

Self-Study Summary Collection
Volume 1
Engineering

Anton Augustsson

September 28, 2025

Contents

1	Scope	5
2	Finite Element Method (FEM)	7
2.1	Introduction	7
2.2	Key Concepts	7
2.3	Steps in FEM	8
2.4	Mathematical Formulation	8
2.5	Advantages and Applications	9
3	Computer Aided Design	11
4	Material Science	13
4.1	Plastics	13
4.1.1	Nylon	13
4.1.2	PLA	13
4.1.3	ABS	13
4.2	Composites	13
4.2.1	Carbon Fiber	13
4.2.2	Kevlar	13
4.3	Metals	13
4.3.1	Aluminum	13
4.3.2	Titanium	13
4.3.3	Bronze	13
4.3.4	Copper	13
4.3.5	Iron	13
4.3.6	Steel	13
4.3.7	Carbon Steel	13
4.3.8	Stainless steel	13
4.3.9	Metal Alloys	13
4.4	Metal Hardening	14
4.4.1	Bulk Hardening	14
4.4.2	Case Hardening	15
4.4.3	Hardening by Microstructural Control	15
4.4.4	Thermo-Mechanical Treatments	16
5	Machining	17
6	Molding	19

7	Electronics Manufacturing	21
8	Semiconductors Manufacturing	23
9	Metrology	25

Chapter 1

Scope

Chapter 2

Finite Element Method (FEM)

2.1 Introduction

The **Finite Element Method (FEM)** is a numerical technique for solving boundary value problems in engineering and mathematical physics. It subdivides a large problem into smaller, simpler parts called *finite elements*, and then systematically reassembles them into a global solution.

Can be used for different types of analysis.

- Solid mechanics:
 - Static analysis;
 - Dynamic analysis;
 - Buckling analysis;
 - Modal analysis;
- Fluid mechanics;
- Heat transfer;
- Electromagnetic;

2.2 Key Concepts

- **Domain Discretization:** The problem domain is divided into finite elements (triangles, quadrilaterals, tetrahedra, etc.), which creates a *mesh*. There are also different dimensions the element can be, i.e., 1D: Line, 2D: surface, 3D: solid;
- **Field variables:** the forces affect the solid object in static analysis, e.g. stresses, strains, displacement.
- **Displacement vector:** each node, i.e., a connection point to another element, has some degrees of freedom that represent axial, bending, shear and torsional in the case of a line element. For a line element the displacement vector $\{u\}$ will be $\{u_1, v_1, \theta_1, u_2, v_2, \theta_2\}^T$, see figure ?? . Displacement vector $\{u\} = \{u_1, v_1, w_1, \theta_{x1}, \theta_{y1}, \theta_{z1}, u_2, v_2, w_2, \theta_{x2}, \theta_{y2}, \theta_{z2}\}^T$
- **Shape Functions:** Interpolation functions (often denoted by ϕ_i) that approximate the solution within each element.

- **Weak Formulation:** The problem is reformulated into a *weak* or *variational form*, typically by applying the method of weighted residuals.
- **Stiffness Matrix:** A system of algebraic equations is derived from the weak form, resulting in a global stiffness matrix \mathbf{K} .

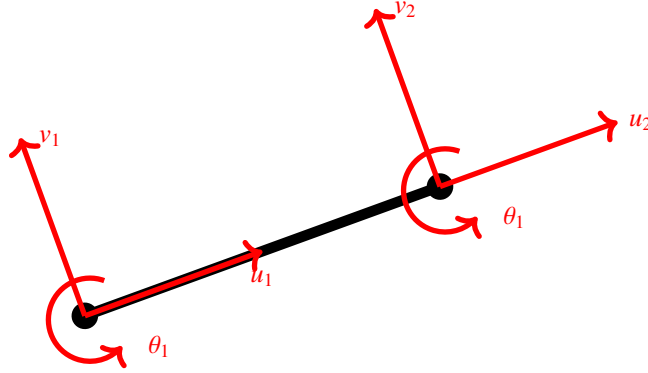


Figure 2.1: fig:displacement-vector

2.3 Steps in FEM

1. **Discretization of the Domain:** Divide the domain into finite elements.
2. **Selection of Shape Functions:** Choose shape functions ϕ_i to approximate the solution.
3. **Derivation of Element Equations:** Formulate the element stiffness matrix \mathbf{K}_e and force vector \mathbf{F}_e .
4. **Assembly of Global System:** Assemble all element equations into a global system:

$$\mathbf{K}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{F}$$

where \mathbf{K} is the global stiffness matrix, \mathbf{u} is the nodal displacement vector, and \mathbf{F} is the global force vector.

