

"Phase Transformation in Materials"

10.23.2023 Eun Soo Park

Office: 33-313 Telephone: 880-7221 Email: espark@snu.ac.kr Office hours: by an appointment **Contents for previous class**

Chapter 3 Crystal Interfaces and Microstructure

 Interfacial Free Energy (vs E_{sv})
 Solid/Vapor Interfaces
 Boundaries in Single-Phase Solids
 Interphase Interfaces in Solid (α/β) 3) Solid/Liquid Interfaces

6) Interface migration

Contents for previous class

3.5 Interphase Interfaces in Solids



3.5 Interphase Interfaces in Solids



Contents for today's class

- Interphase Interfaces in Solid (α/β)
 - Types of interphase interfaces in solid (α/β)
 - Second-Phase Shape $\sum A_i \gamma_i + \Delta G_s = minimum$

Interface Energy Effects

Coherent / Semi-coherent / incoherent Misfit Strain Effects

- Coherency Loss
- Glissil Interfaces 👄 Non-Glissil Interfaces

e.g. Solid/Liquid Interfaces

- Interface migration
 - Interface controlled growth 💭 Diffusion controlled growth

Classification of Heterogeneous (Nucleation and Growth) Transformation 5

Glissil Interfaces \iff **Non-Glissil Interfaces**

Q: What is Glissile interface?

Glissile interface \rightarrow coordinated glide of the interfacial disl. $\rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$ phase transformation

Interphase Interfaces in Solid (α/β)

1) Glissile Interfaces (평활 이동 계면)



: epitaxial; Can't move forward or backward

(interface//burgers vector) ----> Non-glissile interface

: Glide of the interfacial disl. cannot cause the interface to advance

: Glissile; Boundary moves toward α or β

: <u>semi-coherent interfaces which can advance</u> by the coordinated glide of the interfacial disl.

Interfacial dislocations



Fig. 3. 51 The nature of a glissile interface.

The dislocations have a Burgers vector that can glide on matching planes in the adjacent lattices.

Slip planes : continuous across the interface

Gliding of the dislocation : α is sheared into the β structure.⁷

Low-Angle tilt Boundaries

Bugers vector = edge dislocation

But, this is not interphase interface.

∵ crystal structure is same, only lattice rotation



- * As disl. glide at low-angle grain boundary
- : no change in crystal structure,

just rotation of the lattice into the other grain

Glissile Interfaces between two lattices

Shockley partial dislocation

HCP: ABABABAB... close packed plane: (0001) close packed directions: $<11\overline{2}0>$



FCC: ABCABCAB... close packed planes: {111} close packed directions: <110 > 1) Perfect dislocation

$$\vec{b} = \frac{a}{2}[10\overline{1}]$$

In C layer, atoms move $C' \rightarrow C''$

: remain a cubic close-packed arrangement with a fcc unit cell < FCC → FCC >

2) Shockley partial dislocation

when atoms move: $C' \rightarrow C''$ possible to move $C' \rightarrow A \rightarrow C'$



This burgers vector of partial disl. is not located at lattice point.

(can't connect lattice points in the FCC structure)

< FCC \rightarrow HCP: phase transformation by stacking fault over the area of glide plane swept by the disl.>

ell
c
ion
C'

$$\vec{b} = \frac{a}{2}[10\bar{1}]$$

e FCC structure)
 $\vec{c}'' = \frac{a}{6}[2\bar{1}\bar{1}]$
 $\vec{c}'' = \frac{a}{6}[2\bar{1}\bar{1}]$
 $\vec{c}'' = \frac{a}{6}[2\bar{1}\bar{1}]$

Gliding of Shockley partial dislocations → Stacking fault region 적충결함

In thermodynamically <u>stable FCC lattices</u>, the stacking fault is a region of high free energy. →gliding of partial dislocations : difficult





(a)

Fig. 3. 52 (a) An edge dislocation with a Burgers vector $b = \frac{a}{6} [112]$ on $(11\overline{1})$. (shockley partial dislocation.) (b) The same dislocation locally changes the stacking sequence from fcc to hcp.

If FCC lattice is <u>only metastable with respect to the HCP structure</u> \rightarrow stacking fault E ~ effectively negative \rightarrow gliding of partial dislocation: easy due to decrease the free energy of system

Glissile Interfaces between two lattices



Fig. 3. 53 Two Shockley partial dislocation on alternate (111) planes create six layers of hcp stacking.



