

"Calculation and Applications Phase Equilibria" Principles of Solidification

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- * Chapter 2 Solidification as an Atomistic Process
 - → Chapter 3 Nucleation
- Metastability of Supercooled Liquids
- •Equilibrium conditions for a curved interface
- •Calculation of critical radius
- •The process of Nucleation

Binary phase diagrams

1) Simple Phase Diagrams

Both are ideal soln. \rightarrow At T change, curvature and width change of G curve by S

2) Systems with miscibility gap $\Delta H_{mix}^{L} = 0 \quad \Delta H_{mix}^{S} > 0$

At T change, curvature and width change of G curve by S + shape change of curve by H

- **4) Simple Eutectic Systems** $\Delta H_{mix}^{L} = 0 \quad \Delta H_{mix}^{S} >> 0$ \rightarrow miscibility gap extends to the melting temperature.
- **3) Ordered Alloys** $\Delta H_{mix}^{L} = 0$ $\Delta H_{mix}^{S} < 0$ $\Delta H_{mix} < 0 \rightarrow A$ atoms and B atoms like each other. \rightarrow Ordered alloy at low T $\Delta H_{mix} << 0 \rightarrow$ The ordered state can extend to the melting temperature.



2.6 Origin of Defects

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Microstructure is the collection of defects in the materials.

☐ Imperfection in Metallic Materials ;

Point defect : Vacancies, interstitials, Impurities

Line defect : Dislocations, Cellular and lineage substructure

Plane defect : Grain Boundaries, Free Surfaces

Bulk defect : Voids, Cracks







Heterogeneous Nucleation

Heterogeneous nucleation must occur on some substrate:

grain boundaries triple junctions dislocations (existing) second phase particles

Consider a grain boundary: why is it effective?

Answer: by forming on a grain boundary, an embryo can <u>offset its "cost" in interfacial energy</u> by eliminating some grain boundary area.

c) Quenched-in Vacancies

In the vicinity of grain boundaries on subsequent aging, <u>Precipitate-Free Zone(PFZ) due to Vacancy Diffusion during quenching</u>

Solute concentration within the zone ~ largely unchanged, but no precipitate at GB ∵ a critical vacancy supersaturation must be exceeded for nucleation to occur.



Fig. 5.35 A PFZ due to vacancy diffusion to a grain boundary during quenching.

- (a) Vacancy concentration profile. (b) A PFZ in an Al-Ge alloy (x 20,000)
- (c) Dependence of PFZ width on <u>critical vacancy concentration</u> X_v^c and rate of quenching.



time

Turnbull's Insight for Supercooling



How does the liquid metals resist on the crystallization?
What is the origin of high nucleation barrier against the crystallization?
What is the structure of interface between liquids and crystals?
What is the local order of liquid metals?

Turnbull's solid-liquid interface

<u>Turnbull's insight :</u> Liquid orders substantially near a crystal surface due to entropy decreasing caused by the crystal-melt interfacial tension







- **3.2. Equilibrium condition for a curved interface**
- **Stability of curved interface**
- 1) Atomic consideration
- a) Equilibrium: Geometrical factors $G_F = G_M$ (planer interface)
 - → If it is curved, "escape angle" changes with curvature.
 - (1) S → L: if Solid is convex structure → G_M ↑, concave structure → G_M ↓ $\Delta G_M \propto$ curvature of the surface $\propto 1/r$
 - \rightarrow if "Spherical" crystal containing n atoms \propto n ^{1/3}
 - (2) L \rightarrow S: reverse direction of (S \rightarrow L) case
 - \therefore G_Mⁿ for S \rightarrow L transition

for atoms at the surface of a spherical crystal containing n atoms

$$G_{M}^{n} = (1 + \alpha / n^{1/3}) G_{M}^{n}$$
, $G_{F}^{n} = (1 - \alpha / n^{1/3}) G_{F}^{n}$

Convex surface = less firmly bound = fewer nearest neighbors in the crystal → easier escape than that of flat surface

b) Average energy for escape

 $L^{n} = (1 - \beta / n^{1/3}) L_{1}$

→ β is calculated from the number of neighbors (ex. FCC structure: $\beta = 1.33$)

If the rate for the melting process $\uparrow \rightarrow r \downarrow \&$ the rate for the freezing process $\downarrow \rightarrow T_E \downarrow$.

