Effect of Sinter Additives on the Consolidation and Properties of Titanium Diboride Composites

By

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Recommendation of the Viva Voce Board

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This is to certify that the thesis titled, "Effect of Sinter Additives on the Consolidation and Properties of Titanium Diboride Composites" submitted by Shri Tammana Sree Rama Chandra Murthy to Homi Bhabha National Institute, Mumbai for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is a bona fide record of the research work carried out by him under my (our) supervision and guidance. The content of the thesis, in full or parts have not been submitted to any other Institute or University for the award of any other degree or diploma.

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ISton (T.S.R.Ch.Murthy)

DECLARATION

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I, hereby declare that the investigations presented in the thesis have been carried out by me. The work is original and has not been submitted earlier as a whole or in part for a degree / diploma at this or any other Institution / University.

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International Journal Publications out of this thesis

- T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, J.K.Sonber, C.Subramanian, R.C.Hubli N.Krishnamurthy and A.K.Suri, "Densification, characterization and oxidation studies of (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂," Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater. 37, 12-28 (2013).
- [2] T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, J.K.Sonber, C.Subramanian, R.C.Hubli N.Krishnamurthy and A.K.Suri, "Densification and Oxidation behavior of a novel TiB₂ - MoSi₂ - CrB₂ composite" Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater. 36, 243-253 (2013)
- [3] T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, J.K.Sonber, C.Subramanian, R.C.Hubli and A.K.Suri,
 "Densification, Characterization and Oxidation studies of TiB₂ + WSi₂ composite" Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater. 33, 10-21 (2012)
- [4] T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, 'J.K.Sonber, C.Subramanian, R.K.Fotedar, Sunil Kumar, M.R.Gonal and A. K. Suri, "A New TiB₂ + CrSi₂ composite - Densification, Characterization and oxidation studies" Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater.28, 529-540 (2010)
- [5] T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, C.Subramanian, R.K.Fotedar, M.R.Gonal, P.Sengupta, Sunil Kumar, A.K.Suri "Preparation and property evaluation of TiB₂+TiSi₂ composite" International Journal of Refractory Metals and Hard Materials; 27, 629–636 (2009)
- [6] T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, J.K.Sonber, C.Subramanian, R.K.Fotedar, M.R.Gonal and A. K. Suri; "Effect of CrB₂ addition on densification, properties and oxidation resistance of TiB₂", Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater., 27[6], 976-984 (2009)
- [7] J. K. Sonber, T. S. R. Ch. Murthy, C. Subramanian, Sunil Kumar, R. K. Fotedar and A. K. Suri, Investigation on synthesis, pressureless sintering and hot pressing of chromium diboride Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater.; 27, 912-918 (2009)

T.S.R.Ch.Murthy)

Dedicated to my dear Parents, Spouse and Gurují

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(T.S.R.Ch.Murthy)

Preface

Completing the Ph.D degree has been one of the most cherished dreams of my life right from the early days of my graduation. The outcome of the dreams comes in the form of the present Ph.D thesis. This thesis is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Ph.D degree at the Homi Bhabha National Institute, Mumbai, India. The thesis presents the results obtained during my work at the Materials Processing Division, Materials Group, BARC during the period of September, 2007 to August, 2012. The work has been performed under the supervision of **Professor Ashok Kumar Suri**, former Director, Materials Group (MG), BARC and Professor Nagaiyar Krishnamurthy, Outstanding Scientist and Head, Fusion Reactor Materials Section, MG, BARC. The motivation for the work presented in this thesis is the fact that titanium diboride (TiB_2) is a structural ceramic material that is attracting attention as the base material for a range of high technological applications. However, consolidation of TiB_2 is difficult due to low self-diffusion coefficient and existence of surface oxides on the powder particles. Silicides were considered as possible additives because of their ability to reduce the surface oxides thereby enhancing densification. Moreover silicides are also expected to improve high temperature oxidation resistance by the formation of a protective glassy layer on the surface which would impede further oxidation. The ultimate aim of this thesis is to arrive at a high performance TiB_2 material which should have full density, high fracture toughness and superior oxidation resistance as compared to the conventional TiB₂. Carrying out experimental studies on these aspects has resulted in a number of peer-reviewed international publications. Paper 1 & 7 are directly related to materials synthesis and it served as the foundation of this thesis. Papers 1 to 6 are related to densification, microstructural characterization and oxidation studies of six different composites, which were developed in our laboratory.

In addition, results have been presented and published in a number of international and national meetings and symposium proceedings.

Peer-reviewed International Publications from the PhD work are listed below:

[1] T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, J.K.Sonber, C.Subramanian, R.C.Hubli N.Krishnamurthy and A.K.Suri, "Densification, characterization and oxidation studies of (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂," Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater. 37, 12-28 (2013).

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- [2] T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, J.K.Sonber, C.Subramanian, R.C.Hubli N.Krishnamurthy and A.K.Suri, "Densification and Oxidation behavior of a novel TiB₂ - MoSi₂ - CrB₂ composite" Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater. 36, 243-253 (2013)
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- [7] J. K. Sonber, T. S. R. Ch. Murthy, C. Subramanian, Sunil Kumar, R. K. Fotedar and A. K. Suri, Investigation on synthesis, pressureless sintering and hot pressing of chromium diboride Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater.; 27, 912-918 (2009)

(T.S.R.Ch.Murthy)

Acronyms

K : Kelvin T : temperature G : Gibbs free energy t:time μ : micron Ω : resistance Δ : change m : mass Q: activation energy *Pa*: Pascal p : pressure ρ : density σ : conductivity *V* : volume %: weight percent (unless otherwise specified) K_p: parabolic rate constant K_m : general rate constant m: general rate equations exponent Δw : change in weight A: surface area R: resistance I: current TD: theoretical density RD: relative density Kg: kilogram g: gram

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SYNOPSIS OF THE THESIS TO BE SUBMITTED TO THE HOMI BHABHA NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ENGINEERING SCIENCES



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Title: Effect of Sinter Additives on the Consolidation and Properties of Titanium Diboride Composites Preamble

Titanium diboride is a material of interest for future high temperature applications in aggressive environments and it would be one of the attractive materials in nuclear reactors as a neutron absorber. However, there are difficulties in the fabrication of this material with high density and high fracture toughness. Though these properties can be achieved with some additives which may be either in the form of metal or ceramic, the choice of appropriate additives hitherto remains challenge. Our study is focused on the experimental investigations of ceramic additives to enhance the densification and fracture toughness. Metallic additives by and large were not considered due to limitation of their use at high temperatures.

The additive to start with should have low vapour pressure and high melting point. Its thermal conductivity and co-efficient of thermal expansion should be similar to the matrix material viz. titanium diboride. It is also important that these additives form protective or passive oxide layer for protection in aggressive environment.

The objective of present study is to synthesize and consolidate TiB_2 with various ceramic additives such as silicides, borides and combined borides and silicides ($CrSi_2$, $TiSi_2$, WSi_2 , CrB_2 , CrB_2 + MoSi_2 to TiB_2). This study also includes the compound such as pre alloyed (TiCr) B_2 with the aim of investigating the advantages and properties of composite formed with this additive. The ultimate aim of this thesis is to arrive at a high performance TiB_2 material which should have high density, high fracture toughness and superior oxidation resistance as compared to the monolithic TiB_2 .

Figure 1 summarises the scheme of present study i.e. effect of silicide additives on densification and oxidation behaviour of TiB_2 . Our investigations and results on the addition of ceramic additives are presented in this thesis in seven chapters, a brief account of each chapter is given below.

Chapter-I presents the introduction, objectives and work plan of the present work. Titanium diboride (TiB_2) is a structural ceramic material that is attracting attention as the base material for a range of high technological applications. However, consolidation of TiB_2 is difficult due to low self-diffusion coefficient and existence of surface oxides on the powder particles. Silicides were considered as possible additives because of their ability to reduce the surface oxides thereby enhancing densification. Moreover silicides are also expected to improve high temperature oxidation resistance by the formation of a protective glassy layer on the surface which would impede further oxidation.

Chapter II (Literature Survey)

A detailed literature survey on the synthesis and consolidation of TiB_2 is presented. Effect of various metallic and non-metallic additives on densification and thermo mechanical behaviour of TiB_2 with relative merits and de-merits are enumerated. The potential applications of this material and need for a high performance TiB_2 composite is emphasised.





Chapter III (Materials, Equipments and Experimental Procedure)

In this chapter, experimental details of the preparation of TiB_2 and various other materials used as sinter additives, densification, and characterization of start and sintered materials as well as the equipment used are described.

A number of equipments and instruments have been used in the present study. A description and working principle of each of the instrument/equipment is given in this chapter in a chronological order. These facilities are broadly classified into four categories: 1) milling equipments 2) furnaces 3) sample preparation/fabrication equipment and 4) characterization instruments.

In the present work, TiB_2 , CrB_2 and pre-alloyed $(TiCr)B_2$ were synthesized by carbothermic reduction of the respective oxides in the presence of boron carbide. Various sinter additives (silicides and boride) are used in the present study. These materials were either prepared in the laboratory or procured from the commercial sources.

Starting powders viz., TiB₂, (TiCr)B₂, CrB₂ and MoSi₂ were synthesized and characterized. Experimental procedure adopted to carry out the synthesis and characterization of these materials is fully described. Similarly experimental procedure of consolidation of composites, which were carried out by vacuum hot pressing and pressureless sintering are also described. Phase identification and microstructural characterization method of dense pellets are described. Mechanical and physical property evaluation methods and experimental procedure of densified samples are described.

Oxidation studies of these composites were carried out in the temperature range of 1023 to 1273K (750 to 1000°C). Continuous oxidation studies were carried out in TGA

and isothermal oxidation studies in muffle furnace for all the composites. Oxidized samples were characterized by XRD, XPS and SEM-EDS.

Chapter-IV (Results and Discussion on Synthesis of starting powders)

This chapter presents the results of investigations carried out on synthesis of titanium diboride and, chromium diboride by carbothermic reduction of respective oxides with boron carbide and carbon. Pre-alloyed $(TiCr)B_2$ synthesized by co-reduction of mixed oxides with boron carbide and carbon. Details of synthesis of MoSi₂ by direct elemental reaction are also presented in this chapter. CrB_2 and $MoSi_2$ were used as sintering additives to TiB₂ and $(TiCr)B_2$ for preparing the composites.

Chapter V (Results and Discussion on Densification, Microstructure, Mechanical and Physical Properties)

This chapter has been divided in to three sections. Section I presents the results of densification of the composites. Section II is concerned with the phase identification and microstructural characterization together with thermodynamic analysis to understand the densification mechanism. Section III presents results on the physical and mechanical properties of the developed composites and structure property relations to understand the toughening mechanisms.

Section-I: (Densification)

Effect of various sinter additives on densification of TiB_2 by hot pressing are presented in Fig. 2. Near theoretical density was obtained with the addition of 5 wt.% WSi_2 to TiB_2 as compared with all the other additives. It was observed that with increase in amount of sinter additive the density value was found to decrease in the case of TiB_2 composites with CrB_2 and $CrSi_2$. However the density remained constant in the case of

WSi₂ and TiSi₂ content in TiB₂. Combined addition of CrB_2 and MoSi₂ however improved the density to \geq 95% TD.



Fig. 2: Effect of various sinter additives on densification of TiB₂ (Line joining points are for visual aid only)
 Section-II: (Phase identification and Microstructural characterization)

Densified pellets were characterized by XRD, SEM-EDS, EPMA and attempt has been made to explain the mechanisms of densification and strengthening. XRD analysis confirmed that the hot pressed pellets contained several reaction products between TiB₂ and the additives.

XRD pattern of the hot pressed $TiB_2 + TiSi_2$ samples showed the presence of Ti_5Si_3 in all the samples. XRD patterns of hot pressed $TiB_2 + CrSi_2$ pellets revealed the presence of TiB_2 and $CrSi_2$ phases, thus indicating the absence of any new phase due to reaction. Although TiB_2 and $CrSi_2$ peaks were identified in both the starting mixture and the hot pressed pellet, the decrease in intensity and number of $CrSi_2$ peaks, absence of any reaction products and small shift in TiB_2 peaks, indicate the formation of solid solution of TiB_2 with $CrSi_2$ in the hot pressed pellets. Similar observations were also noticed in the case of $TiB_2 + CrB_2$ composites. The disappearance of CrB_2 and a slight shift in the position of TiB_2 peaks clearly indicated the formation of solid solution of TiB_2 and CrB_2 . In $TiB_2 + WSi_2$ system, XRD patterns of starting powders showed the presence of TiB_2 , WSi_2 and Ti_6O_{11} , whereas hot pressed pellet showed the presence of W_5Si_3 , SiO_2 and TiB_2 phases. SiO_2 formation helped in enhancing the densification by liquid phase sintering. The number of peaks and the intensity of W_5Si_3 and SiO_2 peaks are seen to increase with increase in the addition of WSi_2 from 5 to 15%.

The quantity of reaction products with less than 5% additive was not sufficient and therefore analysis by SEM-EDS was rather difficult. Hence, samples with 10% sinter additive were chosen for SEM - EDS analysis. Back Scattered Electron (BSE) image of TiB₂ + 10%WSi₂ sample revealed two distinct types of regions in the microstructure: grey matrix and white regions. The white region shows the presence of silicon and W whereas Ti was present in grey region. Line scan and elemental mapping for Ti, Si and W across the grey and white regions are presented in this chapter. Back Scattered Electron image (BSE) of $TiB_2 + 10\%TiSi_2$ sample showed three distinct regions as grey matrix, and black & white spots in the matrix. More details on the origin of phases and their chemical composition will be elaborately discussed in this chapter. BSE image of TiB_2 + 10%CrSi₂ sample revealed three distinct types of regions; dark grey matrix, black and white regions. Line scan for Ti, Si and Cr across the white and black regions were carried out. The black region showed the presence of silicon only (Cr is absent) whereas Ti and Cr are present in white region. BSE image of $(TiCr)B_2 + MoSi_2$ sample revealed three types of regions; grey matrix, black and white spots. More details on the EPMA/EDS results and analysis of all the composites will be presented in this chapter. In addition fractography and crack propagation patterns were analyzed to explain the mode of fracture and the crack propagation mechanisms in all the composites. Crack deflection, bridging and branching mechanisms were mainly observed in these composites.

Section-III: (Physical and Mechanical Properties)

Hardness and fracture toughness values of all the composites were measured. Variation of the hardness value is dependent on the density, nature of second phase and its quantity in the composite. Similarly the fracture toughness also depends on the above cited parameters. Physical properties like coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE), electrical resistivity were measured in the temperature range of RT - 1273K (1000°C).

Vickers hardness values of composites of TiB₂ with 2.5% and 5% TiSi₂ were found to be 18 ± 2 and 25 ± 2 GPa respectively. The hardness value of composite with 2.5% CrSi₂ (99.89% TD) was 29 ± 2 GPa. With increased addition of CrSi₂ the hardness decreased linearly and the hardness of composites with 5%, 10% and 15% CrSi₂ were measured as 28 ± 3 , 26 ± 2 and 22 ± 3 GPa respectively. Hardness values of the composite with varying WSi₂ were measured to be in the range of 24 - 26 GPa. Hardness values of all the TiB₂ + CrB₂ composites are close to 24 GPa. With increased addition of CrB₂ in TiB₂ + x%CrB₂ + 20%MoSi₂ composite the hardness decreased linearly and the hardness of composites with 5%, 10% and 15% CrB₂ were measured as 24 ± 1 , 19 ± 1 and 18 ± 1 GPa respectively. Hardness values of all the (TiCr)B₂ + 20%MoSi₂ composites are in the range of 24 - 27 GPa.

Measured indentation fracture toughness of monolithic TiB₂ was 3.78 ± 1.5 MPa.m^{1/2}, and those with the addition of TiSi₂ were in the range of 4-6 MPa.m^{1/2}. Indentation fracture toughness of TiB₂ + 2.5% CrSi₂ was found to be 5.97 ± 0.61 MPa.m^{1/2}, which decreased to 3.41 ± 0.94 MPa.m^{1/2} with increased addition of 15% CrSi₂. Fracture toughness of TiB₂+WSi₂ composite was moderately higher i.e., in the range of 4-6 MPa.m^{1/2} compared to 3-4 MPa.m^{1/2} for monolithic TiB₂. Average indentation fracture toughness of 2.5, 5 and 10% CrB₂ composites were found as 2.80 ± 0.13, 4.30 ± 0.38 and 4.99 ± 0.99 MPa·m^{1/2} respectively. Average CTE values of 6.4, 6.6, 7.2 and 6.8 x 10^{-6} K⁻¹ were measured over a temperature range i.e. 473 - 1173 K (200 - 900° C) for TiB₂ + TiSi₂, TiB₂ + CrSi₂, TiB₂ + WSi₂ and TiB₂ + CrB₂ composites respectively.

Chapter VI (Results and Discussion on Oxidation studies)

This chapter discusses about the continuous and isothermal oxidation studies of the developed TiB_2 composites. Specific weight gain vs. time plots were fitted in parabolic and general rate equations to calculate the rate constants and to determine the slope of the oxidation curve. Salient results of the oxidation studies are given briefly in the following two sections.

Section I (Non Isothermal/Continuous Oxidation)

TGA plot on continuous oxidation of TiB₂ composites in O₂ showed three different stages of weight gain: 1) no change in sample weight up to 673-873K (400-600°C), 2) a gradual weight gain between 873 to 1073K (600 to 800°C)/ sudden increase in weight gain and 3) a steep weight gain above 1073K (800°C). For all composites (except TiB₂ + CrB₂), the total specific weight gain is found to be less than 30 x 10^{-3} kg/m² and the rate of weight gain are similar. In case of TiB₂+CrB₂, the total specific weight gain is found to be in the range of 55 to 65 x 10^{-3} kg/m². Morphology of the oxidized surfaces was taken in SEM.

Section II (Isothermal Oxidation)

This section presents on the results and discussion of isothermal oxidation studies. Mechanism of oxidation was understood from the kinetics data. XRD and SEM analysis were used to identify the oxidized products and their morphology.

An increase in weight with time is noted in all the samples. With increasing quantity of sinter additive, decrease in weight gain rate is seen in all the samples. In order to understand the nature of oxidation, the oxidation data was fitted in the general rate equation: $(\Delta w/A)^m = K_m.t$; The

nature of oxidation was observed from linear to parabolic as seen by the slope of the curve ('m' value) in different composites. To understand the kinetics of oxidation, the data was analyzed using the parabolic law: $(\Delta w/A)^2 = K_p.t.$ Parabolic rate constants of the composites are in the order 10^{-7} to 10^{-11} Kg m⁻⁴ s⁻¹. More details of the oxidized surfaces were analyzed by XRD, SEM-EDS and XPS. Cross section of the TiB₂ + 15%CrB₂ + MoSi₂ oxidized surface after 256h was characterized by SEM-EDS. Outer most layer of oxidized surface is seen to be that of boron oxide. The next inner layer is seen to be that of silicon oxide. Higher silicon content is seen from 5 to 60 µm from the outer layer. This shows that silicon and boron migrates to the outer surface. Various possible overall oxidation reactions are presented and the free energy of formation for these reactions at 0.21 atm partial pressure of oxygen was calculated. Effect of various sinter additives (TiSi₂/CrSi₂/CrB₂/WSi₂/MoSi₂) and its quantity on oxidation behavior of TiB₂ is analyzed and presented in this chapter.

Chapter VII (Summary)

Synthesis of borides by a process (boron carbide reduction) which avoid elemental constituent process is amenable to control the yields product consistently and robust for execution. A persistent challenge in the use of (TiB_2) borides is getting in the form of consolidated dense bodies. The inapplicability of cold compaction and sintering is established and the superiority of hot pressing for consolidation is also demonstrated for obtains the dense composites. Possible mechanisms for densification by hot pressing are brought out. Technological useful properties (hardness, fracture toughness, flexural strength, coefficient of thermal expansion and electrical resistivity) of the consolidated composites have been measured and the oxidation behavior of these composites also has been evaluated. The role of various additives in consolidation and their

influence on the properties including oxidation resistance also has been brought out. The major findings of the present thesis have been summarized below:

1) WSi₂ and TiSi₂ have been found to be effective sinter additives to TiB₂. Compacts with near theoretical density were obtained with the addition of \geq 5% WSi₂/TiSi₂ by hot pressing at 1823/1873 K (1550/1600° C), 30 MPa.

2) Improved fracture toughness (4.6-6.3 MPa.m^{1/2}) values were measured in TiB₂ composites. Crack branching, deflection and bridging mechanisms were responsible for improved fracture toughness values. However, hardness values decreased from 32 to 20-29 GPa in the developed composites compared with monolithic TiB₂.

3) Isothermal and continuous oxidation studies show the minimum weight gain in the developed composites. Nature of the oxidation changed from linear to parabolic with increasing quantity of sinter additive. $TiB_2 + WSi_2$ composite exhibits superior oxidation resistance as compared to other TiB_2 composites with MoSi₂, $TiSi_2$, CrB_2 and $CrSi_2$.

 Microscopic observation of the oxidized surface (≥10% sinter additive) presented a crack free continuous, dense and protective glassy layer.

5) From the present studies, $(TiCr)B_2 + 20\%MoSi_2$ composite is found as the best composite with respect to densification, fracture toughness and oxidation resistance.

List of International Journal Publications included in the present thesis

- T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, J.K.Sonber, C.Subramanian, R.C.Hubli N.Krishnamurthy and A.K.Suri, "Densification, characterization and oxidation studies of (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂," Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater. . 37, 12-28 (2013)
- T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, J.K.Sonber, C.Subramanian, R.C.Hubli N.Krishnamurthy and A.K.Suri, "Densification and Oxidation behavior of a novel TiB₂ - MoSi₂ - CrB₂ composite" Int. J. Refract. Met. Hard Mater. 36, 243-253 (2013)
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- 5. T.S.R.Ch.Murthy, J.K.Sonber; "Evaluation of sintering mechanism and mechanical properties of boride based composites by microstructure using EPMA /SEM with EDAX" Microtexture and Microstructure (Microstructure-2009) organized by Materials Research Society of India (MRSI), Mumbai Chapter. (2009)
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CHAPTER 1

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, OBJECTIVES AND WORK PLAN OF PRESENT STUDY 1.1 Introduction

Structural ceramics are suitable for high temperature applications due to their high melting point and retention of strength up to high temperatures. Titanium diboride (TiB₂) is a structural ceramic material that is attracting attention as the base material for a range of high technological applications [1-5]. TiB₂ has many attractive properties, including exceptional hardness (approximately 25–35 GPa at room temperature which makes it more than three times harder than fully hardened structural steel), which is retained up to high temperature. It has high melting point (~3500K), good creep resistance, good thermal conductivity (65 W/m/K), high electrical conductivity and considerable chemical stability [5]. This combination of properties makes TiB₂ a candidate material for heavy duty wear applications, at elevated temperatures. TiB₂ can also be used as control rod and shielding material in nuclear reactors because it contains boron and which has ability to absorb fast and slow neutrons without forming long lived radionuclide. Absorption cross section of TiB₂ for fast neutrons can be enhanced by having compounds with enriched B¹⁰ isotope during the synthesis of TiB₂. Natural boron contains about 19% B¹⁰ isotope and remaining is B¹¹ [1-8].

For high temperature applications, chemical stability is an important factor. TiB_2 is more stable in contact with pure iron as compared to WC or Si_3N_4 . TiB_2 based materials should therefore be preferable for engineering applications as compared to WC based materials for high temperature applications [5]. Its chemical inertness at high temperatures and good electrical conductivity (~10⁵ S/cm) make TiB₂ an excellent candidate for special electrical applications, e.g. cathodes for aluminum electrosmelting (Hall-Heroult process) [5,8-10]. However, monolithic TiB₂ has relatively low fracture toughness (<5 MPa.m^{1/2}), it's sensitive to slow subcritical crack growth and its oxidation resistance is only moderate. These characteristics limit its use in many engineering applications. The self-diffusion coefficient of monolithic TiB₂ is also low and this makes it very difficult to densify [4,5]. One option to improve the sinterability/toughness of boride and carbide materials leads to an important class of composite structural materials, popularly known as cermets, wherein a metallic binder is used to obtain dense bulk materials. TiB₂ based cermets typically contain TiB₂ as the major phase, bonded with a metallic phase (Co–Ni). Cemented borides with a metallic binder have been developed in the TiB₂–Fe system. These materials are novel lower density and higher hardness substitutes for the WC–Co system [1-10].

Metallic additives like Ni, Fe, Cr, Al have been used to densify TiB₂ with retention of room temperature properties, but the presence of metallic additives in TiB₂ is not acceptable for high temperature applications. The presence of metallic binder is problematic due to the low melting point of either metallic additives or sintering reaction product which may lead to incipient fusion and consequent degradation of high temperature properties [4,5]. In view of the above, research has progressed towards the densification of TiB₂ using non-metallic sinter additives like oxides (Al₂O₃, ZrO₂), carbides (B₄C, SiC, TiC, WC), nitrides (AlN, Si₃N₄), silicides (MoSi₂, TiSi₂), and borides (CrB₂, ZrB₂). Among these additives, silicides have attracted considerable interest due to their compatibility with borides to densify at lower temperatures [5,8]. Silicides were considered as possible additives because of their ability to reduce the surface oxides thereby enhancing densification. Moreover silicides are also expected to improve high temperature oxidation resistance by the formation of a protective glassy layer on the surface which would impede further oxidation.

As reinforcement, TiB_2 is also incorporated in several ceramic microstructures to obtain improved mechanical properties. The addition of TiB_2 to an Al_2O_3 or Si_3N_4 matrix considerably increases hardness, strength, fracture toughness and electrical conductivity. Such composites have been used in wear parts, cutting tools and heat exchangers. These electro-conductive toughened ceramics can be shaped by electro discharge machining (EDM) to manufacture complex components, greatly increasing the number of potential industrial applications [5,8].

