

**Figure 12.5.** (a) Lattice model showing a polymer chain of 200 'beads', originally in a random configuration, after 10,000 Monte Carlo steps. The full model has 90% of lattice sites occupied by chains and 10% vacant. (b) Half of a lattice model containing two similar chain populations placed in contact. The left-hand side population is shown after 50,000 Monte Carlo steps; the short lines show the location of the original polymer interface (courtesy K. Anderson).

the number of effective 'crossovers' achieved in a given time varies as the square root of the mean molecular weight, and has also allowed strength to be predicted as a function of molecular weight, temperature and time (K. Anderson and A.H. Windle, private communication). The procedure for the MC model involved in this simulation is described by Haire and Windle (2001).

Another family of simulations concerns polymeric fibres, which constitute a major industrial sector. Y. Termonia has spent many years at Du Pont modelling the extrusion and tensile drawing of fibres from liquid solution. A recent publication (Termonia 2000) uses an extreme form of coarse-graining to simulate the process; the model starts with an idealised oblique set of mutually orthogonal straight chains with regular entanglement points. This system is deformed at constant temperature and strain rate, by a succession of minute length increments, moving the top row of entanglement points in the draw direction while leaving the bottom row unmoved. The positions of the remaining entanglement points are then readjusted by an iterative relaxation procedure which minimises the net residual force acting on each site. After each strain increment and complete relaxation, each site is 'visited' by an MC lottery (in the author's words), and four processes are allowed to occur, breakage of interchain bonds, slippage of chains through entanglements, chain breakage and final network relaxation. Then the cycle restarts. All this is done for chains of different lengths, i.e., different molecular weights. The model shows how low molecular weights lead to poor drawability and premature fracture, in accord with experiment. Termonia's extrapolation of this simulation, in the same book, to

ultrastrong spider web fibres, where molecular weight *distribution* plays a major part in determining mechanical properties, shows the power of the method.

**12.2.3.5 Simulation of plastic deformation.** The modelling of plastic deformation in metals presents in stark form the problems of modelling on different length scales. Until recently, dislocations have either been treated as flexible line defects without consideration of their atomic structure, or else the Peierls–Nabarro force tying a dislocation to its lattice has been modelled in terms of a relatively small number of atoms surrounding the core of a dislocation cross-section. There is also a further range of issues which has exercised a distinct subculture of modellers, attempting to predict the behaviour of a polycrystal from an empirical knowledge of the behaviour of single crystals of the same substance. This last is a huge subject (see Section 2.1.6), and I can do no more here than to cite a concise coverage of the issues in Chapter 17 of Raabe's (1998) book and also to refer to *the* definitive treatment in detail, representing many years of work (Kocks *et al.* 1998).

Very recently, the modelling of plastic deformation in terms of the motion, interaction and mutual blocking of dislocations moving under applied stress has entered the mesoscale. Two papers have applied MD methods to this task; instead of treating dislocations as semi-macroscopic objects, the motion of up to 100 million individual atoms around the interacting dislocation lines has been modelled; this is feasible since the timescale for such a simulation can be quite brief. One paper is by Bulatov *et al.* (1998), the other by Zhou *et al.* (1998); each has received an illuminating discussion in the same issues of their respective journals. These two studies follow a first attempt by L.P. Kubin and others in 1992. As P. Gumbsch points out in his discussion of the Zhou paper, these atomistic computations generate such a huge amount of information (some  $10^4$  configurations of  $10^6$  atoms each) that "one of the most important steps is to discard most of it, namely, all the atomistic information not directly connected to the *cores* of the dislocations. What is left is a physical picture of the atomic configurations in such a dislocation intersection and even some quantitative information about the stresses required to break the junction". This kind of information overload is a growing problem in modern super simulation, and knowing what to discard, as well as turning pages of numbers into readily assimilable visual displays, are central parts of the simulator's skill.

Baskes (1999) has discussed the "status role" of this kind of modelling and simulation, citing many very recent studies. He concludes that "modelling and simulation of materials at the atomistic, microstructural and continuum levels continue to show progress, but prediction of mechanical properties of engineering materials is still a vision of the future". Simulation cannot (yet) do everything, in spite of the optimistic claims of some of its proponents.

This kind of simulation requires massive computer power, and much of it is done on so-called 'supercomputers'. This is a reason why much recent research of this kind has been done at Los Alamos. In a survey of research in the American national laboratories, the then director of the Los Alamos laboratory, Siegfried Hecker (1990) explains that the laboratory "has worked closely with all supercomputer vendors over the years, typically receiving the serial No. 1 machine for each successive model". He goes on to exemplify the kinds of problems in materials science that these extremely powerful machines can handle.

### 12.3. SIMULATIONS BASED ON CHEMICAL THERMODYNAMICS

As we have repeatedly seen in this chapter, proponents of computer simulation in materials science had a good deal of scepticism to overcome, from physicists in particular, in the early days. A striking example of sustained scepticism overcome, at length, by a resolute champion is to be found in the history of CALPHAD, an acronym denoting CALculation of PHase Diagrams. The decisive champion was an American metallurgist, Larry Kaufman.

The early story of experimentally determined phase diagrams and of their understanding in terms of Gibbs free energies and of the Phase Rule was set out in Chapter 3, Section 3.1.2. In that same chapter, Hume-Rothery's rationalisation of certain features of phase diagrams in terms of atomic size ratios and electron/atom ratios was outlined (Section 3.3.1.1). Hume-Rothery did use his theories to predict limited features of phase diagrams, solubility limits in particular, but it was a long time before experimentally derived values of free energies of phases began to be used for the prediction of phase diagrams. Some tentative early efforts in that direction were published by a Dutchman, van Laar (1908), but thereafter there was a void for half a century. The challenge was taken up by another Dutchman, Meijering (1957) who seems to have been the first to attempt the calculation of a complete ternary phase diagram (Ni-Cr-Cu) from measured thermochemical quantities from which, in turn, free energies could be estimated. Meijering's work was particularly important in that he recognised that for his calculation to have any claims to accuracy he needed to estimate a value for the free energy (as a function of temperature) of face-centred cubic chromium, a notional crystal structure which was not directly accessible to experiment. This was probably the first calculation of the lattice stability of a potential (as distinct from an actual) phase.

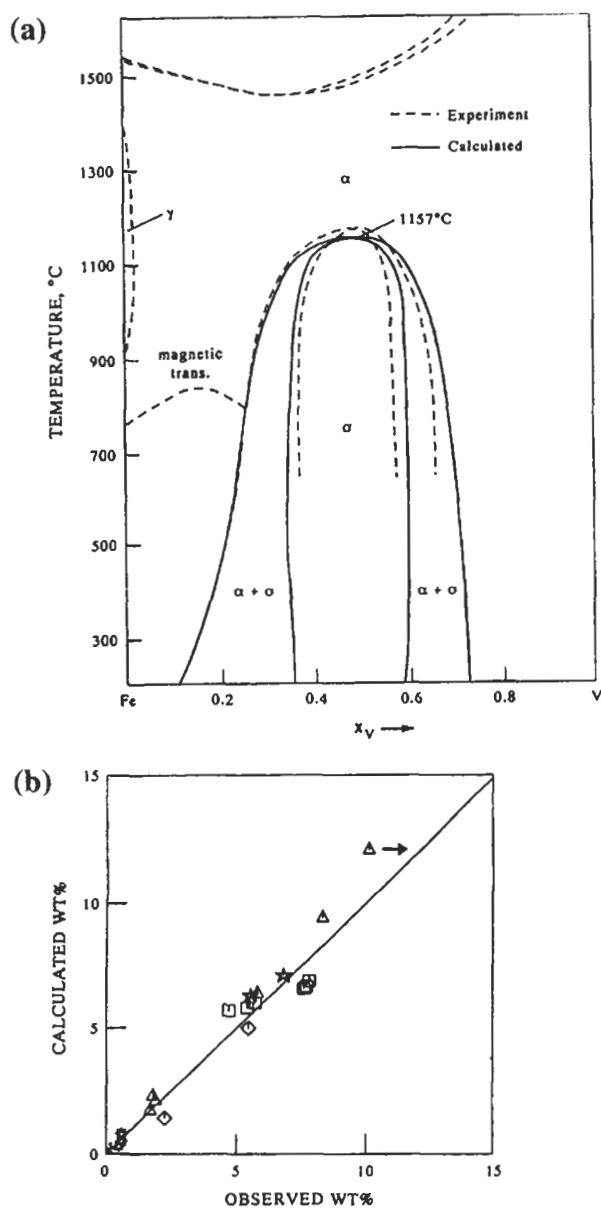
At the time Meijering published his research, Larry Kaufman was working for his doctorate at MIT with a charismatic steel metallurgist, Professor Morris Cohen, and they undertook some simple equilibrium calculations directed at practical problems of the steel industry. From the end of the 1950s, Kaufman directed his

efforts at developing these methods, sustained by two other groups, one in Stockholm, Sweden, run from 1961 by Mats Hillert and another in Sendai, Japan, led by T. Nishizawa. Hillert and Kaufman had studied together at MIT and their interaction over the years was to be crucial to the development of CALPHAD.

At a meeting at Battelle Memorial Institute in Ohio in 1967, Kaufman demonstrated some approximate calculations of binary phase diagrams using an ideal solution model, but met opposition particularly from solid-state physicists who preferred to use first-principles calculations of electronic band structures instead of thermodynamic inputs. For some years, this became the key battle between competing approaches. At about this time, Kaufman began exchanging letters with William Hume-Rothery concerning the best way to represent thermodynamic equilibria. Thereupon, Hume-Rothery, in his capacity as editor of *Progress in Materials Science*, invited Kaufman to write a review about lattice stabilities of phases, which appeared (Kaufman 1969) shortly after Hume-Rothery's death in 1968. Shortly before his death, Hume-Rothery had written to Kaufman to say that he was "not unsympathetic to any theory which promises reasonably accurate calculations of phase boundaries, and saves the immense amount of work which their experimental determination involves", but that he was still sceptical about Kaufman's approach. This extract comes from a full account of the history of CALPHAD in Chapter 2 of a recent book (Saunders and Miodownik 1998). In his short overview, Kaufman took great trouble to counter Hume-Rothery's reservations, and he also gave a fair account of the competing band-theoretical approaches. The imperative need to account for the competition in stability between alternative phases, actual and potential, was central to Kaufman's case.

For the many ensuing stages in CALPHAD's history, including the incorporation of CALPHAD Inc. in 1973, and the practice of organising meetings at which different approaches to formulating Gibbs energies could be reconciled, Saunders and Miodownik's history chapter must be consulted. Effective international cooperation got under way in 1973, with involvement of a number of national laboratories, and numerous published computer codes from around the world such as Thermocalc and Chemsage are now in regular use. From 1976 on, physicists were encouraged to attend CALPHAD meetings in order to assess the feasibility of merging data obtained by thermochemistry with those calculated by first-principles electron-theory methods (Pettifor 1977). CALPHAD's own journal began publication in 1977. Kaufman is still, today, a key participant at the regular CALPHAD meetings.

Kaufman and Bernstein (1970) brought out the first book on phase diagram calculations; there was not another comprehensive treatment till Saunders and Miodownik's book came out in 1998. This last covers the ways of obtaining the thermodynamic input data, ways of dealing with complications such as atomic



**Figure 12.6.** (a) Calculated ( $\alpha + \sigma$ ) phase boundary for Fe-V together with experimental boundaries (After Spencer and Putland 1973). (b) Comparison between calculated and experimental values of the concentration of Al, V and Fe in the two phases in Ti-6Al-4V alloy (after Saunders and Miodownik 1998).

ordering and ferromagnetism, and (in particular) many forms of application of CALPHAD. It also describes the crucial methods of critically *optimising* thermodynamic data for incorporation in internationally agreed databases. Figure 12.6(a) shows an early example of a simple binary phase diagram obtained by experiment together with calculated phase boundaries. Figure 12.6(b) shows a plot of observed versus calculated solute concentrations in a standard titanium alloy. It has been an essential part of the gradual acceptance of CALPHAD methods that theory and experiment have been shown to agree well, and progressively better so as methods improved. Indeed, *in all computer modelling and simulation, confidence can only come gradually from a steady series of such comparisons between simulation and experiment.*

Even when the CALPHAD approach had been widely accepted as valid, there was still the problem of the reluctance of newcomers to start using it. Hillert (1980) proposed looking at thermodynamics as a game and to consider how one can learn to play that game well. He went on: "For inspiration, one may first look at another game, the game of chess. The rules are very simple to learn, but it was always very difficult to become a good player. The situation has now changed due to the application of computers. Today there are programmes for playing chess which can beat almost any expert. It seems reasonable to expect that it should also be possible to write programmes for 'playing thermodynamics', programmes which should be almost as good as the very best thermodynamic expert." In other words... for novices, tried and tested commercial software, whether for thermodynamics or for MC or MD, should take the sting out of taking the plunge into computer simulation, and perhaps in the fullness of time such simulations will move out of specialised journals and coteries of specialists and find their way increasingly into mainline journals, and students with first degrees in materials science will be entirely at ease with this kind of activity. Perhaps we are already there.

Today, thermodynamic simulation has broadened out far beyond the calculation of binary and ternary (and even quaternary) phase diagrams. For instance, as explained in the last chapter of Saunders and Miodownik's book, methods have recently been developed to combine diffusional simulations with phase stability simulations in order to obtain estimates of the kinetics of phase transformation. A recent text issued by SGTE, the Scientific Group Thermodata Europe (Hack 1996) includes 24 short chapters instancing applications, in particular, to processing issues. Two examples from Sweden, relating to solidification, include the calculation of solidification paths for a multicomponent system and (severely practical) calculations directed towards the prevention of clogging by premature freezing in a continuous casting process. Another chapter discusses the formulation of a Co-Fe-Ni binder phase for use with a dispersion of tungsten carbide 'hard metal'. A chapter by Per Gustafson in Sweden hinges on computer development of a high-speed (cutting) steel. This last application is reminiscent of a protracted programme of

research at Northwestern University (where materials science started in 1958) by Gregory Olson (e.g. Kuehmann and Olson 1998) to design steels for specially demanding purposes by a sophisticated computer-optimisation program, including extensive use of CALPHAD; some further remarks about this program can be found in Section 4.3.

Very recently, a very detailed report from two groups attending a 1997 meeting on 'Applications of Computational Thermodynamics' has been published (Kattner and Spencer 2000) with presentations of many applications to practical problems, with emphasis on processing methods, including processing of semiconductors and microcircuits. One process modelled here is the deposition of a compound semiconductor from an organometallic precursor, a 'soft chemistry' approach discussed in the preceding chapter.

The CALPHAD approach has been treated here at some length because its history illustrates the strengths and limitations of computer modelling and simulation. The strengths clearly outweigh the limitations, and this is becoming increasingly true throughout the broad spectrum of applications of computers in materials science and engineering.

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## Chapter 13

# The Management of Data

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| 13.1. The Nature of the Problem  | 491 |
| 13.2. Categories of Database   | 491 |
| 13.2.1 Landolt–Börnstein, the <i>International Critical Tables</i><br>and Their Successors | 491 |
| 13.2.2 Crystal Structures  | 494 |
| 13.2.3 Max Hansen and His Successors: Phase Diagram Databases                              | 495 |
| 13.2.4 Other Specialised Databases and the Use of Computers                                | 497 |
| References   | 499 |



## Chapter 13

# The Management of Data

### 13.1. THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

As I write this, one of my grandchildren has just asked me which is the ‘heaviest’ metal. I did not have any listing available at home, and I guessed uranium or tungsten. My grandson Daniel preferred to believe that gold was the heaviest, i.e., densest. Now, sitting in my office, I cast about for a convenient listing of densities, and chose the *Metals Reference Book*, fourth edition, 1967, volume 3. It turns out that neither my grandson nor I were quite right: gold and tungsten have virtually the same density, uranium is marginally less dense, but several noble metals (platinum, osmium, and others) are even denser. Of course, I had to skim the whole column listing densities of pure metals and look for the highest value; with a suitable computerised listing, I could have asked the computer “Which of these elements is densest?” – if a computerised way of putting such a question is available – and (perhaps) got an answer in the blink of an eye. All this is a very minor example of the problems of data retrieval.

Of course, densities of pure metals do not change over time, though the available precision may improve a little over the decades. However, many more complex data do change significantly as new experiments are done, and new materials or material systems come along constantly and so entirely new data flood the literature. Materials scientists, like chemists, physicists and engineers, need means of finding these. Those means are called *databases*. This brief chapter surveys how databases are assembled and used, with special attention to materials.

### 13.2. CATEGORIES OF DATABASE

#### ***13.2.1 Landolt–Börnstein, the International Critical Tables and their successors***

Initially, natural philosophers communicated by letter, and in this way measurements of physical and chemical quantities were slowly spread. Then scientific journals began to develop, slowly at first; 200 years ago, there were some 50 of these in the world; data were then spread through journals, for instance, the *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*. Attempts to gather scattered data in lists began in earnest in 1883, when Hans Heinrich Landolt and Richard Börnstein in Germany published the first volume of their *Physikalische-Chemische Tabellen*, running to 261 pages. This was well received, and up to 1950, 25 further volumes

appeared with broad titles such as *Crystals, Fusion Equilibria and Interfacial Phenomena, Optical Constants*. The 26 volumes came out in six successive editions until 1969, whereupon the publisher, Springer, decided to change to a more flexible form and started the *New Series*, devoted to a great variety of specialised themes. 129 volumes and subvolumes are listed in the comprehensive 1996 catalogue, with several more planned, and in 2000 all of these were available on the internet, and access was offered free of charge until the entire *New Series*, some 140,000 pages, is on line. Many of the 129 volumes were a long way from relevance to materials – for instance, some are devoted to astronomy – but quite a number are directly related to MSE. This series is unique in its longevity and consistency.

By way of example, Volume 26 in Group III (Crystal and Solid State Physics) is devoted to *Diffusion in Solid Metals and Alloys*; this volume has an editor and 14 contributors. Their task was not only to gather numerical data on such matters as self- and chemical diffusivities, pressure dependence of diffusivities, diffusion along dislocations, surface diffusion, but also to exercise their professional judgment as to the reliability of the various numerical values available. The whole volume of about 750 pages is introduced by a chapter describing diffusion mechanisms and methods of measuring diffusivities; this kind of introduction is a special feature of “Landolt–Börnstein”. Subsequent developments in diffusion data can then be found in a specialised journal, *Defect and Diffusion Forum*, which is not connected with Landolt–Börnstein.

Other early tabulations of numerical data were the French *Tables Annuelles de Constantes et Données Numériques* which appeared for some decades after 1920, and the British *Tables of Physical and Chemical Constants*, masterminded by the National Physical Laboratory and known affectionately as “Kaye and Laby” after the editors, which appeared annually in single volume form from 1911 to 1966. These last two, like Landolt–Börnstein, appeared regularly, in successive editions.

Something rather different was the set of 7 volumes of the *International Critical Tables* masterminded by the International Union of Pure and Applied Physics, edited by Edward Washburn, and given the blessing of the International Research Council (the predecessor of the International Council of Scientific Unions, ICSU). This appeared in stages, 1926–1933, once only; when Washburn died in 1934, “the work died with him”. This last quotation comes from a lively survey of the history of ICSU (Greenaway 1996); this book has an entire chapter devoted to “Data, and Scientific Information”.

It was not until the mid-1960s that Harrison Brown (later ICSU President) called attention to the absence of any successor to the *International Critical Tables*, and was asked by ICSU to make recommendations. This led to ICSU’s creation of *CODATA*, following on from ICSU’s earlier World Data Centers, devoted to specific sciences such as meteorology. This body is more of a gadfly and organiser

than publisher of databases, and for example by 1969 it had published an "International Compendium of Numerical Data Projects", and set up a task group on computer usage. CODATA became closely involved with the National Academy of Sciences in Washington, DC. In 1984, ICSU created another body, the International Council for Scientific and Technical Information, ICSTI, to be devoted to getting databases to the right user. This is, and has long been, a central problem, because there are now so many databases scattered around the world and most materials scientists know only a very few of them.

The *Metals Reference Book*, mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, published in Britain in successive editions from 1949, and edited by a metallurgist, C.J. Smithells, is a good example of a specialised database kept up to date by periodic new editions. It eventually extended to well over 1000 pages. A somewhat similar compilation focused on polymers is D.W. van Krevelen's book, *Properties of Polymers*, already mentioned in Chapter 8. This more discursive book is now in its third edition, 1990. An example of an even more specialised database is a book by R. Hultgren and 4 others, *Selected Values of the Thermodynamic Properties of the Elements* (American Society for Metals, 1973), which was of great importance, inter alia, for the early efforts in calculation of phase diagrams (see Section 12.3). A more recent compilation of measurements of high-temperature thermodynamic quantities for alloys, measured by high-temperature calorimetry and also valuable for the calculation of phase diagrams, is by Kleppa (1994).

For many materials scientists the database for which they automatically reach when a problem arises like the one with which I opened this chapter is the *Handbook of Chemistry and Physics*, now in its 81st edition, with over 2500 pages of densely packed information. This Handbook was first published in 1914 (a few years were missed because of wars), at the instigation of Arthur Friedman, a mechanical engineer and entrepreneur; one of his companies was the Chemical Rubber Company, CRC, in Cleveland, Ohio, which supplied laboratory items in rubber. The CRC published the Handbook from the start, and still does... hence the Handbook's nickname, *The Rubber Bible*. In the early years, Friedman used the *Handbook* as a promotional device for the sale of such items as rubber stoppers.

Information about this splendid compilation came to me from a chemist, Robert Weast (1985), who was editor from 1952 until 1988... 37 years! He also informed me that the creation (jointly by the American Chemical Society and the American Institute of Physics) of the *Journal of Physical and Chemical Reference Data*, which began publication in 1972, was encouraged by the results of a survey which indicated how widely the 'Rubber Bible' was used. Weast describes this journal as "a truly outstanding source of critically evaluated data". In saying this, he underlined the crucial role of editors' and contributors' critical judgment in selecting data for such compilations. David Lide, the editor of the journal, in 1989 succeeded Robert

Weast as editor of the *Rubber Bible*. Although the *Rubber Bible* is not primarily addressed to materials scientists, yet it has proved of great utility for them.

Database construction has now become sufficiently widespread that the ASTM (the American Society for Testing and Materials... a standards organisation) has issued a manual on the building of databases (ASTM 1993); it incorporates advice on computer practice.

An interesting question is what motivates researchers to choose a particular substance for precise measurement of some physical, chemical or mechanical characteristic. I consulted a well-known physicist, Guy White, who works for the Division of Applied Physics of CSIRO in Australia (White 1991). He is concerned with thermophysical measurements, thermal conductivity and thermal expansion in particular. He told me that his choice of materials for thermophysical measurements “were probably dictated by a combination of curiosity, availability and ‘simplicity’ plus, when opportunity offered, the benefit of a chat with an interested theorist”. For instance, the availability of large crystals of certain substances from a British firm prompted their use for thermal expansion measurements. It went further than that, indeed. As White pointed out, “many dilatometers in common use have significant systematic errors in determining linear thermal expansion as evidenced by round-robin measurements on reproducible materials”. So high-quality reference materials are needed to check and calibrate precision dilatometers; substances like oxygen-free copper and semiconductor-grade silicon were used for that purpose. Similar round-robin measurements of the lattice parameter of semiconductor-grade silicon powder were used many years ago to test the reliability of different X-ray diffraction instruments and to compare the accuracy of photographic and direct measurement methods. This kind of procedure also picks out the most conscientious operators.

