



Introduction

- Basic concepts
- The kinetics of phase transformations
- Metastable versus equilibrium states
- Isothermal transformation diagrams
- Continuous cooling transformation diagrams
- Mechanical behavior of iron-carbon alloys
- Tempered martensite
- Review of phase transformations and mechanical properties for iron-carbon alloys

Phase Transformations



Phase transformations occur, when phase boundaries (the red curves) on these plots are crossed as temp. and/or pressure is changed.

Upon passing across the solid-gas phase
 boundary of the CO₂ phase diagram, dry ice
 (solid CO₂) sublimes (gaseous CO₂).
 an arrow delineates this phase transformation

Phase Transformations

ISSUES TO ADDRESS...

• Transforming one phase into another takes time.

- How does the rate of transformation depend on time and temperature?
- Is it possible to slow down transformations so that non-equilibrium structures are formed?
- Are the mechanical properties of non-equilibrium structures more desirable than equilibrium ones?

Three types of phase transformation

- Simple diffusion-dependent transformations -- no change in either the number or composition of the phase present.
 - solidification of a pure metal, allotropic transformations, recrystallization, grain growth.
- Diffusion-dependent transformations -- some alteration in phase compositions and often in the number of phases present; the final micro-structure ordinarily consists of two phases.
 - eutectoid reaction.
- **Diffusionless**, wherein a metastable phase is produced.
 - martensitic transformation.

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• Phase transformation

- At least one new phase is formed that has different physical/chemical characteristics and/or a different structure than the parent phase.

- Begin by the formation of numerous small particles of the new phase(s), which increase in size until the transformation has reached completion.

• Gibbs free energy

- Gibbs free energy is a function of the internal energy of the system (enthalpy, *H*) and a measurement of the randomness or disorder of the atoms or molecules (entropy, *S*). (G = H-TS)

- A transformation will occur spontaneously only when the change in free energy ΔG has a negative value.

Phase transformation may be broken down into two distinct stages:

- Nucleation (孕核,成核)
 - Nucleation involves the appearance of very small particles, or nuclei of the new phase, which are capable of growing.
 - For the homogeneous type, nuclei of the new phase form uniformly throughout the parent phase, whereas for the heterogeneous type, nuclei form preferentially at structural inhomogeneities, such as, container surfaces, insoluble impurities, grain boundaries, dislocations, and so on.

• Growth

During the growth stage these nuclei increase in size, which results in the disappearance of some (or all) of the parent phase. The transformation reaches completion if the growth of these new phase particles is allowed to proceed until the equilibrium fraction is attained.

Phase Transformations

Nucleation

- nuclei (seeds) act as templates on which crystals grow
- for nucleus to form rate of addition of atoms to nucleus must be faster than rate of loss
- once nucleated, growth proceeds until equilibrium is attained

Driving force to nucleate increases as we increase ΔT

- supercooling (eutectic, eutectoid)
- superheating (peritectic)

Small supercooling \rightarrow slow nucleation rate - few nuclei - large crystals

Large supercooling \rightarrow rapid nucleation rate - many nuclei - small crystals

Solidification: Nucleation Types

- Homogeneous nucleation
 - nuclei form in the bulk of liquid metal
 - requires considerable supercooling (typically 80-300°C)

- Heterogeneous nucleation
 - much easier since stable "nucleating surface" is already present — e.g., mold wall, impurities in liquid phase
 - only very slight supercooling (0.1-10°C)

Homogeneous Nucleation & Energy Effects

 $r^* = critical nucleus$: for $r < r^*$ nuclei shrink; for $r > r^*$ nuclei grow (to reduce energy)

Kinetics of Phase Transformations

$$\Delta G = V \Delta G_{\nu} + A\gamma = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \Delta G_{\nu} + 4\pi r^2 \gamma \qquad (10.1)$$

$$\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dr} = 4\pi r^2 \Delta G_v + 8\pi r\gamma = 0$$
(10.2)