1.2 Objectives

Though some work has been reported earlier with the addition of $TiSi_2$, WSi_2 , $MoSi_2$ and CrB_2 in pressureless/ microwave sintering and hot pressing of TiB_2 composites, detailed studies on the preparation and characterization of TiB_2+WSi_2 , TiB_2+CrB_2 , TiB_2+CrSi_2 and combined addition of $MoSi_2$ and CrB_2 composite have not been reported so far. Available Literature data on these composites are summarized in Table 1.1. The objective of present study is to synthesize and consolidate TiB_2 with various ceramic additives such as silicides, borides and a combination of borides and silicides ($CrSi_2$, $TiSi_2$, WSi_2 , CrB_2 , CrB_2 + $MoSi_2$ to TiB_2). This study also includes the compound such as pre alloyed (TiCr) B_2 with the aim of investigating the advantages and properties of composite formed with this additive. The ultimate aim of this thesis is to arrive at a high performance TiB_2 material which should have high density, high fracture toughness and superior oxidation resistance as compared to the conventional TiB_2 .

1.3 Work Plan

Figure 1.1 summarizes the scheme of the present study i.e. synthesis of start materials, the additives that have been studied, the effect of silicide additives on densification and oxidation behaviour of TiB_2 and on the physical and mechanical properties. All these are presented in this thesis in seven chapters.



Fig. 1.1 Scheme for the present thesis work

Sr. No.	Sinter additive	Processing conditions	Densification results	Mechanical properties	Physical properties	Oxidation results	Ref. no.
1	TiSi ₂	HP 1650° C, 30MPa, Ar	>99%TD and reaction product: Ti ₅ Si ₃	Hv- 23-25 GPa K _{IC} - 4-6 MPa m ^{1/2}	Elastic Modululs: 470- 520 GPa	Near parabolic covered with SiO ₂ , borosilicate glass and TiO ₂	Raju et.al [11-13]
2	CrSi ₂			No work report	ed		
3	WSi ₂	1700° C, 60 min	>98%TD	Not s	tudied	Resistant to aluminum liquid corrosion	Lu et.al. [14]
4	MoSi ₂	HP 1700° C,60 min, vacuum	>98%TD and reaction product: TiSi ₂	Hv- 25-27 GPa K _{IC} - 4-5 MPa m ^{1/2}	TC: 50 W/m/K	Very poor due to Pesting of MoSi ₂	Murthy et.al. [4,15]
5	CrB ₂	MW at 2100°C,30 min, Ar	98%TD	27.0 DPH K_{IC} - 6.1 $MPa.m^{1/2}$	Not st	udied	Holco mbe et.al [16]
6	$CrB_2 + MoSi_2$			No work report	ed		
7	(TiCr)B ₂			No work report	ed		
8	(TiCr)B ₂ +MoSi ₂			No work report	ed		

Table 1.1 Summary on the available literature data of the similar TiB₂ composites

Detailed literature survey on the synthesis and consolidation of TiB_2 is presented in chapter 2. Effect of various metallic and non-metallic additives on densification and thermomechanical behaviour of TiB_2 with attendant merits and de-merits are enumerated. The potential applications of this material and need for a high performance TiB_2 composite is emphasised in chapter-2. Chapter 3 presents the experimental procedures. Results and discussions are presented in Chapters 4, 5 and 6 respectively. Synthesis of starting powders such as TiB_2 , CrB_2 and $MoSi_2$ is described in chapter 4. Chapter 5 is divided into three sub-sections, which include consolidation by pressureless sintering and hot pressing, physical and mechanical properties and microstructural characterization. Isothermal and continuous oxidation studies and its results are presented in chapter 6. Major findings of the present thesis are summarized in chapter 7. Future scope of the work is also included in chapter 7.

1.4 Summary

Titanium diboride (TiB_2) is a structural ceramic material that is attracting attention as the base material for a range of high technological applications. However, consolidation of TiB₂ is difficult due to low self-diffusion coefficient and existence of surface oxides on the powder particles. Silicides were considered as possible additives because of their ability to reduce the surface oxides thereby enhancing densification. Moreover silicides are also expected to improve high temperature oxidation resistance by the formation of a protective glassy layer on the surface which would impede further oxidation. The outline of the thesis is brought out below:

Synthesis of borides by a process (boron carbide reduction) which avoid elemental constituent process is amenable to control the yields product consistently and robust for execution. A persistent challenge in the use of (TiB_2) borides is getting in the form of

consolidated dense bodies. The inapplicability of cold compaction and sintering is established and the superiority of hot pressing for consolidation is also demonstrated for obtaining the dense composites. Possible mechanisms for densification by hot pressing are brought out. Technological useful properties of the consolidated composites have been measured and the oxidation resistance of these composites also has been evaluated. The role of various additives in consolidation and their influence on the properties including oxidation resistance also has been brought out.

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CHAPTER 2

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE SURVEY

2.1 Introduction

The refractoriness and high strength of non oxide structural ceramics make them ideally suited for applications at high temperature. Titanium diboride (TiB_2) is a ceramic that is being considered as the base material for a range of high technological applications [1]. It has many attractive properties, such as exceptional hardness (25–35 GPa at room temperature, more than three times harder than fully hardened structural steel), which is retained up to high temperature, high melting point (>3000°C), good creep resistance, good thermal conductivity (~65 W/m/K), high electrical conductivity (10-30 x 10^4 S/cm) and considerable chemical stability [2,3]. TiB₂ is very similar to TiC, an important base material for cermets, and many of the boride's properties (e.g. hardness, thermal conductivity, electrical conductivity and oxidation resistance) are superior to those of TiC. Such combination of properties makes TiB₂ a candidate material for heavy duty wear applications, particularly at elevated temperatures [1-3].

However, the relatively low fracture toughness of monolithic TiB_2 (~5 MPa.m^{1/2}) and its sensitivity to slow subcritical crack growth, limit its use in many engineering applications. The low self-diffusion coefficient makes pure TiB_2 very difficult to densify. These shortcomings are shared by many structural ceramics, e.g. ZrB_2 , HfB_2 and SiC, and considerable research efforts are on to improve both the toughness and sinterability of these materials [1-3].

The development of TiB_2 and its composites, and their potential for high temperature structural/nuclear applications are reviewed in this chapter. The phase diagram and crystal structure of TiB_2 are also discussed. Densification, with and without sinter additives, and the microstructures obtained are considered, followed by a summary of data on mechanical, physical and oxidation properties. Important applications of TiB_2 are also listed.

2.2 Phase diagram and crystal structure

The Ti–B binary phase diagram is shown in Fig.2.1[3]. Three intermetallic phases, orthorhombic TiB, orthorhombic Ti₃B₄ and hexagonal TiB₂ are present[3]. TiB and Ti₃B₄ decompose peritectically at 2453K (2180°C) and 2473 K (2200°C) respectively and TiB₂ melts congruently at 3498K (3225°C). Whereas Ti₃B₄ is a line compound but TiB and TiB₂ have a narrow homogeneity range. TiB₂ exists over a narrow stoichiometry range of 28.5–30 wt% B [3].

Titanium atoms in TiB₂ form a hexagonal close packed (HCP) structure. The hexagonal unit cell of single crystal TiB₂ [a=b= 3.029 A° , c= 3.229 A° ; $\alpha=\beta=90^\circ$, $\gamma=120^\circ$] is shown in Fig. 2.2a [7,8]. Ti atoms are located at (0,0,0) and B atoms at (1/3,2/3,1/2) and (2/3,1/3,1/2) lattice sites [3,4]. In analogy with the usual notation of ABABAB for HCP structure, the stacking sequence of Ti will be AAA. Boron (B) atoms are located interstitially between the A-layers, forming a strong covalently bonded hexagonal network structure as shown in Fig. 2.2b. High hardness and elastic modulus of TiB₂ as well as its chemical resistance are attributed to its crystal structure and covalent bonding [3-6].



Fig.2.1 Ti–B binary equilibrium phase diagram [3]

The important physical and mechanical properties of TiB_2 are listed in Table 2.1 along with those of other similar engineering ceramics. TiB_2 is superior in terms of hardness, toughness and electrical & thermal conductivity [3]. TiB_2 combines superior hardness and a high melting point with corrosion resistance. In addition, the TiB_2 is electrically conductive, which is important in some electrical applications and also enables the solid bodies formed to be shaped into complex geometry using electrical discharge machining (EDM).



Fig. 2.2 a) hexagonal unit cell of single crystal TiB_2 and b) illustration of hexagonal net of boron atoms. [7,8]

The engineering applications of monolithic TiB_2 are restricted due to its poor sinterability and toughness, exaggerated grain growth and a limited oxidation resistance. Since densification has been a major challenge, sintering of monolithic/bulk borides is reviewed in the following section. [3,9].

Property	TiB ₂	ZrB ₂	B ₄ C	SiC	WC	TiC	Si ₃ N ₄	Al_2O_3
Crystal Structure*	Hex	Hex	Rho	Hex	FCC	FCC	Hex	Tet
Melting point, K	3498	3273	2723	2473	2873	3340	2173	2316
Density, kg/m ³	4520	6100	2520	3200	15700	4930	3440	3990
Linear thermal	$\alpha_a = 6.6$	6.83	4.5	5.68	5.2-	7.42	2.4	8.0
expansion α , 10 ⁻⁶ K ⁻¹	$\alpha_c = 8.6$				7.3			
Electrical resistivity,	10-30	9.2	10 ⁶	>10 ⁵	17	52	10 ¹⁸	10^{20}
μΩ-cm								
Fracture toughness K _{IC,}	5-7	3.5	3-3.5	2.5-6	-	4	4-6	2.5-4
$MPa.m^{1/2}$								
Elastic modulus, GPa	560	350	450	480	720	400	210	400
Hardness, GPa	25-35	22-26	37-47	20-35	20-24	24-32	14-25	18-21
Three point flexural	700-	305	300	300-	480-	240-	1000-	323
strength, MPa	1000			800	830	270	1200	

Table 2.1 Summary of important physical and mechanical properties of TiB_2 and other important high temperature ceramics [3,9]

* Hex: hexagonal; Rho: rhombohedral/trigonal; FCC: Face centered cubic; Tet: tetragonal

2.3 Processing, microstructure and properties of bulk TiB₂

Synthesis of fine powders is the first step in the fabrication of ceramic components by powder metallurgy. The process then proceeds through densification of monolithic TiB_2 (without additive) or sintering with metallic and non-metallic additives. The properties of the material obtained are related to the microstructure developed in these steps.

2.3.1 Synthesis of TiB₂

Titanium diboride powder can be prepared by a variety of methods [10-16], such as the direct reaction of titanium or its oxides/hydrides, with elemental boron over 1273K (1000°C)[12], carbothermic /aluminothermic/ silicothermic/ magnesiothermic reduction of titanium oxide and boron oxide mixture [12], or hydrogen reduction of boron halides in the presence of the metal or its halides[12], sol-gel [15,16], self-propagating high-temperature

synthesis (SHS) [13], mechanical milling of TiO_2 and B_2O_3 with metallic magnesium [11,12]. Apart from these routes, electrochemical synthesis has been developed to prepare pure titanium diboride.

An example of solid state reaction is the carbothermic reduction of mixture of TiO_2 and B_2O_3 by the reaction

$$TiO_2 + B_2O_3 + 5C \rightarrow TiB_2 + 5CO$$
(2.1)

carried out in electric furnaces. However, this reaction is highly endothermic and needs temperatures above 2073K [16]. Another method for large-scale production of titanium diboride is based on the reduction of TiO_2 with carbon and boron carbide (boron carbide method)[10]:

$$2\text{TiO}_2 + B_4\text{C} + 3\text{C} \rightarrow 2\text{TiB}_2 + 4\text{CO}$$
(2.2)

Purity of the product in this method is >99%. Production of pure TiB_2 powders in a large quantity (kilogram scale) on both laboratory and commercial scale using this method is the main advantage. However, this reaction is also highly endothermic and needs temperatures above 2073K [16].

 TiB_2 powder is also obtained by the hydrogen reduction of $TiCl_4$ and BCl_3 mixture as per the reaction:

$$TiCl_4 + 2BCl_3 + 5H_2 \rightarrow TiB_2 + 10HCl$$
(2.3)

This method is simple and can yield a pure TiB_2 powder. Handling of chlorides is however difficult due to their corrosive nature.

Self-propagating high-temperature synthesis (SHS), reactive synthesis, and combustion synthesis are methods by which ceramic materials can be produced. All these processes involve exothermic reactions between starting powders as a driving force yielding the desired final product. Commonly, these processes comprise an ignition of the reaction, followed by selfpropagating combustion fronts that transform the green body to a solid piece. The ignition temperature for the stoichiometric mixture of TiO_2 , H_3BO_3 and Mg/Al was found to be as low as 958K (685°C) [14]. Titanium diboride powder has been synthesized by reaction of Ti and B inorganic precursors followed by heat treatment in argon atmosphere. SHS is simple, low cost, and needs no expensive facilities. TiB₂ can produce at lower temperatures and in very short time. However, the products were reported to be contaminated with metallic titanium, titanium carbide Al_2O_3 or titanium oxide [13,16].

Mechanosynthesis has been shown to be very effective for the preparation of many metals and ceramic materials with high melting point [12]. In the case of TiB₂, another route to form the compound is by reaction of TiO₂ and B₂O₃ with metallic magnesium during extended ball milling performed at room temperature in a tumbling mill for between 10 and 15 h in an inert atmosphere [11,12]. The final products are TiB₂ and MgO. The oxide can be easily removed by leaching in acid, leaving a powder composed of pure TiB₂, as tested by X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis [12]. This process is a combustive reaction [12] that takes place once the ignition temperature is reached during ball impacts—the conditions reported in literature allow for TiB₂ production only with long milling times (10 to 15 h) due to the chosen conditions for ball milling and the relatively poor energy transfer during ball impacts. However, the products were reported to be contaminated with unreacted reactants.

It is evident that a number of laboratory scale methods have been successfully developed to synthesize micrometer or sub-micrometer sized TiB_2 powder. Success is, however, limited as far as industrial scale production of TiB_2 is concerned. From the sintering/consolidation point of view, emphasis should be placed on obtaining finer TiB_2 powders with a narrow size distribution and with limited impurities. From a classical Herring approach, it can be predicted that a decrease in particle size by one order of magnitude will produce 3–4 orders of magnitude reduction in sintering time, depending on the dominant densification mechanism (lattice diffusion, grain boundary diffusion) [17,18]. The presence of impurities in the starting powders causes a decrease in sinterability. For example, TiB₂ powders containing >1 wt% oxygen can be densified only to 90% theoretical density, even at higher sintering temperatures (2273K) [19].

2.3.2 Densification and microstructure of monolithic TiB₂

Consolidation methods by powder metallurgy route are i) pressureless sintering, ii) hot pressing and iii) special methods (hot isostatic pressing, microwave sintering, spark plasma sintering, etc.). Pressureless sintering is simple and gets the intricate shapes. However, some of the materials cannot densify by pressureless sintering. In hot pressing, external pressure is applied in order to achieve the full density. In case of hot isostatic pressing, uniform pressure is applied from all the directions. More details of the spark plasma sintering (SPS) are given in the next section.

The densification of transition metal borides such as TiB_2 is inherently difficult because of three characteristics of these compounds: i) high melting point, ii) low self-diffusion coefficient and iii) the comparatively high vapor pressure of the constituents. To obtain good densification, sintering temperatures exceeding 70% of the absolute melting temperature are usually necessary during consolidation to ensure appreciable grain boundary and volume diffusion induced material transport to occur to result in >95% theoretical density [3]. This implies that TiB₂ (T_m \approx 3523K) requires sintering temperatures of 2073-2573K (1800–2300°C). However, borides undergo an abnormal grain growth at high temperatures. The occurrence of microcracking at the grain boundaries is also promoted with the increase in grain size. Thus, it is very difficult to achieve crack free dense borides by the conventional cold compaction and sintering, as no shape accommodation occurs without an external pressure and large pores tend to coarsen during high temperature sintering [20].

A thin oxygen rich layer (mainly TiO₂ and B₂O₃) is usually present on the surface of TiB₂ powder, irrespective of synthesis route [19]. The presence of oxygen finally results in increase in grain size and coarsening of pores because the presence of oxides increases the surface diffusivity. In order to achieve higher density and to inhibit abnormal grain growth, the total oxygen content of the powder must be limited to <0.5 wt% or strong reducing additives need to be used to remove TiO_x below 1873K (1600°C) [19].

Table 2.2 [21-32] presents reported data on densification and material property of monolithic TiB₂ (without sinter additive). A point to note in Table 2.2 is that while hot pressing at or above 2073K (1800°C) can produce >95% theoretical density, hipping at 1773-1873K (1500–1600°C) enables the attainment of similar density with good mechanical properties (hardness is ~ 26 GPa and three point flexural strength ~ 450 MPa) [21-23]. Additionally a sintering route, high pressure sintering (HPS) at temperature greater than 2173K (1900°C) and at a pressure of 3 GPa, has been shown to be capable of producing >95% density TiB₂ with good hardness [24] (Table 2.2). In addition to the commercial powders, as utilized in obtaining the results mentioned above, a group of researchers used elemental powders Ti and B in 1 : 2 weight ratio and obtained 95% or higher theoretical density via high pressure self-combustion synthesis (HPCS) route[24]. A better densification result (~98%) was obtained with carbon addition to (Ti+B) elemental powder mix. For comparison, representative data of other high temperature ceramics are also included in Table 2.2 [21-32]. Near theoretical density was obtained for Si₃N₄

and Al_2O_3 ceramics when hipping at 1923K and hot pressing at 1823K respectively [30]. Whereas for ZrB₂ only 98% TD was obtained even after hot pressing at 2173K [32].

Ferber and co-workers [33] reported that materials with anisotropic thermal expansion, such as TiB₂, often develop microcracks, relieving localized residual stresses generated during cooling from hot pressing temperature. Such stresses arise primarily from the mismatch of thermal expansion between individual grains and anisotropic thermal expansion. For example, the thermal expansion coefficients of TiB₂ along the crystallographic a' and 'c' axes are 7.19 x 10^{-6} and 9.77 x 10^{-6} /K respectively. The experimental observations suggested that the critical grain size for microcracking to occur in case of TiB₂ based ceramics is ~15 µm [33].

Baumgartner and Steiger [34] reported almost full densification (99% TD) of titanium diboride powder by pressureless sintering. The high purity micrometer sized titanium diboride powder was produced by the reaction of titanium tetrachloride and boron trichloride gases in the presence of excess hydrogen in arc plasma heating, according to the following reaction:

$$TiCl_4(g) + 2BCl_3(g) + 5H_2(g) \rightarrow TiB_2(s) + 10HCl(g)$$
 (2.4)

The densification proceeds by self-diffusion and requires a high grain boundary surface area (small grain size) to reach completion. The reported difficulties in achieving full dense titanium diboride by the pressureless sintering of carbothermic powder are attributed to rapid grain growth (activation energy is ~1.02 MJ/mol) before completion of the densification [34]. This is due to the presence of small amount of oxygen as impurity, which enhances the surface diffusion instead of lattice diffusion.

Spark Plasma Sintering (SPS) is a sintering technique with some similarities to conventional hot pressing. However, in SPS, a strong-pulsed current is directly passed through the electrically conducting pressure die instead of using an external heating source. In appropriate cases, electric current also passes through the sample, implying self-heating of the sample. The unique features of SPS process are the possibilities to apply very high heating rates up to several hundred degrees per minute and subsequently to achieve full densification within minutes. High heating rate (100 K/min) yielded more homogeneous microstructures than those achieved with the slow heating rate (20 K/min), and therefore a rapid reaction yields a more homogeneous microstructure. Hardness and fracture toughness of SPS samples were 29.6 \pm 2.5 GPa and 5.2 \pm 0.4 MPa.m^{1/2} respectively [35].

Summarizing, size and purity of the starting powders plays a strong role for densification of TiB₂ ceramics. >99% TD obtained by using the high purity micrometer sized TiB₂ powders, where as only 90% TD achieved when TiB₂ powder contains >1% oxygen as impurity. The literature indicates that high sintering temperatures (>2073° C) are required to obtain high density monolithic TiB₂. Also, the grain size of TiB₂, sintered from commercial powders, is >4 μ m, which limits hardness/strength. Additionally, the influence on modulus, strength, electrical and thermal conductivity is most pronounced, if the grain size is large enough to induce microcracking. It should be noted that the strength could be significantly affected by internal stresses, even in the absence of microcracking.

without additive and	or various processing conditions						
Material	Processing conditions*	Sintered	Microstruct	Hardness,	Fracture	Flexural	Ref.
composition, wt%		density,	ural phases,	GPa	toughness	strength*,	
-		%TD	μm		K _{IC}	MPa	
			•		$MPa.m^{1/2}$		
	PS at 2423 K [,] Ar	93.1	TiB ₂		5.4		25
	Hipping at 1773 K, 196MPa, 2h,Ar	97.6	1.8 equiaxed		3.7	650(3P)	23
	Hipping at 1873 K, 200MPa, 2h,Ar		GG:2->4-6	26	3.5	450 (3P)	22
	HP at 1873 K, 1h, Ar	91.0	4.8 equiaxed		4.1	305 (3P)	21
	HP at 1973 K, 1h, Ar	95.0	5.0 equiaxed		4.3	498 (3P)	21
	HP at 2073 K, 0.5h, Ar	96.0	5.3 equiaxed		5.3	545 (3P)	21
commercial TiB ₂	HP at 2073 K, 1h, Ar	97.0	8.1 equiaxed		5.7	558 (3P)	21
powder	HP at 2073 K, 1.5h, Ar		10.5		6.3	538 (3P)	21
L	HP at 2073 K, 2h, Ar		12.7		6.8	475 (3P)	21
	HP at 2173 K, 1h, Ar		12.2		6.2	521 (3P)	21
	HP at 2273 K, 1h			26.7	4.8	498 (3P)	26
	HPS at 2250 K, 5min, 3GPa	94.6	1.4 equiaxed	19.2			24
	HPS at 2500 K, 5min, 3GPa	97.1		21.7	2.8		24
	HPS at 2750 K, 5min, 3GPa	98.0		24.5	3.2		24
elemental Ti+B (1:2)	HPCS at 2250 K	97.8		23.6	3.5		24
powders	HPCS at 2500 K	98.0		24	3.8		24
	HPCS at 2750 K	98.0		23.9	3.6		24
Other high temperature	ceramics						
Al_2O_3	HP at 1823 K, 45 min	100	2	19.4	4.6	420 (4P)	27
B_4C	HP at 2423 K, 65 min	95.0	6-10	29	2.5	220 (3P)	28
β-SiC	HP at 2223 K, 2h		0.8-3		2.5	394 (4P)	29
Si ₃ N ₄	Hipping at 1923 K,2h,18MPa,Ar	100		15.5	4.6		30
WC	PPC at 1873 K, 4 min, 35 MPa		5.5	19.2	8.2		31
ZrB ₂	HP at 2173 K. 45 min	98	4.0	23		565 (4P)	32

Table 2.2 Density, microstructural characteristics and mechanical properties of TiB_2 and other high temperature ceramics, sintered without additive under various processing conditions

* PS: pressureless sintering; hipping; HP: hot isostatic pressing; 3P: three point bending; 4P: four point bending; HPS: high pressure sintering; HPCS: high pressure selfcombustion synthesis; PPC: plasma pressure compaction

2.3.3 Effect of metallic sinter additives

Various sinter additives have been used to reduce sintering temperature and hence restrict grain growth in the densification of TiB₂. The influence of metallic binders (as sinter additives) on the densification and properties of TiB₂ has been investigated extensively [33,36-43]. Table 2.3 is a summary of these reports, and includes information on some important cermets. High density TiB₂ (>99%) has been obtained through small additions 1–2 wt% of Fe, Cr or Ni [33,44-45]. Very high hardness (23–31 GPa) is achieved with a moderate toughness of 4–6 MPa.m^{1/2} and four point flexural strength value > 500 MPa [46]. Except fracture toughness, the properties of TiB₂ materials are superior to many other engineering materials. In particular, the hardness of TiB₂ at >18 GPa is higher than those of ZrC/TiC/WC (≤14 GPa) based materials. Thus, TiB₂ based materials could be expected to show greater resistance to abrasive/sliding wear. Cemented TiB₂ has a toughness of 9.2 MPa m^{1/2}, which is comparable with WC and TiC based cermets [41].

Material composition, wt.%	Processing conditions*	Sintered density, %TD	Microstructural phases, µm	Vickers hardness, Hv, GPa	Indentation toughness, MPa m ^{1/2}	Flexural strength*, MPa	Reference
TiB ₂ +0.014Ni	HP at 2523 K, 30MPa, 20min	97.9	1.5 (equiaxed TiB ₂ grains of traces of Ni ₄ B ₃ ,Ni ₃ B)	23.3	5.8	716 (4P)	37
TiB ₂ +0.7Ni	HP at 1823 K, 1h, vacuum	97.9		23.3	5.1	716 (4P)	38
TiB ₂ +1.4Ni	HP at 1698 K	>99			6.4	670 (4P)	33
TiB ₂ +7.9Ni	HP at 1698 K	>99			4	420 (4P)	33
TiB ₂ +0.017Fe	HP at 1973 K,1h,Ar	99	6.4(equiaxed TiB ₂ grains)		6.6	520 (3P)	39
TiB ₂ +0.5Fe+0.5 Cr	PS at 2073 K,2h,Ar	97.6		27.0	6.2	506 (4P)	36
TiB ₂ +0.5Fe+0.5 Cr	PS at 2173 K,2h,Ar	98.6		31.3	5.9	262 (4P)	36
TiB ₂ +Ti	HP at 2173 K,2h,Ar	99.6	Needle like of TiB ₂	19.0	4.5	360 (3P)	40
TiB ₂ +14.4Fe+6. 1Ni-8TiAl ₃	PS+hipping at 1773 K,Ar		$5.0(\text{TiB}_2 \text{ grains})$	17.8	9.2	1019 (4P)	41
ZrB ₂ +4.0Ni	HP at 2123 K,30min	98		14.4	2.8	371 (4P)	42
WC+6.5Co	PS at 1823 K,4h		2.5	15.8	10		43
TiC+10Mo ₂ C+2 5Ni	PS at 1823 K,4h		4.2	15.1	6.1		43
TiC+10TiN+10 Mo ₂ C+25Ni	PS at 1823 K,4h		2.4	12.7	10		43

Table 2.3 Summary of the influence of metallic additives on microstructure and mechanical properties

*HP: hot pressing; 3P: three point bending; 4P: four point bending; PS pressureless sintering; hipping: hot isostatic pressing

Earlier experiments, using metallic additives such as nickel, iron, cobalt, titanium, stainless steel and manganese have demonstrated that 99% of theoretical density can be achieved by liquid phase sintering (LPS) [33,39,40]. Ferber et al. [33] have used up to 10 wt% Ni to achieve >99% theoretical density by hot pressing (1698K). As regards the densification mechanism, the transition metals (Ni, Co, Cr) react with TiB₂ forming metal borides with a low melting point (approximately 1173–1373K) and these borides also exhibit good wetting behavior. In case of Ni bonded TiB₂, a ternary ' τ ' phase with the composition, Ni₂₁Ti₂B₆ forms by the dissolution of TiB₂[33]. At 1073K (800°C), the ' τ ' phase is in equilibrium with Ni, Ni₃B, Ni₃Ti and TiB₂. Typical metal contents required for the optimum liquid phase sintering of TiB₂ are 5–25 wt% (2–12 at%) of either Ni or Co[33]. In order to avoid reactions consuming TiB₂, the borides of Ni or Co have also been used [20]. In LPS, the sintering temperatures have been decreased from 2373 to 1673K (2100 to 1400°C).