### 13.2.2 Crystal structures

Crystal structure determination began, as we saw in Chapter 3, in 1912, and was initially rather slow to get under way. By 1929, however, enough crystal structures had been determined to stimulate the creation of a specialist journal, *Strukturbericht*, which continued after the War and until the mid-1980s as *Structure Reports*, published by the International Union of Crystallography. There were also compendia of crystal structures in book form, the best known being a series of books by R. Wyckoff, *The Structure of Crystals*, which began to appear in 1931. Many metallic crystal structures were included in the *Metals Reference Book*. Other specialised books appeared, for instance *Crystal Data*, intended primarily for mineralogists, and the *Powder Diffraction File* in its many successive formats, which listed the lattice spacings and intensities of the lines in powder diffraction patterns from many different substances.

*Structure Reports* were eventually replaced by structural databases “as curators of the world’s primary crystal structure data”. This description comes from a splendid overview of “The Development, Status and Scientific Impact of Crystallographic Databases” by Allen (1998). According to Allen, in 1998 the five principal crystallographic databases included about 288,000 entries. Of these, more than two thirds were organic crystal structures, proteins and nucleic acids, some exceedingly complex, the majority included in the Cambridge Crystallographic Database (which got under way in the late 1960s). Two other databases (Inorganic Crystal Structure Database, and CRYSTMET) deal with inorganic and specifically metallic crystal structures (including intermetallic compounds). Allen discusses in some detail the difficult but indispensable task of “validating” crystal structures and bond lengths; inter alia, this involves seeking out simple typesetting errors in the accounts of primary data. The Cambridge database is used extensively by biochemists and, particularly, pharmaceutical firms engaged in drug development: secondary data on bond lengths and interbond angles can prove very useful. These “research applications” are discussed in detail by Allen.

Another recent database, still in evolution, is the Linus Pauling File (covering both metals and other inorganics) and, like the Cambridge Crystallographic Database, it has a “smart software part” which allows derivative information, such as the statistical distribution of structures between symmetry types, to be obtained. Such uses are described in an article about the file (Villars *et al.* 1998). The Linus Pauling File incorporates other data besides crystal structures, such as melting temperature, and this feature allows numerous correlations to be displayed.

### ***13.2.3 Max Hansen and his successors: phase diagram databases***

In 1936, Springer in Berlin published a book by a German metallurgist, Max Hansen, which was devoted to a critical assembly of known binary metallic phase diagrams (Hansen 1936). We saw in Chapter 3 that the accurate determination of phase diagrams, such as Fe–C and Cu–Sn, began at the end of the 19th century and so Hansen’s pathbreaking book brought together some 40 years’ research. The book covered 828 systems and contained 456 phase diagrams, with about 5500 references to the literature. This at once shows that there were several references for each system about which enough was known to publish a diagram. It was Hansen’s innovation to exercise his critical faculty on the many instances where different investigators differed as to a liquidus, solidus, eutectic, peritectic, eutectoid or peritectoid temperature, or compositions of solid solutions or eutectic mixtures. His diagrams were ‘optimised’ diagrams. After the War, Hansen’s book was revised (with the help of a coauthor, K. Anderko), translated into English and published in America (Hansen and Anderko 1958). Now there were 1382 systems and 750



diagrams. Some diagrams were buttressed by more than 100 references, with many explicit critical judgments as to the most reliable values of disputed quantities. My personal copy of this book, which I was given as a gift in 1958, has almost fallen apart from frequent use. Subsequently, there were two addendum volumes, in 1965 and 1969, including many revised and improved diagrams.

The crucial role that phase diagrams play in materials science, and the consequential need for compilations like Hansen's, has been memorably portrayed in a lecture by Massalski (1989).

From 1977, the GE Corporate Research Center in New York State began its own private collection of binary metallic phase diagrams, and from 1990 Massalski in Pittsburgh began editing a series of such assessments for the American Society of Metals (now ASM International). Later, he extended his remit to ternary systems. Earlier, in England, Hume-Rothery and his pupil Raynor had brought out, through the Institute of Metals, a number of individual critically assessed phase diagrams for the most important binary systems. There has also been a variety of Russian compilations.

From 1988, Effenberg in Stuttgart, Germany, began the enormous task of masterminding the publication of optimised *ternary* metallic phase diagrams. At the time of writing, some 3500 systems have been scrupulously covered in 18 volumes, and there is still far to go. In 1995, Villars and colleagues brought out a rival ternary compilation which included even more systems.

Further, since 1993, Effenberg has edited the "Red Book", annual summaries of developments in the world literature of phase diagrams.

In 1986, APDIC, the Alloy Phase Diagram International Commission, with the participation of 18 national bodies, was set up "to safeguard the quality of phase diagram evaluations and to provide globally the best possible coordination of the major phase diagram projects". This phrasing is taken from a short article by Effenberg (2001) which provides a complete listing, with bibliographic details, of all the various compilations, and also goes out of its way to emphasise how small a proportion of all possible ternary systems (not to mention quaternaries) have been determined (even partially).

This 66-year programme, to date, of phase diagram evaluation and publication is probably the most judgment-intensive operation ever undertaken in the history of materials science. Reliability, reproducibility and accuracy must all be assessed, and moreover some detailed features of phase diagrams as published are often inconsistent with elementary thermodynamic principles: Okamoto and Massalski (1993) have provided guidelines for avoiding this kind of error. Usually, the many stages of optimising a phase diagram and resolving disparities between different experimenters are passed over in silence. To get an idea of the complexity of the process, a paper by Murray (1985) about the steps in the optimisation of the Cu-Ti

phase diagram can be recommended; here, both direct experiment and the result of CALPHAD theory are brought together and assessed.

In addition to all the metallic phase diagrams, a series of volumes devoted to ceramic systems have been published since 1964 by the American Ceramic Society and is still continuing. The original title was *Phase Diagrams for Ceramists*; now it is named *Phase Equilibria Diagrams*. Some 25,000 diagrams, binary and ternary mostly, have been published to date. There is no compilation for polymeric systems, since little attention has been devoted to phase diagrams in this field up to now.

In addition to printed compilations, more and more of the information is available on CD-ROM and latterly also on-line on the internet. This last is a feature of the service provided by MSI, Materials Science International Services in Stuttgart. This organisation, under the working name of MSIT® Workplace (<http://www.msiwp.com>), provides information on the entire corpus of phase diagram compilations.

It is a reflection on present-day priorities in industry that the research laboratory of a great company, Metallgesellschaft in Frankfurt-am-Main, Germany, where Hansen began work on his epoch-making book, was closed down a few years ago to save money. This laboratory was initially directed, from 1918 onwards, by Jan Czochralski, the Pole whom we met in Section 4.2.1 and who gave his name to the present-day process for growing silicon crystals, and subsequently by Georg Sachs and, after he had been driven from Germany by the Nazis in 1935, by Erich Schmid, all highly distinguished figures. The manifold achievements of the laboratory are described in a book issued on the occasion of the company's centenary, when the laboratory was still going strong (Wassermann and Wincierz 1981).

A long history of distinguished contributions does not suffice, nowadays, to save a research institution from casual destruction.

#### ***13.2.4 Other specialised databases and the use of computers***

This chapter has only scratched the surface of the multitude of databases and data reviews that are now available. For instance, more than 100 materials databases of many kinds are listed by Wawrousek *et al.* (1989), in an article published by one of the major repositories of such databases. More and more of them are accessible via the internet. The most comprehensive recent overview of "Electronic access to factual materials information: the state of the art" is by Westbrook *et al.* (1995). This highly informative essay includes a 'taxonomy of materials information', focusing on the many different property considerations and property types which an investigator can be concerned with. Special attention is paid to mechanical properties. The authors focus also on the *quality and reliability of data*: quality of source, reproducibility, evaluation status, etc., all come into this, and alarmingly,

they conclude that numerous databases on offer today “consist wholly or in part of data that would not even meet the criteria for ‘limited use’.” They home in on the many on-line databases accessible through STN International, a scientific and technical information network. In fact, there are a number of organisations worldwide, most connected to the internet, which merge a number of independent databases; the Förderverein Werkstoffdokumentation in Germany is another such. ASM International has recently issued a Directory of Materials Property databases (ASM 2000).

One feature discussed by Westbrook *et al.* is the nature of the enquiries that a database can handle... i.e., the quality of its associated software. One example is ‘range searching’, finding all materials that have values of a particular property in a specified numerical range. This aspect of using databases has recently been examined critically, in two linked papers, by Ashby (1998) and by Bassett *et al.* (1998). For instance, different *categories* of materials have different ranges of value of the thermal expansion coefficient (p. 202). The ranges for ceramics and glasses (small values) do not overlap with the range for polymers (large values). Ashby’s comment on this is: “Correlations exist between the values of mechanical, thermal, electrical and other properties which derive from the underlying physics of bonding and packing of atoms. Some of these correlations have a simple theoretical basis and can be expressed as dimensionless groups with much narrower value ranges; they allow a physically based check on property values and *allow some properties to be estimated when values for others are known*” (my italics). The second paper shows how missing data can be estimated by using these principles.

Ashby, some years ago, produced a computerised database called the *Materials Selector* (CMS 1995) which allows the best material to be selected for a particular application with combined criteria (as it might be, least weight and stiffness in a certain range). The ideas which led to this were presented in a book (Ashby 1992). John Rodgers, who operates the CRYSTMET crystallographic database for metals, is now planning to create a database for unfamiliar materials, using the CMS environment and information in CRYSTMET, incorporating a range of calculated or estimated physical property values. It begins to look as though data estimation using information in databases may become a new, distinct activity within materials science and engineering. In fact, the process already has a name – *datamining*. According to John Rodgers, this means “the extraction of implicit, previously unknown and potentially useful information from data” (Rodgers 1999).

Materials selection is as much an art as a rigorous science, and another computational approach to it, based on ideas of artificial intelligence, has been proposed by Arunachalam and Bhaskar (1999). They call their approach “bounded rationality” and exploit it to analyse the background to some notorious disasters based on material failure. We can always learn from failure as well as from success.

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## Chapter 14

# The Institutions and Literature of Materials Science

|   |     |
|---|-----|
| 14.1. Teaching of Materials Science and Engineering                   | 503 |
| 14.2. Professional Societies and their Evolution                      | 507 |
| 14.2.1 Metallurgical and Ex-Metallurgical Societies                   | 508 |
| 14.2.2 Other Specialised Societies                                    | 509 |
| 14.2.3 Materials Societies <i>ab initio</i>                           | 509 |
| 14.3. Journals, Texts and Reference Works                             | 512 |
| 14.3.1 Broad-Spectrum Journals  | 512 |
| 14.3.2 The Birth of <i>Acta Metallurgica</i>                          | 514 |
| 14.3.3 Specialised Journals   | 516 |
| 14.3.4 Textbooks and Reference Works                                  | 517 |
| 14.4. Materials Science in Particular Places                          | 519 |
| 14.4.1 Cyril Smith and the Institute for the Study of Metals, Chicago | 520 |
| 14.4.2 Kotaro Honda and Materials Research in Japan                   | 523 |
| 14.4.3 Walter Boas and Physics of Solids in Australia                 | 526 |
| 14.4.4 Jorge Sabato and Materials Science in Argentina                | 529 |
| 14.4.5 Georgii Kurdyumov and Russian Materials Science                | 531 |
| References  | 535 |



## Chapter 14

# The Institutions and Literature of Materials Science

### 14.1. TEACHING OF MATERIALS SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

The emergence of university courses in materials science and engineering, starting in America in the late 1950s, is mapped in Section 1.1.1. The number and diversity of courses, and academic departments that host them, have evolved. An early snapshot of the way the then still novel concept of MSE was perceived by educators, research directors and providers of research funds can be found in an interesting book (Roy 1970) in which, for example, a panel reported that a representative of the GE Company “stressed that his company regards the university as a provider of people and not as an institution which supplies all of the solutions to industry’s materials problems. The university should train both materials scientists and engineers, should clearly recognise the difference between these two groups, and should provide the basis for interdisciplinary cooperation.” Rustum Roy, the editor of that volume, repeatedly called for just such interdisciplinary cooperation on campus; the high point of his campaign was a paper published in 1977 (Roy 1977). He has done much to bring about just such interdisciplinarity at his own university, Pennsylvania State University, which for many years has hosted an interdisciplinary Materials Research Laboratory of the kind whose history is outlined in Section 1.1.3. His role in creating the Materials Research Society was similarly motivated.

The present situation, both in the US and elsewhere, is examined in a recent survey article (Flemings and Cahn 2000). In the United States, the number of core MSE departments (i.e., independent university departments granting bachelor through doctorate degrees) in 1999 was 41. On top of that, 14 departments are still specific to particular categories of materials, and another 41 are either joint with other disciplines that are peripheral to MSE, or are wholly embedded in departments of other disciplines, such as mechanical or chemical engineering. So, merged or embedded departments are as numerous as independent departments. After a sharp peak in 1982, the number of students granted bachelor’s degrees in the US specifically in materials or metallurgy declined somewhat, stabilising at  $\approx 1200$  per annum in the 1990s. The number of faculty members in MSE departments in 1997 was estimated at 625 (Flemings 1999).

In England (excluding Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland), there were 21 mainline MSE departments in 1998; Fig. 9.4 (Chapter 9) shows plots of student



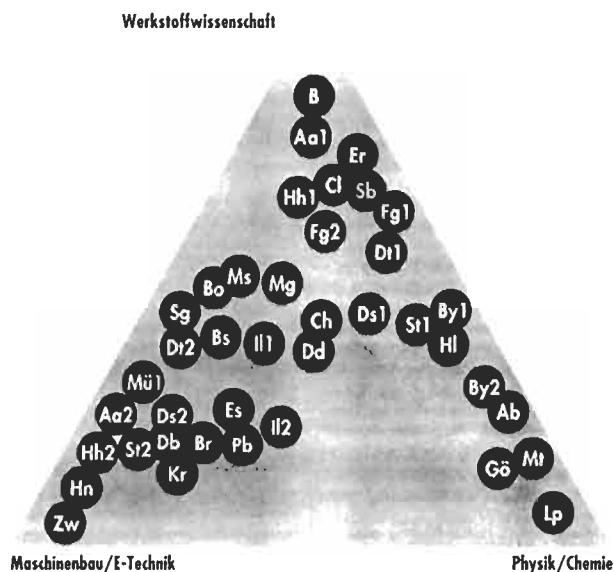
numbers in the US. On the continent of Europe, where institutes and not full departments are the organisational rule, it is much more difficult to pick out those institutes which are properly described as being in the MSE mainline; an attempt by a range of national societies to list appropriate university institutes has led to numbers ranging from 79 in Germany, via 48 in France to only 4 in Sweden... but many of the institutes listed are in fields which are peripheral to, or barely connected with, MSE. In some universities on the continent, a number of institutes are combined into a materials department. To pick just one example, at the eminent Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule in Zürich, Switzerland, the following institutes (or groups) are currently combined: biomechanics; biomedical engineering; metals and metallurgy; metallic high-performance materials (the distinction between these last two is typical of continental modes of organisation); nonmetallic inorganic materials; polymer chemistry; polymer physics; polymer technology; supramolecular chemistry; surface science and technology. Thus, here semiconductors have been hived off to another department.

Fig. 14.1 shows an impressionistic 'ternary diagram' showing the emphasis on three broad fields relevant to MSE at a range of German universities that prepare students in the study of materials. If one thing is crystal clear, it is that there is no one ideal way of teaching MSE laid up in heaven, and the example of the Swiss department indicates that there is much scope for variety.

In spite of statistical problems, two things are clear from a close examination of student numbers in various countries and institutions: MSE courses are burgeoning, and the best mainline departments are going from strength to strength. However, some of the weaker departments/institutes (those with relatively few students) are being forced by resolute academic deans into marriages with quite distinct disciplines – which (experience suggests) can be a precursor of brain death – or being closed down altogether.

Flemings (1999) reflected under the title "What next for departments of materials science and engineering?" A particularly interesting feature of his paper is a comparison of the characteristics and activities of a class of students who graduated with metallurgy degrees from M.I.T. (Flemings's university) in 1951, with those of another class who graduated in MSE in 1991. In each case, statistics were collected 7 years after graduation; not all students responded (See Table 14.1).

The most striking features, apart from the sharp drop in fecundity, are the large numbers of graduates who went on to obtain business qualifications (Masters of Business Administration, MBAs); the fact that in 1958, working in metallurgy and in engineering seems to have been synonymous in the eyes of respondents, but not so in 1998; the drastic fall in the numbers who gave research and development as their current métier, in spite of a sharp rise in those taking advanced degrees; and the fact that, around the age 30, *none* of the 1998 respondents had become university faculty.



**Figure 14.1.** Estimated emphasis on three broad fields – Werkstoffwissenschaft = materials science; Maschinenbau/E-technik = mechanical and electrical engineering; Physik-Chemie = physics and chemistry – in MSE education at various German universities from (DGM 1994).

**Table 14.1.** Particulars of two graduating M.I.T. classes, 7 years after graduation.

|                                      | Class of 1951 (%) | Class of 1991 (%) |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| With advanced degrees                | 37                | 64                |
| With MBAs                            | 0                 | 43                |
| Working in metallurgy                | 89                | 14                |
| Working in engineering               | 89                | 43                |
| University faculty                   | 19                | 0                 |
| In R&D, including faculty            | 48                | 14                |
| Married                              | 96                | 62                |
| Mean number of children per graduate | 1.8               | 0.1               |

As Flemings points out, compared with the middle of the twentieth century, MSE departments now have to prepare their students for quite different professional lives. The key question that seems to arise from these figures is: Do university departments put too much emphasis on research? And yet, before we conclude that they do, we must remember that it is widely agreed that research is what keeps university faculty alert and able to teach in an up-to-date way. It may well be that what students currently want, and what the health and progress of MSE demands, are two distinct things.

A danger in the increasing mergers of MSE departments with departments of mechanical engineering and chemical engineering in particular is that engineers are in general wedded to a continuum approach to matter while MSE people are concerned with atomic, crystallographic and micro-structures... the last of these particularly. If that aspect of materials science is sidelined or abolished, then its practitioners lose their souls.

The key justification of the whole concept of MSE, from the beginning, has been the mutual illumination resulting from research on different categories of materials. The way I worded this recognition in my editorial capacity, writing the Series Preface for the 25 volumes of *Materials Science and Technology*, published between 1991 and 2000, was: "Materials are highly diverse, yet many concepts, phenomena and transformations involved in making and using metals, ceramics, electronic materials, plastics and composites are strikingly similar. Matters such as transformation mechanisms, defect behaviour, the thermodynamics of equilibria, diffusion, flow and fracture mechanisms, the fine structure and behaviour of interfaces, the structures of crystals and glasses and the relationship between these, the statistical mechanics of assemblies of atoms or magnetic spins, have come to illuminate not only the behaviour of the individual materials in which they were originally studied, but also the behaviour of other materials which at first sight are quite unrelated. This continual cross-linkage between materials is what has given rise to Materials Science, which has by now become a discipline in its own right as well as being a meeting place of constituent disciplines... Materials Technology (or Engineering) is the more practical counterpart of Materials Science, and its central concern is the processing of materials, which has become an immensely complex skill..."

Whether I was justified in saying that Materials Science "has by now become a discipline in its own right", is briefly discussed in the last chapter.

The most idiosyncratic of the materials families are polymers and plastics. The mutual illumination between these and the various categories of inorganic crystalline materials has been slow in coming, and this means that teaching polymer science in broad materials science departments and relating the properties of polymers to other parts of the course, has not been easy. Yet things are improving, partly because more and more leading researchers and teachers in polymer physics are converted metallurgists. One of these reformed metallurgists is Edward Kramer, now in the Materials Department at the University of California, Santa Barbara. In a message (private communication, 2000) he pointed to three links from his own experience:

- (1) In a semicrystalline polymer, the crystals are embedded in a matrix of amorphous polymer whose properties depend on the ambient temperature relative to its glass transition temperature. Thus, the overall elastic properties of the semicrystalline polymer can be predicted by treating the polymer as a composite material

with stiff crystals embedded in a more compliant amorphous matrix, and such models can even be used to predict the linear viscoelastic properties.

- (2) Thermodynamics and kinetics of phase separation of polymer mixtures have benefited greatly from theories of spinodal decomposition and of classical nucleation. In fact, the best documented tests of the theory of spinodal decomposition have been performed on polymer mixtures.
- (3) A third topic is the mutual diffusion of different macromolecules in the melt. Here, the original formulation of the interdiffusion problem in metals proved very useful even though the mechanisms involved are utterly different. When a layer of polymer A with a low molecular weight diffuses into a layer of the same polymer with high molecular weight, markers placed at the original interface move towards the low-molecular-weight side, just as in Kirkendall's classical experiments with metals (Section 4.2.2). The viscous bulk flow that drives this marker displacement is equivalent to the vacancy flux in metals.

I shall be wholly convinced of the beneficial conceptual synergy between polymers and other classes of materials when polymer scientists begin to make more extensive use of phase diagrams.

In earlier chapters, especially Chapters 2 and 3, the links of materials scientists to neighbouring concerns such as solid-state physics, solid-state chemistry, mineralogy, geophysics, colloid science and mechanics have been considered, and need not be repeated here. *Suffice it to say that materials scientists and engineers have proved themselves to be very open to the broader world of science.* A good proof of this is the experience of the Research Council in Britain that distributes public funds for research in the physical sciences. It turns out that the committee which judges claims against the funds provided for materials science and engineering (a committee composed mainly of practising materials scientists) awards many grants to departments of physics, chemistry and engineering as well as to mainline MSE departments, whereas the corresponding committees focused on those other disciplines scarcely ever award funds to MSE departments.

## 14.2. PROFESSIONAL SOCIETIES AND THEIR EVOLUTION

The plethora of professional societies now linked to MSE can be divided into three categories – old metallurgical societies, either unregenerate or converted to broader concerns; specialised societies, concerned with other particular categories of materials or functions; and societies devoted to MSE from the time of their foundation. Beyond this, there are some federations, umbrella organisations that link a number of societies.

All the societies organise professional meetings, and often publish the proceedings in their own journals; many of the larger societies publish multiple journals. Most societies also publish a range of professional books.

#### ***14.2.1 Metallurgical and ex-metallurgical societies***

There have long been a number of renowned national societies devoted to metals and alloys, some of them more than a century old. They include (to cite just a few examples, using early – not necessarily original – names) the Metallurgical Society of the American Institute of Mining, Metallurgical and Petroleum Engineers, The American Society for Metals, the Institute of Metals in London, the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Metallkunde, the Société Française de Métallurgie, the Indian Institute of Metals, the Japan Institute of Metals. Most of these have now changed their names because, at various times, they have sought to broaden their remit from metals to materials; the Indian and Japanese bodies have not hitherto changed their names. Some bodies have simply resolved to become broader; one has become simply TMS (which represents The Minerals, Metals and Materials Society), another, ASM International. Other societies have broadened by merging with other preexisting societies: thus the Institute of Metals in London first became the Metals Society, which merged with the Iron and Steel Institute to become the Institute of Metals once again, and eventually merged with other societies concerned with ceramics, polymers and rubber to become the Institute of Materials.

