2018 Fall

## "Phase Transformation in Materials"

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# **Contents in Phase Transformation**

Background to understand phase transformation (Ch1) Thermodynamics and Phase Diagrams (Ch2) Diffusion: Kinetics

(Ch3) Crystal Interface and Microstructure

Representative Phase transformation (Ch4) Solidification: Liquid  $\rightarrow$  Solid

(Ch5) Diffusional Transformations in Solid: Solid → Solid
 (Ch6) Diffusionless Transformations: Solid → Solid

## **Massive vs. Martensitic Transformations**

- There are two basic types of *diffusionless* transformations.
- One is the massive transformation. In this type, a diffusionless transformation takes place ① without a definite orientation relationship. The interphase boundary (between parent and product phases) migrates so as to allow the new phase to grow. It is, however, a ② civilian transformation because the atoms move individually.
- The other is the *martensitic transformation*. In this type, the change in phase involves a ① definite orientation relationship because the atoms have to ② move in a coordinated manner. (Military transformation) There is always a ③ change in shape which means that there is a strain associated with the transformation.



## **Microstructure of Martensite**

- The microstructural characteristics of martensite are:
  - the product (martensite) phase has a <u>well defined crystallographic</u> relationship with the parent (matrix).
  - 1) martensite(designated  $\alpha$ ') forms as platelets within grains.

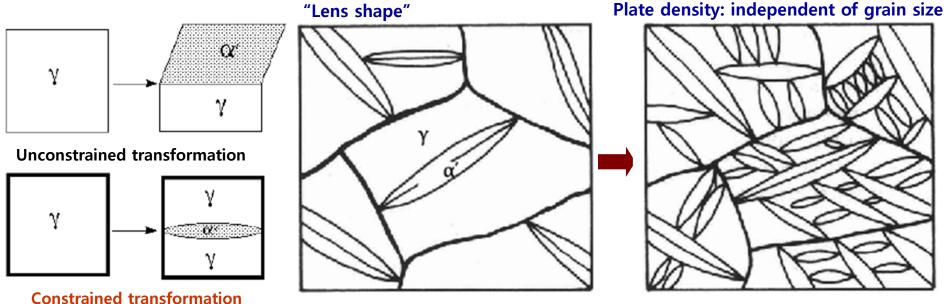


Fig. 6.1 Growth of martensite with increasing cooling below Ms.

→ Martensite formation rarely goes to completion

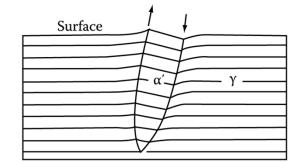
## **Microstructure of Martensite**

- The microstructural characteristics of martensite are:
  - 2) each platelet is accompanied by a shape change.
    - the shape change appears to be a <u>simple shear parallel to a habit</u> <u>plane (the common, coherent plane between the phases) and a</u>
       "<u>uniaxial expansion (dilatation) normal to the habit plane</u>".



(a)

Invariant plane



Polished surface\_elastic deformation or tilting → but, remain continuous after the transformation

Intersection of the lenses with the surface of the specimen does not result in any discontinuity.

A fully grown plate spanning a whole grain ~10<sup>-7</sup> sec  $\rightarrow V$  of  $\alpha'/\gamma$  interface  $\infty$  speed of sound in solid

Martensite habit plane

: difficult process to study M nucleation and growth experimentally

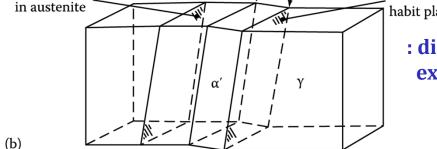


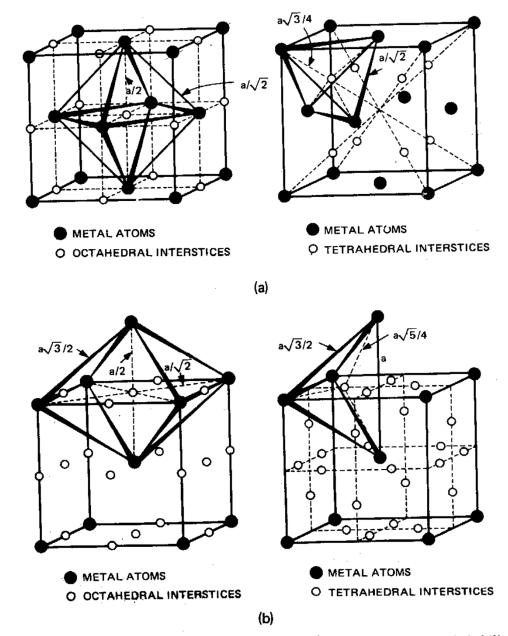
Fig. 6.2 Illustrating how a martensite plate remains macroscopically coherent with the surrounding austenite and even the surface it intersects.

### Various ways of showing the martensite transformation

 $\Delta G^{\gamma-\alpha'}$  $\Delta G^{\gamma-\alpha}$  $\Delta G^{\gamma-\alpha}$ G С %C  $M_{s}$  $T_0$  $C_0$ Fe (a) G-T diagram equilibrium (b) G-X diagram for C<sub>0</sub> at M<sub>s</sub> diffusionless Т 1000 γ 900  $A_3$ 800  $A_1$ 700  $A_1$ 600  $\alpha + Fe_3C$ γ + Cementite α 500  $M_{\rm s}$ 400 300 200  $M_{\rm f}$ ۰M۵ 100 0 0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.81.0 1.2 1.4 1.6 C (%) (d) (c)  $C_0$ Log time TTT diagram Fe-C phase diagram for alloy  $C_0$  in (c) Variation of  $T_0/M_s/M_f$ 

Note that the  $M_s$  line is horizontal in the TTT diagram; also, the  $M_f$  line.

Some retained austenite can be left even below  $M_{\rm f}$ . In particular, as much as 10%-15% retained austenite is a common feature of especially the higher C content alloys such as those used for ball bearing steels. Interstitial sites for C in Fe



fcc: carbon occupies the octahedral sites

bcc: carbon occupies the octahedral sites

[Leslie]

Figure II-1. Interstitial voids in iron. (a) Interstitial voids in the fcc structure, octahedral (1) and tetrahedral (2). (b) Interstitial voids in the bcc structure; octahedral (1) and tetrahedral (2). (From C.S. Barrett and T.B. Massalski, *Structure of Metals*, 3d ed., copyright 1966, used with the permission of McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York.)

## **Carbon in BCC ferrite**

(a)

- One consequence of the occupation of the octahedral site in ferrite is that the carbon atom has <u>only two nearest neighbors</u>.
- Each carbon atom therefore distorts the iron lattice in its vicinity.
- The distortion is a <u>tetragonal</u> <u>distortion</u>.
- If all the carbon atoms occupy the same type of site then the entire lattice becomes tetragonal, as in the martensitic structure.
- Switching of the carbon atom between adjacent sites leads to <u>strong internal friction peaks</u> at characteristic temperatures and frequencies.

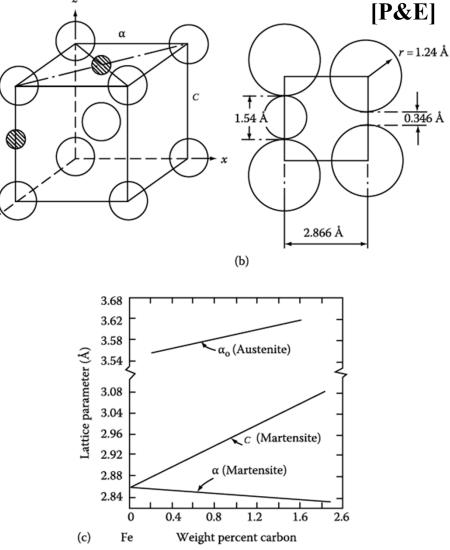
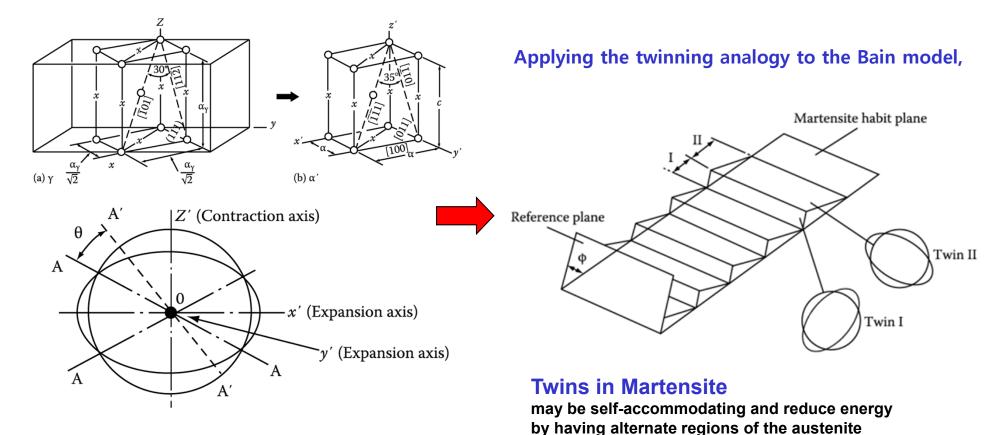


Fig. 6.5 Illustrating (a) possible sites for interstitial atoms in <u>bcc lattice</u>, and (b) the <u>large distortion</u> <u>necessary</u> to accommodate a carbon atom (1.54 Å diameter) compared with the space available (0.346 Å). (c) Variation of a and c as a function of carbon content.