Phenomenologically, the liquid phase sintering, as commonly observed with the use of metallic additives in sintering of TiB₂, enhances the mass transport but simultaneously causes exaggerated grain growth. Extensive nickel intermetallic phase (Ni₂₁Ti₂B₆, Ni₃B, Ni₃Ti) formation was also found to have deleterious effect on both fracture strength and fracture toughness. Hence, the strength and toughness are significantly retained for TiB₂ ceramics with a fine grain size (4 μ m) and low Ni content (<2 wt%). The microstructures of bulk TiB₂, prepared by liquid phase sintering, are similar to those of other hard metals, such as WC+Co (Hardness ~22 GPa). For example, hardness and fracture toughness of spark plasma sintering (SPS) samples (TiB₂ +2.5%Ti) were 26.8±1.6 GPa and 5.9±0.3 MPa.m^{1/2} respectively[47]. In liquid phase sintered TiB₂, the boride particles form a rigid skeleton of faceted crystals, when it reacts with transition metals such as iron, nickel or cobalt to form the metallic borides Fe₃B, Ni₃B,

 Ni_2B and Co_3B , which can dissolve titanium [48]. Depending upon the wetting behavior, typically influenced by the surface oxidation of the hard phase. Round pores accumulate at particle/matrix interfaces or close to triple pocket. Such pores cannot be completely infiltrated by the liquid phase during sintering. Moreover, the evaporation of Fe, Co or Ni borides potentially cause entrapped gas pores [48].

Relatively small additions (1–5 wt%) of nickel, nickel boride (NiB) and iron have been found to promote liquid phase sintering of TiB₂. High density (>94%) was obtained at temperatures >1773K. Significant grain growth was observed in TiB₂ samples with Ni, NiB and Fe binders during sintering at 1973K (1700°C)[45]. The grain growth was observed to be closely related to the oxygen content of the samples and sintering temperature. It has been observed by Einarsrud et.al [45] that addition of carbon to act as a strong reducing agent to remove the surface oxides of the particles does inhibit the grain growth. Therefore, to obtain fine grained microstructures it is essential to optimize the sinter additive content and the processing conditions (temperature, time, etc.). A liquid phase sintered microstructure, obtained with TiB₂+1.5wt% Ni material is shown in Fig. 2.3a[45]. All the triple pockets appear to contain sintering liquid residue.

Combined addition of various metallic additives has also been investigated [36]. Simultaneous addition of 0.5 wt% Cr and 0.5 wt% Fe was found to enhance the densification of TiB₂ up to 98.8%[36]. A typical microstructure of TiB₂+0.5Cr+0.5Fe shows equiaxed grain with sizes between 2 and 10 μ m (Fig. 2.3b). In Fig. 2.3c, high resolution TEM image reveals the existence of sintering liquid, rich in Fe and Cr[36]. Mechanical properties of the TiB₂+0.5Cr+0.5Fe, sintered at 2073K (strength of 506 MPa and a fracture toughness of 6.2 MPa.m^{1/2}), were much better than those measured in the TiB₂+0.5Cr+0.5Fe sintered at 2173K

(1900°C)[36]. In the case of 0.5 wt% Fe addition to TiB_2 along with 0.5 wt% Cr, abnormal grain growth was suppressed remarkably and an increase in sintered density was recorded. Microstructural observations confirmed the existence of Fe rich phase at the triple pockets and at grain boundaries [44].



Fig. 2.3 a) bright field (BF) TEM image showing wetting behavior of liquid phase in $TiB_2-1.5Ni$ (wt. %)[45], b) SEM image of $TiB_2-0.5Fe-0.5Cr$ (wt. %)[45] and c) BF TEM image along with EDS analysis revealing presence of Fe and Cr in sintering liquid residue at triple pocket of $TiB_2-0.5Fe-0.5Cr$ [36]

Wettability and dissolution of TiB_2 in the transient liquid phase have been widely identified as critical factors when sintering with metallic additives. In most cases the hardness is inferior to that of the monolithic TiB_2 (Table 2.3). From the perspective of high temperature applications, the presence of metallic binder is not desirable, the low melting point of either sintering liquid or metallic additives leads to incipient fusion and consequent degradation of high temperature properties.

2.3.4 Effect of non-metallic sinter additives

The principal objective of non-metallic additives is therefore to improve sinterability of TiB_2 without promoting grain growth thus circumventing limitations of metallic additives. Various non-metallic additives (AlN, SiC, Si₃N₄, CrB₂, B₄C, TaC) have been used for attaining densification of TiB₂ with good mechanical properties [22-26,49,50]. Table 2.4 [22,26,46,49-53] presents the summary of the published results. A comparison of Tables 2.3 and 2.4 indicates that higher amount of non-metallic additives, more than 5–10 wt%, is typically added to densify TiB₂, while a smaller amount of metallic additive, even less than 2 wt% was sufficient to obtain dense TiB₂. As with the use of metallic binders, a combination of high Vickers hardness (~20–27 GPa) and moderate indentation toughness (~4–7 MPa m^{1/2}) and also a modest flexural strength of 500 MPa is obtainable with the use of a variety of non-metallic sinter additives [46].

The addition of non-metallic binders has an important influence on the sinterability and microstructure of the TiB₂. Representative SEM images of polished bulk TiB₂ ceramics are shown in Fig. 2.4(a–c). All these materials were hot pressed at 2073K (1800°C) for 1h in vacuum. It can be noticed in Fig. 2.4a that monolithic bulk TiB₂, without any sinter additive, exhibits coarse grains of sizes around 10 μ m [46]. The presence of large pores at multiple grain junctions is also commonly observed.

The pore sizes appear to have reduced with the addition of 2.5 wt %Si₃N₄ to TiB₂ (Fig. 2.4b) [50]. Near full dense microstructure with finer TiB₂ grain sizes of 5 µm or less is observed, when AlN is used as sinter additive with an optimal amount of 5 wt% (Fig. 2.4c) [52]. Evidence of sintering liquid residue at triple pocket is presented in TiB₂+MoSi₂ composite (Fig. 2.4d). As in the case of addition of metallic additive, the liquid phase sintering is reported to occur for TiB₂ with non-metallic additives also. For example with MoSi₂ addition, TiSi₂ forms and liquid TiSi₂ (T_m<1733K) is reported to enhance densification of TiB₂ [50]. Similarly, Torizuka et al. [54,55] observed the formation of grain boundary liquid phase (amorphous SiO₂), when SiC was used as an additive. According to Murata et al. [51], TaC and TaN were effective for densification of TiB₂ by formation of (Ti,Ta)B₂ and (Ti,Ta)(C,N) solid solutions when hot pressed at 2273K (2000°C) [52]. The presence of reaction products such as TiN and BN has been observed in TiB₂+Si₃N₄ composite system [52].

Fracture mechanisms are considerably influenced by binder additions, as can be observed in Fig. 2.5. The fracture of monolithic TiB₂ occurred mainly by an intergranular mode along with noticeable evidence of transgranular fracture, apparently owing to high porosity and large grain size. However, TiB₂ with non-metallic sinter additives such as AlN, Si₃N₄ exhibited predominant intergranular fracture (Fig. 2.5 b & c) [36,46,52]. In Fig. 2.5d, it can be noticed that the fracture mode is mixed in case of using metallic binder (0.5Cr+0.5Fe) with large TiB₂ grains, exhibiting transgranular fracture. Sintering additives enhance the density significantly and reduce the grain size by the secondary phase formation. However, the addition of sinter additives, such as AlN, SiC, Si₃N₄, beyond an optimal amount resulted in lowering of the density and reducing the grain size owing to grain boundary phase formation [46,53].

TiB ₂ composite	Processing conditions [*]	Sintered	Microstructural	Vickers	Fracture	Flexural	Reference
-		density,	phases, µm	hardness,	toughness,	strength [*] ,	
		%TD		Hv, GPa	$MPa m^{1/2}$	MPa	
Influence of Nitride based additives:							
0% additive		89.0	TiB ₂	12.5	4.5	360 (4P)	46
2.5%AlN	HP at 2073 K,60	94.0	TiB ₂ ,BN,TiN,Al ₂ O ₃	16.1	5.0	500 (4P)	46
5.0% AlN	min,30MPa,Ar	98.0	TiB ₂ , BN, TiN,	22.0	6.8	650 (4P)	46
10% AlN		88.5	Al_2O_3 , unreacted	14.0	5.2	500 (4P)	46
20.0% AlN		87.5	AlN	12.1	4.6	400 (4P)	46
0% additive		90.0	3-7 μm TiB ₂	23.0	5.8	380 (4P)	52
2.5%Si ₃ N ₄	HP at 2073 K,60 min, Ar	99.0	TD TN DN	27.0	5.1	810 (4P)	52
5.0%Si ₃ N ₄		97.5	$11D_2, 111N, DIN$	21.0	4.8	510 (4P)	52
10%Si ₃ N ₄		96.0		20.0	4.4	400 (4P)	52
5.0%Si ₃ N ₄		86.0		15			51
0% additive	UD at 2273 K 30 min	90.0		15			51
5.0%TaN	11F at 2273 K, 30 mm	96.8		15			51
5.0%TiN		95.0		15			51
5.0%ZrN		83.9		15			51
Influence of Carbi	de based additives:						
0% additive		62	TiB ₂	•••	3.3	450(3P)	53
2.5%SiC	PS at 1973 K, vacuum+hipping	99.0	Amorphous		4.3	660 (3P)	53
	at 1873 K, 200MPa, Ar		SiO ₂ , liquid				
			phase along GB				
5.0%SiC		93.0	TiB ₂ ,SiC,TiC		4.9	850 (3P)	53
0% additive	HP at 2273 K,30 min	90.0		15	•••		51
1.0%TaC	HP at 2273 K 60 min	98.0	(Ti,Ta)B ₂ ,(Ta,Ti	15	•••		51
5.0%TaC	111 at 2275 K,00 mm	99.4)(C,N) solid soln.	15			51
5.0%TiC	HD at 2273 K 30 min	96.5		15			51
5.0%WC	111 at 2275 K,50 IIIII	95.9		15			51

Table 2.4 Overall summary illustrating influences of non-metallic additives on microstructure and mechanical properties

Material	Processing conditions [*]	Sintered	Microstructural	Vickers	Fracture	Flexural	Reference		
composition,	_	density,	phases, µm	hardness,	toughness,	strength [*] ,			
wt%		%TD		Hv, GPa	MPa $m^{1/2}$	MPa			
Influence of Silicide based additives:									
0% additive	HP at 2073 K,60 min, vacuum	97.5	TiB ₂	26	5.1		49,50		
10%MoSi ₂	LID at 1072 K 60 min yaayuum	99.3	TiB_2 ,MoSi ₂ ,	27	4.0		49,50		
20%MoSi ₂	HP at 1973 K,00 mm, vacuum	98.7	trace TiSi ₂	25	5.0		49,50		
10%MoSi ₂		82.4					49,50		
15%MoSi ₂	$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{S} \rightarrow 2172 \ \mathbf{K} \ 120 \ \mathbf{m} \mathbf{i} \mathbf{n} \ \mathbf{A} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{k} \mathbf{H}$	84.9					49,50		
20%MoSi ₂	PS at 2173 K,120 min,Ar+H ₂	88.5					49,50		
25%MoSi ₂		91.3					49,50		
2.5%TiSi ₂	HP at 1923 K, 30MPa, Ar	98.8	TiB ₂ ,Ti ₅ Si ₃	25	4.3	381	89-91		
5%TiSi ₂		99.6	TiB ₂ ,Ti ₅ Si ₃	25	5.8	426	1		
10%TiSi ₂		99.6	TiB ₂ , TiSi _{2,}	24	4.2	338	1		
			Ti ₅ Si ₃						
10%WSi ₂	1973 K, 60 min	>98					92		
Influence of Borid	Influence of Boride based additives:								
5.0%ZrB ₂	HP at 2273 K,60 min	79.6		15			51		
3.0%CrB ₂	MW at 2173 K,30 min,Ar	95.0		28.9DPH	6.2		26		
3.0%CrB ₂	MW at 2373 K,30 min,Ar	98.0		27.0DPH	6.1		26		

*HP: hot pressing; 4P: four point bending; 3P: three point bending; PS: pressureless sintering; hipping: hot isostatic pressing; MW: microwave sintering

It was commonly noted that the optimum non-metallic additive content to achieve near theoretical density in TiB₂ is around 5–

10 wt%. The influence of sinter additives on density, grain size and mechanical properties is discussed in this section. As will be shown below, optimizing the amount of binder and sintering temperature is critical for obtaining higher densification and improved mechanical properties through a finer grain size.



Fig. 2.4 SEM Images of TiB₂ specimens hot pressed at 2073K (1800°C) for 1h containing a) 0 wt% sinter additive, b) 2.5 wt%Si₃N₄ and c) 5 wt%AlN, d) TEM image of TiB₂+20wt% MoSi₂, hot pressed at 1973K (1700°C) [46,50,52].

The relative density of pure TiB₂ (90%TD, average grain size ~7 μ m) increased markedly to >99%, and a fine microstructure (~3 μ m) obtained by hot pressing on addition of 2.5 wt% Si₃N₄ [52]. Density decreased slightly and the grain size remained approximately constant with higher Si₃N₄ additions. The hardness of TiB₂ also enhanced, as reported, owing to the higher density. Further increase in Si₃N₄ content resulted in lower hardness, apparently because of the formation of secondary phases TiN and BN. This trend was also observed for the flexural
strength [52]. In contrast, the fracture toughness decreased steadily as the Si_3N_4 addition was increased. The high fracture toughness is believed to be related to the fine grain size and high porosity of the specimen. In particular, crack deflection along the grain boundaries and pinning of the propagating cracks by pores were believed to contribute to enhance the fracture toughness. However, it is also possible that the presence of interconnected pores can favor for the initiation of cracks.



Fig. 2.5 SEM Images revealing fracture surface morphology/fracture characteristics of bulk TiB_2 containing a) 0 wt.% sinter additive, b) 2.5 wt.% Si_3N_4 , c) 5 wt.% AlN and d) TiB_2 with metallic additives[36,46,52]

A thin oxide rich layer is usually present on the surface of non oxide ceramic powders, in case of TiB_2 , mainly TiO_2 and B_2O_3 were reported [19]. Presence of surface oxide layer is

detrimental for densification due to enhanced surface diffusivity [3]. In order to achieve higher density strong reducing additives need to be used to remove surface oxides. Following few case studies address the role of sinter additives on reducing the surface oxides of TiB_2 powders. Table 2.5 presents the reactions that play an important role on reduction of surface oxides of TiB_2 powders.

Park et al. [56] investigated the effect of hot pressing temperature (1773–2073K) on the densification behavior of $TiB_2+2.5wt\%$ Si₃N₄. A considerable increase in density at 1773–1873K (1500–1600°C) is attributed to the formation of silica (SiO₂) during hot pressing. Such microstructural evolution suggests that to densify TiB_2 at low temperatures, the elimination of the oxide layer is necessary and the formation of a liquid phase during sintering is of critical importance.

The hardness and fracture toughness of the specimens, as a function of the hot pressing temperature, are also reported in literature [46,56]. These results illustrate that TiB₂ with good combination of mechanical properties can be densified at temperatures as low as 1873K (1600°C) with the addition of a small amount of Si₃N₄ sinter additive [56]. AlN has been reported to have a similar influence on the sinterability and mechanical properties of TiB₂ [46]. When a small amount of AlN (\leq 5 wt%) was added to TiB₂, the rutile phase (TiO₂), present on the TiB₂ powder surface was eliminated by a reaction with AlN to form TiN and Al₂O₃, according to the following reaction:

$$3\text{TiO}_2(s) + 4\text{AlN}(s) \rightarrow 3\text{TiN}(s) + 2\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3(s) + 0.5\text{N}_2(g)$$
 (2.5)

$$TiB_2(s) + 1.5N_2(g) \rightarrow TiN(s) + 2BN(s)$$
 (2.6)

The elimination of TiO_2 markedly improved the sinterability and consequently the mechanical properties of TiB_2 . BN formation at grain triple pockets is confirmed in TEM analysis. It should

be pointed out that large AlN additions (>10 wt%) decreased the sinterability and mechanical properties, apparently owing to residual/unreacted Al_2O_3 or AlN [46].

The effect of ZrO_2 and SiC on sinterability and mechanical properties of titanium nitride, titanium carbonitride and titanium diboride was investigated by Torizuka et al. [54] The combined addition of ZrO_2 and SiC was found to be effective in improving the sinterability and mechanical properties of TiB₂. The density of TiB₂ and TiB₂+20%ZrO₂ after sintering at 1973K (1700°C) was 70%TD. Therefore, the addition of ZrO_2 alone had little effect in improving the sinterability of TiB₂. Although TiB₂ and TiB₂+20%ZrO₂ lacked sinterability, the addition of SiC was found to be effective in improving the density. For example, the density of TiB₂+19.5ZrO₂+2.5SiC was 97%TD. It was reported that TiO₂, existing on the surface of TiB₂ powder, reacts with SiC and formed TiC and SiO₂, according to the reaction [53]

$$\operatorname{TiO}_2 + \operatorname{SiC} \rightarrow \operatorname{TiC} + \operatorname{SiO}_2$$
 (2.7)

In the case of sintered $TiB_2+2.5wt\%$ SiC compacts, the added SiC was transformed to SiO_2 ; ~3.5 vol%SiO₂ was reported to form as a result of this reaction. The residual amount of TiO_2 and B_2O_3 contributed to lowering the melting point of SiO_2 and increasing the liquid volume. The existence of amorphous SiO_2 in the microstructure suggests that the densification is enhanced by liquid phase sintering [53].

MoSi₂ additions can reduce the hot pressing temperature to 1973K (1700°C), for obtaining the near theoretical density [49,50]. However, no noticeable improvement in mechanical properties was found on addition of 10–20 wt% MoSi₂ (Table 2.4). This could be due to the presence of residual/unreacted TiSi₂ or MoSi₂. As mentioned above, the densification is enhanced by liquid phase sintering, promoted by the formation of a reaction product TiSi₂. In a follow-up study detailed transmission electron microscopy, in combination with

thermodynamic analysis, revealed that the most likely reaction pathways for the formation of

TiSi₂ is [49,50]:

$$TiB_2+3O_2(g)+MoSi_2 \rightarrow TiSi_2+B_2O_3(g)+MoO_3(g)$$
(2.8)

$$5\text{TiO}_2 + 5.714\text{MoSi}_2 \rightarrow 1.143\text{Mo}_5\text{Si}_3 + \text{Ti}_5\text{Si}_3 + 5\text{SiO}_2 \tag{2.9}$$

Additionally, the maximum density achievable with pressureless sintering was found to be 90–91% with 25 wt% MoSi₂ at 2173K (1900°C) [49,50].

Table 2.5 presents the reaction of sinter additives on the role of reduction of surface oxides of TiB_2 powders

Sinter additive	Mechanism	Ref.
Si ₃ N ₄	$3\text{TiO}_2 + \text{Si}_3\text{N}_4 \rightarrow 3\text{TiN} + 3\text{SiO}_2 + 1/2\text{N}_2$	56
TiSi ₂	$7 \text{TiO}_2 + 8 \text{TiSi}_2 \rightarrow 3 \text{Ti}_5 \text{Si}_3 + 7 \text{SiO}_2$	89
AlN	$3 \text{TiO}_2 + 4 \text{AlN} \rightarrow 3 \text{TiN} + 2 \text{Al}_2 \text{O}_3 + 0.5 \text{N}_2$	46
SiC	$TiO_2 + SiC \rightarrow TiC + SiO_2$	53
MoSi ₂	$5TiO_2+5.714MoSi_2 \rightarrow 1.143Mo_5Si_3+Ti_5Si_3+5SiO_2$	49,50

Besides hot pressing and pressureless sintering, limited investigations of advanced sintering techniques, such as microwave sintering, have been reported for densification of TiB₂ and composite with CrB₂ addition. Using a 2.45 GHz, 6 kW microwave furnace adapted for inert gas sintering, titanium diboride (TiB₂) was rapidly sintered to >90% theoretical density at sintering temperatures of 2173 - 2373K (1900– 2100° C) with soaking time of 30 min or less [26]. A comparison with conventional sintering indicated that microwave sintering of TiB₂+ 3wt% CrB₂ occurred at 200K lower temperature and yielded material with significantly improved hardness, grain size and fracture toughness[26].

Thermal stability of monolithic TiB_2 is of critical importance and has been widely reported in literature. Oxidation resistance is one of the important properties for the high temperature structural materials to be critically considered. The phenomenological aspects of TiB_2 oxidation, surface and subsurface oxide scale formation, and oxidation induced degradation are discussed in the following section.

2.4 High temperature oxidation behavior

High temperature oxidation is sometimes termed 'dry corrosion' or 'scaling'. The oxidation mechanism depends on the temperature, partial pressure of oxygen, duration of exposure, porosity and composition, i.e. addition of sinter additives in the case of TiB₂. Kulpa et al. [57] reported that oxidation of TiB₂ powder in 0.05 ppm oxygen in argon, started below 673 K (400°C) and proceeded with the formation of TiBO₃. The reactions are:

At 673K and 0.05 ppm oxygen

$$4\text{TiB}_2 + 9\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 4\text{TiBO}_3 + 2\text{B}_2\text{O}_3 \tag{2.10}$$

At 673 – 1173 K (400 – 900° C) and 10 ppm O₂:

$$4\text{TiBO}_3 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 4\text{TiO}_2 + 2\text{B}_2\text{O}_3 \tag{2.11}$$

It has been experimentally observed [54] that both reactions occur concurrently in the range 673 - 1173 K (400–900° C). A comparison of oxidation resistance of various TiB₂ based materials reveals that monolithic TiB₂ without sinter additive has poor oxidation resistance, compared with TiB₂ containing Cr, Si or Al based sinter additives. These additives can potentially form protective glassy/amorphous Cr₂O₃, SiO₂ [54,58] or Al₂O₃ [46] or borosilicate glass layers [109] on the surface of composites that act as a barrier to diffusion of oxygen to the bulk.

Oxidation rate constant values at various temperatures for monolithic TiB_2 and TiB_2 based materials are compared with those of other structural ceramics in Table 2.6. Up to 1173K (900°C), all materials, except TiB_2 cermet and WC followed diffusion controlled kinetics, i.e. parabolic rate law

$$(\Delta w/s)^2 \approx K_P t \tag{2.12}$$

where K_P is the parabolic oxidation rate constant, Δw is the weight gain (kg) in time t (sec) and s the surface area (m²) of the material exposed to oxidizing environment. In the range 1073 – 1273K (800–1000°C), the oxidation of TiB₂ cermet was governed by linear behavior

$$\Delta w/s = K_{\rm L} t \tag{2.13}$$

where K_L is the linear oxidation rate constant. Similar linear oxidation behavior was also observed for TiB₂, without any sinter additive [59]. Comparing the data presented in Table 2.6, it can be seen that while the oxidation rate constants of TiB₂ based materials are comparable with those of other ceramics, they are not good enough for extended exposure in air at >1273K (1000°C).

Surface oxide morphologies on monolithic TiB_2 after oxidation under various test conditions are presented in Fig. 2.6[58,59,66]. After oxidation at 1123K (850°C) for 1h, the cracks are noticeable on oxide scale; however, on continued oxidation for 4h at 1123K (850°C), the oxide scale becomes severely fractured and non-protective (Fig. 2.6a and b). It was reported [59] that monolithic TiB_2 in bulk form starts to oxidize in air at around 673 – 773K (400–500°C) and the process was governed by a diffusion controlled mechanism up to 1173K (900°C). The overall oxidation reaction was as follows:

$$TiB_2 + 2.5O_2 \rightarrow TiO_2 + B_2O_3$$

(2.14)

Crystalline B_2O_3 and TiO_2 were identified on the surfaces of monolithic TiB_2 after oxidation at 973 and 1073K[59]. The grain morphology at 1073K is clearly revealed in Fig. 2.6c and intergranular cracking is commonly observed after oxidation in air for 10 h.