5. **Application of Boundary Conditions:** Apply constraints and boundary conditions to the system.
6. **Solution of Algebraic Equations:** Solve the resulting system of equations for nodal values.
7. **Post-Processing:** Compute derived quantities (stresses, strains) and visualize results.

2.4 Mathematical Formulation

Weak Form: For a general PDE of the form: $\mathcal{L}(u) = f$ in Ω with boundary conditions: $u = u_D$ on Γ_D and $\nabla u \cdot \mathbf{n} = q$ on Γ_N . The weak form is: $\int_{\Omega} \phi \mathcal{L}(u) d\Omega = \int_{\Omega} \phi f d\Omega + \int_{\Gamma_N} \phi q d\Gamma$ for all test functions ϕ .

2.5 Advantages and Applications

- **Advantages:**

- Can handle complex geometries and boundary conditions.
- Applicable to various types of problems (structural, thermal, fluid dynamics).

- **Applications:**

- Structural analysis (stress and deformation).
- Heat transfer.
- Fluid flow.
- Electromagnetic fields.

Chapter 3

Computer Aided Design

Chapter 4

Material Science

4.1 Plastics

4.1.1 Nylon

4.1.2 PLA

4.1.3 ABS

4.2 Composites

4.2.1 Carbon Fiber

4.2.2 Kevlar

4.3 Metals

4.3.1 Aluminum

4.3.2 Titanium

4.3.3 Bronze

4.3.4 Copper

4.3.5 Iron

4.3.6 Steel

4.3.7 Carbon Steel

4.3.8 Stainless steel

4.3.9 Metal Alloys

4.4 Metal Hardening

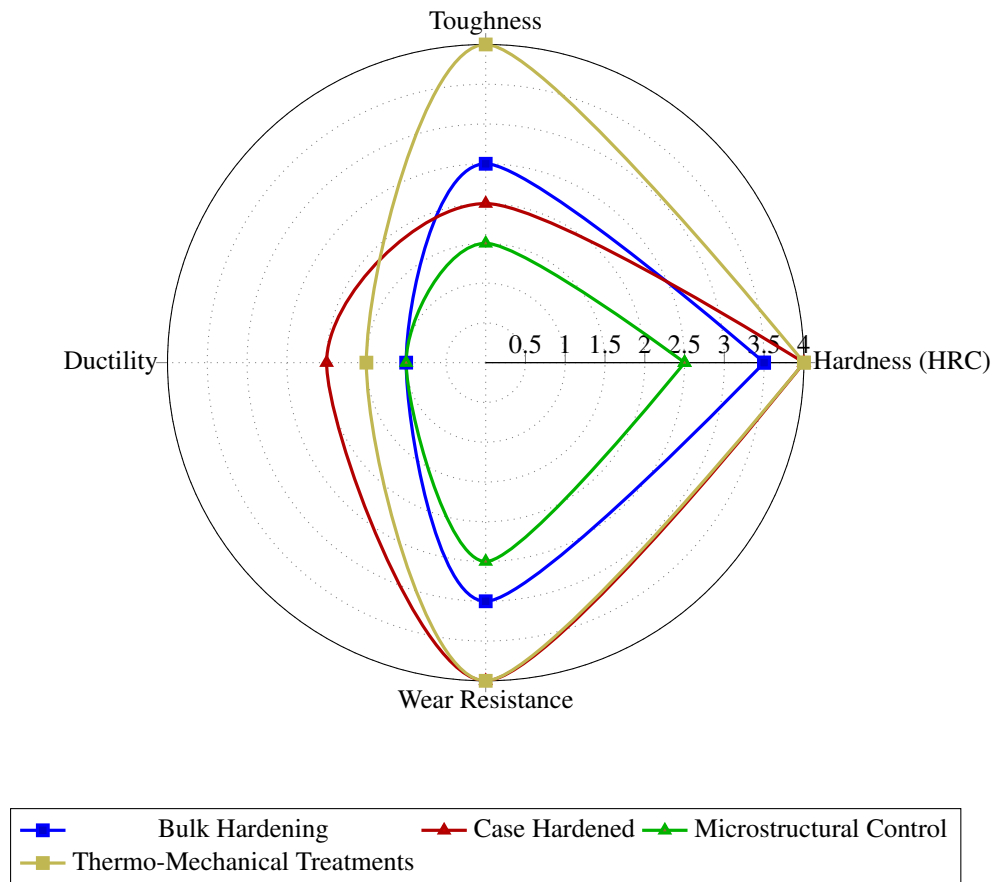


Figure 4.1: Metal hardening processes and there resulting material properties

4.4.1 Bulk Hardening

These processes change the microstructure throughout the entire part, primarily for ferrous metals (steels).