## 6.2. Martensite crystallography (Orientation btw M & γ)

- $\gamma \rightarrow \alpha'$ : (1) Habit plane of M: not distorted by transformation
  - (2) A homogeneous shear (s) parallel to the habit plane
  - (3) ~4% expansion\_dilatation normal to the habit plain (lens)



undergo the Bain strain along different axes.

**Bain Model for martensite** 

#### 6.3.1 Formation of Coherent Nuclei of Martensite (Homogenous nucleation)

for thin ellipsoidal nucleus (radius a, semi thickness c and volume V),

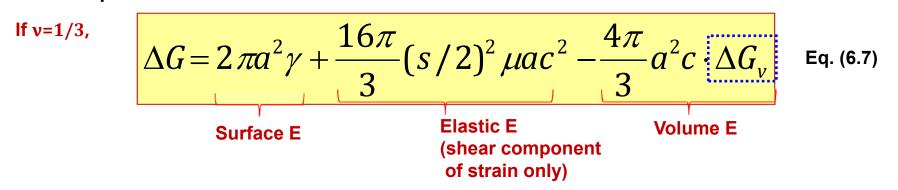
$$\Delta G = A \gamma + V \Delta G_s - V \Delta G_v$$

Assumption: 1) Nucleation does not necessarily occur at grain boundaries.
2) <u>Nucleation occurs homogeneously</u> without the aid of any other types of lattice defects.

→ <u>The Nucleus forms by a simple shear, S</u>, parallel to the plane of the disc, and complete <u>coherency is maintained at the interface.</u>

$$\Delta G = 2\pi a^2 \gamma + 2\mu V(s/2)^2 \frac{2(2-\nu)}{8(1-\nu)} \pi c / a - \frac{4}{3}\pi a^2 c \cdot \Delta G_{\nu}$$

Figure. 6.14 **Schematic representation of a M nucleus.** 



### **6.3.1 Formation of Coherent Nuclei of Martensite**

By differentiating Eq. (6.7) with respect to a and c, respectively

 $\rightarrow$  Min. free energy barrier to nucleation: extremely sensitive to " $\gamma$ ,  $\Delta G_v$  and s"

$$\Delta G^* = \frac{512}{3} \cdot \frac{\gamma^3}{(\Delta G_v)^4} \cdot (s/2)^4 \mu^2 \pi \qquad \text{(joules/nucleus)}$$

 $\rightarrow$  Critical nucleus size (c\* and a\*): highly dependent to " $\gamma$ ,  $\Delta G_v$  and s"

$$c^* = \frac{2\gamma}{\Delta G_v}$$
  $a^* = \frac{16\gamma\mu(s/2)^2}{(\Delta G_v)^2}$  Eq. (6.9) & (6.10)

For steel, 1) typically  $\Delta G_{\rm v} = 174 \, {\rm MJm^{-3}}$ , and

- 2) *s* (varies according to whether the net shear of a whole plate (e.g. as measured from surface markings) or shear of fully coherent plate (as measured from lattice fringe micrographs)
  - = 0.2 (macroscopic shear strain in steel)
- 3)  $\gamma$  = 20 mJm<sup>-2</sup> (fully coherent nucleus)
- →  $c^*/a^* \sim 1/40$ ,  $\Delta G^* \sim 20$  eV : too high for thermal fluctuation alone to overcome (at 700 K, kT = 0.06 eV)
- $\rightarrow$  "M nucleation = heterogeneous process" : possibly in dislocation (#= 10<sup>5</sup> per 1 mm<sup>2</sup>)

**6.3.2 Role of Dislocations in Martensite Nucleation** 

**1** atomic shuffles within the dislocation core

M transformation induced by half-twinning shear in fcc mater.

- It is thus seen that some types of M can form directly by the systematic generation and movement of extended dislocations.
   → M<sub>s</sub> temperature : a transition from positive to negative SFE
- However, <u>1) this transition type cannot occur in (1) high SFE nor in</u>
   (2) thermoelastic martensites → need to consider alternative way in which dislocations can nucleate martensite other than by changes at their cores.

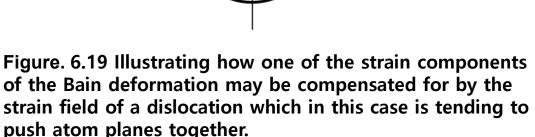
2) this transition is also difficult to understand ③ twinned martensite, merely on the basis of dislocation core changes.

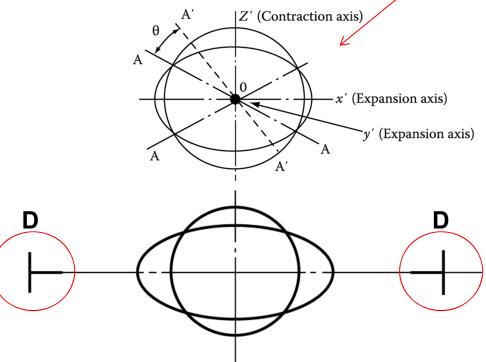
### 6.3.3 2 Dislocation strain energy assisted transformation : <u>help of the elastic strain field of a dislocation</u> for M nucleation

 Assumption: coherent nuclei are generated by a <u>pure Bain strain</u>, as in the classical theories of nucleation

The stain field associated with a dislocation can in certain cases provide a favorable interaction with the strain field of the martensite nucleus, such that one of the components of the Bain strain is neutralized thereby reducing the total energy of nucleation.

- → the dilatation associated with the extra half plane of the dislocation contributes to the Bain strain.
- → Alternatively, the shear component of the dislocation could be utilized for M transformation.





### **6.3.3** ② Dislocation strain energy assisted transformation

: <u>help of the elastic strain field of a dislocation</u> for M nucleation

$$\Delta G = A \gamma + V \Delta G_s - V \Delta G_v - \Delta G_d$$

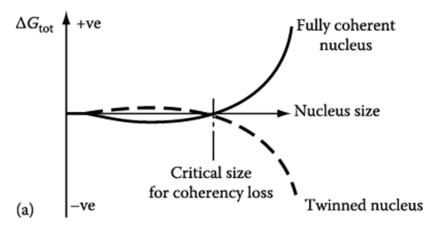
Creation of nucleus~destruction of a defect(- $\Delta G_d$ )

 $\rightarrow$  Dislocation interaction energy which reduces the nucleation energy barrier

$$\Delta G_d = 2\,\mu s\,\pi \cdot ac \cdot \overline{b}$$

where  $\overline{b}$  = Burgers vector of the dislocation, s = shear strain of the nucleus

$$\Delta G = 2\pi a^{2}\gamma + \frac{16\pi}{3}(s/2)^{2}\mu ac^{2} - \frac{4\pi}{3}a^{2}c \cdot \Delta G_{v} - 2\mu s\pi ac \cdot \overline{b}$$
 Eq. (6.16)



**Figure. 6.20** (a) schematic diagram based on Eq. 6.16, illustrating the need for the nucleus to twin if it is to grow beyond a certain critical size.

전단변형과 bain 변형 포함

- → Total energy of martensite nucleus:
- as a function of <u>1</u>) diameter and thickness (a, c) (whether it is twinned or not (this affect "s"))
- 2) <u>Degree of assistance from the strain field of a</u> <u>dislocation (or group of dislocations)</u>
- e.g. A fully coherent nucleus from partial interaction with the strain field of a dislocation ~ 20 nm dia.
  & 2-3 atoms in thickness → further growth need to twin and slip formation

**6.3.3** ② Dislocation strain energy assisted transformation

: <u>help of the elastic strain field of a dislocation</u> for M nucleation

#### Burst phenomenon

: <u>autocatalytic process of rapid, successive M plate formation</u> occurs over a small temperature range, e.g. Fe-Ni alloys (<u>Large elastic stresses set up ahead of a growing M plate</u> → Elastic strain field of the M plate act as the interaction term of elastic strain field of

dislocation in Eq. (6.16)  $\rightarrow$  reduces the M nucleation energy barrier)

#### In summary,

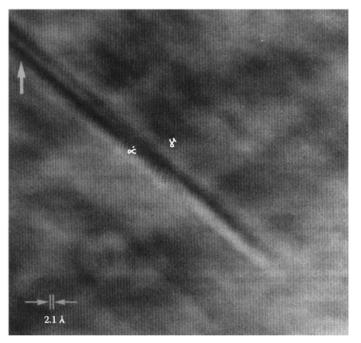
- we have <u>not dealt with all the theories of martensite nucleation</u> in this section as recorded in the literature, or even with all alloys exhibiting martensitic transformations.
- Instead we have attempted to <u>illustrate some of the difficulties</u> associated with explaining a complex event which occurs at such great speeds as to exclude experimental observation.
- A general, all embracing theory of martensite nucleation has still evaded us, and <u>may not even be feasible</u>.