Fig. 3.54 An array of Shockley partial dislocations forming a glissile interface between fcc and hcp crystals.

An important characteristic of glissile dislocation interfaces

→ they can produce a macroscopic shape change in the crystal.



→ No overall shape change

Fig. 3. 55 Schematic representation of the different ways of shearing cubic close-packed planes into hexagonal close-packed (a) Using only one Shockley partial, (b) using equal numbers of all three Shockley partials.

* Formation of martensite in steel and other alloys: Motion of Glissile-dislocation interface

- : macroscopic shape change & no change in composition
- → more complex interface but same principles (chapter 6)

Q: What is the role of interface migration on phase transformation ?

3.5. Interface Migration

Phase transformation = Interface creation & Migration

Heterogeneous Transformation (general): parent and product phases during trans.

Nucleation (interface creation) + **Growth** (interface migration) Nucleation barrier Ex. Precipitation

- at certain sites within metastable alpha phase \rightarrow new beta phase = Nucleation
- most of transformation product is formed during the growth stage by the transfer of atoms across the moving parent/product interface.

Homogeneous Transformation: PT occurs homogeneously throughout the parent phase.

Growth-interface control

No Nucleation barrier Ex. Spinodal decomposition (Chapter 5)

Order-disorder transformation

* Types of Interface

- → Types of transformation
- Glissile Interface: Athermal, Shape change → Military transformation **Dislocation gliding**
- Non-Glissile Interface: Thermal,

- → Civilian transformation

Random jump of individual atoms: extremely sensitive to temp.

~ similar way to the migration of a random high angle GB

Classification of Nucleation and Growth Transformation

Туре	Military	Civilian			
Effect of temperature change	Athermal	Thermally activated			
Interface type	Glissile (coherent or semicoherent)	Nonglissile (coherent, s	semicoherent. Incoherent, so	lid/liquid, or solid/vapor)	
Composition of parent and product phase	Same composition	Same composition	Different compositions		
Nature of diffusion process	No diffusion	Short-range diffusion (across interface)	Long-range diffusion (three	ough lattice)	
Interface, diffusion or mixed control?	Interface control	▼ Interface control	Mainly interface control	Mainly diffusion control	Mixed control
Examples	Martensite twining	Massive ordering	Precipitation dissolution	Precipitation dissolution	Precipitation dissolution
	Symmetric tilt boundary	Polymorphic recrystallization	Bainite condensation	Soldification and melting	Eutectoid
		Grain growth	Evaporation		Cellular precipitation
		Condensation			
		Evaporation			

Source: Adapted from Christian, J.W., in Phase Transformations, Vol. 1, Institute of Metallurgists, 1979, p. 1.

exception) bainite transformation: thermally activated growth/ shape change similar to that product by the motion of a glissile interface

(need to additional research)

Table 3.3 Classification of Nucleation and Growth Transformation

Туре			Civilian (Di	Diffusional- Displacive	Military (Displacive)			
Effect of Temperature			Thermally a	Thermally activated	Athermal			
			Non-gl	Glissile or ledge	Glissile			
Interface type	(cohere	ent, partly	coherent, incohe	(coherent or partly coherent)	(coherent or partly coherent)			
Composition of parent and product phases	Sa	ame	Different				Different	Same
Nature of diffusion processes	Short-range (across interface) Long-range (through lattice)				Long-range	No diffusion		
Interface, diffusion or mixed control?	Interface control		Mainly interface control	M dif cc	lainly fusion ontrol	Mixed control	Mainly diffusion control	Interface control
Example	Massive Ordering Polymorphic Recrystallization Grain growth Condensation Evaporation		Precipitation Dissolution Condensation Evaporation	Prec Diss Solid M	ipitation solution lification elting	Precipitation Dissolution Eutectoid Cellular Precipitation	Bainite γ' (Ag2Al) pptn.	Martensite (Twining, Symmetric, tilt boundary, migration)

Source: Modification of classification given in J.W. Christian, 'Phase transformations in metals and alloys-an introduction', in phase transformation, Vol. 1, p.1, Institute of Metallurgists, 1979.

3.5. Interface Migration

* Civilian Transformation



1) Interface control

Same composition between parent and product (Ex. $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ transformation in pure iron)

The new phase will be able to grow as fast as the atoms can cross the interface. : <u>interfacial reaction velocity dominant</u>

2) Diffusion control

Different composition between parent and product (Ex. The growth of the B-rich phase into the A-rich α-phase)

Growth of the new phase will require long-range diffusion Growth rate: governed by the rate at which lattice diffusion can remove the excess atoms from ahead of the interface.