The journals published by the various societies have mostly undergone repeated changes of name. Thus, the old *Journal of the Institute of Metals* first split into *Metal Science* and *Materials Technology* and finally reunited as *Materials Science and Technology*. TMS and ASM International joined forces to publish *Metals Transactions*, which recently turned into *Metallurgical and Materials Transactions*; this journal replaced two earlier ones published separately by the two societies, each of these having changed names repeatedly. The German journal published by the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Metallkunde (now the D.G. für Materialkunde, DGM) was and remains the *Zeitschrift für Metallkunde*; most of the papers remain metallurgical and most of them are now in English. (The history of the DGM, “in the mirror of the *Zeitschrift für Metallkunde*”, is interestingly summarized in an anniversary volume, DGM 1994.) The French society has replaced ‘metals’ with ‘materials’ in its name, and likewise incorporated the word in the rather lengthy title of its own journal (*Revue de Métallurgie: Science et Génie des Matériaux*). These many name changes must be a librarian’s nightmare.

The underlying idea fueling the many changes of names of journals is that by changing the name, societies can bring about a broadening of content. By and large this has not happened, and the journals have remained obstinately metallurgical in

character, because when a journal is first published, it quickly acquires a firm identity in the minds of its readers and of those who submit papers to it, and a change of name does not modify this identity. In my view, only a very resolute and proactive editor, well connected through his own scientific work to the scientific community, and with clear authority over his journal, has any hope of gradually bringing about a genuine transformation in the nature of an existing, well-established journal. The alternative, of course, is to start completely new journals, some independent of societies; this alternative strategy is discussed in Section 14.3.

In Europe, a Federation of Materials Societies, FEMS, was established in 1987; it links 19 societies in 17 countries (website: <http://www.fems.org>). It plays a role in setting up Europe-wide conferences on materials, keeps national societies informed of each other's doings, and seeks to avert timetable conflicts. Further federations feature in the next section.

#### **14.2.2 Other specialised societies**

Numerous societies are devoted to ceramics, to glass or to both jointly. The American Ceramic Society is the senior body; the European Ceramic Society is an interesting example of a single body covering a wide but still restricted geographical area. Societies covering polymers (and elastomers sometimes treated as a separate group) are multifarious, both nationally and internationally. Still other specialisms, such as composite materials, carbon and diamond are covered by commercial journals rather than by specialised societies, but even where there is no society to organise conferences in a field, yet independent and self-perpetuating groups of experts arrange such conferences without society support. Semiconductor devices and integrated circuits are mostly covered by societies closely linked to the electrical engineering profession. There are a number of societies, such as the Royal Microscopical Society in Britain, which focus on aspects of materials characterization. Any attempt to list the many specialised professional bodies would be unproductive.

#### **14.2.3 Materials societies *ab initio***

The first organization to carry the name of materials science was a British club, the Materials Science Club, founded by a group of materials-oriented British chemical engineers in 1963. This group organised broad meetings on topics such as 'materials science in relation to design' and 'biomechanics', and published some of the contributions in its own quarterly *Bulletin*. The Club brought together a very wide range of some hundreds of scientists and engineers from universities, industry and government laboratories, including a proportion of foreign members, awarded

medals, and published almost 100 issues of its *Bulletin* before difficulties in organising its affairs without any paid staff eventually brought about its absorption, in the late 1980s, by the Institute of Metals in London, and thereby its extinction. Only one complete set of the *Bulletin* survives, in the library of the City University in London. While it lasted, it was a very lively organization.

Undoubtedly, the key organization created to foster the new concepts of interdisciplinary research on materials is the Materials Research Society, MRS, founded in the US in 1973, after 7 years of exhaustive discussions. It is to be particularly noted that its name carries the words 'Materials Research', not 'Materials Science'. 'Materials Research' avoids specifying which kinds of scientists and engineers should be involved in the society; all that is required that their work should contribute to an understanding and improvement of materials. According to illuminating essays (Roy and Gatos 1993) by two of the founders of the MRS, Rustum Roy and Harry Gatos (whom we have met in Section 10.4.1), from the start the society was to focus on research involving cooperation between different disciplines, of which MSE was to be just one – albeit a vital one. Gatos is forthright in his essay: "The founding and operation of MRS was the culmination of my ten years of frustrated effort in searching for a professional home (old, renovated or new) for the young, homeless materials science. The leaders of the existing materials societies strenuously resisted accepting that materials science existed outside the materials they dealt with, be they metals, ceramics, or polymers. The founders of MRS were just a small but 'driven' minority..." Certainly my own experience of starting Britain's first university department of materials science in 1965 confirms what Gatos (who was at MIT) says about professional societies at that time; when I first attended a meeting of the MRS in 1976, I realised that I had found my primary intellectual home, inchoate though it was in that year. The MRS took some years to reach its first 1000 members, but after that grew rapidly.

There was a further consideration in the minds of the founders, though that has been kept rather quiet in public. In the early 1970s, physicists and chemists working in American industry, especially the many working on aspects of materials, were not made welcome in their professional physics and chemistry societies, which were inclined to ignore industrial concerns. These two groups played a substantial part in bringing the MRS to life; it must also be said immediately that enlightened figures in industry, especially William O. Baker, director of research at Bell Telephone Laboratories, from an early stage supported MRS by word and deed. MRS from the beginning welcomed industrial scientists and topics of close concern to industry. It is thus natural that today, as many as 25% of the  $\approx 12,500$  members of MRS (in more than 60 countries) are in industry (as against 63% in academe and 12% in government laboratories) (Rao 2000).

Roy and Gatos, as also Phillips (1995) in her even more recent snapshot of the MRS, all emphasise two features of the society: the major role of volunteer activity by members in taking scientific decisions and making the society work (in its early years, it had no paid staff), and the invention of the principle of simultaneous symposia, organized by members, each on a well-defined, limited topic, that constitutes the main business of the society's annual meetings, a practice, as Roy points out, "now copied almost universally by most disciplinary societies." Several hundred volumes of proceedings of these symposia have been published by 2000. The MRS now has a large, paid headquarters staff, essential for what has become a large and variegated organization.

In addition to the symposium proceedings, MRS publishes a monthly *MRS Bulletin*, and in 1986 it founded an archival research journal, *Journal of Materials Research (JMR)*, and both are going strong. I have had many occasions in this book to cite expository articles in the *Bulletin*, in particular. The *JMR* is run in an unusual way, typical of the MRS: each submitted paper is sent to one of a panel of principal editors (chosen periodically by the society's council) and he/she reports on the paper to the Editor-in-Chief, who alone communicates with authors. I was one of the first batch of principal editors, and found that this system worked well. An essay on the genesis and principles of this journal, three years afterwards, was published by Kaufmann (1988). *JMR* has only one Achilles' heel: as Roy (1993) pointed out, "the MRS has not been able to involve the polymer community to a major extent; less than 5% of the *JMR* is (in 1993) devoted to polymers." This is a lasting problem for all who seek to foster a broadly based discipline of MSE. However, *JMR* is publishing an increasing proportion of papers on the broad theme of materials processing, and this is a particularly useful service.

Once it was well-established, and mindful of its many foreign members, the MRS encouraged the progressive creation of local MRSs in a number of countries. There are now 10 of these, in Australia, China, Mexico, Argentina, India, Japan, South Korea, Russia, Taiwan and Europe (embodying various European countries, and domiciled in France). Some are more active than others; in particular, the Indian body, MRS-I, publishes its own successful research periodical, *Bulletin of Materials Science*, and the Chinese MRS has organized a succession of major international conferences. Overarching these societies is the International Union of Materials Research Societies; the original MRS has helped a great deal in setting up this federal supervisory body, but in no sense does it dominate it. One example of the help this federation gives to constituent bodies is a major MSE conference held in Bangalore, India, in 1998 (proceedings, IUMRS-ICA 98 1999).

In Japan, the Japan Federation of Materials acts as an umbrella organisation for 18 Japanese materials societies, and very recently, in 2000, it has co-sponsored a new English-language Japanese journal, *Science and Technology of Advanced Materials*,



with (among other aims) the laudable editorial objective of “concise presentations, so that interested readers can read an issue from cover to cover.”

One primary aim of the MRS, to achieve a breakdown of interdisciplinary barriers, has been well achieved, according to one of the prime godfathers of materials science, the American Frederick Seitz (Fig. 3.19, Chapter 3). In a book primarily devoted to Italian solid-state physics (Seitz 1988), he remarks: “I might say a few words about the 55 odd years in which I have been associated with solid-state physics or, as it is sometimes called in the US, solid-state science, or condensed matter physics or materials science. When I entered the field as a graduate student in the early 1930s the overall field was strongly compartmentalised into three divisions which had relatively little interaction... One division was related to work in the field of metallurgy and ceramics... The second division related to research on materials for electrical engineering and electronics,... The third division related to the investigations of what might be called the fundamentalist scientists.” Of these three divisions, Seitz says: “While these divisions still exist, the flow of information between them is now much greater than it was and the research groups in each have many common bonds, mainly because of the application of solid-state physics.” This is a robust physicist’s view of the broadening of materials research.

Of course, many other professional societies have played their part in this successful reaching out between specialisms. As outlined above, the big metallurgical societies have broadened resolutely, and the American Physical Society and American Chemical Society are now much more hospitable to their members in industry than they apparently were 30 years ago.

### 14.3. JOURNALS, TEXTS AND REFERENCE WORKS

There is now an immense range of scientific journals, broad, narrow and in-between, to serve the great range of materials. The journals published by the many professional societies have encountered increasing competition from the many published by commercial publishers, but those, in turn, are now under severe pressure because of a growing librarians’ revolt against subscription prices that rise much faster than general inflation.

#### 14.3.1 *Broad-spectrum journals*

One classification is of special importance: there is a small minority of materials journals that can be described as *broad-spectrum*, compared with a much larger number which are specialised to a greater or lesser degree. Probably the first broad-

spectrum journal was *Journal of Materials Science, JMS*, launched by a commercial publisher in 1966. I was the first chairman of editors, so had a major role in forming policy. My insistence was that there should be several editors with complementary fields of expertise and independent powers of decision over submitted papers, and I encouraged those editors to be proactive (to use a current jargon-word) and seek out key papers on novel topics. This worked well, and the publication of such key papers then encouraged other authors in the same field to steer their papers to *JMS*. The 1969 paper from which Fig. 6.6 (Chapter 6) was reproduced was an example of this successful policy. Since the journal was broad-spectrum *from the beginning* (including, incidentally, polymer physics) that was how it has always been perceived and it has not become specialised, even when the 6 editors had to be replaced by one editor after some years (because of my enhanced academic duties in 1973 that deprived me of time to edit). However, there have been several spin-off mini-journals, including one devoted to the new editor's specialism, biomedical engineering. *JMS* has also always been very international.

Another journal, *Materials Science and Engineering (MSE)*, was started by another commercial publisher at about the same time as *JMS*. This had only one editor, a metallurgist, from the start, and so in spite of its stated objectives, it remained almost wholly metallurgical for many years. When eventually it became broader under a new editor, it was split into several independent journals with distinct editorial boards, each of them relatively broad-spectrum – in particular, one devoted to functional materials, and another to biomimetics. The main *MSE* remained in being, and has remained largely metallurgical after 35 years.

The MRS archival journal, *Journal of Materials Research*, already mentioned, is another broad-spectrum journal that has worked well, except for its limited polymer content. Here again, the principle of multiple editorship seems to have been an important component of success.

Some older journals, such as *Journal of Physics and Chemistry of Solids*, which has been published for some 60 years and now focuses to some degree on functional materials, have long been broad-spectrum. Others have a broad-spectrum name but in fact are relatively narrowly focused: an example is *Materials Research Bulletin*, which in fact is concerned mostly with the chemistry of inorganic materials. Its subtitle is *an international journal reporting research on the synthesis, structure and properties of materials*. (This journal now has a supplement entitled *Crystal Engineering*.) Likewise, an English-language journal simply called *Advanced Materials* began publication 10 years ago in Germany, and is highly successful; in spite of its comprehensive title, it is wholly focused on materials chemistry, especially processing. In recent years, the archetype of broad spectrum, *Nature*, has begun to pay special attention to papers on materials processing, self-assembly techniques in particular, as the many references to that journal in Chapter 11 testify.

In Russia, after many years of a successful but purely metallurgical journal entitled *Fizika Metallov i Metallovedenie* (the last word representing 'knowledge of materials' and not, as I had supposed, 'metallography' (Rabkin 2000)), a group of influential materials scientists in 1997 started a journal entitled *Materialovedenie*, which word I believe to be the best current Russian form of 'materials science'. In spite of the editors' best efforts, the journal is finding it difficult to break away from a metallurgical focus.

In Japan, as recorded above, a new journal called *Science and Technology of Advanced Materials* has just begun publication.

An interesting, broad-spectrum journal founded in 1997 by Roy is *Materials Research Innovations*; one of its objectives is to bypass normal methods of editorial scrutiny; submitting authors who have published a sufficient number of papers in other, peer-reviewed, journals are assumed, in effect, to have reviewed themselves.

A number of journals devoted wholly to review articles, shading from metallurgy to genuine materials science, are now appearing; the grandfather of this group is *Progress in Materials Science* (which began in 1949 as *Progress in Metal Physics*). Another excellent example is *Materials Science and Engineering – Reports: A Review Journal*.

#### 14.3.2 The birth of *Acta Metallurgica*

The journal whose genesis is to be described here is of extreme importance in the history of modern physical metallurgy and, later, materials science. Its birth in 1953 coincided with the high point of the 'quantitative revolution' portrayed in Chapter 5, and preceded by a few years the beginning of materials science. It transformed the metallurgical researcher's perception of the discipline and it clearly contributed to the currents of thought that first brought materials science into being in 1958.

*Acta Metallurgica* owed its birth to a resolute metallurgist, Herbert Hollomon, whom we met in Section 1.1.2 in his capacity as leader of materials research at the General Electric Corporate R&D Center in New York State. According to a history of the journal (Hibbard 1988), an update thereto (Fullman 1996) and private information from Seitz (2000), Hollomon perceived soon after World War 2 that publications from a new post-war surge of research were widely scattered throughout the physical, chemical and metallurgical literature and that there was a "need for a unifying journal in which the fruits of such research could be gathered more effectively." A number of eminent researchers, including among others Frederick Seitz, Harvey Brooks (the founding editor of *Journal of Physics and Chemistry of Solids*), Cyril Stanley Smith (see Section 14.4.1) and Bruce Chalmers, joined in discussions that led, in 1951, to an approach to the American Society of Metals which then offered generous financial support; in this the ASM was later joined by

the American Institute of Mining, Metallurgical and Petroleum Engineers. During the next year, a board of governors chaired by Smith was created, and appointed Bruce Chalmers, then a professor in Toronto, Canada (see Section 9.1.1) to be editor. Hollomon was secretary/treasurer of the board of governors.

*Acta Metallurgica* began publication in the spring of 1953 and at once created a huge impact in the profession with its many rigorous, quantitative papers, long and short. The journal's standards were very high from the beginning, and aspects of physics (such as for instance nuclear magnetic resonance) found their place in the journal from the first volume. Cyril Smith, in his preface to the first issue, memorably remarked: "Now, metallurgy is too broad to be encompassed by a single human mind: it is essential to enlist the interest of the 'pure' scientists, and to increase the number of metallurgists whose connections with production and managerial problems are partially sacrificed in order that they may be more concerned with physics and physical chemistry as a framework for useful metallurgical advance."

By 1967, the flood of short papers had become so great that a separate journal, *Scripta Metallurgica*, was hived off. These Latin titles were intended to symbolise the international character of the journal. Chalmers edited the journal until 1974, when Michael Ashby took over the reins which he held until 1995; at that point a more collegiate editorial structure was instituted. In 1990, the adjective '*metallurgica*' was supplemented by '*materialia*', and in 1996 the journals simply became *Acta materialia* and *Scripta materialia* (some classicist seems to have advised the board of governors, at a late stage, that lower case letters are de rigueur in Latin!)

*Acta Metallurgica* was unique among journals in having from the beginning a completely independent board of governors which is the formal owner, permanently guaranteed financially by the two leading American metallurgical societies. The initially contracted publisher in Toronto proved to have difficulty in sustaining the printing effort, and when it seemed that the project might be stillborn, Seitz (then chairman of the governing board of the American Institute of Physics) brought in the publishing facilities of that Institute to rescue the situation; much effort was involved in the rescue. By that time, Chalmers had moved to Harvard. However, in 1955 Hollomon met Robert Maxwell, proprietor of Pergamon Press, on an airplane; they took to each other (both were forceful characters to a degree) and Hollomon, who seems to have had quasi-dictatorial powers over the board of governors of *Acta Metallurgica*, insisted that Pergamon Press should take over publication of the journal; it has published it (and its temporary sister publications... like *Materials and Society*) since 1955. However, Pergamon Press has never owned the copyright or the journal itself, and policy decisions have always been taken by the board of governors with input from a very international roster of advisers.

In recent years, under the leadership of a coordinating editor, Subra Suresh, *Acta Materialia* and its letter journal have sought energetically to broaden the remit of the

journals, with some success but also some difficulties. In January 2000, Suresh edited a fine 'millenium issue', entitled *Materials science and engineering: current status and future directions*; it included 21 overviews, including excellent treatments of polymers.

#### 14.3.3 Specialised journals

Scientific journals devoted to particular categories of materials, or procedures, become ever more numerous. Some are national, others continental or international in scope; some are highly specific, others somewhere between broad and narrow spectrum; some publish in English or another language only, others accept papers in several languages. All I can usefully do here is to cite a few examples.

An example of a journal hovering between broad and narrow spectrum is *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, subtitled "an interdisciplinaty journal of materials science and solid-state chemistry and physics." One which is more restrictively focused is *Journal of Nuclear Materials* (which I edited for its first 25 years). Ceramics has a range of journals, of which the most substantial is *Journal of the American Ceramic Society*. *Ceramics International* is an example of an international journal in the field, while *Journal of the European Ceramic Society* is a rather unusual instance of a periodical with a continental remit. More specialised journals include *Solid State Ionics: Diffusion and Reactions*, and a new *Journal of Electroceramics*, started in 1997.

Polymer journals are very plentiful and most of them are relatively broad in coverage. Examples – *Polymer* (the international journal for the science and technology of polymers), *Progress in Polymer Science* and *New Polymeric Materials*. To repeat a statement made in Chapter 2: "As late as 1960, only four journals were devoted exclusively to polymers – two in English, one in German and one in Russian. Now, however, the field is saturated: a survey in 1994 came up with 57 journal titles devoted to polymers that could be found in the Science Citation Index, and this does not include minor journals that were not cited."

Other examples of specialised journals include *Composites Science and Technology*; a broad journal called *Carbon* and a more specific one, *Diamond and Related Materials*; and *Biomaterials* (incorporating *Clinical Materials*). I have already mentioned the new *Crystal Engineering*, which joins such journals as *Crystal Research and Technology* and in turn was joined in 2001 by *Crystal Growth and Design*. Beyond that, there are the several forms of the classic journal *Acta Crystallographica* (which may have been the first to adopt a Latin title). A whole series of new journals cover computer modelling and simulation of materials: *Computational Materials Science* is one, *Modelling and Simulation in Materials Science and Engineering* is another.

A large group of journals covers various aspects of characterization, including electron microscopy. *Micron* and *Ultramicroscopy* are two of these, *Materials Characterization* (published in association with the International Metallographic Society) is another.

Materials chemistry is now served by a whole range of journals, ranging from the venerable *Journal of Solid-State Chemistry* and *Materials Research Bulletin* (already mentioned) to *Materials Chemistry and Physics* (which, interestingly, now incorporates *The International Journal of the Chinese Society for Materials Science...* which appears to be distinct from the Chinese MRS) and *Journal of Materials Chemistry* (published by the RSC in London) – also *Chemistry of Materials*, published by the ACS. In France, *Annales de Chimie: Science des Matériaux* is an offshoot of a journal originally founded by Lavoisier in 1789 (shortly before he lost his head). *Journal of Materials Synthesis and Processing* is an interesting periodical with somewhat narrower focus.

In this listing of examples, I have excluded straight metallurgical journals and the many devoted to solid-state physics, such as the venerable *Philosophical Magazine* and *Physical Review B*.

#### 14.3.4 Textbooks and reference works

One of the defining features of a new discipline is the publication of textbooks setting out its essentials. In Section 2.1.1, devoted to the emergence of physical chemistry, I pointed out that the first textbook of physical chemistry was not published until 1940, more than half a century after the foundation of the field. Materials science has been better served. In what follows, I propose to omit entirely all textbooks devoted to straight physical metallurgy, of which there have been dozens, say little about straight physics texts, and focus on genuine MSE texts.

As we saw in Chapter 3, the founding text of modern materials science was Frederick Seitz's *The Modern Theory of Solids* (1940); an updated version of this, also very influential in its day, was Charles Wert and Robb Thomson's *Physics of Solids* (1964). Alan Cottrell's *Theoretical Structural Metallurgy* appeared in 1948 (see Chapter 5); although devoted to metals, this book was in many ways a true precursor of materials science texts. Richard Weiss brought out *Solid State Physics for Metallurgists* in 1963. Several books such as *Properties of Matter* (1970), by Mendoza and Flowers, were on the borders of physics and materials science. Another key 'precursor' book, still cited today, was Darken and Gurry's book, *Physical Chemistry of Metals* (1953), followed by Swalin's *Thermodynamics of Solids*.

However, the first text specifically for students of materials science was Lawrence van Vleck's *Elements of Materials Science: An Introductory Text for Engineering Students* (1959), which was very widely used. It appeared only a year

after the initiatives at Northwestern University which gave birth to MSE (Section 1.1.1). In 1970, he published *Materials Science for Engineers*. Later, in 1973, the same author brought out *A Textbook of Materials Technology*; in his preface to this, van Vlack says that it was prepared “for those initial courses in materials which need the problem-solving approach of the technologist and the engineer, but which must fit into curricula designed for those who have a minimal background in the sciences.” Thus its approach was very different from Morris Fine’s book, mentioned next.

In 1964, two competing series of slender volumes appeared: one, the ‘Macmillan Series in Materials Science’, came from Northwestern: Morris Fine wrote a fine account of *Phase Transformations in Condensed Systems*, accompanied by Marvin Wayman’s *Introduction to the Crystallography of Martensite Transformations* and by *Elementary Dislocation Theory*, written by Johannes and Julia Weertman. The second series, edited at MIT by John Wulff, was entitled ‘The Structure and Properties of Materials’, and included slim volumes on *Structure*, *Thermodynamics of Structure*, *Mechanical Behaviour* and *Electronic Properties*.