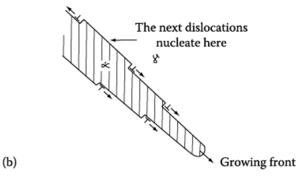
### **6.4 Martensite Growth**

- Once the nucleation barrier has been overcome, the chemical volume free energy term ( $\Delta G_{\underline{v}}$ ) is so large that the martensite plate grows rapidly until it hits a barrier such as another plate or a high angle grain boundary.
- High speed of M growth → interface btw austenite and M must be a glissile semi-coherent boundary consisting of a set of parallel dislocations or twins with Burgers vector common to both phases, i.e. transformation dislocations → dislocation motion brings about required lattice invariant shear transformation (may or may not generate an irrational habit plane)
- Increased alloying lowers the Ms temperature and that it is the temp. of transformation that dictates the mode of lattice invariant shear.
   → Slip-twinning transition in a crystal at low temperatures: increased difficulty of nucleating whole dislocations needed for slip, but not so temp dependence (as the Peierls stress for a perfect dislocation) of critical stress needed for the nucleation of a partial twinning dislocation & chemical energy for transformation ~ independent of M<sub>s</sub> temp.
  - → When Ms temperature is lowered, <u>the mechanism of M transformation</u> <u>chosen is governed</u> ① <u>by the growth process having least energy</u>.
     Other factor affecting mode of growth = ② <u>how the nucleus forms</u>

#### \* Two main cases of rational (lath) and irrational (plate) M growth in steel

#### 6.4.1 Growth of Lath Martensite





**Figure. 6.20** (b) Lattice image of the tip of a martensite plate in a Ti-Ni alloy. The first interfacial dislocation behind the growing front is indicated.

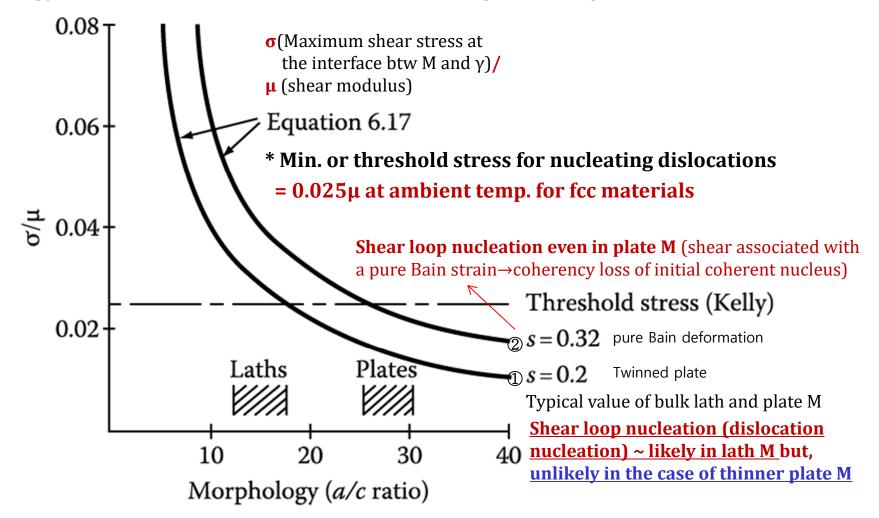
- Morphology of a lath with dimensions a>b>>c growing on a {111}γ plane → thickening mechanism involving the nucleation and glide of transformation dislocations moving on discrete ledges behind the growing front, e.g. NiTi M and steel M
- Due to the large misfit between the bct and fcc, lattices dislocations could be self-nucleated at the lath interface. → the stress at the interface exceeds the theoretical strength of the material.
- Eshelby's approach: for thin ellipsoidal plate (a>>c)
   Maximum shear stress at the interface btw M and γ due to shear transformation

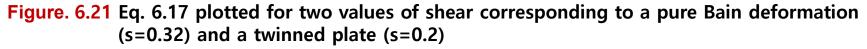
 $\sigma \cong 2\mu sc/a$  µ= shear modulus of  $\gamma$ 

Sensitive to ① shape (c/a) and ② angle of shear (s)
Of course in practice it is very difficult to define the morphology of M in such simple c/a terms, but this gives us at least a qualitative idea of what may be involved in the growth kinetics of M.

### 6.4.1 Growth of Lath Martensite

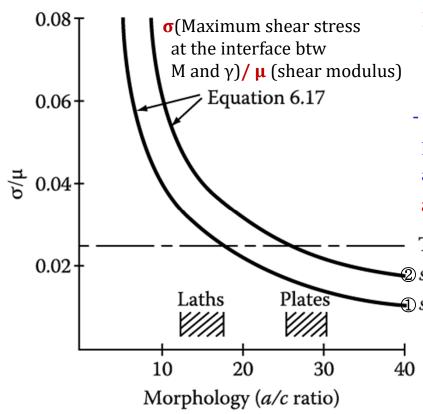
 Lath M growth by shear loop nucleation (∵ σ/μ > threshold stress) : by nucleating dislocations at the highly strained interface of the laths, the misfit energy reduced and the lath M can continue to grow into γ





### 6.4.1 Growth of Lath Martensite

 Lath M growth by shear loop nucleation (∵ σ/μ > threshold stress) : by nucleating dislocations at the highly strained interface of the laths, the misfit energy reduced and the lath M can continue to grow into γ



\* Figure. 6.21 Eq. 6.17 plotted for two values of shear corresponding to a pure Bain deformation (s=0.32) and a twinned plate (s=0.2)

- By internal friction measurements,

**Density of carbon in lath M : cell walls > within cell** suggesting that limited diffusion of carbon takes place following or during the transformation

 - M transformation (at least at higher Ms like lath M)→ produce <u>adiabatic heating</u> which may affect ① diffusion of carbon and ② dislocation recovery (by dislocation climb and cell formation). ~
 a certain relationship between lower bainite and M

Threshold stress (Kelly)

 $\mathfrak{O}s = 0.32$  Shear loop nucleation lath M and plate M

- **-**  $\mathfrak{D} s = 0.2$  Shear loop nucleation in lath M
- $\frac{1}{40}$  High growth speed of lath M
  - → interface of predominantly screw dislocation

## Volume of retained γ ~relatively small in lath M (important to the mechanical properties of low-carbon steel) due to sideways growth of screw dislocation not too difficult

#### 6.4.2 Plate Martensite

- In medium and high carbon steels, or high nickel

Morphology: Lath M  $\rightarrow$  Plate M (lower Ms temp. and more retained  $\gamma$ ) much thinner than lath M or bainite

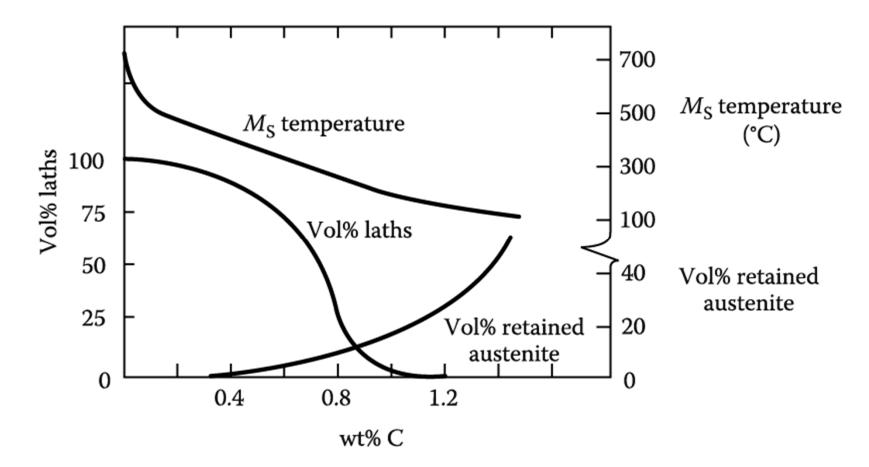


Figure. 6.22 Approximate relative percentages of lath martensite and retained austenite as function of carbon content in steels.

