Structure of Metals

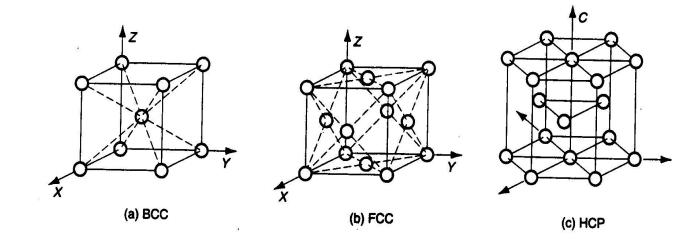
Metals – Basic Structure (Review)

Property

High stiffness, better toughness, good electrical conductivity, good thermal conductivity

Why metals have these nice properties

- structures at atomic level



Ways to change the structure

temperature, alloying, chemistry, mechanical

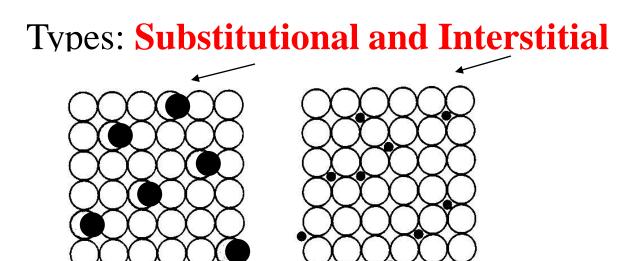
Pure metals and their Alloys

- Gold, silver, and copper may exist in applications as their pure form, but most of metals are alloyed.

An alloy is a metal comprised of <u>two or more</u>
<u>elements, at least one of which is metallic</u>. Two
main categories of alloys are: (1) solid solutions and
(2) intermediate phase.

Solid solutions: one element dissolved in another to form single-*phase* solution

Phase-Any homogeneous mass, metal with grains having same lattice structure



(a)

- Solid solution alloy structure stronger and harder

(b)

Conditions for <u>substitutional</u> solid solutions possible:
(1) The atomic radii of the two elements similar
(2) Their lattice types must be the same
(3) The lower valency metal becomes the solvent
(4) Their chemical affinity (similarity) is small

Example: **BRASS** (ZINC in COPPER)

Interstitial solid solution:

Atoms of **<u>dissolving element</u>** fit into <u>vacant spaces</u> between base metal atoms in <u>lattice structure</u>

- Solute atoms **small** compared to Solvent atoms

Example:

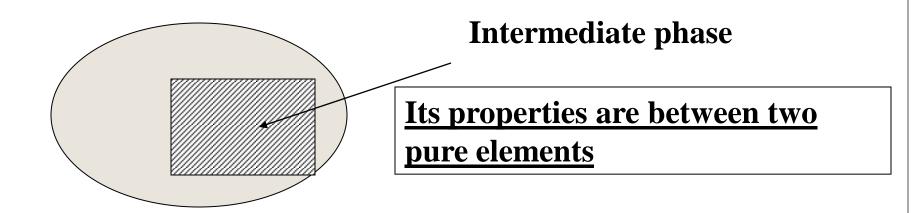
<u>Carbon</u> dissolved in <u>**Iron**</u> to form <u>**STEEL**</u>

Intermediate phases:

- Every element has a <u>limit</u> for its solubility of another element
- When element <u>A</u> completely dissolved into another element <u>B</u>, the whole system is one phase of that solid solution.

Intermediate phases:

• When the amount of the <u>dissolving element</u> in the <u>alloy</u> exceeds the <u>solid solubility limit of the base metal</u>, a second phase forms in the alloy.



Here, the system has two elements (A,B) and two phases: intermediate phase and solid solution (A,B)

METALLIC CRYSTALS

- tend to be **densely packed**
- have several reasons for dense packing:
 - Typically, only <u>one element is present</u>, so all <u>atomic radii</u> <u>are the same</u>.
 - -Metallic bonding is not directional.

-<u>Nearest neighbor distances</u> tend to be small in order to <u>lower bond energy</u>.

• have the <u>simplest crystal structures</u>.

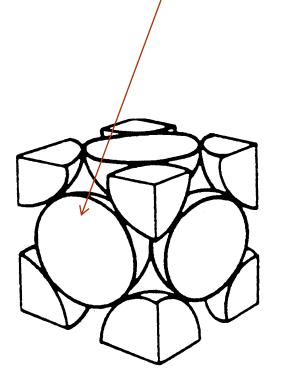
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Three structures are found, we will look at three such structures...