When
$$r = r^* \Rightarrow r^* = -\frac{2\gamma}{\Delta G_v}$$
 (10.3)

$$\Rightarrow \Delta G^* = \frac{4}{3} \pi \left(-\frac{2\gamma}{\Delta G_v}\right)^3 \Delta G_v + 4\pi \left(-\frac{2\gamma}{\Delta G_v}\right)^2 \gamma = \frac{16\pi\gamma^3}{3(\Delta G_v)^2}$$
(10.4)

V: volume of spherical nucleus,

 ΔG_{v} : volume free energy,

A: surface area of spherical nucleus,

 γ : surface free energy,

r: radius of spherical nucleus,

 r^* : critical radius of spherical nucleus,

 ΔG^* : critical free energy, activation energy

 ΔG_{v} : volume free energy

$$\Delta G_{v} = \frac{\Delta H_{f}(T_{m} - T)}{T_{m}}$$

Solidification

- r^* = critical radius
- γ = surface free energy
- T_m = melting temperature
- ΔH_f = latent heat of solidification
- $\Delta T = T_m T =$ supercooling

Note: ΔH_f and γ are weakly dependent on ΔT

. r^* decreases as ΔT increases

For typical ΔT $r^* \sim 10$ nm

- The volume free energy change ΔG_v is the driving force for the solidification transformation, and its magnitude is a function of temperature. At the equilibrium solidification temperature T_m , the value of ΔG_v is zero, and with diminishing temperature its value becomes increasingly more negative. It can be shown that ΔG_v is a function of temperature as

$$\Delta G_{\nu} = \frac{\Delta H_{f}(T_{m} - T)}{T_{m}}$$

$$\Rightarrow r^{*} = -\frac{2\gamma}{\Delta G_{\nu}} = -\frac{2\gamma}{\frac{\Delta H_{f}(T_{m} - T)}{T_{m}}} = \left(-\frac{2\gamma T_{m}}{\Delta H_{f}}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{T_{m} - T}\right)$$

$$(10.5)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta G^{*} = \frac{16\pi\gamma^{3}}{3(\Delta G_{\nu})^{2}} = \frac{16\pi\gamma^{3}}{3\left[\frac{\Delta H_{f}(T_{m} - T)}{T_{m}}\right]^{2}} = \left(\frac{16\pi\gamma^{3}T_{m}^{2}}{3\Delta H_{f}^{2}}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{(T_{m} - T)^{2}}$$

$$(10.7)$$

 ΔH_f : latent heat of fusion, T_m : equilibrium melting temperature (K), *T*: real solidification temperature (K).

- Both the critical radius r^* and the activation free energy ΔG^* decrease as temperature *T* decreases. With a lowering of temperature at temperatures below the equilibrium solidification temperature (T_m) , nucleation occurs more readily.

Kinetics of Phase Transformations

- Supposed that there is a spherical embryo has a radius of r^* . If this embryo catches an atom, then it will become a stable nucleus, and it will grow up, since its Gibbs free energy gets smaller. If this embryo loses an atom, then it will disappear later because of the decrease of Gibbs free energy. Therefore, the computation of nucleation rate can be treated as two steps. The first is the probability of forming a embryo with a radius of r^* . The second is that the rate of this embryo getting an additional atom.

- The number of stable nuclei *n** (having radii greater than *r**) is a function of temperature as

$$n^* = K_1 \exp(-\frac{\Delta G^*}{kT}) \tag{10.8}$$

K_I : total number of nuclei of the solid phase.

- As the temperature is lowered below T_m , the exponential term in Equation 10.8 also decreases such that the magnitude of n^* increases.

- The diffusion effect is related to the frequency at which atoms from the liquid attach themselves to the solid nucleus, v_d .

10)

Temperature

$$v_d = K_2 \exp(-\frac{Q_d}{kT}) \tag{10.9}$$

 Q_d : temperature-independent activation energy for diffusion,

 K_2 : temperature-independent constant.