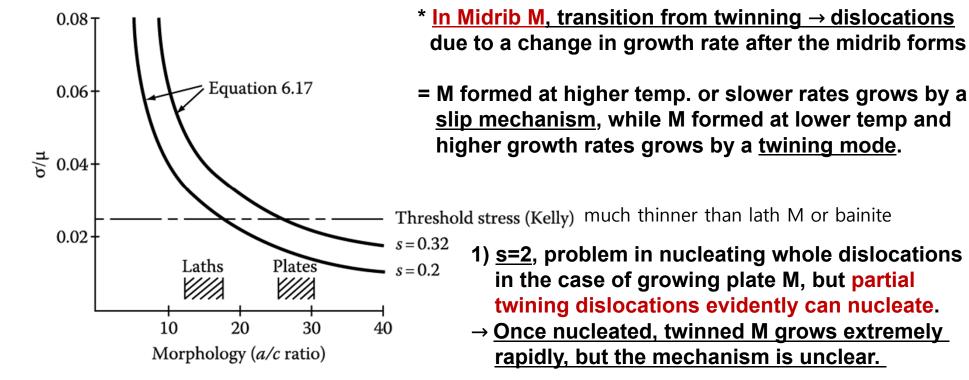
### 6.4.2 Plate Martensite

 In medium and high carbon steels, or high nickel Morphology: Lath M → Plate M (∵ lower Ms temp. and more retained γ) much thinner than lath M or bainite

- Transition from plates from growing on {225}<sub>γ</sub> planes to {259}<sub>γ</sub> planes with increasing alloy contents (habit 면 변화)

In lower carbon or nickel,  $\{225\}_{\gamma}$  M = plates with a central twinned 'midrib', the outer (dislocation) regions of the plate being free of twins

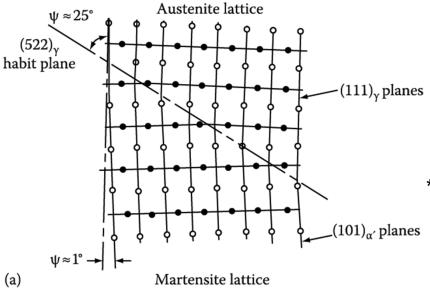
In high carbon and nickel,  $\{259\}_{\gamma} M$  = completely twined & less scattered habit plane



#### 6.4.2 Plate Martensite

빠른 M growth 설명: 정상탄성파가 쌍정전위를 생성시키고 이로 인해 판상의 빠른 성장

\* Dislocation generated {225}γ M (Frank)



Close-packed plane

- : slight misfit along the  $[01\overline{1}]_{\gamma}$  &  $[111]_{\alpha'}$
- = M lattice parameter is  $\sim 2\%$  less than that of  $\gamma$
- → Insertion of an array of screw dislocations

with a spacing of six atom planes in the interface

\* In terms of the min. shear stress criterion (Fig. 6.21), when the midrib reaches some critical a/c ratio further expansion and thickening of a {225}γ twinned midrib by a Frank dislocation interface could occur.
. → "No detailed explanation"

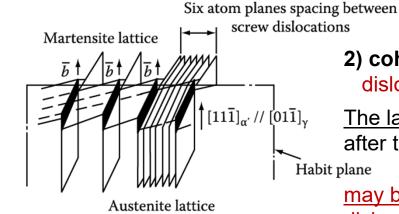


Figure. 6.23 Model for the {225}<sub>y</sub> habit austenite-martensite interface in steel.

(b)

## 2) coherent nucleus with s=0.32: possible for dislocation nucleation to occur to relieve coherency.

<sup>1</sup>]<sub>γ</sub> <u>The larger amount of chemical free energy</u>, available after the critical size for growth has been exceeded, Habit plane

<u>may be sufficient to homogeneously nucleate</u> <u>dislocations</u> particularly in the presence of the large strain energy of the rapidly growing plate.

# \* Other factors for affecting the growth of M: <sup>(3)</sup>Benternal stresses, and <sup>(5)</sup>Benternal stresses, an

### 6.4.3 Stabilization

\* In <u>intermittent cooling between Ms and Mf</u>, transformation does not immediately continue, and the total amount of transformed M is less than obtained by continuous cooling throughout the transformation range.

## **6.4.4 Effect of External Stresses** $\Delta G = -V \Delta G_V + A \gamma + V \Delta G_S - ES$

\* In view of the dependence of M growth on dislocation nucleation, it is expected that an <u>externally</u> <u>applied stress (ES) will aid the generation of dislocations and hence the growth of M</u>.

- a) ES lowers the nucleation barrier for coherency loss of second phase precipitates.
- b) ES aid M nucleation if the ① <u>external elastic strain components</u> contribute to the Bain strain.
   → Ms temperature can be raised. But, if plastic deformation occurs, there is an <u>upper limiting</u> value of Ms defined as "the Md temperature".
- c) ② Under <u>hydrostatic compression</u>, Ms temperature can be suppressed to lower temp. (P  $\uparrow \rightarrow$  stabilizes the phase with the smaller atomic volume (close-packed austenite)  $\rightarrow$  lowering the driving force  $\Delta Gv$  for the transformation to M)
- d) ③ <u>large magnetic field can raise the Ms temperature</u> on the grounds that it favors the formation of the ferromagnetic phase.
- e) Plastic deformation of samples can aid both nucleation and growth of M, but too much plastic deformation may in some cases suppress the transformation (nucleation ↑ & nuclei growth ↓).
  - \* Ausforming process : plastically deforming the austenite prior to transformation → number of nucleation sites and hence refining M plate size → High strength (fine M plate size + solution hardening (due to carbon) and dislocation hardening)

#### \* Other factors for affecting the growth of M: Some non of stabilization, Some external stresses, and Some grain size

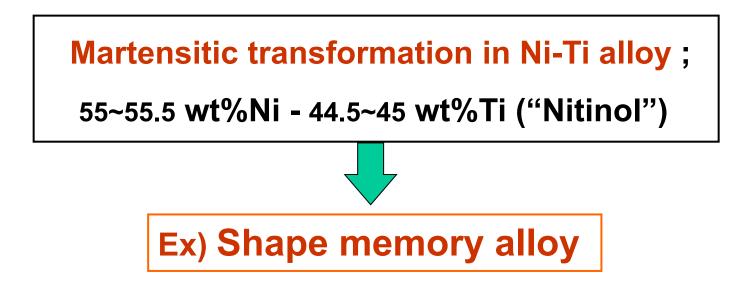
### 6.4.5 Role of Grain Size

- \* Martensite growth ~ maintaining a certain coherency with the surrounding austenite
- $\rightarrow$  high-angle grain boundary is an effective barrier to plate growth.
- → While grain size does not affect the number of M nuclei in a given volume, the **1**) final M plate size is a function of the grain size.
- \* 2) Degree of residual stress after transformation is completed.
- In large grain sized materials: dilatation strain associated with the transformation
  - $\rightarrow$  Large residual stresses to built up btw adjacent grains
  - → GB rupture (quench cracking) and substantially increase of dislocation density in M
- In fine grain-sized metals: dilatation strain associated with the transformation
  - $\rightarrow$  more self-accommodating & smaller M plate size
  - $\rightarrow$  stronger & tougher material

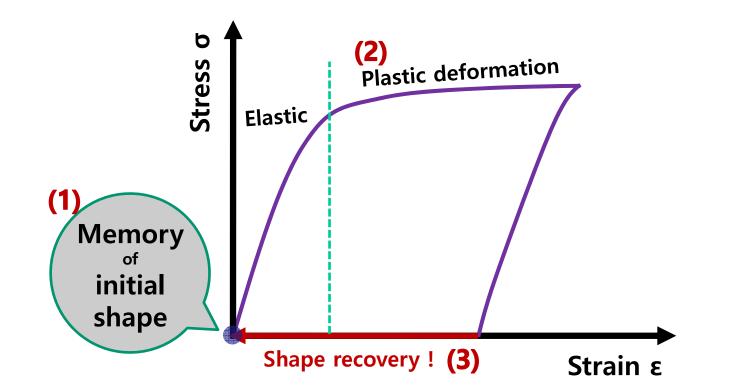
\* In summary, <u>theories of M nucleation and growth are far from developed to a</u> <u>state where they can be used in any practical way</u> – such as helping to control the fine structure of the finished product. It does appear that <u>nucleation is closely</u> <u>associated with the presence of dislocations (dislocation density)</u> and the process of ausforming (deforming the austenite prior to transformation) could possibly be influenced by this feature if we know more of the mechanism of nucleation. However, <u>growth mechanisms, particularly by twining, are still far from clarified.</u> 6.5, 6.6 & 6.7 Skip

IH: Summarize the pre-martensite phenomena and the tempering behavior of Ferrous martensite. (until 20 th December before final exam)