Material	Oxidation	Weight gain,	Parabolic oxidation	Linear oxidation	Ref.
	conditions	kg/m^2	rate constant K_P ,	rate constant K _L ,	
			$kg^4m^{-4}s^{-2}$	$kg^{2}m^{-2}s^{-1}$	
TiB ₂ +Fe+Ni+A	1273 K,70h,	250	-	9.92x10 ⁻⁷	60
l cermet	air, Pellet				
TiB ₂	1373 K,8h,	60	1.2×10^{-7}	-	59
	air, pellet				
Al ₂ O ₃ +30vol%	1073 K,20h,	05	6.94×10^{-10}	-	59
TiB ₂	air, pellet				
HfB ₂ +19SiC+	1773 K,1h,	16	6.91x10 ⁻⁸	-	61
$5.8Si_3N_4$	air, pellet				
(Vol%)	_				
SiC+3 wt%AlN	1673	19.9	3.67x10 ⁻⁹	-	62
	K,192h, air,				
	pellet				
WC+18wt%Co	973 K,8h,	280	-	1.36x10 ⁻⁵	63
	air, pellet				
AlN+10TiB ₂ +	1723 K,3h,	41	1.65×10^{-7}	-	64
10TiSi ₂ (wt%)	air, pellet				
MoSi ₂	1473 K,75h,	01	2.29×10^{-12}	-	65
	air, pellet				

Table 2.6 Comparison of weight gain and oxidation rate constant of TiB_2 based materials with other high temperature ceramic materials

The large volume expansion (~7 vol%) that occurred during the oxidation of TiB_2 to TiO_2 subsequently caused cracking in the oxide layer, resulting in an increase in the active area for oxidation by allowing oxygen ingress through surface cracks in the oxide layer. Linear oxidation behavior was also noted for longer periods (8–13h) of oxidation at 1273 and 1373K[59]. It was also observed that the oxide scale was composed of highly textured TiO_2

crystals, as revealed in Fig. 2.6d. At high temperatures (>1273K) for longer periods, monolithic TiB_2 exhibits linear oxidation behavior owing to the increase in the active area for oxidation.



Fig. 2.6 SEM images revealing nature of oxide scale as well as severity of cracking and oxide scale morphology on oxidized surface of monolithic TiB_2 , after oxidation at 1123K for a) 1h and for b) 4h, at 1073K for c) 10h and at 1273K for d) 30h [58,59,66]

Koh et al. [67] investigated the oxidation behavior of hot pressed $TiB_2+2.5wt\% Si_3N_4$ at temperatures between 1073 and 1473K for up to 10h in air. $TiB_2+2.5wt\% Si_3N_4$ exhibited better oxidation resistance at high temperatures (<1273K) owing to protective oxide layer formation on the surface. At temperature <1273K, parabolic weight gains were recorded as a result of the formation of TiO_2 and B_2O_3 on the surface. The oxide layer was severely cracked during post oxidation cooling owing to the thermal expansion mismatch between the oxide layer and the underlying bulk material (Fig. 2.7a). At temperatures >1273K, crystalline TiO₂ was identified along with volatile B_2O_3 . In this case, the surface was covered with only thick crystalline TiO₂ layer. Fig. 2.7b shows the spheroidal crystalline phase of TiO₂ on the oxidized surface (1273K, air) of TiB₂+2.5wt%Si₃N₄.



Fig. 2.7 SEM images of severely cracked oxide film on oxidized surfaces of $TiB_2+2.5$ wt.% Si_3N_4 , exposed to air for 10h at a) 1073K and b) 1273K[67]

In understanding the oxidation resistance property, it is also important to study the morphology of subsurface oxide scale. Fig. 2.8 illustrates the subsurface oxide scale formation of TiB₂ after oxidation at 1073 and 1273K [67]. At the lower temperature (1073K) a thick B₂O₃ top layer (~ 50 μ m thickness), above a rather thin TiO₂ layer (~ 10 μ m thickness) was formed (Fig. 2.8a). Owing to evaporation of B₂O₃ layer during oxidation treatment at T~1273K, only TiO₂ layer was found to be present at the subsurface region after oxidation at 1273K (1000°C). Also, to be noted is the formation of a rather thick TiO₂ layer of ~100 μ m thickness at 1273K (1000°C) (Fig. 2.8b). Such a thick layer was observed to be heavily cracked, which implies the non-protectiveness of this oxide scale. However, on oxidation of TiB₂ with MoSi₂ additive at

1123K (850°C), the presence of glassy B_2O_3 could not have been detected by XRD, because of its non-crystallinity [66].



Fig 2.8 Illustration of formation of subsurface oxide scale on fracture surface of TiB₂, oxidized in air at a) 1073K (800°C) for 10h and b) 1273K (1000°C) for 2h[67]

The oxidation behavior of hot pressed $TiB_2+12.1 \text{ wt}\%B_4C+2.1 \text{ wt}\%Ni$ is similar to that of monolithic TiB_2 up to 1173K (900°C), the parabolic kinetics indicating a diffusion limited reaction[68]. At 1273K (1000°C), the best fit of the oxidation data was obtained with the Ginstiling–Brounshtein equation[68]:

$$(1-2/3\alpha) - (1-\alpha)^{2/3} \approx kt$$
 (2.15)

where $\alpha \approx \Delta w/s$, which considers a three-dimensional diffusion process associated with a decrease in the reaction surfaces, owing to the growth of a product layer around the reactants (spherical particles). As regards the kinetics, the formation of B₂O₃ was detected initially, because of the small radius of the boron atom [69,70]. Its diffusion to the surface is more rapid than the diffusion of the metal atom of the boride and this leads to the formation of large amounts of B₂O₃. The glassy nature of the B₂O₃ film provides additional diffusion barrier for atmospheric oxygen during oxidation. While oxidation studies have been conducted on a few TiB₂ based materials, the attempts to improve oxidation resistance on an engineering scale are very limited. In an innovative approach, TiB₂ materials were coated with SiO₂ by exposing the specimens in a bed of SiC powder in a flowing H₂ containing 0.1%H₂O at 1723K (1450°C) for 2h [58]. The coating was found to be effective in suppressing the oxidation of TiB₂ at 1473K for 10h. The oxidation rate of coated TiB₂ (at 1473K for 10h) was decreased by about a factor of 10, because of the reduced oxygen transport through the coating and also because of the consumption of oxygen via reaction with Ti₂O₃ to form TiO₂ (Ti₂O₃ was formed during coating with SiO₂ by exposing the specimens in a bed of SiC powder in a flowing H₂ containing 0.1%H₂O at 1723K for 2h). When TiB₂ specimen without a coating was exposed at 1073K (800°C) for 10 h, the surface was covered with crystalline B₂O₃ layer, as shown in Fig. 2.8a. Beneath this B₂O₃ layer, crystalline TiO₂ (rutile) was formed. The TiO₂ layer was severely cracked owing to the thermal expansion mismatch between the oxide layer and underlying TiB₂, as mentioned earlier.

The oxidation of TiB₂ can exert a negative influence on the mechanical and physical properties and on the performance of components, made of TiB₂ ceramics. Therefore, one of the important criteria to define the oxidation resistance of a material is the strength retention property of the material after oxidation. Flexural strength of TiB₂ specimens without and with the SiO₂ coating (after treatment in a bed of SiC powder) was measured and the data were plotted in Fig. 2.9 [58]. Without the coating, the strength reduced remarkably after oxidation for 10h above 1273K (1000°C). It was reported [58] that the formation of a thick oxide layer and the presence of cracks were direct causes for this reduction in strength. When TiB₂ specimen was coated with SiO₂ layer, the strength decreased to a much lower extent. Besides, when the coated specimen was oxidized at 1073K (800°C) for 10 h, the reduction in strength was minimal.

Some of the important engineering applications of TiB_2 are presented in the next section.



Fig. 2.9 Flexural strength of TiB_2 specimens after oxidation in air for 10h at various temperatures A) without and B) with SiO₂ coating layer [58]

2.5 Applications of bulk TiB₂ materials

TiB₂ can be used as control rod and shielding material in nuclear reactors because it contains boron, which has the ability to absorb fast and slow neutrons without forming any long lived radionuclide. Absorption cross section of TiB₂ for fast neutrons can be enhanced by using compounds which are enriched in ¹⁰B isotope during the synthesis of TiB₂. Natural boron contains about 19% ¹⁰B and remaining is ¹¹B [1-3]. TiB₂ is also a candidate material for high temperature structural applications like sharp leading edge of hypersonic re-entry vehicles,

cutting tools and molten metal crucibles. Apart from re-entry vehicles these materials are candidates for other extreme environment encountered in metal processing industries.

Some of the structural ceramics are considered as potential materials for armor applications owing to their low density, superior hardness and high compressive strength, which enable erosion and 'defeat of the projectiles'. The desirable characteristics of ceramics, in particular, which are beneficial for the defeat of projectiles, include the combination of high compressive yield strength or hardness, high tensile spall strength, high fracture toughness and high poison's ratio. In this context, the spall strength of a material can be defined. The stress or strain, at which a further increase in stress or strain causes the material to deform inelastically is Hugoniot Elastic Limit (HEL). Alternatively, the spall strength can be described as the stress, where a material loses its cohesiveness under shock induced tension [72].

Over more than three decades, ballistic performance and dynamic behavior studies have been performed on various ceramics (AlN, Al₂O₃, B₄C, SiC, TiB₂, WC and ZrO₂). As far as armor applications are concerned, TiB₂ exhibits favorable properties, such as high impact velocity for dwell/penetration transition and deformation induced hardening. Dandekar et al. [73] assessed the strength properties of TiB₂ under plane shock wave loading in terms of its spall threshold and the shear stress, when a shock compressive stress of 60 GPa was applied. The break, i.e. cusp in the shock wave loading profile of TiB₂ at 4.5–7.0 GPa is of mechanical nature and its effect is to decrease the spall threshold values at stresses above the cusp, but below the accepted HEL value of 13–17 GPa. The spall strength of TiB₂ decreases with increasing impact stress and becomes negligible at the HEL. Two phase ceramics of titanium diboride/alumina with a range of phase assemblage and phase morphologies have been developed. For armor applications, these materials exhibit a wide range of fracture toughness values, which are often higher than the constituent ceramic phase, in bulk monolithic form [74].

As far as other applications are concerned, TiB_2 is an attractive material for the aluminum industry, because of its wettability and low solubility in molten aluminum and its good electrical conductivity. The wettability of the TiB_2 /carbon composite material increased as the TiB_2 content increased [75]. Pure hot pressed TiB_2 is completely wetted by aluminum with contact angle of zero in a cryolite melt at 1253K (980°C) [75].

TiB₂ is extensively used as evaporation boats for vapor coating of aluminum. Fang et al. [76] developed porous TiB₂ electrodes for the alkali metal thermoelectric converter (AMTEC). The electrical performance of these new electrodes was found to be superior to that of the other electrodes, such as TiN or Mo. Because of its chemical inertness, TiB₂ can be expected to show a long time stable operation. Although TiB₂ shows its potential in electrode applications for aluminum extraction, extensive study with various TiB₂ materials (sintered with different sinter aid) is however limited. It is expected that the good wetting property of TiB₂ by aluminum can be affected by the presence of sinter aid.

Other important applications of TiB_2 , such as an electrical contact barrier for Si in the semiconductor industry, have also been proposed. However, boron diffusion from TiB_2 into underlying silicon was observed above 1273K (1000°C), which limits its wider application[76].

2.6 Literature on sintering aids used in the present study

In the present study, various silicides TiSi₂, CrSi₂, WSi₂, MoSi₂ and CrB₂ were used. Important physical and mechanical properties of these materials are listed in Table 2.7 [77-88]. Summary of these materials, which were used as sinter aids in TiB_2 or other materials are listed in Table 1.1 (Page no: 1.5).

Property	TiSi ₂	CrSi ₂	CrB ₂	Ti ₅ Si ₃	WSi ₂	W ₅ Si ₃	MoSi ₂
Crystal structure	Orthorhombic	Hexagonal	Hexagonal	Hexagonal	Hexagonal/Tetragonal	Tetragonal	Tetragonal
Density, kg/m ³	4150	4600	5200	4320	9250	14520	6300
Melting point, K	1813	1750	2473	2403	2437	2597	2323
Hardness, GPa	8-10	11	11-20	9 - 10	13	7-10	13
Fracture toughness, MPa.m ^{1/2}	2 - 3	-	-	2 - 4	3.7	-	2-2.5
Elastic modulus, GPa	250	354.6	210	150	468	312	384
Flexural strength	-		600	-	-	-	-
Coefficient of	10.4	α _a =9.2,		$\alpha_a = 5.1$	8.5	$\alpha_a = 5.0, \alpha_c = 16.3$	8.4
thermal expansion, $x10^6 \text{ K}^{-1}$		$\alpha_c=7.4$	6-8	$\alpha_c = 22.2$			
Thermal							
conductivity,	-	10	30	-	-	-	-
W/m/K							
Electrical	<15/123	70×10^3	30	55	20-80	50-60	21
resistivity, $\mu\Omega$ cm	<13/123	70 X 10	50	55	20-00	50-00	21
Oxidation	_	1200	1000	_	1000	2000	1400
resistance, °C	-	1200	1000	-	1000	2000	1400

Table 2.7: Important physical and mechanical properties of various silicides and CrB₂ [77-88]

In view of the above concerns, present study focused on the densification of TiB_2 using different additives. Objective of the sinter additive is twofold, one is to lower the sintering temperature to obtain dense body without losing much of its inherent mechanical/ physical properties and other is to improve the oxidation resistance by formation of a protective oxide layer.

One of the major focus areas of recent research is to solve the processing related problems pertaining to the requirement of extremely high sintering temperatures. In this regard, uses of metallic (Telle, 1994; Basu, 2006; Ferber, 1983; Kang, 2001; Kang, 1989; Einarsrud, 1997) as well as ceramic (Basu, 2006; Opila, 2004; Biswas, 2006; Torizuka, 1996; Torizuka, 1992; Murata, 1967; Bellosi, 2006; Monteverde, 2005) sinter-additives have been considered with good results [110-115]. However, incorporation of secondary phases is not devoid of serious drawbacks (Telle, 1994; Basu, 2006) [110-113]. Another important aspect is improving the fracture toughness of borides by microstructural tailoring and incorporation of various reinforcements. However, the important aspect that needs to be considered is that the composition and microstructural design should not have negative impacts over the high temperature performance [110-115].

To date, material researchers have focused on UHTCs (Borides and MAX phase composites) in terms of powders and bulk synthesis, microstructure characterization, physical and mechanical properties evaluation, oxidation and ablation testing, as well as the impact resistance. The powder synthesis is aimed at solving the problem of poor sinterability through modifying the particle morphology and reducing the grains to nano-size. The use of precursor method has also enabled the ability to prepare rod-like and plate-like grains with relative ease. Additionally, in order to enhance the sintering ability, selective sintering additives are necessary to produce low temperature liquid phases in the samples or lowering the grain boundary Gibbs free energy. Generally, the intrinsic strength and modulus of borides are high enough for use in the aircrafts. However, the shortcomings of these ceramics are their brittleness and low damage tolerance, which will have an adverse effect on their wider applications [115].

Nevertheless, the introduction of graphite, carbon fiber, or silicon carbide fiber has contributed to the effectiveness and reliability of borides and carbides. Recently, it has been considered that the microstructure design through texturing is very important to increase their physical and mechanical properties. For instance, Sakka and coworkers [115-117] at NIMS have recently succeeded in using the Strong Magnetic Field Alignment (SMFA) method to design textured microstructures of UHTCs (e.g., ZrB₂, HfB₂ and B₄C) with improved mechanical properties. The oxidation resistance and ablation resistance have also been significantly enhanced through combining silicon carbide and transition metal silicides. [115-117].

2.7 Summary

A significant research activity has been invested to use several sinter-additives and to optimize sintering conditions in order to improve sinterability and mechanical properties of monolithic TiB₂. In particular, an extensive and critical literature analysis has been reported on the role of metallic binders (e.g. Ni, Fe, Cu, Co, Ti) in the densification of TiB₂. More than 99% TD was achieved by liquid phase sintering. However, the presence of metallic binder is not desirable for high temperature structural applications. Therefore, studies related to the use of non-metallic sinter-additives have also been pursued. Several ceramic additives such as AlN, SiC, Si₃N₄, CrB₂, B₄C, TaC were used for attaining the densification of TiB₂ with better mechanical properties. As regards the fabrication routes, it has been noted that hot pressing and pressureless sintering with limited effort of using microwave sintering are employed to densify borides. Despite significant efforts in material development, bulk TiB₂ materials have not yet penetrated into commercial market in a big way. The bottleneck for such limitation is the processing difficulties and poor mechanical properties in terms of fracture toughness.

One of the promising applications of TiB₂ includes high temperature structural materials. As mentioned earlier, room temperature mechanical properties (hardness, toughness, strength, E-modulus) are measured for a large number of bulk TiB₂, sintered using various metallic/ non-metallic additives. Such property measurement at high temperature is lacking. Also, lacking is the measurements of thermal properties (thermal conductivity, thermal expansion coefficient) at high temperature as well as thermal shock resistance property. It can be noted that TiB₂ could be an excellent choice for applications requiring heat dissipation at high temperatures due to its high thermal conductivity. The oxidation resistance of TiB₂ is affected by temperature, partial pressure of oxygen, time of exposure, porosity and sintering additives. It is reported that oxidation resistance of TiB₂ could be improved by coating a protective amorphous SiO₂ layer on the surface of borides. Finally the recent trends in this field are also presented.

2.8 References

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CHAPTER 3

CHAPTER 3

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, experimental details of the preparation, densification and characterization of TiB_2 and other materials are presented apart from a description of the equipments used and processes implemented.

Titanium diboride (TiB₂) and pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂ based composites were synthesized by reduction of the respective oxides with a mixture of boron carbide and additional carbon/boron as required. Different sinter additives used in the present study were also synthesized from the constituents or from the precursors. A list of sinter additives and the reasons for investigating them are listed in Table 3.1.

The experimental facilities used broadly come under four categories: (a) milling equipments (b) furnaces (c) sample preparation/fabrication equipments and (d) characterization instruments.

Oxidation studies of composites were carried out in the temperature range of 1023 to 1273K (750 to 1000°C). Non isothermal oxidation studies were carried out in a TGA apparatus and isothermal oxidation studies were carried out in a muffle furnace. After oxidation, the samples were characterized by XRD, XPS and SEM-EDS.

Sr.No.	Sinter additive used	Wt.%	Function of the additive
01	TiSi ₂	2.5, 5, 10 and 15	To improve fracture toughness,
02	CrSi ₂	2.5, 5, 10 and 15	sinterability and oxidation resistance
03	WSi ₂	2.5, 5, 10 and 15	To improve fracture toughness, strength, sinterability and oxidation resistance
04	CrB ₂	2.5, 5, 10 and 15	To improve frequence toughness strongth
05	$CrB_2+20\%MoSi_2$	5, 10 and 15	sinterability, thermal shock and oxidation
06*	$(Ti_{1-x}Cr_x)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$	0.5, 0.10 and 0.15	resistance

Table 3.1 List of TiB₂ composites covered in the present study

* Composite

3.2 Equipments/Instruments

A description and working principle of each of the major instruments/equipments used in the present study is given below. These equipments/instruments are broadly covered under four categories as given below:

a) Milling equipments

i) Jaw crusher, ii) Planetary ball mill, iii) Vibratory cup grinding mill

b) Furnaces

i) Vacuum induction furnace, ii) Vacuum hot press, iii) Muffle furnace/twin zone furnace

c) Sample preparation/fabrication equipments

i) Diamond wheel cutter, ii) Wire cut EDM, iii) polishing, iv) Sputter coating equipment

d) Characterization Instruments

i)Particle size analyzer, ii) XRD, iii) SEM, iv) EDS, v) TGA, vi) Hardness tester, vii) Flexural strength, viii) Dilatometer, ix) Four probe electrical resistivity measurement unit

a) Milling equipments

i) Jaw crusher

Figure 3.1 (a) is a schematic diagram of a jaw crusher [3] and (b) the actual photograph. The crushing of materials is accomplished within crushing chamber which consists of two lateral side walls, one settable fixed crushing jaw and the other a moveable crushing jaw. The moveable crushing jaw is put into an eccentric movement by means of a fly wheel and a sturdy cam. The special design of the movement of the movable crushing jaw ensures that the material to be crushed is drawn into the crushing chamber and that the blockage of the chamber with crushed pieces is prevented [3,4]. The pre-crushed materials can easily fall out of the crushing chamber. Both lateral side walls are lined with tungsten carbide. In the present study, jaw crusher was used to reduce the size of pellets from 5-20 mm to \leq 2 mm size in multiple steps. Further size reduction was carried out in high energy vibratory cup grinding mill.



Fig. 3.1 a) Schematic diagram [3] and b) Photograph of a jaw crusher [4]

ii) Planetary ball mill

Figure 3.2 (a) is a schematic diagram of a planetary ball mill [3] and (b) the actual photograph. Planetary ball mill is a type of mixer and/or grinder. Ball mills rotate around a horizontal axis, partially filled with the materials to be mixed /ground plus the grinding medium of WC balls [7]. Mixing is achieved by high energy frequent repeated impact of balls; the energy levels of balls are high as they are accelerated 12 times the acceleration due to gravity. Rotation of sun plate provides the centrifugal force to the grinding balls and independent rotation of bowls make the balls to hit the inner wall of the bowls. Since the bowls are rotating in alternate (one forward cycle and one reverse cycle) directions a considerable part of grinding will take place in addition to homogenous mixing [4,5]. In the present study, planetary ball mill was used to wet mixing of the raw materials. Total four bowls of 500 cc capacity were fitted on the sun plate. Each bowl was filled with 100 g of charge (raw materials), 400 g of WC balls and 150 ml of alcohol. Mixing was carried out for 4 hours with intermittent cooling to avoid overheat of the material. Wet mixing was carried out in isopropyl alcohol; after completion of mixing, powders were dried in vacuum oven.



Fig. 3.2 a) Schematic diagram [3] and b) Photograph of a planetary ball mill [5]

iii) Vibratory cup grinding mill

Figure 3.3(a) is an actual photograph a vibratory cup grinding mill and (b) bowl set. A vibrating cup grinding mill, as the name itself suggests, is a machine which uses heavy mechanical impact and friction to grind the substances and break these down into fine micron size powders. The whole process of breakdown is mechanical and it is the vibrations which impart the kinetic energy to the ring and the hammer for grinding the materials kept in the annular space. Grinding is accomplished by heavy impact and friction. Sample is kept in the annular space between the bowl, the ring and hammer (shown in the Figure 3.3b). A cover is kept on the top of the bowl and then it is clamped on. The vibratory platform imparts the kinetic energy to the ring and the hammer [4]. Grinding is generally carried out for 5 to 20 minutes with intermittent cooling. In the present study, this mill was used to grind the crushed pellets from 1-2 mm size to 1-5 micron size. At a time 100 gm of the powder can be charged in each pot.



Fig. 3.3 a) Photograph of a vibratory cup grinding and b) mill with bowl set [4]

b) Furnaces

i) Vacuum induction furnace

Figure 3.4(a) presents the schematic and (b) the actual photograph of induction furnace with vacuum system. An induction furnace is powered by an electrical source that is designed to deliver high frequency alternating current (AC), at the proper frequency required to create an alternating electromagnetic field. The AC power is conducted through a coil of copper tubing so that it can generate the magnetic field. Water is pumped through the coil to keep it cool. The material to be heated is put inside a crucible of electrically conducting (fairly high resistance), high melting point material such as graphite (called susceptor), sized to fit inside the coil [7]. The graphite crucible with material charge is exposed to the alternating magnetic field produced by the coil when current is passed. Heat is generated by resistance offered by the susceptor material to the eddy currents induced by the magnetic field in the susceptor (graphite crucible) and passed on to the charge by conduction [6,7]. Power supply and control system for induction furnace is from an insulated gate bipolar transistor (IGBT) unit. Operating frequencies range from utility frequency (50 Hz) to 10 kHz, usually depending on the configuration of the furnace, size and material of the susceptor, and the heating speed required. The advantage of the induction furnace is a clean, energy-efficient and wellcontrollable heating process compared to most other means of heating.

In the present study, 40 kW capacity vacuum induction furnace was used for synthesis of borides and silicides. Graphite crucible used for synthesize these materials, as it is a good susceptor. This furnace can be used upto 2675K (2400°C) temperature

under 0.001Pa vacuum. Rate of heating can be maintained from 300 to 800 K/h. Actual synthesis temperature was measured using a two color optical pyrometer.



Fig.3.4a) Schematic [18] and b) actual photograph of a vacuum induction furnace [8]

ii) Vacuum hot press

Figure 3.5(a) is a schematic diagram of a hot press and (b) the actual photograph. Hot pressing is a high-pressure, low-strain-rate powder metallurgy process for forming a powder or powder compact at a temperature high enough to induce sintering and creep processes. This is achieved by the simultaneous application of heat and pressure. Hot pressing is mainly used for densification of high melting point materials by powder metallurgy route. The densification works through particle rearrangement and plastic flow at the particle contacts [6,7]. The loose powder was filled in a graphite die that withstands up to temperatures of about 2573K (2500°C) under pressures of up to 35MPa.

In the present study, hot press was used to densify the TiB_2 based composites at different temperatures and pressures. Actual temperature of the hot press was measured by a two color optical pyrometer. Graphite plungers and dies were used to consolidate these composites. After loading the die in the hot press, initially a dead load of <50 kg was applied. Full load (350 to 550 kg) was applied after reaching the set temperature. Linear variable differential transducer (LVDT) was used to measure the linear shrinkage during heating as well as holding period. After completion of holding period, load was released slowly and cooled down to room temperature in vacuum. Ejected pellets were cleaned and measured the density and open porosity by Archimedes principle.



Fig. 3.5 a) Schematic diagram [3] and b) Photograph of a vacuum hot press [9]

iii) Muffle furnace/Twin zone furnace

Figure 3.6 (a) is an actual photograph of muffle furnace and (b) twin zone heating furnace, which were used for isothermal oxidation and thermal cycling studies respectively. A muffle furnace in historical usage is a furnace in which the subject material is isolated from the fuel and all of the products of combustion including gases and flying ash. Materials for heating elements, such as molybdenum disilicides offered in many models with working temperatures up to 1773K (1500°C), which facilitates more sophisticated metallurgical applications [7].

