

Powder metallurgy – basics & applications

Powder metallurgy – science of producing metal powders and making finished /semifinished objects from mixed or alloyed powders with or without the addition of nonmetallic constituents

Steps in powder metallurgy: Powder production, Compaction, Sintering, & Secondary operations

Powder production:

Raw materials => Powder; Powders can be pure elements, pre-alloyed powders

Methods for making powders – **Atomization**: Produces powders of both ferrous and non-ferrous powders like stainless steel, superalloys, Ti alloy powders; **Reduction of compounds**: Production of iron, Cu, tungsten, molybdenum; **Electrolysis**: for making Cu, iron, silver powders

Powders along with additives are mixed using mixers

Lubricants are added prior to mixing to facilitate easy ejection of compact and to minimize wear of tools; Waxes, metallic stearates, graphite etc.

Powder characterization – size, flow, density, compressibility tests

Compaction: compaction is performed using dies machined to close tolerances

Dies are made of cemented carbide, die/tool steel; pressed using hydraulic or mechanical presses

The basic purpose of compaction is to obtain a green compact with sufficient strength to withstand further handling operations

The green compact is then taken for sintering

Hot extrusion, hot pressing, hot isostatic pressing => consolidation at high temperatures

Sintering: Performed at controlled atmosphere to bond atoms metallurgically; Bonding occurs by diffusion of atoms; done at 70% of abs. melting point of materials

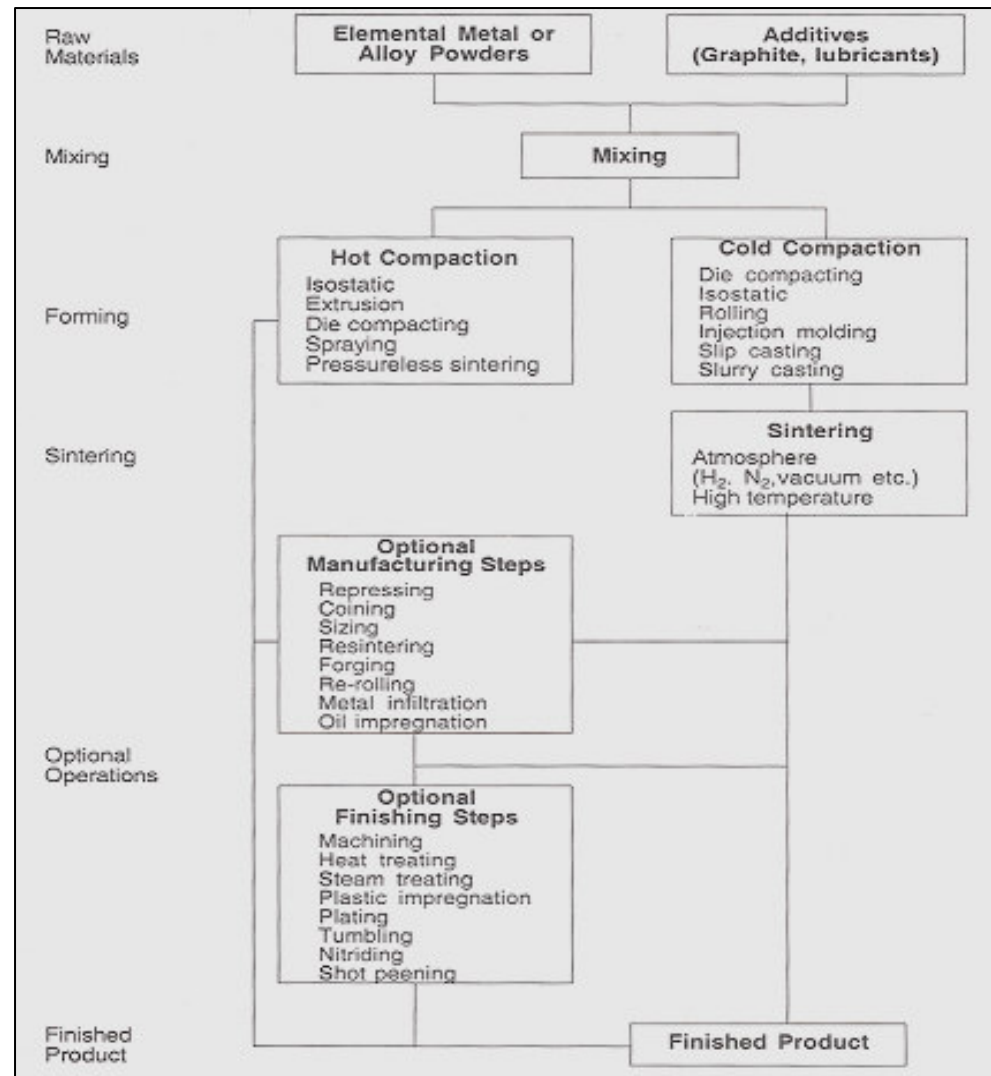
It serves to consolidate the mechanically bonded powders into a coherent body having desired on service behavior

Densification occurs during the process and improvement in physical and mechanical properties are seen

Furnaces – mesh belt furnaces (up to 1200C), walking beam, pusher type furnace, batch type furnaces are also used

Protective atmosphere: Nitrogen (widely used)

Secondary operations: Operations include repressing, grinding, plating can be done; They are used to ensure close dimensional tolerances, good surface finish, increase density, corrosion resistance etc.



Flow chart for making P/M components

Advantages & limitations

- Efficient material utilization
- Enables close dimensional tolerances – near net shape possible
- Good surface finish
- Manufacture of complex shapes possible
- Hard materials used to make components that are difficult to machine can be readily made – tungsten wires for incandescent lamps
- Environment friendly, energy efficient
- Suited for moderate to high volume component production
- Powders of uniform chemical composition => reflected in the finished part
- wide variety of materials => miscible, immiscible systems; refractory metals
- Parts with controlled porosity can be made
- High cost of powder material & tooling
- Less strong parts than wrought ones
- Less well known process

Production of powders

- Metal powders => Main constituent of a P/M product; final properties of the finished P/M part depends on size, shape, and surface area of powder particles
- Single powder production method is not sufficient for all applications

Powder production methods: 1. Mechanical methods, 2. Physical methods, 3. Chemical methods

1. Mechanical methods => cheapest of the powder production methods; These methods involve using mechanical forces such as compressive forces, shear or impact to facilitate particle size reduction of bulk materials; Eg.: Milling

Milling: During milling, impact, attrition, shear and compression forces are acted upon particles. During impact, striking of one powder particle against another occurs. Attrition refers to the production of wear debris due to the rubbing action between two particles. Shear refers to cutting of particles resulting in fracture. The particles are broken into fine particles by squeezing action in compression force type.

Main objective of milling: Particle size reduction (main purpose), shape change, agglomeration (joining of particles together), solid state alloying, mechanical or solid state mixing, modification of material properties

Mechanism of milling: Changes in the morphology of powder particles during milling results in the following events.

1. Microforging, 2. Fracture, 3. Agglomeration, 4. Deagglomeration

Microforging => Individual particles or group of particles are impacted repeatedly so that they flatten with very less change in mass

Fracture => Individual particles deform and cracks initiate and propagate resulting in fracture

Agglomeration => Mechanical interlocking due to atomic bonding or vander Waals forces

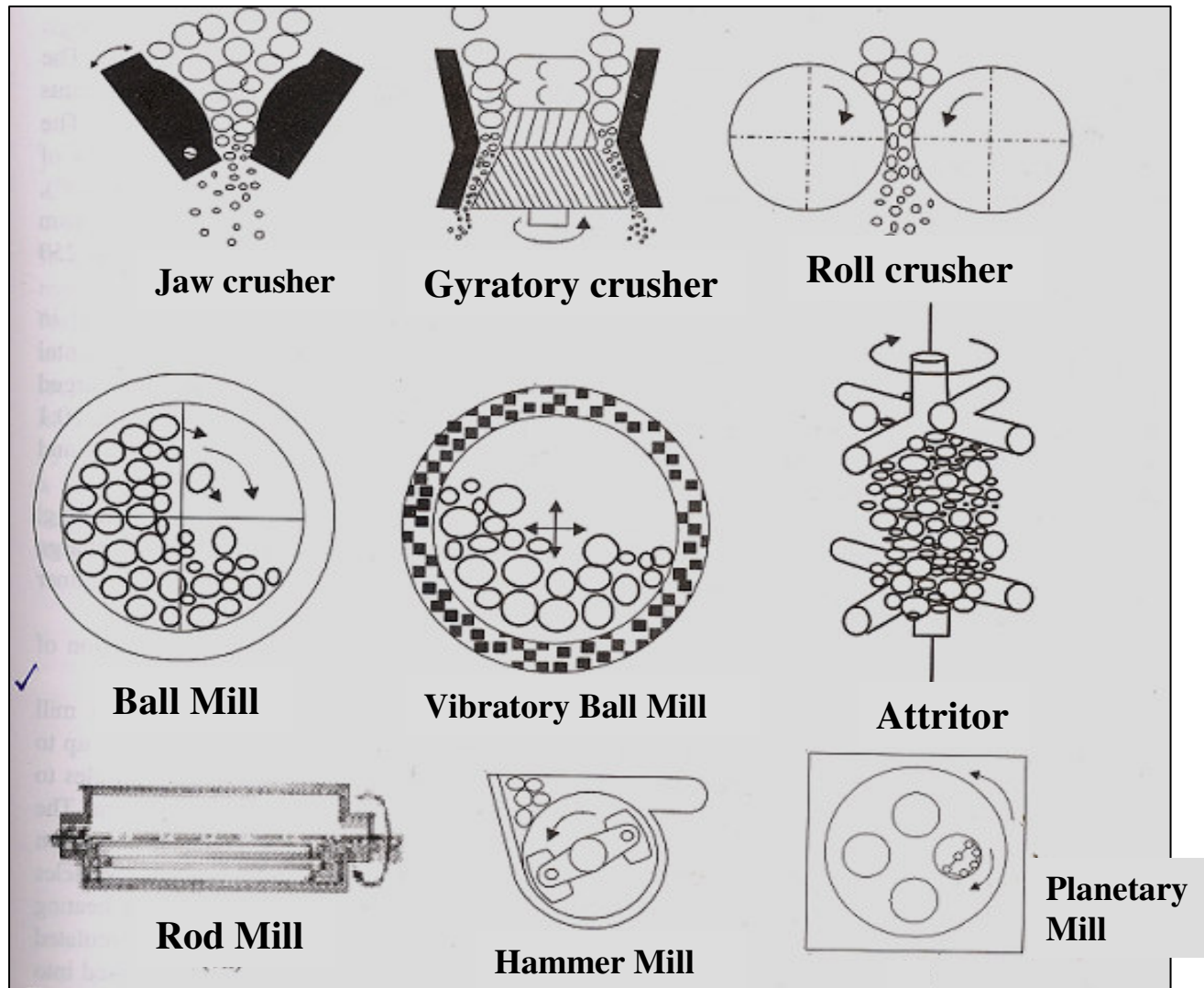
Deagglomeration => Breaking of agglomerates

The different powder characteristics influenced by milling are shape, size, texture, particle size distribution, crystalline size, chemical composition, hardness, density, flowability, compressibility, sinterability, sintered density

Milling equipment: The equipments are generally classified as crushers & mills

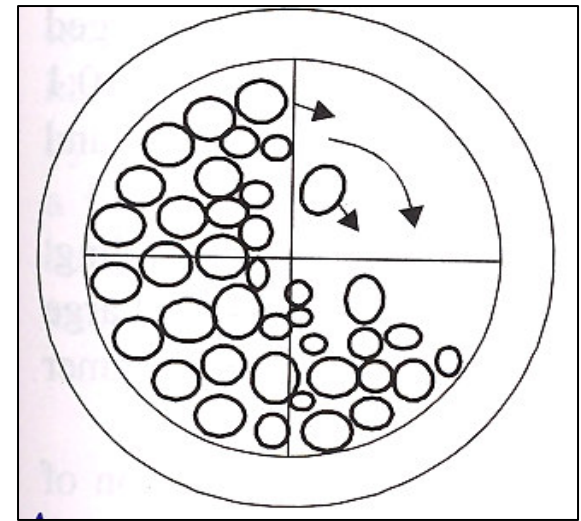
Crushing => for making ceramic materials, oxides of metals; Grinding => for reactive metals such as titanium, zirconium, niobium, tantalum

Grinding: Different types of grinding equipments/methods are shown in the figure



Ball mills

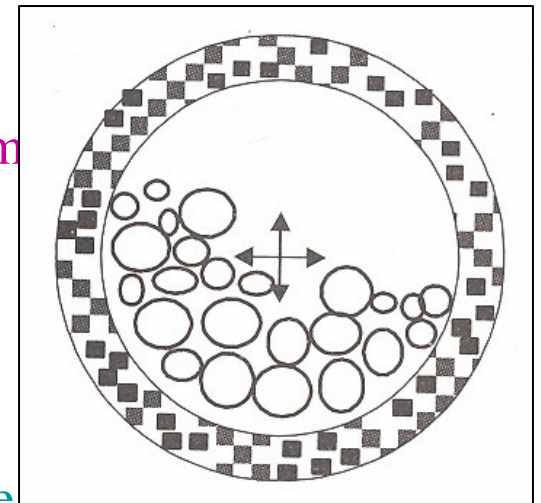
- This contains cylindrical vessel rotating horizontally along the axis. Length of the cylinder is more or less equal to diameter. The vessel is charged with the grinding media. The grinding media may be made of hardened steel, or tungsten carbide, ceramics like agate, porcelain, alumina, zirconia. During rolling of vessel, the grinding media & powder particles roll from some height. This process grinds the powder materials by impact/collision & attrition.
- Milling can be dry milling or wet milling. In dry milling, about 25 vol% of powder is added along with about 1 wt% of a lubricant such as stearic or oleic acid. For wet milling, 30-40 vol% of powder with 1 wt% of dispersing agent such as water, alcohol or hexane is employed.
- Optimum diameter of the mill for grinding powders is about 250 mm



Ball Mill

Vibratory ball mill

- Finer powder particles need longer periods for grinding
- In this case, vibratory ball mill is better => here high amount of energy is imparted to the particles and milling is accelerated by vibrating the container
- During operation, 80% of the container is filled with grinding bodies and the starting material. Here vibratory motion is obtained by an eccentric shaft that is mounted on a frame inside the mill. The rotation of eccentric shaft causes the drum of the vibrating mill to oscillate.
- In general, vibration frequency is equal to 1500 to 3000 oscillations/min. The amplitude of oscillations is 2 to 3 mm. The grinding bodies is made of steel or carbide balls, that are 10-20 mm in diameter. The mass of the balls is 8-10 times the charged particles. Final particle size is of the order of 5-100 microns

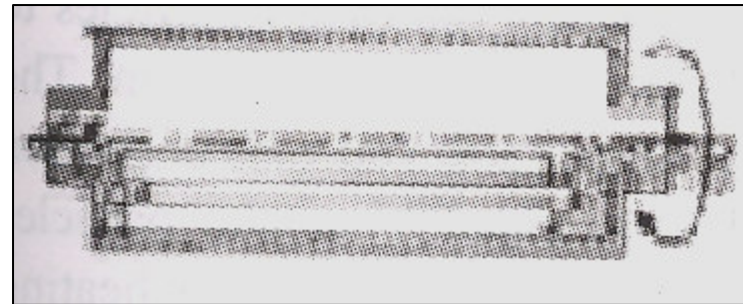
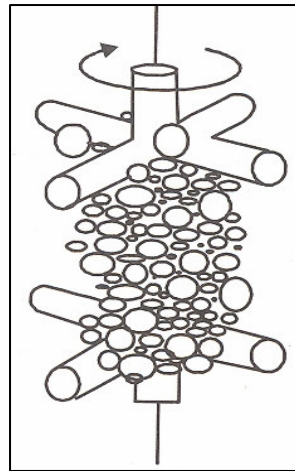
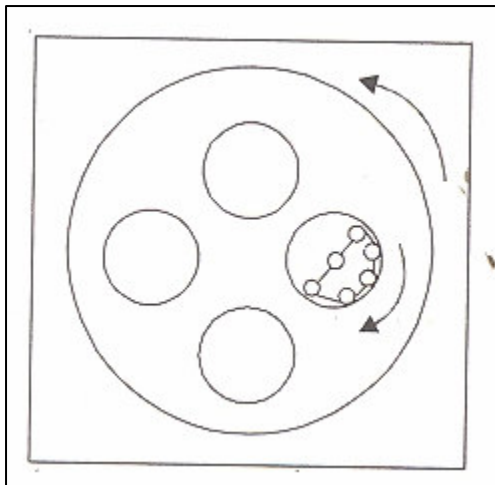


Vibratory Ball Mill

Attrition mill: IN this case, the charge is ground to fine size by the action of a vertical shaft with side arms attached to it. The ball to charge ratio may be 5:1, 10:1, 15:1. This method is more efficient in achieving fine particle size.