From the early 1970s onwards, more substantial texts began to appear, notably Arthur Ruoff’s *An Introduction to Materials Science* (1972), a book of 700 pages. This was followed by *The Principles of Engineering Materials* (1973) by Craig Barrett, William Nix and Alan Tetelman, then *Metals, Ceramics and Polymers* (1974), 640 pages, by Oliver Wyatt and David Dew-Hughes (the first book, after Cottrell’s, by British authors), and then another British book, *Structure and Properties of Engineering Materials* (1977) by Bryan Harris and Anthony Bunsell. In Germany, Erhard Hornbogen brought out *Werkstoffe* (1973). In the Ukraine (while the Soviet Union still existed) an anonymous editor brought out a multiauthor volume (in Russian) entitled *Fizicheskoe Materialovedenie v SSSR* (1986); this is probably the only such book ever to focus on research in one country. In 1982, I.S. Miroshnichenko brought out a specialised book on quenching (of alloys) from the melt. Very recently, Bernhard Ilshner in Lausanne has masterminded a series of texts in materials science in the French language.

A fresh start has been made by Samuel Allen and Edwin Thomas of MIT, with *The Structure of Materials* (1998), the first of a new MIT series on materials. The authors say that “our text looks at one aspect of our field, the structure of materials, and attempts to define and present it in a generic, ‘materials catholic’ way.” They have succeeded, better than others, in integrating some crucial ideas concerning polymers into mainline materials science.

A number of somewhat more specialised texts also began to appear, such as Anderson and Leaver’s *Materials Science* (1969); in spite of its broad title, this book by two members of the Electrical Engineering Department at Imperial College, London, was wholly devoted to electrical and magnetic (functional) materials. So

was *Electronic and Magnetic Behaviour of Materials* (1967) by Allen Nussbaum of the University of Minnesota.

A good example of a book aimed specifically at processes is Alexander and Brewer's *Manufacturing Properties of Materials* (1963). More recently, there have been some fine texts aimed directly at developing for fledgling engineers a systematic approach for selecting materials during the design process: *Engineering Materials – an Introduction to their Properties and Applications* (1980), by Ashby and Jones, is probably the best example.

There have also been some excellent books and collections of articles written at a popular level. The master of this difficult art was James (J.E.) Gordon, who brought out two immensely successful titles, *The New Science of Strong Materials, or Why You Don't Fall Through the Floor* (1968) and *Structures, or Why Things Don't Fall Down* (1978). The magazine *Scientific American* consecrated the issue of September 1967 entirely to a number of surveys of materials, from a very wide range of perspectives; the lead article was by Cyril Stanley Smith. These articles also came out as a book, *Materials*, published by Freeman. In October 1986, another issue of the same periodical was devoted to materials for economic growth. In 1980, the great French physicist André Guinier (the discoverer of zones in precipitation-hardened light alloys), brought out *La Structure de la Matière, du Ciel Bleu à la Matière Plastique*; this was later translated into English. I have myself for many years contributed 1000-word articles to *Nature* on many aspects of materials science: a selection of 100 of these appeared in 1992 under the title *Artifice and Artefacts*.

A valuable source of up-to-date reviews of many aspects of MSE is a series of books, *Annual Reviews of Materials Science*, published for the last 30 years. There has been one extensive series of high-level multiauthor treatments right across the entire spectrum of MSE, in the form of 25 books collectively entitled *Materials Science and Technology: A Comprehensive Treatment* (1991–2000), masterminded by Peter Haasen, Edward Kramer and myself. There have also been three encyclopedias, the *Encyclopedia of Materials Science and Engineering* (1986), the *Encyclopedia of Advanced Materials* (1994) and the *Encyclopedia of Materials* (2001), which last has appeared in both printed and on-line versions and will receive annual updates.

#### 14.4. MATERIALS SCIENCE IN PARTICULAR PLACES

Recently, at an international conference, during the 'afternoon off' when we were all ambling in the sunshine, a young Algerian student asked me for a 'word of wisdom'. What elderly scholar can resist such a dewy-eyed approach from youth? So I reflected for a moment and then told him: "Remember that there is not really such



thing as Algerian science... or British or American science. There is just science, a worldwide collective endeavour. The thing that is invariant is the belief in the importance of a form of internationalism that really works, a pursuit of truth that unites mankind." This last sentence is a formulation that I owe to my wife.

What I said to the young man was both true and untrue. It is quite true that working with, or at least communicating with, one's colleagues worldwide is one of the things that most makes a life in science worth while. Yet what one can do in a particular place depends on the resources and stimulus available, which in turn depend on the traditions and economy of that place. For instance, the traditions of (say) a Middle Eastern country may predispose scientists (and even engineers) there to focus on theoretical work at the expense of experiment. So in that limited sense, there is interest in saying something about how materials science and engineering have developed in different places, and to try to draw some conclusions. That is my objective in this section. I have picked people and institutions on the basis of personal acquaintance in years past, and that is why there is a certain metallurgical bias in my choices, since my personal research was on metals. I have outlined *particular* institutions in the USA, Japan, Australia (with an aside on Germany), Argentina and Russia, and tried to paint brief portraits of the people that brought them into being. I have not attempted the hopeless task of painting a complete portrait of those countries.

Those countries apart, if there were much more space available I could outline research institutions for materials science in the many European countries that possess them, in India, China and Korea, in Canada, Brazil, Israel. The fact that I do not implies no disrespect for the many fine experts in those lands.

#### ***14.4.1 Cyril Smith and the Institute for the Study of Metals, Chicago***

A number of American research institutions and the people who shaped them have already featured in this book: the creation of the Materials Research Laboratories; Robert Mehl's influence on the Naval Research Laboratory and on Carnegie Institute of Technology; Hollomon's influence on the GE laboratory; Seitz's influence on the University of Illinois (and numerous other places); Carothers and Flory at the Dupont laboratory; the triumvirate who invented the transistor and the atmosphere at Bell Laboratories that made this feat possible; Stookey, glass-ceramics and the Corning Glass laboratory. I would like now to round off this list with an account of a most impressive laboratory that came to grief, and the man who shaped it.

Cyril Stanley Smith (1903–1992) (Fig. 14.2) was a British-born metallurgist who studied at Birmingham University and then emigrated to the United States as a young man, took a doctorate at MIT, and spent 16 years as a successful researcher



**Figure 14.2.** Portrait of Cyril Stanley Smith in old age (courtesy of MIT museum).

on alloys in an industrial copper-and-brass company; he obtained numerous patents. He became well known for the originality and clarity of his researches, and in 1943 Robert Oppenheimer recruited him to be joint head of the metallurgical effort in the bomb project at Los Alamos. When the War ended in the summer of 1945, he agreed to an invitation from the University of Chicago (which had a highly active president, Robert Hutchings) to create there a novel kind of laboratory devoted to the study of metals in particular, and the solid state more generally. In 1946, the Institute for the Study of Metals opened its doors on the Chicago campus in the same building where in 1942 the world's first nuclear reactor had gone critical. (It is ironic that this earlier project at the time was called 'The Metallurgical Laboratory of the Manhattan District' with the aim of totally confusing anybody who might have been inquisitive.) An account of the first 15 years of the Institute, by one of its members, has recently appeared (Kleppa 1997).

In April 1946, a few months before the Institute began operation, Smith made public a memorandum detailing the principles on which it was to be founded. (The memorandum is reprinted in Kleppa's paper, and might be described as an

elaboration of the ideas concisely set out 7 years later in Smith's preface to the first issue of *Acta Metallurgica*, from which some words are quoted in Section 14.3.2) Indeed, the creation of the Institute and later of *Acta Metallurgica* were two sides of one coin. In his memorandum, Smith saw physicists as the masters of theoretical work on metals, physical chemists as students of reactions and of the associated thermodynamics, while metallurgists would undertake research on matters like diffusion, phase transformations, grain growth, and "similar fields in which a phenomenological approach must precede or accompany the strictly mathematical". He also indicated, fatefully, that "the Institute will maintain close connections with the instructional activities of the university, but it is not intended to establish a separate Department of Metallurgy, and consequently, no degrees in metallurgy will be awarded."

Cyril Smith succeeded in attracting some very distinguished researchers at the beginning, including Charles Barrett (who had worked with Mehl in Pittsburgh), Clarence Zener, Norman Nachtrieb, the eminent crystallographer William Zachariasen, Andrew Lawson, Joseph Burke, Earl Long, the Chinese T'ing-Sui Kê... to mention only a few of the metallurgists, ceramists, physicists and chemists whom Smith had recruited (partly drawing on his acquaintances at Los Alamos). Smith also secured a large group of industrial sponsors, drawing on his industrial past. The Institute published a series of quarterly reports, distributed to the sponsors and some other favoured recipients; these reports in the early years contained entire papers which later appeared in journals, especially *Physical Review* (*Acta Metallurgica* not yet being in existence). Even most of the text of Zener's short but extremely influential book, *Elasticity and Anelasticity of Metals*, published by the University of Chicago Press in 1948, first saw the light of day in a quarterly report. Many topics were unusual, for instance Barrett's work on low-temperature phase transformations and Nachtrieb's on diffusion under hydrostatic pressure (which delivered insights into diffusion mechanisms). The Institute quickly came to be perceived as the leading fundamental research laboratory devoted to metals, and many visitors came; one was Brian Pippard, who in 1955–1956 performed there his famous work on the shape of the Fermi surface in copper (Section 3.1).

Smith himself stimulated many researchers but, though he wrote a celebrated paper on the evolution of microstructure, did not take any graduate students, and so he did not perhaps initially perceive the implications of the fact that large numbers of doctoral students came from the university's physics and chemistry departments to work with some of the permanent Institute staff... but there were no metallurgically trained students to draw on. Some of the Institute staff became closely involved with the physics or chemistry departments, and one even became chairman of the physics department. A consequence of this situation was that Smith could not attract further metallurgists to join the Institute, and junior metallurgists who came for short

attachments found that they did not want to stay permanently, even when offered tempting posts. Smith's initial decision not to push for the creation of a metallurgy department proved to be the occasion of the Institute's downfall in the end, because the metallurgists had no sense of belonging to the university as a whole.

In 1955, Smith took a year's sabbatical to pursue his interests in metallurgical history (see, for instance, Section 3.1.2) which led in 1960 to the publication of his *A History of Metallography*. Earl Long became director, but resigned when in 1961 the Institute in effect was taken over by the physicists and chemists and its name was changed to the James Franck Institute (after a German émigré physicist), still its name today. It was a classic organisational coup, and nothing was said about it in the next quarterly report. Interest in metals lapsed almost completely, though Charles Barrett remained for a time. Kleppa, the author of the valedictory article cited above, was the most persistent of the early staff members, and carved out a distinguished place for himself as an expert on experimental thermochemistry of alloys (see an autobiographical paper, Kleppa 1994).

Smith resigned in 1961 and returned to his alma mater, MIT, where he developed his renowned work on the history of metallurgy, drawing on an enormous collection of ancient texts which he had begun to form in the 1930s. It would be fair to say that his courageous conception at Chicago eventually failed, and turned into something entirely different with his departure, because there was no academic home for the metallurgists on the Institute staff and the lack of such a home impeded recruitment and retention of staff. Scientists, like all other people, need a sense of belonging. In the various National Laboratories in America where so much distinguished research on materials goes on today, there is no such problem, but universities are different.

#### ***14.4.2 Kotaro Honda and materials research in Japan***

When, in 1867, the repressive shogun was overthrown, the Meiji (Imperial) Restoration took place and Japan was at last thrown open to the world, the Japanese government soon recognised that Japan had a lot of catching up to do with respect to science and engineering. At once, a number of foreign professors were recruited to teach at Japanese universities, especially from Germany, Britain, France and America. One of those who came was Alfred Ewing, the many-faceted magnetician and engineer whom we met in Chapter 3. He lectured at the physics department at the Imperial University of Tokyo, 1878–1883 and proved effective in instilling an interest in magnetism among the students there. The variegated ways in which the Japanese government located and persuaded such foreign experts to help Japan, and the national differences in the behavior of such experts, are interestingly examined in a book about the 'formation of science' in Japan (Bartholomew 1987).

Honda (1870–1954) was a farmer's son. He had a difficult youth, looked down on by his father and suffering from low self-esteem. His brother talked him out of adopting agriculture as a profession and eventually he went to Tokyo to study physics, where he graduated in 1897. Clearly, Ewing's influence was still felt there, because Honda homed in on magnetism for his initial research. He stayed in Tokyo for 10 years, influenced by Hantaro Nagaoka, an excellent teacher of physics who was interested in metals and magnetostriction, and acquired a doctorate. In 1907, the Ministry of Education awarded him a travelling scholarship and he spent the next 4 years divided between Gustav Tammann in Göttingen (a metallurgist, see Fig. 3.8) and René Du Bois in Berlin (a magnetician). Fig. 14.3 shows a photograph of Honda at this time, as well as a later photograph when he had become famous in Japan. Both photographs suggest how thoroughly he had overcome the handicaps of his childhood. In these years in Europe, he studied the changes in magnetic properties of numerous elements as a function of temperature, and also the periodicity of the atomic susceptibility in a range of metals (Honda 1910). He spent a week with Ewing (who was now in Cambridge), discussing his findings, and received Ewing's praise. Like many Japanese who visited the west, Honda was much influenced by at least one of his teachers, and became as brusque and demanding with his collaborators as was Tammann, and would not brook contradiction. Honda, having overcome his own childhood inferiority, was wholly unimpressed by other people's class or status. According to contemporary records, however, he did not share Tammann's quick temper and was always imperturbable.



**Figure 14.3.** Portraits of Kotaro Honda as a young man and in middle age (courtesy of Reiner Kirchheim, Göttingen).

On his return home in 1911, Honda was appointed professor of physics at the new Tohoku Imperial University in Sendai, in the north of Japan; this institution had been established only in 1906, when the finance minister twisted the arm of an industrialist who had made himself unpopular because of pollution caused by his copper mines and extracted the necessary funds to build the new university. A provisional institute of physical and chemical research was initiated in 1916, divided into a part devoted to novel plastics and another to metals. This proved to be Honda's lifetime domain; he assembled a lively team of young physicists and chemists. In the same year, Honda invented a high-cobalt steel also containing tungsten and chromium, which had by far the highest coercivity of any permanent-magnet material then known. He called it KS steel, for K. Sumitomo, one of his sponsors, and it made Honda famous.

In 1919, after much politics (the details of which can be found in Bartholomew's book) Honda's group was inaugurated under the name of Iron and Steel Research Institute. Three years later, to broaden its terms of reference, it was rechristened the Research Institute for Iron, Steel and Other Metals (RIISOM). The Institute was wholly focused on intensive research, at all hours of the day and night; Honda was full of scientific ideas and implacable with his colleagues and students. Among many other early successes were a series of improved magnetic alloys, details of which can be found in a survey of Japanese research in magnetism (Chikazumi 1982). Honda succeeded in always maintaining an excellent balance between fundamental and applied concerns. (According to Bartholomew, "the business interests that came to support him thought his work theoretical, but academics thought it applied.") By the end of Honda's reign, Japan had moved a long way from the view expressed in a 1907 editorial, that basic researchers were "eccentrics whose work is a form of dissipation."

The prodigious research output of the Institute often first saw the light of day in the *Science Reports of the Tohoku Imperial University*, and its successors; in my younger days, I received these regularly and found them rivetting reading.

In 1931, Honda, loaded with honors, became president of the university, and the Institute was directed by a successor. The Institute expanded its space, personnel and range of interests, until in 1987, in the words of the current descriptive brochure, "it was reorganised as a countrywide collaborative research institute to meet the rapid progress in materials science and renamed Institute for Materials Research." Its institutional centre has remained in Sendai. Its constituent 31 laboratories range from very pure to very applied science, from crystal physics to irradiation studies, from low-temperature physics to solid-state chemistry under high pressure, from high-purity metals to crystal chemistry, from magnetism to solidification and casting metallurgy – to name just a few. One recent director was Tsuyoshi Masumoto, who made his name in research on metastable alloys and has very recently founded a new

broad-spectrum journal, *Science and Technology of Advanced Materials*, mentioned in Section 14.3. A recent director was Hiroyasu Fujimori, another distinguished physicist and metallurgist.

Today, there are many eminent researchers on materials in Japan, alike in universities and in various national research institutes, and latterly in Tsukuba Science City – but the Tohoku Institute has always held a special place, owing to the energy, determination and organising ability of its founder and the habits of work which he instilled in his staff.

#### ***14.4.3 Walter Boas and physics of solids in Australia***

In the 1930s, the world's greatest migration of scientists took place under the lash of Nazism. It has sometimes been asserted that Hitler may have lost the War because of the talent he forced to flee, and that the American development of the atomic bomb that shortened the War so drastically might have been much slower without that migration. Other, less cataclysmic, consequences also flowed from the migration, and this Section is devoted to one of them.

Walter Boas (1904–1982) (Fig. 14.4) was a German physicist of Jewish parentage. In 1922 he entered the Technische Hochschule in Berlin to study electrical engineering, but two years later he switched to physics because “I wanted a sounder grounding in fundamentals and disliked the large amounts of design work...” These words come from Boas's personal record deposited with the Australian Academy of Sciences in 1973 (with a 1979 addendum). In Berlin, Boas was stimulated by the great physicists who crowded that city, and lived through the heroic days of early wave mechanics. Early in 1927 he had to choose a professor with whom to carry out the small research project required for his diploma (equivalent to a bachelor's degree). After much thought, he approached Professor Richard Becker, who accepted him for a project to check his new theory of metallic creep under stress. At first Boas was not too happy with the task assigned to him and his first tests were unsuccessful. Then, “Becker...came to the laboratory and gave me a proper dressing down in his wise and direct way which had a permanent effect on all my work: ‘You must apply yourself with all your love and your whole soul to your project, otherwise no experiment will ever succeed’. How true this is and how often I thought of these words.”

Boas praised Becker's personality, as one of the most ethical men he had ever met, with high principles from which he would not deviate and for which he stood up with great courage, even vis-à-vis the dangerous Nazis. When Becker (1887–1955) died in Göttingen, after a life marked by major contributions to nucleation theory and ferromagnetism as well as plasticity and even explosives, his memorial speeches all insisted on his striking honesty and uprightness of character. Heisenberg at the



**Figure 14.4.** Portrait of Walter Boas (courtesy of CSIRO, Melbourne).

time commented on the youthful rapport which developed between Becker and his students. It is also noteworthy that 6 years after his attention to Boas, Becker did the same for Egon Orowan, who also switched from electrical engineering to physics and studies of plasticity (see Section 3.2.3.2).

In later 1927, Becker saw to it that in spite of the severe Depression, Boas was given a job at the Kaiser-Wilhelm-Institut für Metallkunde in Berlin. Becker told Boas that he was dean of the faculty which had to adjudicate on the ‘habilitation’ (right to lecture at university) of a young Austrian metallurgist at the Institute, Erich Schmid, and that (in spite of his – Becker’s – high ethical standards!) he would tell Schmid that he would agree to his habilitation only if he appointed Boas to a position in his section.” He did, and was duly habilitated. On such curious practices can a lifetime career depend. With Schmid, Boas began the experiments on the plasticity of metal crystals (Sections 2.1.6, 4.2.1) that culminated in the publication, in 1935, of their joint book *Kristallplastizität*. Before that, in 1930, Boas obtained his doctorate (as Becker’s first doctoral student); his thesis “created a small storm since it was the shortest ever submitted, 15 pages.” Boas and Becker remained good friends, and in contact, for the rest of Becker’s life.



Boas accompanied Schmid to the University of Fribourg in Switzerland in 1933, when Schmid was granted a chair there, and there they finished their book. Boas was lucky; he left Germany before Hitler took power. Though his parents were not observant Jews, and in fact Boas had been baptised, that would not have saved him from persecution. The Swiss, however, had a rule that prevented any refugee from staying beyond 5 years (which would give him automatic rights of permanent residence) and so Boas had to leave in late 1937. The committee in London that looked after refugees, run by the legendary Esther Simpson who has died only recently, found Boas a temporary haven with Sir William Bragg at the Royal Institution in London. Again with Esther Simpson's help, Boas managed to secure appointment to a 2-year Carnegie lectureship in metallurgy at the University of Melbourne in Australia, and in April 1938 he and his new wife left for Australia where he lived contentedly for the rest of his long life, becoming a citizen in 1944.

Boas's post at the University of Melbourne was made permanent, and for 9 years he taught and supervised research, and helped train metallurgists for war work. A number of noted metallurgists, such as Robert Honeycombe, passed through his hands. Then, after the War, the department was faced by insuperable difficulties and research facilities disappeared. In 1947 he applied for and secured a senior post in the Division of Tribophysics of the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization, CSIRO, also in Melbourne. 'Tribophysics' in the name was a residue of the interests of F.P. Bowden who studied wear and lubrication and sought a more elegant name to denote his interests (Bowden had moved on to Cambridge). Boas's duties were to undertake, and direct, research in the physics of solids. In spite of the tribophysics name, Boas took a broad view of his remit, and studied many aspects of metal physics. CSIRO made no difficulties about his choice of themes; they had an attitude to their senior scientists rather like that of Bell Laboratories... choose the best and give them their heads. How different from the situation today!

In 1949, Boas was appointed to the post of divisional chief after the incumbent retired. He took some persuasion to accept this, because it meant more attention to administration and supervision and would make it difficult for Boas to undertake personal research. But he accepted this and had an enormous influence on a whole generation of Australian physicists and metallurgists, aided in this by his open and affable personality. He remained in charge until 1969; his list of publications could not be large, though he brought out two more didactic books. He became known throughout the world; thus, in 1953 he became a senior adviser to the newly established *Acta Metallurgica*, and was invited to many international scientific occasions as a representative of his adopted country, which he defended fiercely against those who tried to slight it.

A book of scientific articles in celebration of Boas's 75th birthday (Borland et al. 1979) includes a biographical sketch of Boas by J.F. Nicholas. A substantial account of his life can be found in an obituary by Clarebrough and Head (1987).

After his retirement, the character of CSIRO changed utterly, and research in the Division, which repeatedly changed name, became wholly focused on applications. Boas's team fell apart and the scientific atmosphere in the Division became quite different. According to Clarebrough (2000), (one of Boas's most distinguished collaborators and the father of the first differential scanning calorimeter), "the decay of 'Walter's team' is a long story, but the main cause was a change in the politics of science funding in this country. CSIRO was hit first and now it has spread to the universities where funds must be raised for research from industrial sources and basic science is no longer funded." According to a news story in *Nature* (Swinbanks 1996) under the title "Basic research fighting for survival", the bureaucracy of science funding in New Zealand had by that year become 'horrendous' and applicants had to outline the expected outcome of their research. "This has encouraged them to pursue low-risk research rather than long-term fundamental research." Swinbanks went on to point out that Australia was headed in the same direction, but the story of Boas's Division suggests that it is already far down that path.

However, none of what has happened recently can detract from the contribution made by Walter Boas, that eminent physicist of solids, to the scientific life of his adopted and beloved country.

#### ***14.4.4 Jorge Sabato and materials science in Argentina***

In 1955, being a Spanish-speaking metallurgist, I was invited to spend some weeks in Buenos Aires to deliver a course in elementary modern metallurgy to some members of the mainly youthful staff of the Atomic Energy Commission. The person who invited me, a dynamo of energy and originality, was Jorge Sabato (1924–1983) (Fig. 14.5), an Argentinian metallurgist who had recently joined the Commission's laboratory from local industry. I proved to be just the first of a procession of foreign experts, and later on Sabato organized more ambitious courses for which auditors came from all over South America. The Atomic Energy Commission came to be South America's leading focus of expertise in metallurgical engineering.