In the present study, muffle furnace was used for isothermal oxidation studies of the composites. Temperature was measured by using K-type thermocouples. Samples were loaded in a furnace directly, after reaching the set temperature. PID controller and thyristor were used to control the temperature and holding time. Twin zone furnace was used for thermal cycling studies. Thermal cycle study was carried out for composites, using a twin zone vertical furnace with pneumatic movement of the sample holder from
hot zone to the cold zone and vice versa. Movement of the sample between zones was rapid (<5 sec). Hot zone and cold zone were maintained at 850°C (1123K) and 150°C (423K) respectively. The samples were tested up to 1000 cycles.



Fig. 3.6 Actual photograph of a) muffle furnace [10] and b) twin zone furnace [10]

c) Sample preparation/fabrication equipments

i) Diamond wheel cutter

Figure 3.7 (a) & (b) are photographs of a diamond wheel cutting machines. Diamond wheel cutting machine is used for cutting hard samples of different sizes as per requirement. This works on the principle of abrasion cutting. While diamond wafer blade rotates at a very high speed of ~ 3000 rpm, then cutting action takes place at the interface of sample with rotating blade due to abrasion [6,7,11,12]. This machine can be used to cut slices of the ceramic samples. But disadvantage of this cutting method is a time required for very hard materials. In the present study, these cutting machines were used for slicing of various composites for characterization.

ii) Wire cut EDM

Figure 3.7(c) is a photograph of CNC wire cut Electric discharge machining (EDM) machine. EDM is a process of repetitive sparking. A series of electrical pulse generated by the pulse generator unit is applied between the work piece and the traveling wire electrode. In the event of spark discharge, there is a flow of current across the wire electrode – work piece gap. Energy contained in a tiny spark discharge removes a fraction of work piece material. Large number of such time spaced tiny discharges between the work piece and wire electrode cause the electro erosion of the work piece [13]. Electric discharge machine comprises of a machine tool, a power supply unit and a dielectric supply unit.

The machine tool comprises of a main work table (called as X-Y table), an auxiliary table (called as U-V table) and a wire drive mechanism. The work piece is mounted and clamped on the main work table. The main table moves along X and Y axes, in steps of 1 micron, by means of servo motor, and also the U-V table moves by 1 micron, also by means of a servo motor. U & V axes are parallel to X & Y axes. To accommodate jobs of different thickness, movement along another axis is provided (Z). Maximum 250 mm thick material can be cut in this machine. The power supply unit comprises of electric pulse generator, motor drive units for X, Y, U, V axes and controller.

In the present study, this machine was used for cutting of hard composites with different 2-dimensional complex shapes for various characterization studies. In this machine the cutting speed does not depend on the hardness of the material; but cutting speed depends on electrical conductivity. In the present study, all the composites are having the sufficient electrical conductivity to be cut by EDM.



Fig.3.7 Typical diamond wheel cutters (a[11] & b[12]), CNC wire cut EDM machine (c) [13]

iii) Polishing

Mirror finished polished surfaces are required for microstructural characterization. This is achieved sequentially by using the different grades of emery papers and finally by cloth polishing with abrasive particles. Cloth polishing can be carried out by two different processes:1. diamond polishing (DP),and 2. Oxide polishing (OP). Diamond is used as an abrasive to accomplish the fastest material removal and the

best possible plainness. Because of its hardness, diamond cuts extremely well through all materials and phases [6,7]. In the present study, the sequence of polishing is as follows: EDM cut sample was hot mounted using conductive resin of 1" diameter mould, hot mounted sample was subjected to grinding using diamond grinding wheel to obtain <50 μ m finish. Beveling of the hot mounted sample has been carried out, to remove the sharp edges of sample in order to avoid the damage of polishing cloth. Further polishing was carried out using cloth polishing machine with different diamond slurries of 15, 9, 6, 3, 1 and 0.25 μ m. At the end of the polishing with 0.25 μ m, the surface appears to be mirror finished.

iv) Sputter coating equipment

Figure 3.8 (a) is a schematic diagram of a sputter coating equipment and (b) the actual photograph. Sputter coating is a process of covering the specimen with a very thin layer of a conducting material, typically a metal, such as silver, gold - palladium (Au - Pd) alloy. Conductive coating is needed to prevent charging of a specimen with an electron beam in conventional SEM (high vacuum, high voltage). Sputter deposition is a physical vapor deposition (PVD) method of depositing conductive material by sputtering, that is ejecting, material from a target, that is source, which then deposits onto a substrate, such as a samples to be analyzed in electron microscopes [6,7]. In the present study, oxidized samples were coated with Ag in order to get the sufficient conductivity for use in SEM.



Fig. 3.8 a) Schematic diagram [3] and b) Photograph of a sputter coating equipment [3]

d) Characterization Instruments

i) Particle size analyzer

Figure 3.9 (a) is a schematic diagram of a laser particle size analyzer and (b) the actual photograph. The operation of laser particle size analyzer is based on the principle of light scattering, the angle of scattered light is inversely proportional to the particle size (i.e. the smaller the particle size, the larger the scattering angle). Mean diameter (also called mean size) is the statistical mean value diameter of particles contained in the sample, which is calculated as per the following formula [15]:

$$MEAN SIZE = \Sigma(p_i \times MD_i)$$
(3.1)

Where: $p_i = C_i - C_{i-1}$: probability for MD_{i} ; C_i : cumulative value for diameter of class "i", MD_i = mean diameter value for class "i" (in µm)

Designated amount of powder is dispersed in distilled water and passed through the optical prism, where laser interacts with particles as schematically shown in the Fig 3.9a. Multiple detectors located at different angles in order to measure the number of counts. In the present study, this instrument is used for measuring the mean particle size and its distribution of starting powders after grinding/mixing.



Fig. 3.9 a) Schematic diagram [15] and b) Photograph of a laser particle size analyzer [15]

ii) X-Ray Diffraction

X-ray diffractometer consist of three basic elements Fig. 3.10(a) shows an X-ray tube, a sample holder, and an X-ray detector and (b) actual photograph. X-rays are generated in a cathode ray tube by heating a filament to produce electrons, accelerating the electrons toward a target by applying a voltage, and bombarding the target material with electrons. When electrons have sufficient energy to dislodge electrons from the inner shell of the target material, characteristic X-ray spectra are produced. These spectra consist of several components, the most common being K_{α} and $K_{\beta}.$ K_{α} consists, in part, of $K_{\alpha 1}$ and $K_{\alpha 2}$. $K_{\alpha 1}$ has a shorter wavelength and twice the intensity as $K_{\alpha 2}$. The specific wavelengths are characteristic of the target material (Cu, Fe, Mo and Cr). Filtering, by foils or crystal monochrometers, is required to produce monochromatic X-rays needed for diffraction. Copper is the most common target material for single-crystal diffraction, with Cu K_{α} radiation = 1.5418Å. The sample and detector are rotated; the intensity of the reflected X-rays is recorded. When the geometry of the incident X-rays impinging the sample satisfies the Bragg's equation, $2d\sin\theta = n\lambda$, constructive interference occurs and the peak intensity of the diffracted beam is observed. For typical powder patterns, data is

collected at 20 from ~20° to 70° angles that are preset in the X-ray scan. The d-spacing of each peak is then obtained by solution of the Bragg equation for the appropriate value of λ . Because each material has a unique set of d-spacings, matching these d-spacings provides an identification of the unknown sample. Files of d-spacings for hundreds of thousands of inorganic compounds are available from the International Centre for Diffraction Data as the Powder Diffraction File (PDF) [6,7]. In the present study 'Match' software was used to indexing the peaks.



Fig. 3.10 a) Schematic diagram [16] and b) Photograph of a XRD instrument [3]

iii) Scanning electron Microscope (SEM)

Figure 3.11(a) is a schematic diagram of a scanning electron microscope (SEM) and (b) is actual photograph. SEM is an instrument to study the microstructure of the materials. In a typical SEM, electron is thermionically emitted from an electron gun fitted with a tungsten filament cathode. The electron beam, which typically has an energy ranging from 0.5 to 40 keV, is focused by one or two condenser lenses to a very small spot. The beam passes through pairs of scanning coils or pairs of deflector plates in the electron column, typically in the final lens, which deflect the beam in the *X* and *Y* axes so

that it scans over a rectangular area of the sample surface. When the primary electron beam interacts with the sample, the electrons lose energy by repeated random scattering and absorption within a teardrop-shaped volume of the specimen known as the interaction volume, which extends from less than 100nm to around 5μ m from the surface.

The size of the interaction volume depends on the electron's landing energy, the atomic number of the specimen and the specimen's density. The energy exchange between the electron beam and the sample results in the reflection of high-energy electrons by elastic scattering, emission of secondary electrons by inelastic scattering and the emission of electromagnetic radiation, each of which can be detected by specialized detectors. The beam current absorbed by the specimen can also be detected and used to create images of the distribution of specimen current. The image may be captured by digitally and displayed on a computer monitor and saved to a computer's hard disk [6,7].



Fig. 3.11 a) Schematic diagram [16] and b) Photograph of a SEM instrument [3]

iv) Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy

Figure 3.12(a) presents the schematic of EDS along with detector and (b) the actual image with inner parts. EDS or EDAX is an analytical technique used for the elemental analysis or chemical characterization of a sample. It is one of the variants of X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy which relies on the investigation of a sample through interactions between electromagnetic radiation and atoms, analyzing X-rays emitted by the atoms in response to it being hit with charged particles. Its characterization capabilities are largely due to the excitation of characteristic X-rays which are specific to each element corresponding to its unique atomic structure thus permitting identification from one another.

To stimulate the emission of characteristic X-rays from a specimen, a high-energy beam of charged particles such as electrons or protons, or a beam of X-rays, is focused on the sample being studied. At rest, an atom within the sample contains electrons in the ground state (or unexcited) in discrete energy levels corresponding to different electron shells bound to the nucleus. The incident beam may excite an electron in an inner shell, ejecting it from the shell while creating an electron hole where the electron was. An electron from an outer, higher-energy shell then fills the hole, and the difference in energy between the higher-energy shell and the lower energy shell may be released in the form of an X-ray. The number and energy of the X-rays emitted from a specimen can be measured by an energy-dispersive spectrometer. As the energy of the X-rays is characteristic of the difference in energy between the two shells, and of the atomic structure of the element from which they were emitted, this allows the elemental composition of the specimen to be measured [6,7].



Fig.3.12a) Schematic diagram along with detector [3] and b) actual equipment of EDS system [3]

v) TGA

Figure 3.13 presents the schematic of TGA. Thermogravimetric analysis is essentially to determine the changes in weight of the sample in response to a programmed temperature change in a controlled atmosphere. Such analysis relies on a high degree of precision in the measurements of weight and temperature. A derivative weight loss curve can identify the point where weight loss is most apparent [6,7].

The thermobalance used in our lab can detect change in mass as small as $0.1 \mu g$. Only sample holder goes inside the furnace while rest of the balance must be thermally isolated from the furnace. Fig. 3.13 is a schematic diagram of our thermobalance. A change in sample mass causes a deflection of the beam, which interposes a light shutter between a lamp and one of the two photodiodes. The resulting imbalance in the photodiode current is amplified and fed into coil, which is situated between the poles of a permanent magnet. The magnetic field generated by the current in the coil restores the beam to its original position. The amplified photodiode current is monitored and transformed into mass or mass-loss information by the data-processing system. Mass versus temperature data can either be plotted in real time [6,7]. The furnace for TGA covers the range from ambient temperature to 1873K (1600°C). With our earlier TGA instrument of Setaram make was used upto 2000°C (2273K) for synthesis of TiB₂. Heating rate can often be selected from 0.1 to 100 K/min. Synthesis studies were carried out in 0.001Pa atmosphere and oxidation studies were carried out in air/oxygen.



Fig.3.13 Schematic diagram of TGA system

vi) Hardness tester

Figure 3.14(a) presents the schematic of Vickers indentation [3] and (b) the actual photograph of the equipment. The Vickers test is often easier to use than other hardness tests since the required calculations are independent of the size of the indenter, and the indenter can be used for all materials irrespective of hardness. The basic principle, as with all common measures of hardness, is to observe the material's ability to resist plastic deformation from a standard source. The Vickers test can be used for all material and has one of the widest scales among hardness tests. The unit of hardness given by the test is known as the Vickers Pyramid Number (HV) or Diamond Pyramid Hardness (DPH). The hardness number can be converted into units of 'Pa'. The hardness number is determined by the load over the surface area of the indentation [6,7]. More details on the hardness measurement of present study samples are given in section 3.4.3.3.



Fig.3.14 a) Schematic diagram [3] and b) actual equipment of Vickers hardness tester

vii) Flexural strength (3-point bend test)

Figure 3.15(a) presents the schematic of 3-point bend test and (b) the actual equipment's photograph. The three point bending flexural test provides values for the modulus of elasticity in bending (E_f), flexural stress (σ_f), flexural strain (ε_f) and the flexural stress-strain response of the material. The main advantage of a three point flexural test is the ease of the specimen preparation and testing. However, this method has also some disadvantages: the results of the testing method are sensitive to specimen and loading geometry and strain rate [6,7]. In the present study, this equipment used for only measuring the flexural strength. Test specimens of different TiB₂ composites for 3-point bend tests were cut using EDM (ultracut S0, Electronica machine tools, India) and machined into bar shapes of 1.5 × 2.0 × 25 mm from hot pressed disk (50 mm) prepared under similar processing conditions. Flexural strength was measured by 3 point bend test at room temperature as per ASTM **C** 1161-02C test procedure.



Fig.3.15 a) Schematic diagram [3] and b) actual equipment of 3-point bend tester [3]

viii) Dilatometer

Figure 3.16(a) presents the schematic of dilatometer and (b) the actual equipment's photograph. The Coefficient of Linear Thermal Expansion (CLTE) is used to calculate changes in length of a sample with temperature. The sample is placed in an enclosure and is in contact with a probe leading to a displacement sensor. A small force (electromagnetic loading) is applied to keep the probe in contact with the sample. The temperature within the enclosure is raised at a rate of 5 K/minute and the expansion of the sample is measured by the displacement sensor (differential transformer) [6,7]. In the present study, dual push rod type dilatometer (horizontal model) (TD 5000S, Mcscience, Japan) was used for measuring CTE up to 900°C (1173K) for the composites in inert atmosphere. Alumina sample was used as a reference. Size of the sample used in the present study is 5 mm x 5 mm cross section bar of 10 mm length.





Fig.3.16 a) Schematic diagram [3] and b) actual equipment of dilatometer [3]

ix) Four probe electrical resistivity measurement unit

Figure 3.17 (a) presents the schematic of four probe electrical resistivity method and (b) the actual equipment's photograph. A four point probe is a simple apparatus for measuring the resistivity of samples. By passing a current through two outer probes and measuring the voltage through the inner probes allows the measurement of the substrate resistivity. The four-point probe station consists of a probe station (four probe tips), an ampere meter, a DC current source, and a voltmeter. The four probes are arranged in a linear fashion, where the two outer probes are connected to a current supply, and the inner probes to a voltage meter. As current flows between the outer probes, the voltage drop across the inner probes is measured [7].

In the present study, electrical conductivity was measured by using the conventional 4-probe method of all the samples from room temperature (300K) to 1273K (1000°C). Rectangular cross section (dimensions: 5 mm width (D) x 3 mm thickness (W) x 12 mm length (A)) samples were prepared for conductivity measurement. All sides of sample were cleaned and polished. Four platinum probes were connected to the sample

with the help of platinum paste. Four probes were located on the top surface of transverse direction with 3 to 4 mm (S) apart, outer most probes were connected to the programmable current source (KEITHLEY: 224) and remaining two inner probes were connected to nanovoltemeter (KEITHLEY: 2182), which recorded the output voltage when 100 mA current was passed through the sample. Electrical conductivity was calculated using the following expression:

$$Conductivity = IS/VX$$
(3.2)

Where 'I' is current (100 mA), 'S' distance (mm) between two volt probes, which are connected to voltmeter, 'V' is recorded voltage in nanovoltemeter, 'X' is the cross-sectional area of the specimen (mm²). Resistivity is an inverse of conductivity.



Fig.3.17 a) Schematic diagram [3] and b) actual equipment of four probe resistivity unit

3.3 Synthesis of Materials

3.3.1 Titanium diboride (TiB₂)

Titanium diboride was produced by carbothermic reduction of titanium dioxide with a mixture of boron carbide and carbon.

 $2\text{TiO}_2 + \text{B}_4\text{C} + 3\text{C} \rightarrow 2\text{TiB}_2 + 4\text{CO}$

Above reaction indicates the formation of gaseous CO and proceeds with a weight loss of the charge. Weight loss for the above reaction will be 44.4% at completion. Raw materials used were boron carbide powder (78.5 % B, 19.5% C, 6.7 μ m median diameter; supplied by Boron Carbide India, Mumbai), titanium dioxide (TiO₂ - 99% purity; Merck, Germany, 0.8 μ m median dia) and petroleum coke (C – 99.4 %, 18 μ m median diameter; Assam carbon, India). All the raw materials were dried in an oven at 523K (250°C) for 2 hours, before use to remove the moisture.

(3.3)

Thermograviometric study (Setaram, TAG 24) on the formation of TiB₂ by boron carbide reduction of TiO₂ was carried out up to 2273K (2000°C). For regular synthesis of TiB₂, weighed quantities of titanium oxide, boron carbide and petroleum coke were mixed thoroughly using a motorized pestle and mortar for a small volume (< 150 g) and planetary ball mill for large volumes (>150 g). The powder mixture was pelletized using a hydraulic press at a pressure of 280 MPa to obtain green pellets of 20 mm diameter. In mixing and pelletizing, WC lined implements were used. The pellets were charged in a graphite crucible and heated to 2103K (1830°C) in an induction furnace under a vacuum of 0.001 Pa. Temperature of the charge was measured using a thermocouple upto1273K (1000° C) and above 1273 K by a two-color pyrometer with an accuracy of \pm 10K. After completion of reaction, the furnace was cooled to room temperature in vacuum, back filled to atmospheric pressure and the product was taken out. The product was crushed and ground to fine size using jaw crusher and high energy vibratory cup grinding mill.

XRD of the final product (TiB_2) was used for phase identification. Wet chemical analysis for determination of major metallic constituents and impurities were determined

by instrumental methods. Oxygen and carbon are the main impurities in TiB₂. The mean particle diameter and particle size distribution was measured using laser particle analyzer (CILAS PSA 1064L). The specific surface area was measured by BET (COULTER, SA300) method (Sorptomatic 1990, Thermoqest Italia) [1]. SEM examination of the powders was carried out to check the size and morphology. Details of raw materials and synthesized powders are given in Table 3.2. The parameters for a typical experiment are: **Charge composition:** TiO₂: 64.52 g, B₄C: 22.59 g, coke: 12.88 g

Charge weight:	100 g
Product weight:	55.08 g
Weight loss:	44.9% (Theoretical weight loss 44.4% as per reaction 3.3)
Analysis of TiB ₂ :	Ti-69.2%,B-29.3%,O-0.5%,N-0.5%,C-0.6%
Yield:	55.1%

3.3.2 Molybdenum disilicide (MoSi₂)

MoSi₂ was synthesized from its elements by the following reaction:

 $Mo + 2Si \rightarrow MoSi_2$

Stoichiometric amounts of pure molybdenum (> 99.7%, Merck Germany) and silicon (> 99%, Merck Germany) were weighed and mixed using planetary mixer for 2 to 3 hours with intermittent cooling to avoid the overheat of the charge. The compacts were heated in a graphite crucible under moderate vacuum of 0.1Pa up to a temperature of 1613K (1340°C). After completion of the reaction, $MoSi_2$ product was obtained in the form of chunks, crushed by WC lined equipments: jaw crusher and fine ground to micron

(3.4)

size by high energy vibratory cup grinding mill. Data from a typical experiment is given

below:

Charge composition:	Mo – 63.2%, Si – 36.8%
Charge weight:	198.33g
Product weight:	196.77g
Weight loss:	1.56%
Analysis of MoSi ₂ :	C - 0.37%, O - 0.30%
Mean particle size (D ₅₀):	1.4 μm.
Yield:	99.2%
Details of raw materials and	d products are given in Table 3.2.

3.3.3 Chromium diboride (CrB₂)

 CrB_2 powder was prepared by carbothermic reduction of chromium oxide in the presence of boron carbide as per the following reaction:

$$Cr_2O_3 + B_4C + 2C \rightarrow 2CrB_2 + 3CO$$

(3.5)

Raw materials used were Cr_2O_3 (99% purity; Emerck make; 0.86 µm median diameter), boron carbide powder (78.5% B, 19.5% C, <1% O, 0.02% Fe, 0.02% Si, 5.34 µm median diameter; supplied by Boron Carbide India) and petroleum coke (C-99.4%, 13.9 µm median diameter, supplied by Assam carbon, India). All the raw materials were dried in an oven at 523K (250°C) for 2 hours before use to remove moisture.

A small pellet of the reactants in Stoichiometric quantity (as per reaction 3.5) was prepared by weighing out individual components, mixing thoroughly and pelletizing. This pellet was used for thermogravimetric investigations (Setaram TAG 24) upto 1773K (1500°C). For regular synthesis of CrB_2 , weighed quantities of chromium oxide, boron carbide and petroleum coke in various ratios were mixed thoroughly, pelletized under 280MPa to obtain pellets of 20 mm dia. The pellets were then charged in a graphite crucible and heated in an induction furnace under a vacuum of 0.001Pa and at different temperatures of 1773, 1873 and 1973K (1500, 1600 and 1700°C) for 2 hour. Temperature of the charge was measured using a two color pyrometer. After completion of reaction, the furnace was cooled to room temperature in vacuum and the reacted pellets taken out, crushed and ground to fine size using high energy vibratory cup grinding mill.

3.3.4 Pre-alloyed titanium - chromium diboride [(TiCr)B2]

Synthesis of $(TiCr)B_2$, was carried out by the carbothermic reduction of titanium and chromium oxides in the presence of boron carbide as per the reaction:

 $2\text{TiO}_2 + B_4\text{C} + \text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3 + 6\text{C} \rightarrow 2(\text{TiCr})B_2 + 7\text{CO}$

(3.6)

As the reactants consist of four solid substances, homogenization of the charge mixture is essential for completion of the reaction. Experimental procedure for synthesis of $(TiCr)B_2$ and grinding to fine powder is similar to other powders $(TiB_2 \text{ and } CrB_2)$ which are given above. Details of raw materials and synthesized powders are given in Table 3.2. Data on a typical experiment for synthesis of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2$ is given below:

Charge composition:	TiO_2 , B_4C , Cr_2O_3 , Carbon
Charge weight (g):	TiO ₂ : 208.03, B ₄ C: 81.56, Cr ₂ O ₃ : 48.94, C: 51.76
Total charge weight:	390.29 g
Product weight:	211.79 g
Weight loss:	45.7% (Theoretical weight loss 43.08% as per reaction 3.6)
Yield:	54.3%
Analysis of (Ti _{0.85} Cr _{0.15})B ₂	: Ti-60.9%, B-26.2%, Cr-11.6%, C-0.07%, O-0.6%, N-0.5%

Particle size distribution plots of raw materials (TiO₂, B₄C, petroleum coke, Cr_2O_3) which are used in present study for synthesis of borides are shown in Fig.3.18.

 B_4C particles are showing mono-modal distribution pattern with mean particle diameter of 8.07 µm. TiO₂, petroleum coke and Cr₂O₃ are showing the bi-modal distribution patterns with mean particle diameter of 1.41, 13.90, 0.86 µm respectively.

Material	Source	Carbon	Oxygen	Nitrogen	Metallic	Median	Surface
		(wt. %)	(wt. %)	(wt. %)	Elements/	particle	area
					Impurities	diameter	(m^{2}/g)
					(wt. %)	D ₅₀ (µm)	
TiO ₂	Merck,		299% Puri	ty	Pb≤0.005	0.80	
	Germany			-	As≤0.0005		-
		Fe≤0.005					
B ₄ C	Boron	19.50	-	-	Fe ~	6.7	
	carbide				2000ppm		
	India				Si~		-
					2000ppm		
Cr_2O_3	Emerck		>99% purity				-
Carbon	Assam	99.40	-	-	-	13.9	-
	Carbon,						
	India						
Мо	Merck,		>99.7% Purity				-
	Germany						
Silicon	Merck,	>99% Purity					-
	Germany						
TiB ₂	In-house	0.60	0.50	0.60	-	1.10	1.360
MoSi ₂	In-house	0.37	0.30	-	-	1.40	0.389
CrB ₂	In-house	0.90	0.60	-	-	4.5	-
(Ti _{0.85} Cr ₀	In-house	0.07	0.6	0.5	Ti-60.9%,	5.0	-
$.15)B_2$					B-26.2%,		
					Cr-11.6%		
TiSi ₂	Sigma	≥99.5% Purity			≤0.006%	-325#	-
CrSi ₂	Aldrich	≥99.5% Purity			≤0.006%	-325#	-
WSi ₂		≥99.5% Purity ≤0.006			≤0.006%	-325#	-

Table 3.2 Details of raw materials and products used in the present study

mesh



Petroleum coke (D₅₀: 13.90 µm)

Cr₂O₃ (D₅₀: 0.86 µm)



3.4 Processing and Microstructure

3.4.1Hot pressing

For hot pressing experiments, weighed quantities of TiB_2 and the selected sinter additive (2.5%, 5%, 10% and 15 wt.%) powders were mixed thoroughly using a motorized pestle and mortar in dry condition for 1h. The densification was performed by

hot pressing under vacuum 0.001 Pa, using a 12 or 17 mm diameter graphite die under 15 to 35 MPa pressure. The die is filled with the mixed powder and this is kept on a vibrator to achieve good tap density for 10 minutes. The samples were hot pressed at temperatures from 1823 to 2073K (1550 to 1800° C) with a heating rate of 15 K/min. Temperature was measured using a two color pyrometer with an accuracy of ± 10K. Linear variable differential transducer (LVDT) was used to measure shrinkage of the sample during the hot pressing experiment. Accuracy of the LVDT is 0.1 µm and range of measurement is 0.1 to 1500µm. After completion of hot pressing, the vacuum and die pressure were maintained till the end of cooling. The pellets were ejected from the die using manual hydraulic press. The thickness of the hot pressed pellets was between 3-5 mm.