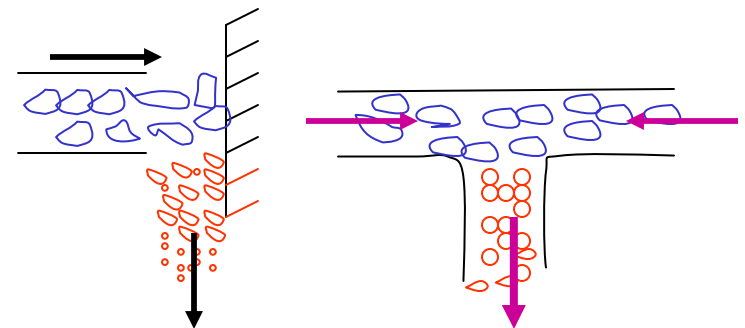
Rod mills: Horizontal rods are used instead of balls to grind. Granularity of the discharge material is 40-100 mm. The mill speed varies from 12 to 30 rpm.

Planetary mill: High energy mill widely used for producing metal, alloy, and composite powders.



Fluid energy grinding or Jet milling:

The basic principle of fluid energy mill is to induce particles to collide against each other at high velocity, causing them to fracture into fine particles.



- Multiple collisions enhance the reduction process and therefore, multiple jet arrangements are normally incorporated in the mill design. The fluid used is either air about 0.7 MPa or steam at 2 MPa. In the case of volatile materials, protective atmosphere of nitrogen and carbon-di-oxide is used.
- The pressurized fluid is introduced into the grinding zone through specially designed nozzles which convert the applied pressure to kinetic energy. Also materials to be powdered are introduced simultaneously into the turbulent zone.
- The velocity of fluid coming out from the nozzles is directly proportional to the square root of the absolute temperature of the fluid entering the nozzle. Hence it is preferable to raise the temperature of fluid to the maximum possible level without affecting the feed material.
- If further powdering is required, large size particles are separated from the rest centrifugal forces and re-circulated into the turbulent zone for size reduction. Fine particles are taken to the exit by viscous drag of the exhaust gases to be carried away for collection.
- This Jet milling process can create powders of average particle size less than 5 μm

Machining: Mg, Be, Ag, solder, dental alloy are specifically made by machining; Turning and chips thus formed during machining are subsequently crushed or ground into powders

Shotting: Fine stream of molten metal is poured through a vibratory screen into air or protective gas medium. When the molten metals falls through screen, it disintegrates and solidifies as spherical particles. These particles get oxidized. The particles thus obtained depends on pore size of screen, temperature, gas used, frequency of vibration. Metal produced by the method are Cu, Brass, Al, Zn, Sn, Pb, Ni. (*this method is like making Boondhi*)

Graining: Same as shotting except that the falling material through sieve is collected in water; Powders of cadmium, Bismuth, antimony are produced.

2. Physical methods

Electrolytic deposition

- In this method, the processing conditions are so chosen that metals of high purity are precipitated from aqueous solution on the cathode of an electrolytic cell. This method is mainly used for producing copper, iron powders. This method is also used for producing zinc, tin, nickel, cadmium, antimony, silver, lead, beryllium powders.
- Copper powder => Solution containing copper sulphate and sulphuric acid; crude copper as anode
- Reaction: at anode: $\text{Cu} \rightarrow \text{Cu}^+ + \text{e}^-$; at cathode: $\text{Cu}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cu}$
- Iron powder => anode is low carbon steel; cathode is stainless steel. The iron powder deposits are subsequently pulverized by milling in hammer mill. The milled powders are annealed in hydrogen atmosphere to make them soft
- Mg powder => electrodeposition from a purified magnesium sulphate electrolyte using insoluble lead anodes and stainless steel cathodes
- Powders of thorium, tantalum, vanadium => fused salt electrolysis is carried out at a temperature below melting point of the metal. Here deposition will occur in the form of small crystals with dendritic shape

In this method, final deposition occurs in three ways,

1. A hard brittle layer of pure metal which is subsequently milled to obtain powder (eg. iron powder)
2. A soft, spongy substance which is loosely adherent and easily removed by scrubbing
3. A direct powder deposit from the electrolyte that collects at the bottom of the cell

Factors promoting powder deposits are, high current density, low metal concentration, pH of the bath, low temperature, high viscosity, circulation of electrolyte to avoid of convection

Advantages:

Powders of high purity with excellent sinterability

Wide range of powder quality can be produced by altering bath composition

Disadvantages:

Time consuming process; Pollution of work place because of toxic chemicals;

Waste disposal is another issue; Cost involved in oxidation of powders and hence they should be washed thoroughly

Atomization

This uses high pressure fluid jets to break up a molten metal stream into very fine droplets, which then solidify into fine particles

High quality powders of Al, brass, iron, stainless steel, tool steel, superalloys are produced commercially

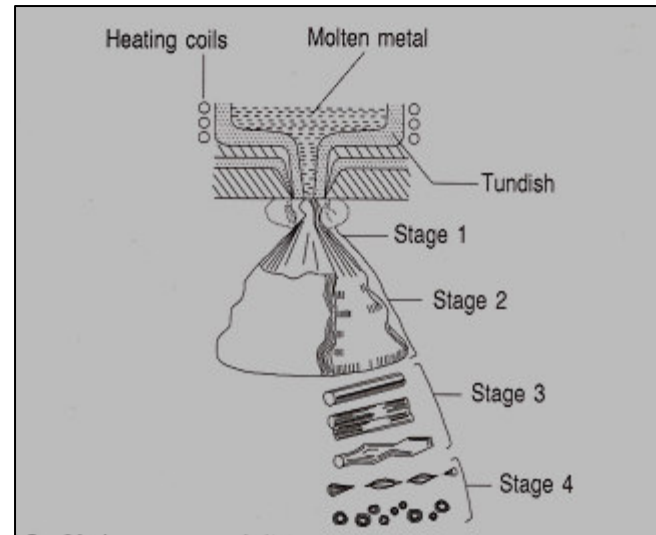
Types: water atomization, gas atomization, soluble gas or vacuum atomization, centrifugal atomization, rotating disk atomization, ultrarapid solidification process, ultrasonic atomization

Mechanism of atomization:

In conventional (gas or water) atomization, a liquid metal is produced by pouring molten metal through a tundish with a nozzle at its base. The stream of liquid is then broken into droplets by the impingement of high pressure gas or water. This disintegration of liquid stream is shown in fig. This has five stages

- i) Formation of wavy surface of the liquid due to small disturbances
- ii) Wave fragmentation and ligament formation
- iii) Disintegration of ligament into fine droplets
- iv) Further breakdown of fragments into fine particles
- v) Collision and coalescence of particles

atomization



- The interaction between jets and liquid metal stream begins with the creation of small disturbances at liquid surfaces, which grow into shearing forces that fragment the liquid into ligaments. The broken ligaments are further made to fine particles because of high energy in impacting jet.
- Lower surface tension of molten metal, high cooling rate => formation of irregular surface => like in water atomization
- High surface tension, low cooling rates => spherical shape formation => like in inert gas atomization
- The liquid metal stream velocity, $v = A [2g (P_i - P_g)\rho]^{0.5}$

where P_i – injection pressure of the liquid, P_g – pressure of atomizing medium, ρ – density of the liquid

Types of atomization

Atomization of molten metal can be done in different ways depending upon the factors like economy and required powder characteristics. At present, water or gas atomizing medium can be used to disintegrate a molten metal stream. The various types of atomization techniques used are,

1. **Water atomization:** High pressure water jets are used to bring about the disintegration of molten metal stream. Water jets are used mainly because of their higher viscosity and quenching ability. This is an inexpensive process and can be used for small or large scale production. But water should not chemically react with metals or alloys used.
2. **Gas atomization:** Here instead of water, high velocity argon, nitrogen and helium gas jets are used. The molten metal is disintegrated and collected as atomized powder in a water bath. Fluidized bed cooling is used when certain powder characteristics are required.
3. **Vacuum atomization:** In this method, when a molten metal supersaturated with a gas under pressure is suddenly exposed into vacuum, the gas coming from metal solution expands, causing atomization of the metal stream. This process gives very high purity powder. Usually hydrogen is used as gas. Hydrogen and argon mixture can also be used.

4. **Centrifugal atomization:** In this method, one end of the metal bar is heated and melted by bringing it into contact with a non-consumable tungsten electrode, while rotating it longitudinally at very high speeds. The centrifugal force created causes the metal drops to be thrown off outwards. This will then be solidified as spherical shaped particles inside an evacuated chamber. Titanium powder can be made using this technique
5. **Rotating disk atomization:** Impinging of a stream of molten metal on to the surface of rapidly spinning disk. This causes mechanical atomization of metal stream and causes the droplets to be thrown off the edges of the disk. The particles are spherical in shape and their size decreases with increasing disk speed.
6. **Ultrarapid solidification processes:** A solidification rate of 1000C/s is achieved in this process. This results in enhanced chemical homogeneity, formation of metastable crystalline phases, amorphous materials.

Atomization Unit

Melting and superheating facility: Standard melting furnaces can be used for producing the liquid metal. This is usually done by air melting, inert gas or vacuum induction melting. Complex alloys that are susceptible to contamination are melted in vacuum induction furnaces. The metal is transferred to a tundish, which serves as reservoir for molten metal.

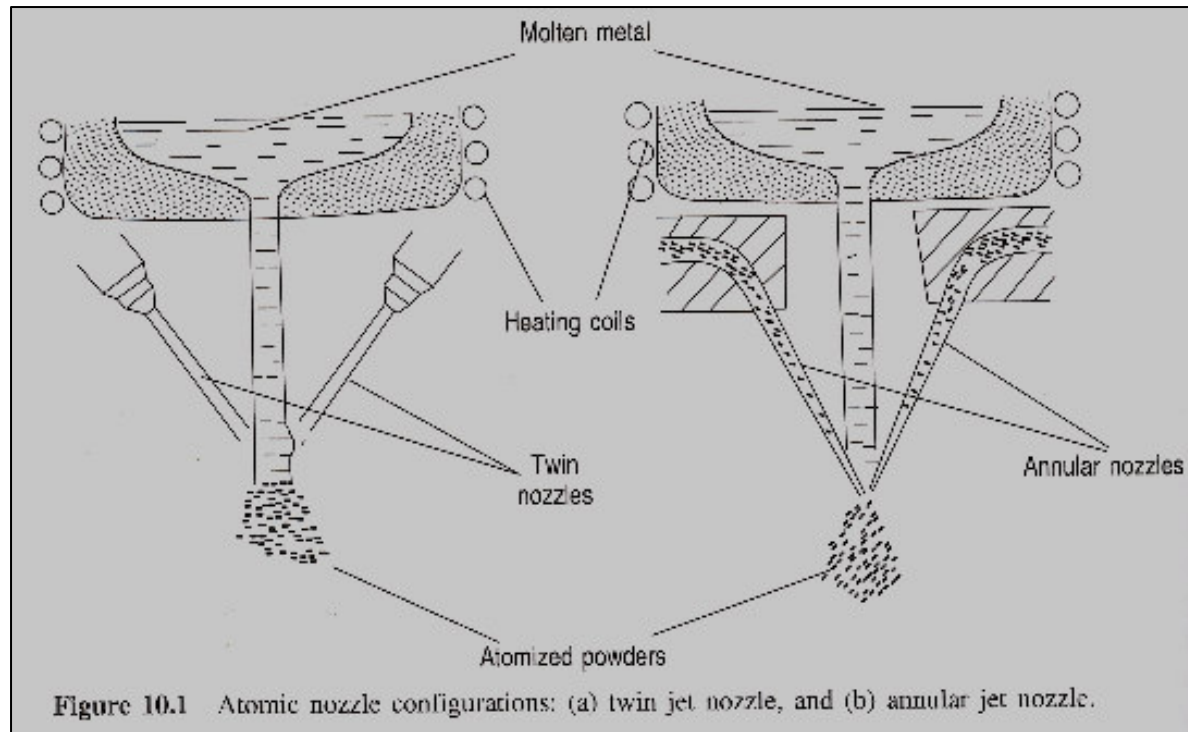
Atomization chamber: An atomization nozzle system is necessary. The nozzle that controls the size and shape of the metal stream is fixed at the bottom of the atomizing chamber. In order to avoid oxidation of powders, the tank is purged with inert gas like nitrogen.

Powder collection tank: The powders are collected in tank. It could be dry collection or wet collection. In dry collection, the powder particles solidify before reaching the bottom of the tank. In wet collection, powder particles collected in the bottom of the water tank. The tank has to be cooled extremely if used for large scale production.

During operation, the atomization unit is kept evacuated to 10^{-3} mm of Hg, tested for leak and filled with argon gas.

Atomizing nozzles

- Function is to control the flow and the pattern of atomizing medium to provide for efficient disintegration of powders
- For a given nozzle design, the average particle size is controlled by the pressure of the atomizing medium and also by the apex angle between the axes of the gas jets
- Higher apex angle lead to smaller particle size
- Apex angle for water atomization is smaller than for gas atomization
- Nozzle design: i) annular type, ii) discrete jet type;
 - i) free falling, ii) confined design
- In free falling, molten metal comes in contact with atomizing medium after some distance. Here free falling of metal is seen. This is mainly used in water atomization.
- In confined design used with annular nozzle, atomization occurs at the exit of the nozzle. Gas atomization is used generally for this. This has higher efficiency than free falling type. One has to be cautious that “freeze up” of metal in the nozzle has to be avoided.