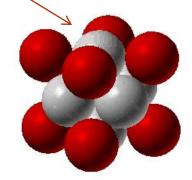
1. Face-Centered Cubic (FCC)

- This structure is <u>found in many metals</u> with atoms centered at each of the corners and center of all cube faces. eg: Cu, Al, silver, gold
- For this structure, each <u>corner atom is shared among eight</u> <u>unit cells</u>, whereas a face centered atom belongs to only two.
- Two characteristics are: <u>Coordination number and</u> <u>Atomic Packing factor (APF)</u>

Coordination *#* **= 12**



--Note: All atoms are identical; the face-centered atoms are shaded differently only for ease of viewing.



APF = Volume of atoms in unit cell* Volume of unit cell *assume hard spheres

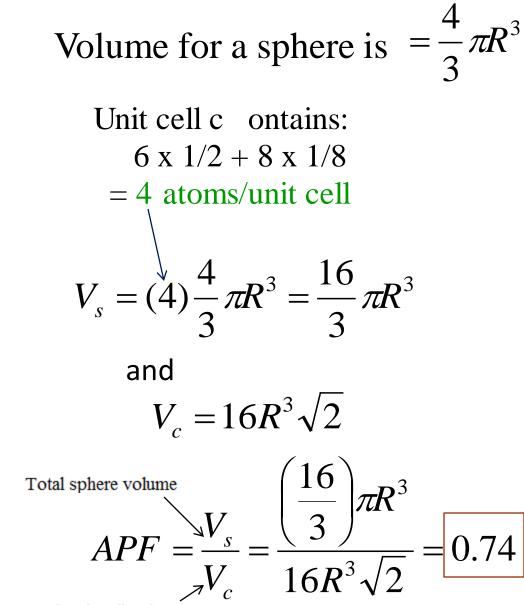
• APF for a face-centered cubic structure = 0.74 (how?)

а

$$a^{2} + a^{2} = (4R)$$
$$2a^{2} = 16R^{2}$$
$$a^{2} = 8R^{2}$$
$$a = 2R\sqrt{2}$$

The FCC unit cell volume Vc may be computed from

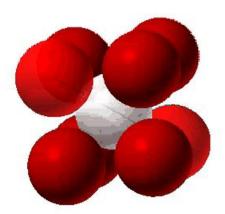
$$V_c = a^3 = (2R\sqrt{2})^3 = 16R^3\sqrt{2}$$

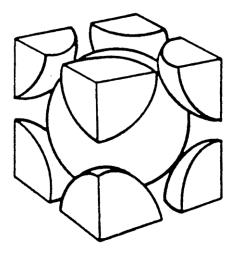


Total Unit cell volume

2. Body-Centered Cubic (BCC)

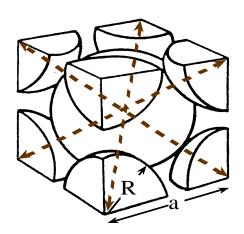
- Close packed directions are cube diagonals
- --Note: All atoms are identical; the center atom is shaded differently only for ease of viewing. eg: Cr, Iron (alpha), Molybdenum





Coordination # = 8

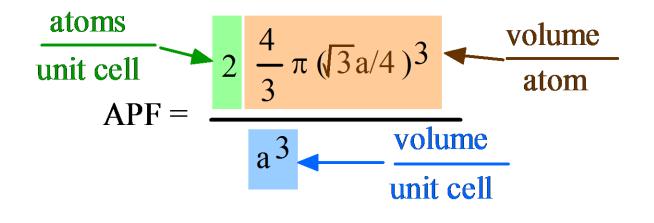
APF for a body-centered cubic structure = 0.68



Close-packed directions: length = 4R = $\sqrt{3}$ a Unit cell c ontains:

 $1 + 8 \ge 1/8$

= 2 atoms/unit cell



Show that the atomic packing factor for BCC is 0.68? Solution:

$$APF = \frac{V_S}{V_C}$$

Since there are two spheres associated with each unit cell for BCC

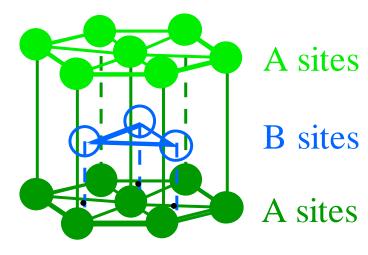
$$V_{\rm S} = 2 \,(\text{sphere volume}) = 2 \left(\frac{4\pi R^3}{3}\right) = \frac{8\pi R^3}{3}$$

