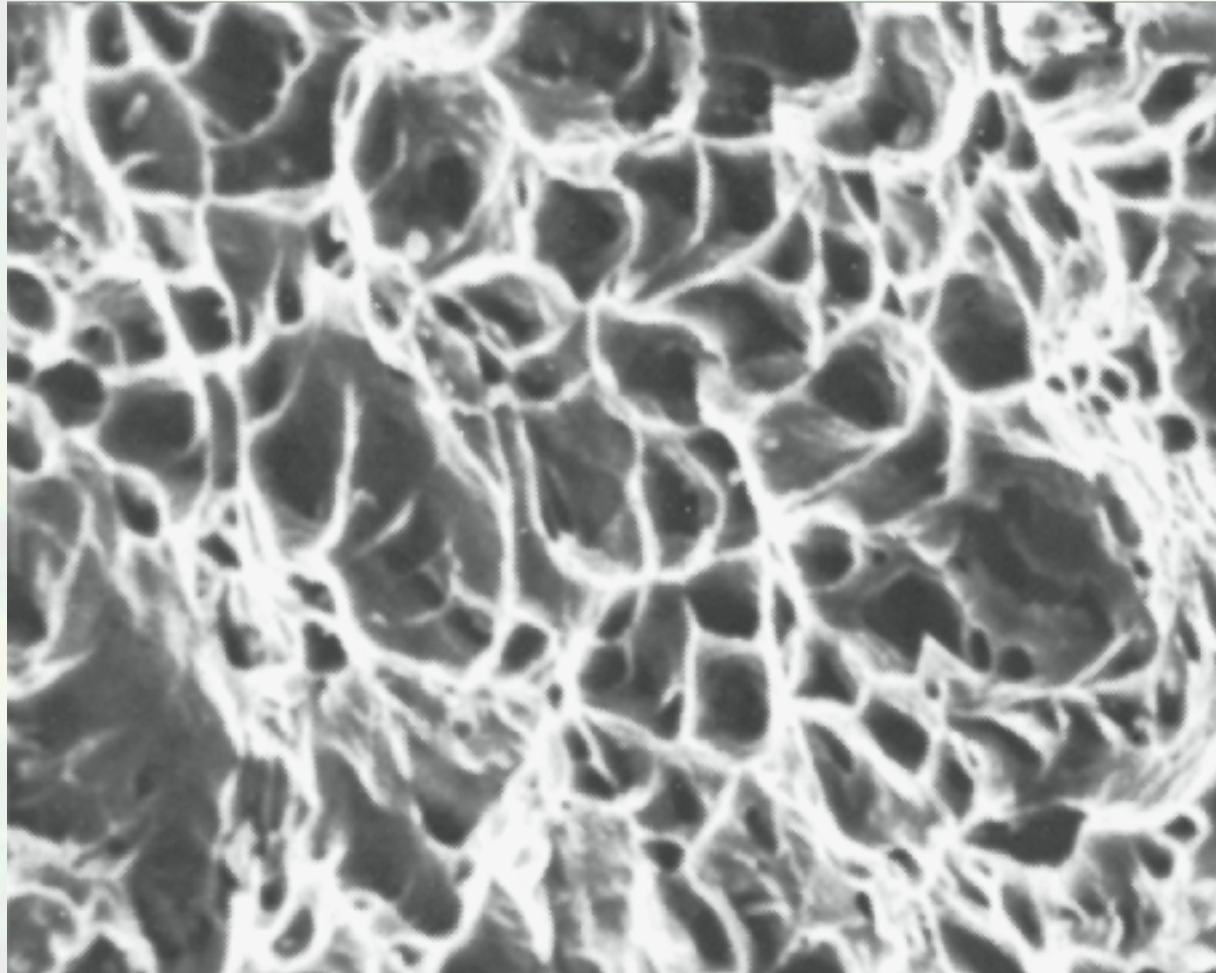


FIGURE 3.23 Surface of ductile fracture in low-carbon steel, showing dimples. Fracture is usually initiated at impurities, inclusions, or preexisting voids in the metal. *Source:* K.-H. Habig and D. Klaffke. Photo courtesy of BAM, Berlin, Germany.