While I was in Argentina in 1955, Sabato took me to visit a brand new laboratory in Patagonia, deep in the 'south', near the ski resort of San Carlos de Bariloche. This was, and still is, the Centro Atomico de Bariloche (CAB). It is an institution (formally part of a local university) for research and teaching in physics, ranging from particle physics to solid-state physics. Its origin is one of the most curious in the entire history of academe.



**Figure 14.5.** Portrait of Jorge Sabato (courtesy of Heraldo Biloni).

In 1948, an Austrian physicist named Ronald Richter came to Argentina and managed to persuade President Perón that he knew the secret of cheap nuclear energy and, more specifically, cheap nuclear bombs. He was exceedingly tight-lipped about the details, but he sufficiently convinced the unscientific politician that he progressively accumulated money, laboratory space and extensive scientific equipment. Like the fisherman's wife of the fairy tale, he kept on coming back to the president's house, the Casa Rosada, to ask for more. In due course he was given exclusive use of an island, Huemul, on the lake of Nahuel Huapi, a beauty spot near Bariloche, a staff of engineers and masses of hardware; no visitors were admitted. Perón was taken for a comprehensive ride, and it was not till early 1951 that a brave 'real' physicist, José Balseiro, was able to persuade Perón to set up a commission of experts to inspect the island. They found that the project 'lacked scientific seriousness'. This phrase comes from a fascinating book that describes the entire history, both scientific and political, of this unserious episode (Mariscotti 1984, 1996).

After the commission reported, it took some time for the government to extract Richter from his island; surprisingly, he was allowed to retire peacefully and (I was informed at the time of my visit) to take up chicken farming near Buenos Aires. So by 1953, there was a mass of virtually unused laboratory equipment on the isle of

Huemul: what was to be done with it? Balseiro had plans for an advanced university institution, to be set up in comparative liberty far from the political quagmire of Buenos Aires, and persuaded Perón to make available a piece of land and some buildings on the shore of Lake Nahuel Huapi, just a mile or two from the island. This became the Centro Atómico de Bariloche, opened in 1954. Balseiro himself was a highly distinguished theoretical physicist. Sabato succeeded in persuading him to include metal physics in the syllabus of the Centro; he was able to convince the suspicious Balseiro that he did mean metal *physics*, not metals technology which would continue to be pursued at the Commission's laboratory in the capital city. A well-known Austrian physicist, Gunther Schöck, came to inaugurate this part of the subject-matter, the first of many foreign scientists who have enjoyed spending periods in Bariloche; that Schöck was an enthusiastic skier played its part in attracting him to this beauty spot. (There are some points of similarity between events in Melbourne and in Bariloche – foreign scientists played a crucial part in both places.) Sabato's diplomacy ensured that the CAB and the Buenos Aires laboratory thereafter worked closely together.

I came back in 1959 to deliver a course of crystallography lectures at the CAB, and by that time the metal physics was well established. It has continued to flourish, and broaden; many papers of note were published, and a succession of international materials symposia have been held there. The CAB director, Balseiro, died young, of cancer, and the latest of a succession of directors is José Abriata, an Argentinian materials scientist. Most observers, I believe, both in South America and beyond, would concur that the Bariloche centre is the most distinguished physics laboratory in South America. Materials science plays an important part there, and credit for that belongs to Jorge Sabato.

#### ***14.4.5 Georgii Kurdyumov and Russian materials science***

The early path of scientists in Russia was not an easy one, especially for those precocious individuals who were far ahead of their contemporaries. In Chapter 3, I mentioned Federov, one of the three co-inventors of the theory of space groups in the late nineteenth century, who found no comprehension at home of his difficult ideas. Here I can also refer to Mikhail Vasilevich Lomonosov (1711–1765), an early Russian polymath, a scientist and littérateur, who took an interest in the whole of science as it was perceived in the Petersburg of his day. He insisted on the crucial bond between chemistry and physics long before Wilhelm Ostwald was born (“a chemist lacking knowledge of physics is like a blind man who seeks by touch”); he took an active part in improving glass technology in his native country; he put paid to the phlogiston theory well before Lavoisier did. These facts come from an as-yet unpublished essay on Lomonosov by a British science historian, Michael Hoare,

very kindly made available to me. Hoare says: “ We may without serious reservation identify (Lomonosov) as the first modern physical chemist, materials scientist, mineralogist, ceramist, research administrator and scientific educationalist, and still not nearly exhaust the rollcall of his activities.” (In a more recent message, Hoare, 2000, expresses the view that some of the ideas credited to Lomonosov should really be laid at the door of Robert Boyle, a century earlier; their ideas are sometimes hard to disentangle.) Lomonosov had to spend too much of his energy in fighting political battles in the Petersburg Academy of Sciences; he was not the first nor the last to be so beset. But the man with whom I am mainly concerned in this Section did not spend his time in politics, and he had a huge influence on metallurgy and eventually on materials science in his country.

Georgii Vyacheslavovich Kurdyumov (1902–1996) (Fig. 14.6), the son of a priest, was the most famous metallurgist of his generation in the Soviet Union, a man who was not only a great research scientist but also a man of rare human qualities. He and the many people who collaborated closely with him spent decades on a single



**Figure 14.6.** Portrait of Georgii V. Kurdyumov.

broad cluster of problems; with some scientists, that would be evidence of a lack of imagination, but with Kurdyumov, it showed a deep and persistent curiosity and an ability to ask clear questions and to design crucial experiments that would answer them clearly. It is my great regret that I never had a chance to meet him.

Kurdyumov was educated as a physicist at Abram Ioffe's famous institute in Petersburg (= Petrograd = Leningrad = now, St. Petersburg). Alexander Roytburd, one of Kurdyumov's later collaborators, in a memoir of his revered master (Roytburd 1999), describes the Ioffe Institute as "the cradle of all soviet physics". (The 2000 Nobel Prize winner, Zhores Alferov, is currently director.) Roytburd goes on to claim that "working all his life in physical metallurgy, Kurdyumov kept close ties with the physics community and did a lot for the development of metallurgy in physical metallurgy, which is the fundament of modern materials science".

As a very young scientist, Kurdyumov homed in on the important problem of how and why carbon steel becomes hard when it is quenched from red heat. At an early stage, he established firmly that the hard phase was *martensite*, a distorted form of body-centred cubic iron with dissolved carbon. He studied the crystallography of martensite as a function of carbon content, took his diploma, and then in 1930 he was one of a group of 220 Soviet scientists who were allowed to spend a period abroad. He joined the German metallurgist Georg Sachs in Berlin; Sachs had found out how to grow single crystals of copper-based alloys, and Kurdyumov quickly found out how to convert this skill to the growth of crystals of alloyed austenite. Austenite is the (face-centred cubic) high-temperature phase – which by alloying can be stabilised at room temperature – from which martensite forms during quenching. He then cooled the austenite crystals enough for them to convert to martensite, and studied, by means of X-ray diffraction, the orientation relation between the two phases. This resulted in the celebrated Kurdyumov–Sachs relationship, still much quoted today. He also became convinced that the martensitic transformation (Kurdyumov's term) took place by a form of shear, without diffusion, and thereby initiated 70 years of intensive research on this type of transformation, in steels particularly (but not only in steels).

Back in the Soviet Union, he moved to the Ukraine to help, with his scientist wife, create a research institute in Dnepropetrovsk, where he continued with his researches. He was invited to be director, sought to escape from this fate (he complained that he would be a bad administrator, and that by administering he would lose contact with real science and then become unable to direct scientific work properly) but was persuaded to overcome his scruples. The rest of his long career he both administered (usually more than one institute at once) and remained a unique scientist. During the War, the institute had to move, and after the War, it was moved again, to Moscow, and Kurdyumov with it. While in Moscow, he also created a laboratory of metal physics in Kiev, Ukraine, and directed both the Moscow and the

Kiev institutes (Khandros 1992). In both laboratories, more and more subtleties of the martensite transformation, its crystallography, kinetics and mechanism, were undertaken, and Kurdyumov became internationally famous and established close links with American and Japanese scientists in particular. He and Khandros (Kurdyumov and Khandros 1948) published the first study in depth of a 'thermoelastic' phase transformation, the precursor of many later studies of shape-memory alloys (nowadays familiar to many people in the form of 'shape-memory spectacles'), which are based on stress-induced martensitic transformations. I recall reading this paper in translation in 1948 and being astonished at its quality. The foregoing is only a rough outline of a few of the many profound studies that emerged from Kurdyumov's laboratories, resulting in almost 300 papers. Roytburd's (1999) panegyric goes into much greater detail. Kurdyumov remained director of the Moscow laboratory until 1978. His most important achievement was to train a whole generation of research metallurgists to a high standard, and to provide a model for them.

Two further aspects merit notice. Kurdyumov's Moscow laboratory was part of the great network of laboratories administered by the Soviet Academy of Sciences, and his Kiev one belonged to the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences. Throughout the Soviet sphere of influence, and also in China, the science academies were the chief organisers of scientific research – essentially, the academies were, and are, organs of state – whereas in the West, the academies are independent bodies of experts, ready to advise governments but not to administer laboratories. Briefly, just before the First World War, when the US National Academy of Sciences (NAS) was in its formative state, there were voices raised in favour of laboratories to be run by the NAS, but the idea was soon abandoned. Independence from the state was too precious to be thus compromised.

All who knew Kurdyumov well testify to his kindness, consideration of his staff and courage. Roytburd remarks: "In order to be a founder of a new scientific era one has to be a great scientist; to create a science school one has to be a great person. Kurdyumov was this scientist and this person. His personality attracted everyone who met him, but we, his pupils, colleagues and friends especially felt enchanted by him... He was Director of our institute but that was not what defined his authority. He was a spiritual leader because of his vision of the problem, his enthusiasm, his respect for the scientific truth, his belief that the truth is more important than success." Another of Kurdyumov's collaborators, Evgeny Glickman, informed me (Glickman 1999) that "my aunt who worked with Georgii Vyacheslavovich Kurdyumov in Dnepropetrovsk always stressed that at the peak of the Stalin terror, 1937–1938, Georgii Vyacheslavovich Kurdyumov saved her and many colleagues by answering for them at KGB with his own life. By no means was this safe – or typical – behavior at that time."

Throughout Kurdyumov's active career, metallurgy was taught in some places, semiconductors in others, ceramics in others still... there was no materials science. In 1985, encouraged by Gorbachev's perestroika and the opportunity for independent initiative which it brought, one courageous Russian professor, Yu.D. Tretyakov, who had earlier spent some time in Rustum Roy's laboratory at Pennsylvania State University (see the first paragraph of this chapter) and been fired by Roy's ideas, was able to set up Russia's first undergraduate course in materials science (nauk o materialakh) at Moscow's Lomonosov State University, in the form of a five-year programme. There is a degree of chemical emphasis, in view of Tretyakov's background, but on paper, as presented at a meeting at Penn State in 1999 (Tretyakov 1999, see also Tretyakov 2000), it seems a thoroughly well-conceived and balanced programme, and it appears to be attracting much competition for entry. This Section thus ends where it began, with awareness of the name of Mikhail Vasilevich Lomonosov. I would like to think that Professor Tretyakov was also in some measure fired by the personal example of Georgii Vyacheslavovich Kurdyumov.

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## Chapter 15

### **Epilogue**



## Chapter 15

### Epilogue

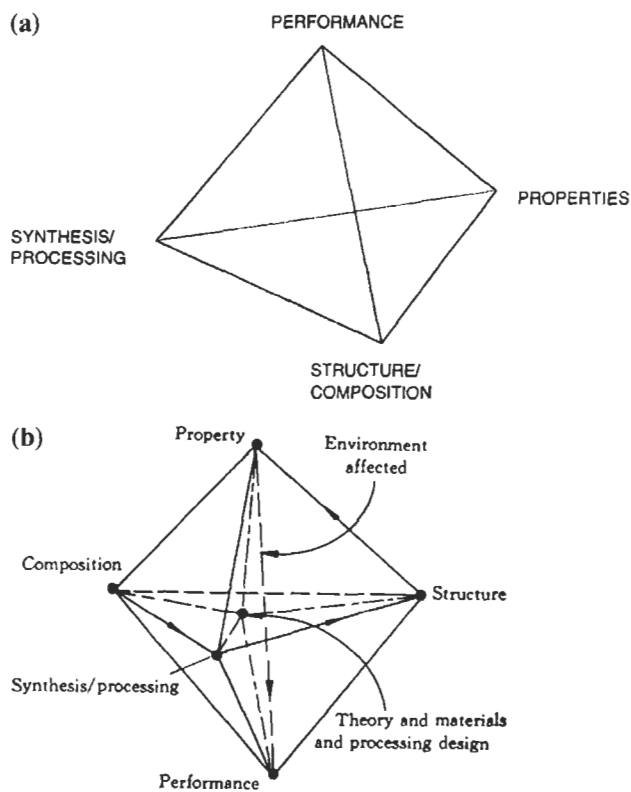
The time has come to draw together the threads of what has gone before. MSE is a huge domain; again and again I have had to warn the reader that I could only scratch the surface of some theme in the space available to me, and still I have covered more than 560 pages with a combination of history and depiction.

First, what is materials science? I have gone through my professional life almost without addressing this question explicitly; I have always believed that the right way to address it is by means of what philosophers call an 'ostensive definition', pointing to something and saying "This is it". This inclination was my main reason for accepting, in 1965, the hard labour of creating a new *Journal of Materials Science*; that journal was meant to demonstrate what my novel subject actually was, and I believe it helped to do that. This book is also an essay in ostensive definition. When I had just been appointed professor of materials science at Sussex University, I did write an article under the title 'What is materials science?' (Cahn 1965). Summarising my disquisition, I wrote: "...the materials scientist has to work at several levels of organisation, each of which is under-pinned by the next level. Here, again, he is brother under the skin of the biologist, who does just the same: starting with the cell wall, say, he goes on to study the morphology and economy of the cell as a whole, then the isolated organ (made up of cells), then the organism as a whole." I still hold today that this feature is central to our subject – applied to inanimate and artificial nature by us and to animate nature by biologists – and that the concept of *microstructure* is the most important single defining theme of MSE. To this can be added the slightly broader modern concept of *mesostructure*, a term particularly beloved of modellers and simulators of polymers... the level of organisation in between the atomic/molecular level and macroscopic appearance.

Merton Flemings, a very experienced professor of MSE at MIT, has recently discussed (Flemings 1999) the question: "What next for MSE departments?" He faces, foursquare, the issue whether something can be both a *multidiscipline*, bringing together for use many classical disciplines, and a discipline in its own right. He is sure that MSE is both of these. The path out of the dilemma "is to view the broad engineering study of structure/property/processing/performance relations of materials, with engineering emphasis... as a discipline". That is, he asserts, what mainline, independent MSE departments teach. This fourfold way is depicted in Figure 15.1(a), a little tetrahedron which was first proposed in a 1989 report. Flemings goes so far as to say that "our survival as a discipline and as independent academic departments within the university system depends on how well we succeed in

articulating this paradigm and employing it to contribute to society". Others prefer to make this little diagram more complicated; thus Shi (1999), a veteran Chinese materials scientist, is insistent that 'composition' is an equally important variable, distinct from structure, 'processing' should be linked with 'synthesis', and at the heart of the whole enterprise he places 'theory and design of materials and processing', clearly including computer simulation. His view of things is shown in Figure 15.1(b).

One should not be perturbed by different experts' preferences for different kinds of polyhedra; after all, these are no more than a visual aid to understanding. The key thing is that different aspects are intimately related. . . in these figures, every point is linked to every other point. Each of these aspects, whether they be divided into four or six categories, needs a familiarity with some of the classical disciplines such as physics, chemistry, physical chemistry, and with subsidiary not-quite-independent sciences such as rheology and colloid science.



**Figure 15.1.** (a) The four elements of materials science and engineering, (after Flemings). (b) The six elements of materials science and engineering (after Shi).

While I entirely agree with both Flemings and Shi about the crucial importance of the components in their diagrams, I persist in my conviction that *microstructure* is the central component that best distinguishes MSE from other disciplines; each chapter of this book demonstrates this centrality. The other components in the diagrams themselves have microstructural features: thus self-assembled materials (a part of processing/synthesis) have carefully controlled microstructure, and composition, because of segregation, varies significantly from point to point – and all this intimately affects properties.

I recall my distinction, in Chapter 2, between emergence (of a discipline) by splitting and emergence by integration, and also my insistence that MSE is a prime example (together with geology) of emergence by integration. This is historically unusual. For instance, in a scholarly study of how chemistry and physics came to be distinct disciplines and then chemistry itself differentiated, Nye (1993) concludes (to simplify drastically) that around 1830 chemistry split decisively from experimental philosophy (or *physique générale*) by reference to its concern with molecules and their reactions and behaviour, and in doing so left physics behind. It is far harder to reach an acceptable definition of physics than of chemistry, but that has not prevented physicists from driving their discipline forward during the past two centuries. Likewise, we materials scientists practice our mystery whether or not we can define it.

So, nearly half a century after the emergence of the concept, we its practitioners have in materials science and engineering a clearly distinct discipline which in practice doubles up as a multidiscipline, with a substantial number of independent academic departments and research institutes spread around the world, with its own multifarious journals and textbooks, and a large number of professionals, also spread around the world, who call themselves materials scientists and engineers and communicate with each other on that basis. We have a profession to be proud of.

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## Name Index

- Aaronson, H.I. 103  
 Abel, C.A. 201  
 Abiko, K. 358  
 Abragam, A. 237f  
 Abriata, J. 531  
 Adams, B.L. 88, 225  
 Adams, W.G. 269  
 Addadi, L. 430  
 Aernoudt, K. 49  
 Agricola, G. 74, 94  
 Agullo-López, F. 272  
 Aitchison, L. 95  
 Aizenberg, J. 430  
 Alcock, T.C. 312  
 Alexander, A.E. 42  
 Alexander, B.H. 372  
 Alexander, J.M. 519  
 Alfè, D. 130  
 Alferov, Zh. 265  
 Alford, N.M. 375  
 Allen, F. 495  
 Allen, S.M. 171, 518  
 Alpert, D. 406  
 Amato, I. 268  
 Amelinckx, S. 113, 119, 221  
 Ames, I. 264  
 Anderko, K. 495  
 Anderson, J.S. 426  
 Anderson, K. 480  
 Anderson, P.W. 142  
 Anderson, R. 162  
 Andrade, E.N. da C. 66, 162, 344  
 Anselmi-Tamburini, U. 432  
 Appleby, A.J. 454  
 Argon, A. 327  
 Armstrong, H.E. 28, 125  
 Arndt, M. 441  
 Arrhenius, S. 26f, 80  
 Arunachalam, V.S. 368, 498  
 Arzt, E. 175, 369, 371, 414  
 Ashby, M.F. 49, 200, 449, 519  
 Ashkin, A. 291  
 Attardi, M.J. 264  
 Aubertin, F. 237  
 Auer, C. 366  
 Aust, K.T. 369  
 Averroes 58  
 Avrami, M. 101  
 Babu, S.S. 170  
 Bachmann, K.J. 264, 412  
 Bacon, Roger, 58  
 Bacon, F.T. (Tom) 452  
 Badyal, J.P.S. 316  
 Baekeland, L. 308  
 Bahadur, B. 297  
 Bain, E.C. 349  
 Baker, B.B. 162  
 Baker, W.O. 12, 262, 510  
 Ball, P. 426, 428  
 Ballard, G. 453  
 Balluffi, R.W. 108, 195, 372  
 Balseiro, J. 530  
 Banhart, F. 442  
 Bardeen, J. 257f, 289, 298  
 Barlow, W. 66  
 Barnes, R.S. 207  
 Barr, L.W. 63, 166  
 Barrett, C. 518, 522  
 Barrett, C.S. 100  
 Bartha, L. 274, 365  
 Bartholomew, J.R. 523  
 Bartlett, P. 44  
 Baskes, M.I. 481  
 Bassett, D. 201, 498  
 Bassett, D.C. 312  
 Bastiaansen, C.W.M. 321  
 Batchelor, G.K. 49, 111



- Bates, L.F. 146  
Baumhauer, H. 119  
Bay, Z. 297  
Bayard, R.T. 406  
Bean, C. 9  
Beardmore, P. 354  
Becher, P.F. 377  
Becker, R. 104, 112, 117, 146, 526f  
Bednorz, J.G. 279  
Beeckman, I. 59  
Beeler, Jr. J.R. 466f  
Bell, A.G. 367  
Bendersky, L. 417  
Bengough, G.D. 179  
Benz, M.G. 355  
Berg, M. 372  
Berger, M.G. 400  
Berger, V. 45  
Bernal, J.D. 126  
Bernstein, H. 483  
Berry, B.S. 193  
Berthelot, M. 35, 91  
Berthollet, C.-L. 83  
Berzelius, J.J. 35, 63  
Besenhard, J.G. 449  
Bethune, D.S. 441  
Bever, M.B. 6, 242  
Bhadeshia, H.K.D.H. 170, 348  
Bhaskar, R. 498  
Bilaniuk, O.M. 298  
Bilby, B.A. 192  
Billmeyer, F.W. 310  
Biloni, H. 346  
Binder, K. 105  
Binnig, G. 230  
Birch, F. 171  
Birchall, J.D. 375  
Biringuccio 94  
Birr, K. 365  
Blanco, A. 429  
Bloch, F. 132, 237  
Blodgett, K.B. 434f  
Bloembergen, N. 238  
Bloor, D. 291  
Blythe, A.R. 333  
Boas, W. 48, 163, 526f  
Boettinger, W.J. 346  
Bogha, S.S. 455  
Bollmann, W. 570  
Boltzmann, L. 65, 139  
Born, M. 128  
Börnstein, R. 491  
Böttger, J. 363  
Boulesteix, C. 103  
Bour, D.P. 267  
Bowden, F.P. 410, 528  
Bowen, Jane 162  
Boyd, D.C. 380  
Boyd, I.W. 268  
Boyd, R.D. 316  
Boyle, R. 166, 532  
Bozorth, R.M. 146  
Bradley, A.J. 71, 135  
Bradley, James 197  
Bragg, W.H. 67f, 178, 528  
Bragg, W.L. 67f, 102, 124, 128, 178  
Brattain, W.H. 257f  
Braun, E. 113, 115, 190  
Brearley, H. 95, 215  
Brewer, R.C. 519  
Briant, C.L. 274  
Bridgman, P. 39, 164, 171f  
Brillouin, L. 132  
Broers, A.N. 224  
Brix, P. 298  
Brooks, H. 514  
Brown, H. 492  
Brown, R.G.W. 268  
Brubacher, J.M. 432  
Brune, H. 429  
Brus, L.E. 398  
Brush, S. 139  
Bucknall, C.B. 327  
Bueche, A. 9, 173, 280, 358, 402, 450  
Bulatov, V.V. 50, 481  
Bullough, R. 207  
Bunn, C.W. 71, 216, 312  
Bunsell, A. 518  
Bunsen, R. 26