- The nucleation rate is simply proportional to the product of n^* and v_d .

$$\overset{\bullet}{N} = K_1 K_2 K_3 \exp(-\frac{\Delta G^*}{kT}) \exp(-Q_d / kT)$$
 (10.

- Note (Fig. 10.4c) that, with a lowering of temperature from below T_m , the nucleation rate first increases, achieves a maximum, and subsequently diminishes.

FIGURE 10.4 For solidification, schematic plots of (c) nucleation rate versus temperature.

Table 10.1	Degree of Supercooling (ΔT) Values
	(Homogeneous Nucleation) for
	Several Metals

Metal	ΔT (°C)	
Antimony	135	
Germanium	227	
Silver	227	
Gold	230	
Copper	236	
Iron	295	
Nickel	319	
Cobalt	330	
Palladium	332	

Source: D. Turnbull and R. E. Cech, "Microscopic Observation of the Solidification of Small Metal Droplets," *J. Appl. Phys.*, **21**, 808 (1950).

• Heterogeneous nucleation

- It is easier for nucleation to occur at surfaces and interfaces than at other sites. This type of nucleation is termed heterogeneous.
- Let us consider the nucleation, on a flat surface, of a solid particle from a liquid phase. It is assumed that both the liquid and solid phases "wet" this flat surface. Taking a surface tension force balance in the plane of the flat surface (Fig. 10.5) leads to the following expression:

Kinetics of Phase Transformations

$$A_{SI} = \pi (r \sin \theta)^{2}$$

$$A_{SL} = 2\pi r^{2} (1 - \cos \theta)$$

$$V_{S} = \frac{\pi r^{3}}{3} (2 - 3\cos \theta + \cos^{3} \theta)$$

$$\gamma_{IL} = \gamma_{SI} + \gamma_{SL} \cos \theta$$

$$\Delta G_{het} = V_{S} \Delta G_{v} + A_{SL} \gamma_{SL} + A_{SI} \gamma_{SI} - A_{SI} \gamma_{IL}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta G_{het} = \Delta G \cdot S(\theta)$$

$$\Delta G = \frac{4\pi r^{3}}{3} \Delta G_{v} + 4\pi r^{2} \gamma_{SL}$$

$$S(\theta) = \frac{(2 + \cos \theta)(1 - \cos \theta)^{2}}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow r^{*} = -\frac{2\gamma_{SL}}{\Delta G_{v}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta G_{het}^{*} = \frac{16\pi \gamma_{SL}^{3}}{3(\Delta G_{v})^{2}} \cdot S(\theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta G_{het}^{*} = \Delta G_{hom}^{*} \cdot S(\theta)$$

$$21$$

The $S(\theta)$ of this last equation is a function only of θ , which will have a numerical value between zero and unity.

- The critical radius r^* for heterogeneous nucleation is the same as for homogeneous, inasmuch as γ_{SL} is the same surface energy as γ in Equation 10.3 ($r^* = -2\gamma / \Delta G_{\nu}$).

$$\Delta G_{het}^* = S(\theta) \cdot \Delta G_{hom}^*$$
(10.15)

- In Fig. 10.6, the lower ΔG^* for heterogeneous means that a smaller energy must be overcome during the nucleation process (than for homogeneous).

FIGURE 10.6 Schematic free energy-versus- *AG* embryo/nucleus radius plot on which is presented curves for both homogeneous and heterogeneous nucleation. Critical free energies and the critical radius are also shown.

- In terms of the nucleation rate, the *N*-versus-*T* curve is shifted to higher temperatures for heterogeneous. This effect is represented in Fig. 10.7, which also shows that a much smaller degree of supercooling (ΔT) is required for heterogeneous nucleation. $T_m = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - 1}}$

Temperature

FIGURE 10.7 Nucleation rate versus temperature for both homogeneous and heterogeneous nucleation. Degree of supercooling (ΔT) for each is also shown.