3) Mixed control: interface reaction = diffusion process

Distance



Fig. 3. 56 Composition changes in a substitutional alloy caused by interface migration when the two adjoining phases have different compositions.

3.5.1. Diffusion-Controlled and Interface-Controlled Growth

Fig. 3.57 Interface migration with long-range diffusion

; the migration of interface separating two phases of different composition



(b) The origin of the driving force for boundary migration into the α -phase $\Delta \mu_{B}^{i}$

Total Free Energy Decrease per Mole of Nuclei ΔG_0

: Driving force for phase transformation of system

Driving Force for Precipitate Nucleation $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha + \beta$

 $\Delta \mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{v}}$

3.5.1. Diffusion-Controlled and Interface-Controlled Growth

Fig. 3.67 Interface migration with long-range diffusion

; the migration of interface separating two phases of different composition



(b) The origin of the driving force for boundary migration into the α -phase $\Delta \mu_{B}^{i}$ By analogy with the migration of a high-angle GB (section 3.3.4), the net flux B across the interface will produce an interface velocity *v* given by

- (section 3.3.4) Kinetics of grain growth
 - Grain boundary migration (v) by thermally activated atomic jump

Boundary velocity

$$\boldsymbol{v} = \frac{A_2 n_1 v_1 V_m^2}{N_a RT} \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G^a}{RT}\right) \frac{\Delta G}{V_m} \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{v} \sim \Delta G/V_m \text{ driving force} \\
\rightarrow \mathbf{F} = \Delta G/V_m \\
\mathbf{M} : \text{ mobility} = \text{ velocity under unit driving force} \sim \exp(-1/T)$$

rate of grain growth $d\underline{D}/dt \sim 1/\underline{D}$, exponentially increase with T

• Interface velocity of precipitate

$$v = M \Delta \mu_B^i / V_m$$

M = interface mobility, V_m = molar volume of the β phase

• Corresponding flux across the interface (negative sign_negative direction of flux along the x-axis)



A flux of B atoms toward the interface by the concentration gradient in the α phase

Corresponding flux across the interface (negative sign_negative direction of flux along the x-axis)



A flux of B atoms toward the interface by the concentration gradient in the α phase

1) If the interface mobility is very high, e.g. an incoherent interface, High Mobility: $\Delta \mu_B^i$ small, $X_i \approx X_e$ Diffusion-Control 2) When the interface has a low mobility, Low Mobility: $\Delta \mu_B^i$ must be large Mixed-Control 3) In the limit of a very low mobility, Very low Mobility: $Xi \approx X_o$, $\left(\frac{\partial C}{\partial X}\right)_{intrface} \approx 0$, Interface-Control $\Delta \mu_B^i \doteq \Delta \Pi$



When two phases have a different composition,

In general,

the necessary long-range diffusion involves a great many atom jumps while interface reaction essentially involves only one jump.

All interface reactions should be very rapid in comparison to lattice diffusion, i.e., all growth should be diffusion controlled. (next page)

Ex) Diffusion control

Al-Cu ppt structures

If two phases with different compositions, but the same crystal structure are separated by a coherent interface

Interface can advance by normal lattice diffusion involving vacancies.

No need for a separated interface reaction

Ex) GP zones/ semicoherent interface with misfit dislocation (vacancy creation and annihilation)





(a) Bright-field TEM image showing G.P. zones, and (b) HRTEM image of a G.P. zone formed on a single $(0\ 0\ 0\ 1)_{\alpha}$ plane. Electron beam is parallel to in both (a) and (b). When two phases have a different composition,

In general,

the necessary long-range diffusion involves a great many atom jumps while interface reaction essentially involves only one jump.

All interface reactions should be very rapid in comparison to lattice diffusion, i.e., all growth should be diffusion controlled. (next page)

➡ In many cases ~ valid, but under certain conditions ~ insufficient

Accommodation factor (A_수용인자)

Probability that an atom crossing the boundary will accommodated on arrival at the new phase

Incoherent interfaces and diffuse interface solid/liquid interfaces, as high-angle grain boundaries = value of A close to unity \implies "diffusion control"

Coherent or semicoherent interfaces as well as smooth solid/liquid interfaces = low values of A \implies "Some degree of interface control"

Ex) Interface control

1) When two phases forming a coherent or semicoherent interface have different crystal structures.