- Burke, J.E. 373, 522  
 Burke, J.G. 59, 61  
 Burke, J.J. 288  
 Burton, J. 116, 118, 409  
 Busch, G. 253, 274  
 Busch, H. 217  
 Buschow, K.H.J. 288  
  
 Cabrera, N. 116, 118, 409  
 Cahn, J.W. 104f, 414f  
 Callendar, H. 77  
 Calvert, P.D. 22, 427, 439  
 Cammarata, R.C. 401  
 Campbell, M. 429  
 Campbell Scott, J. 333  
 Canham, L.T. 400  
 Cannizzaro, S. 24  
 Capasso, F. 266  
 Carlson, C. 297  
 Carnahan, Jr. C. 234  
 Caroe, G.M. 68  
 Carothers, W.H. 8, 39, 307, 321  
 Carpenter, H.C.H. 134, 162  
 Carrea da Silva, L. 169  
 Casimir, H.B.G. 281, 285  
 Castaing, R. 227, 246  
 Caulfield, T. 355  
 Cech, R.E. 104  
 Ceder, G. 451  
 Cerezo, A. 233  
 Chalmers, B. 193, 214, 344f, 514f  
 Chaloner, C. 92  
 Chandrasekhar, S. 296  
 Chaplin, D.M. 269  
 Charlton, M. 430  
 Chattopadhyay, K. 417  
 Chawla, K.K. 361, 380, 439  
 Cheetham, A.K. 437  
 Chen, G.Z. 456  
 Chen, I.-W. 400  
 Chen, L.C. 243  
 Cheng, S.Z.D. 328  
 Cheong, S.-W. 437  
 Chevenard, P. 241  
  
 Chikazumi, S. 525  
 Chin, G.Y. 145  
 Cho, A.Y. 266  
 Chopra, K.L. 411  
 Chou, T.W. 361  
 Christian, J.W. 101  
 Clarebrough, L.M. 221, 242, 529  
 Clogston, A.M. 275  
 Clyne, T.W. 361  
 Cobine, J.D. 357  
 Coble, R.L. 373f  
 Cockayne, D.J.H. 220  
 Cohen, C. 32  
 Cohen, M. 482  
 Cohen, M.L. 379  
 Cohen, R.E. 327  
 Cohron, J.W. 407  
 Colborn, R. 275  
 Collins, P.J. 297  
 Coolidge, W. 8, 365  
 Corbett, J.W. 208  
 Cosslett, V.E. 224, 365  
 Cottrell, A.H. 7, 49, 103, 115, 190, 191f, 206f, 473, 517  
 Coutts, T.J. 411  
 Cox, J.A. 8  
 Cramb, A.W. 351  
 Crawford, E. 26  
 Crease, R.C. 239, 285  
 Cross, L.E. 275  
 Crowfoot-Hodgkin, D. 71  
 Cruikshank, W. 447  
 Cuomo, J.J. 411  
 Curl, R. 440  
 Czochralski, J. 162, 260, 497  
  
 Dahl, P.F. 65  
 Dai, H. 443  
 Daintith, J. 66, 77, 140  
 Dalton, J. 63, 83  
 Daniel, V. 104  
 Danielson, E. 444  
 Danckwerts, P. 34  
 Daniell, F. 447

- Darken, L.S. 517  
Dash, W.C. 93, 260  
Davenport, E.S. 349  
Davies, R.G. 356  
Davisson, C.J. 408  
Davy, H. 124, 253, 447  
Day, P. 426, 438  
Day, R.E. 269  
Debye, P.J.W. 331, 396  
DeCristofaro, N. 396  
Deevi, S.C. 356, 432  
De Fontaine, D. 103  
DeForrest, L. 256  
De Gennes, P.-G. 40, 296, 326  
DeHoff, R.T. 88, 204  
Delchar, T.A. 408  
Democritus 57  
Demus, D. 297  
De Rango, P. 280  
De Rosa, C. 431  
Descartes, R. 60, 182  
Desch, C.H. 87  
Desiraju, G.R. 408, 428  
DeSorbo, W. 170  
Desré, P. 397  
Deubner, W. 414  
Devonshire, A.F. 275  
De Vries, R.C. 174  
Dew-Hughes, D. 518  
DeYoung, D.J. 97  
Dickens, Charles 215  
Dienes, G. 470  
DiGiovanni, D.J. 294  
DiNardo, N.J. 231  
Dirac, P.A.M. 181  
Dirks, A.G. 83  
Döbereiner, J.W. 124, 409  
Dolby, R.G.A. 28  
Dolphin, D. 427  
Domb, C. 139  
Döring, W. 104, 117, 146  
Dorn, H. 364  
Douglas, Mary 95  
Dowson, D. 410  
Drennan, J. 449  
Dresselhaus, M.S. 278, 442, 454  
Dubois, J.M. 417, 418  
DuMond, J. 414  
Duncumb, P. 224, 228  
Dushman, S. 168  
Duwez, P. 393f  
Dyson, F.J. 197  
Early, T.A. 238  
Easterling, K.E. 100, 348, 349  
Eayman, M. 518  
Eckert, C.A. 433  
Edelstein, A.S. 401  
Edington, J.W. 180  
Edison, T. 364f, 367, 405  
Edwards, C.A. 161  
Edwards, J.H. 335  
Edwards, S.F. 40, 326  
Effenberg, G. 496  
Eigler, D.M. 70, 232  
Einspruch, N. 256  
Einstein, A. 64, 104, 131  
Elam, C.F. 48, 162  
Eldridge, M.D. 474  
Eley, D.D. 43  
Elices, M. 427  
Embury, J.D. 103  
Emerton, N.E. 57f  
Engel, U. 174  
Engler, C. 36  
Engler, O. 362  
Ernsberger, F.M. 360  
Esaki, L. 265, 398  
Eshelby, J.D. 7  
Evans, J.H. 208  
Evans, U.R. 101, 456  
Ewald, P.P. 66  
Ewing, J.A. 85, 140, 523  
Exner, H.E. 88, 203, 369, 371  
Fair, R.B. 268  
Faraday, M. 35, 42, 253, 364, 447  
Fasor, G. 267  
Faupel, F. 264  
Feast, W.J. 335  
Feder, R. 108

- Feder, R. 108  
Fedorov, E. 66  
Fenton, D.E. 450  
Ferry, J.D. 329  
Fettes, L.J. 309  
Feynman, R. 189, 398  
Fick, A. 166  
Fine, M.E. 3, 5, 6, 518  
Fischer, E.W. 313  
Fisher, D.J. 347  
Fisher, J. 470  
Fitzerald, F.G. 28  
Flagel, A.R. 236  
Fleischer, R.L. 10, 73, 402f  
Flemings, M.F. 344, 347, 350, 426, 503f, 539  
Flory, P.J. 8, 38, 40, 307, 315f, 322f  
Flowers, B.H. 517  
Floyd, R.W. 353  
Foote, F.G. 30  
Forwood, C.T. 221  
Fox, T. 34  
Fradin, F.Y. 238  
Frank, F.C. 114, 115f, 118, 165, 169, 199, 307, 315f, 317, 321, 409, 412, 416  
Frankel, D. 45  
Frankel, J. 4  
Frankel, S. 465  
Franklin, B. 433  
Fray, D.J. 455  
Frenkel, D. 469  
Frenkel, Ya. 105, 169  
Freundlich, H. 42  
Frey, D.N. 173  
Friedel, G. 296  
Friedel, J. 137f, 296, 569  
Friedman, A. 493  
Friedrich, W. 67  
Friend, R.H. 333f  
Fritt, C. 269  
Frohnhoff, S. 400  
Frost, H.J. 49, 200  
Fujita, F.E. 46  
Fullman, R.L. 514  
Furey, M.J. 410  
Furley, D.J. 58  
Furukawa, Y. 8, 38, 307  
Gabor, D. 218  
Gaede, W. 405  
Gaines, Jr. G.L. 8, 434, 435  
Galison, P. 92, 465f  
Gallagher, P.K. 240  
Galvani, L. 446  
Gardner, G.A. 224  
Garvie, R.C. 377  
Gassendi, P. 59  
Gatos, H.C. 403f, 510  
Geballe, T.H. 279  
Geil, P.H. 314  
Geis, M.W. 413  
Gerberich, W. 377  
German, R.M. 368  
Germer, L.H. 408  
Gibbs, G.V. 128  
Gibbs, J.W. 74f, 139  
Gilbert, W. 140  
Gillan, M.J. 473  
Gilman, J.J. 113, 199  
Ginley, D.S. 451  
Gittus, J. 207  
Gladman, T. 350  
Glasstone, S. 32  
Glazebrook, R.T. 85  
Gleeson, J. 363  
Gleick, J. 189  
Gleiter, H. 320, 370, 398f, 401  
Glickman, E. 534  
Goldman, J.E. 173  
Goldschmidt, V.M. 125f  
Goldsmid, H.J. 277  
Gonis, A. 103, 477  
Gonser, U. 237  
Goodenough, J.B. 437  
Goodyear, C. 36  
Gopalakrishnan, J. 46, 122, 426  
Gordon, J.E. 519  
Gordon, P. 242

- Goss, A.J. 164  
Goyal, A. 280  
Graham, T. 41, 63, 166  
Green, M.L. 263  
Greenaway, F. 492  
Greenwood, G.W. 355  
Greer, A.L. 79, 91, 414  
Grier, D.G. 45, 429  
Griffith, A.A. 199, 244, 359f  
Griffiths, E. 77  
Grimes, R. 180  
Groth, P. 69, 129  
Grove, W. 452  
Grubb, W.T. 450  
Grünberg, P. 288, 411  
Gschneidner, Jr. K.A. 395  
Gudden, B. 255  
Guericke, O. von 404  
Guillaume, C.-E. 145, 241  
Guinier, A. 90, 138, 227, 519  
Gumbsch, P. 50, 481  
Gupta, L.C. 281  
Gurry, R.W. 517  
Gurney, R.W. 107, 123  
Gurtin, M.E. 103  
Gustafson, P. 485  
Guth, E. 324  
Gyulai, Z. 106  
  
Haasen, P. 103, 122, 233, 519  
Hack, K. 485  
Haire, K.R. 480  
Haller, E.E. 268  
Hampshire, S. 378  
Hanak, J.J. 446  
Hanemann, H. 161  
Hanna, R.D. 320  
Hanna, S. 327  
Hannay, J.B. 433  
Hannink, R.H.J. 377  
Hansen, M. 495  
Hanson, Daniel. 7, 162, 165, 190  
Hanson, D. 403  
Hare, Jr. R. 448  
  
Harper, S. 192  
Harris, B. 518  
Harris, J.E. 205, 348, 368  
Harris, P.J.F. 442  
Harrison, D. 34  
Harrison, J. 197  
Harvey, E.N. 272  
Harwood, J.J. 5  
Hatherly, M. 86, 373, 476  
Haüy, R. 60  
Hazen, R. 172f  
Head, A.K. 529  
Headley, T.J. 180  
Hecht, J. 292  
Hecker, S.S. 482  
Heidenreich, R.D. 121, 219  
Heilmann, E.I. 282  
Heinrich, K.F.J. 228  
Heisenberg, W. 131, 141  
Hellebrand, H. 372  
Hellner, E. 129  
Hensch, H.K. 272  
Henry, J. 364  
Herbert, J.M. 272  
Herman, F. 260, 467  
Herring, C. 180, 260  
Herrmann, G. 368  
Hertz, H.H. 244  
Heycock, C.T. 77f, 86, 168  
Heyman, J. 197  
Hibbard, W.R.H. 514  
Hicks, L.D. 279  
Hill, D.N. 431  
Hillert, M. 104, 483, 485  
Hilliard, J.E. 104  
Hilsum, C. 297  
Hinshelwood, C. 135  
Hintsches, E. 376  
Hirsch, P.B. 11  
Hoare, M. 531  
Hobdell, J.R. 479  
Hockham, G.A. 293  
Hoddeson, L. 8, 14, 45, 131, 132, 257f, 279

- Hodgson, S. 271  
 Hoffman, J.D. 315  
 Hoffmann, P. 466  
 Hoffmann, R. 95  
 Hogarth, J. 433  
 Hohenberg, P. 473  
 Holden, A.N. 205  
 Hollmann, H. 256  
 Hollomon, H. 9f, 373, 515f  
 Holst, G. 281  
 Holt, J.B. 431  
 Holton, G. 280  
 Honda, K. 164, 524f  
 Hondros, E.D. 235  
 Honeycombe, R.W.K. 348  
 Hooke, R. 59, 215  
 Hornbogen, E. 518  
 Horne, R. 220  
 Hoselitz, K. 146  
 Hossain, T.Z. 236  
 Hougardy, H.P. 203  
 Hounshell, D.A. 8  
 Housman, A.E. 181  
 Howe, J.P. 10  
 Howson, M.A. 288  
 Huang, S. 49  
 Hübner, H. 174  
 Huggins, M.L. 291, 322  
 Hulm, J.K. 279  
 Hultgren, R. 493  
 Hume-Rothery, W. 134f, 141, 412, 473, 482, 483, 496  
 Humphreys, F.J. 86, 373, 476  
 Huygens, C. 59  
 Hwang, H.Y. 437  
  
 Ianniello, L.C. 208  
 Ichihashi, T. 441  
 Iijima, S. 441, 443  
 Ikeda, S. 334  
 Ilchner, B. 518  
 Imakoshi, Y. 356  
 Inoue, A. 396f  
 Inoue, T. 327  
 Ioffe, A.F. 277, 533  
 Irani, R.S. 216  
 Irwin, G.R. 360  
  
 Jaccodine, R. 313  
 Jackson, K.A. 264  
 Jackson, W. 332  
 Jacobs, I.S. 146  
 Jacques, J. 36  
 Janssen, H.M. 310  
 Jacquet, P.A. 569  
 Jarvis, S.P. 473  
 Jehl, F. 365  
 Jenkin, J. 68  
 Jeong, H.-C. 408  
 Jérôme, D. 333  
 Jette, E.R. 30  
 Jin, S. 436  
 Joannopoulos, J.D. 45  
 Joffe, A.F. *see* Ioffe  
 Johansson, C.H. 102  
 Johnson, P. 31, 42  
 Johnston, W.G. 113  
 Johnson, W.L. 393, 396f  
 Jones, D.R.H. 519  
 Jones, H. 135f, 277, 347  
 Jones, W.D. 368  
 Jordan, R.G. 351  
 Jost, W. 105  
 Juchniewicz, R. 457  
 Junod, P. 254  
 Jusa, W. 333  
 Kamat, S. 427  
 Kamerlingh Onnes, H. 432  
 Kamigaito, M. 309  
 Kanata, T. 413  
 Kancheev, O.D. 354  
 Känzig, W. 275  
 Kao, C.K. 292f  
 Kasper, E. 269  
 Kasper, J.S. 416  
 Katz, R.N. 378  
 Kaufman, L. 482f  
 Kaufmann, III, W.J. 474  
 Kawamura, H. 379  
 Kay, H.F. 275

- Kazarinov, R. 266  
Kê, T.S. 195, 522  
Keicher, D.M. 439  
Keith, H.D. 313  
Keith, S.T. 143, 145, 160f, 285  
Kekulé, A. 24, 35  
Kelker, H. 296  
Kellar, J.N. 218  
Keller, A. 200, 313f, 316f, 328  
Kelliher, P.N. 234  
Kelly, A. 90, 189, 220, 361  
Kelly, M. 257f  
Kelvin, Lord, 197  
Kemble, E.C. 171  
Kendall, K. 375  
Kennedy, K. 445  
Kepler, J. 60  
Keusin-Elbaum, L. 280  
Khan, A.S. 49  
Khandros, L.G. 534  
Kilby, J. 262  
Kim, E. 430  
Kim, Y.H. 397  
Kinbara, A. 411  
King, W.J. 447  
Kingery, W.D. 6f, 273, 363f, 366, 370, 372  
Kinloch, A.J. 332  
Kirchmayr, H.R. 144  
Kirkaldy, J. 103  
Kirkendall, E.O. 169  
Kirshenbaum, G.S. 35  
Klein, M.J. 75  
Klement, W. 394  
Kleppa, O. 493, 521f  
Knipping, P. 67  
Knott, J.F. 360  
Kobayashi, S. 309  
Kocks, U.F. 177, 362, 481  
Koehler, J.S. 114, 115  
Kohn, W. 473  
Koinuma, H. 446  
Koiwa, M. 168, 170  
Kolnaar, H.W.H. 318  
Kong, J. 443  
Koppel, T. 453f  
Kordesch, K. 453  
Kosevich, A.K. 265, 398  
Köster, W. 80  
Köthe, A. 358  
Kotte, E.-U. 291  
Kraner, H.M. 272  
Krafft, F. 404  
Kraftmakher, Y. 109  
Kramer, E.J. 332, 506, 519  
Krätschmer, W. 440  
Krishna, P. 99  
Kroeger, F.A. 46, 122  
Kroto, H. 439f, 441  
Kubin, L.P. 481  
Kuehmann, C.J. 486  
Kuczynski, G.C. 370f  
Kuhn, T. 22  
Kuhn, W. 324  
Kulwicki, B.M. 273  
Kum, D.W. 415  
Kummer, J.T. 449  
Kunfalvi, R. 106, 297  
Kuo, K.H. 14  
Kurdyumov, G.V. 532f  
Kurz, W. 347  
Kyu, T. 105  
Laidler, K.J. 26f  
Lal, K. 177  
Landau, L. 106  
Lander, G.H. 205  
Landolt, H.H. 491  
Lang, C.I. 418  
Langer, J. 467  
Langford, H.D. 12  
Langmuir, I. 8, 28, 168, 365, 407, 433f  
Larsen, A.E. 45  
Larson, D.J. 233  
Laudan, R. 59  
Lauritzen, J.I. 315  
Laves, F. 125, 127, 128f

- Lawn, B.R. 244, 360, 377  
 Lawson, A. 522  
 Leamy, H.J. 102  
 Leatherman, G.L. 378  
 Le Bouar, Y. 477  
 Le Chatelier, H.L. 161, 168, 241  
 Léger, L. 326  
 Lehmann, O. 295f  
 Lehn, J.-M. 428  
 Lenard, P. 271  
 Lennard-Jones, J.E. 472  
 Lenz, W. 139  
 Levine, D. 415  
 Levinson, L.M. 273  
 Lewis, G. 29  
 Li, C.-M. 241  
 Li, J. 276  
 Libby, W. 12  
 Lichtenberg, G.C. 298  
 Lide, D. 493  
 Liebhaufsky, H.A. 8, 36  
 Lifshin, E. 213f, 228  
 Lifshitz, E.M. 265, 398  
 Linde, J.O. 102  
 Linnaeus, C. 59  
 Lipson, H. 69, 105, 218  
 Littlewood, P. 437  
 Liu, A.Y. 379  
 Liu, C.T. 356  
 Liu, Z.F. 435  
 Livingston, J.D. 287  
 Loferski, J.J. 270  
 Löffler, J.F. 397  
 Lomonosov, M.V. 531  
 Longair, M. 138  
 Long, E. 522  
 Longo, J.M. 437  
 Lorentz, H.A. 277  
 Loschmidt, J. 65  
 Lotz, B. 316  
 Lucretius 58  
 Ma, R. 443  
 Mach, E. 66  
 MacChesney, J.H. 294  
 Machlin, E.S. 411  
 McConnell, D. 129  
 McCrum, N.G. 321, 332  
 McEwen, P.L. 443  
 Mackay, A.L. 416  
 Mackey, G.M.J. 407  
 Mackley, M.R. 318  
 McLean, D. 193  
 McLean, M. 352, 355  
 McMillan, F.M. 36, 307  
 McMillan, P.W. 384  
 McRea, W.A. 333  
 Magnus, Albertus 58  
 Mahajan, S. 264  
 Maine, E. 203  
 Mandelbrot, B. 204  
 Mann, S. 427  
 Mansur, L.K. 208  
 Manthiram, A. 452  
 Marcus, P.M. 408  
 Maréchal, P. 327  
 Mariscotti, M. 530  
 Mark, H. 38, 70, 162, 324  
 Markl, H. 13  
 Marquardt, P. 398  
 Martens, A. 101  
 Martin, G. 348  
 Martin, J.W. 90, 100  
 Marzke, O.T. 357  
 Massalski, T.B. 100, 496  
 Masumoto, T. 396, 525  
 Matan, N. 474  
 Mathur, N.D. 437  
 Matthias, B. 275  
 Matsuoka, M. 273  
 Maurer, R.D. 293, 380  
 Maxwell, J.C. 138f  
 Maxwell, R. 515  
 Mazey, D.J. 207  
 Megaw, H. 274  
 Mehl, R.F. 90, 96f, 169, 343  
 Mehrabian, R. 347  
 Meijer, E.W. 310



- Meijer, H.E.H. 329  
 Meijering, J.L. 197, 482  
 Melford, D.A. 229  
 Mendelssohn, K. 27  
 Mendoza, E. 166, 517  
 Menter, J.W. 220  
 Merica, P.D. 89  
 Merzhanov, A.G. 431  
 Metropolis, N. 465f  
 Meyer, E. 244  
 Meyer, K.H. 324  
 Miles, M. 370  
 Minikata, M. 294  
 Miodownik, M.A. 476  
 Miodownik, A.P. 198, 483f  
 Mirkin, C.A. 435  
 Mirkin, I.L. 354  
 Mitchell, J.W. 113  
 Mitscherlich, E. 61, 98, 159  
 Miura, H. 371  
 Miura, N. 455  
 Miyayama, M. 272  
 Moharil, S.V. 272  
 Montgomery, F.L. 23  
 Moore, A.W. 439  
 Moore, J.C. 331  
 Moore, J.S. 428  
 Morawetz, H. 8, 36, 307, 322  
 Morowitz, H.J. 64  
 Morrogh, H. 347  
 Morris, P.J.T. 36, 39, 307, 324, 329  
 Mort, J. 297, 435  
 Moseley, H. 65, 226  
 Mössbauer, R. 237  
 Mossman, S.T.E. 36, 39, 307, 329  
 Mott, N.F. 45, 107, 111, 113, 115, 123, 131, 135, 137f, 220, 277  
 Moulson, A.J. 272  
 Mughrabi, H. 355, 359  
 Müllen, K. 309  
 Müller, E.W. 232  
 Müller, K.A. 279  
 Mullins, W.W. 96, 112, 343, 346  
 Mulvey, T. 218  
 Munir, Z.A. 431, 432  
 Murray, J. 496  
 Nabarro, F.R.N. 114, 117, 180, 193  
 Nachtrieb, N. 522  
 Nagaoka, H. 524  
 Nagarajan, R. 281  
 Nakajima, H. 169  
 Nakamura, S. 267  
 Nangia, A. 428  
 Nardelli, M.B. 443  
 Nastasi, M. 238  
 Natta, G. 39, 307  
 Néel, L. 142, 283f, 287  
 Nernst, W. 27, 81, 366f  
 Neumann, J. von 11, 465  
 Neville, F.H. 77f, 86, 168  
 Newbury, D.E. 221, 228  
 Newnham, R.E. 275, 276, 285, 455  
 Nucholas, J.F. 529  
 Nicholson, R.B. 90  
 Niedracvh, L. 450  
 Nieh, T.G. 181  
 Niggli, P. 67, 128  
 Nishizawa, J. 294  
 Nishizawa, T. 483  
 Nix, W.D. 411, 518  
 Norton, F.H. 6  
 Notis, M.R. 271  
 Nowick, A.S. 108f, 171, 193  
 Noyce, R. 262  
 Noyes, W. 29, 32, 37  
 Nussbaum, A. 519  
 Nye, J.F. 129, 177  
 Nye, M.J. 64, 541  
 Oatley, C.W. 223f  
 Ohain, H. von 352  
 Ohashi, N. 351  
 Ohl, R. 257  
 Ohring, M. 411  
 Okamoto, H. 496  
 Okamoto, R. 398  
 Oliver, W.C. 244  
 Olson, G.B. 182, 486