Also, the unit cell has cubic symmetry, that is $V_C = a^3$. But a depends on R according to Equation 3.3,

$$V_C = \left(\frac{4R}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^3 = \frac{64R^3}{3\sqrt{3}}$$
$$APF = \frac{V_S}{V_C} = \frac{8\pi R^3 / 3}{64R^3 / 3\sqrt{3}} = 0.68$$

3. Hexagonal Closed Packed Structure (HCP)

3D Projection



- Coordination # = 12
 - APF = 0.74
 2D Projection

Top layer Middle layer

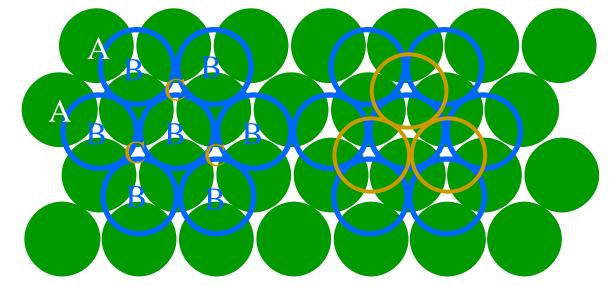
Bottom layer

• ABAB... Stacking Sequence

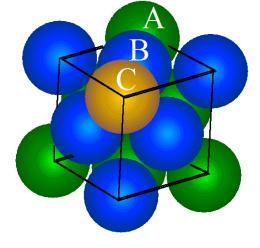
Stacking Sequence: FCC

- ABCABC... Stacking Sequence
- 2D Projection

A sites B sites C sites



• FCC Unit Cell



Density Computations-Metals # atoms/unit cell Atomic weight (g/mol) n V_cN_A. Volume/unit cell Avogadro's number (6.023 x 10^{23} atoms/mol) $(\text{cm}^{3}/\text{unit cell})$

Example

Copper has an atomic radius of 0.128nm, an FCC crystal structure, and an atomic weight of 63.5 g/mol. Compute its theoretical density and compare the answer with its measured density.

Solution:

Data from Table inside front cover of Callister (see next slide):

- crystal structure = FCC: 4 atoms/unit cell
- atomic weight = 63.55 g/mol (1 amu = 1 g/mol)
- atomic radius R = 0.128 nm (1 nm = 10 cm)

$$V_{c} = a^{3}$$
; For FCC, $a = 4R/2$; $V_{c} = 4.75 \times 10^{-23} \text{ cm}^{3}$ Actual=
 $\rho = \frac{nA}{V_{c}N_{A}} = \frac{4 \times 63.5}{4.75 \times 10^{-23} \times 6.02 \times 10^{23}} = 8.89 g / cm^{3}$

Welding Processes

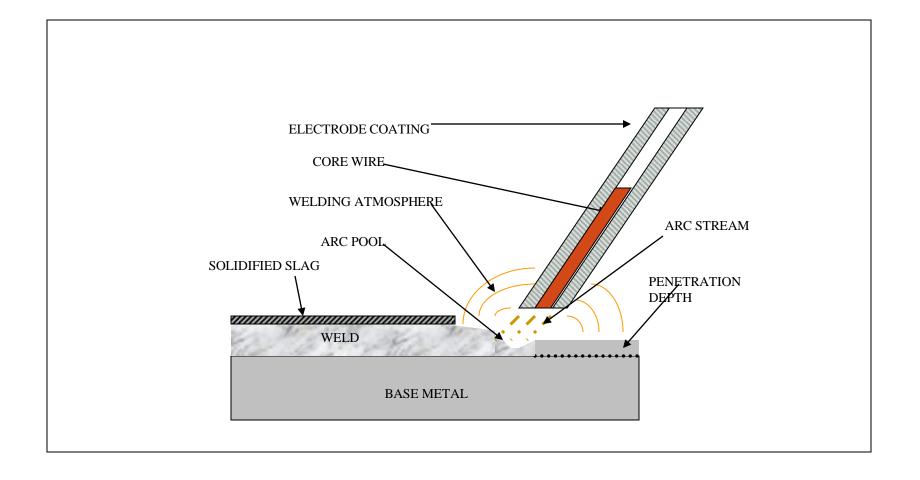
Weldability of a Metal

- Metallurgical Capacity
 - <u>Parent metal</u> will join with the weld metal without formation of deleterious constituents or alloys.
- Mechanical Soundness
 - Joint will be <u>free from discontinuities</u>, gas porosity, shrinkage, slag, or cracks
- Serviceability
 - Weld is able to perform under varying conditions or service (e.g., <u>extreme temperatures, corrosive</u> <u>environments, fatigue, high pressures</u>, etc.)

