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## Crystalline and Non-crystalline Materials

Materials may be crystalline (where the material's atoms are arranged in a periodic fashion) or they may be amorphous (where the material's atoms do not have a long-range order).

## Single Crystals

For a crystalline solid, when the periodic and repeated arrangement of atoms is perfect or extends throughout the entirety of the specimen without interruption, the result is a single crystal. All unit cells interlock in the same way and have the same orientation. Single crystals found in nature, but they may also be produced artificially. They are ordinarily difficult to grow, because the environment must be carefully controlled.

If the edges of a single crystal are allowable to grow without any external constraint, the crystal will assume a regular geometric shape having flat faces, as with some of the gem stones; the shape is indicative of the crystal structure. Within the past few years, single crystals have become extremely important in many of our modern technologies, in particular electronic microcircuits, which employ single crystals of silicon and other semiconductors.

## Polycrystalline Materials

Most crystalline solids are composed of a collection of many small crystals or grains; such materials are termed polycrystalline. Various stages in the solidification of a polycrystalline specimen are represented schematically in figure 1. Initially, small crystals or nuclei form at various positions. These have random crystallographic orientations, as indicated by the square grids. The small grains grow by the successive addition from the surrounding liquid of atoms to the structure of each. The edges of adjacent grains impact on one another as the solidification process approaches completion. As indicated in figure below, the crystallographic orientation varies from grain to grain. Also, there exists some atomic mismatch within the region where two grains meet; this area, called a grain boundary.

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Figure 1. Schematic diagrams of the various stages in the solidification of a polycrystalline material; the square grids depict unit cells. (a) Small crystallite nuclei. (b) Growth of the crystallites; the obstruction of some grains that are adjacent to one another is also shown. (c) Upon completion of solidification, grains having irregular shapes have formed. (d) The grain structure as it would appear under the microscope; dark lines are the grain boundaries.

## Structure of Metals, Crystal Systems

In materials science and engineering, we use the concept of lattice to describe arrangements of atoms or ions. A lattice may be one, two, or three dimensional. One or more atoms associated with each lattice point, is known as the motif or basis. We obtain a crystal structure by adding the lattice and basis (i.e., crystal structure $=$ lattice + basis).

The unit cell is the subdivision of a lattice that still retains the overall characteristics of the entire lattice. Unit cells are shown in figure 1. By stacking identical unit cells, the entire lattice can be constructed. There are seven unique arrangements, known as crystal systems, which can be used to fill up a three-dimensional space. These are cubic, tetragonal, trigonal, hexagonal, orthorhombic, monoclinic, and triclinic. Although there are seven crystal systems, we have a total of 14 different arrangements of lattice points. These unique arrangements of lattice points are known as the Bravais lattices (Figure 1 and Table 1).

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Figure 1. The fourteen types of Bravais lattices grouped in seven crystal systems.
Lattice points are located at the corners of the unit cells and, in some cases, at either faces or at the center of the unit cell. Note that for the cubic crystal system we have simple cubic (SC), face-centered cubic (FCC), and body-centered cubic (BCC) Bravais lattices. Similarly, for the tetragonal crystal system, we have simple tetragonal and body centered tetragonal Bravais lattices. Any other arrangement of atoms can be expressed using these 14 Bravais lattices. For example, if we take the face-centered cubic lattice and assume that at each lattice point we have one atom, then we get a face-centered cubic crystal structure.

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Table 1. Characteristics of the seven crystal systems.

| Structure | Axes | Angles between Axes | Volume of the Unit Cell |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cubic | $a=b=c$ | All angles equal $90^{\circ}$ | $a^{3}$ |
| Tetragmal | $a=b \neq c$ | All angles equal $90^{\circ}$ | $a^{2} \mathrm{C}$ |
| Orthorhombic | $a \neq b \neq c$ | All angles equal $90^{\circ}$ | abc |
| Hexagonal | $a=b \neq c$ | Two anges equal $90^{\circ}$. One angle equals $120^{\circ}$. | $08663^{2} \mathrm{C}$ |
| Rhombohedral or trigonal | $a=b=c$ | All angles are equal and none equals $90^{\circ}$ | $a^{3} \sqrt{1-3 \cos ^{2} \alpha+2 \cos ^{3} \alpha}$ |
| Monoclinic | $a \neq b \neq c$ | Two angles equal $90^{\circ}$. One angle ( $\beta$ ) is not equal to $90^{\circ}$ | $\operatorname{abcsin} \beta$ |
| Triclinic | $a \neq b \neq c$ | All angles are different and none equals $90^{\circ}$ | $a b c \sqrt{1-\cos ^{2} \alpha-\cos ^{2} \beta-\cos ^{2} \gamma+2 \cos \alpha \cos \beta \cos \gamma}$ |

Note that although we have only 14 Bravais lattices, we can have many more bases. Since crystal structure is derived by adding lattice and basis, we have hundreds of different crystal structures. Many different materials can have the same crystal structure. For example, copper and nickel have the face centered cubic crystal structure. For the purpose of simplicity, we will assume that each lattice point has only one atom (i.e., the basis is one), unless otherwise stated. This assumption allows us to refer to the terms lattice and the crystal structure interchangeably. Let's look at some of the characteristics of a lattice or unit cell.