Atomic nozzle configuration, a) twin jet nozzle, b) annular jet nozzle

Atomizing mediums

- The selection of the atomizing jet medium is based mainly on the reactivity of the metal and the cost of the medium
- Air and water are inexpensive, but are reactive in nature
- Inert gases like Ni, Ar, He can be used but are expensive and hence have to be recycled
- Pumping of cold gas along with the atomizing jet => this will increase the solidification rate
- recently, **synthetic oils are used instead of gas or water** => **this yields high cooling rate & lower oxygen content** compared to water atomized powders
- **Oil atomization** is suitable for high carbon steel, high speed steels, bearing steels, steel containing high quantities of carbide forming elements like Cr, Molybdenum
- This method is not good for powders of low carbon steels

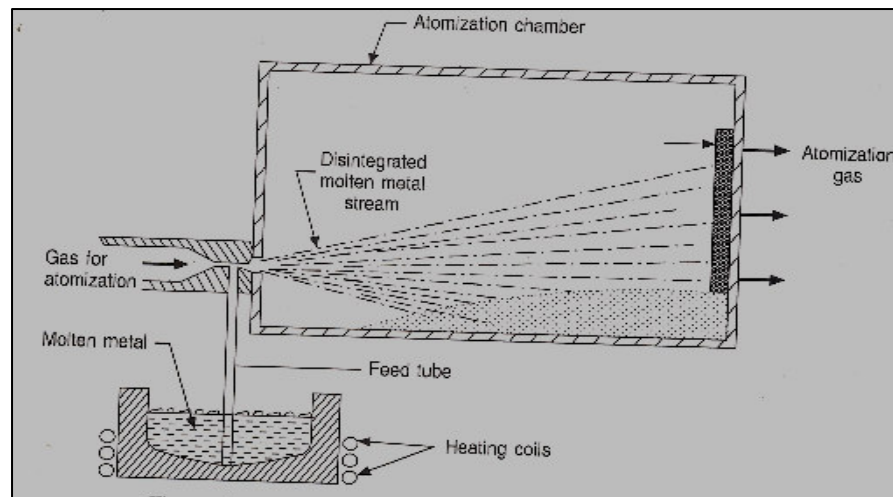
5. Characteristics of the No. medium	Gases		
	N ₂	Ar	He
1. % in dry air	78.10	0.93	5.3×10^{-4}
2. Production	Fractional distillation of air	Same as N ₂	Fractional distillation from natural gas
3. Physical properties			
(a) Density at 70°C (lb/ft ³)	1.1613×10^{-3}	1.6563×10^{-3}	1.64×10^{-4}
(b) Thermal conductivity in BTU/hr ft of $\times 10^{-2}$	14.85	10.15	86.18
4. Reactivity	Reacts with Al, Ti, Cr, Ta at high temperature	Inert to all metals	Inert to all metals
5. Cost	Least expensive	Expensive	Most expensive
6. Applications	Various alloys including tool steels and hard facing powder manufacture	Superalloy powder that contains elements which react with N ₂	Al and Mg powders

Gases used for atomization

Important atomization processes

Inert gas atomization

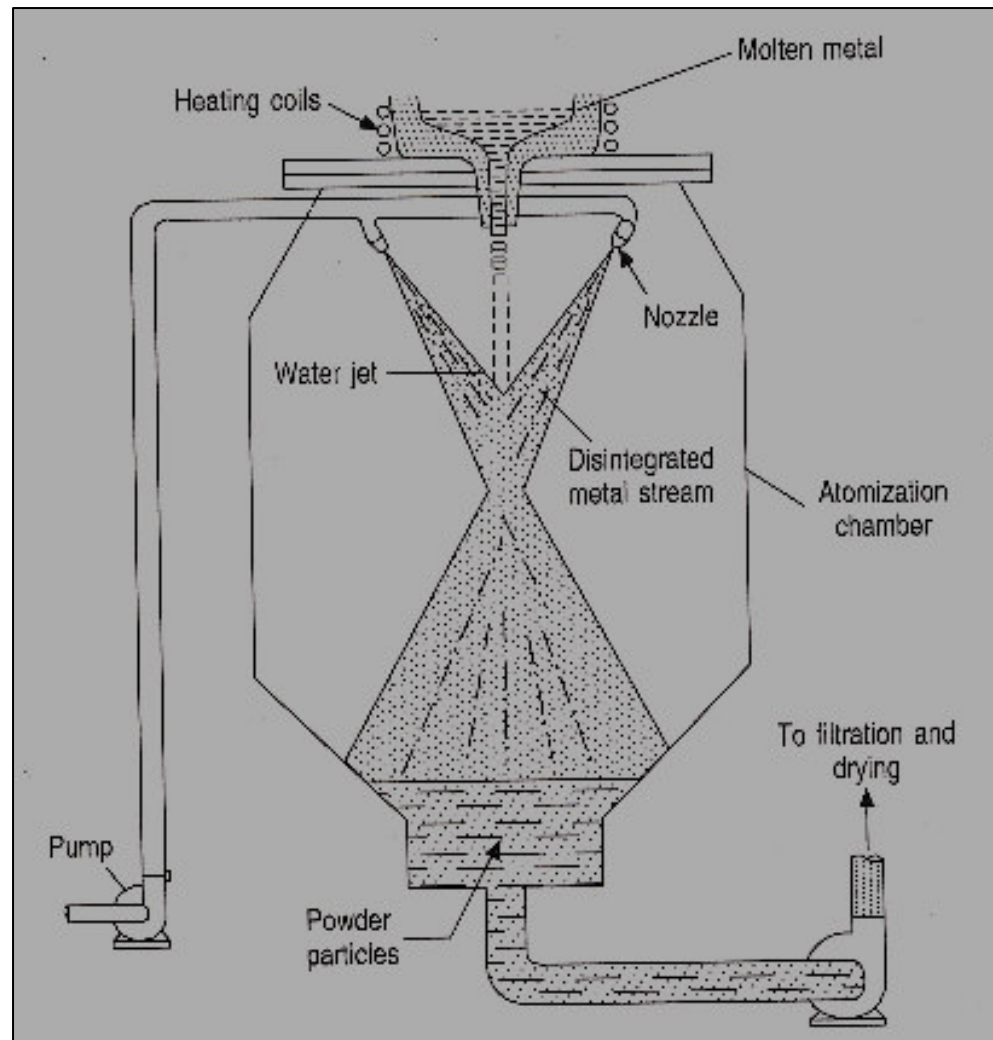
- Production of high grade metal powders with spherical shape, high bulk density, flowability along with low oxygen content and high purity
- Eg. Ni based super alloys
- **Controlling parameters:** (1) viscosity, surface tension, temperature, flow rate of molten metal; (2) flow rate, velocity, viscosity of atomizing medium; (3) jet angle, jet distance of the atomizing system; (4) nature of quenching media



Schematic of horizontal gas atomization

Water atomization

- Water jet is used instead of inert gas
- Fit for high volume and low cost production
- Powders of average size from 150 micron to 400 micron; cooling rates from 10^3 to 10^5 K/s. Rapid extraction of heat results in irregular particle shape => less time to spheroidize in comparison to gas atomization
- Water pressure of 70 MPa for fine powders in 10 micron range
- important parameters:
 1. Water pressure: Increase water pressure => size decrease => increased impact
 2. water jet thickness: increase thickness => finer particles => volume of atomizing medium increases
 3. Angle of water impingement with molten metal & distance of jet travel



Schematic of water atomization

Atomization process parameters

1. Effect of pressure of metal head: $r = a + b\sqrt{h}$; r – rate of atomization
2. Effect of atomizing medium pressure: $r = a\sqrt{p} + b$; Increase in air pressure increases the fineness of powder up to a limit, after which no increase is seen
3. Molten metal temperature: As temperature increases, both surface tension and viscosity decrease; so available energy can efficiently disintegrate the metal stream producing fine powders than at lower temperature; Temperature effect on particle shape is dependent on particle temperature at the instant of formation and time interval between formation of the particle and its solidification; Temperature increase will reduce surface tension and hence formation of spherical particle is minimal; however spherical particles can still be formed if the disintegrated particles remain as liquid for longer times.
4. Orifice area: negligible effect
5. Molten metal properties:

Iron and Cu powder => fine spherical size; Pb, Sn => irregular shape powder; Al powders => irregular shape even at high surface tension (oxidation effect)

Summary of various powder production methods

<i>Sl. no.</i>	<i>Method</i>	<i>Purity</i>	<i>Particle characteristics</i>		<i>Compressibility</i>	<i>Apparent density</i>	<i>Green strength</i>
			<i>Shape</i>	<i>Mesh</i>			
1	Atomization	Relatively good	Irregular to smooth, rounded dense particles	Coarse shots to 325 mesh	Low to high	Generally high (spherical powder)	Generally low
2	Gaseous reduction of solids	Medium	Irregular, spongy	100 mesh and finer	Medium	Low to medium	High to medium
3	Gaseous reduction of solutions	High	Irregular, spongy	100 mesh and finer	Medium	Low to medium	High
4	Reduction with carbon	Medium	Irregular, spongy	All meshes from mesh size 8 downwards	Medium	Medium	Medium to high
5	Electrolytic deposition	High	Irregular, dendritic	All mesh sizes	High (pure and ductile)	Medium to high	Medium
6	Carbonyl method	High	Spherical	Usually in low micron ranges	Medium	Medium to high (spherical)	Low
7	Grinding	Medium	Flaky and dense	All mesh sizes	Medium	Medium to low (flakes powders A.D. low)	Low (flaky particles 2D)

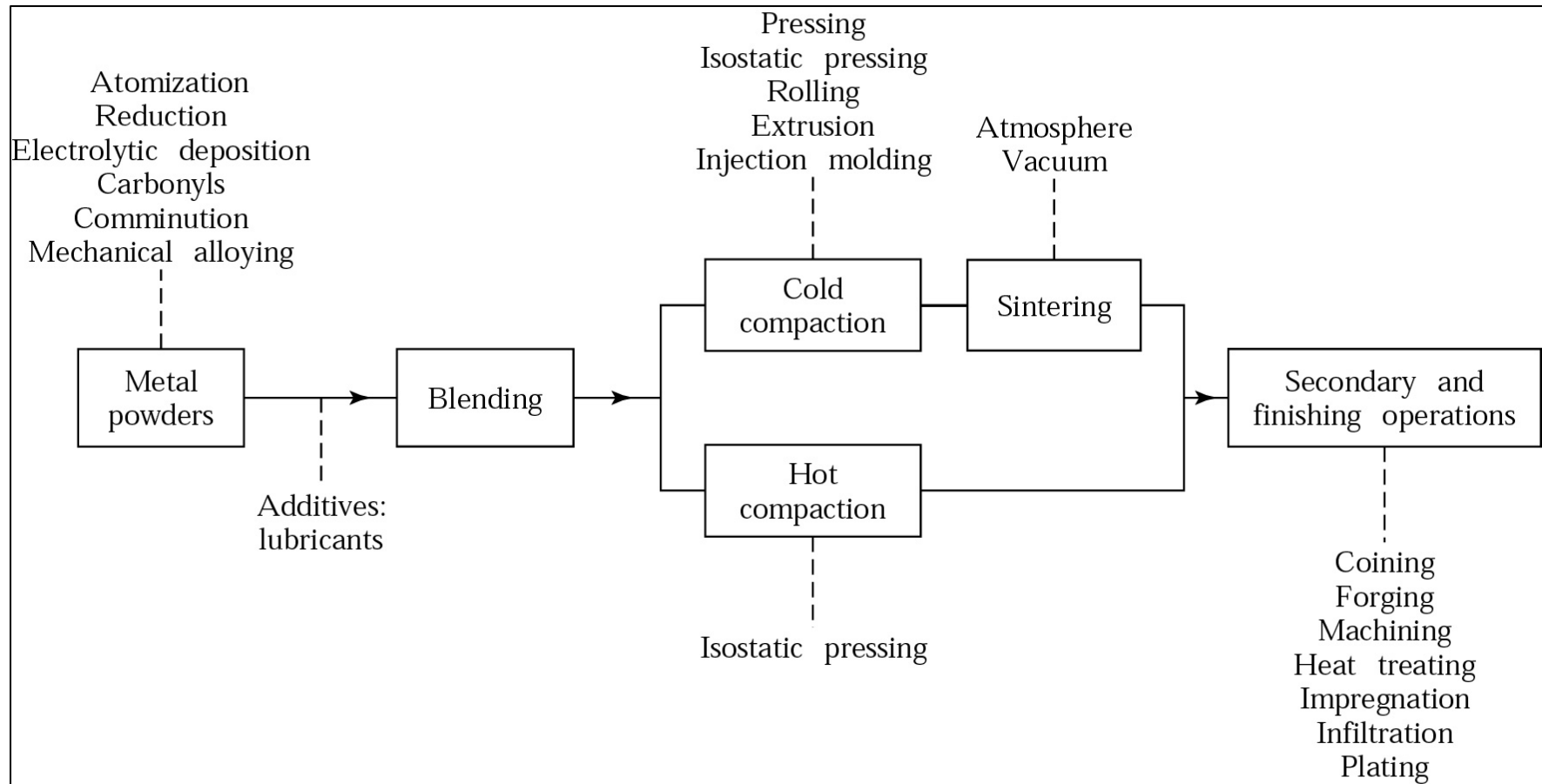
Characteristics of different atomization processes

<i>Process</i>	<i>Technique</i>	<i>Particle shape</i>	<i>Average particle size in (µm)</i>	<i>Cooling rate (K/s)</i>
Atomization	Water atomization	Irregular	75–200	10^2 – 10^4
	Ultrasonic gas atomization	Spherical	10–50	$\geq 10^6$
	Gas soluble	Spherical	20–150	10^3 – 10^4
Centrifugal	Rapid spinning cup	Variable	<50	10^4 – 10^6
Atomization	Rotating electrode	Spherical	150–250	10^4 – 10^6
Splat cooling	Electron beam splat quench	Splat	40–100	10^4 – 10^7

Powders produced by various atomization methods and applications

<i>Sl. no.</i>	<i>Atomizing method</i>	<i>Typical powders</i>	<i>Powder shape</i>	<i>Applications</i>
1.	Water atomization	Iron and alloys Stainless steel	Irregular	Mechanical pumps, welding rods, garden equipment Automotive and transport components Hardware, filters, parts for house hold appliances and business machines.
2.	Gas atomization	Aluminium base alloys	Spherical	Landing gear assembly in airliners, corrosion-resistant parts
3.	Centrifugal atomization (REP process)	Titanium base alloys Nickel base superalloys, low-carbon steel, cobalt-chromium alloys	Spherical	Aerospace applications. Photocopier applications Prosthetic devices for implants
4.	Vacuum atomization	Nickel base superalloy	Spherical	Gas turbine disks
5.	RSP (vacuum disk atomization)	Nickel base superalloys	Spherical	Aerospace engine parts
6.	Ultra-rapid solidification processes Ultrasonic atomization	Aluminium–lithium alloys Dispersion strengthened Al alloys (containing Fe, Co, Mo, Ce)	—	High-strength, low-weight applications Elevated temperature service parts

Making powder & subsequent processing



Powder treatment & Handling

In powder conditioning, the powders prepared by various methods are subjected to a variety of treatments to improve or modify their physical, chemical characteristics

Powder treatments

Powders manufactured for P/M applications can be classified into – elemental powders, and pre-alloyed powders

Elemental powders => powders of single metallic element; eg.: iron for magnetic applications

Pre-alloyed powders => more than one element; made by alloying elemental powders during manufacturing process itself; IN this case, all the particles have same nominal composition and each particle is equivalent to small ingot

Majority of powders undergo treatments prior to compaction like,

i) Drying to remove moisture, ii) grinding/crushing to obtain fine sizes, iii) particle size classification to obtain the desired particle size distribution, iv) annealing, v) mixing and blending of powders, vi) lubricant addition for powder compaction, vii) powder coating

a) Cleaning of powders:

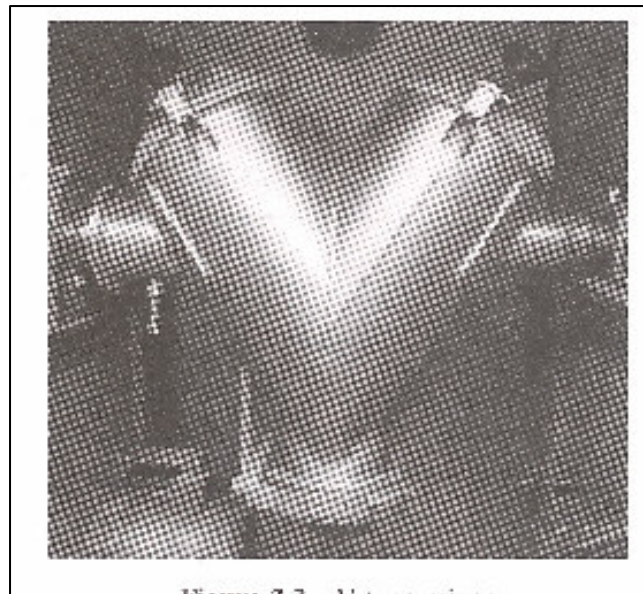
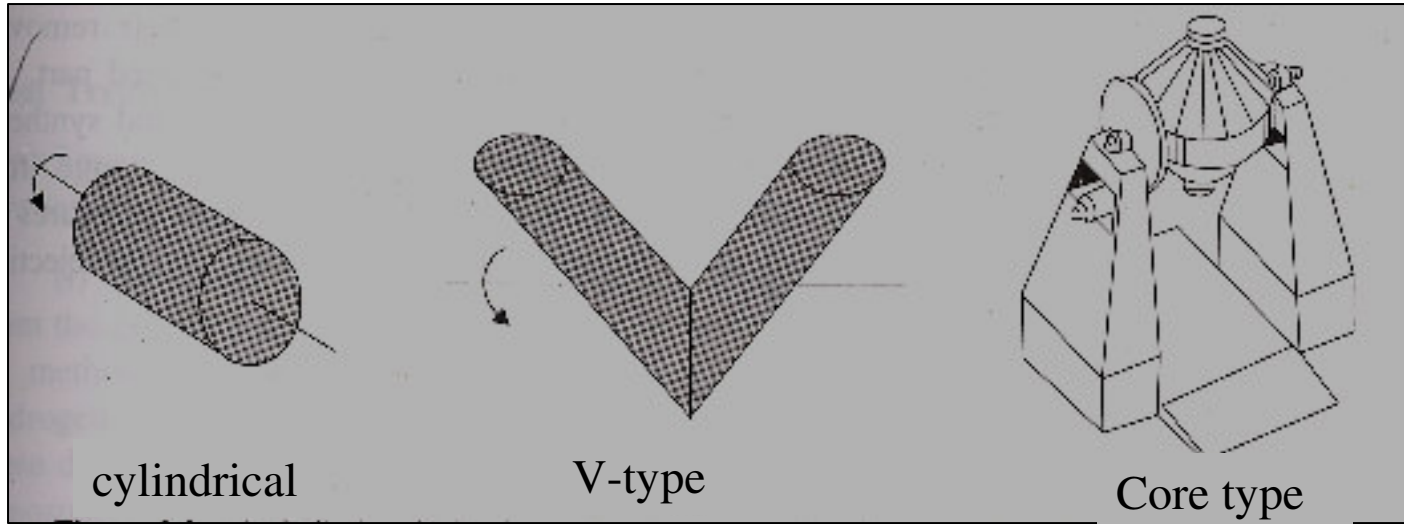
- Refers to the removal of contaminants, solid or gaseous, from the powder particles
- Solid contaminants => come from several sources like nozzles or crucible linings. They interfere during compaction and sintering preventing proper mechanical bonding
- Most of these contaminants are non-reactive, but they **act as sites for crack nucleation and reduce the dynamic properties of the sintered part**; Non-metallic solid impurities can be removed from superalloy powders by particle separators, electrostatic separation techniques
- Gaseous impurities like hydrogen and oxygen get into powders during processing, storage or handling if proper care is not taken. Finer the powders, contamination will be more because of large powder surface area.
- These gaseous impurities can form **undesirable oxides during processing at relatively high temperature** or **gets trapped inside the material as pores**, reducing the in situ performance of the P/M part; Degassing techniques like cold, hot static or dynamic degassing methods are used to remove adsorbed gases from the powders
- Lubricants added to the powders for better compaction has to be removed for desirable final P/M part

b) Grinding: similar to the mechanical methods seen earlier; Milling is widely used for reducing the aggregates of powder; Milling time, speed, type can be selected for getting required degree of grinding

c) Powder classification & screening: Powder size and shape, size distribution varied within specified range is required for better behavior of P/M parts; In this method, the desired particle size distributions with particle sizes within specific limits can be obtained; These variation depends on lot also.

d) Blending & mixing: *Blending* – Process in which powders of the same nominal composition but having different particle sizes are intermingled. This is done to (i) obtain a uniform distribution of particle sizes, i.e. powders consisting of different particle sizes are often blended to reduce porosity, (ii) for intermingling of lubricant with powders to modify metal to powder interaction during compaction

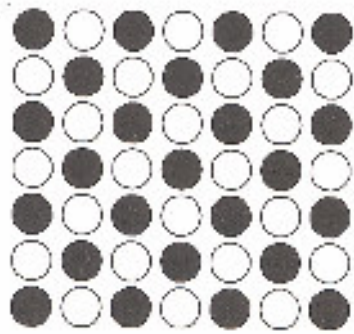
Mixing – process of combining powders of different chemistries such as elemental powder mixes (Cu-Sn) or metal-nonmetal powders. This may be done in dry or wet condition. Liquid medium like alcohol, acetone, benzene or distilled water are used as milling medium in wet milling. Ball mills or rod mills are employed for mixing hard metals such as carbides.



V-type mixer

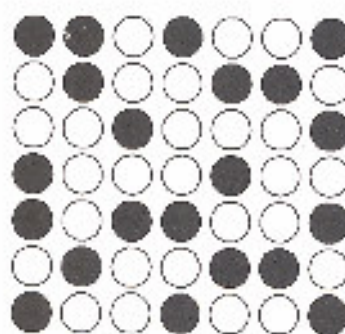
Mixing methods

Depending on the extent of mixing, mixing can be classified as (i) perfectly mixed or uniform mixing, (ii) random mixed, & (iii) totally un-mixed. The mixing should be stopped when random mixture is achieved. Overmixing leads to reduced flow characteristics of the mix.



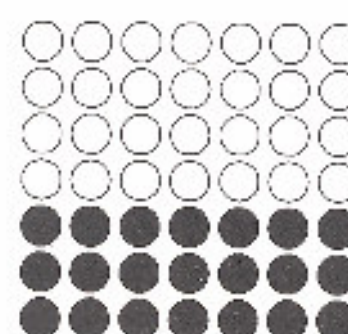
(i)

uniform mixing



(ii)

random mixed



(iii)

un-mixed.

Heat treatment of powders

Heat treatment is generally carried out before mixing or blending the metal powders.

Some of the important objectives are,

- i) Improving the purity of powder: Reduction of surface oxides from powders by annealing in hydrogen or other reducing atmosphere. Dissolved gases like hydrogen and oxygen, other impurities are removed by annealing of powders. Lowering impurities like carbon results in lower hardness of the powder and hence lower compaction pressures & lower die wear during compaction. For eg., atomized powders having a combined carbon and oxygen content as high as 1% can be reduced after annealing to about 0.01% carbon and 0.2% oxygen. Heat treatment is done at protective atmosphere like hydrogen, vacuum.
- ii) Improving the powder softness: Aim is to reduce the work hardening effect of powders that has be crushed to obtain fine powders; while many powders are made by milling, crushing or grinding of bulk materials. Powder particles are annealed under reducing atmosphere like hydrogen. The annealing temperature is kept low to avoid fusion of the particles.
- iii) Modification of powder characteristics: The apparent density of the powders can be modified to a higher or lower value by changing the temperature of treatment.

Toxicity of powders

- Toxicity leads to undesirable health effects like eye, skin irritation, vomiting, respiratory problems, blood poisoning etc.
- powder like lead, nickel are highly toxic & Al, iron are less toxic
- **Precautions:** Use of protective gloves, respiratory masks, protective clothing etc.; use of well ventilated storage, workplace; careful handling, disposal of wastes
- flammability & reactivity data is required
- Health effects: Inhalation – disturbs the respiratory track; remedial measures include moving the person to fresh air. Artificial breathing is required if patient not breathing properly.

Skin, eyes – Brushing, washing skin and eyes with water and soap. Clean eyes with fresh water for 15 mts.

Compaction of metal powders

- Compaction is an important step in powder processing as it enables the forming of loose metal powders into required shapes with sufficient strength to withstand till sintering is completed.
- In general, compaction is done without the application of heat. Loose powders are converted into required shape with sufficient strength to withstand ejection from the tools and subsequent sintering process. IN cases like cemented carbide, hot compaction is done followed by sintering. One can not call this as compaction strictly, as sintering is also involved in this.

Powder compaction methods

Powder compaction techniques can be classified as,

1. **Methods without application of pressure** – i) loose powder sintering in mould, ii) vibratory compaction, iii) slip casting, iv) slurry casting, v) injection moulding
2. **Methods with applied pressure** – i) cold die compaction (single action pressing, double action pressing, floating die pressing), ii) isostatic pressing, iii) powder rolling, iv) powder extrusion, v) explosive compaction

Pressureless compaction techniques

-Used for the production of simple and low density parts such as filters, other parts that are porous in nature; **these techniques involve no external force and depend upon gravity for powder packing**

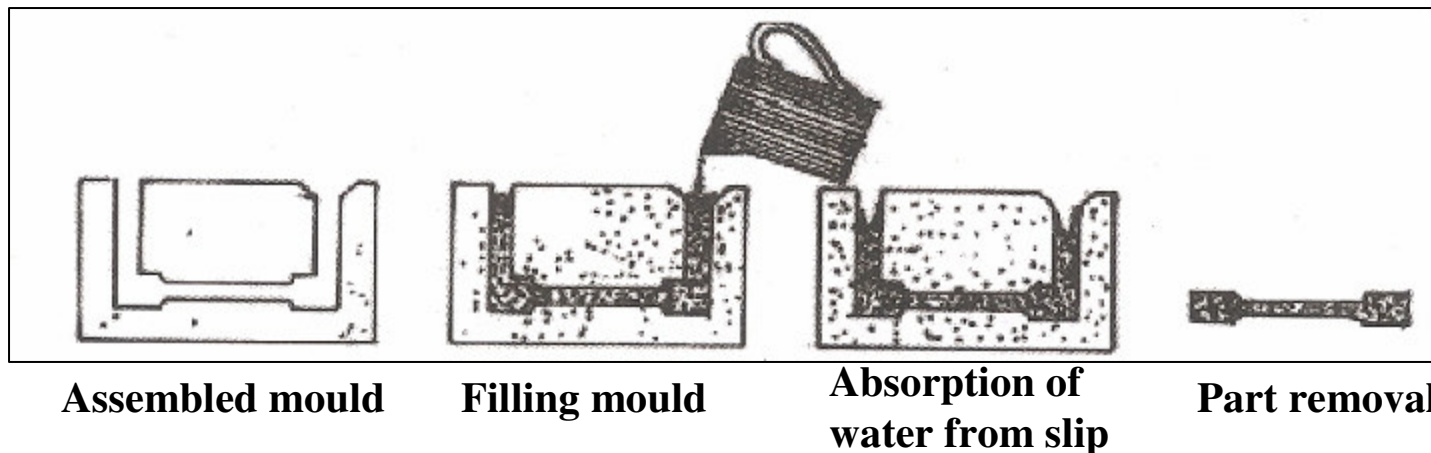
I) Loose powder sintering: - Also known as loose powder shaping, gravity sintering, pressureless sintering. **In this method, the metal powder is vibrated mechanically into the mould, which is the negative impression of the product and heated to sintering temperature.** This is the simplest method and involve low cost equipment. The main reasons for not using this method for part production are, difficulty of part removal from the mould after sintering, & considerable shrinkage during sintering.

- **Applications:** Amount of porosity ranges from 40 vol% to 90 vol%; Highly porous filter materials made of bronze, stainless steel, and monel, porous nickel membrane for use as electrodes in alkaline storage batteries and fuel cells are typical examples.

II) Slip casting: - Used for compacting metal and ceramic powders to make large & complex shapes for limited production runs

- A slip is a suspension of metal or ceramic powder (finer than 5 μm) in water or other soluble liquid which is pored into a mould, dried and further sintered.

- **Steps in slip casting:** i) Preparing assembled plaster mould, ii) filling the mould, iii) absorption of water from the slip into the porous mould, iv) removal of part from the mould, v) trimming of finished parts from the mould
- Sometimes mould release agents like oil, graphite can be used.
- Hollow and multiple parts can be produced
- **Advantages of slip casting:** Products that can not be produced by pressing operation can be made, no expensive equipment is required, works best with finest powder particles
- **Disadvantage:** slow process, limited commercial applications
- **Applications:** tubes, boats, crucibles, cones, turbine blades, rocket guidance fins; Also products with excellent surface finish like basins, water closets.



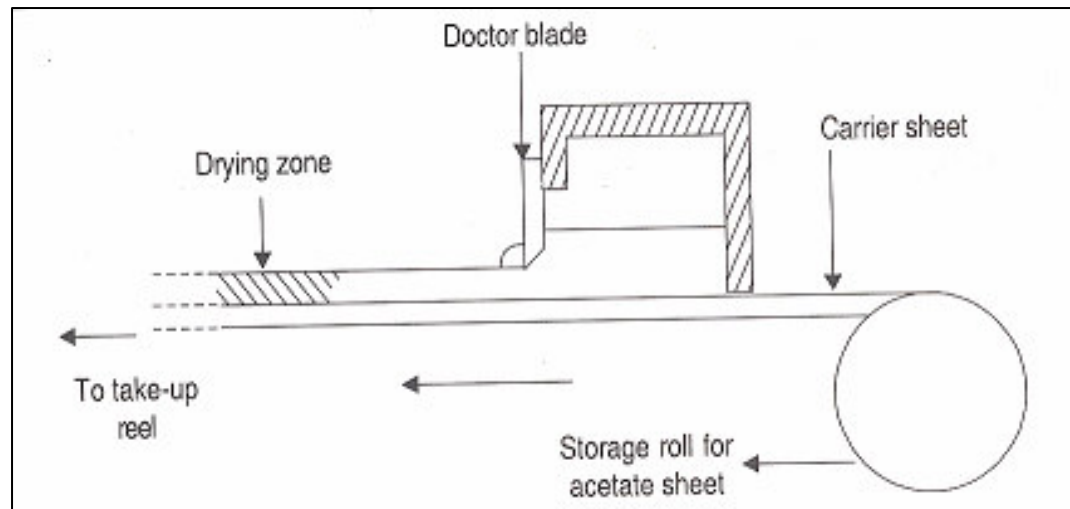
III) Slurry casting: This process is similar to slip casting except that a slurry of metal powders with suitable liquids, various additives, and binders is poured into a mould and dried. The solvent is removed either by absorption into the POP or by evaporation. Very high porous sheet for use as electrodes in fuel cells and nickel-cadmium rechargeable batteries are produced by this method.

IV) Tape casting (doctor blade casting): - This is a variation of slurry casting process and is used to produce thin flat sheets.