 $T_{E, small crystal} < T_{E, large crystal}$ Thus, at any temperature below T_E , there is a radius of curvature at which the rates of melting and of freezing are equal. = critical radius r*



a) if
$$T_E + \Delta T (+)$$
, $R_M > R_F \rightarrow r \downarrow$
 $\rightarrow T_E \rightarrow T_E' \downarrow \rightarrow \Delta T (+) \uparrow \rightarrow R_M >> R_F$
b) if $T_E + \Delta T (-)$, $R_M < R_F \rightarrow r \uparrow$
 $\rightarrow T_E \rightarrow T_E' \prime \uparrow \rightarrow \Delta T (-) \uparrow \rightarrow R_M << R_F$

2) Thermodynamic treatment of equilibrium access a curved interface



$$r \rightarrow r + dr, P \rightarrow P + \Delta P$$

The work done is equal to the increase in free energy of the interface; Thus,

$$Pdr \times 4\pi r^2 = [4\pi (r + dr)^2 - 4\pi r^2]\sigma$$

whence

$$P = \frac{2\sigma}{r}$$

Fig. 3.1. Pressure due to surface tension.

The G curves so far have been based on the molar Gs of infinitely large amounts of material of a perfect single crystal. Surfaces, GBs and interphase interfaces have been ignored.

1.6 Influence of Interfaces on Equilibrium

$$\Delta G = \Delta P \cdot V \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \Delta G = \frac{2\gamma V_m}{r}$$

Extra pressure ΔP due to curvature of the α/β



Fig. 1.38 The effect of interfacial E on the solubility of small particle

The concept of a pressure difference is very useful <u>for spherical liquid particles</u>, but it is less convenient in solids (often nonspherical shape).

$$dG = \Delta G_{\gamma} dn = \gamma dA \qquad \Delta G_{\gamma} = \gamma dA/dn$$

Since n=4\pi r³/3V_m and A = 4\pi r² \delta G = $\frac{2\gamma V_m}{r}$



Fig. 1.39 Transfer of dn mol of β from large to a small particle.

Gibbs-Thomson effect (capillarity effect):

Free energy increase due to interfacial energy

Quite large solubility differences can arise for particles in the range r=1-100 nm. However, for particles visible in the light microscope (r>1um) capillarity effects are very small.



Fig. 1.38 The effect of interfacial energy on the solubility of small particles.



For small values of the exponent,

$$\frac{X_B^{r=r}}{X_B^{r=\infty}} = \exp(\frac{2\gamma V_m}{RTr}) \approx 1 + \frac{2\gamma V_m}{RTr}$$

Ex) $\gamma = 200 \text{mJ/m}^2$, $V_{\text{m}} = 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3$, T = 500 K $\frac{X_r}{X_{\infty}} = 1 + \frac{1}{r(nm)}$

For r=10 nm, solubility~10% increase

Microstructure of a two phase alloy is always unstable if the total interfacial free E is not a minimum. \rightarrow

5.5.6. Particle Coarsening (smaller total interfacial area→loss of strength or disappearance of GB pining effect→ particular concern in the design of materials for high temp. applications) Two Adjacent Spherical Precipitates with Different Diameters



: Concentration gradient in matrix → diffusion → small particle_shrink/ large particle_grow

3.3 Calculation of critical radius

1) Assumption: no work is done in <u>compressing the solid</u> (two phases were at the same pressure), $T_E \rightarrow T_E - \Delta T$, $\Delta G_P (2\sigma/r^*) = \Delta P$



→ if the nucleation status is not incompressible, $\Delta G_P = \Delta P$ (ex. Nucleation of gas or vapor in liquid)

2) Calculation of critical radius II



 G_V^S , G_V^L : free energies per unit volume

$$\Delta G = G_2 - G_1 = -V_S (G_V^L - G_V^S) + A_{SL} \gamma_{SL}$$

for spherical nuclei (isotropic) of radius : r

$$\Delta G_r = -\frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 \Delta G_V + 4\pi r^2 \gamma_{SL}$$

2) Calculation of critical radius II



Fig. 4. 2 The free energy change associated with homogeneous nucleation of a sphere of radius r.

Gibbs-Thompson Equation

 $\Delta {\bf G}$ of a spherical particle of radius, r

 ΔG of a supersaturated solute in liquid in equilibrium with a particle of radius, r

Equil. condition for open system $\longrightarrow \Delta \mu$ should be the same.

$$\Delta G_{r(s)} = 4\pi r^2 \gamma$$
$$\Delta G_{r(l)} = \frac{4\pi r^3}{3} \times \Delta G_V$$

$$\Delta \mu = 8\pi r\gamma = 4\pi r^2 \Delta G_V$$

$$r \rightarrow \frac{2\gamma V_m}{r}$$
/mole or $\frac{2\gamma}{r}$ / per unit volume

$$\Delta G_V = 2\gamma_{SL} / r^*$$

$$r^* = \frac{2\gamma_{SL}}{\Delta G_V} \qquad \qquad \Delta G^* = \frac{16\pi\gamma_{SL}^3}{3(\Delta G_V)^2} = \left(\frac{16\pi\gamma_{SL}^3 T_m^2}{3L_V^2}\right) \frac{1}{(\Delta T)^2}$$
$$\Delta G_r = -\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \Delta G_V + 4\pi r^2 \gamma_{SL} \qquad \qquad \Delta G_V = \frac{L\Delta T}{T_m}$$