	А	A	А	А	А	А	
fcc	В	В	В	В	В	В	
Coherent close-packed interface	e C	С	С	С		С	A loop of Shorkley partial disl.
between fcc and hcp crystals	A	А	А	A	A	А	~ high E/ unstable configuration
hcp	В	В	В	В	В	В	→ force back to its original position
	А	А	А	А	А	А	
(a)				(b)			

Fig. 3. 58 Problems associated with the continuous growth of coherent interfaces between phases with different crystal structures.

hcp phase growth by individual atomic jumps (i.e., so-called continuous growth) ~ very difficult (very low accommodation factors and low mobility)

2) Solid/vapor as well as smooth solid/liquid interfaces ~ similar manner



→ Problem of nucleation new ledges may often lead to a degree of interface control on the overall rate.

- **Fig. 3. 60** (a) Growth ledges at an Mg₂Si plate in Al-1.5 wt% Mg₂Si, solution treated and aged 2h at 350 ℃. Dark field micrograph.
 - (b) Schematic diagram of (a) showing ledges on Mg₂Si plate.





Note that growth ledges are usually hundreds of atoms layers high. 성장 돌출맥의 층 두께는 보통 수백 원자층 두께

The <u>mechanism of interface migration</u> can have <u>important effects on</u> <u>the shape of second-phase inclusions.</u> (section 3.4.2)

- if absence of strain E effect, equilibrium shape of a precipitate should be determined by

a) the relative energies of the bounding interfaces (dominant) γ-plot 계면 E의 상대적 비

ex) a partially coherent precipitate~disk or plate shape with an aspect ratio of $\gamma i / \gamma c$

b) (in practice) "relative rates" at which the coherent and incoherent interface can migrate

정합/ 부정합 계면의 상대적인 이동속도 차에 의해 형상 변화

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 - Second-Phase Shape $\sum A_i \gamma_i + \Delta G_s = minimum$

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Coherent / Semi-coherent / incoherent Misfit Strain Effects

- Coherency Loss
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e.g. Solid/Liquid Interfaces

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Classification of Heterogeneous (Nucleation and Growth) Transformation 30

Classification of Heterogeneous (Nucleation and Growth) Transformation

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Contents of this course_Phase transformation

Background to understand phase transformation (Ch1) Thermodynamics and Phase Diagrams

(Ch2) Diffusion: Kinetics

(Ch3) Crystal Interface and Microstructure

(Ch4) Solidification: Liquid \rightarrow Solid

Representative Phase transformation

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

(Ch6) Diffusionless Transformations: Solid → Solid

* Homework 3 : Exercises 3 (pages 193-196)

until 30th October

- * Mid-term?
 - Good Luck!!



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Classification of Heterogeneous (Nucleation and Growth) Transformation 3



Fig. 3. 71 The total energy of matrix + precipitate vs. precipitate radius for spherical coherent and <u>non-coherent (semicoherent of incoherent)</u> precipitates.

Interphase Interfaces in Solid (α/β)

1) Glissile Interfaces (평활 이동 계면)



: epitaxial; Can't move forward or backward

(interface//burgers vector) → Non-glissile interface

: Glide of the interfacial disl. cannot cause the interface to advance

: Glissile; Boundary moves toward α or β

: <u>semi-coherent interfaces which can advance</u> by the coordinated glide of the interfacial disl.

Interfacial dislocations



Fig. 3. 55 The nature of a glissile interface.

The dislocations have a Burgers vector that can glide on matching planes in the adjacent lattices.

Slip planes : continuous across the interface

Gliding of the dislocation : α is sheared into the β structure. ⁵

Glissile Interfaces between two lattices







Fig. 3. 53 Two Shockley partial dislocation on alternate (111) planes create six layers of hcp stacking.



Fig. 3.54 An array of Shockley partial dislocations forming a glissile interface between fcc and hcp crystals.

3.5.6. Interface Migration

* Civilian Transformation



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Fig. 3. 56 Composition changes in a substitutional alloy caused by interface migration when the two adjoining phases have different compositions.