Sequence in Necking and Ductile Fracture

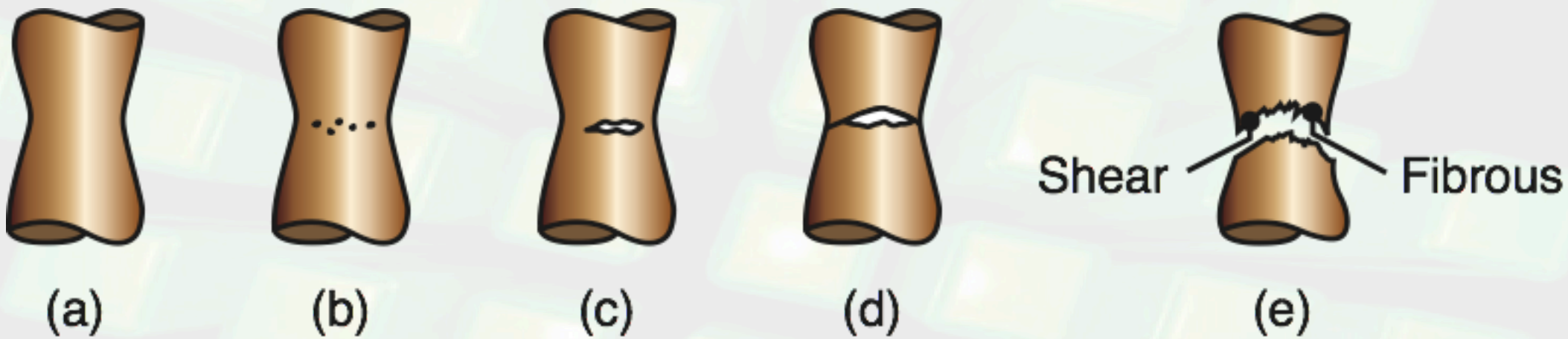


FIGURE 3.24 Sequence of events in necking and fracture of a tensile-test specimen: (a) early stage of necking; (b) small voids begin to form within the necked region; (c) voids coalesce, producing an internal crack; (d) rest of cross-section begins to fail at the periphery by shearing; (e) final fracture surfaces, known as **cup-and-cone** (top fracture surface) **and-cone** (bottom surface) **fracture**.

Effect of Inclusions on Void Nucleation

Bond strength between inclusion and matrix

Hardness of inclusion

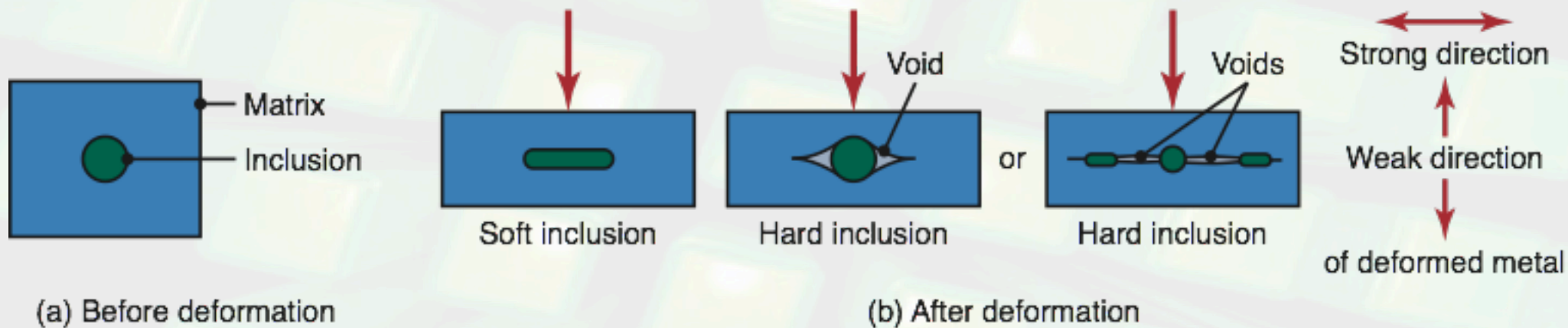


FIGURE 3.25 Schematic illustration of the deformation of soft and hard inclusions and their effect on void formation in plastic deformation. Note that hard inclusions, because they do not comply with the overall deformation of the ductile matrix, can cause voids.