Fusion Welding Principles

- **Base metal** is melted
- Filler metal may be added
- Heat is supplied by various means
 - Oxyacetylene gas
 - Electric Arc
 - Plasma Arc
 - Laser

Fusion Welding



Weld Metal Protection

- During fusion welding, the molten metal in the weld "<u>puddle</u>" is susceptible to oxidation
- Must protect weld puddle (arc pool) from the atmosphere

Methods

- Weld fluxes
- Inert Gases
- Vacuum

Weld Fluxes

- Typical fluxes (fluxes facilitate soldering)
 - SiO₂, TiO₂, FeO, MgO, Al₂O₃
 - Produces a gaseous shield to prevent contamination
 - Act as **<u>scavengers</u>** (like hunter) to reduce oxides
 - Add **alloying elements** to the weld
 - Influence shape of weld bead during solidification

Inert Gases

- Argon, helium, nitrogen, and carbon dioxide
- Form a protective **envelope** around the weld area
- Used in
 - MIG
 - TIG
 - Shield Metal Arc

Vacuum

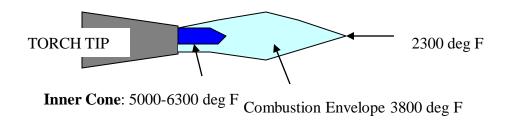
- Produce high-quality welds
- Used in <u>electron beam welding</u>
- Nuclear/special metal applications
 - Zr, Hf, Ti
- Reduces <u>impurities by a factor of 20</u> versus other methods
- Expensive and time-consuming

Types of Fusion Welding

- **Oxyacetylene** Cutting/Welding
- Shielded Metal Arc ("<u>Stick</u>")
- Metal Inert Gas (<u>MIG</u>)
- Tungsten Inert Gas (<u>TIG</u>)

Oxyacetylene Welding

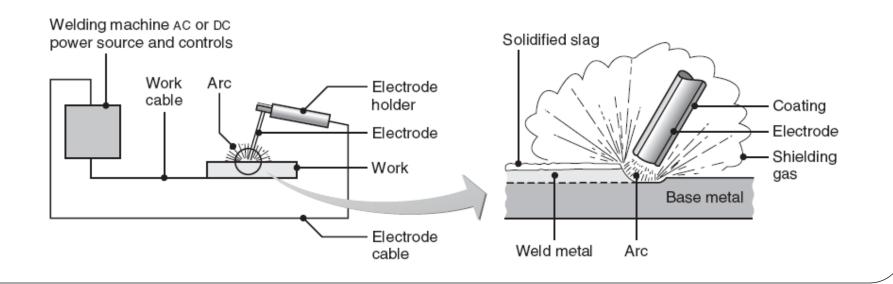
 Flame formed by burning a mix of acetylene (C₂H₂) and oxygen



- Fusion of metal is achieved by passing the inner cone of the flame over the metal
- Oxyacetylene can also be used for cutting metals

Shielded Metal Arc (Stick)

- An electric arc is generated between a <u>coated electrode</u> and the parent metal
- The coated electrode carries the electric current to form the arc, produces a gas to control the atmosphere and provides filler metal for the weld bead
- Electric current may be AC or DC. If the current is DC, the polarity will affect the <u>weld size</u> and <u>application</u>

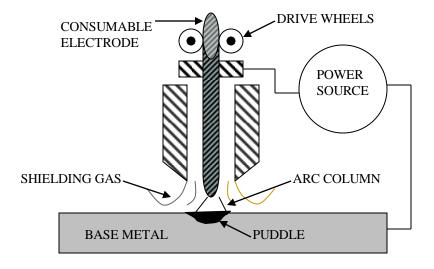


Inert Gas Welding

 For materials such as AI or Ti which quickly form oxide layers, a method to place an inert atmosphere around the weld puddle had to be developed

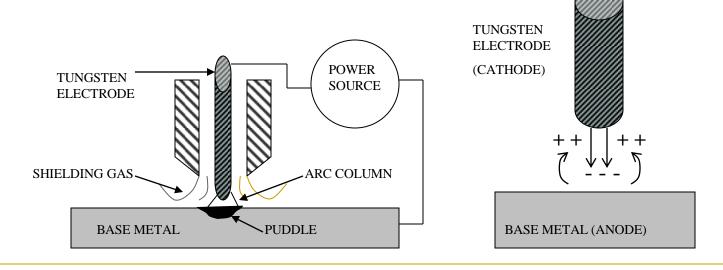
Metal Inert Gas (MIG)