- Critical condition of Nucleation → Depends on the curvature of the crystal surface
- To calculate r^{*} under a given ΔT : $\sigma = \gamma_{SL}$ (Sol.-Liq. Interfacial E) measurement required



Fig. 3.3. Relationship between critical radius and supercooling. 20

Formation of Atomic Cluster

At the T_m , the liquid phase has <u>a volume 2-4% greater</u> than the solid.

Fig. 4.4 <u>A two-dimensional representation of</u> <u>an instantaneous picture of the liquid structure.</u> <u>Many close-packed crystal-like clusters (shaded)</u> <u>are instantaneously formed.</u>





Formation of Atomic Cluster

When the free energy of the atomic cluster with radius r is by

$$\Delta G_r = -\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \Delta G_V + 4\pi r^2 \gamma_{SL},$$

how many atomic clusters of radius r would exist in the presence of the total number of atoms, n_0 ?



Formation of Atomic Cluster

 n_0 : total # of atoms.

 ΔG_r : excess free energy associated with the cluster

k : Boltzmann's constant

of cluster of radius r per unit volume

$$\boldsymbol{n}_r = \boldsymbol{n}_0 \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta \boldsymbol{G}_r}{\boldsymbol{k}T}\right)$$

- $\Delta G_r \neq 0 \rightarrow n_r / n \neq 0$ (믲묜 cluster with a specific size) → Key to nucleation : relationship btw r_{max} and r^*

- holds for $T > T_m$ / $T < T_m$ and $r \leq r^*$ Apply for all r / $r \leq r^*$



 $(\because r > r^*: no \text{ longer part of the liquid})$ Fig. 3.5. Radius of largest embryo - n_r exponentially decreases with ΔG_r as a function of supercooling.

Ex. 1 mm³ of copper <u>at its melting point (n_0 : 10²⁰ atoms)</u>

 $r \downarrow \rightarrow n_r \uparrow \rightarrow \sim 10^{14}$ clusters of 0.3 nm radius (i.e. ~ 10 atoms)

 $r \uparrow \rightarrow n_r \downarrow \rightarrow \sim 10$ clusters of 0.6 nm radius (i.e. ~ 60 atoms)

 \rightarrow effectively a maximum cluster size, ~ 100 atoms

~ 10^{-8} clusters mm⁻³ or <u>1 cluster in ~ 10^7 mm³</u>

2) The homogeneous nucleation rate - kinetics

How fast solid nuclei will appear in the liquid at a given undercooling?

n : atoms/unit volume n_i^* : # of clusters with size of r* (critical size) $n_i^* = n \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G^*}{kT}\right) \operatorname{clusters}/\mathrm{m}^3$ $\Delta G^* = 16\pi\sigma^3/(\Delta G_P)^2$ Excess free E of critical nucleus

The addition of one more atom to each of these clusters will convert them into stable nuclei.



2) The homogeneous nucleation rate - kinetics

$$I = K_v \exp \left\{-\left[\left(\Delta G^* + \Delta G_A\right)kT\right]\right\}$$

$$K_v = n^* \left(\frac{a\sigma}{9\pi kT}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} n\left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)$$

a: correction factor of nucleus shape (Not necessarily spheircal)n*: # of surface atoms for critical nucleusn = # of atoms per unit volume for liquid

Assumption: "equilibrium distribution of the embryo size at all times" (ideal condition) Vapor → liquid drop : OK but liquid → Solid : X due to low mobility

$$I = \frac{nkT}{h} \exp\left(-\frac{G_A}{kT}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{16\pi\sigma_{SL}^3 T_E^2}{3L^2(\Delta T)^2 kT}\right)$$

 \rightarrow Until Δ T reaches, the critical value *I* is very small. But Δ T increases rapidly when critical value is reached

4.1.2. The homogeneous nucleation rate - kinetics

$$I = \frac{nkT}{h} \exp\left(-\frac{G_A}{kT}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{16\pi\sigma_{SL}^3 T_E^2}{3L^2(\Delta T)^2 kT}\right)$$

: insensitive to Temp.



The creation of a critical nucleus ~ thermally activated process



 ΔT_N is the critical undercooling for homogeneous nucleation.

The variation of r* and r_{max} with undercooling ΔT

→ The condition for nucleation: The number of clusters with r^* at $T < \Delta T_N$ is negligible.