- Opinsky, A.J. 206  
Oppenheimer, R. 181, 521  
Orowan, E. 110f, 198, 360, 527  
Osmond, F. 74, 86, 101  
Ostwald, Wilhelm 24f, 65, 80, 82, 355  
Ostwald, Wolfgang 37, 42  
Ottewill, R. 44
- Padden, F.J. 313  
Pais, A. 181  
Palumbo, G. 369  
Parker, E.C.H. 267  
Parker, G. 430  
Parsonage, N.G. 46, 123  
Parsons, C. 352  
Pashley, D.W. 412  
Passmore, J. 23  
Pasteur, L. 36, 198  
Paterson, M.S. 129  
Patterson, C. 236, 570  
Paul, D. 263, 269  
Pauli, W. 131, 134, 255  
Pauling, L. 65, 416  
Pavelich, W.A. 327  
Paxton, H.W. 349  
Pearson, C.E. 179  
Peierls, R. 134, 139, 255  
Peltier, J. 277  
Pendry, J.B. 45, 408  
Pennings, A.J. 318  
Pennisi, E. 160  
Penrose, R. 416  
Pepinsky, R. 275  
Percec, V. 328, 429  
Percy, J. 84  
Perrin, J. 42, 63f  
Petermann, J. 320  
Pettifor, D.F. 134, 473, 483  
Petzow, G. 80, 217, 376, 379  
Pfann, W.G. 8, 261, 357  
Pfeil, L.B. 161, 352  
Phillips, Anton, Frederick and Gerhard, 281  
Phillips, J.M. 511  
Phillips, V.A. 217
- Phillpot, S.R. 475  
Phragmén, G. 71  
Pickard, G.W. 256  
Pickering, F.B. 351  
Pike, E.R. 268  
Pilkington, A. 380  
Pinchbeck, C. 166  
Pippard, A.B. 132, 137, 259  
Pirouz, P. 120  
Planck, M. 131  
Planté, G. 447  
Pockels, Agnes 433  
Pohl, R. 106, 196  
Poirier, J.-P. 129f  
Polanyi, M. 70, 110f, 162f, 198  
Pollard, J. 406  
Polo, Marco 362  
Ponce, F.A. 267  
Pontikis, V. 409  
Porter, D.A. 100, 348, 349  
Prassides, K. 441  
Preston, G.D. 90  
Price, D. de S. 21  
Price, G.D. 130  
Price, P.B. 402  
Prokes, S.M. 400  
Prost, J. 296  
Psaras, P.A. 12  
Purcell, E.M. 234, 237  
Purdy, G.R. 103  
Pusey, P.N. 45, 145  
Putland, P.J. 484
- Quarrell, A.G. 214  
Quédec, P. 142, 285  
Quinney, H. 110, 242
- Raabe, D. 469, 471, 473, 481  
Rabenau, A. 426  
Rabi, I. 134  
Rabkin, E. 514  
Radmilovic, V. 222  
Radnai, R. 106, 297  
Raman, C.V. 234, 331  
Randle, V. 362

- Ranganathan, S. 417  
Rao, C.N.R. 46, 122, 425f, 437  
Rao, K.J. 425  
Rath, B.B. 97  
Ratner, C.A. 435  
Ratner, M.A. 450  
Rawson, H. 289  
Rayleigh, Lord 77, 433  
Raynes, E.P. 297  
Raynor, G.V. 7, 134, 190, 496  
Read, T.A. 114  
Read, W.T. 114  
Réaumur, R. de 72  
Rechenberg, H. 131  
Redhead, P.A. 406, 407  
Regain, B.O. 271  
Reid, T.R. 262  
Reijnen, P.J.L. 372  
Reinitzer, F. 295  
Rhead, G.E. 411  
Rhines, F.N. 204  
Richter, R. 530  
Rideal, E. 42f  
Riedel, R. 439  
Riehl, N. 116  
Riordan, M. 8, 257f  
Rivière, J.C. 408  
Roberts-Austen, W. 63, 167f, 241  
Robertson, D. 256  
Robeson, I.M. 326  
Rodgers, J. 498  
Rohrer, H. 230  
Romé de l'Isle 60  
Röntgen, W. 106  
Roozeboom, H.W.B. 77, 80, 167  
Rose, L.R.F. 377  
Rose, M. 470  
Rosenberg, R. 264  
Rosenhain, W. 85f, 96, 189f, 195  
Rosenthal, D. 4  
Rossnagel, S.M. 411  
Roth, A. 405  
Roth, W.L. 276  
Rothwell, R. 381  
Rottgard, J. 256  
Roughton, F. 44  
Rowland, T.J. 238  
Roy, R. 12, 427, 503, 510, 511  
Royer, L. 412  
Roytburd, A.L. 533  
Ruoff, A.L. 175, 518  
Ruska, E. 218  
Russell, C.A. 24  
Rutherford, E. 92, 198  
Rutter, J.W. 344  
Sabato, J.A. 529f  
Sachs, G. 497, 533  
Sales, B.C. 278  
Salje, E. 130  
Salkind, A.J. 448  
Salli, I.V. 395  
Samuel, I.D.W. 335  
Sano, M. 412  
Saunders, N. 198, 483f  
Sauthoff, G. 357  
Sauveur, A. 86, 161  
Savage, H. 175  
Sawamoto, M. 309  
Scaff, J.H. 260  
Schadler, H.W. 164  
Schatz, G. 237f  
Schenk, H. 178  
Schjøtz, J. 50  
Schmalzried, H. 121f, 169, 171  
Schmid, E. 48, 162f, 497, 527  
Schobinger-Papamantellos, P. 142  
Schöck, G. 531  
Schönfliess, A. 66  
Schottky, G. 105, 107, 121f  
Schrader, A. 161  
Schrödinger, E. 58, 131  
Schropp, R.E.I. 270  
Schumacher, P. 347  
Schuster, I. 165  
Schütt, H.-W. 99  
Schütze, M. 456  
Schwartz, L. 5

- Schwarz, R.B. 454  
 Schweizer, E.K. 70, 232  
 Scrosati, B. 451  
 Seah, M.P. 408  
 Seebeck, T. 277  
 Seeger, A. 170, 239  
 Seigle, L.L. 206  
 Seitz, F. 11, 107f, 114, 116, 123, 132f, 256, 512, 514  
 Sekerka, R.F. 346  
 Selenyi, P. 297  
 Seligman, R. 162  
 Service, R.F. 445  
 Servos, J.W. 21f  
 Seymour, R.B. 35  
 Shaler, A.J. 371  
 Shechtman, D. 414f  
 Shewmon, P. 368  
 Shi, C. 540  
 Shi, W.C. 91  
 Shick, A.B. 279  
 Shirakawa, H. 334  
 Shirane, G. 239  
 Shockley, W. 8, 46, 114, 121, 257f, 262  
 Shukla, A.K. 453  
 Shull, C. 239, 284  
 Sibilila, J.P. 235  
 Siegbahn, M. 127  
 Siegel, R.W. 398  
 Sikka, V.K. 432  
 Siilivask, K. 81  
 Simader, G. 453  
 Simmons, R.O. 108  
 Simonds, J.L. 145, 288  
 Simpson, Esther 528  
 Sims, C.T. 352  
 Singh, K. 455  
 Singhal, S.C. 453  
 Skelly, F.E.M. 234  
 Skinner, H. 257  
 Slack, G.A. 278  
 Slifkin, L. 123  
 Sluckin, T.J. 297  
 Smalley, R. 440  
 Smarr, L.L. 474  
 Smekal, A. 291  
 Smigelskas, A.D. 169  
 Smit, B. 469  
 Smit, J. 285  
 Smith, C.S. 60, 72, 87, 94, 96, 99, 215, 476, 514, 515, 519, 520f  
 Smith, G.D.W. 233  
 Smith, J.K. 8  
 Smith, M.E. 238  
 Smith, R.L. 357  
 Smithells, C.J. 493  
 Smugersky 439  
 Snoek, J.L. 192, 281f  
 Snow, C.P. 43  
 Somekh, R.E. 414  
 Sommerfeld, A. 67, 277  
 Somorjai, G.A. 410  
 Sondheimer, E.H. 132, 256  
 Sorby, H. 73, 215, 569  
 Southworth, G. 257  
 Spaepen, F. 243, 396  
 Spear, W.E. 270  
 Spence, J.C.H. 221  
 Spencer, P.J. 484  
 Sproull, R.L. 12f  
 Sree Harsha, K.S. 264  
 Staudinger, H. 37, 40  
 Staveley, N.E.K. 46, 123  
 Steele, B.C.H. 453  
 Stehle, P. 64, 131, 198  
 Steinhardt, P.J. 415  
 Steinherz, H.A. 407  
 Steno (Stenonius), D. 59  
 Stern, O. 108  
 Stevens, D. 11  
 Stewart, A.D.G. 225  
 Stil'bans, L.S. 277  
 Stillinger, F.H. 472  
 Stockmayr, W.H. 40, 330  
 Stocks, G.M. 103  
 Stoloff, N.S. 356  
 Stoneham, M. 472  
 Stookey, S.D. 381f

- Strathmann, H. 333  
Street, R.A. 270  
Strobl, G. 40, 325  
Sucksmith, W. 146  
Sudworth, J.L. 449, 451  
Suits, G. 9, 12, 173, 280, 358, 402, 450  
Sun, K.H. 291  
Sundaresan, R. 368  
Suresh, S. 359  
Suryanarayana, C. 396  
Sutton, A.P. 195  
Svedberg, T. 330  
Swinburne, J. 308  
Swalen, J.D. 435  
Swalin, R.A. 517  
Swan, J. 405  
Swinbanks, D. 529  
Sykes, C. 242  
Szarowski, D.H. 217  
Sze, S.M. 268  
Szymborski, K. 106  
  
Tabor, D. 244, 324, 408, 410  
Takei, T., 570  
Tammann, G.H.J.A. 80, 101, 163, 214, 296, 524  
Tanner, L.E. 102  
Tanner, R.I. 48, 50, 329  
Taylor, A. 353  
Taylor, G.I. 48, 110f, 113, 198, 242  
Taylor, W.H. 125, 218  
Teal, G. 260  
Teichmann, J. 106  
Telle, R. 217  
Tenenbaum, M. 348  
Terakura, K. 395  
Termonia, Y. 480  
Tetelman, A. 518  
Teter, D.M. 379  
Tetzlaff, U. 355  
Theodorou, D.N. 478  
Thewlis, J. 71  
Thiel, P.A. 417  
Thomas, E.L. 171, 309, 518  
Thomas, G.A. 294  
  
Thomas, J.M. 124  
Thompson, D.A. 380  
Thompson, M.W. 207, 225  
Thomson, G.P. 217  
Thomson, R.M. 134, 517  
Tien, J.K. 355  
Till, P.H. 313  
Tiller, W.A. 344  
Tilley, C.E. 127f  
Timoshenko, S. 47  
Titchener, A.L. 242  
Todd, A. 35  
Toigo, J.W. 287  
Tolansky, S. 119  
Torricelli, E. 405  
Townes, C. 265  
TRACES 280  
Treloar, L.R.G. 197, 325  
Tretyakob, Yu. D. 535  
Truesdell, C.A. 47  
Tsai, A.P. 418  
Tschirnhaus, Count von 363  
Tsong, T.T. 233  
Tsu, R. 265, 398  
Tuijn, C. 168  
Turchi, P.E.a. 477  
Turnbull, D. 9, 13, 15, 104, 169, 170, 396  
Turner, J.N. 217  
Tyrrell, H.J.V. 166  
  
Uhlherr, A. 478, 479  
Ulam, S. 466  
Ulman, A. 436  
Unwin, D.J. 225  
Urey, H. 30  
  
Valenzuela, R. 282  
Valiev, R. 181  
Van Blaaderen, A. 430  
Van den Broek 83  
Van der Merwe, J.H. 412  
Van der Waals, J. 104, 432  
Van Gool, W. 449  
Van Krevelen, D.W. 329, 493  
Van Laar, J.J. 482  
Van Megen, W. 44

- Van Schilfgaarde 241  
 Van't Hoff, J. 26f, 35, 80, 198  
 Van Vleck, L. 517  
 Verma, A.R. 99, 119f  
 Verwey, E.J.W. 282f  
 Villar, P. 495  
 Vincent, C.A. 451  
 Vincent, J.F.V. 427  
 Vineyard, G.H. 469f  
 Viovy, J.L. 326  
 Vocadlo, L. 130  
 Volmer, M. 104, 115  
 Volta, A. 253, 446  
 Von Ardenne, M. 223  
 Von Helmholtz, R. 436  
 Von Hevesy, G. 170  
 Von Hippel, A. 332  
 Von Laue, M. 67  
 Von Schreibers 73  
 Von Widmanstätten, A.  
     *see* Widmanstätten  
 Voter, A.F. 473  
  
 Wachtman, J.B. 364  
 Wadsworth, J. 415  
 Wagner, C. 105, 121f  
 Wakai, F. 180  
 Walker, R.M. 402  
 Walker, W. 32  
 Wallach, O. 36  
 Walsh, A. 234  
 Walter, M.L. 171  
 Walters, K. 48, 50, 329  
 Wang, E.G. 379  
 Wang, J. 444  
 Wang, X.-H. 400  
 Ward, I.M. 321, 330  
 Warner, F. 34  
 Warren, B.E. 289f  
 Washburn, E. 492  
 Watson, E.S. 242  
 Watson, J.D. 118  
 Watt, W. 438  
 Wawrousek, H. 497  
  
 Weast, R. 493  
 Weber, A. 115  
 Weber, E.R. 169  
 Weber, M.J. 290  
 Weber, T.A. 472  
 Weertman, J. 518  
 Weertman, Julia 518  
 Weidinger, A. 237f  
 Weinberg, W.H. 444  
 Weiner, S. 430  
 Weiser, H.B. 42  
 Weiss, P. 141, 142, 198  
 Weiss, R. 517  
 Welsbach, Baron von, *see* Auer, C.  
 Wentzcovich, R.M. 176  
 Wernick, J.H. 145  
 Wert, C.A. 134, 517  
 Wertime, T.A. 94  
 West, D.R.F. 205, 348, 368  
 Westbrook, J.H. 10, 353, 448, 497  
 Westgren, A. 71  
 Whall, T.E. 267  
 Whelan, M.J. 220  
 White, G. 494  
 White, R.J. 182  
 Whitesides, G. 430  
 Whitney, W. 8  
 Whittle, F. 352  
 Widmanstätten, von, A. 72, 569  
 Wigner, E. 132  
 Wijn, H.P.J. 285  
 Wilde, J. 194  
 Wilkie, J. 271  
 Williams, D.B. 221  
 Williams, D.F. 428  
 Williams, E.D. 408  
 Williams, E.J. 102  
 Williams, G. 332  
 Williams, K.R. 453  
 Williams, L.P. 447  
 Williams, R. 394  
 Willis, B.T.M. 240  
 Wilm, A. 89  
 Wilshaw, T.R. 360

- Wilson, A.H. 255  
Wilson, C.T.R. 65, 91  
Wilson, K. 139  
Wilson, L.M. 335  
Wiltzius, P. 430  
Windle, A.H. 310, 323, 334, 480  
Wise, G. 8, 28  
Withers, P.J. 361  
Wittmann, J.-C. 316  
Wolf, D. 195  
Wollan, E. 239  
Wollaston, W.H. 61, 367  
Wood, R.W. 142  
Wood, W.A. 218  
Woodruff, D.P. 408  
Wulff, J. 518  
Wyatt, O. 518  
Wyckoff, R. 494  
  
Xiang, X.-D. 444f  
Xiao, S.Q. 122  
  
Yajima, S. 439  
Yagi, E. 21  
Yamaguchi, M. 356, 357  
  
Yamazoe, N. 455  
Yanagida, H. 272  
Yang, J.W. 120  
Yao, Y.F.Y. 449  
Yeack-Scranton, C.E. 286f  
Yermakov, A.E. 397  
Yip, S. 195  
Yoo, Y.-K. 445  
Yoshizawa, Y. 400  
Yost, C. 11  
Young, D.A. 175  
Young, Jr. F.W. 164  
Young, R.J. 319  
Youtz, J.P. 414  
  
Zachariasen, W.H. 127, 289, 522  
Zeeman, M. 270  
Zener, C. 193, 195, 522  
Zhou, S.J. 481  
Ziegler 39, 307  
Ziman, J. 21  
Zimm, B.H. 40, 330  
Zinoffsky 37  
Zweibel, K. 270  
Zworykin, V. 223, 271, 297

# Subject Index

- Acta Metallurgica*, origins 514f
- Adhesion 331
- Age-hardening 89f
- Alloy Phase Diagram International Commission 496
- Alloys, electron theory of 134f
- Amorphisation, solid-state 397
- Amorphous cement theory 189
- Antiferromagnetism 283
- Argentina, materials research in 529f
- Atom probe 233
- Atomic force microscope 231
- Atomic hypothesis 57f, 63
  - Greek origins 58
  - medieval ideas 58f
- Atomic structure and Pasteur's principle 198
- Atomistic mechanics 48f
- Atomistic modelling 207
- Atoms
  - and crystals 57f
  - physicists' and chemists' atoms 65
  - scepticism regarding their existence 28
- Australia, CSIRO, policy changes 529
- Australia, physics of solids in 526f
- Avalanche photodiode 267
- Avogadro's hypothesis 24
- Avogadro's number 64
- Band gap engineering 265f
- Bariloche, Centro Atomico de 529f
- Batteries
  - lithium-ion (Sony) 451
  - primary 447
  - secondary 447f, 451f
- Bell (Telephone) Laboratories 257f
- Berthollides 83
- Beta-alumina 276
- Biomedical materials 428
- Biomimetics 427
- Bragg-Williams theory 102
- Brillouin zones 136
  - in copper, determination and implications 137
- Brittle fracture theory, Griffith's 199
- Brookhaven Laboratory 285, 470
- Brownian motion 64
- Bubbles in irradiated solids 207
- California Institute of Technology 29, 33
- CALPHAD
  - History 482f
  - kinetic simulations 485
  - Verification 485
- Cambridge University
  - chemical engineering in 34
  - metallurgy and materials science department 5
- Carbon fibers 438
- Carbon forms, production 438
- Carbon granule microphone 367
- Carbon nanotubes
  - chemistry of 443
  - hydrogen storage in 443
  - multiwalled 441
  - single-walled 441f
  - strength 443
- Carbon nitride 379
- Carbon 'onions' 442
- Carbon polymorphs 439f
- Casting of metals and alloys 343f
  - grain size control 347
  - thixocasting 347
- Catalysis 124, 409
- Cat's whisker/crystal detectors 256f
- Ceramics
  - advanced 362f
  - at MIT 7f
  - carbon nitride 379
  - electrical 271f



- from polymeric precursors 380
- in engines 379
- in Nernst lamp 364
- magnetic 281f
- silicon nitride 376f
- structural 375f
- transformation-toughened 377
- Cermets 368, 399
- Characterisation 213f
  - of microstructure 214f
  - origin of term 213
- Chemical engineering
  - hostility of industry 34
  - nomenclature 33
  - origins 32f
  - science/engineering standoff 32f
- Chemical kinetics and crystal defects 122
- Chemical physics 30
- Chemical reactions in relation to crystal
  - structure and crystal defects 121f
- Chemical thermodynamics
  - simulations based on 482f
- Chemistry, solid-state 45f
  - origins 425f
  - terminology 46
- China, MSE in 14
- Chips 262f
- Clean processing 351, 355, 357
- Cloud chamber 92
- Colloids 37, 41f
- Cambridge department of
  - colloid science 42f
  - colloidal 'crystals' 44, 475
  - origins of colloid science 41f
- Colour centres in ionic crystals 106f
- Combinatorial synthesis and screening
  - of materials 444f
- Composite materials, synthetic 361
- Computer simulation 465f
  - attitudes to 466f
  - finite-element method 473
  - grain growth as test method 475f
  - history 465f
  - interatomic potentials 471f
  - in materials science 468f, 474f
  - molecular dynamics method 469f
  - Monte Carlo method 466, 468
  - phase transformations 477
  - polycrystalline plasticity 481
  - polymers 478f
- Computer memories 285f
  - early ferrite memories 285
  - longterm and shortterm 286
  - giant magnetoresistance 287
  - optical and magneto-optical 288
- Constitutional supercooling 345
- Continuum mechanics 47f
  - 'rational mechanics' variant 48
- Coordination numbers in crystals 127
- Copper, zone-refined 357
- Copper sulphide 254
- Corning Laboratory 381f
  - policy change 384
- Corrosion, metallic 456
- COSMAT report 5, 13f
- Critical phenomena 139
- Crystal chemistry 124f
- Crystal defects
  - golden age of 109
  - in ionic crystals 122
- Crystal growth 115f, 199
  - needed supersaturation 117
  - spiral growth at screw
    - dislocations 117f
  - spiral growth and the double helix 118
- Crystallography 176f, 570
  - and physics 177
  - and x-ray diffraction 66f
  - chemical aspects of 178
  - creation of 60f
  - education in 178
  - International Union of 176
  - variants 71
- Crystal structure
  - determination 67f
  - contributions of the Braggs 69
  - slowness of takeup of the technique 69
  - structural principles 127
- Crystals
  - idea of integrant molecules 61