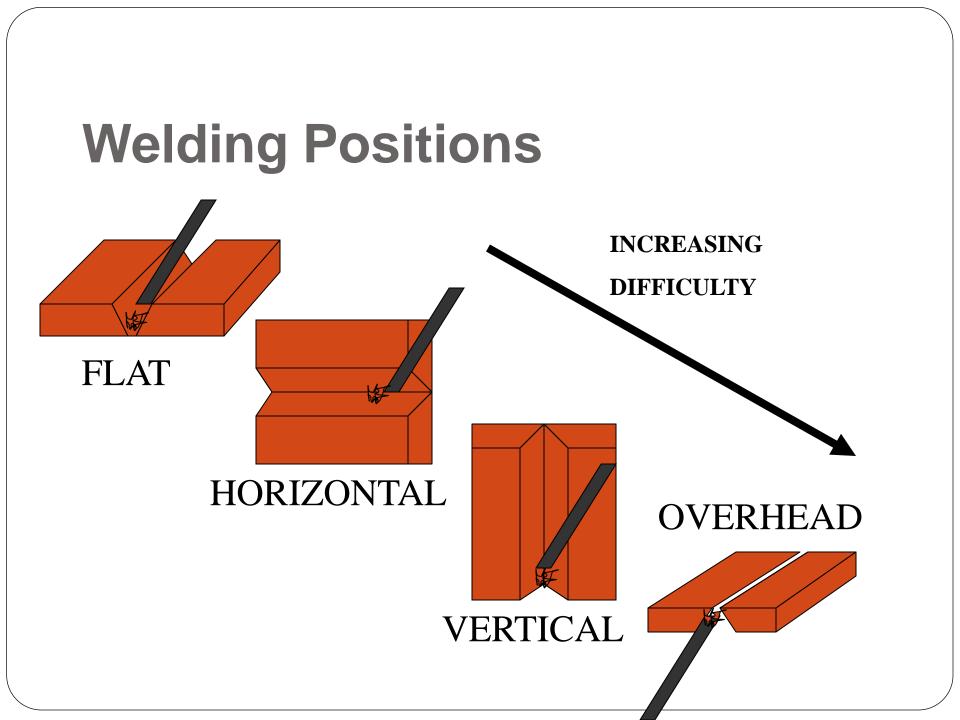
- Uses a consumable electrode (filler wire made of the base metal)
- Inert gas is typically Argon



Tungsten Inert Gas (TIG)

- Tungsten electrode acts as a <u>cathode</u>
- A <u>plasma</u> is produced between the <u>tungsten</u>
 <u>cathode</u> and the <u>base metal</u> which heats the base metal to its melting point
- Filler metal can be added to the weld pool





Weld Defects

Undercuts/Overlaps



Grain Growth

 A wide ∆T will exist between base metal. Preheating and cooling methods will affect the brittleness of the metal in this region

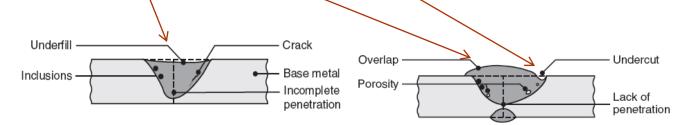
Blowholes

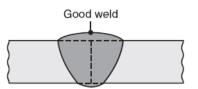
 Are cavities caused by gas entrapment during the solidification of the weld puddle. Prevented by proper weld technique (even temperature and speed)