Brittle and Intergranular Fracture

Little or no plastic deformation

Happens along a crystallographic plane (cleavage plane) where normal stress is highest

BCC and hcp metals

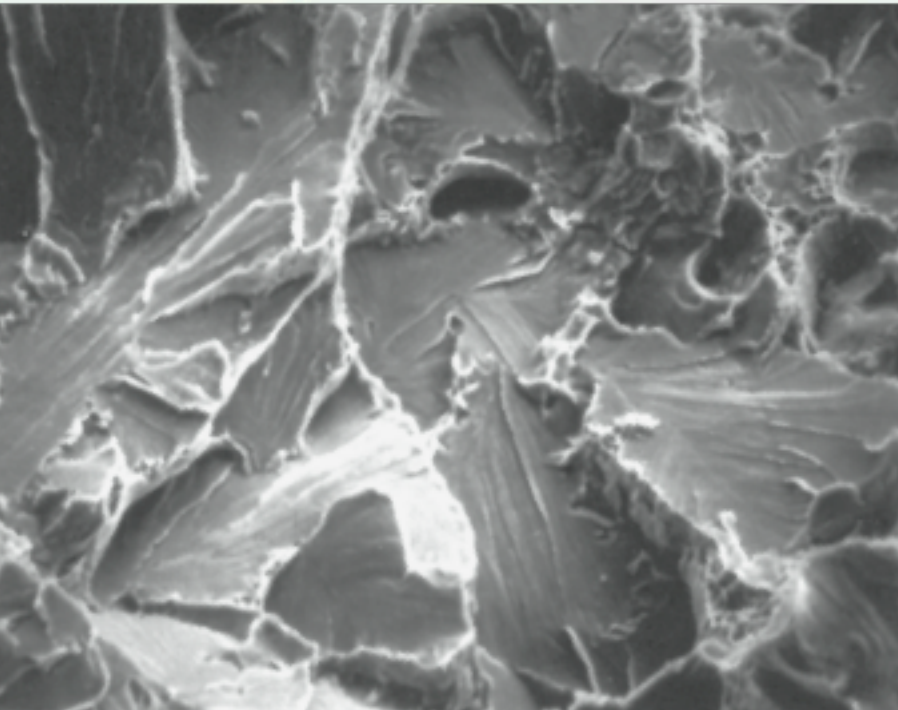


FIGURE 3.28 Typical fracture surface of steel that failed in a brittle manner. The fracture path is granular (through the grains). Compare this with the ductile fracture surface shown in

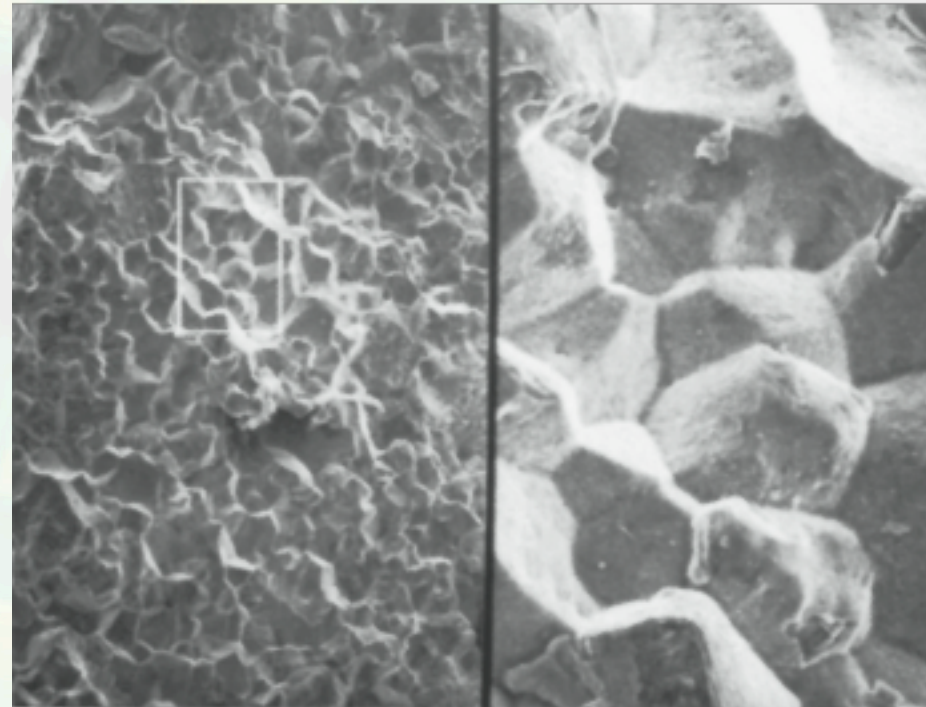


FIGURE 3.29 Intergranular fracture, at two magnifications. Grains and grain boundaries are visible in this micrograph. The fracture path is along grain boundaries. Source: Courtesy of Packer Engineering