## **Representative Diffusionless Transformation**

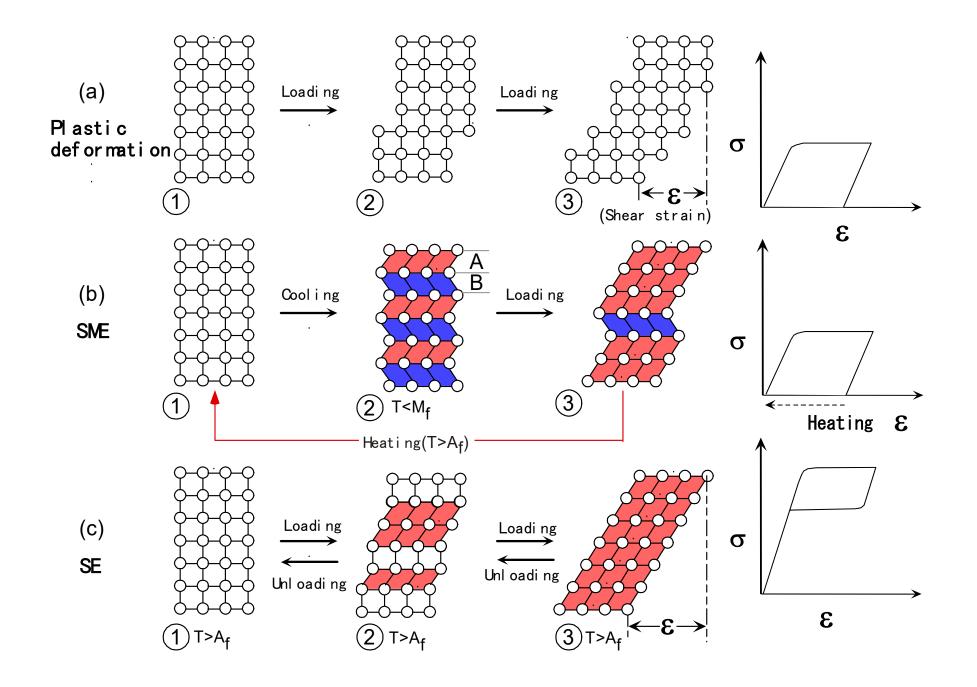


# Introduction - Stræpse-Esteannorsy elfect





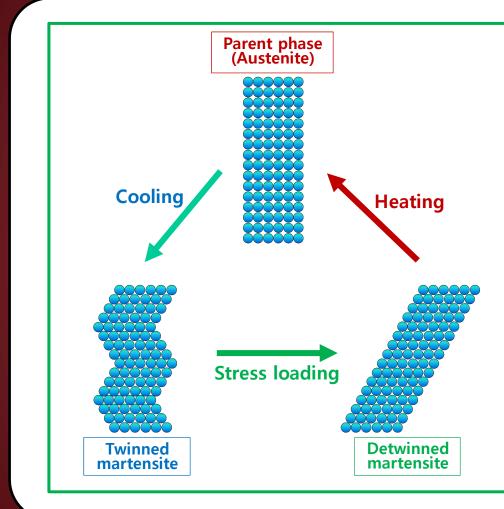
	Elastic Deformation	Plastic Deformation	Transformation Deformation
Ceramics	$\bigcirc$	$\times$	$\times$
Conventional Metals, Alloys & Plastics	$\bigcirc$	$\bigcirc$	$\times$
Shape Memory Alloys	$\bigcirc$	$\bigcirc$	$\bigcirc$
	Recoverable Small Deformation	Permanent Large Deformation	Recoverable Large Deformation
	Elasticity	Plasticity	Shape Memory Effect Superelasticity (Pseudoelasticity)

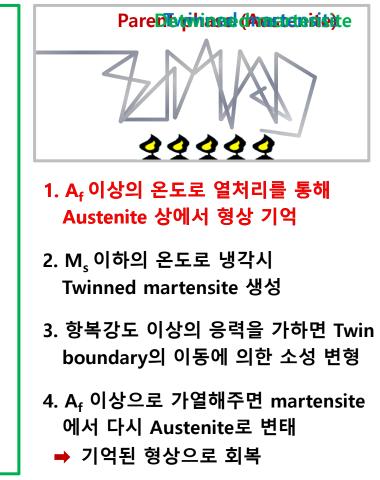


# **Principles** How can shape memory effect occur?

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# **Principles**- Shape memory process

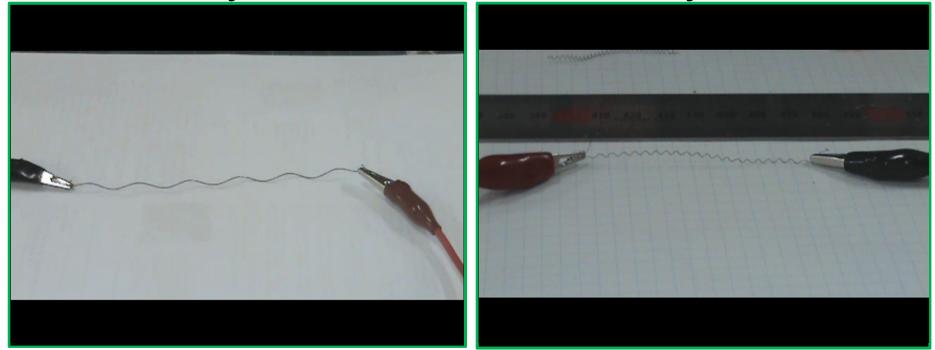




## \* One-way / Two-way shape memory effect

One-way SME

Two-way SME



▶ 고온(> A<sub>f</sub>) 형상과 저온(< M<sub>f</sub>) 형상을 모두 기억

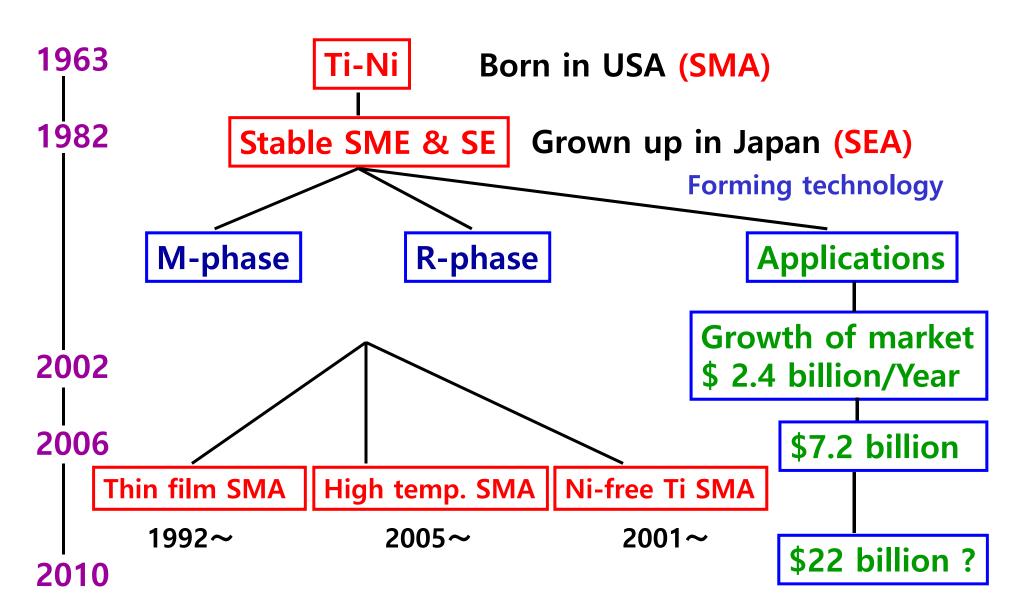
➡ 반복적인 변형으로 인한 형상기억합금 내 전위 밀도의 상승 & 특정방향 응력장의 형성

➡ 저온에서 반복소성변형 방향으로 회복

➡ A<sub>f</sub> 이상의 고온 형상만을 기억

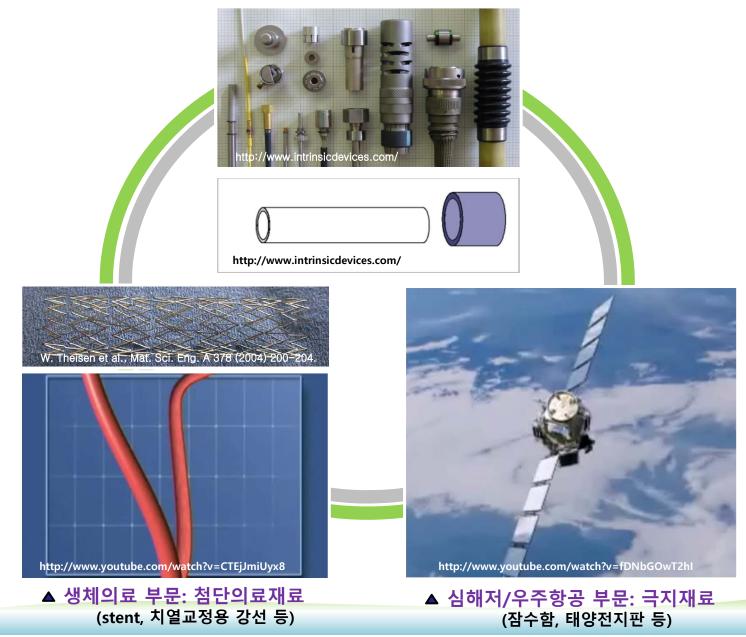
- ➡ 저온(< M<sub>f</sub>)에서 소성변형 후
   A<sub>f</sub> 이상의 고온으로 가열
- → 기억된 고온 형상으로 회복

## **Summary**



## \* Application of SMAs

▼ 산업 부문: 부품소재 (파이프 이음, 스위치소자나 온도제어용 장치 등)

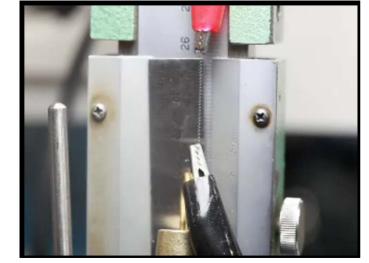


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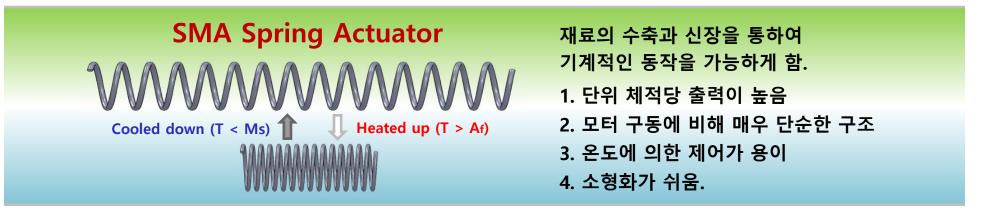
- \* SMA Actuator
- ▶ 액츄에이터(Actuator) : 전기 에너지, 열에너지 등의 에너지원을 운동에너지로 전환하여 기계장치를 움직이도록 하는 구동소자