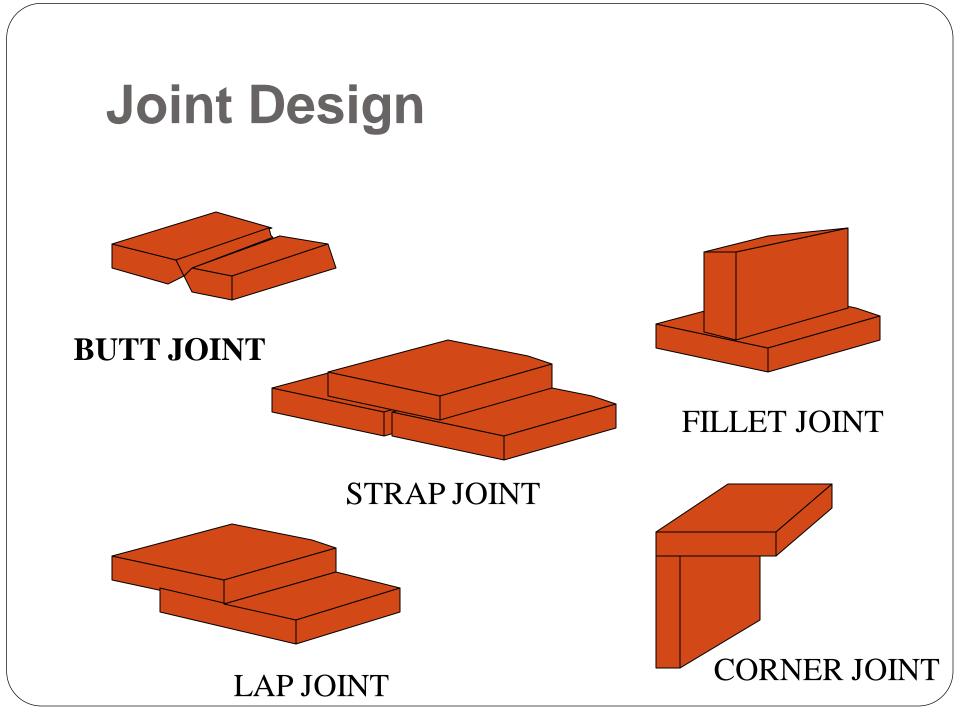
Weld Defects

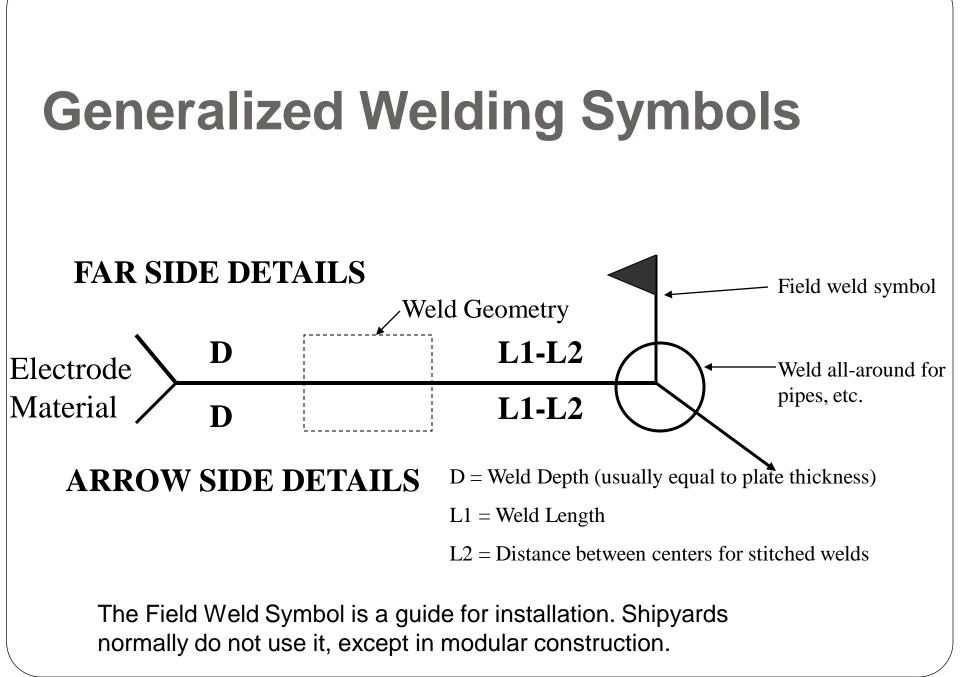
Weld profile

- Affects the strength and appearance of the weld.
- **Under-filling** is due to joint not filled with proper amount of weld metal.
- **Undercutting** is due to melting away of base metal.
- Overlap is a surface discontinuity due to poor welding practice.