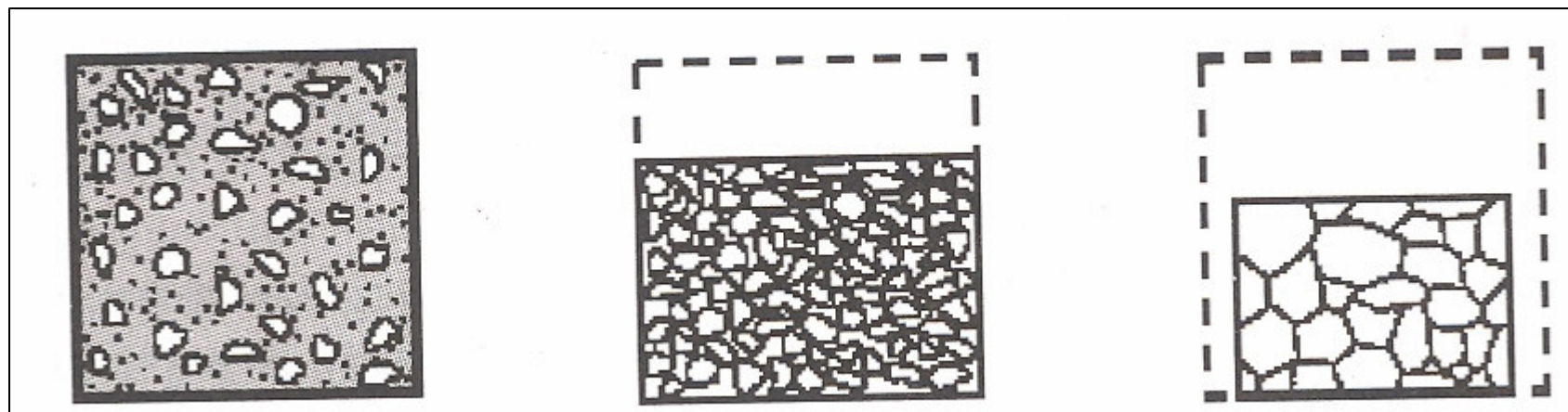
-This process involves preparing a dispersion of metal or ceramic powder in a suitable solvent with the addition of dispersion agent (to improve the dispersion of the particles). Then a binder is added and fed to a reservoir. Whole mixture is fed on to a moving carrier film from the bottom of the reservoir.

-This slurry layer is deposited on the film by the shearing action of a blade. The slurry should be free of air bubbles, otherwise result in porosity. During sintering, the binder is burnt off first and densification of material occurs.

- In present days, endless stainless steel belt is used instead of carrier tape. This process can be used for making very thin tapes between 50 to 1000 μm thickness. This method is used for making electronic substrates, dielectrics for capacitors and piezoelectric actuators.



Schematic of tape casting



Slip

Green tape

Sintered tape

Stages in tape casting

V) Vibratory compaction: - Vibratory compaction uses vibration energy to compact the powder mass. During this process, smaller voids can be filled with particles of still smaller size and this sequence is carried out till a high packing density of powder is achieved even before consolidation. Mechanical vibration facilitates the formation of nearly closed packed powder by settling particles in the voids present in the powder agglomerate. During vibration, small pneumatic pressure is usually superimposed on the powder mass.

- Brittle powders can be compacted by this method as they develop crack if done by pressure compaction

- This method is generally used when, 1) powders have irregular shape, 2) use of plasticizers for forming is not desirable, 3) sintered density is required to be very close theoretical density

- Important variables in vibratory compaction:

1. inertia of system: larger the system, more the energy required for packing
2. friction force between particles: more friction results in need of more KE for compaction
3. particle size distribution: more frequency required if more large particles are present. Vibration cycle is important and not period of vibration.

Pressure compaction techniques

- These techniques involve application of external pressure to compact the loose powder particles; Pressure applied can be unidirectional, bidirectional or hydrostatic in nature.
- **Die compaction:** In this process, loose powder is shaped in a die using a mechanical or hydraulic press giving rise to densification. The mechanisms of densification depend on the material and structural characteristics of powder particles.
- Unidirectional and bidirectional compaction involves same number of stages and are described in this figure. They are, i) charging the powder mix, ii) applying load using a punch (uni-) or double punch (bi-) to compact powders, iii) removal of load by retracting the punch, iv) ejection of green compact. The table gives compaction pressure ranges for metals and ceramics.

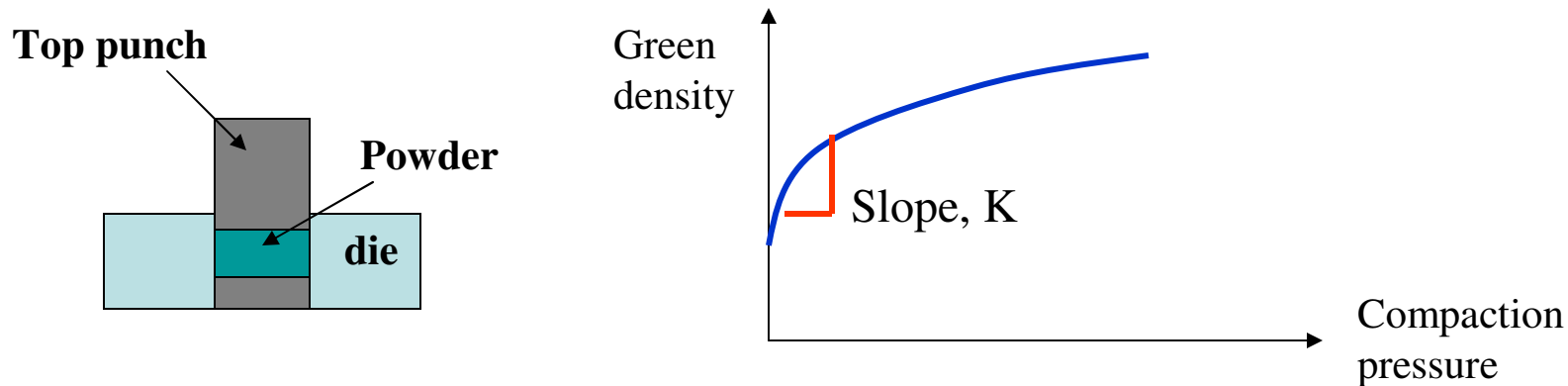
<u>Material type</u>	<u>Compaction pressure range (MPa)</u>
Metals	70–275
Aluminium	400–700
Brass	200–275
Bronze	350–800
Iron	600–720
Iron-copper (2%) premix	70–140
Tungsten	
Ceramics	100–140
Alumina	140–160
Carbon	150–400
Hard metals	110–165
Magnetic ceramics (ferrites)	

Effect of powder characteristics

For a good compaction, 1) irregular shaped particles are preferred as they give better interlocking and hence high green strength, 2) apparent density of powders decides the die fill during compaction. Hence powder size, shape & density affect the apparent density, 3) flow rate affects the die fill time, and once again powder size, shape & density affect the flow rate.

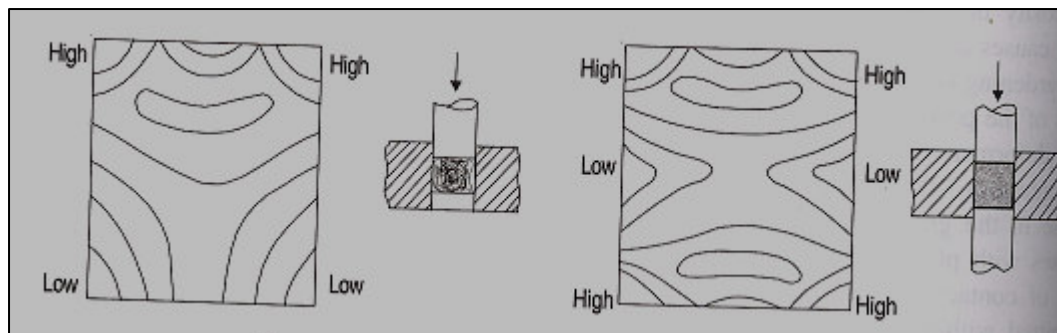
Powder behavior during compaction

- Compaction involves, 1) flow of powder particles past one another interacting with each other and with die-punch, 2) deformation of particles. In the case of homogeneous compaction, two stages are observed. **First stage** => rapid densification occurs when pressure is applied due to particle movement and rearrangement resulting in improved packing; **Second stage** => increase in applied pressure leads to elastic and plastic deformation resulting in locking and cold welding of particles. In the second stage, large increments in pressures are seen to effect a small increase in density.



- The green compact produced can be considered as a two-phase aggregate consisting of powder particles and porosity each having own shape and size.
- Compaction can be done at low and high temperatures. Room temperature compaction employs pressures in the range of 100-700 MPa and produce density in the range of 60-90% of the theoretical density. At higher temperatures, pressures are kept low within the limits for preventing die damage.
- In single die compaction, powders close to the punch and die walls experience much better force than in center. This results in green density variation across the sample length. Longer the sample more the density difference. This non-uniformity can result in non-uniformity in properties of sintered part.
- This density variation and hence final property variation can be greatly reduced by having double ended die compaction. In this case, powder experiences more uniform pressure from both top and bottom, resulting in minimization of density variation. But this variation will still be considerable if the components have high aspect ratio (length to diameter ratio). This means that long rods and tubes cannot be produced by die compaction. In this case, isostatic pressing can be used.

Single ended compaction



Double ended compaction

Schematic of powder compaction

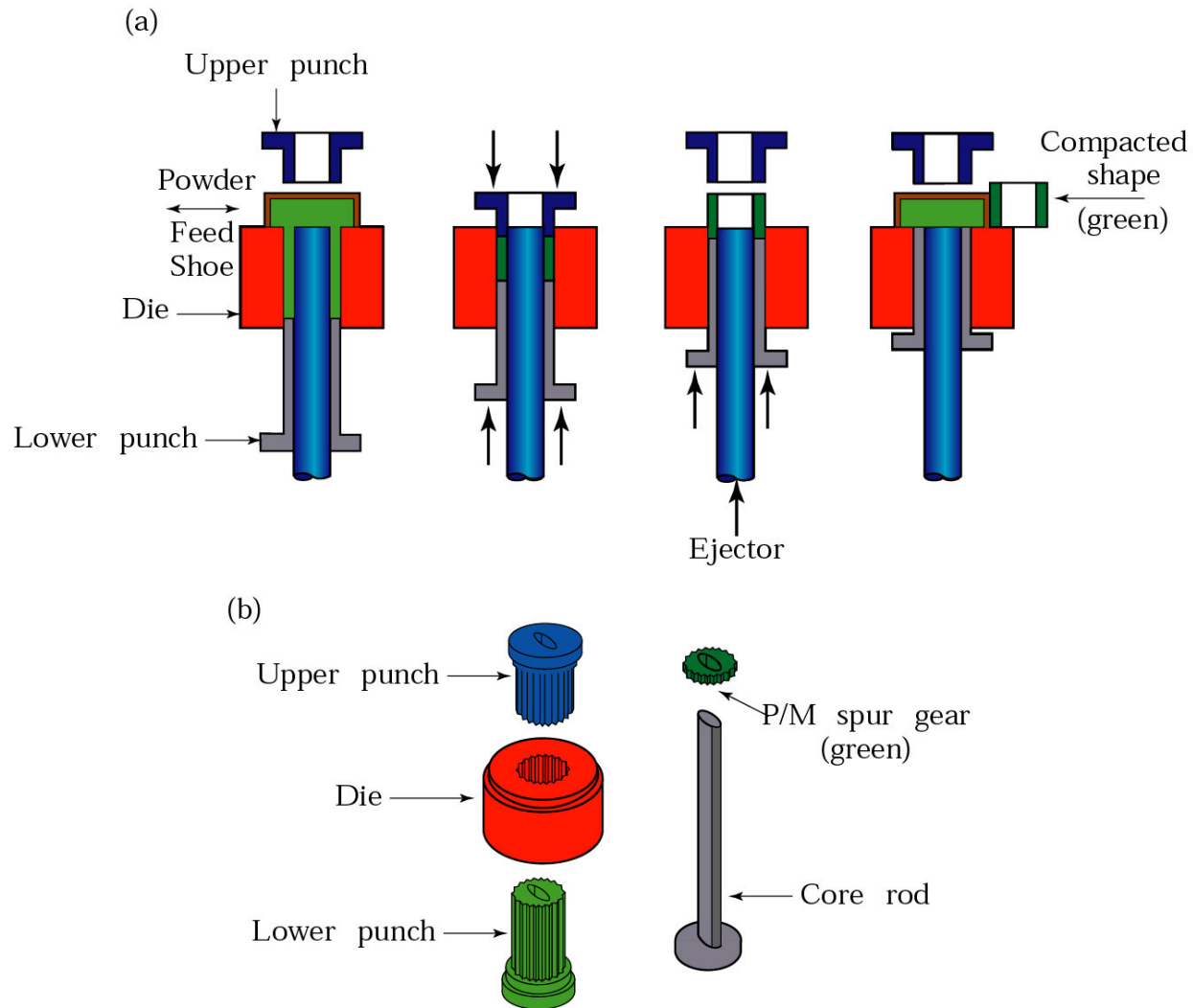


Figure from public domain

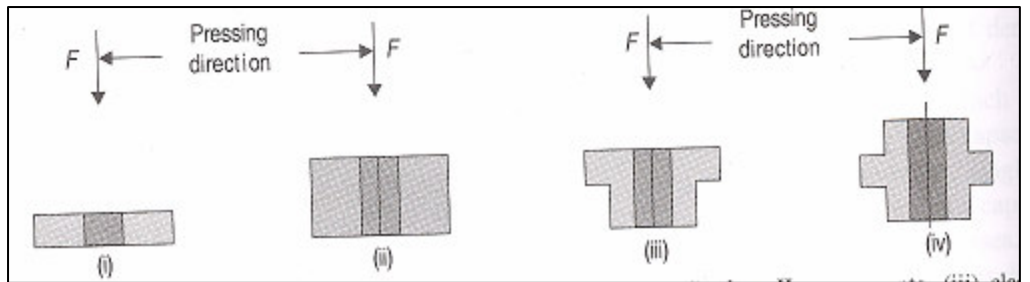
Die compaction lubricants

- It is known that presence of frictional forces limits the degree of densification.
- Usage of lubricants either mixed or applied to contact surfaces can be done to minimize friction
- **Lubricants** => organic compounds such as waxes or metallic stearates or salts and they generally have low boiling points; Amount of lubricant added can be 0.5 to 2 % by weight of charge
- **Mixed lubrication** => Reduce the interparticle friction and aid better packing. But they may affect the densification property depending on their volume and density. The mixed lubricants should be removed before sintering to avoid distortion of compact.
- Even 1 wt% of lubricant can occupy large volume of app. 5% and maximum attainable density will be 95% (assuming zero porosity) only.
- **Die wall lubrication** => Graphite & MoS₂ can be applied physically on the die, punch surfaces; They can be easily removed, but takes longer production times.
- **Commonly used lubricants in P/M** => Paraffin wax, Aluminium stearate, Lithium stearate, Zinc stearate, Magnesium stearate, stearic acid, Oleic acid, Talc, Graphite, boron nitride, MoS₂

Tooling for die compaction

P/M part classification

Class I P/M part => simple, thin sections, uni-directionally pressed with single level compaction; class II P/M Part => Simple, but thick sections requiring pressing from two direction; class III => Two different thickness levels requiring two direction pressing; class IV => Multiple levels of thickness, requiring pressing from both the directions