▲ 기존의 매크로 스케일 액츄에이터 (모터-기어 방식)



▲ SMA 스프링 액츄에이터





# 자가 치유가 가능한 금속

# **Self-healing Metallic Materials**

ESPark Research Group

## Materials design for reuse

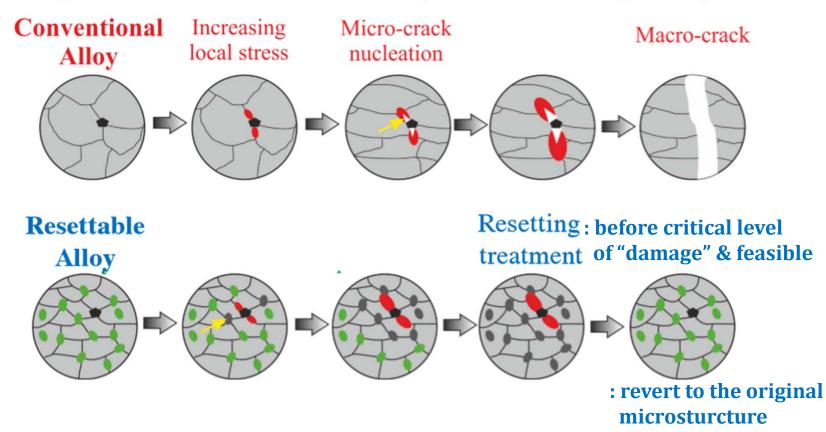
Damage process is incremental, and often local  $\rightarrow$  repair opportunity

*Two damage repair options possible:* 

- The metal autonomously repair damage --> Self-healing
- Damage is repaired by an external treatment → *Resetting*

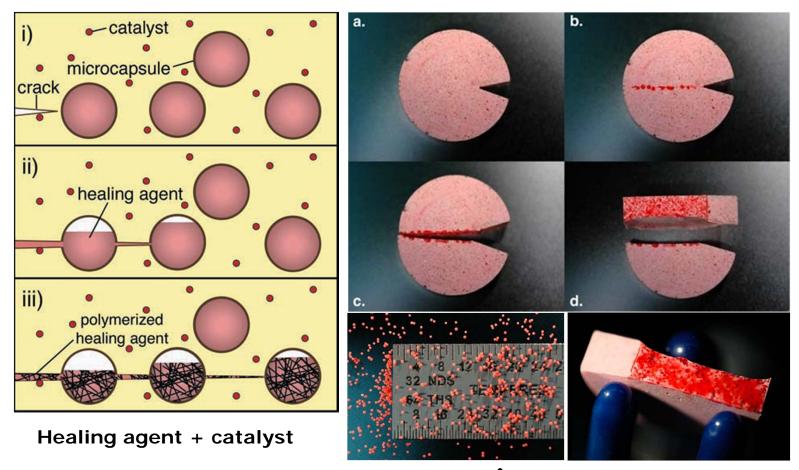
## Self-healing metals vs Resettable alloys

- self-healing: "autonomic closure of micro-cracks"
- resetting: "non-autonomic retrieval of crack-arresting ability"



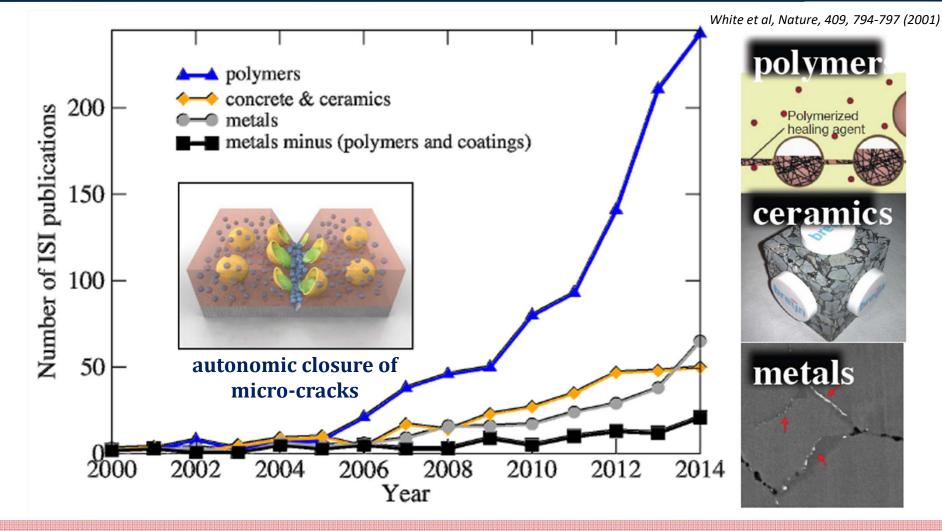
Different failure mechanisms require different resetting strategies

### **Self-healing : Microencapsulation approaches**



• White et al, 409, Nature, 794-797, 2001

# 구조소재 개발 新 패러다임 : 자가치유 Self-healing



"자가치유"의 개념은 폴리머 등의 활성화 공정을 통해 제안되어 개발되고 있음!



# 자가치유금속 (Self-healing metals): 현 기술수준

### Healing agent 기반 Macro-crack 전파 방지

Grabowski & Tasan, Self-healing Metals (2016)



Ŵ

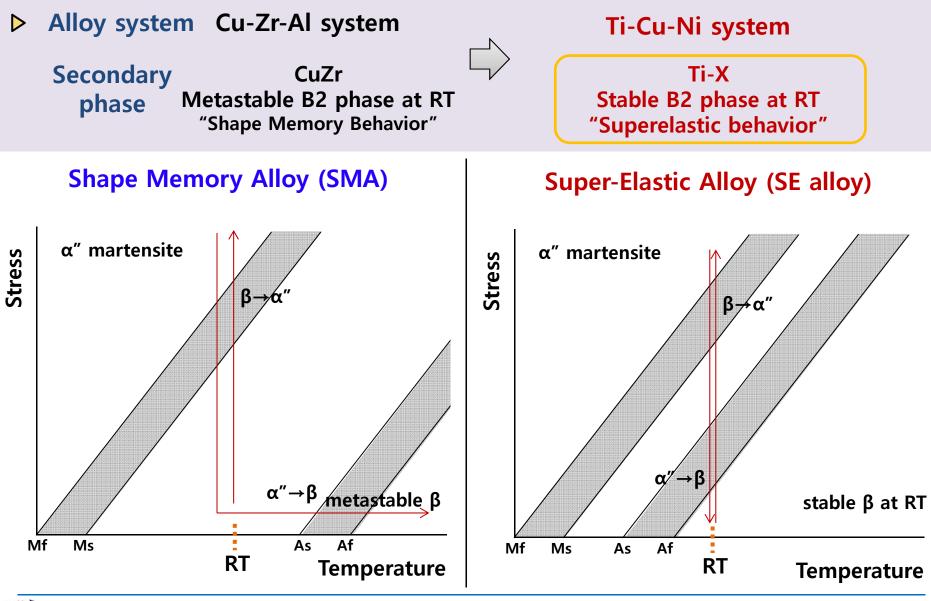


### 1) "Super-elastic Bulk Metallic Glass Composite"

### Self-healing Metallic Materials with Recoverable 2nd phase

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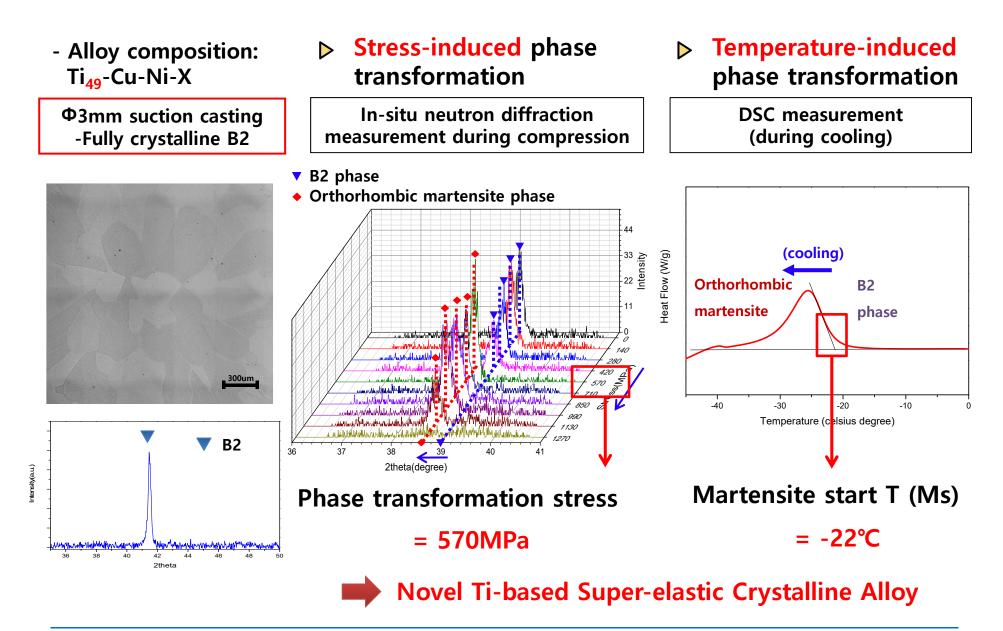
### **Development of New Ti-based BMGC with High Work-hardenability**