Defects, Fracture Mode & Fatigue Fracture

Effect of defect

$$\sigma \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\text{Crack length}}}$$

Fracture mode

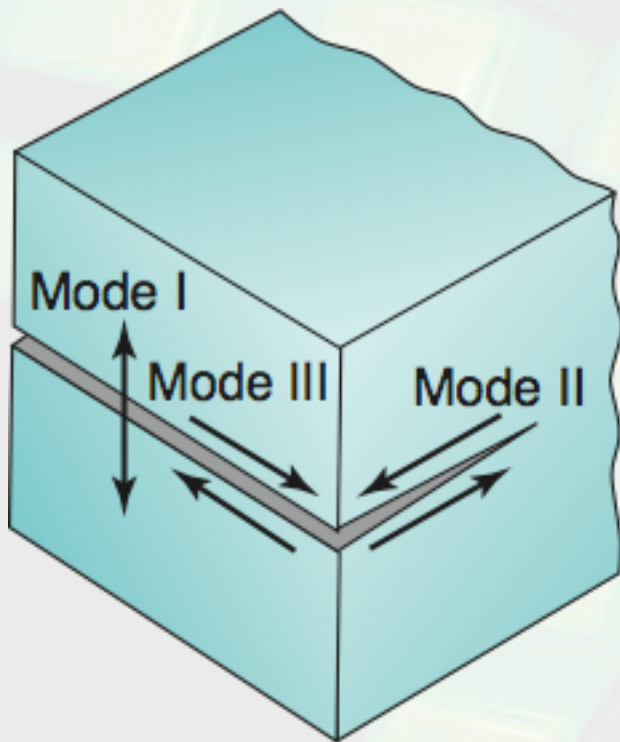


FIGURE 3.30 Three modes of fracture. Mode I has been studied extensively, because it is the most commonly observed in engineering structures and components. Mode II is rare. Mode III is the tearing mode; examples include opening a pop-top can,

- Fatigue fracture

- Characteristics: bench mark
- Improving fatigue strength
 - Introduce compressive residual stress
 - Surface hardening
 - Fine surface finishing
 - Materials free of inclusions, voids, impurities

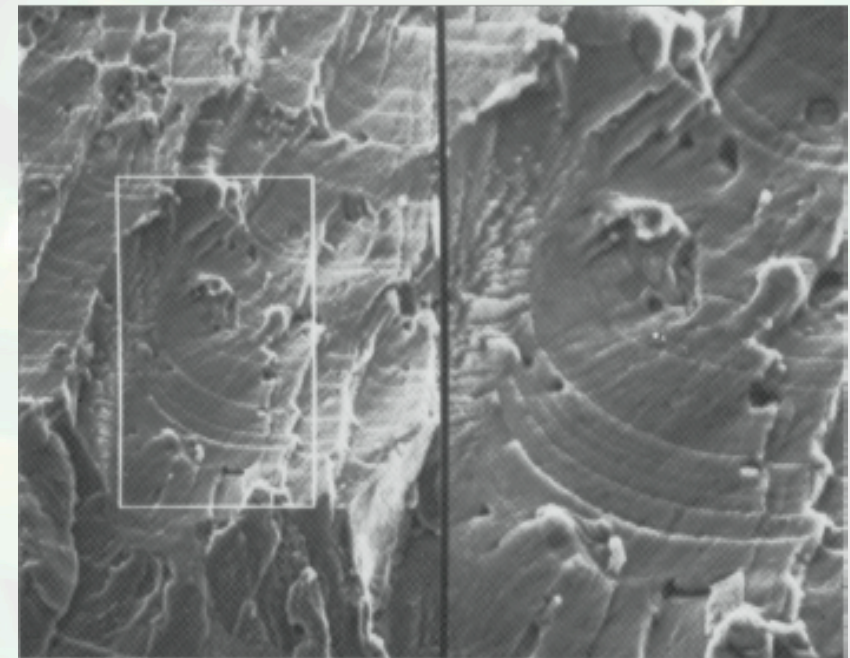


FIGURE 3.31 Typical fatigue fracture surface on metal, showing **beach marks**. Most components in machine design fail by fatigue fracture.