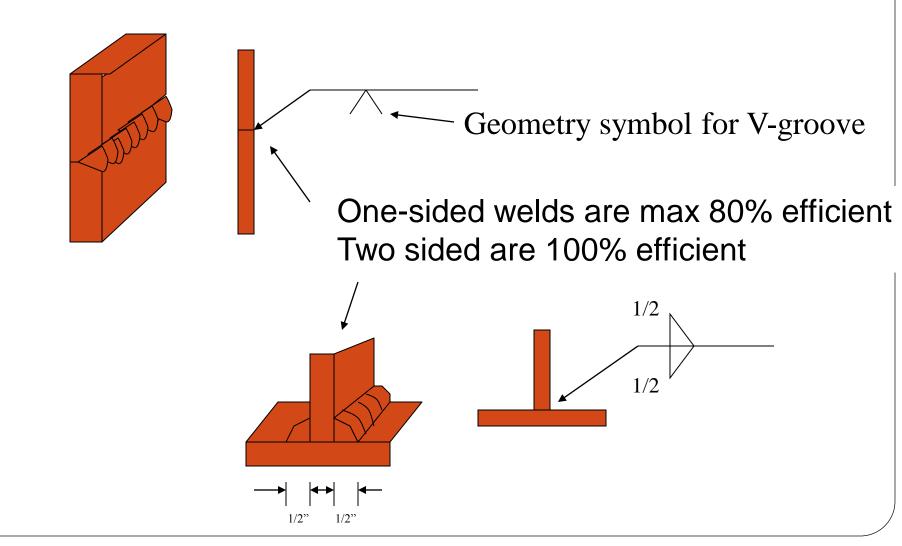


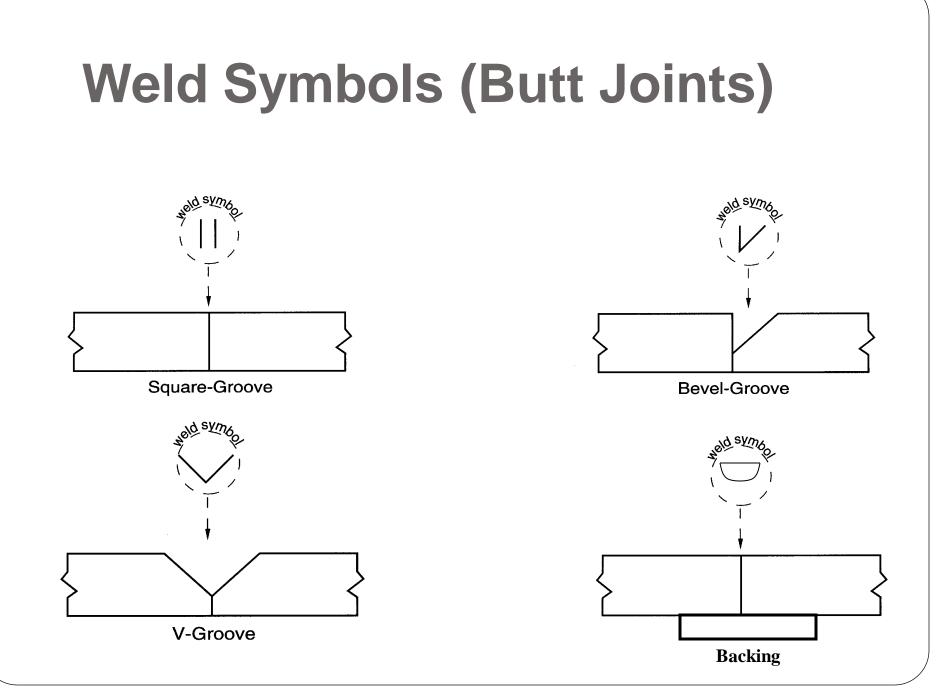




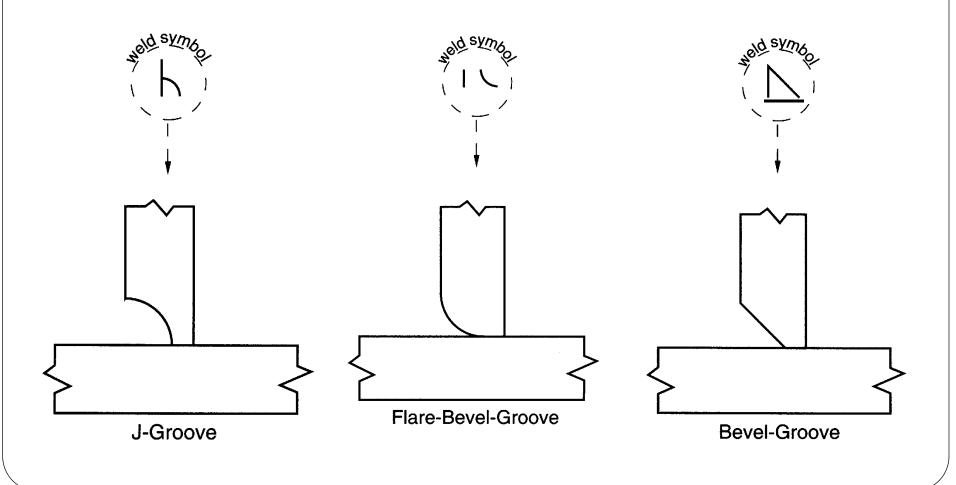


Example Welding Symbol

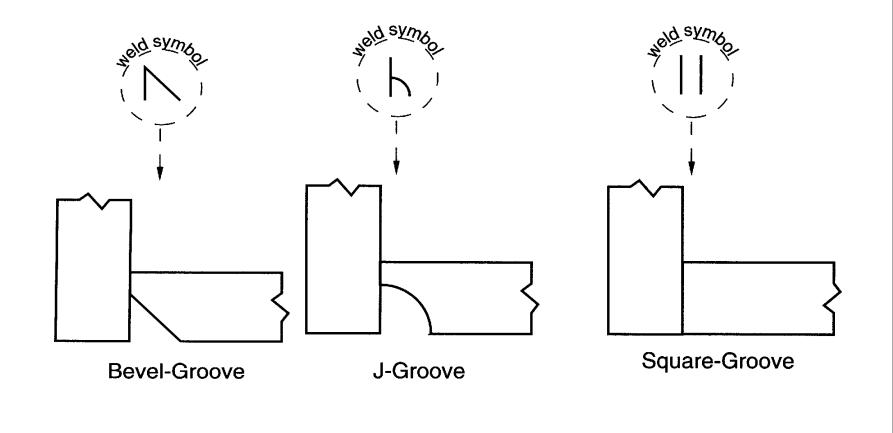




Weld Symbol (Fillet Joints)



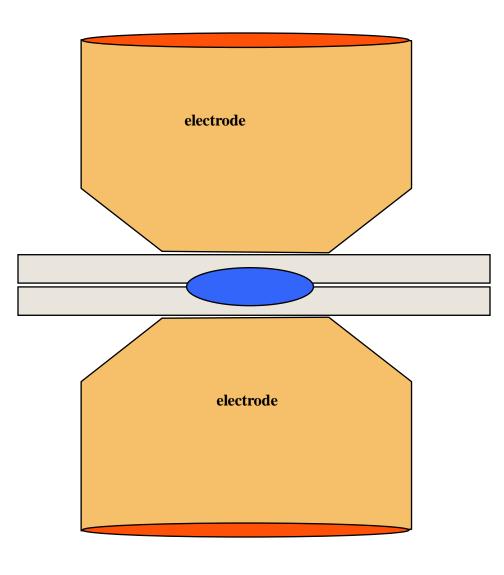
Weld Symbol (Corner Joints)

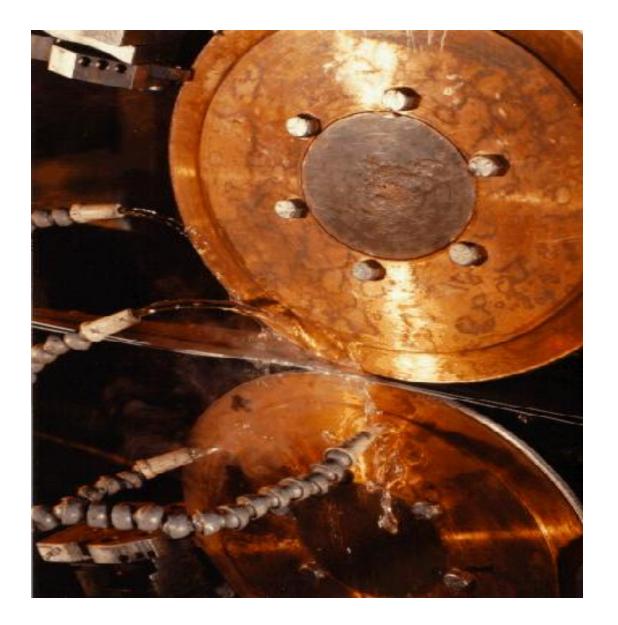


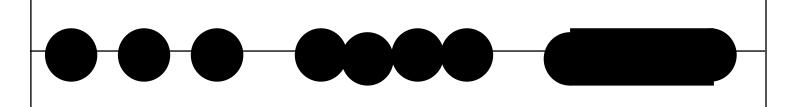
Resistance Welding (Spot Welding)

- The resistance of metal to the localized flow of current produces heat
- Process variables
 - Current
 - Time
 - Force
- Spot and seam welding









Roll spot weld

Overlapping seam weld

Continuous seam weld

Resistance Welding Advantages

- High speed, < 0.1 seconds in automotive spot welds
- Excellent for sheet metal applications, $< \frac{1}{4}$ -inch
- No filler metal

Process Disadvantages and Limitations



- Higher equipment costs than arc welding
- Power line demands
- Nondestructive testing
- Low tensile and fatigue strength
- Not portable
- Electrode wear
- Lap joint requires additional metal

Questions