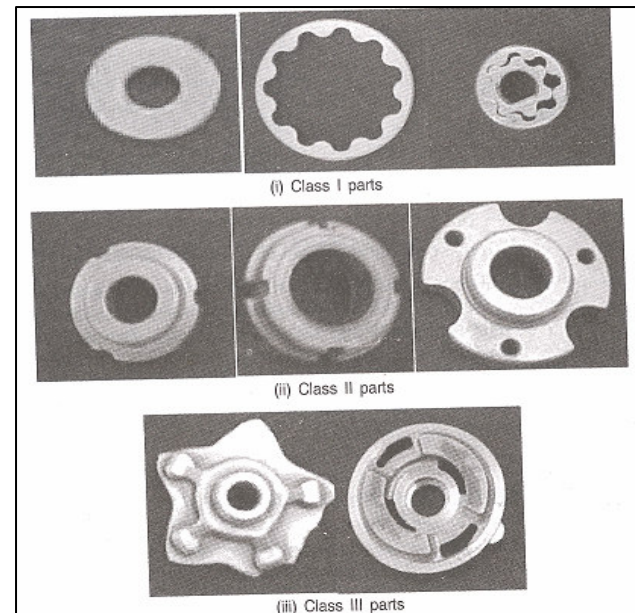


Class I part

Class II part

Class III part

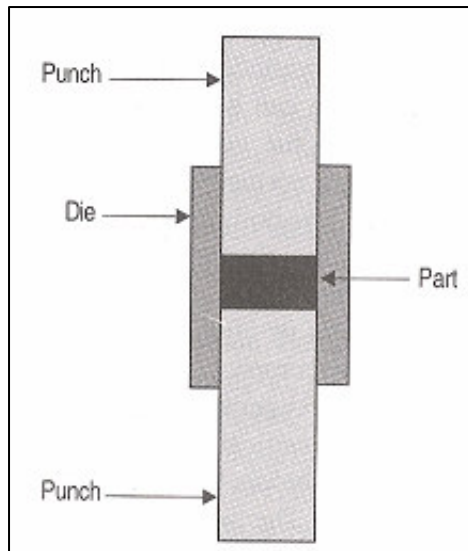
Class IV part



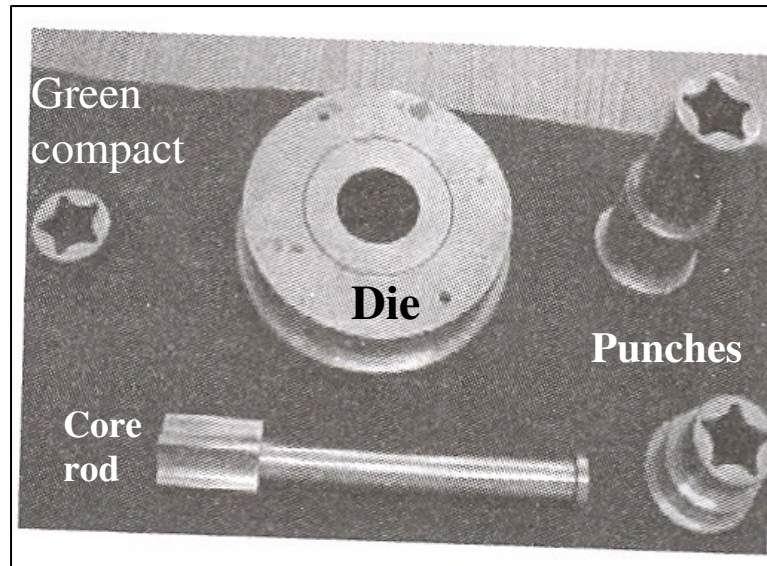
Class I

Class II

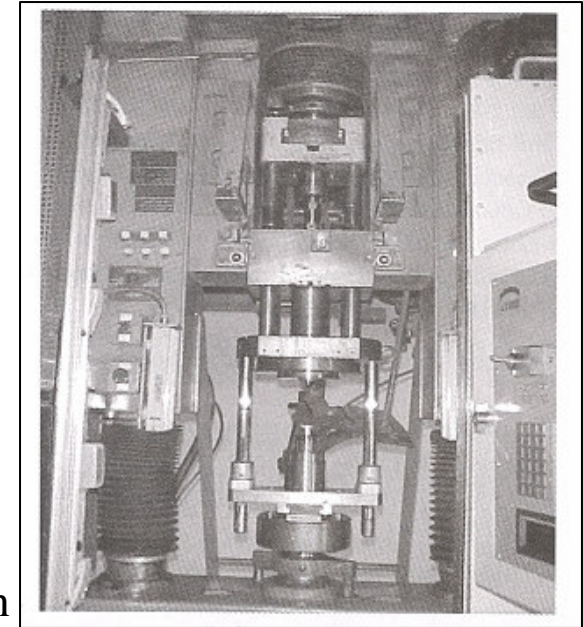
Class III



Double action tooling



Tooling for double action die compaction



Hydraulic press used for die compaction

Tooling: **Single action tooling:** pressure is applied by lower punch, while the die cavity and upper punch remain stationary. After compaction, the upper punch moves away and compact is ejected by movement of lower punch. Class I parts can be made by this tooling.

Double action tooling: IN this, Simultaneous movement of top and bottom punches are seen, while die and core rod remain stationary. Class II, III, IV type parts are made by this tooling.

Powder characteristics that affect the tooling design include, 1) **Flow of powders** – powder particles should flow freely to fill the die. By using lubricants, flow can be made smooth and improved; 2) **die fill** – this is the amount of powder in the cavity before compaction. This depends on shape and geometry of part, free flow of powders, complexity of part like thin sections and protrusions.

Die materials

Soft powders like aluminium, copper, lead => abrasion resistant steel such as air-hardened steels, die steels are used for making die

Relatively hard powders => dies made of tool steel are used

More hard & abrasive powders like steel => tungsten carbide dies are used. But carbide dies are costly & high hardness (difficult to machine)

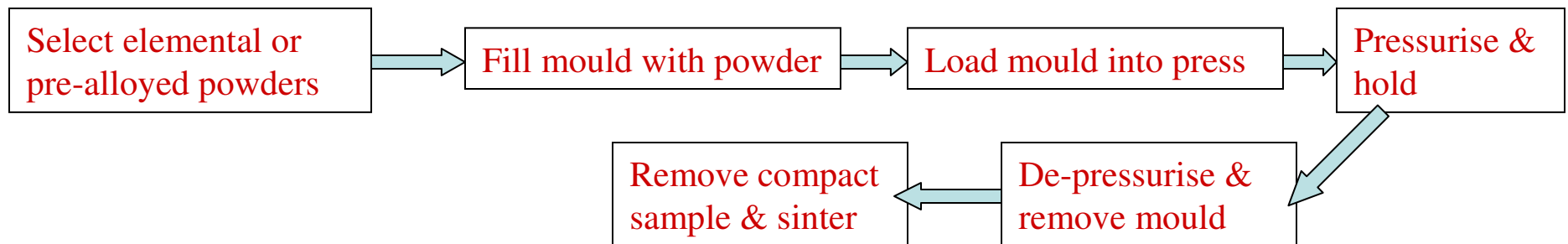
Coated dies with hard & wear resistant coating material like titanium nitride or titanium carbide can be used

Defects occurring in die pressing of powders:

- 1) lamination cracking – this is caused by trapped air in compact sample. This cracking occurs perpendicular to load direction. This trapped air prevents the interlocking of particles.
- 2) Blowout – occurs when all the entrapped air tries to escape at the interface between the die and punch

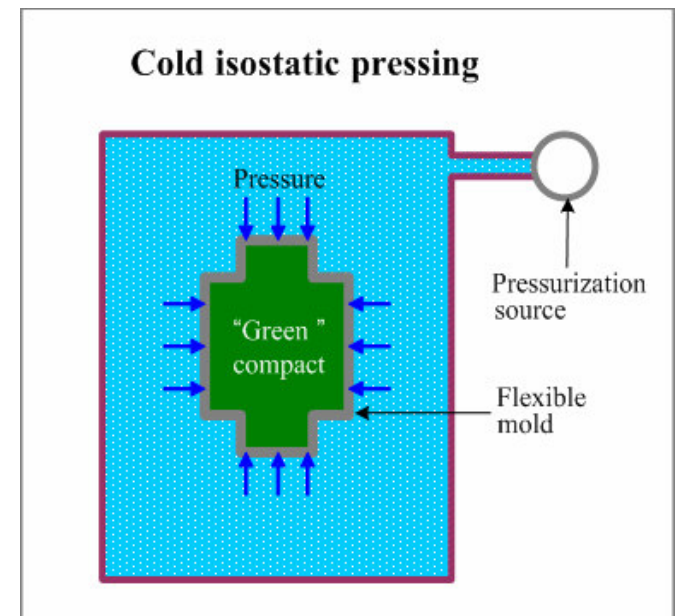
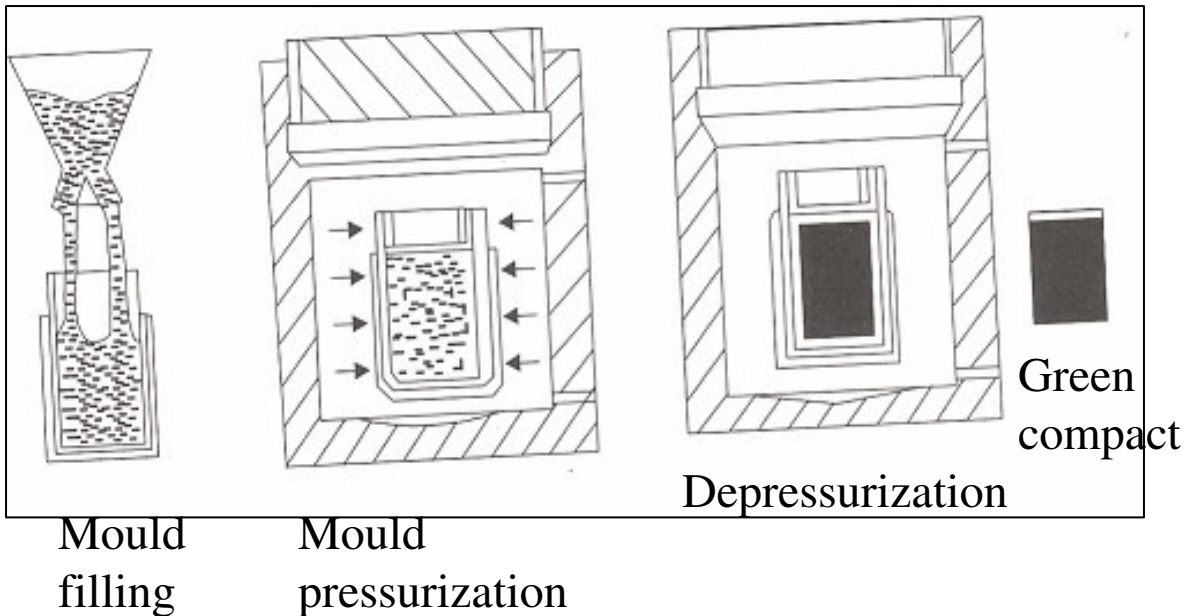
Cold isostatic compaction (CIP)

- CIP is a compaction process in which isostatic fluid pressure is applied to a powder mass at room temperature to compact it into desired shape. The powder parts can be compacted up to 80-95 % of their theoretical densities. Water or oil can be used as pressuring medium.
- **Process details:** High density near-net shape green parts, long thin walled cylinders, parts with undercuts can be readily fabricated. **In this process, pressure is applied simultaneously and equally in all directions using a fluid to an elastomeric fluid with powder at room temperature.** Sintered CIP component can reach up to 97 % of theoretical density. Steps in this process is shown in flowchart.



Good mould filling is required in CIP because the initial powder distribution and density affect the preform shape. Powder size, shape, density and mechanical properties affect the flowability of powder into the mould and the packing density. Optimum pressing is obtained by using a free-flowing powder along with controlled vibration or mould tapping. **Materials used for flexible moulds are natural, synthetic rubber like neoprene, urethane, nitrile, silicones.**

- During pressing, high density is achieved at a low pressure, while the green strength of the compact rises linearly with pressure. **The pressure applied can range from 100-400 MPa.** Initially the applied stress (exactly shear stress) serves to improve the density of the compact by particle sliding and rotation. In the next stage, deformation of powder particles occur and particle characteristics like shape play vital role in deciding this stage.
- Irregular particles which interlock with one another and also deform during both the stages, tend to densify much easily than spherical powders. In the case of spherical powders, in spite of their higher initial packing densities, particles do not mechanically interlock with one another and hence do not easily deform. Hence high pressures are required for their compaction.



Types of cold isostatic pressing:

Wet bag process: IN this, the mould is directly in contact with the fluid. This reduces the productivity, since the bag has to be removed every time before refilling. Tooling costs are reduced in this.

Fixed mould process: the mould is fixed in the pressure vessel and powders are filled in situ. The tooling has internal channel into which fluid is pumped. This is an automated process in which the powder filling, compaction, depressurization and removal of green parts are done continuously. This involves higher tooling cost, but has higher production rate.

Advantages of CIP:

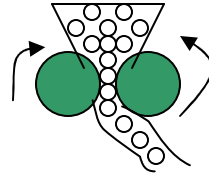
Uniform, controlled, reproducible densification of powder; long, slender parts can be pressed; neat net shape forming; short production times; economy of operation for complex and large parts.

Applications:

Metallic filters made from bronze, brass, stainless steel, Inconel, Monel, Titanium, high speed tools, carbide tools. Also ceramic parts such as sparks plugs and insulators are made by this method.

Powder rolling

This process involves feeding of powders between rolls to produce a coherent and brittle green strip. This green strip is then sintered & re-rolled to obtain a dense, finished product.