3.4.2 Pressureless sintering

To study the feasibility of pressureless sintering, green pellets of various charge mixtures: TiB_2 + sinter additives (without organic binder) were used. The green density of the cold pressed specimens was around 60-65 % of theoretical density (TD). Graphite heating furnace was used for sintering. Green pellets were sintered at temperatures range from 1673 to 2223K (1400 to 1950°C) (heating rate of 15 K/minute) for several hours (2 to 8 hours) in vacuum. After completion, the samples were cooled down to room temperature and then removed from the furnace for characterization.

3.4.3 Characterization

3.4.3.1 Density measurement and sample preparation

Hot pressed and sintered samples were thoroughly cleaned with alcohol, weighed and density determined by using Archimedes principle in distilled water. (Balance model AT 261 Delta Ra; supplier: Mettler Toledo). Density was calculated by taking the ratio of weight in air to the volume of displaced water. Open porosity was also calculated by taking the ratio of weight of absorbed water by the sample to the volume of displaced water.

Open porosity = (soaked weight - weight in air)/(soaked weight - suspended weight) (3.7)

Since it is difficult to estimate the precise amount of secondary phases (formed due to sintering reactions) in the composites for calculating the theoretical density of materials, the image analysis technique was performed on selected multiple SEM images of the fractured samples. Relative density (RD) was calculated by determining the volume fraction of porosity of the samples. The reported density results are an average of 5 measurements that are performed on SEM micrographs of each sample by using Leica materials workstation version 3.6.6 software. Polished samples were used for phase identification, hardness measurement and microscopy.

3.4.3.2 Phase identification and microstructural characterization

The crystalline phases in the starting powders and hot pressed sample were analyzed using XRD (Diano 2000 series). XRD patterns were obtained using Cu K α (λ = 1.5404A°) radiation in a diffractometer. The patterns were later analyzed using latest PCPDF database with Match software. Microstructural investigation of the phase assemblage was performed by means of SEM (CAMSCAN MV2300CT) on polished surfaces and the nature of fracture was observed on fractured surfaces. The fractured surface was examined to understand the crack propagation mechanism. The detailed microstructural analysis was also performed using SED-EDS. Prior to SEM observation; the polished/fractured samples were sputter-coated with a thin Ag layer in order to obtain sufficient conductivity on the surface and to avoid charging of the surface in the SEM. Leica materials workstation version 3.6.6 was used to measure the grain size of the densified composites.

3.4.3.3 Evaluation of mechanical properties

Micro hardness was measured at different indent loads of 50, 100 and 200N with dwell time of 5sec (VMT – 7; Matsuzawa Japan). Indentation fracture toughness (K_{IC10}) calculations were based on the crack length measurements of the radial crack pattern produced by Vickers H_{V10} indentations, according to the formula given by Anstis et al.[2]. The reported values were the average of data obtained from minimum five indentation tests. Fracture toughness values were calculated by using the Anstis empirical relation as follows [2]:

$$K_{Ic} = 0.016 (E/H)^{1/2} x (P/C^{3/2})$$

(3.8)

Where K_{Ic} is the fracture toughness (Mpa.m^{1/2}), E – Elastic modulus (GPa), H – hardness (GPa), P – load (N), 2C – full crack length (m). Elastic modulus was measured by using ultrasonic method (UT 340 pulser receiver system, UTEX Scientific Instrument Inc., Canada) as per the ASTM C 1419-99a test procedure. 15 MHz normal beam ultrasonic probe with a sampling rate of 1000 MHz was employed for velocity measurements; $(v_L/v_T)=(2T_{LT}/T_{LL})-1$, $E=\rho vL^2$, where E, ρ , v_L , v_T , T_{LL} and T_{LT} are elastic modulus (GPa), density (g/cm³), longitudinal velocity (m/s), transverse velocity (m/s), time of flight of L–L wave (µs) and time of flight of L– T wave (µs) respectively. All the reported data points represent the average of five measured values.

Flexural strength was measured by 3 point bend test at room temperature as per ASTM C 1161-02C test procedure. Detailed description of test methodology was given in section 3.2

3.4.3.4 CTE measurements & Electrical conductivity

CTE (Coefficient of thermal expansion) of different TiB_2 composites were measured upto 1173K (900°C) in inert atmosphere using dual push rod dilatometer (TD 5000S, Mcscience, Japan). Description of the equipment and method of measurement were given in section 3.2.

Electrical conductivity from room temperature to 1273K (1000°C) was measured by using the conventional 4-probe method. Description of the equipment and method of measurement were given in section 3.2.

3.5 Oxidation studies

3.5.1 Materials

Hot pressed pellets of diameter 12 mm were sectioned into 2mm thick discs using high speed diamond wafer cutter. These discs were polished with emery papers (1/0,2/0,3/0,4/0) and finally with diamond paste up to $1/4\mu$ m finish. The polished discs were ultrasonically cleaned in alcohol for 10 minutes.

3.5.2 Experimental procedure

Mechanism and kinetics of oxidation of the composites were studied in the temperature range of 1023 to 1273K (750 to 1000°C). TGA analyses of the composites were carried out up to 1273K (1000°C) in 1 atmosphere oxygen with 10 K/min heating rate (ThermoSys, Setaram, France) for continuous oxidation studies.

Isothermal oxidation studies for all the composites were done at 1123K ($850^{\circ}C$) in air at different time intervals of 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32 and 64 h and in addition at 1023 and 1223K (750 and 950°C) for selected composites. Isothermal oxidation studies for selected composites were also carried out in air at 1273K ($1000^{\circ}C$) for short duration of 2 to 4 hours only. Oxidation tests were conducted in a horizontal tubular furnace. In order to avoid oxidation during heating, the samples were directly inserted into the furnace after the furnace temperature reached the set value. Temperature was measured using a K-type (chromel–alumel) thermocouple with an accuracy of \pm 1K. Samples were placed in an alumina boat and loaded in the hot zone of the furnace. The dimensions of the samples were noted using digital vernier caliper. Each sample was weighed before and after exposure, to determine the change in weight (gain) during the oxidation process. Additional experiments were also carried out for selected time intervals to check the reproducibility of the test results. In order to determine the nature of oxidation, the weight gain data was fitted in the general rate equation.

$$\left(\Delta w/A\right)^{m} = K_{m}.t \tag{3.9}$$

Where Δw - is the change in weight (kg), A- surface area of the sample (m²), t- oxidation time (s) and K_m- rate constant. To determine the kinetics of oxidation, the data was analyzed using the parabolic law.

 $(\Delta w/A)^2 = K_p.t$

(3.10)

Where K_p - parabolic rate constant ($Kg^2/m^2/s$).

3.5.3 Characterization of oxidized samples

The surfaces of the oxidized samples were characterized using X-ray diffraction (XRD) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) with EDS. XRD patterns were obtained from the surface of the oxidized samples using Cu K α ($\lambda = 1.5404$ A) radiation in a Rich-Seifert 2000D diffractometer. The patterns were later analyzed using latest PCPDF database with Match software.

The morphology and nature of oxide layer was observed in a scanning electron microscope. The cross sections of the selected oxidized composites $(TiB_2+15\%CrB_2+20\%MoSi_2)$ and $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2)$ examined. were Elemental X-ray maps were also obtained on the cross sections of selected composites.

3.6 Summary

In this chapter, details of the various start material powders, synthesis, densification and characterization of sintered materials as well as the equipments used are described. A list of composites prepared in this work has also been presented. Experimental procedure adopted for synthesis, consolidation and characterization of the dense pellets are also described. Isothermal and continuous oxidation study methods as well as the methods of characterization of oxidized samples are also described.

3.7 References

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CHAPTER 4

CHAPTER-4

SYNTHESIS OF STARTING POWDERS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of investigations on the synthesis of titanium diboride, chromium diboride and pre-alloyed $(TiCr)B_2$ by carbothermic reduction of respective oxides with carbon and boron carbide. Details of synthesis of $MoSi_2$ by direct elemental reaction are also presented. CrB_2 and $MoSi_2$ were used as sintering additives to TiB_2 and pre-alloyed $(TiCr)B_2$ for preparing the composites.

Thermodynamic calculations were used to check the feasibility of the formation of these borides at different temperatures. Thermogravimetric study on the formation of TiB_2 and CrB_2 by boron carbide reduction of respective oxides was carried out to obtain the conditions for reaction. Process parameters and/or charge composition was optimized to obtain the phase pure borides and silicides. The product was analyzed by XRD and chemical methods. Crushing and grinding parameters were also optimized to obtain the fine micron size and contamination free powders from as reduced mass. These powders were used further for consolidation to prepare the TiB_2 and (TiCr)B_2 composites.

4.2 Synthesis of TiB₂

Carbothermic reduction of titanium dioxide in the presence of boron carbide can be represented by the overall reaction:

$$TiO_2 + 0.5B_4C + 1.5C \rightarrow TiB_2 + 2CO$$
 (4.1)

Formation of TiB₂ is thermodynamically feasible at temperatures above 1200K only as ΔG for the reaction is positive at lower temperatures. Free energy data [1] for the above equation was calculated by using FactSage software version 6.3 and is presented in Fig. 4.1. High temperature favors the formation of TiB_2 . The minimum temperature required and for reaction is brought down considerably by carrying out the reaction in a dynamic vacuum of 0.001Pa. The temperature required for reaction decreases by about 873K (600°C) if the reaction is carried out at 0.001Pa instead of 1 atm pressure (See Fig.4.1).



Fig. 4.1 Free energy change of various possible reactions calculated using FactSage software, version 6.3

4.2.1 Thermo gravimetric study

The TGA plot of the formation of titanium diboride is given in Fig.4.2. The start of the reaction is seen at 1365K (\sim 1092 $^{\circ}$ C) and a weight loss of 40% of the charge up to a temperature

of 1603K (1330°C). The second weight loss region starts at 1753K (1480°C), with a lower rate, indicating the reaction to be probably diffusion controlled. A total weight loss of 47 wt% was recorded at the completion of the run at 2273K (2000°C), against a theoretical anticipated weight loss of 44 wt%. XRD analysis of the product showed the presence of essentially TiB₂ with minor amount of Ti₃B₄ phase (Fig.4.3).

4.2.2 Synthesis of titanium boride (batch process)

Charge composition, size, mixing and compaction details were optimized in a few preliminary experiments. Details of experiments on the optimization of process parameters such as temperature, time and final vacuum are presented in Table 4.1. These experiments were conducted in a vacuum of 0.001 Pa in induction furnace at fixed temperatures between 1473 to 2073K (1200 to $1800^{\circ}C$) for 60 minutes soaking each.

At the experimental temperature of 1503K (1230° C), weight loss of only 9.5% was noted and XRD of the product showed the presence of TiB₂, Ti₃B₄, TiO₂, Ti₂O₃ and graphite indicating only a partial reduction of titanium oxide. At 1633K (1360° C), weight loss was 28.5% and the phases present were TiB₂, Ti₃B₄, Ti₂O₃ and graphite. As the weight loss is higher than in the previous case and the absence of TiO₂ indicates a higher extent of reaction, but the reaction is still incomplete as Ti₂O₃ is present. At higher temperatures of 1773, 1873 and 1973K (1500, 1600, and 1700°C) the weight loss was above 40% and the product was only TiB₂. Oxygen and carbon content of these three samples were high in the range of 2 to 4% each. XRD of samples synthesized at various temperatures are presented in Fig.4.3. Only at temperatures above 2073K (1800°C) and an ultimate vacuum of <0.01 Pa, the product obtained was pure, low in carbon (<0.5 wt%) and oxygen (<0.5 wt%) and the weight loss recorded under this conditions was 44.6 to 44.9%. Details of a typical experiment are given in Table 4.1.

From the above results, it is clear that TiB_2 formation is thermodynamically feasible (in vacuum) at much lower temperatures of <1273K (<1000°C), but in the present case, single phase TiB_2 was obtained only at or above 1773K (1500°C). This could be due to the solid state and diffusion controlled reaction of TiB_2 formation. Usually this kind of solid state reaction takes place with intermediate steps, as a result intermediate products of Ti_3B_4 and Ti_2O_3 were observed in the present study. Possible intermediate reactions of TiB_2 formation are given follow:

$$6\text{TiO}_2 + 3/2\text{B}_4\text{C} + 15/2\text{C} \rightarrow \text{TiB}_2 + \text{Ti}_3\text{B}_4 + \text{Ti}_2\text{O}_3 + 9\text{CO}$$

(4.2)

 $1/5Ti_{3}B_{4} + 3/10B_{4}C + 1/5Ti_{2}O_{3} + 3/10C \rightarrow TiB_{2} + 3/5CO$ (4.3)

Free energy data for the above reaction (4.2) at 800K and 400K are -113.37 kJ/mol and -56.58 kJ/mol respectively (see Fig. 4.1) explains that formation of these intermediate products (Ti_3B_4 and Ti_2O_3), when synthesis was carried out at or below 1773K (1500°C).

In the thermogravimetric run, the presence of Ti_3B_4 in the product and a weight loss of 47%, which is more than the theoretical value of 44%, indicate that some boron compound has evaporated during the process. A similar observation has not been noted in the induction furnace runs. Another notable difference is the weight loss at ~1573K (1300°C). In the thermo gravimetric run the reaction is nearly complete at 1603K (1330°C), whereas in the induction furnace furnace run a much lower weight loss of 28.5% is recorded at 1633K (1360°C). As the temperature of reaction is increased to1773K (1500°C) the reaction is nearly complete, but the product is contaminated with higher levels of carbon and oxygen impurities (>2 wt%). Further removal of these impurities requires diffusion of the reacting species through the product layer of titanium diboride and hence the need for a much higher temperature of >2073K (1800°C) and a

higher vacuum of 0.001Pa. At lower temperatures (<1673K) even extended hours of holding does not yield a pure product.

Table 4.1A typical experiment on synthesis of TiB_2
<u>Charge composition (g)</u> :
$11O_2 = 64.530; B_4C = 22.592; Coke = 12.885$
Synthesis Parameters:
Temperature: 2093K (1820°C)
Vacuum: 0.001 Pa; Time: 3 hour
Product:
$TiB_2 == 55.08 g$
Weight $loss = 44.93\%$ (theoretical wt. loss: 44.44% as per the reaction 4.1)
Ti-68.5%, B-29.8%, O<0.5%, N<0.5%, C<0.5%, Fe<0.1%, Cl<50 ppm



Fig.4.2 Thermogravimetric study of TiB₂ formation

The product of reduction at 2073K (1800°C) was a loosely sintered powder and could be crushed easily. Further grinding to micron size was carried out in high energy cup grinding mill.

Milling for a period of 30 minutes yielded TiB_2 of 1µm median dia. When continuously operated, the pot and the material got heated and hence the milling operations were carried out with intermittent cooling. Fig. 4.4 and 4.5 shows the particle size distribution and morphology (SEM image) of TiB₂ powders respectively.



Fig.4.3 XRD of products synthesized at different temperatures


Fig. 4.4 Particle size distribution of TiB₂ powder



Fig.4.5 SEM image of titanium diboride powder

4.3 Synthesis of CrB₂

Synthesis of CrB_2 was carried as per the reaction (4.4). Initial experiment was carried out by TGA.

$$Cr_2O_3 + B_4C + 2C \rightarrow 2CrB_2 + 3CO \tag{4.4}$$

Fig.4.6 shows the weight loss vs. temperature curve obtained by thermogravimetry experiment of a stoichiometric charge mixture (Cr_2O_3 : B_4C : C:: 1: 1 : 2). The reaction starts at 1144K (871°C) and results in a total weight loss of ~ 38.4% by 1673K (1400°C). The weight loss observed is slightly (2.1%) more than the anticipated weight loss of 36.3%. This could be due to the evaporation of sub oxides of boron. The possible reactions to evaporation of sub oxides of boron are given in the next section.

Effects of temperature on synthesis of chromium boride using stoichiometric charges are presented in Table.4.2. At 1773K (1500°C), though the weight loss is close to the theoretical value of 38.4%, the product is impure containing Cr_3B_4 , CrB, Cr_2B_3 , and graphite phases in addition to CrB_2 . After reaction at 1873K (1600°C) CrB and Cr_2B_3 phases are still present but these disappear after treatment at 1973K (1700°C) (Fig.4.7). But presences of CrB_2 , Cr_3B_4 and graphite phases are seen even after the reaction at 2073 K (1800°C). The reasoning to explain the mechanism of reaction is presented in the following lines:

The presence of CrB phase upto1873K (1600°C) indicates the possibility of intermediate reaction (4.5). CrB reacts with B_4C to form CrB_2 and Cr_3B_4 as per reaction (4.6). Cr_2B_3 decomposes to CrB_2 and Cr_3B_4 as per reaction (4.7). Free energy change for reaction (4.5) is negative at temperatures >700K (427°C).

Free energy for the reaction (4.6 & 4.7) could not be computed as data for Cr_3B_4 is not available.

$$Cr_2O_3 + 1/2B_4C + 5/2C \rightarrow 2CrB + 3CO$$
 (4.5)

$$4CrB + 1/2B_4C \to CrB_2 + Cr_3B_4 + 1/2C \qquad ? \tag{4.6}$$

 $2Cr_2B_3 \rightarrow CrB_2 + Cr_3B_4 \qquad (4.7)$

The presence of boron deficient phase (Cr_3B_4) even after the treatment at 2073K (1800°C) indicates the loss of boron from the charge, which could occur by following reactions: $Cr_2O_3 + 3/2 B_4C \rightarrow 2CrB_2 + B_2O_3\uparrow + 3/2C$ (4.8) $Cr_2O_3 + 5/2 B_4C \rightarrow 2CrB_2 + 3B_2O\uparrow + 5/2C$ (4.9)



Fig.4.6 Thermograviometry study of formation of CrB₂

Table 4.2 Effect of temperature on synthesis of chromium boride using stoichiometric charge (holding time: 2 hours)

Temperature (K)	Weight loss (%)	Phases present
1773	38.65	CrB_2 , Cr_3B_4 , CrB , Cr_2B_3 , C
1873	39.57	CrB_2 , Cr_3B_4 , CrB , Cr_2B_3 , C
1973	38.93	CrB_2, Cr_3B_4, C
2073	39.13	CrB_2, Cr_3B_4, C



Fig.4.7 XRD pattern of chromium boride prepared by stoichiometric charge at 1973K



Fig.4.8 Free energy change of reactions (FactSage software version 6.3[1])

Thermodynamic calculation [1] (Fig. 4.8) indicates that both reaction (4.8) and (4.9) could take place on heating and hence boron could be lost as B_2O_3/B_2O during reaction. Vapor pressure of B_2O_3 at 1523K is 267Pa [2]. Experiments were carried out in high vacuum at 0.001Pa. Hence to obtain single-phase CrB₂ phase, it is necessary to add excess boron in the charge.

Results of experiments carried out with varying molar ratio of charge mixtures are presented in Table 4.3. The XRD patterns of product obtained by reaction of modified charge mixtures are presented in Fig.4.9. Graphite in the product is eliminated by reducing the carbon content in the charge, which can be seen in the Table 4.3 at sample no. 3 and in the Fig.4.9. With a molar ratio (Cr_2O_3 : B_4C : C) of 1: 1: 1.6 a product without graphite phase was obtained but Cr_3B_4 was still present. With this reduced carbon, when boron content in the charge is increased, single phase CrB_2 was obtained (sample no.5 in Table.4.3) The molar ratio for obtaining single phase pure CrB_2 was evaluated as 1: 1.2: 1.31. CrB_2 powder prepared by such a charge was found to contain 0.9% carbon and 0.6% oxygen.

Sample	Molar ratio of charge $(Cr_2O_3 : B_4C : C)$	Phases present
1	1:1:2	CrB_2 , Cr_3B_4 , C
2	1:1:1.8	CrB_2 , Cr_3B_4 , C
3	1:1:1.6	CrB_2 , Cr_3B_4
4	1:1.1:1.45	CrB_2 , Cr_3B_4
5	1:1.2:1.31	CrB ₂

Table 4.3 Effect of charge composition on synthesis of Chromium boride (Temperature- 1973K, holding time- 2 hours)



Fig.4.9 XRD pattern of the products obtained by varying charge composition (*MR: molar ratio $(Cr_2O_3:B_4C:C)$)

By systematic experimental studies the charge composition and the process parameters for production of single phase CrB_2 using commercial grade reactants has been arrived. The SEM image and particle size distribution of CrB_2 powder prepared in the present study are shown in Fig. 4.10 and 4.11 respectively. SEM image shows that particles are around 4-5 µm size. The particle size distribution is tri-modal in nature and the shape of the particles are irregular possibly due to grinding operations.



Fig. 4.10 SEM image of CrB₂ powder



4.4 Synthesis of pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂

The results reported earlier indicate that synthesis of TiB_2 and CrB_2 require temperatures above 1973K (1700°C) for obtaining single phase pure compounds. Synthesis of a composite boride [(TiCr)B₂] would be advantageous in obtaining a homogenous product with possibly improved properties. The synthesis of (TiCr)B₂ was attempted by the following reaction:

$$2\text{TiO}_2 + B_4\text{C} + \text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3 + 6\text{C} \rightarrow 2(\text{TiCr})B_2 + 7\text{CO}\uparrow$$
(4.10)

This carbide-oxide reaction is a simple and direct method for preparation of compound, when the reactants are available in pure and finely divided form. As the reactants consist of four solid substances, homogenization of the charge mixture is essential for completion of the reaction. The product of reaction at ~1473K (1200°C) was found to be $(TiCr)B_2$ highly contaminated with carbon and oxygen, each analyzing in the range of 3-4%. As the temperature of the reaction was increased, the carbon and the oxygen contents decreased, similar to synthesis of TiB₂ and a pure product with carbon and oxygen contents below 0.5wt% each could be obtained at a temperature of 2098K (1825°C) and a final vacuum of 0.001Pa (1x10⁻⁵m.bar). Particle size distribution of (TiCr)B₂ powder prepared in the present study is shown in Fig. 4.12. Chemical analysis of the product (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂ is given in weight % as Ti- 60.9, Cr-11.6, B-26.2, C-0.07, O-0.6, N-0.5.



4.5 Synthesis of MoSi₂

Molybdenum disilicide ($MoSi_2$) was synthesized from its elements using stoichiometric amounts of pure molybdenum (> 99.7%, Merc Germany) and silicon (>99%) as per the following reaction:

$$Mo + 2Si \rightarrow MoSi_2$$
 (4.11)

As the formation of MoSi₂ is highly exothermic (ΔH° =-131 kJ)[1], abrupt increase in the charge temperature indicates onset of reaction. The furnace power is turned off with the onset of rise in temperature. Quantity of charge and the spacing between the pellets were adjusted such that the product MoSi₂ was not overheated to near melting point. A small weight loss of 1-2% was observed due to evaporation of high vapor pressure species such as SiO and MoO₃. The SEM image and particle size distribution of MoSi₂ powder prepared in the present study are shown in Fig. 4.13 and 4.14 respectively. SEM image shows that particles are in the range of 2-5 µm sizes. The particle size distribution is bi-model in nature and the shapes of particles are irregular due to grinding operations. Chemical analysis of impurities in synthesized MoSi₂ is measured in weight % as C-0.37, O-0.30, Fe-0.15.



Fig. 4.13 SEM image showing the morphology of MoSi₂



Fig. 4.14 Particle size distribution of MoSi₂powder

4.6 Summary

Syntheses of single-phase refractory metal borides from elemental constituents are expensive. CVD techniques are complex, generally used for coatings and not for commercial production of powders. Borothermic reduction involves loss of expensive boron in the form of boron oxides. Thus, boron carbide reduction method is a better method for the synthesis of refractory metal borides considering both start materials availability and ease of process comfort. B₄C serves both as a reducing agent (due to the presence of carbon) as well as the source of boron to form borides. Hence, the present study of synthesis of borides by carbothermic reduction in the presence of boron carbide leads to obtain a single phase refractory metal borides. By using this method, single phase TiB₂, CrB₂, (Ti_{0.95}C_{0.05})B₂, (Ti_{0.90}C_{0.10})B₂ and (Ti_{0.85}C_{0.15})B₂ materials were synthesized successfully in the present thesis. Important findings of the present study are given below:

- a) Synthesis of titanium diboride through reduction of titanium dioxide by boron carbide and carbon was studied. Process parameters were optimized to prepare pure boride with carbon and oxygen contents of 0.5% each. Milling of the as reduced boride to a fine size of 1µm median diameter powder was achieved.
- b) Charge composition and reduction conditions have been optimized to synthesize single phase chromium diboride (CrB₂) by boron carbide reduction of chromium oxide in the presence of carbon.
- c) Homogenous product of pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂ was prepared by carbothermic reduction of Ti and Cr oxides in the presence of boron carbide.
- d) Molybdenum disilicide was synthesized from its elements using stoichiometric amounts of molybdenum and silicon.

4.7 References

- [1] FactSage software version 6.3
- [2] http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1151-2916.1935.tb19358.x/abstract

CHAPTER 5

CHAPTER 5

DENSIFICATION, MICROSTRUCTURE, MECHANICAL AND PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

5.1 Introduction

This chapter has been divided into three sections: section I describes densification of the composites, section II describes phase identification and microstructural characterization; and thermodynamic analysis to elucidate the densification mechanism, and section III describes the mechanical and physical properties of the composites produced, structure property relations used to explain the toughening mechanisms.