Nucleation rate

• Growth

- The growth step in a phase transformation begins once an embryo has exceeded the critical size, r^* , and becomes a stable nucleus.
- Particle growth occurs by long-range atomic diffusion, which normally involves several steps-for example, diffusion through the parent phase, across a phase boundary, and then into the nucleus. Consequently, the growth rate *G* is determined by the rate of diffusion, and its temperature dependence is the same as for the diffusion coefficient.

$$\dot{G} = C \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{Q}{kT}\right)$$
(10.16)

- Q: activation energy, independent of temperature;
- C: constant, independent of temperature.

FIGURE 10.8 Schematic plot showing curves for nucleation rate (N), growth rate (G), and overall transformation versus temperature.

- At a specific temperature, the overall transformation rate is equal to some product of N and G.
- Whereas the treatment on transformations has been developed for solidification, the same general principles also apply to solid-solid and solid-gas transformations.
- The rate of transformation and the time required for the transformation to proceed to some degree of completion are inversely proportional to one another.
- The kinetics of phase transformations are often represented using logarithm timeversus-temperature plots (Fig. 10.9).

FIGURE 10.9 Schematic plots of (a) transformation rate versus temperature, and (b) logarithm time versus temperature. The curves in both (a) and (b) are generated from the same set of data-i.e., for horizontal axes, the time is just the reciprocal of the rate from plot (a).

- Transformation rate-versus-temperature curve
 - 1. The size of the product phase particles will depend on transformation temperature. For example, for transformations that occur at temperature near T_m , corresponding to low nucleation and high growth rates, few nuclei form that grow rapidly. Thus, the resulting microstructure will consist of few and relatively large phase particles.
 - 2. When a material is cooled very rapidly through the temperature range encompassed by the transformation rate curve to a relatively low temperature where the rate is extremely low, it is possible to produce nonequilibrium phase structures.

Rate of Phase Transformations

Kinetics - study of reaction rates of phase transformations

- To determine reaction rate measure degree of transformation as function of time (while holding temp constant)
 - How is degree of transformation measured?
 - X-ray diffraction many specimens required
 - electrical conductivity measurements on single specimen
 - measure propagation of sound waves on single specimen

Rate of Phase Transformation

Temperature Dependence of Transformation Rate

• For the recrystallization of Cu, since

 $rate = 1/t_{0.5}$

rate increases with increasing temperature

• Rate often so slow that attainment of equilibrium state not possible!

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Transformations & Undercooling

- Eutectoid transf. (Fe-Fe₃C system):
- cool to below 727°C (i.e., must "undercool")

The Fe-Fe₃C Eutectoid Transformation

• Transformation of austenite to pearlite:

Coarse pearlite \rightarrow formed at higher temperatures – relatively soft Fine pearlite \rightarrow formed at lower temperatures – relatively hard Generation of Isothermal Transformation Diagrams

Consider:

- The Fe-Fe₃C system, for $C_0 = 0.76$ wt% C
- A transformation temperature of 675°C.

Austenite-to-Pearlite Isothermal Transformation

- Eutectoid composition, $C_0 = 0.76$ wt% C
- Begin at *T* > 727°C
- Rapidly cool to 625°C
- Hold T (625°C) constant (isothermal treatment)

Transformations Involving Noneutectoid Compositions

Consider $C_0 = 1.13$ wt% C

T(°C` T(°C 900 1600 Α 1400 800 Fe₃C (cementite) T_E (727°C) А $\gamma + L$ 1200 L+Fe₃C (austenite) 700 D 1000 $\gamma + Fe_3C$ 600 800 727°C α + Fe₃C 600 500 10³ 10² 104 10 1 400 2 3 4 5 6.7 6 time (s) (Ĕe) C, wt%C