Density: depends on atomic weight, atomic radius and packing (little dependence on alloying elements)

Melting point: strong dependence on alloying elements

Specific heat: little dependence on alloying elements

Thermal conductivity: significant effect from alloying elements

Thermal expansion coefficient (CTE): $\propto \frac{1}{T_m}$, minor alloying effect

Electrical and magnetic properties: strong alloying effect

- Electrical conductivity, resistivity, piezoelectricity
- Magnetostriction

Oxidation and corrosion resistance

	Density (kg/m ³)	Melting Point (°C)	Specific Heat (J/kg K)	Thermal Conductivity (W/m K)	Coefficient of Thermal Expansion (μm/m°C)
METAL					
Aluminum	2700	660	900	222	23.6
Aluminum alloys	2630-2820	476-654	880-920	121-239	23.0-23.6
Beryllium	1854	1278	1884	146	8.5
Columbium (niobium)	8580	2468	272	52	7.1
Copper	8970	1082	385	393	16.5
Copper alloys	7470-8940	885-1260	337-435	29-234	16.5-20
Gold	19300	1063	129	317	19.3
Iron	7860	1537	460	74	11.5
Steels	6920-9130	1371-1532	448-502	15-52	11.7-17.3
Lead	11,350	327	130	35	29.4
Lead alloys	8850-11,350	182-326	126-188	24-46	27.1-31.1
Magnesium	1745	650	1025	154	26.0
Magnesium alloys	1770-1780	610-621	1046	75-138	26.0
Molybdenum alloys	10,210	2610	276	142	5.1
Nickel	8910	1453	440	92	13.3
Nickel alloys	7750-8850	1110-1454	381-544	12-63	12.7-18.4
Silicon	2330	1423	712	148	7.63
Silver	10,500	961	235	429	19.3
Tantalum alloys	16,600	2996	142	54	6.5
Titanium	4510	1668	519	17	8.35
Titanium alloys	4430-4700	1549-1649	502-544	8-12	8.1-9.5
Tungsten	19,290	3410	138	166	4.5
NONMETALLIC					
Ceramics	2300-5500	—	750-950	10-17	5.5-13.5
Glasses	2400-2700	580-1540	500-850	0.6-1.7	4.6-70
Graphite	1900-2200	—	840	5-10	7.86
Plastics	900-2000	110-330	1000-2000	0.1-0.4	72-200
Wood	400-700	—	2400-2800	0.1-0.4	2-60