Effect of various sinter additives (TiSi₂, CrSi₂, WSi₂, CrB₂) on the densification of TiB₂ by hot pressing has been studied. Combined addition of sinter additives (CrB₂+MoSi₂) on densification of TiB₂ has also been studied. Dense pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂ + 20% MoSi₂ composites were also prepared. Transition/refractory metal disilicides are selected as sintering aids for TiB₂, because they are high temperature materials in their own right in addition to their favorable thermodynamic compatibility with many borides [1-3]. Silicides are attractive for high temperature applications as they possess high melting point, retention of strength and ductility at high temperatures and excellent oxidation resistance. For example, CrSi₂ finds application as high temperature structural material in aerospace and energy conversion industries. CrSi₂ has excellent oxidation resistance, with negligible weight gain up to 1473K (1200°C) in air and hence finds use in oxidizing environments at temperatures higher than the upper limit for Nibase superalloys [3,4]. The oxidation resistance of $CrSi_2$ is attributed to the formation of Cr_2O_3 and amorphous SiO₂ scales. Tungsten silicide coatings have outstanding abrasive and adhesive wear resistance due to strong covalent bonds [3]. Tungsten silicides show oxidation resistance up to 2273K (2000°C) in air due to the formation of a protective SiO₂ film [3]. MoSi₂ has evoked more interest for high temperature structural applications above 1273K (1000°C), because of its high melting point (2293K), high thermal conductivity (~53 W/mK) and good oxidation resistance (up to 1973K) [1,3]. TiSi₂ is also of interest as a high temperature structural material, because in addition to high oxidation resistance (1473-1573K) and it also has low density (4040 kg/m³) [2].

Densified pellets were examined by XRD, SEM-EDX, EPMA. XRD analysis confirmed that the hot pressed pellets contained in TiB_2 composites either the additives in solid solution or as reaction products. SEM microstructures present the distribution of various phases in end product. Elemental analysis of various phases of dense composites was characterized by SEM-EDS and EPMA. Spot analysis, line scan across various phases and elemental mapping over a region of phases for all elements were carried out to elucidate the interaction between matrix and sinter additives. In addition, fractography and crack propagation patterns were analyzed to explain the mode of fracture and the crack propagation mechanisms in all the composites.

Hardness and fracture toughness values of all the composites were measured. Variation of the hardness is dependent on the density, nature of second phase and its quantity in the composite. Similarly the fracture toughness also depends on the above parameters. Physical properties like coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE), electrical resistivity were also measured in the temperature range of 298 – 1273K.

Densification of TiB_2 and its composites were attempted by both pressureless sintering and hot pressing in the present study. However, required densification was not achieved by pressureless sintering even after adding sinter additives. Hence, all composites in the present study were prepared by hot pressing and hot pressed samples were used for microstructural characterization and oxidation studies. Detailed oxidation results are given in next chapter. Detailed results and discussion on densification of each of the composites is described separately in the following section.

5.2 Densification of monolithic TiB₂ and its composites

Densification of monolithic TiB₂ was attempted by pressureless sintering at 2173K (1900°C) for 2 hours in an Ar+H₂ atmosphere. Fully dense pellets were not obtained by this method [1]. Hot pressing technique was alternatively used to densify the monolithic TiB₂ and the results are presented in Fig.5.1. In the temperature range studied, highest density of 97.5% TD was obtained only at 2073K (1800°C).

5.2.1 Densification of TiB₂+TiSi₂ composites

A few pressureless sintering experiments were attempted in the temperature range of 1773-2073K (1500-1800°C) with varying additions of $TiSi_2$ to TiB_2 in a vacuum induction furnace. The highest density achieved by pressureless sintering was only 82% of theoretical (TD). Hence characterization studies of pressureless sintered samples were not carried out.

Densification results of the hot pressed samples are presented in Fig.5.2. Under identical conditions of hot pressing, density of monolithic TiB₂ obtained was 82% TD. whereas that of TiB_2 with a small addition of $TiSi_2$ (2.5%) was 96% TD. Near theoretical density (~99% TD) was obtained with the increase of the sintering aid content (TiSi₂) to \geq 5 wt%. Attainment of such a high density for TiB₂ particulate composite is attributed to the liquid phase sintering due to the low melting point (1813K) of TiSi2. While hot pressing TiB₂ without any sinter additive, a higher hot pressing temperature of 2073K (1800°C) was needed to achieve 97.5 % TD [1]. In the present study, 99% TD was obtained by using sinter additive at a hot pressing temperature of 1823K (1550°C) itself. About 100K higher temperature (1923K) was reported by Raju et al.[2] for a similar densification. The applied pressure (30 MPa) is same in both the cases. The major reason for better sinterability of present samples could be due to higher purity of the starting powders, (TiB₂ having 0.5% oxygen as compared to 1.9% with Raju's samples), use of pure TiSi₂ (electronic grade), and the use of vacuum (0.001Pa) in the furnace in place of argon atmosphere used by Raju et.al^[2]. In a high vacuum resistance heating furnace using graphite, there will always be present a partially reducing atmosphere, which helps to reduce the surface oxides of non-oxide ceramics.



Fig. 5.1 Effect of hot pressing temperature on the densification of monolithic TiB_2 (Line joining points are for visual aid only)



Fig. 5.2 Effect of TiSi₂ additive on the densification of TiB₂ by hot pressing at 1823K (Line joining points are for visual aid only)

5.2.2 Densification of TiB₂ + CrSi₂ composites

Experiments were carried out on pressureless sintering of TiB_2 with varying additions of $CrSi_2$ in the temperature range of 1723-1873K (1450-1600°C) in vacuum as well as in argon for 2h. The highest density achieved was 68% TD at 1723K (1450°C) even with the addition of 10% $CrSi_2$. Hence, this approach of densification was not pursued further.

Results on the densification of hot pressed samples are presented in Table.5.1. Near theoretical density of 99.89% TD was obtained with 2.5% addition of $CrSi_2$. With further increase of sinter additive the density was found to decrease. Hot pressing of TiB₂ without any sinter additive, gave a density of 97.5% TD at a higher hot pressing temperature of 2073K (1800°C) and a pressure of 32 MPa [1]. When $CrSi_2$ is used, liquid phase sintering (MP of $CrSi_2$: 1750 K) leads to higher densification at a lower temperature (1973K) and pressure (28 MPa).

Wt.% CrSi ₂	Density (kg/m ³)	Relative Density [#] (%TD)	Relative Density ^{\$} (%TD)	Open porosity [₹]
2.5	4330	99.9	99.5	0.43
5	4280	98.6	98.4	0.39
10	4170	95.5	95.1	0.46
15	4060	92.3	92.4	0.41
0*	4210	97.5	-	2.34

Table 5.1 Density of $TiB_2 + CrSi_2$ composites prepared by hot pressing at 1973K (1700°C) and 28 MPa pressure

* hot pressed at 2073K (1800°C)[1]; # calculated by using rule of mixture; \$ by SEMimage analysis tool, ₹ by Archimedes principle

5.2.3 Densification of TiB₂ + WSi₂ composites

A few experiments were carried out on pressureless sintering of TiB_2 with additions of WSi₂ in the temperature range of 1873-2223K (1600-1950°C) in vacuum for 2 to 4h. The highest density achieved was only 86% TD at 2223K (1950°C) for 4h with the addition of 15% WSi₂. As the density obtained was low, this approach of densification was not attempted further.

Results on densification of hot pressed samples are presented in Table 5.2. To obtain a density of 97.5 %TD without any sinter additive, 2073K (1800°C) and 32 MPa were needed [1]. Liquid phase sintering due to reaction products probably results in enhanced densification.

Additive, wt.% WSi ₂	Density, kg/m ³	Relative Density % TD	Hardness, GPa	Fracture toughness, MPa m ^{1/2}
0	3670	85.0	11 ± 2	-
2	3870	88.5	-	-
2.5	4360	99.5	26 ± 3	5.0 ± 1.0
5	4550	100	24 ± 3	5.9 ± 1.9
10	4640	100	$26\pm {\rm 2}$	4.3 ± 0.9
15	4830	100	24 ± 2	4.8 ± 0.9

Table 5.2 Density and mechanical properties of hot pressed samples (Operating conditions: 1873K (1600°C), 1 hour, 30 MPa)

5.2.4 Densification of TiB₂ + CrB₂ composites

Density of the hot pressed samples is presented in Table 5.3. For monolithic TiB_2 , 89% TD was obtained under the same conditions. Attainment of higher density of TiB_2 composites with CrB_2 is attributed [3,4] to the higher mobility of CrB_2 and formation of solid solution with TiB_2 . While hot pressing TiB_2 and CrB_2 powders at 2023K (1750°C), the microstructure has been observed to be solid sintered (Cr,Ti)B₂ clusters and particles with an unreacted base of TiB₂ with an outer layer of (Cr,Ti)B₂ [3]. The quasi binary phase diagram of CrB₂-TiB₂ system is reproduced in Fig. 5.3[3]. It shows a dotted line from 1750 to 2000°C, indicating the formation of two phases of TiB₂ and (Ti,Cr)B₂ below this line. From the phase diagram, maximum CrB₂ solubility in TiB₂ does not exceed 1 mol% (1.15 wt.%) at 2073K (1800°C). From the above it is clear that higher addition of CrB₂ does not contribute towards solid solution formation at the sintering temperature of 2023K (1750°C) and hence no increase in density is observed for composites with CrB₂ above 2.5%. Holcombe *et al.*[5] obtained a density of 84 and 90% TD with the addition of 3% CrB₂ in pressureless sintering at 2173 and 2373K (1900 and 2100°C) respectively. Konigshofer *et al.*[6] obtained 98.9% TD with the addition of 0.5% CrB₂ to TiB₂ by hot pressing at a higher temperature of 2073K (1800°C) and higher pressure of 45 MPa.



5.8

$\begin{array}{c} CrB_2 & content \\ (\% wt.) \end{array}$	Relative Density (%TD)	Micro hardness (GPa)	Fracture toughness K_{IC} (MPa·m ^{1/2})
0	89.0	-	-
2.5	96.6	23.86 ± 1.2	2.80 ± 0.1
5	94.8	23.68 ± 1.9	4.30 ± 0.3
10	94.0	23.92 ± 1.0	4.99 ± 0.9

Table.5.3 Relative density, Hardness and Fracture toughness of TiB₂+CrB₂ compositehot pressed at 2023K (1750°C), 1h, 35 MPa

5.2.5 Densification of TiB₂ + 20%MoSi₂ + CrB₂ composites

Results on densification of hot pressed samples are presented in Table 5.4. With 5% addition of CrB_2 to $TiB_2+20\%MoSi_2$, 98.4% TD was obtained. As mentioned earlier, the densities obtained with 5% and 10% CrB_2 of TiB_2 were 94.8% and 94.0% TD (Table 5.3) respectively by hot pressing at 2023K (1750°C) and 35 MPa. Hot pressing of $TiB_2+20\%MoSi_2$ without CrB_2 , resulted in a density of 98.7 % TD at a lower temperature of 1700°C and 32 MPa [1]. In the present study also, $MoSi_2$ is responsible for achieving a density of >95% TD due to liquid phase sintering. Major contribution of $MoSi_2$ in densification is due to compressive deformation of $MoSi_2$ and the product of reaction between TiB_2 and $MoSi_2$, namely $TiSi_2$ also contributes in densification [1].

Table 5.4 Density, hardness and fracture toughness of TiB2 composites; hot pressed at
2073K (1800°C), 1h, 35 MPar. TiB2 CompositeRelative Density, VickersFracture toughne

Sr.	TiB_2 Composite	Relative Density,	Vickers	Fracture toughness
No.		%TD	Hardness (GPa)	$(MPa.m^{1/2})$
1	20% MoSi ₂ +5%CrB ₂	98.4	24±1	3.5±0.7
2	20% MoSi ₂ +10%CrB ₂	95.7	19±1	3.7±0.4
3	20% MoSi ₂ +15%CrB ₂	96.4	18±1	4.1±0.3
4	20% MoSi ₂ +0%CrB ₂	98.7	25±1	5.0±0.7
5 ^{\$}	0% MoSi ₂ + $0%$ CrB ₂	97.5	26±1	5.1±0.7

* hot pressed at 1973K (1700°C)[1];\$ hot pressed at 2073K (1800°C)[1]

5.2.6 Densification of (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ composites

Results on densification of hot pressed samples are presented in Table 5.5. The density of composites obtained with 5, 10 and 15% CrB_2 contained (TiCr)B₂+20% MoSi₂ composites were 96.5, 97.9 and 99.2% TD respectively.

Sr.	Composite	Density,	Relative	Micro	Fracture
No.		kg/m ³	Density*	Hardness	toughness
			(%TD)	(GPa)	$(MPa.m^{1/2})$
1	(Ti _{0.95} Cr _{0.5})B ₂ +20% MoSi ₂	4430	96.5	25±1	2.8 ± 0.2
2	$(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	4670	97.9	24± 1	3.5 ± 0.6
3	(Ti _{0.85} Cr _{0.15})B ₂ +20% MoSi ₂	4810	99.2	27± 1	4.5 ± 0.5

Table 5.5 Density, hardness and fracture toughness of (TiCr)B₂ composites

While comparing CrB₂, TiSi₂, CrSi₂, MoSi₂+CrB₂, and WSi₂ as sinter additives to TiB₂, highest density values are obtained with WSi₂. But in all cases there was significant improvement in density even with a small 2.5% addition of sinter additive. With addition of TiSi₂ and WSi₂, there is monotonic increase in the density, whereas in other cases a decrease in density is seen beyond certain values. The mechanism of sintering is probably different in each case and the sintering temperatures also vary.

To elucidate the densification mechanism, it is necessary to identify the new phases which are formed during the course of sintering and its distribution. Following section presents results and discussion on phase identification, microstructural characterization and thermodynamic analysis of the composites studied.

^{*} calculated by SEM-image analysis tool

5.3 Phase identification and Microstructural characterization

Densified pellets were characterized by XRD, SEM-EDAX and EPMA. XRD analysis confirmed that the hot pressed pellets of TiB_2 composites contained the additives in solid solution or as reaction products. SEM microstructures revealed the distribution of various phases in the end product. Fractured surfaces were analyzed by SEM. Fractography reveals the type of fracture (ductile/brittle/intermediate), grain growth, presence of pores and its distribution. Important findings of the individual composites are given below:

5.3.1 TiB₂+TiSi₂ composites

XRD pattern of the hot pressed TiB₂+10%TiSi₂ is shown in the Fig. 5.4. Our observations are similar to that of Raju et. al [2], showing the presence of Ti₅Si₃ in all the samples, except for the composite with TiSi₂ in the charge $\geq 10\%$, where both TiSi₂ and Ti₅Si₃ were seen. Sade et.al [7] reported the formation of SiB₆ at the interface of TiB₂ and TiSi₂ when annealed at 1357K (1084°C). Ramos et.al [8] reported the existence of Ti₆Si₂B, a new ternary phase in the Ti-Si-B system. At 1473K (1200°C) Ti₆Si₂B phase forms from the liquid through the peritectic reaction: L + TiB + Ti₅Si₃ \Leftrightarrow Ti₆Si₂B. In the present investigation such a ternary phase has not been identified. This could be due to the greater stability of TiB₂ phase compared to TiB in the (TiB₂+TiSi₂) composite.



Fig. 5.4 XRD analysis of TiB₂+10% TiSi₂ sample

Back Scattered Electron (BSE) image of $TiB_2+10\%TiSi_2$ sample is presented in Fig. 5.5. This picture shows three distinct types of regions grey matrix, black and white phase in the matrix. Elemental analysis of these regions showed the grey matrix to be of TiB_2 with ~0.22% Si, the black phases also of TiB_2 but rich in silicon (~12%) and the white phases to be rich in titanium with <1% silicon. One can see a few more areas with varying brightness. These could be reaction products with varying proportions of different phases. Fig. 5.6a presents the portion surrounding a big $TiSi_2$ particle. Elemental mapping of this portion for titanium, boron and silicon are shown in Fig. 5.6 b, c and d. Unreacted portions of $TiSi_2$ particle can be seen clearly in Fig. 5.6d as white. Fig. 5.6a and b indicate the presence of titanium surrounding the unreacted portion. Fig. 5.6c clearly shows the absence of boron in the $TiSi_2$ particle. This figure suggests that

silicon from $TiSi_2$ is migrating to the matrix. TiB_2 is a more stable phase compared to $TiSi_2$ at the hot pressing temperatures [9]. EPMA analysis clearly shows traces of Si in TiB_2 phase.



Fig. 5.5 BSE image of TiB_2+TiSi_2 composite

Phase analysis

Dar	<u>Dark phase</u> <u>Mar</u>		<u>Matrix</u>		<u>ght phase</u>
We	eight%	W	eight%	W	Veight%
В	26.66	В	~30	В	<0.01%
Si	12.09	Si	< 0.22	Si	0.8 - 1%
Ti	61.25	Ti	~69	Ti	>98%



Fig. 5.6 a) BSE of a big TiSi₂ particle in the matrix; Elemental mapping for b) Ti, c) B and d) Si

Fractured surface of $TiB_2+2.5\%TiSi_2$ and $TiB_2+10\%TiSi_2$ samples taken by SEM (Secondary Electron Mode) are presented in Fig.5.7. Both the pictures show the fracture to be predominantly transgranular mode. No grain growth is observed in both the samples. Fractography of $TiB_2+10\%TiSi_2$ shows the absence of pores in the fully dense structure; whereas tiny pores can be seen in the $TiB_2+2.5\%TiSi_2$ which has roughly 4% porosity.



Fig. 5.7 Fractography of a) $TiB_2+2.5\%$ $TiSi_2$ and b) $TiB_2+10\%$ $TiSi_2$ samples

5.3.2 TiB₂ + CrSi₂ composites

XRD patterns of the starting powder mixture and hot pressed $TiB_2+10\% CrSi_2$ composite are shown in Fig.5.8. In the pellet, TiB_2 and $CrSi_2$ phases only are present indicating the absence of any reaction product. However, the intensities and number of $CrSi_2$ peaks are lower in the pellet as compared to the powder mixture. A small shift in location of TiB_2 peaks is also noticed in the pellet as compared to that of powder mixture. These observations indicate the formation of solid solution in the composite between TiB_2 and Cr. The increase in lattice parameters after hot pressing (c/a: from 1.033 to 1.066, c: from 3.158 to 3.222) also confirms the above. Origin of the Cr for the above solid solution formation is explained later.

Back Scattered Electron (BSE) image of $TiB_2+10\%CrSi_2$ composite is presented in Fig. 5.9. This figure reveals three distinct phases; dark grey matrix, black and white phases.



Fig. 5.8 XRD pattern of $TiB_2+10\% CrSi_2$ powder and composite pellet. TiB_2 and $CrSi_2$ peaks only are seen in both



Fig. 5.9 Back Scattered Image of TiB₂+10%CrSi₂ composite show the presence of three different regions: dark grey matrix, white and black regions

Line scan for Ti, Si and Cr across the white and black phases are presented in Fig. 5.10. The black phase shows the presence of silicon only (Cr is absent) whereas Ti and Cr are present in white phase. BSE image and elemental mapping of all the three phases for titanium, silicon and chromium are presented in Fig. 5.11(a-d). Fig. 5.11 (b) shows the absence of Ti in the black phase, Fig. 5.11 (c) shows the presence of Si only in the black phase and Fig. 5.11 (d) uniform distribution of Cr in the whole region. The elemental distribution of Ti, Cr and Si indicate that Cr migrates to surrounding matrix leaving Si in the original position. Long streaks of black region in Fig.5.10 shows the flow of molten silicon (Melting Point of Si: 1687K), during hot pressing.



Fig. 5.10 Line scan across the white and black phases of $TiB_2+10\% CrSi_2$ composite. Black phase rich in Si and white phase rich in Ti and Cr

The most probable reactions for the decomposition of $CrSi_2$ to other silicides with the formation of Si are given below and the free energy changes at 0.001 Pa for these reactions up to 2000K are presented in Fig. 5.12 [9]. All thermodynamic calculations were performed using FactSage software version 6.3 with the option of using most stable compounds data (solid/liquid/gas) at that particular temperature and pressure. For all the reactions the free energy values are more or less constant and positive till the melting point of $CrSi_2$. From the melting point free energy values are decreasing with temperature and for all the reactions becoming negative. Among all these reactions, reaction (5.1) is more negative at the hot pressing temperature of 1973K (1700°C). This explains the formation of Si during hot pressing.

$$\operatorname{CrSi}_2 \rightarrow \operatorname{Cr} + 2\operatorname{Si}$$
 (5.1)

$$\operatorname{CrSi}_2 \rightarrow 1/3 \operatorname{Cr}_3 \operatorname{Si} + 5/3 \operatorname{Si}$$
 (5.2)

$$\operatorname{CrSi}_2 \rightarrow 1/5 \operatorname{Cr}_5 \operatorname{Si}_3 + 7/5 \operatorname{Si}$$
 (5.3)

$$\operatorname{CrSi}_2 \xrightarrow{} \operatorname{CrSi} + \operatorname{Si}$$
 (5.4)

Fig. 5.13 presents the free energy of formation of CrB_2 and $CrSi_2$ with temperature. Formation of CrB_2 is more favorable compared to $CrSi_2$. This could explain the reason, why Cr from additive $CrSi_2$ is diffusing to TiB_2 matrix and confirmed by XRD analysis also.

SEM images of fractured surfaces of 5%CrSi₂ and 15%CrSi₂ composites are presented in Fig.5.14 (a & b). In 5% CrSi₂ composite, the major mode of fracture is seen as intergranular, whereas both intergranular and transgranular mode of fractures contribute equally in the failure of 10% CrSi₂ composite. No grain growth is observed in 5%CrSi₂ composite (Fig. 5.14 a), whereas particle size is more in 15%CrSi₂ (Fig. 5.14 b), probably due to agglomeration caused by liquid Si. Both the samples show the presence of pores, more in the case of 15% composite. The formation of pores could be due to the evaporation of Si formed during the course of hot pressing, which was carried out under a vacuum of 0.001 Pa (10^{-5} m.bar). The vapor pressure of pure Si at the hot pressing temperature (1973K) is 1.01 Pa (1.01×10^{-2} m.bar) [10].



Fig. 5.11 Elemental mapping of $TiB_2+10\%CrSi_2$ composite (a) BS image and distribution of (b) Ti, (c) Si and (d) Cr in different phases



Fig. 5.12 Free energy change with temperature for $CrSi_2$ decomposition reactions with the formation of Si under 0.001Pa [9]



Fig. 5.13 Free energy vs. temperature curves for CrB₂ and CrSi₂ formation [9]



Fig. 5.14 SEM images of fractured surface (a) $TiB_2 + 5\%$ $CrSi_2$ and (b) $TiB_2 + 15\%$ $CrSi_2$ composite

5.3.3 TiB₂ + WSi₂ composites

XRD patterns of the starting powder mixtures and hot pressed composites (5, 10 & 15% WSi₂) are shown in Fig.5.15. Starting powder mixtures showed the presence of Ti_6O_{11} in addition to TiB_2 and WSi₂ phases. Formation of Ti_6O_{11} could be due to the oxidation of TiB_2 while dry mixing or storage of powders. In this study, the TiB_2 powder was from the old stock; which was prepared a couple of months prior to the date of hot pressing. As a result some oxygen pick up took place during the storage due to fine size of powders. TiB_2 , W_5Si_3 and SiO_2 phases are present in the densified pellet, indicating the formation of reaction products. The number of peaks and the intensity of W_5Si_3 and SiO_2 are seen to increase with increase in addition of WSi_2 from 5 to 15%. XRD results confirm the occurrence of sintering reactions, by consumption of WSi_2 phase and formation of W_5Si_3 and SiO_2 as reaction products.



* $TiB_2(75-1045) + WSi_2(81-0168) \times Ti_6O_{11}(76-1266)$ \$ $W_5Si_3(16-0261)$ # $SiO_2(82-1575)$

Fig.5.15 XRD patterns of staring mixtures and densified pellets of TiB₂+WSi₂ samples

Back Scattered Electron (BSE) image of $TiB_2+10\%WSi_2$ sample is shown in Fig. 5.16a. This picture reveals two distinct phases; grey matrix and white regions. Line scan for Ti, Si and W across the grey and white phases are presented in Fig. 5.16 (b-d). The white phase shows the presence of silicon and tungsten whereas titanium in the grey phase. White, grey phases could be tungsten silicides and titanium boride respectively.



Fig. 5.16 a) Back Scattered Electron image of TiB₂+10%WSi₂ sample, Line scan across the white phase and matrix for different elements Ti (b), Si (c), W (d)

BSE image and elemental mapping of both phases for titanium, silicon and tungsten are presented in Fig. 5.17(a-d). Fig. 5.17 (b) shows the absence of Ti in the white phase, Fig. 5.17 (c) shows the presence of Si in the white phase and Fig. 5.17 (d) shows W in white phase.



Fig. 5.17 a) Back Scattered Electron (BSE) image of TiB₂+10%WSi₂ sample, Elemental mapping of different elements Ti (b), Si (c), W (d)

The most probable reactions for the decomposition of WSi_2 and the formation of W_5Si_3 are given below. The probable reaction pathways involving different oxides (TiO₂ and B₂O₃) are also considered.

$$5WSi_2 \rightarrow W_5Si_3 + 7Si$$

(5.5)
 $5WSi_2 + B_2O_3 + TiO_2 \rightarrow 5/2SiO_2 + TiB_2 + W_5Si_3 + 9/2Si$ (5.6)

$$5WSi_{2} + 7C \rightarrow W_{5}Si_{3} + 7SiC$$

$$(5.7)$$

$$5WSi_{2} + TiO_{2} \rightarrow W_{5}Si_{3} + SiO_{2} + TiSi_{2} + 4Si$$

$$(5.8)$$

$$5WSi_2 + 5TiO_2 + Si \rightarrow W_5Si_3 + 5SiO_2 + Ti_5Si_3$$

$$(5.9)$$

$$5WSi_2 + 5TiO_2 + C + 1/2Si \rightarrow W_5Si_3 + Ti_5Si_3 + 9/2SiO_2 + CO$$
(5.10)

Based on the available thermodynamic data[9] on the free energy formation of different compounds, the overall free energy change (ΔG°) for all the above reactions as written was calculated by using FactSage software version 6.3 at 0.001Pa and plotted as a function of temperature (Fig. 5.18). The data for the most stable compounds (solid/liquid/gas) at that particular temperature and pressure was used by the FactSage software. Sudden change in the slope of the lines is due to change of state of reactant/product. From the plots, it is clear that all the reactions are thermodynamically feasible at the hot pressing temperature of 1873K (1600°C). Free energy change for reactions (5.6), (5.7) and (5.9) are negative and are therefore feasible even at room temperature. For example free energy change for equations (5.6), (5.7) and (5.9) at 1900K are -520.93, -146.08 and -234.26 kJ/mol respectively. Reaction (5.7) and (5.10) are also considered because TiB₂ powders contain a small amount of carbon and hot pressing is carried out in graphite dies where the powders are in direct contact with carbon. The Gibbs-free energy change of the reaction (5.10) is positive up to 1000K and becomes negative (ΔG_{10} = - 234.58 kJ/mol) above 1000K. From the above discussions, it is clear that the formation of W₅Si₃, SiO₂, Ti₅Si₃ and SiC are feasible during hot pressing. Presence of W₅Si₃ is confirmed by XRD but other phases couldn't be traced in
XRD. This could be due to either the amorphous nature of certain phases (SiO₂) or presence of these phases in small quantities. SiO₂ will exist in liquid phase at the hot pressing temperature (SiO₂ M.Pt.=1731K) of 1873K (1600°C).



