

Thin films of tantalum were obtained by sputtering tantalum onto glass in a vacuum of 10^{-6} Torr. The thickness of the film was about 500 Å, with area 25 mm × 25 mm. To obtain implanted material, tantalum films of 500 Å thickness were implanted with nitrogen ions of energy 40 keV and a dose of 1.6×10^4 ions cm^{-2} . Strips 1 mm wide were cut from unimplanted and nitrogen implanted tantalum films. They were mounted in Philips powder cameras, 11.46 cm diameter. $\text{CuK}\alpha$ radiation with a nickel filter was used. The specimens were not rotated. The specimens were then annealed in evacuated quartz tubes at 400, 500 and 600°C for 1 h. X-ray powder photographs were taken after each anneal.

The d spacings of the reflection lines from the unannealed specimens corresponded to those of bcc tantalum and β -tantalum. Both phases showed preferred orientation. After annealing at temperatures of 400 and 500°C, the X-ray diffraction patterns showed little change from those of the as-sputtered tantalum. Annealing at 600°C caused the rings from bcc tantalum and β -tantalum to disappear. The diffraction pattern of the implanted unannealed specimen showed some continuous rings from TaN. Preferred orientation of the β -tantalum was observed but not of the bcc tantalum. Annealing at 600°C caused the TaN rings to sharpen, indicating that it had recrystallized.

The dislocation density for bcc crystals can be calculated from the equation given by Williamson and Smallman [4] as follows:

$$\rho = 14.4 \frac{E^2}{b^2}$$

where ρ = dislocation density; E = strain value; b = Burgers vector.

It can be seen from Fig. 1 that the microstrain dropped by about 25% on heating from room temperature to 600°C, thus the dislocation density, which varies as the (strain)², will drop by over 40% with a corresponding effect on the resistivity.

The formation of the β -tantalum in the sputtered tantalum films is in agreement with the observations of Read and Altman [5]. They found that β -tantalum is unstable, changing into bcc tantalum at $\sim 700^\circ\text{C}$ when heated in a vacuum of 10^{-8} Torr.

It can thus be seen that heat produces many complex structural changes in ion-implanted glass supported tantalum films. It may be assumed that most of these changes will produce corresponding changes in the electrical properties of the films.

References

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A relationship between undercooling and atomized powder diameter

An expression between undercooling ΔT , and atomized powder diameter D can be derived if we consider that when continuous cooling occurs the undercooling will be [1]

$$\Delta T^2 = k(\dot{T}) \quad (1)$$

in which k is a constant depending on the system being solidified and \dot{T} is the cooling rate. The above equation should be valid for any composition invar-

iant transformation in which the nucleation of the product phase can be described by classical nucleation theory [1]. Equation 1 applies to nucleation during continuous cooling and we apply it here to undercooled atomized particles experiencing a high cooling rate, assuming that the solidification process immediately after nucleation is composition invariant. Assuming that a sphere contains negligible temperature gradients, the cooling rate \dot{T} for convection and radiation cooling will be given by

$$\dot{T} = \frac{6}{D\rho C_p} [h_c(T - T_0) + \epsilon\sigma(T^4 - T_0^4)] \quad (2)$$

In Equation 2 D and ρC_p are the diameter and the heat capacity per unit volume of the atomized droplet, ϵ , σ and h_c are the emissivity of the powder, the Stephan–Boltzmann constant and the convection heat transfer coefficient, respectively, while T_0 is the temperature of the surrounding medium. Since one expects that the powder diameter should be inversely proportional to its velocity, the convection coefficient h_c for a sphere moving through a gas under turbulent flow for all atomization processes can be expressed as [2]

$$h_c = \lambda/D^m. \quad (3)$$

In Equation 3 m could be obtained theoretically or from the experimental data while λ is proportional to P , where P is the gas pressure and should be approximately constant for a given process and material.

Combining Equations 1 to 3 yields the final result

$$\Delta T^2 = K \left(\frac{6}{D\rho C_p} \right) \left[\frac{\lambda}{D^m} (T - T_0) + \epsilon\sigma(T^4 - T_0^4) \right] \quad (4)$$

The values [2] of $T = 1773$ K, $\epsilon = 0.33$, $\rho C_p = 1.27 \text{ cal cm}^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1}$, and $\lambda = 0.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cal cm}^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ for maraging 300 alloy [4] can be used in Equation 5, while K can be determined theoretically or experimentally.

Equation 4 estimates the amount of undercooling, assuming it is not very high, if the powder size and the rest of the parameters are known. Of interest in Equation 5 is the prediction that when radiation cooling dominates we will have that

$$D \cdot \Delta T^2 = \text{const.}, \quad (5)$$

while for convection cooling we should have

$$D^{m+1} \Delta T^2 = \text{const.} \quad (6)$$

A rough guess for the rotating electrode process [2] is that $m = 1$, so Equation 7 becomes

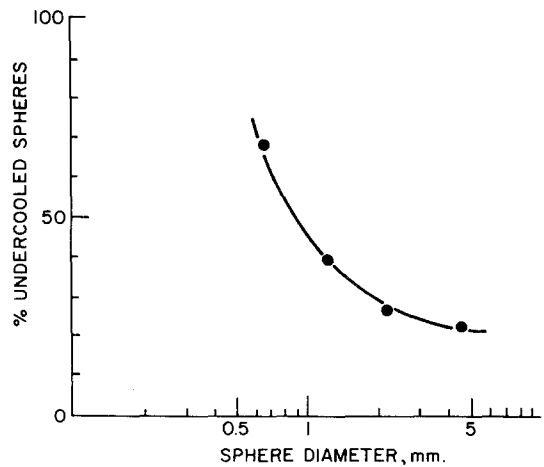


Figure 1 Percentage (%) of undercooled spheres versus diameter for maraging 300 alloy atomized in argon.

$$D \cdot \Delta T = \text{const.} \quad (7)$$

If a process were modified to decrease λ , for example by reducing the gas pressure in half, the undercooling will be reduced by 1.2.

Equations 5 and 6 show that for smaller diameter particles the undercooling increases while for larger diameters it decreases. Recent studies [3] for maraging 300 alloy atomized in argon (see Fig. 1) shows a similar trend between the percentage (%) of undercooled spheres and sphere diameter.

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