Lattice Parameter: The lattice parameters, which describe the size and shape of the unit cell, include the dimensions of the sides of the unit cell and the angles between the sides (Figure 2). In a cubic crystal system, only the length of one of the sides of the cube is necessary to completely describe the cell (angles of $\mathbf{9 0}$ are assumed unless otherwise specified). This length is the lattice parameter a (sometimes designated as $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{0}}$ ). The length is often given in nanometers ( $\mathbf{n m}$ ) or Angstrom ( $\mathbf{A}^{\circ}$ ) units, where:
1 nanometer ( $\mathbf{n m}$ ) $=10^{-9} \mathrm{~m}=10^{-7} \mathbf{c m}=10 \mathrm{~A}^{\circ}$
1 angstrom ( $A^{\circ}$ ) $=0.1 \mathrm{~nm}=10^{-10} \mathrm{~m}=10^{-8} \mathrm{~cm}$

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Figure 2. The models for simple cubic (SC), body-centered cubic (BCC), and face-centered cubic (FCC) unit cells, assuming only one atom per lattice point.
Several lattice parameters are required to define the size and shape of complex unit cells. For an orthorhombic unit cell, we must specify the dimensions of all three sides of the cell: $\mathbf{a}_{0}, \mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{0}}$, and $\mathbf{c}_{\mathbf{0}}$. Hexagonal unit cells require two dimensions, $\mathbf{a}_{0}$ and $\mathbf{c}_{0}$, and the angle of $\mathbf{1 2 0}{ }^{\circ}$ between the $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{0}}$ axes. The most complicated cell, the triclinic cell, is described by three lengths and three angles.
Number of Atoms per Unit Cell ( $\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{A}}$ ): A specific number of lattice points defines each of the unit cells. For example, the corners of the cells are easily identified, as are the body centered (center of the cell) and face-centered (centers of the six sides of the cell) positions (Figure 2). When counting the number of lattice points belonging to each unit cell, we must recognize that lattice points may be shared by more than one unit cell. A lattice point at a corner of one unit cell is shared by seven adjacent unit cells (thus a total of eight cells); only one-eighth of each corner lattice point belongs to one particular cell. Thus, the number of lattice points from all of the corner positions in one unit cell is:

$$
\left(\frac{1}{8} \frac{\text { lattice point }}{\text { comer }}\right)\left(8 \frac{\text { corners }}{\text { cell }}\right)=1 \frac{\text { lattice point }}{\text { unit cell }}
$$

The number of atoms per unit cell is the product of the number of atoms per lattice point and the number of lattice points per unit cell. In most metals, one atom is located at each lattice point. The structures of simple cubic (SC), body-centered cubic (BCC), and face-centered cubic (FCC) unit cells, with one atom located at each lattice point, are shown in figure 2 . Example 1 illustrates how to determine the number of lattice points in cubic crystal systems.

## EXAMPLE. 1 Determining the Number of Lattice Points in Cubic Crystal Systems.

Determine the number of lattice points per unit cell $\left(\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{A}}\right)$ in the cubic crystal systems. If there is only one atom located at each lattice point, calculate the number of atoms per unit cell.

## SOLUTION

In the SC unit cell, lattice points are located only at the corners of the cube:

$$
\frac{\text { lattice point }}{\text { unit cell }}=(8 \text { comers })\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)=1
$$

In BCC unit cells, lattice points are located at each corners and with one at the center of the cube:

$$
\frac{\text { lattice point }}{\text { unit cell }}=(8 \text { corners })\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)+(1 \text { center })(1)=2
$$

In FCC unit cells, lattice points are located at all corners and all faces of the cube:

$$
\frac{\text { lattice point }}{\text { unit cell }}=(8 \text { comers })\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)+(6 \text { faces })\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)=4
$$

Since we are assuming there is only one atom located at each lattice point, the number of atoms per unit cell would be 1, 2, and 4, for the simple cubic, bodycentered cubic, and face-centered cubic, unit cells, respectively.