- role of atoms in formation of 59f
  - notions about 59f
- Curiosity-driven research 181f, 402
- Daltonides 83
- Databases 491f
  - accessibility 498
  - crystallographic 494
  - phase diagrams 495f
  - physical-chemical 491f, 571
  - quality control 497
- Datamining 498
- Deformation-mechanism maps 200f
- Dendrite formation 346
- Density measurement, high-precision 108
- Depth profiling by Rutherford
  - back-scattering 238
- Diamond
  - from carbon 'onions' 442
  - isotopically enriched 268
  - synthesis under high pressure 173f
- Differential scanning calorimetry 242
- Differential thermal analysis 241
- Diffusion in solids 166f
  - enhanced 169
  - first researches, by
    - Roberts-Austen 167f
- Dilatometry 240
- Dislocations 49, 110f, 191f, 569
  - carbon atmospheres around 191
  - carbon atmospheres, direct
    - demonstration 194
  - confirmation of existence 112f
  - decoration of 113
  - multiplication 114
  - observed by electron microscopy
    - 113, 220
  - theory of properties 191f
  - triple invention of 110f
- Disciplines
  - emergence 21f, 571
  - emergence by splitting 22, 541
  - emergence by integration 22, 541
  - exclusivity 23
- natural history of 50
  - nature of 21f
- Ductility enhancement by surface
  - treatment 410
- Elastomers 323f
- Electrical ceramics 271f
- Electrochemistry
  - origins 446
  - batteries 448f
- Electrolytic metal extraction 456
- Electrolytic polishing 569
- Electromigration 91, 263
- Electron microprobe analysis 226
  - origins in France 227
  - scanning version 228
- Electron microscopy 217f
  - genesis 218f
  - high-resolution 221
  - role of theory in 220
  - scanning 222f
  - transmission 218f
- Electron theory of alloys 134f
- Electronic switching 257
- Electronics, evolution 263
- Electrons in solids 132f
- Electrooptic activity 276
- Empirical approach to materials
  - improvement 106, 173, 348
  - followed by understanding 347
- Epitaxy 100, 412
- Equilibrium diagrams, *see* Phase diagrams
- Equilibrium of heterogeneous
  - substances 75
- ETH, Zurich 504
- Europe, MSE departments 504f
- Eutectic arrays 431
- Faraday Discussion on polymers (1979)
  - 315f
- Faraday Society 31
- Ferrimagnetism 283
- Ferrites 282f, 285, 570
- Ferroelectric materials 274f
  - barium titanate 275
  - history 274f

- PZT 275
- Rochelle salt 274
- Ferromagnetic domains 143, 198
- Ferromagnetism 141f
  - exchange energy 141
- Fibers
  - carbon 438
  - optical 291f
  - polymeric 321
- Fiber-reinforced composites 361
- Fick's law of diffusion 166
- Field-ion microscope 232f
- Figure of merit 278
- Films, thin 410f
- Flory-Huggins equation 322
- Foundry (modern) 263
- Fractal analysis 204
- Fracture, brittle 359
- Fracture mechanics 360
- Frenkel defect 169
- Fuel cells
  - for space travel 453
  - for vehicles 453f
  - history 452f
  - fuels for 270, 454
- Fullerenes 439f
- Functional materials 253f
  - and structural materials 298
- General Electric Laboratory 8f, 28,
  - metallurgy research group 9
  - introduction of MSE 10
- Geochemical distribution of elements 127
- Geology, disciplinary structure 23
- Geophysics 129f
- Germanium as a semiconductor 258
- Glass
  - fibers 291f
  - optical 289f
  - structure 290
  - transition 290
- Glass-ceramics 380f
  - photosensitive 382f
- Grain boundaries 189f, 195, 369f, 474, 570
- Grain growth, computer simulation 475f
- Grain shapes in polycrystals 87
- Graphite, Wigner energy in 206
- GP zones 90
- Hall-Petch law 204
- Handbook of Chemistry and Physics 493
- Hard disc drives 287
- Hardness measurement 243f
- Heterostructures, confined 265f
  - compound semiconductors 266
  - silicon-germanium 267
- Heusler alloy 142
- High pressures
  - for diamond synthesis 173f
  - high pressure community 176
  - in polymer synthesis 39
  - plastic deformation under 173
  - studies of properties of solids under 171f
- High-purity metals 357f, 570
- Hot isostatic pressing 174
- Hume-Rothery theories 134f, 395
- Hungarian physicists 106
- Ice polymorphism under pressure 175
- Innovation, industrial 381
- Institute for Materials Research, Sendai, Japan 523f
- Institute for the Study of Metals, Chicago, 520f
- Integrated circuits 262f
  - role of materials science in 263f
  - shrinkage 264
- Interatomic potentials 471f
- Intermetallic compounds 102, 128, 129, 355f
  - environmental embrittlement of 356
- Internal friction 192f
- International Critical Tables 492
- International Union of MRSs 511
- Invar 145, 241
- Invisible colleges 21
- Ion exchange membranes 450
- Ionic conduction in crystals 171, 276, 366, 449

- Ionic conduction in polymers 449f
- Ions and ionists 26f
- Iron, zone-refined 358
- Japan, materials research in 523f
- Japanese samurai sword 348
- Journals
  - broad-spectrum 512f, 571
  - in chemical physics 30
  - in MSE 508, 511, 512f
  - in physical chemistry 29f
  - in polymer science 41
  - specialised 516
- Karlsruhe conference (1860) 24
- Kinetic theory of gases 139
- Kirkendall effect 169
- Lamps 364f
  - incandescent 365
  - Nernst-type 366
  - Welsbach gas mantle 366
- Landolt-Börnstein 491
- Langmuir-Blodgett films 433f
- Laser
  - gallium nitride-type 267
  - optical 265
  - pulsed laser annealing 267
  - semiconductor 266f
- Lehrbuch der Metallographie* 81
- Lichtenberg figures 298
- Light-emitting diodes, polymeric 335
- Liquid crystals
  - displays 296
  - history 295f
- Low-energy electron diffraction 408
- Lucalox 9, 374
- Luminescence 272
- Macro-defect-free cement 375f
- Magnetic ceramics 281f
- Magnetic materials, hard and soft 144
- Magnetic recording 145, 285f
- Magnetism 140f, 281f
  - literature 146
  - technical 143
- Magnetite 282
- Magnetoresistance
  - giant 287f
  - colossal 437f
- Magnetorheological finishing 146
- Manganates 437
- Massachusetts Institute of Technology,
  - 29, 32f
  - conversion of metallurgy course to MSE 6f
- 'Materials', definition 409
- Materials chemistry 425f, 517
- Materials Research Laboratories
  - disciplinary distribution 13
  - modus operandi 12
  - origins 11f
- Materials Research Society 510f
- Materials science
  - and theoretical physics 103
  - as a discipline and multidiscipline 539f
  - emergence 3f
  - opposition to concept 5, 98
  - teaching 503f
- Materials Science Club 509
- Materials selection maps 201
- Materials Selector 498
- Materials synthesis and processing
  - 426, 519
- Max-Planck-Institut für Metallkunde
  - (formerly Kaiser-Wilhelm-Institut) 379, 526
- Melt-quenching 393f
- Metallic glasses 395, 396
  - bulk 396
  - ferromagnetic 144, 396
- Metallic multilayers 413f
  - anomalous mechanical properties 41
- Metallography 84f
- Metallurgical professional societies 508
- Metallurgists and physicists
  - cooperation on transistors, Mehl's view 98
- Metallurgy as a precursor of MSE 94f
- Metallurgy, physical 96f

- Metals Reference Book 493
- Metastability 82, 394
  - in polymers 328
- Microscopic examination of metals 73
- Micrographs in phase diagram
  - determination 87
- Microscope, optical 215f
  - multiple-beam interferometry 216
  - phase-contrast 216
  - polarised light 216
- Microsieves (medical) 401f
- Microstructure 84f
  - centrality in MSE 541
  - early recognition of 84f
  - examination of (characterisation) 214f
  - polycrystallinity of metals 85, 87
- Mineralogy, physical 129f
- Molecular beam epitaxy 266
- Molecular electronics 435
- Molecular films, *see* Langmuir–Blodgett films
- Molecular Simulations Inc. 479
- Molecular weight of polymers 37, 330
- Mössbauer effect 237
- MSE 3, 5
  - academic statistics 350, 505
  - encyclopedias, graduates, destinations 504
  - graduates, attitudes 507
  - in industry, beginnings 8f
  - professional societies 507f
  - societies *ab initio* 509
  - terminology 13f
  - textbooks 14, 517f
  - university departments 503f, 539
- Multilayers, metallic,
  - see* Metallic multilayers
- Nabarro–Herring creep 180, 400
- Nanostructured materials 398
  - from precursors 401
  - superplastic forming of 400
- Nanotubes, *see* Carbon nanotubes
- National Science Foundation (US),
  - takeover of Materials Research Laboratories 12
- National Materials Laboratory,
  - proposal 12
- Naval Research Laboratory (US) 97
- Néel–Slater curve 142
- Neutron scattering and diffraction
  - 239, 284
- Non-linear optical crystals 272
- Non-stoichiometry 83
- Northwestern University, conversion
  - of metallurgy course to MSE 3f
- Nuclear magnetic resonance 237
- Nuclear methods of characterisation
  - 236f
- Nucleation theory 104, 115f
- Oligomers 35
- Optical communication 294
- Optical fibers 291f
  - history 292f
  - transparency 293f
- Optical glass 289f
- Optical rotation 36
- Optoelectronics 268
- Orientation-imaging 88, 225
- Ostwald ripening 355
- Oxidation of metals, anisotropy of 165
- Parepistemes
  - definition 159
  - examples 160f
  - genesis of 181
  - integration of 182
- Particle tracks 401f
- Pasteur's principle
  - exemplifications 198f, 273
- Pennsylvania State University 12, 503
- Perovskite crystal structure 437
- Phase, concept of 73, 76
- Phase diagrams
  - calculation (CALPHAD) 482f
  - continuous 445
  - first determination 77
  - Tammann's 81
  - quenching, role of in determination 86

- Phase equilibria 72f  
Phase rule 76  
  power of 77  
Phase transformations 88, 98f, 349  
  computer simulation 477  
  first-order 81  
  kinetics 101  
  in polymers 328  
  martensitic 101  
  nucleation and spinodal decomposition 104  
  nucleation-and-growth 99f  
  order-disorder 101f  
Phenomenological aspects of  
  a science 206  
Philips Research Laboratories, Eindhoven 281  
Phosphors 107  
Photoelectrolysis 271  
Photographic process, theory 123  
Phosphors 271f  
Photonic crystals 429  
Photorefractive behavior 291  
Photovoltaic cells 269f  
  amorphous 270  
Physical chemistry  
  conflict with organic chemistry 24  
  origins 23f  
  subject matter 26  
Physics, solid-state 45f, 130f  
  terminology 46  
Piezoelectricity 274  
Plastic deformation  
  mechanisms 48f, 361  
  of polycrystals, simulation 481  
p/n junctions 258f  
Point defects in crystals 105f  
Polyethylene 39  
  thin crystals, structure 200  
Polygonization 112  
Polymer revolution 307f  
Polymer(s)  
  blends (alloys) 326f  
  chemistry 308  
  computer simulation 478f  
  configurational entropy 323f  
  conjugated chains in 334  
  crystalline and semicrystalline 312f, 317f  
  diffusion and reptation in 326  
  electrical properties 332f, 449f  
  electronics 335  
  fibers, drawn 321f  
  mutual solubility 323  
  phase transitions in 328  
  plastic deformation of 319f  
  processing 329  
  properties, reference text 329  
  semiconducting 333f  
  solutions, light-scattering from 321  
  statistical mechanics of 321f  
  synthesis 308f  
  ultrathin films 412  
  welding, simulation 480  
Polymer (single) crystals  
  chainfolding in, discovered 314  
  chainfolding in, disputed 315f  
  lamellar 313f  
  poly(acetylene) 335  
Polymer science  
  ABS copolymer 327  
  adhesion 331  
  beginnings 35f, 307  
  block copolymers, self-assembly 431  
  colloid ideas 37  
  concepts in 310f  
  copolymers 36, 310, 327  
  crazes 311  
  crystallisation 311  
  dendrimers 310  
  disputes about macromolecules 37  
  gel permeation chromatography 331  
  industrial plastics 36  
  model polymers 309  
  molecular weight of polymers 37, 330  
  polydispersity 309  
  role of physicists in 40  
  role of stereochemistry 36  
  rubber elasticity 323f

- shish-kebab structure 318
- spherulites 312
- stereoactive catalysts 39
- synthetic polymers 38f
- teaching 506
- texts 307
- viscoelasticity 329
- Polymerisation 36, 307f
  - in the solid state 309
- Polymorphism 61, 98f
- Polypropylene hinge 320
- Polytypism 119f
- Porcelain manufacture, history 362f
- Positron annihilation spectrometry 238
- Precipitation-hardening,
  - see* age-hardening
- Prevaricator 57
- PTC materials 273, 274
- Purity in metallurgy 95
- Pyroelectricity 274
- Quantitative revolution,
  - mid-20th-century 196f
  - growing precision in measurement 197
- Quantitative theory in physical metallurgy, 189f
- Quantum theory of solids 131f
- Quantum wells 265f, 279
- Quasicrystals
  - applications 418
  - discovery 414f
  - nature 416f
- Radiation damage research 205f
  - and computer simulation 470
  - relation to materials science 208
- Radioisotopes, use in diffusion studies 170
- Rapid solidification processing 393f
- Rare-earth sesquioxides 127
- Refractory materials at MIT 6
- Rheology 50, 329
- Rotator phases 440
- Roughening transition 408
- Rubbers 37, 323f
- mechanical crystallisation 325
- hysteresis in 324
- statistical theory of elasticity 324f
- Russia, MSE research 518, 531, 533, 535
- Russia, research on steels 532f
- Scanning electron microscopy 222
  - pioneer's principles 223
- Scanning tunneling microscope 230f
  - application to polymer chainfolding 316
  - manipulation of individual atoms with 231
- Schottky defects 107
- Seeing is believing 91f
- Self-assembly 328, 428f
  - templated 430
- Self-diffusion 170
- Self-propagating high-temperature reactions 431
- Semiconductor-metal transition 254
- Semiconductors
  - band theory 255, 467
  - history 253f
  - isotopically enriched 269
  - polymeric 333f
  - single crystals 260
  - zone-refining 261
- Sensors, chemical 454f
- Sialons 378
- Silicon
  - as a semiconductor, history 256f
  - dislocation source in 93
  - grain boundaries in 474
  - 'hot spots' 258
  - porous 400
  - tungsten rectifiers 256
  - versus compound semiconductors 269
- Silicon nitride 376f
- Silver sulphide 254
- Single crystals, metallic
  - from the melt 162f
  - production 160f
  - strain-anneal approach 161
  - superalloys 355

- uses in research 163
- Sintering
  - ceramic powders 10, 372f
  - mechanism 368f
  - metallic powders 367f
  - pore-free 372f
- Snoek pendulum, *see* torsion pendulum
- Societies, professional 508f
- Soft chemistry 426
- Solid-state chemistry 45f
- Solid-state physics 45f, 130f, 256, 260
  - beginnings 131f
  - Pauli's reaction to 134, 255
- Solidification of metals and alloys 343f
  - constitutional supercooling 345
- Soviet Union, *see* Russia
- Space groups 66
- Spectrometry 234
- Spherulites
  - in cast iron 347
  - in polymers 312
- Spinel crystal structure 282
- Spinodal concept 104
- Sputtering 411
- Stacking faults 120
- Statistical mechanics
  - (thermodynamics) 138f
- Steel(s) 348f
  - clean 351
  - concepts of 94
  - continuous annealing of 351
  - controlled rolling 351
  - high-strength low-alloy 350
  - importance of 350
  - industry, problems in 1980s 349
  - phase transformations in 349
  - stainless 95
- Stereoisomers 36
- Stereology 88, 203f
- Strain-ageing 192f
- Structure sensitivity 291
- Subsidiary topics 159f
- Superalloys 352f
  - history 352
  - lattice mismatch between constituent phases 354
- Superconducting ceramics 279f
  - interplay of basic and applied research 280
  - preferred orientation 280
- Supercritical solvents 432
- Superionic conductors 276, 449
- Superplasticity 179f
- Supramolecular chemistry,  
*see* Self-assembly
- Surface science
  - and semiconductors 403
  - and ultrahigh vacuum 404f
  - outline 407f
- Surface states in semiconductors 258
- Swedish school of crystallographers 71
- Temperature measurement
  - in ceramic manufacture 364
  - platinum resistance thermometer 77
  - platinum/platinum-rhodium thermocouple 78
- Textbooks
  - physical chemistry 31
  - MSE 14
- Textures 280, 361
- Thermoanalytic methods
  - of characterisation 240f
- Thermoelectric materials 277f
  - filled skutterudites 278
- Thermodynamics
  - first and second laws 74f
- Thin films 410f
- Torsion pendulum 192f
- Trace elements
  - analysis 235
  - in metallurgy 347, 351
- Transistors 259f
- TRIP steels 377
- Tripos, Natural Sciences 57
- Truth and beauty 92
- Twinning, deformation 86



- Ultracentrifuge 330
- Ultrahigh vacuum 404f
- Unit operations in chemical engineering 33
- University of Birmingham, England, physical metallurgy department 7, 103, 190
- University of Texas interdepartmental graduate program 6
- Uranium in nuclear reactors 205
- US, academic departmental statistics 6
- US Atomic Energy Commission 11
- US President's Advisory Committee 4
- Vacancies 105f
- Vacuum, ultrahigh 404f
- ionisation gauge, false indications 406
- Varistor 272f
- Voids in irradiated solids 208
- Welding 348
  - of polymers, simulation 480
- Widmanstätten structure 73, 99, 569
- Wigner-Seitz theory 133
- Xerography 297f
- X-ray diffraction
  - discovery 66f
  - and metallurgists 70f
  - and mineralogists 70
- Zeolites 409
- Zone-refining 261, 357f

## Corrigenda

**§ 3.1.2, page 72.** Alois Joseph Franz Xaver von Beck-Widmanstätten, also known as Widmanstätten, was director of a 'cabinet' of manufactures for the Austrian emperor, not curator of a collection of meteorites. He was previously a printer, which no doubt gave him the impetus to use an etched section of a meteorite as a printing plate. He printed from other meteorites before he made the print from the Elbogen which is illustrated on page 73.

Recent researches on meteorites suggest that the cooling rates of meteorites with very coarse structures were typically some tens of degrees per million years. See C. Narayan and J.I. Goldstein, *Geochim. & Cosmochim. Acta* **49** (1985) 397.

In this same section (pp. 73–74) I discuss Henry Sorby's introduction of reflected-light microscopy of metals, later extended to rock sections examined by transmitted light; here I say that the Swiss geologist (Horace-Benedict) de Saussure ridiculed Sorby for venturing to "look at mountains through a microscope". De Saussure in fact died in 1799, 50 years before Sorby's first work with petrographic sections. What de Saussure did was to ridicule the 'pretensions' of 'natural philosophers' who discoursed on the origins of mountains without ever leaving their armchairs; it clearly seemed to him that looking at rocks through a microscope, if it were achieved, would amount to not leaving an armchair! The episode is discussed by D.W. Humphries in his chapter on Sorby, on page 17 of *The Sorby Centennial Symposium on the History of Metallurgy*, edited by C.S. Smith (Gordon and Breach, New York, 1965).

**§ 3.2.1.2, page 110.** Through an unfortunate oversight, I omitted to include here the reference I had intended to some very important early work on dislocation theory by the physicist Jacques Friedel (Paris); Friedel is mentioned in another connection on page 137. He was stimulated to work on dislocations by his stay in Bristol, 1949–1952. His contributions are recorded, together with others, in his book *Les Dislocations* (Gauthier-Villars, Paris, 1956), published in a thoroughly revised and updated English translation by Pergamon Press (Oxford), 1964. The personal background to his researches can be found in Friedel's autobiography (*Graines de Mandarin*, Editions Odile Jacob, Paris, 1994, pp. 169–179).

**§ 4.2.1, page 160.** In connection with Figure 4.3, of a spherical copper crystal following oxidation, it was mentioned that the sphere had been electrolytically polished. That technique (which can be simply described as the inverse of electrodeposition) has been vital for the production of strain-free metal surfaces for examination by microscopy; the most important pioneer in developing this technique was the French metallurgist P.A. Jacquet (see Jacquet, *Metallurgical Reviews* **1** (1956) 157).

Single-crystal turbine blades (mentioned at the bottom of page 165) are used not only in jet engines but also in some land-based steam turbines, notably those manufactured by GE.

An early overview of crystal growth can be found in a book by H.E. Buckley, *Crystal Growth* (Chapman and Hall, London, 1951).

**§ 4.2.4, page 176.** A useful adjunct to the history of crystallography is a *Historical Atlas of Crystallography*, edited by J. Lima-de-Faria (International Union of Crystallography, Dordrecht, 1990).

**§ 6.2.2, page 217.** Abbe, whose theory of diffraction-limited resolution is cited here, does *not* have an accent on his final letter. It appears that this is a common error.

**§ 6.3.1, page 235.** Clair Patterson's researches on lead contamination in the atmosphere, discussed in the last paragraph of this section, emerged from his earlier work on the age of the earth on the basis of precision measurements of concentrations of different lead isotopes, some radioactive, work for which he became famous. His definitive paper about this work is in *Geochim. & Cosmochim. Acta* **10** (1956) 230.

**§ 7.3, page 281.** Magnetic ferrites were first studied in Germany and then France, early in the 20th century, but no materials of commercially usable quality were found. This was first achieved in 1932 by a Japanese team, Drs. Takeshi Takei and Y. Kato, who developed a combination of magnetite and cobalt ferrite; the first patent was taken out in 1935, at the time when the Dutch work was just beginning. An account in English of this important early work in Japan can be found in a paper entitled "The Past, Present and Future of Ferrites", by M. Sugimoto, in *J. Amer. Ceram. Soc.* **82** (1999) 269.

**§ 9.1.5, page 357.** The seminar proceedings on ultrapure metals published in America in 1961 were preceded by a year by a French (CNRS) symposium on the same subject, centered on the researches of a chemical metallurgy group led by the influential metallurgist Georges Chaudron.

**§ 9.4, page 367.** Local minima in plots of grain-boundary energy versus misorientation, as seen in Figure 9.9 on page 371, are linked through the concept of DSC lattices (Displacement Shift Complete). A DSC lattice is defined as the coarsest lattice which includes the lattices of the two bounding grains (A and B) as sublattices; such a lattice is found for 'special' misorientations between the bounding grains. The 'less coarse' such an overarching lattice is, the lower the corresponding grain-boundary energy. The inverse of the proportion of lattice points common to A and B is called the sigma ( $\Sigma$ ) number for that misorientation. This very influential concept was introduced by Walter Bollmann (*Crystal Defects and Crystal Interfaces*, Springer, Berlin, 1970), building on earlier ideas due to M.L. Kronberg and F.H. Wilson (*Trans. AIME* **185** (1949) 501).

**§ 10.6.1, page 414.** My statement at the bottom of page 416 that “the term ‘icosahedral symmetry’ is sometimes used” is inaccurate. That term is *always* used for the type of quasicrystals originally discovered by Shechtman, because these have not one, but six fivefold symmetry axes, like an icosahedron. Later, quasicrystals with only a single fivefold axis, combined with periodic stacking along that axis, were also found. Figure 10.7 does *not* show an icosahedral structure, but rather uniaxial tenfold symmetry.

**§ 13.2.1, page 491.** The ‘Rubber Bible’ (outlined on page 493) is now accessible online, with enhanced searching capabilities.

**§ 14.3.1, page 512.** A promising new broad-spectrum journal, *Nature Materials*, began publication in September 2002.

**Epilogue, page 539.** An important book by Mary Jo Nye concerning the emergence of disciplines is mentioned on page 541. Of several others which might have been added, I wish to cite a chapter by J. Dupré, “Metaphysical disorder and scientific disunity” in *The Disunity of Science. Boundaries, Contexts and Powers*, edited by P. Galison and D.J. Stump (Stanford University Press, Stanford, 1996) p. 101.













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