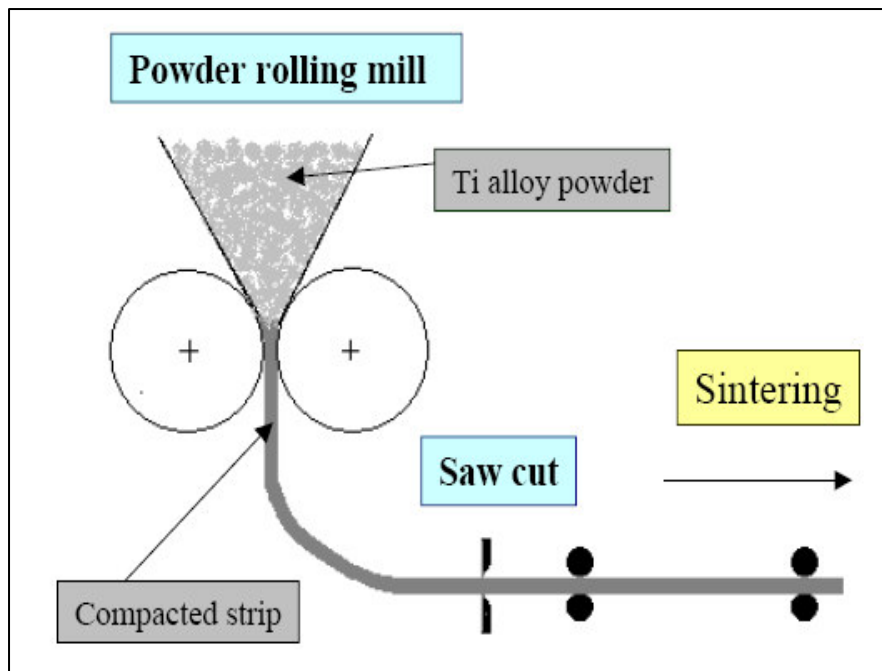
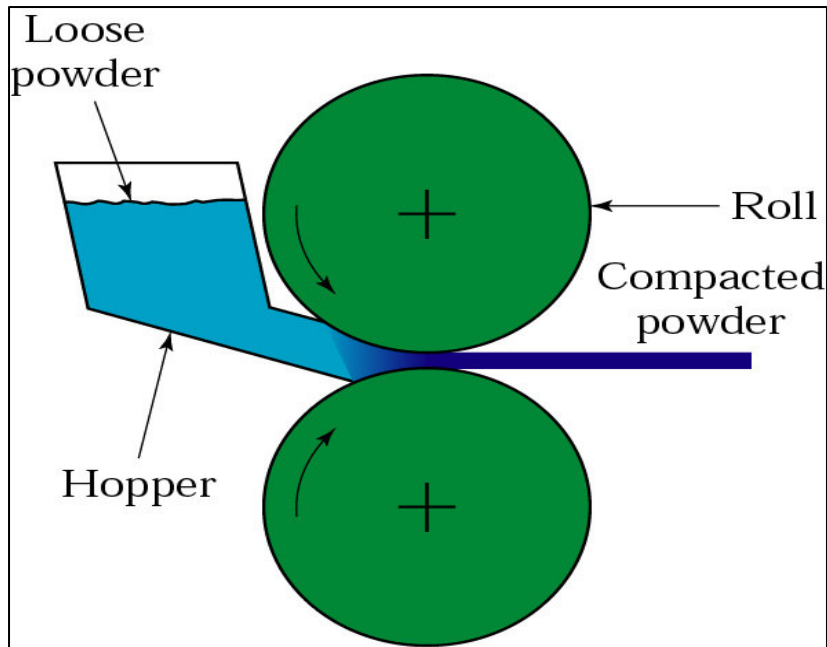


Steps: 1) preparation of green strip, 2) sintering, 3) densification of sintered strip, 4) final cold rolling and annealing

Parameters affecting powder rolling are roll gap, roll diameter, roll speed, powder characteristics; **Roll gap** => large roll gap leads to decrease in green density; very small roll gap leads to edge cracking; **roll diameter** => increase in density and strength with increase in roll dia. for a given strip thickness; **roll speed** => Kept low, 0.3-0.5 m/s; **Powder** => irregular powder with rough surfaces provide better strip density

In densification stage, either **repeated cold rolling followed by annealing** or **hot rolling of strip** can be followed

Applications: nickel strips for coinage, nickel-iron strips for controlled expansion properties, Cu-Ni-Sn alloys for electronic applications, porous nickel strip for alkaline batteries and fuel cell applications.

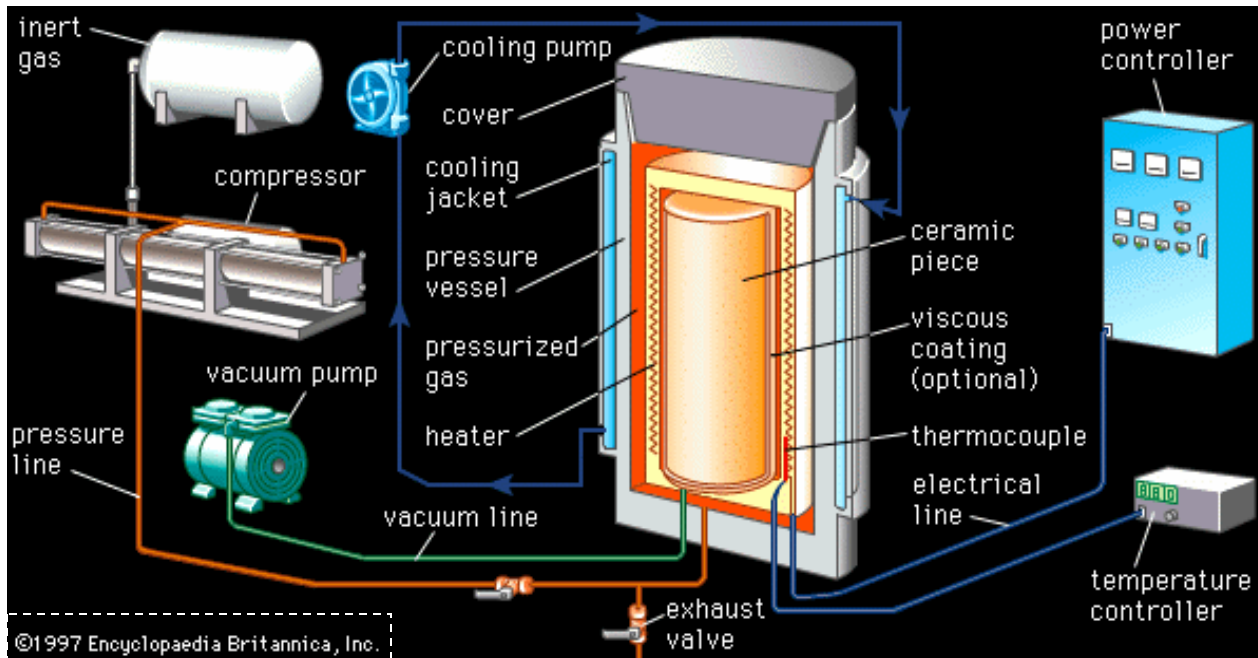


12" wide Ti-6Al-4V strip

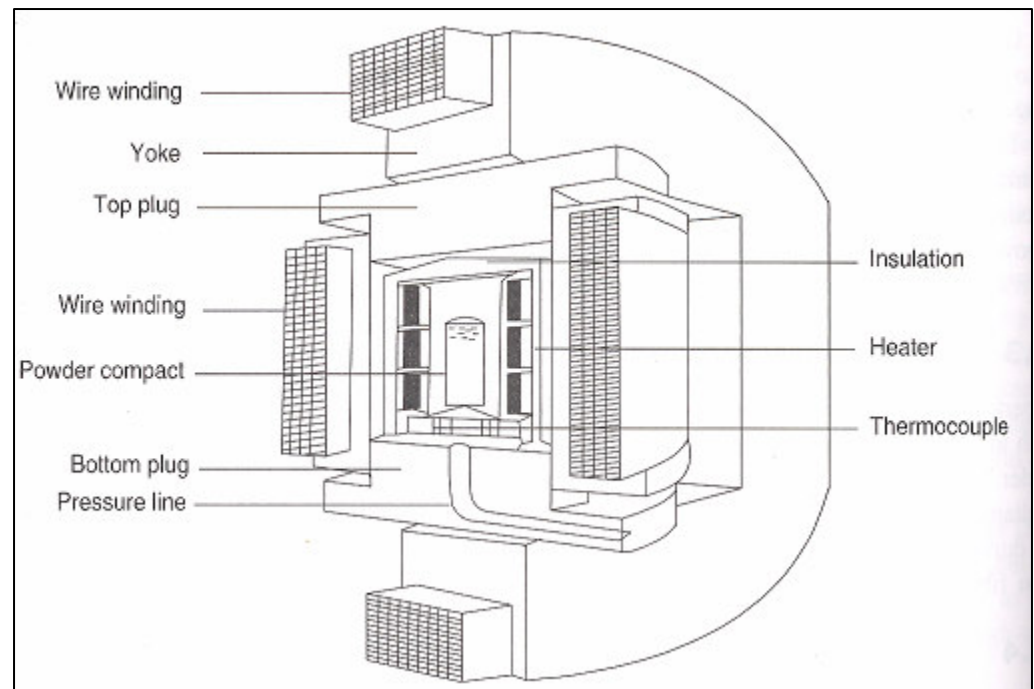
Figures from www.cems.uvm.edu/~ebuturla/,
<http://www.itponline.com/Presentations/ITA-2005.pdf>

Hot isostatic pressing

- Ideal method for consolidation of powders of nickel and cobalt base super alloys, tool steels, maraging steels, titanium alloys, refractory metal powders, cermets. It has got variety of applications including bonding of dissimilar materials, consolidation of plasma coatings, processing hard and soft magnetic materials etc.
- HIP is the application of pressure at elevated temperatures to obtain net or near net shape parts from metal, ceramic, cermet powders.
- HIP unit consists of a pressure vessel, high temperature furnace, pressurizing system, controls and auxiliary systems (material handling, vacuum pumps, metering pumps).
- The **pressure vessel** is made of low alloy steel. Its function is to heat the powders while applying uniform gas pressure on all the sides. **Furnaces** are of radiation or convection type heating furnaces with graphite or molybdenum heating elements. Nichrome is also used. The furnace heats the powder part, while pressurizing medium (a gas) is used to apply a high pressure during the process. Generally, **argon, nitrogen, helium or even air is used as pressurizing medium.**
- The pressurizing gas, usually argon, is let into the vessel and then a compressor is used to increase the pressure to the desired level. The furnace is then started and both temperature and pressure are increased to a required value.



HIP UNIT– used for ceramic material (photo from public domain)



Schematic of HIP UNIT (cross-section)

- HIP presses are available in diameters up to 2m with pressures ranges from 40 to 300 MPa with temperature range from 500 to 2200 °C. The processing time can last up to 4 hours depending on the material and size of the part.
- during HIP, the pores are closed by flow of matter by diffusion and creep, but also bonded across the interface to form a continuous material.
- Commonly used heating elements: Kanthal heating element – up to 1200 °C; Molybdenum heating element – 1200 to 1700 °C; Graphite heating element – 2000 to 2600 °C
- Typical range of temperature & pressures used in HIP is given in table

<i>Material</i>	<i>HIP temperature range (°C)</i>	<i>Applied pressure (MPa)</i>
Al alloy	350–500	100
Cu alloy	500–900	100
High-speed steel	1,000–1,200	100
Ni base superalloy	1,170–1,280	100–150
Ti alloy (Ti-6Al-4V)	880–960	100
Al ₂ O ₃	1,350–1,450	100
Ba Ti O ₃	100–1,200	100
Partially stabilized zirconia	1,350–1,500	100
SiAlON	1,700–1,800	100
WC-Co	1,300–1,350	30–100

Sintering

- It is the process of consolidating either loose aggregate of powder or a green compact of the desired composition under controlled conditions of temperature and time.

- Types of sintering: a) **solid state sintering** – This is the commonly occurring consolidation of metal and alloy powders. In this, densification occurs mainly because of atomic diffusion in solid state.

b) **Liquid phase sintering** – The densification is improved by employing a small amount of liquid phase (1-10% vol). The liquid phase existing within the powders at the sintering temperature has some solubility for the solid. Sufficient amount of liquid is formed between the solid particles of the compact sample. During sintering, the liquid phase crystallizes at the grain boundaries binding the grains. During this stage, there is a rapid rearrangement of solid particles leading to density increase. In later stage, solid phase sintering occurs resulting in grain coarsening and densification rate slows down. Used for sintering of systems like tungsten-copper and copper-tin. Also covalent compounds like silicon nitride, silicon carbide can be made, that are difficult to sinter.

c) **Activated sintering** – IN this, an alloying element called ‘doping’ is added in small amount improves the densification by as much as 100 times than undoped compact samples. Example is the doping of nickel in tungsten compacts

d) **Reaction sintering** – IN this process, high temperature materials resulting from chemical reaction between the individual constituents, giving very good bonding. Reaction sintering occurs when two or more components reacts chemically during sintering to create final part. A typical example is the reaction between alumina and titania to form aluminium titanate at 1553 K which then sinters to form a densified product.

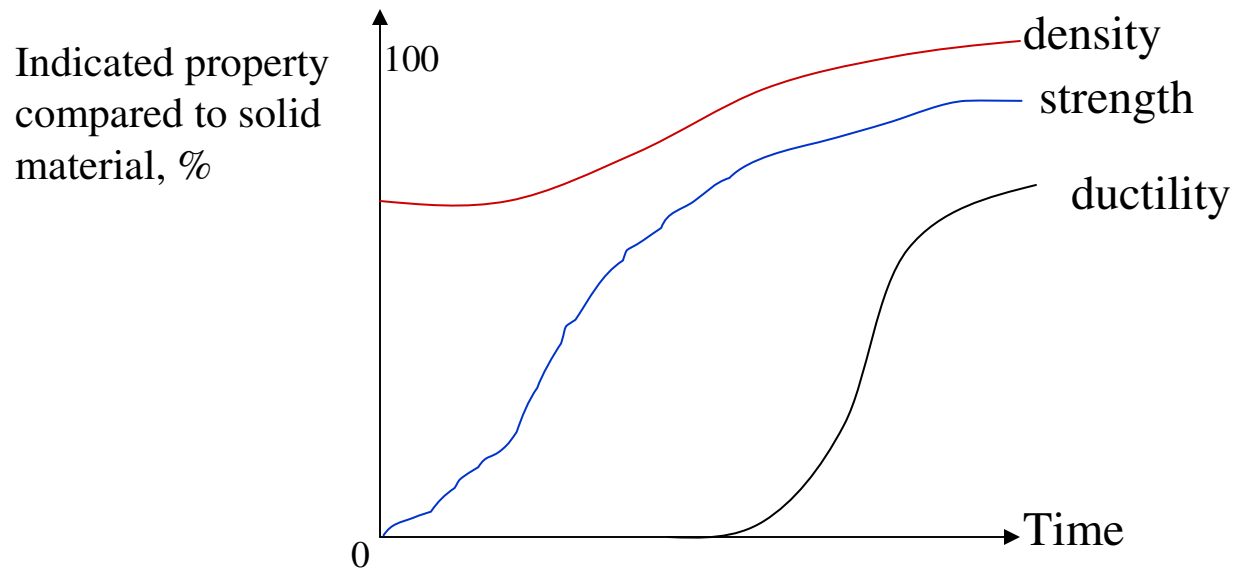
Other than mentioned above, rate controlled sintering, microwave sintering, gas plasma sintering, spark plasma sintering are also developed and practiced.

Sintering theory

- Sintering may involve, 1) single component system – here self-diffusion is the major material transport mechanism and the driving force resulting from a chemical potential gradient due to surface tension and capillary forces between particles, 2) multi-component system (involve more than one phase) – inter-diffusion occurs with the concentration gradient being the major driving force for sintering in addition to self-diffusion caused by surface tension and capillary forces. IN this sintering, liquid phase formation and solid solution formation also occurs with densification.
- First theory was proposed by Sauerwald in 1922. This theory says that two stages are involved in sintering namely adhesion and recrystallisation. Adhesion occurs during heating due to atomic attraction and recrystallisation occurs at recrystallisation temperature (above $0.5 T_m$). In recrystallisation, microstructure changes, phase changes, grain growth, shrinkage occurs.

Property changes during sintering

- Densification is proportional to the shrinkage or the amount of pores removed in the case of single component system
- IN multicomponent system, expansion rather than shrinkage will result in densification and hence densification can not be treated as equal to the amount of porosity removed.
- densification results in mechanical property change like hardness, strength, toughness, physical properties like electrical, thermal conductivity, magnetic properties etc. Also change in composition is expected due to the formation of solid solution.



Solid state sintering process

Condition for sintering: 1) densification occurs during sintering and solid state sintering is carried out at temperatures where material transport due to diffusion is appreciable. Surface diffusion is not sufficient, atomic diffusion is required.

2) This occurs by replacing high energy solid-vapour interfaces (with free energy γ_{SV}) with the low energy solid-solid interface (particle-particle) of free energy γ_{SS} . This reduction in surface energy causes densification.

3) Initially free energy of solid-solid interface must be lower than free energy of solid-vapour interface. The process of sintering will stop if the overall change in free energy of the system (dE) becomes zero, i.e., $dE = \gamma_{SS} dA_{SS} + \gamma_{SV} dA_{SV} \leq 0$

Where dA_{SS} & dA_{SV} are the interfacial area of solid-solid and solid-vapour interfaces.