3.5.1. Diffusion-Controlled and Interface-Controlled Growth

Fig. 3.57 Interface migration with long-range diffusion

; the migration of interface separating two phases of different composition



(b) The origin of the driving force for boundary migration into the α -phase $\Delta \mu_{B}^{i}$ Corresponding flux across the interface (negative sign_negative direction of flux along the x-axis)



$$\Delta \mu_B^i \frac{1}{V_m} = \frac{Jmol^{-1}}{m^3 mol^{-1}}$$

Steady state at interface, $J_B^i = J_B^{\alpha}$

A flux of B atoms toward the interface by the concentration gradient in the α phase



Accommodation factor (A_수용인자)

Probability that an atom crossing the boundary will accommodated on arrival at the new phase ⁹

Phase transformation = Interface creation & Migration

Heterogeneous (No nucleation barrier, Growth-interface control) Transformation Classification of Heterogeneous (Nucleation and Growth) Transformation

Туре	Military	Civilian			
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Interface, diffusion or mixed control?	Interface control	✓ Interface control	Mainly interface control	Mainly diffusion control	Mixed control
Examples	Martensite twining	Massive ordering	Precipitation dissolution	Precipitation dissolution	Precipitation dissolution
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Composition of parent and product phases	Sa	ıme	Different				Different	Same
Nature of diffusion processes	Short (across	Short-range (across interface)				ttice)	Long-range	No diffusion
Interface, diffusion or mixed control?	Interface control		Mainly interface control	M dif cc	lainly fusion ontrol	Mixed control	Mainly diffusion control	Interface control
Example	Massive Ordering Polymorphic Recrystallization Grain growth Condensation Evaporation		Precipitation Dissolution Condensation Evaporation	Preci Diss Solid M	ipitation solution lification elting	Precipitation Dissolution Eutectoid Cellular Precipitation	Bainite γ' (Ag2Al) pptn.	Martensite (Twining, Symmetric, tilt boundary, migration)

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Solidification: Liquid ----- Solid



4 Fold Anisotropic Surface Energy/2 Fold Kinetics, Many Seeds



4 Fold Symmetric Dendrite Array

Contents for today's class

Solidification: Liquid ----> Solid

< Nucleation >

8

- Nucleation in Pure Metals
 - Homogeneous Nucleation
- Heterogeneous Nucleation
 - Nucleation of melting

< Growth >

- Equilibrium Shape and Interface Structure on an Atomic Scale
- Growth of a pure solid
- 1) Continuous growth
 - : Atomically rough or diffuse interface
- 2) Lateral growth
 - : Atomically flat of sharply defined interface
- Heat Flow and Interface Stability

Q: Undercooling of homogenous vs heterogenous nucleation ?

Solidification: Liquid ----- Solid

- casting & welding/additive manufacturing
- single crystal growth
- directional solidification
- rapid solidification
- 4.1. Nucleation in Pure Metals

 $T_{\rm m}$: $G_{\rm L}$ = $G_{\rm S}$

- Undercooling (supercooling) for nucleation: 250 K ~ 1 K
- <Types of nucleation>



- Homogeneous nucleation - Heterogeneous nucleation



Electrostatic levitation in KRISS



ESPark Research Group



Electrostatic Levitation: cooling curve of Vitreloy 1 system



Q: Homogenous nucleation (a) Driving force for solidification, ΔG_v (b) Calculation of ΔG_r , r*, ΔG^*

4.1.1. Homogeneous Nucleation

Driving force for solidification



4.1.1. Homogeneous Nucleation

Fig. 4.1 Homogeneous nucleation.



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

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

for spherical nuclei (isotropic) of radius : r

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

Calculation of critical radius, r*



Q: How do we define ΔT_N ?

The creation of a critical nucleus ~ thermally activated process



 ΔT_N is the critical undercooling for homogeneous nucleation.

Fig. 4.5 The variation of r^{*} and r_{max} with undercooling ΔT

→ Condition for nucleation: The number of clusters with r^* at T < ΔT_N is negligible.

② Formation of Atomic Cluster

At the $T_{\rm m}$, 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, n₀?





Formation of Atomic Cluster

 n_o : total # of atoms.

 ΔG_r : excess free energy associated with the cluster

k : Boltzmann's constant

<u># of cluster of radius r</u>

$$n_r = n_0 \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G_r}{kT}\right)$$

- holds for $T > T_m / T < T_m$ and $r \le r^*$ Apply for all $r / r \le r^*$ ($\because r > r^*:$ no longer part of the liquid) - n_r exponentially decreases with ΔG_r .

Ex. 1 mm³ of copper <u>at its melting point (n₀: 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>

The creation of a critical nucleus ~ thermally activated process



 ΔT_{N} is the critical undercooling for homogeneous nucleation.