Alloys with iron as base metal

Carbon and alloy steels

- Carbon steels

- Alloy steels

Stainless steels

- High corrosion resistance, high strength and ductility, high Cr content

Tool and die steels

- High speed, hot-worked, cold-worked, shock resisting

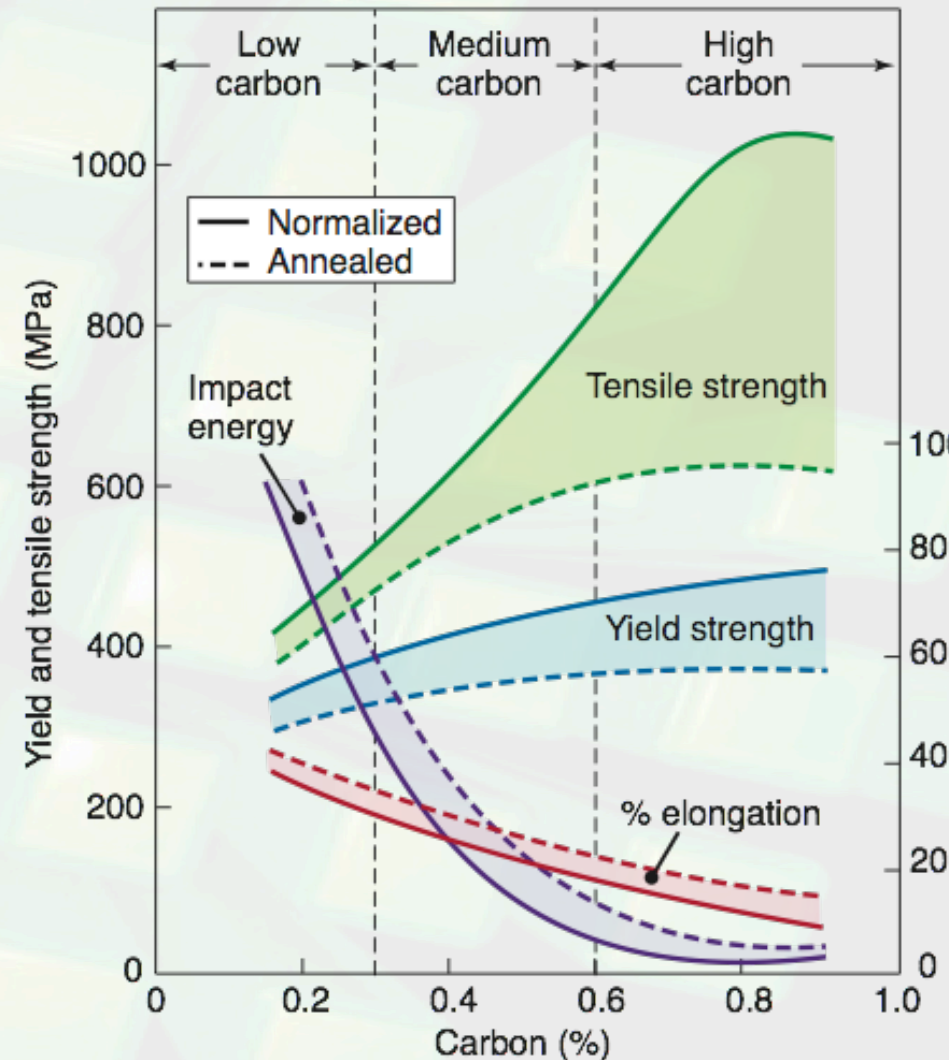


FIGURE 3.33 Effect of carbon content on mechanical properties of carbon steel.

Metals

Al and Al alloys

- High strength-to-weight ratio, resistance to corrosion, high thermal and electrical conductivity, non toxicity, reflectivity, appearance
- Alloy elements: copper, zinc, magnesium, silicon, manganese and lithium
- Wrought aluminum alloys (4 figure number), cast (5 figure number)

Mg and Mg alloys

- Lightest engineering metal available
- Light-weight applications, minimize inertial forces
- Low strength – use as alloys with other metals
- Potential fire hazard

Non-ferrous Metals and Alloys (cont.)

Cu and Cu alloys

- Superior conductor of electricity and heat, resistance to corrosion
- Easy processing: machining, forming, casting, joining..
- Most common Cu alloys: Brass (Cu+Zn), Bronze (Cu+Sn)

Ni and Ni alloys

- High strength, toughness, corrosion resistance
- Important alloying element in stainless steel and Ni-based alloys
- High temperature applications

Super alloys: Heat-resistance or high-temperature alloys

- Iron base, Ni base, Co base
- Service temperature > 1000 °C

Ti and Ti alloys

- High strength-to-weight ration
- High corrosion resistance under room and high temperature
- Alloying elements: Al, V, Mo, Mg, ... for strength, workability

Refractory Metals

- High melting point metals: Mo, Nb, W ($T_m = 3410\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$), Ta ($T_m = 3000\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$)

Others

- Low melting point metals – Pb, Zn, Sn
- Precious metals: Au, Ag, Pt

Special Metals and Alloys

- SMA: shape-memory alloys, eg.. Ni(55%)/Ti (45%) alloy
- Amorphous alloys ~ Metallic glass (Fe, Ni, Cr with C, P, B, Si)
- Nanomaterials
- Metal foams

Summary

GB effect of polycrystalline metals

Recovery, recrystallization, grain growth

- Cold, hot, warm working

Failure and fracture

- Ductile vs brittle

Physical properties and their importance

General properties and applications of most common Ferrous and Non-ferrous metals and alloys

- Strength, toughness, hardness, ductility, creep, resistance to temperature and oxidation