Hypereutectoid composition – proeutectoid cementite

Bainite: Another Fe-Fe₃C Transformation Product

Spheroidite: Another Microstructure for the Fe-

Fe₃C System

- Spheroidite:
 - -- Fe₃C particles within an α -ferrite matrix
 - -- formation requires diffusion
 - -- heat bainite or pearlite at temperature just below eutectoid for long times
 - -- driving force -- reduction

of α -ferrite/Fe₃C interfacial area

Martensite: A Nonequilibrium Transformation Product

- Martensite:
 - -- γ (FCC) to Martensite (BCT)

Isothermal Transf. Diagram

Austenite

- γ to martensite (M) transformation..
 - -- is rapid! (diffusionless)
 - -- % transf. depends only on T to which rapidly cooled

Martensite Formation

Martensite (M) – single phase – has body centered tetragonal (BCT) crystal structure

Diffusionless transformation BCT if $C_0 > 0.15$ wt% C BCT \rightarrow few slip planes \rightarrow hard, brittle

Phase Transformations of Alloys

4340 Alloy Steel

Effect of adding other elements Change transition temp.

Cr, Ni, Mo, Si, Mn retard $\gamma \rightarrow \alpha$ + Fe₃C reaction (and formation of

pearlite, bainite)

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Continuous Cooling Transformation Diagrams

Conversion of isothermal transformation diagram to continuous cooling transformation diagram

Isothermal Heat Treatment Example Problems

On the isothermal transformation diagram for a 0.45 wt% C, Fe-C alloy, sketch and label the time-temperature paths to produce the following microstructures:

- a) 42% proeutectoid ferrite and 58% coarse pearlite
- b) 50% fine pearlite and 50% bainite
- c) 100% martensite
- d) 50% martensite and 50% austenite

Solution to Part (a) of Example Problem 42% proeutectoid ferrite and 58% coarse pearlite a) Fe-Fe₃C phase diagram, for $C_0 = 0.45$ wt% C Isothermally treat at ~ 680°C 800 Α+α T(°C) -- all austenite transforms to proeutectoid α and A + P coarse pearlite. 600 $W_{\text{pearlite}} = \frac{C_0 - 0.022}{0.76 - 0.022}$ A + BΑ 50% 400 M (start <u>M (50%)</u> $= \frac{0.45 - 0.022}{0.76 - 0.022}$ = 0.58<u>M (90%)</u> 200 $W_{\alpha'} = 1 - 0.58 = 0.42$ O **10**³ 10 0.1 **10**⁵ time (s 44

Solution to Part (b) of Example Problem b) 50% fine pearlite and 50% bainite Fe-Fe₃C phase diagram, for $C_0 = 0.45$ wt% C Isothermally treat at ~ 590°C $T(^{\circ}C)$ **A** + α Α - 50% of austenite transforms 4 + P to fine pearlite. 600 Then isothermally treat A + B Α at ~ 470°C 50% 400 - all remaining austenite M (start <u>M (50%)</u> transforms to bainite. <u>M (90%)</u> 200 Ω 10 1**0**3 0.1 **10**⁵ time (s)

Solutions to Parts (c) & (d) of Example Problem

- c) 100% martensite rapidly quench to room temperature
- d) 50% martensite
 δ 50% austenite
 - rapidly quench to
 ~ 290°C, hold at this temperature

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Mechanical Props: Influence of C Content

• Increase C content: TS and YS increase, %EL decreases

Mechanical Props: Fine Pearlite vs. Coarse Pearlite vs. Spheroidite

- Hardness: fine > coarse > spheroidite
- %RA: fine < coarse < spheroidite

Mechanical Props: Fine Pearlite vs. Martensite

• Hardness: fine pearlite << martensite.