Fig. 4.5 The variation of r* and r_{max} with undercooling ΔT

The number of clusters with r^* at $\Delta T < \Delta T_N$ is negligible. 31

4.1.2. The homogeneous nucleation rate - kinetics

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

C₀ : atoms/unit volume

 C^* : # of clusters with size of C^* (critical size) 임계핵 크기의 cluster 수

$$C^* = C_0 \exp(-\frac{\Delta G_{\text{hom}}^*}{kT})$$
 clusters / m³

The addition of one more atom to each of these clusters will convert theminto stable nuclei.한 개 원자 추가로 확산시 핵생성

Homogeneous
Nucleation rate
$$N_{\text{hom}} = f_0 C_o \exp(-\frac{\Delta G_{\text{hom}}^*}{kT})$$
 nuclei / m³·s

 $f_{o} \sim 10^{11} \text{ s}^{-1}: \text{ frequency } \propto \text{ vibration frequency energy} \\ \text{ of diffusion in liquid surface area (const.)} \quad \Delta G^{*} = \left(\frac{16\pi\gamma_{SL}^{3}T_{m}^{2}}{3L_{V}^{2}}\right) \frac{1}{(\Delta T)^{2}} \\ C_{o} \sim \text{ typically } 10^{29} \text{ atoms/m}^{3} \\ N_{\text{hom}} \approx 1 \text{ cm}^{-3}\text{ s}^{-1} \text{ when } \Delta \text{G}^{*} \sim 78 \text{ kT}$

Reasonable nucleation rate

4.1.2. The homogeneous nucleation rate - kinetics



 $N_{
m hom}$

* Copper Homogeneous nucleation

 $\Delta T = 230 \text{ K} \rightarrow \text{r*} \sim 10^{-7} \text{ cm} < 4 * (Diameter of Cu atom)$

If nucleus is spherical shape,

 $V = 4.2 * 10^{-21} \text{ cm}^3 \sim 360 \text{ atoms} (\because \text{one Cu atom } 1.16 * 10^{-23} \text{ cm}^3)$

"Typically in case of metal" $\Delta T * \sim 0.2 T_E / \sigma_{SL} \sim 0.4 L$ **r*** (critical nucleus for homogeneous nucleation) of metal ~ 200 atoms

But, if cluster radius ~ (only 4 * atom diameter),

"no spherical shape"

(large deviation from spherical shape) \rightarrow

- \rightarrow Possible structure for the critical nucleus of Cu
 - : bounded only by {111} and {100} plane
- σ_{SL} may very with the crystallographic nature of the surface.
- The faces of this crystal are close to their critical size for 2D nucleation at the critical temp for the nucleus as a whole.



Fig. 3.11. Possible structure for the critical nucleus. (From B. Chalmers, *Physical Metallurgy*, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1959, p. 246.)

Real behavior of nucleation: metal $\Delta T_{bulk} < \Delta T_{small drop}$

Under suitable conditions, liquid nickel can be undercooled (or supercooled) to 250 K below T_m (1453°C) and held there indefinitely without any transformation occurring.

Normally undercooling as large as 250 K are not observed. The nucleation of solid at undercooling of only ~ 1 K is common.

The formation of a nucleus of critical size can be <u>catalyzed by a suitable</u> surface in contact with the liquid. \rightarrow "Heterogeneous Nucleation"

Ex)	liquid	or	Solid thin film (such as oxide)		
	container	U	liquid		
Why [·]	this happens?	What is the	underlying physics?		

Which equation should we examine?

$$\Delta G^{*} = \frac{16\pi \gamma_{SL}^{3}}{3(\Delta G_{V})^{2}} = \left(\frac{16\pi \gamma_{SL}^{3} T_{m}^{2}}{3 L_{V}^{2}}\right) \frac{1}{(\Delta T)^{2}}$$

$$N_{\rm hom} = f_0 C_o \exp(-\frac{\Delta G_{\rm hom}^*}{kT})$$

How to obtain extensive undercooling

John H. PEREPEZKO, MSE, 65 (1984) 125-135 **Reduction of heterogeneous nucleation site** : Impurity isolation FLUID DROPLET DROPLE SOLID LIQUID SUBSTRATE LIQUID LIQUID HEATING LIQUID GLASS

By dispersing a liquid into a large number of small droplets within a suitable medium, the catalytic effects of active nucleants may be restricted to a small fraction of the droplets so that many droplets will exhibit extensive undercooling.