Quenching and Tempering

- **Process:** Austenitizing (heating to a high temperature), then rapidly cooling (quenching) in oil, water, or polymer to form a very hard, brittle martensitic structure. This is followed by tempering (reheating to a lower temperature) to reduce brittleness and achieve the desired toughness/hardness balance.
- **Result:** High strength and good toughness.

Austempering

- **Process:** An interrupted quench where the steel is cooled rapidly to a temperature above martensite formation and held (isothermally transformed) to form bainite.
- **Result:** Good strength and ductility with less distortion than conventional quench and temper.

Martempering

- **Process:** Similar to austempering, but the part is cooled through the martensite transformation range and then tempered. The martensite transformation range is the specific temperature interval during rapid cooling where austenite in a steel transforms into martensite, starting at the Martensite Start (Ms) temperature and ending at the Martensite Finish (Mf) temperature. The goal is to minimize thermal stress and distortion.
- **Result:** Martensite structure with reduced risk of cracking and distortion.

4.4.2 Case Hardening

These processes harden only the outer surface ("case") of the part while maintaining a softer, tougher interior ("core"). Ideal for wear-resistant components that must withstand impact.

Carburizing

- **Process:** The part is heated in a carbon-rich environment (gas, solid, or liquid). Carbon diffuses into the surface, creating a high-carbon layer. It is subsequently quenched to harden the carbon-rich case.
- **Result:** A hard, wear-resistant surface over a tough core.

Nitriding

- **Process:** The part is heated in an atmosphere of ammonia gas or plasma (ion nitriding). Nitrogen atoms diffuse into the surface, forming very hard nitride compounds without the need for a quenching step.
- **Result:** Extremely hard surface, excellent wear and fatigue resistance, minimal distortion.

Carbonitriding

- **Process:** Similar to gas carburizing, but the atmosphere contains both carbon and nitrogen. This allows for hardening at a slightly lower temperature.
- **Result:** A hard case with better hardenability than carburizing alone.

Induction Hardening

- **Process:** An alternating current is passed through a copper coil, generating a localized magnetic field that rapidly heats the surface of a steel part. The part is then immediately quenched.
- **Result:** A localized, hard surface layer. Very fast and efficient.

Flame Hardening

- **Process:** Similar to induction hardening, but an oxy-acetylene flame is used to heat the surface instead of an electromagnetic induction.
- **Result:** A hard surface layer. More suitable for large parts or low-volume production.

4.4.3 Hardening by Microstructural Control

These methods strengthen a material by altering its internal structure through chemistry or processing.

Precipitation Hardening

- **Process:** Primarily for aluminum, magnesium, nickel, and stainless steels. The alloy is solution treated, quenched, and then aged (heated to a moderate temperature). Fine particles "precipitate" within the matrix, impeding dislocation movement.
- **Result:** Very high strength-to-weight ratio.

Work Hardening

- **Process:** A metal is plastically deformed at a temperature below its recrystallization point (e.g., by cold rolling, hammering, drawing). This deformation increases dislocation density, making further deformation more difficult.
- **Result:** Increased strength and hardness, but decreased ductility.

Solid Solution Hardening

- **Process:** The base metal (solvent) has atoms of an alloying element (solute) dissolved within its crystal lattice. The solute atoms distort the lattice, creating stress fields that impede dislocation motion.
- **Result:** A stronger, harder alloy than the pure metal. (e.g., Brass is harder than pure copper due to zinc atoms in solution).

4.4.4 Thermo-Mechanical Treatments

These combine controlled plastic deformation and heat treatment to achieve superior properties.

Ausforming

- **Process:** Steel is plastically deformed in a metastable austenitic condition (after cooling from austenitizing but before transforming to pearlite or bainite) and then quenched to form martensite.
- **Result:** Exceptional combination of strength and toughness.

Chapter 5

Machining

Chapter 6

Molding

Chapter 7

Electronics Manufacturing

Chapter 8

Semiconductors Manufacturing

Chapter 9

Metrology