W

ESPark Research Group

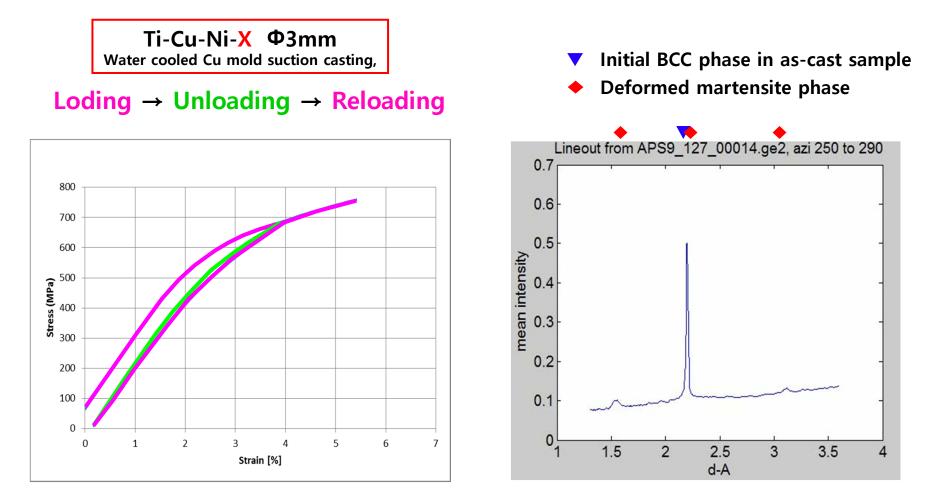
### Phase transformation in Ti-based alloys : $B_2 \rightarrow M \rightarrow B_2$





### In-situ synchrotron diffraction analysis during tensile test

### **Superelastic BMG composite: Reversible Phase Transformation Behavior**



#### at APS beam line, ANL





# 2) "TWIP/TRIP High Entropy Alloy"- Stress-induced phase transformable HEA -

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## 극지 개발의 글로벌 이슈

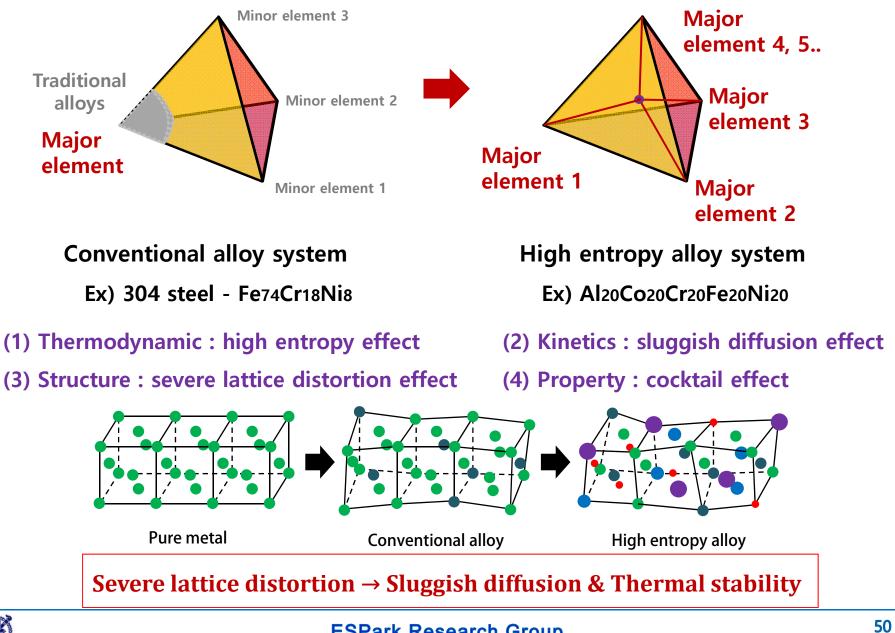




# METAL MIXOLOGY

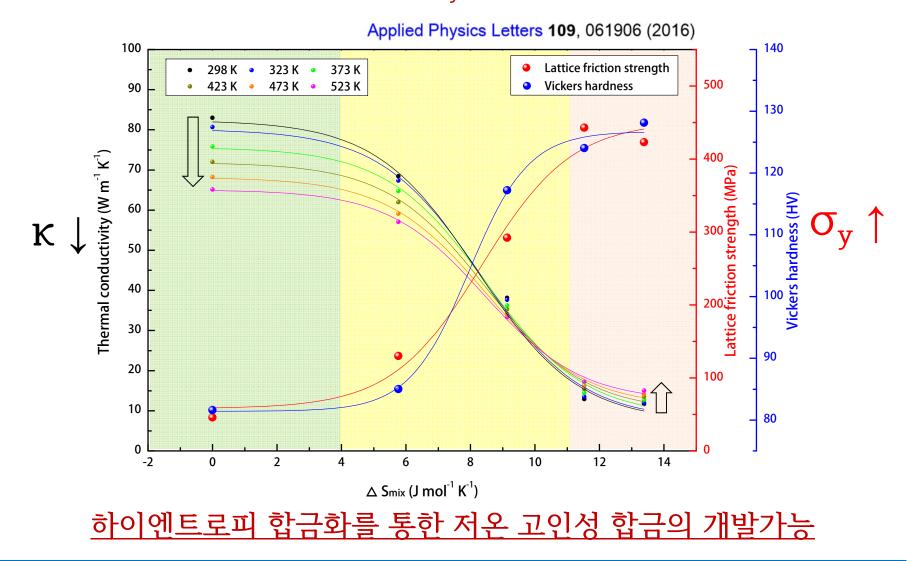
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### Basic concepts of high entropy alloy (HEA)



## 차세대 극지구조용 신소재 : "하이엔트로피 합금"

우수한 σ<sub>v</sub>/κ ratio



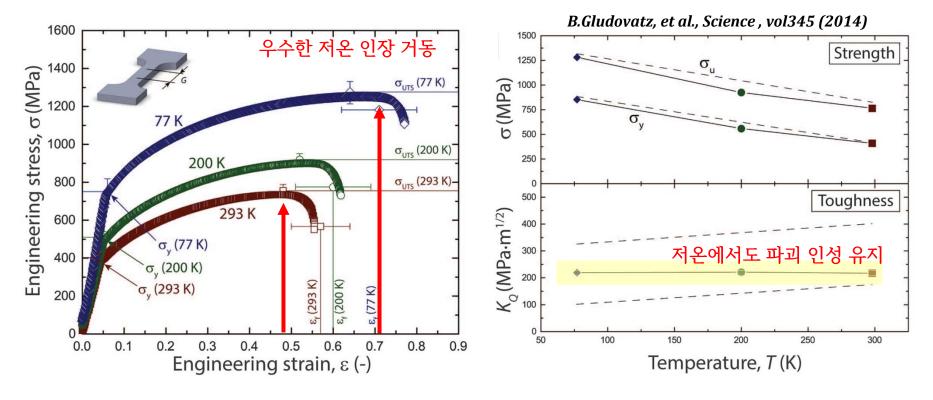


### 차세대 극지구조용 신소재 : "하이엔트로피 합금"

▶ FCC 하이엔트로피 합금의 극저온 특성

1) <u>우수한 극·저온 파괴 인성 (~ 200 MPa·m<sup>1/2</sup>)</u>

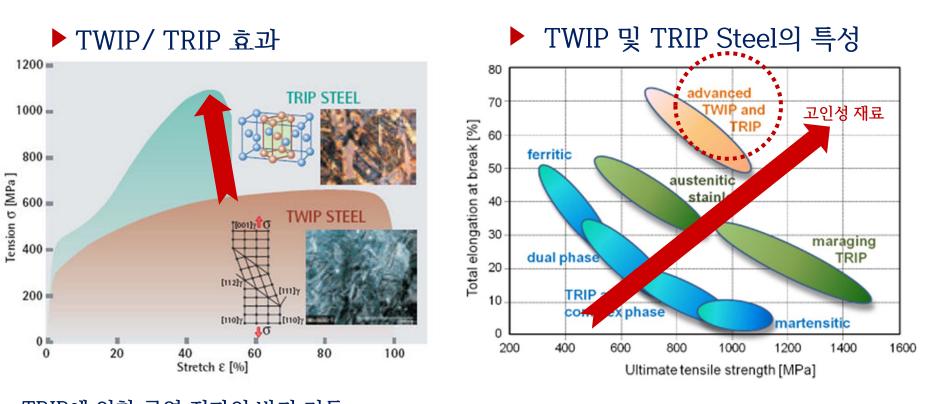
2) Nano-twin 작동으로 일반적 상용합금과는 다르게, <u>저온에서도 상온의 파괴 인성이 유지됨</u>