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Tempered Martensite

Heat treat martensite to form tempered martensite

- tempered martensite less brittle than martensite
- tempering reduces internal stresses caused by quenching TS(MPa)

- tempering produces extremely small $Fe_3^{\prime}C$ particles surrounded by α .
- tempering decreases TS, YS but increases %RA

Summary of Possible Transformations

Microconstituent	Phases Present	Arrangement of Phases	Mechanical Properties (Relative)
Spheroidite	α -Ferrite + Fe ₃ C	Relatively small Fe ₃ C spherelike particles in an α -ferrite matrix	Soft and ductile
Coarse pearlite	α -Ferrite + Fe ₃ C	Alternating layers of α-ferrite and Fe ₃ C that are relatively thick	Harder and stronger than spheroidite, but not as ductile as spheroidite
Fine pearlite	α -Ferrite + Fe ₃ C	Alternating layers of α -ferrite and Fe ₃ C that are relatively thin	Harder and stronger than coarse pearlite, but not as ductile as coarse pearlite
Bainite	α -Ferrite + Fe ₃ C	Very fine and elongated particles of Fe ₃ C in an α -ferrite matrix	Hardness and strength greater than fine pearlite; hardness less than martensite; ductility greater than martensite
Tempered martensite	α -Ferrite + Fe ₃ C	Very small Fe ₃ C spherelike particles in an α -ferrite matrix	Strong; not as hard as martensite, but much more ductile than martensite
Martensite	Body-centered, tetragonal, single phase	Needle-shaped grains	Very hard and very brittle

Table 10.2 Summary of Microstructures and Mechanical Properties for Iron–Carbon Alloys

- Shape-memory alloys (形狀記憶合金)
 - One of the shape-memory alloys (SMAs), after being deformed, has the ability to return to its predeformed size and shape upon being subjected to an appropriate heat treatment-that is, the material "remembers" its previous size/shape.
 - Deformation normally is carried out at a relatively low temperature, whereas shape memory occurs upon heating.
 - A shape-memory alloy is polymorphic-that is, it may have two crystal structures (or phases), and the shape-memory effect involves phase transformations between them.

Time-lapse photograph that demonstrates the shape-memory effect. A wire of a shapememory alloy (Nitinol) has been bent and treated such that its memory shape spells the word Nitinol. The wire is then deformed and, upon heating, springs back to its predeformed shape; this shape recovery process is recorded on the photograph.

Shape-Memory Alloys

Fig. 10.37 Diagram illustrating the shape-memory effect. This insets are schematic representations of the crystal structure at the four stages. M_s and M_f denote temperatures at which the martensitic transformation begins and ends. Likewise for the austenite transformation, A_s and A_f represent beginning and end transformation temperatures.

Equation Summary

Equation Number	Equation	Solving For	Page Number
10.3	$r^* = -rac{2\gamma}{\Delta G_v}$	Critical radius for stable solid particle (homogeneous nucleation)	346
10.4	$\Delta G^* = \frac{16\pi\gamma^3}{3(\Delta G_v)^2}$	Activation free energy for formation of stable solid particle (homogeneous nucleation)	346
10.6	$r^* = \left(-\frac{2\gamma T_m}{\Delta H_f}\right) \left(\frac{1}{T_m - T}\right)$	Critical radius—in terms of latent heat of fusion and melting temperature	347
10.7	$\Delta G^* = \left(\frac{16\pi\gamma^3 T_m^2}{3\Delta H_f^2}\right) \frac{1}{(T_m - T)^2}$	Activation free energy—in terms of latent heat of fusion and melting temperature	347
10.12	$\gamma_{\rm IL} = \gamma_{\rm SI} + \gamma_{\rm SL} \cos \theta$	Relationship among interfacial energies for heterogeneous nucleation	351
10.13	$r^* = -\frac{2\gamma_{\rm SL}}{\Delta G_v}$	Critical radius for stable solid particle (heterogeneous nucleation)	351
10.14	$\Delta G^* = \left(\frac{16\pi\gamma_{\rm SL}^3}{3\Delta G_v^2}\right) S(\theta)$	Activation free energy for formation of stable solid particle (heterogeneous nucleation)	351
10.17	$y = 1 - \exp\left(-kt^n\right)$	Fraction of transformation (Avrami equation)	355

		× 1 /	
10.18	rate $=\frac{1}{t_{0.5}}$	Transformation rate	355