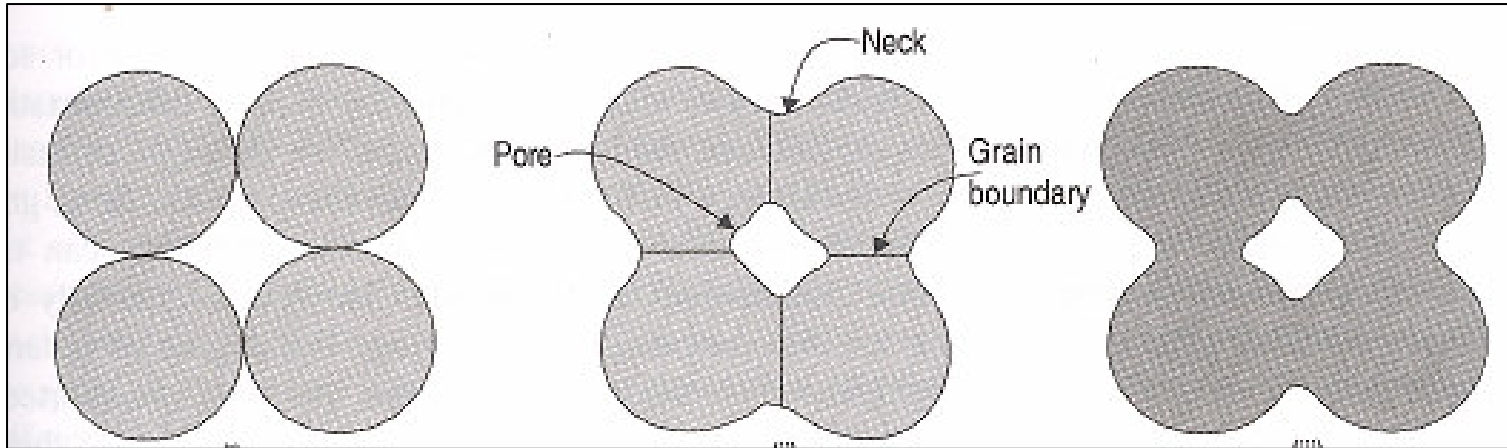
4) Initially, the surface area of compact represent the free surface area, since no grain boundaries have developed and hence $A_{SV} = A_{SV0}$ & $A_{SS} = 0$. As sintering proceeds, A_{SV} decreases and A_{SS} increases. The sintering process will stop when $dE = 0$,

$$\text{i.e., } \gamma_{SS} dA_{SS} + \gamma_{SV} dA_{SV} = 0 \Rightarrow \gamma_{SS} / \gamma_{SV} = - dA_{SV} / dA_{SS}$$

5) Densification stops when $- dA_{SV} / dA_{SS}$ is close to zero. To achieve densification without grain growth, the solid-solid interface must be maximized. Such conditions can be achieved by doping or by using suitable sintering conditions for surface free energy maximization.

Stages in solid state sintering

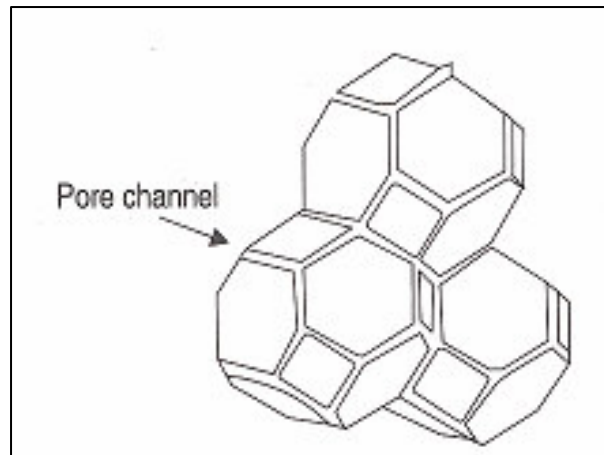
- In general, solid state sintering can be divided into three stages – 1st stage: *Necks are formed at the contact points between the particles*, which continue to grow. During this rapid neck growth takes place. Also the pores are interconnected and the pore shapes are irregular.
- 2nd stage: In this stage, with sufficient neck growth, the pore channels become more cylindrical in nature. The curvature gradient is high for small neck size leading to faster sintering. With sufficient time at the sintering temperature, the pore eventually becomes rounded. As the neck grows, the curvature gradient decreases and sintering also decreases. This means there is no change in pore volume but with change in pore shape => pores may become spherical and isolated. *With continued sintering, a network of pores and a skeleton of solid particle is formed*. The pores continue to form a connected phase throughout the compact.
- 3rd or final stage: In this stage, *pore channel closure occurs and the pores become isolated and no longer interconnected*. Porosity does not change and small pores remain even after long sintering times.



Particles in contact

Formation of necks,
grain boundaries,
pores

Final sintered geometry



Pore channel formation

Driving force for sintering

- *The main driving force is excess surface free energy in solid state sintering. The surface energy can be reduced by transporting material from different areas by various material transport mechanisms so as to eliminate pores.*
- material transport during solid state sintering occurs mainly by surface transport, grain boundary transportation. This surface transport can be through adhesion, surface diffusion. Many models available to describe sintering process – like viscous flow, plastic flow, grain boundary and volume diffusion models. These models will be briefly described here.

Mechanism in solid state sintering

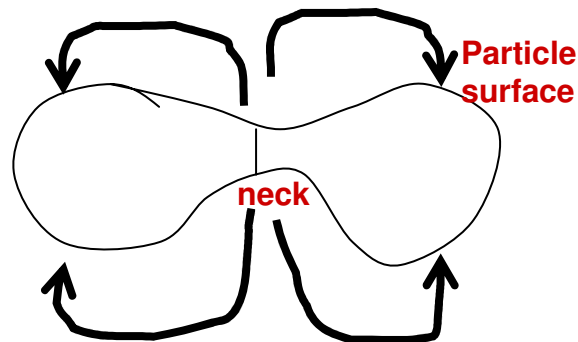
As discussed earlier, material or atom transport forms the basic mechanism for sintering process. A number of mechanisms have been proposed for sintering operation.

These are,

- 1. Evaporation condensation, 2. diffusion (can be volume diffusion, grain boundary diffusion, surface diffusion), 3. plastic flow**

1. Evaporation and condensation mechanism

The basic principle of the mechanism is that the **equilibrium vapor pressure over a concave surface (like neck) is lower compared to a convex surface (like particle surface)**. This creates the vapor pressure gradient between the neck region and particle surface. Hence mass transport occurs because of vapor pressure gradient from neck (concave surface) to particle surface (convex surface).



2. Diffusion mechanism

- Diffusion occurs because of vacancy concentration gradient. In the case of two spheres in contact with each other, a vacancy gradient is generated between the two surfaces. This condition can be given by, $\mu - \mu_0 = RT \ln(C/C_0) = (-\gamma)(\Omega)/r$ Where C and C_0 are the vacancy concentration gradient around the curved and flat surface.
- Neck growth due to surface diffusion, lattice diffusion, vapour transport, grain boundary transport from GB source, lattice diffusion from sources on GB, lattice diffusion from dislocation sources

3. Plastic flow mechanism

Bulk flow of material by movement of dislocations has been proposed as possible mechanism for densification during sintering. Importance was given to identify dislocation sources during the sintering process. **Even if frank read sources are present in the neck region, the stress available for dislocation generation is very small, indicating that the generation of dislocation must come from free surfaces.** Only if the surface is very small of the order of 40 nm, the stress required for dislocation generation will be sufficient. But experimental results have shown the absence of applied stress and plastic flow is expected to occur during early stages of sintering. **Plastic flow mechanism is predominant during hot pressing.**

Liquid phase sintering

Mechanism during liquid phase sintering

In the sintering of multi-component systems, the material transport mechanisms involve self diffusion and interdiffusion of components to one another through vacancy movement. **Sintering of such systems may also involve liquid phase formation, if the powder aggregate consists of a low melting component whose melting point is below the sintering temperature**

Liquid phase sintering: In this, the liquid phase formed during sintering aids in densification of the compacts. **Liquid phase sintering employs a small amount of a second constituent having relatively low melting point. This liquid phase helps to bind the solid particles together and also aids in densification of the compact.** This process is widely used for ceramics – porcelain, refractories.

Three main considerations are necessary for this process to occur, 1. presence of appreciable amount of liquid phase, 2. appreciable solubility of solid in liquid, 3. complete wetting of the solid by liquid.

Three main stages are observed in liquid phase sintering:

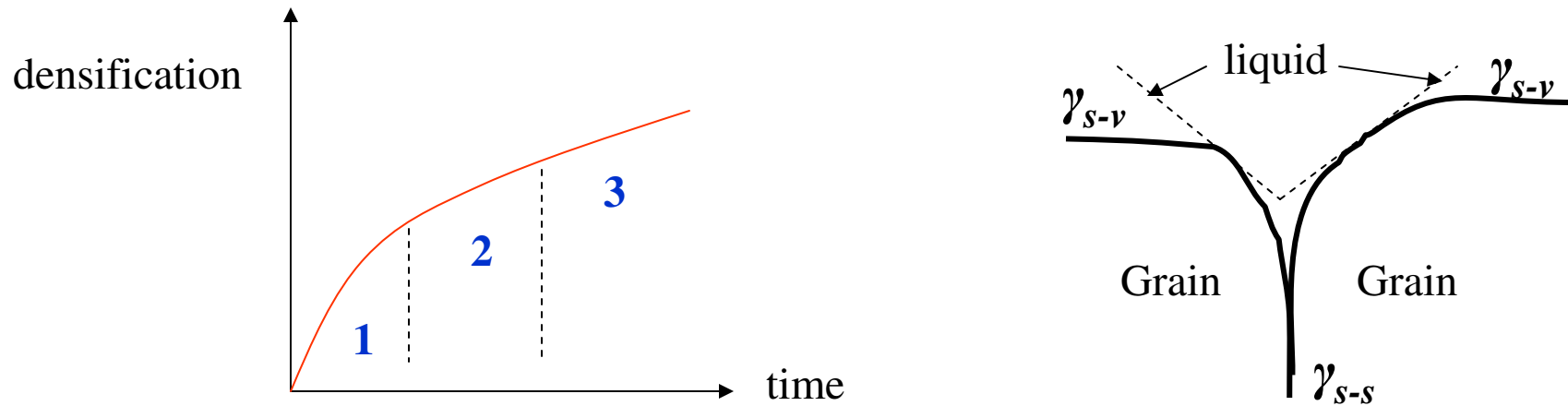
1. initial particle rearrangement occurs once the liquid phase is formed. The solid particles flow under the influence of surface tension forces

2. solution & reprecipitation process:

in this stage, smaller particles dissolve from areas where they are in contact. This causes the particle centers to come closer causing densification. The dissolved material is carried away from the contact area and reprecipitate on larger particles

3. solid state sintering

This form of liquid phase sintering has been used for W-Ni-Fe, W-Mo-Ni-Fe, W-Cu systems. The three stage densification is schematically shown in figure.



IN solid phase sintering, the solid particles are coated by the liquid in the initial stage. In liquid phase sintering, the grains are separated by a liquid film. For the figure shown here, the surface energy for the solid-liquid-vapour system : $\theta = \gamma_{s-s} / 2\gamma_{l-s}$ where γ_{s-s} & γ_{l-s} are the interfacial energies between two solid particles and liquid-solid interfaces respectively.

For complete wetting θ should be zero. This means that two liquid-solid interface can be maintained at low energy than a single solid-solid interface. This pressure gradient will make the particles to come closer.

Sintering atmosphere

Functions of sintering atmosphere: 1. preventing undesirable reactions during sintering, 2. facilitate reduction of surface oxides, 3. facilitating the addition of other sintering and alloying elements which enhance the sintering rate and promote densification, 4. aiding the removal of lubricants, 5. composition control and adjusting the impurity levels.

Eg. for sintering atmosphere: pure hydrogen, ammonia, reformed hydrocarbon gases, inert gases, vacuum, nitrogen based mixtures without carburizing addition, nitrogen based mixtures with carburizing addition

Type of transport	Material transport mechanism	Driving force
Vapour phase	Evaporation-condensation	Vapour pressure gradient between convex and concave regions
Solid state	Diffusion – surface diffusion Grain boundary diffusion, volume diffusion, viscous flow, plastic flow	Chemical potential Chemical potential Chemical potential
Liquid phase	Viscous flow Solution precipitation	Surface tension Surface tension

Selected application of powder metallurgy

P/M porous filters:

porous filters made by P/M route can be classified into four types based on their applications like filtration, flow control, distribution, porosity. Filtration is the separation process involving the removal of gas, liquid or solid from another gas or liquid. Flow control involves regulation of fluid flow in a system with controlled pressure drop. Distribution involves providing a uniform flow over a wide area.

Production of porous metal filters: Typical filter shapes that can be produced from the powder include discs, cups, bushings, sheets, tubes. The major advantages of porous filters include high temperature resistance, good mechanical strength, corrosion, long service life.

Made by Gravity sintering: - Bronze filters are produced by this method. This sintering, as discussed earlier, involves pouring of graded powders in to a mould prior to sintering operation. Then sintering is performed and metallurgical bonding is achieved by diffusion.

- Bronze filters are made by gravity sintering using either atomized spherical bronze powder or from spherical Cu powder coated with Sn layer. The powders are sintered in graphite or stainless steel moulds at temperatures near the solidus temperature of the bronze composition. Porosities of the range 40 to 50 % can be formed.

- Porous nickel filters are made in the same fashion. Hollow, cylindrical stainless steel filters with thin wall thickness can be fabricated by cold extrusion of the plasticized mixture. These products are available in corrosion resistant alloys like stainless steel, Ti, Ni, and nickel base alloys. Desired porosity is obtained by using specific particles size and shape. Compaction and sintering is performed under controlled atmosphere to obtain good green compact part.

Made by powder rolling: porous strips of Ni, Ti, Cu, bronze and Ti alloys are prepared by powder rolling. Strips having thickness from 0.25 to 3 mm and length of several meters can be successfully made by this technique.

Made by die compaction & sintering: porous filter parts can also be made by die compaction, but with only low compaction pressures. Once achieving the green compact, the parts are heated to the desired temperature under protective atmosphere to promote bonding between atoms. Porous parts from bronze, nickel, stainless steel, titanium powders can be produced by this method.

Made by powder spraying: spraying of metal powders on a substrate under controlled conditions can be used to produce porous material. It is also possible to co-spray the material along with a second material and removing the latter to obtain the porous part.

Secondary operations on P/M part: Machining – In general, machining is not necessary for porous parts. But it can be done to produce specific shape and size in which case a very sharp tooling with a slight rake is employed. The machined surface is then treated to remove the cutting fluids. EDM and laser cutting are also performed to obtain specific shape and size.

Joining – Joining of porous parts can be done with one another or with solid part mainly in the case of stainless steel porous components. TIG, LASER or electron beam welding are recommended for satisfactory joining of porous parts. Soldering and brazing are not used. Epoxy resins are also used for bonding of porous parts.

Insert moulding, sinter bonding, press fitting are other secondary operations.

Applications of porous parts: porous metallic filters – porous filters remove solid particles from streams of liquid such as oil, gasoline, refrigerants, polymer melts and from air or other gases. The important characteristics of filter materials are, adequate mechanical strength, retention of solid particles up to a specified size, fluid permeability, adequate resistance to atmosphere attack.

Typical pore sizes are 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 40, 60 and 100 microns. The most widely used metallic filter materials are porous copper-tin bronze and porous stainless steel. For filtering highly corrosive fluids, filters made from monel, inconel, Ti can be used.

They are also used in flow control devices, distribution applications etc.