<u>"하이엔트로피 합금화를 통한 저온 고인성 합금의 개발 가능"</u>

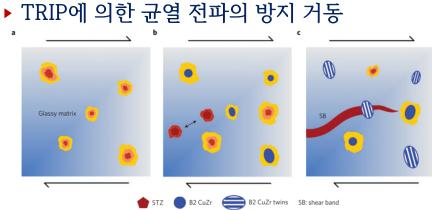


## TWIP/TRIP 효과 도입을 통한 기계적 물성 향상

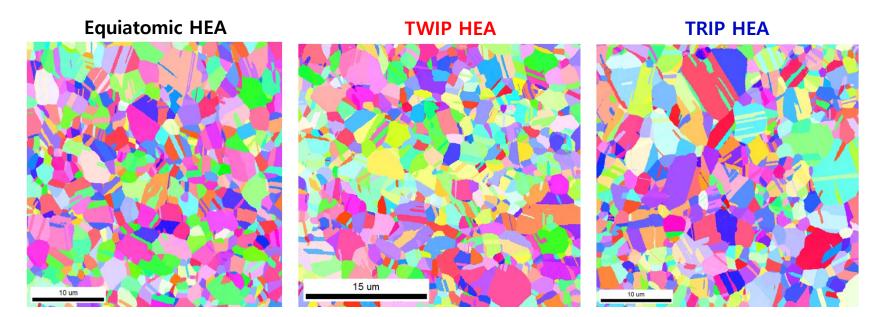


균열부 주변에서 다수의 쌍정유기소성(TWIP), 또는 상변화유기소성(TRIP)을 통한 고인성 구현

> "극지 환경 피로파괴 저항성이 큰 TRIP 하이엔트로피 합금 개발"

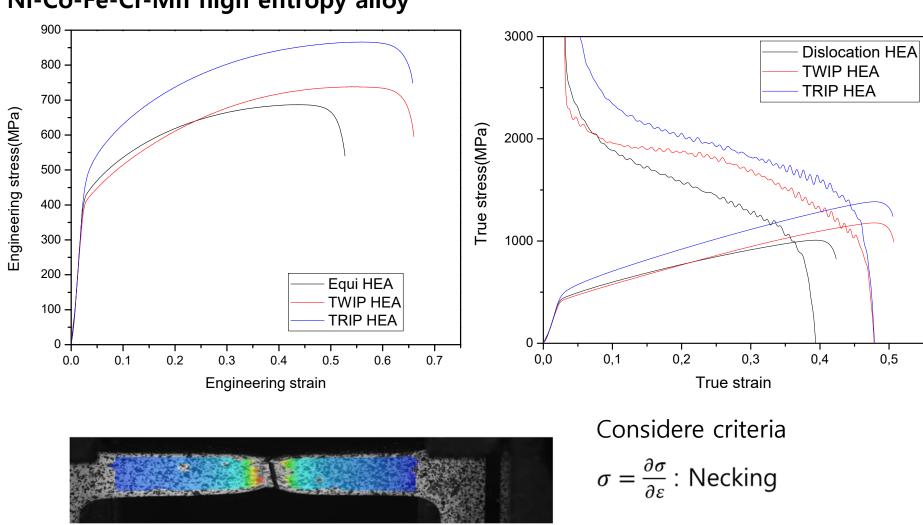


• Design of TWIP/TRIP high entropy alloy without loosing yield strength



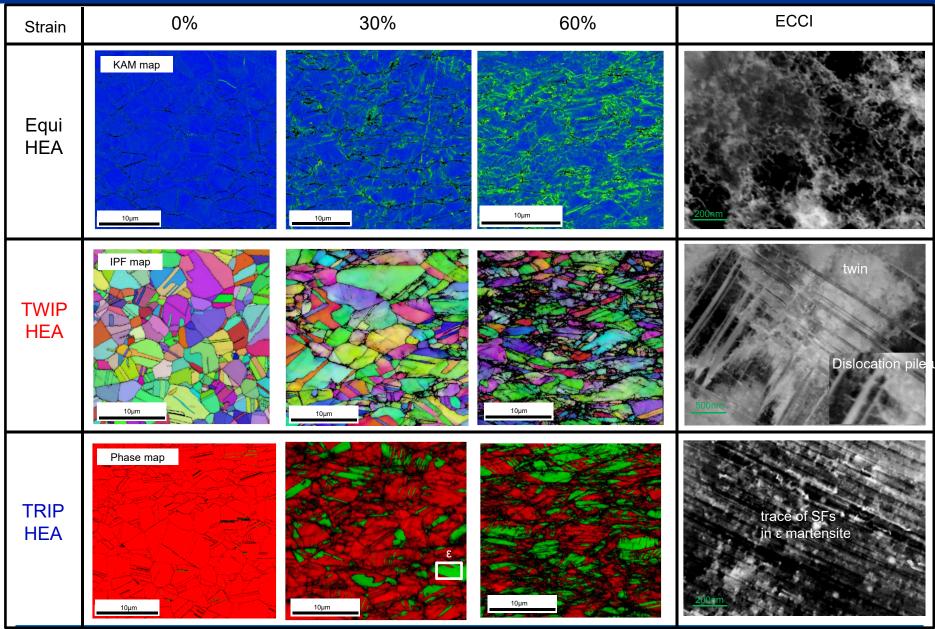
	Composition	Grain size (µm)
1	Equiatomic HEA	3.8
2	TWIP HEA	3.6
3	TRIP HEA	4.3





#### Ni-Co-Fe-Cr-Mn high entropy alloy

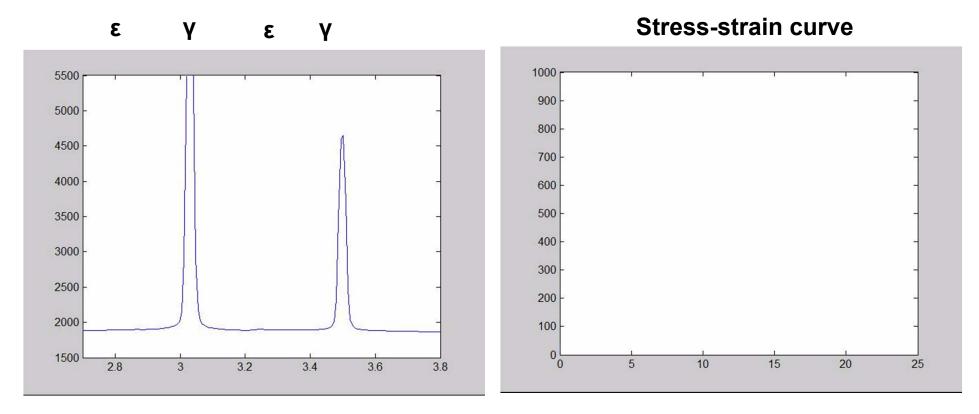






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**TRIP HEA** 



I(Q) vs. Q

Stress (MPa) vs. Strain (%)

#### at APS beam line, ANL



# **Contents in Phase Transformation**

Background to understand phase transformation (Ch1) Thermodynamics and Phase Diagrams (Ch2) Diffusion: Kinetics

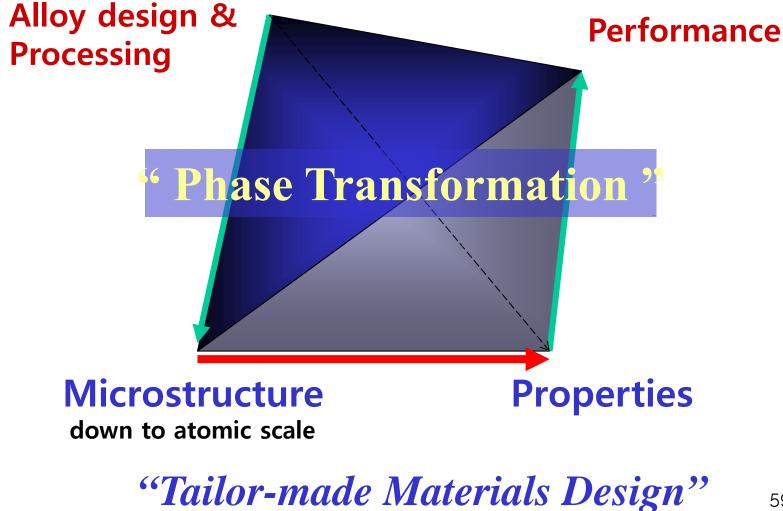
(Ch3) Crystal Interface and Microstructure

Representative Phase transformation (Ch4) Solidification: Liquid  $\rightarrow$  Solid

(Ch5) Diffusional Transformations in Solid: Solid  $\rightarrow$  Solid

(Ch6) Diffusionless Transformations: Solid  $\rightarrow$  Solid

# **Microstructure-Properties Relationships**



\* Homework 6 : Exercises 6

until 20th December (before exam)

### FINAL (20th December, 10 AM-1 PM)

Place: 33-225

Scopes: Text: page 189 (chapter 4) ~ page 433 (chapter 6)/

Teaching notes: 16~25/

Good Luck!!