Fig.5.18 Plot showing the Gibbs free energy change of possible chemical reactions as a function of temperature at 0.001Pa [9]

SEM image of fractured surfaces of $2.5\%WSi_2$ and $5\%WSi_2$ composites are presented in Fig.5.19 (a & b). In both the composites (2.5% and 5% WSi_2), a mixed mode of fracture is seen. No grain growth is visible in $2.5\%WSi_2$ composite (Fig.5.19a), whereas particle size is comparatively larger in $5\%WSi_2$ (Fig.5.19b), probably due to agglomeration caused by liquid phases (SiO₂), which originated from reaction products. Both the samples show the absence of pores, indicating full densification.



Fig. 5.19 Fracture surfaces of TiB_2 specimens containing a) 2.5 wt% and b) 5 wt% of WSi_2

5.3.4 TiB₂ + CrB₂ composites

XRD pattern of starting powder mixture with 10%CrB₂ and hot-pressed specimen of the same composite are shown in Fig.5.20. Individual peaks of TiB₂ and CrB₂ are seen in the starting powder mixture, where as in hot pressed sample only TiB₂ peaks are visible. The disappearance of CrB₂ and a slight shift in the position of TiB₂ peaks clearly indicate the possibility of formation of solid solution.



composite

SEM image of the fractured surface of TiB_2+CrB_2 composite is shown in Fig.5.21 The average grain size of the composite is around 2-4 µm. Considering the starting particle sizes of TiB_2 ($D_{50}\sim1.1$ µm) and CrB_2 ($D_{50}\sim4.8$ µm), this observation indicates the absence of grain growth. Topography of the fractured surface indicates the fracture to be a mixed mode of trans and intragranular. A few numbers of very fine pores are also visible.



Fig.5.21 Fractography of $TiB_2+10\%CrB_2$ composite: Fracture seen to be a combination of trans and intergranular modes

5.3.5 TiB₂ + 20%MoSi₂ + CrB₂ composites

XRD pattern of the hot pressed $TiB_2+20\%MoSi_2+15\%CrB_2$ composite is shown in Fig.5.22. TiB_2 , $MoSi_2$, Ti_5Si_3 and $TiSi_2$ phases were found in the pellet, indicating the occurrence of a reaction. CrB_2 peaks are absent in the pellet. The number and intensity of $MoSi_2$ peaks are also lower as compared to the powder mixture. A small shift in the location of TiB_2 peaks is also noticed in the pellet as compared to that of the powder mixture. These indicate the formation of solid solution of CrB_2 in TiB_2 in the composite. Formation of a similar reaction product ($TiSi_2$) has been observed in TiB_2+MoSi_2 composite [1,11] and formation of solid solution in the TiB_2+CrB_2 composite.



Fig. 5.22 Phase identification of hot pressed pellet of TiB₂+20%MoSi₂+15%CrB₂

SEM images of fractured surfaces of 5%CrB₂ and 15%CrB₂ composites are presented in Fig.5.23 (a & b). In 5% CrB₂ composite, the major mode of fracture is seen as transgranular, whereas both intergranular and transgranular modes of fractures contribute equally to the failure of 15% CrB₂ composite. No grain growth is observed in either of the composites.



Fig. 5.23 Fractured surfaces of a) $TiB_2 + 20$ wt.% $MoSi_2 + 5$ wt.% CrB_2 and b) $TiB_2 + 20$ wt.% $MoSi_2 + 15$ wt.% CrB_2 composites. (Fractured surfaces were obtained under an indentation load of 490N)

5.3.6 (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ composites

In Fig. 5.24 is presented the XRD pattern of hot pressed of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2 + 20\%MoSi_2$ samples. TiB₂ and MoSi₂ peaks are the major peaks. CrB₂ peaks were not identified in this sample. Location of CrB₂ peaks are marked in the Fig.5.24 for confirmation.

SEM images of fractured surfaces of $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2 + 20\%MoSi_2$ and $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2 + 20\%MoSi_2$ composites are presented in Fig.5.25 (a & b). Both intergranular and transgranular modes of fractures contribute equally in the failure of these composites. No grain growth is observed in either of the composites.



Fig. 5.24 Phase identification of hot pressed pellet of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2 + 20\% MoSi_2$



Fig. 5.25 Fractured surfaces of a) $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2 + 20\%MoSi_2$ and b) $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2 + 20\%MoSi_2$ composites

 $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composite was analyzed by EPMA. In this sample, three regions of interest were identified. They are the light grey matrix, dark grey and black phases (Fig 5.26). To identify the elements on these regions, spectrum was analyzed separately and it was found that the elements predominantly present in the matrix are Ti, Cr and B. Lighter regions contain Cr, Ti, Mo and B. Mo and Si are the only elements present in the dark patches. Quantitative analysis was done on the three identified regions to determine the chemical composition of the elements present, which are shown in Table 5.6.

Elemental mapping of the sample for Ti, Cr, Mo, B and Si and their overlay are shown in Fig. 5.27(b-g). Distribution of Ti, Cr and B in the matrix are shown in Fig.5.27 b, c and d respectively. These three elements appear to be uniformly distributed throughout the matrix. The qualitative analysis of these elements as seen by variation of brightness matches with the composition of the composite. Fig. 5.27e presents the overlay of Ti+B+Cr in the matrix, which confirms the uniform distribution of these three elements in the matrix. Fig.5.27f presents the distribution of silicon indicating that silicon is not uniformly distributed but present as clusters of 1-2 μ m size in the matrix. Fig.5.27g shows the uniform distribution of Mo throughout the matrix. This clearly indicates that MoSi₂ has reacted with (TiCr)B₂. Mo has diffused and distributed in the matrix, leaving Si undisturbed. The white spots in Fig.5.27f indicate the location of original MoSi₂ particles. The elemental analysis of the polished surface very clearly indicates the presence of Ti, Cr, B and Mo uniformly distributed throughout the matrix and silicon was unevenly distributed and presented as clusters.

Table 5.6 Quantitative analysis of different phases



Flomont	Motrix	Light	Dark	
Element	Iviauix	patches	patches	
Ti (wt.%)	59.74	3.31	0.08	
B (wt.%)	33.17	17.77	0.00	
Cr (wt.%)	3.68	54.48	0.82	
Mo (wt.%)	3.46	26.31	61.38	
Si (wt.%)	0.04	0.03	35.29	

Fig. 5.26 Back scattered electron image



Fig. 5.27 Back scattered (BSE) image and elemental mapping of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2\!+\!20\%$ $$MoSi_2$$ 5.33

Line scan across different phases of the sample is shown in Fig. 5.28. Scan for Si indicates the non continuous presence of Si and wherever it is present the content is high. At these locations the contents of Ti, B, Cr and also Mo are comparatively low. Otherwise concentrations of these four elements are more or less constant throughout the region of line scan. Line scan analysis is in full agreement with the results of elemental mapping.



Fig. 5.28 Line scans across different phases of (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20% MoSi₂

5.4 Mechanical and Physical Properties

Many of the composites in the present study are not reported in the open literature. Evaluation of mechanical and physical properties of these composite are very essential to know their potential for applications. Hardness and fracture toughness of all the composites were measured. The hardness is dependent on the density, nature of second phase and its quantity in the composite. Similarly the fracture toughness also depends on the above cited parameters. Physical properties like coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE), electrical resistivity were also measured in the temperature range of RT – 1273K (1000°C). Important findings of the individual composites are given below:

5.4.1 TiB₂+TiSi₂ composites

Table 5.7 presents the hardness and fracture toughness of hot pressed samples. Increase in hardness with increase in density is as expected. With increased addition of TiSi₂ by 10wt%, (99% ρ_{th}) hardness is found to decrease to a value of 20.3±2.6 GPa. This decrease could be due to the presence of increased amounts of Ti₅Si₃ and TiSi₂ which have lower hardness values, in the range of 8-10 GPa.

Flexural strength of TiB₂+2.5%TiSi₂ was measured as 390±40 MPa at room temperature, which is in good agreement with that reported (~380 MPa) by Raju et.al [2]. Indentation fracture toughness of monolithic TiB₂ was calculated as 3.8 ± 1.5 MPa.m^{1/2}, and those with the addition of TiSi₂ in the range of 4-6 MPa.m^{1/2}. Raju *et al.* [2] also have reported similar fracture toughness values for TiB₂+TiSi₂ composites. Fracture toughness of TiB₂ composite with MoSi₂ [1] is reported in the range of 4-5 MPa.m^{1/2}. The improvement of strength by the incorporation of particles of another phase is usually accompanied by an increase in fracture toughness due to crack deflection, microcracking and crack impediment [12]. Fig.5.29 presents the picture of TiB_2+TiSi_2 composite with clear crack deflection and crack branching mechanisms developed under an indentation load of 196 N (20 kg). These mechanisms are responsible for the marginally higher toughness (4-6 MPa.m^{1/2}) values recorded for TiB_2+TiSi_2 composites compared to monolithic TiB₂.

% TiSi ₂	Relative Density (%)	Hardness Vickers, GPa	K _{IC} ' MPa.m ^{1/2}
2.5	96	18.1 ± 2.4	5.3 ± 1.5
5	99	25.1 ± 2.5	4.7 ± 1.1
10	99	20.3 ± 2.6	6.3 ± 0.6
0*	98	26.0 ± 1.0	5.1 ± 0.7

Table 5.7 Relative density, Hardness and fracture toughness of TiB₂+TiSi₂ composite

* hot pressed at 2073K (1800°C)[1]

Variation of CTE with increasing temperature upto 1073K ($800^{\circ}C$) is plotted in Fig.5.30. Coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE) of TiB₂+2.5%TiSi₂ composite was measured as $6.9 \times 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$ in the temperature range of 298 to 1073K. Theoretical CTE values of monolithic TiB₂, TiSi₂ and Ti₅Si₃ are 7.3, 10.4 and 10.8 x 10^{-6} K^{-1} respectively in the temperature range of 298 to 1273K. In the present TiB₂+2.5%TiSi₂ composite's CTE value closely matches with the CTE of monolithic TiB₂.

Electrical resistivity of $TiB_2 + 2.5 \ \% TiSi_2$ composite up to 1273K (1000°C) is shown in Fig.5.31. The value of resistivity is measured as 20.69, 62.14 and 100.84 $\mu\Omega$ -cm at room temperature (RT), 773 and 1273K (500 and 1000°C) respectively. Raju *et.a*[2] have reported a value of 10.96 $\mu\Omega$ -cm at room temperature for similar composite. Electrical resistivity of the monolithic TiB₂ has been reported to be in the range of 7 to 15 $\mu\Omega$ -cm at RT depending on the purity and method of preparation [13-15]. Lower density (96% TD) of our sample and finer grain size could be the reasons for higher electrical resistivity value in the TiB₂ + 2.5 %TiSi₂ composite.



Fig. 5.29 Crack deflection and crack branching observed in TiB₂+TiSi₂ composite a) Overview of vickers indentation pattern with edge cracks, b & c) crack propagation pattern, d) fractography



Fig. 5.31 Electrical resistivity of $TiB_2 + 2.5$ % $TiSi_2$ composite with temperature

5 4.2 TiB₂ + CrSi₂ composites

Hardness and fracture toughness of hot pressed samples are presented in Table 5.1. Variation of density, hardness and fracture toughness of TiB₂ composite with CrSi₂ are also presented in Fig 5.32. The micro hardness value of composite with 2.5% CrSi₂ (99.89% TD) was 29±2 GPa. With increased addition of CrSi₂ the hardness decreased linearly and the hardness of composites with 5%, 10% and 15% CrSi₂ were measured as 28 ± 3 , 26 ± 2 and 22 ± 3 GPa respectively. This decrease in hardness is due to the decrease in density and also the presence of increased amount of CrSi₂ and Si, both are having lower hardness value of ~11 GPa. Flexural strength of TiB₂+5%CrSi₂ was measured as 200 ± 50 MPa which is much lower compared to that of TiB₂ (300 to 600 MPa). Indentation fracture toughness of TiB₂ +2.5% CrSi₂ was calculated as 5.97 ± 0.61 MPa.m^{1/2}, which decreased to 3.41 ± 0.94 MPa.m^{1/2} with increased addition of 15% CrSi₂.



Fig. 5.32 Variation of density, hardness and fracture toughness of $TiB_2 + CrSi_2$ composite (line joining points are for visual aid only)

Fig.5.33(a & b) presents the image of TiB₂+2.5%CrSi₂ composite indicating clear crack branching, deflection and bridging mechanisms developed under an indentation load of 196 N (20 kg). These mechanisms are responsible for the observed higher toughness (5.97 \pm 0.61 MPa.m^{1/2}) value of this composite.



Fig.5.33 SEM image of $TiB_2 + 2.5\%$ CrSi₂ composite showing a) Crack branching and b) Deflection and bridging

Variation of CTE and electrical resistivity of TiB₂ + 5% CrSi₂ composite with temperature up to 1173K (900°C) are plotted in Fig. 5.34. CTE value was measured as 7.1 x 10⁻⁶ K⁻¹ in the range of RT to 1173K. These values are slightly lower than theoretical values of monolithic TiB₂ (7.3 x 10⁻⁶ K⁻¹) and CrSi₂ (8.6 x 10⁻⁶ K⁻¹), which could be due to the presence of Si phase which has a low CTE value of 4.19 x 10⁻⁶ K⁻¹ [16]. Electrical resistivity of the composite was measured as 47.45, 84.8 and 133 $\mu\Omega$ ·cm at 473, 773 and 1173K (200, 500 and 900°C) respectively. It is observed that coefficient of resistivity is increasing linearly with the increase of temperature. Electrical resistivity of the monolithic TiB₂ has been reported to be in the range of 7 to 15 $\mu\Omega$ ·cm at RT depending on the purity and method of preparation[13,15]. Resistivity of polycrystalline TiB₂ varies between 10 to 40 $\mu\Omega$ ·cm at room temperature and up to 40 - 80 $\mu\Omega$ ·cm at 1173K (900°C)[14]. Lower density (98% TD) and finer grain size of our sample could be the reasons for higher electrical resistivity value. Grain boundaries and pores will be the barriers/obstacles for free flow of electrons.



Fig. 5.34 Electrical resistivity and coefficient of thermal expansion of $TiB_2 + 5\%$ CrSi₂ composite measured in inert (argon) atmosphere

5.4.3 TiB₂ + WSi₂ composites

Micros hardness and fracture toughness of hot pressed samples are presented in Table 5.2. Micro hardness values of the composite with varying WSi₂ were measured to be in the range of 24-26 GPa. Fracture toughness was moderately higher in the range of 4-6 MPa.m^{1/2} compared to 3-4 MPa.m^{1/2} for monolithic TiB₂. Fig. 5.35 presents the image of TiB₂+10% WSi₂ composite indicating clear crack bridging and slight deflection mechanisms developed under an indentation load of 196 N (20 kg). These mechanisms are responsible for the recorded higher toughness value of this composite.



Fig. 5.35 Crack propagation patterns of TiB₂+10% WSi₂ composites a&b) crack bridging



& deflections

Fig. 5.36 CTE vs. temperature plot of $TiB_2+15\%$ WSi₂ composite, measured in inert atmosphere (line joining points are for visual aid only)

Variation of CTE of TiB₂ +15 %WSi₂ composite with temperature up to 1173K (900°C) is plotted in Fig. 5.36. CTE value was measured as 7.7 x 10^{-6} K⁻¹ in the range of RT to 1173K. These values are in between the theoretical values of monolithic TiB₂ (7.3 x 10^{-6} K⁻¹) and WSi₂ (8.5 x 10^{-6} K⁻¹).

5.4.4 TiB₂ + CrB₂ composites

Table 5.3 presents the hardness and indentation fracture toughness values of the hot pressed samples. Hardness values of all the composites are close to 24 GPa. This value is marginally lower as compared to that reported by Holcombe *et al* [5]. They had obtained a value of 28.9 and 27.0 GPa for TiB₂ with 3% CrB₂ with a density of >95% prepared by microwave sintering at higher temperatures of 2173K (1900°C) and 2373K (2100°C) respectively. Konigshofer *et al.*[6] have reported a higher micro hardness of 35 GPa for a TiB₂ composite with 0.5% CrB_2 with a density of 99% TD prepared by hot pressing at 2073K (1800°C) and 45MPa pressure. Average indentation fracture toughness of 2.5, 5 and 10% composites were measured as 2.80±0.13, 4.30±0.38 and 4.99±0.99 MPa·m^{1/2} respectively. Holcombe et al.[5] have reported a toughness value of 6.24 MPa \cdot m^{1/2} (using Evans method). The reason for lower hardness and fracture toughness of our samples are given below. The samples in the present investigation were prepared at a lower temperature of 1973K (1700°C) compared to others. The hot pressing pressure used in the present study also is lower at 30 MPa compared to 45 MPa by Konigshofer et al [6]. Holcombe et al. [5] have used microwave heating for densification, by which enhanced densification and finer microstructures can be obtained due to uniform and rapid heating, as the energy is directly coupled into the specimen rather than being conducted from an external heat source.

Vickers indentation with crack pattern of $TiB_2 + 2.5\%$ CrB_2 composite and the crack propagation are presented in Fig. 5.37. The crack line appears to be fairly straight, indicating low fracture toughness of the material. Flexural strength (3-point) of TiB_2 +

10% CrB₂ was measured as 275 ± 20 , 315 ± 15 and 255 ± 10 MPa respectively at room temperature, 773 and 1273K (500 and 1000° C). These values are lower than that of monolithic TiB₂ and the composite (99% TD) with 0.5% CrB₂ [6]. Room temperature flexural strength of hot pressed CrB₂ is only 207 MPa [17]. Lower density (~95% TD) and higher amount of CrB₂ (10%) could be the reasons for lower value of flexural strength of this composite. It is known that pores lead to initiation of cracks and this degrades the strength [18]. A small increase in flexural strength value from room temperature to 773K (500°C) and retention of strength at 1273K (1000°C) could be attributed to the relief of internal stresses, which arise from the anisotropic thermal expansion of microstructural constituents [18]. However, at 1273K (1000°C), oxidation of the sample could be the reason for lowering of strength.



(a) (b) Fig. 5.37 (a) Vickers indentation with crack pattern and (b) crack propagation line of $TiB_2+2.5\%$ CrB₂ composite

Variation of CTE with temperature upto 1273K (1000°C) is plotted in Fig.5.38 for TiB₂ + 10% CrB₂ composite. The CTE value in the range of RT to 1273K was 7.4 x 10^{-6} K^{-1} . These values are close to the theoretical values of monolithic TiB₂ (7.3 x 10⁻⁶ K⁻¹) and CrB_2 (7.0 x 10⁻⁶ K⁻¹). Electrical resistivity of TiB₂ + 10% CrB₂ composite up to 1173K (900°C) measured in argon atmosphere is presented in Fig. 5.38. It is observed that resistivity is increasing linearly with increase of temperature. The value of resistivity is measured as 32.83, 75.97 and 120 $\mu\Omega$ -cm at RT, 773 and 1173K (500 and 900°C) respectively. Konigshofer et al.[15] measured the resistivity at 292K (19°C) as 10 $\mu\Omega$ -cm for 0.5% CrB₂ contained sample (>99% TD). Electrical resistivity of monolithic TiB₂ and CrB_2 have been reported in the range of 7 to 30 $\mu\Omega$ -cm respectively at RT depending on the purity and method of preparation [13-15,19]. Resistivity of polycrystalline TiB_2 varies between 10 to 40 $\mu\Omega$ -cm at room temperature and up to 40 - 80 $\mu\Omega$ -cm at 1173K (900°C) [14]. Lower density (95% TD) and finer grain size of our sample could be the reasons for slightly higher electrical resistivity value. Similar observations are noticed in TiB₂+TiSi₂ and TiB_2 +CrSi₂ composites also (Fig 5.31 and Fig. 5.34).

5.4.5 TiB₂ + 20%MoSi₂ + CrB₂ composites

Table 5.4 presents the micro hardness and indentation fracture toughness values of the hot pressed samples. Hardness values of the composites decrease from 24 to 18 GPa with increasing CrB_2 content from 5 to 15%. The possible reasons for decrease in hardness with increasing in CrB_2 content are due to the presence of higher amount of CrB_2 (which has a lower hardness) and decrease in the density with increasing the addition of CrB_2 . Average indentation fracture toughness of 5, 10 and 15% composites were measured as 3.5 ± 0.7 , 3.7 ± 0.4 and 4.1 ± 0.3 MPa·m^{1/2} respectively.



Fig.5.38 Coefficient of thermal expansion and electrical resistivity of $TiB_2 + 10\%$ CrB₂ composite in inert atmosphere

Vickers indentation with crack pattern of all the composites and the crack propagation path are presented in Fig. 5.39 and 5.40. The crack line appears to be fairly straight with a few crack deflections, indicating low fracture toughness of the composite with 5% CrB_2 (Fig. 5.39). With increasing amount of CrB_2 content to 10%, fracture toughness was found to increase. In the microstructure also more crack deflections and crack bridging mechanisms are seen (Figure 5.40), which are responsible for moderate improvement in the fracture toughness.



Fig. 5.39 Vickers indentation (a) with crack propagation pattern (b) of $TiB_2+20\%\ MoSi_2$ $+\ 5\%\ CrB_2\ composite$



Fig. 5.40 Crack propagation pattern in the $TiB_2+20\%\ MoSi_2+10\%\ CrB_2$ composite

5.4.6 (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ composites

Table 5.5 presents the hardness and indentation fracture toughness values of the hot pressed (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ composites. Micro hardness values of all the composites are in the range of 24 to 27 GPa. Average indentation fracture toughness of $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2$, $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2$ and $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composites were measured as 2.8 ± 0.2 , 3.5 ± 0.6 and 4.5 ± 0.5 MPa·m^{1/2} respectively. Hardness of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ sample from RT upto 1273K (1000°C) with an interval 100K was measured using diamond indenter and the values are presented Fig. 5.41. As expected, with increase in temperature, decrease in hardness values was noted. Drastic decrease in the hardness value from 30 to 16 GPa was observed from RT to 573K (300°C). Flexural strength was measured at RT, 773 and 1173K (500 and 900°C) for $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ sample and the data is also presented in Fig.5.41. Three samples were tested at each temperature and the average values were 320, 295 and 285 MPa respectively. Similar to hot hardness, decrease in flexural strength values with increase in temperature was noticed. However, decrease in strength is not significant, indicating the retention of strength at elevated temperatures.

Microstructures of $(TiCr)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ indentations with edge cracks are shown in Fig.5.42(a & b). More crack deflections were observed in $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$ composite, where as both crack deflections and bridging mechanisms were observed in $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$ composites. These mechanisms are responsible for moderate improvement of the fracture toughness.



Fig. 5.41 Hot hardness and flexural strength values of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composite



Fig. 5.42 Crack propagation patterns of a) $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ (crack deflections) b) $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ (crack bridging) composites

CTE and electrical resistivity of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composite was measured in inert atmosphere and the data is presented in Fig.5.43. CTE value was 7.54 x 10^{-6} K⁻¹ in the temperature range of RT to 1073K.



Fig. 5.43 Coefficient of thermal expansion and electrical resistivity data of (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20% MoSi₂ composite evaluated in inert atmosphere

A Comprehensive plot on densification of all TiB_2 composites is shown in Fig.5.44. Hot pressing temperature, relative density, mechanical and physical properties of all the composites is compared in Table 5.8 & 5.9. Hot pressing conditions are also indicated in the Figure 5.44 and Table 5.9 for better comparison. Highest density of only 97.5% TD was obtained without any sinter additives to TiB_2 at 2073K (1800°C) under a pressure of 35 MPa. From the data it is clear that near theoretical density was obtained with the addition of 5wt% WSi₂ to TiB_2 as compared to all the other additives. With increasing amount of sinter additive decreasing trend in density was observed in CrB_2 and $CrSi_2$ contained TiB_2 composites. However the density remained constant with further increase of WSi₂ and TiSi₂ content in TiB₂. Combined addition of CrB₂ and MoSi₂ to TiB₂ also improved the density to \geq 95% TD.



Fig.5.44 Effect of various sinter additives on densification of TiB_2 (line joining points are for visual aid only)

Composite	CTE @ 1073K (800°C), x 10 ⁶ K ⁻¹	Electrical resistivity @ 1273K (1000°C), μΩ-cm
$TiB_2 + TiSi_2$	6.9	100
$TiB_2 + CrSi_2$	7.0	136
$TiB_2 + WSi_2$	7.7	-
$TiB_2 + CrB_2$	7.3	125
$(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2 + 20\% MoSi_2$	7.5	300

Table 3.8 Flysical properties of $11B_2$ compositions	sites
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Sample	% additive (x.%)	Hot pressing conditions	Relative Density, %TD	Hardness (GPa)	Fracture toughness (MPa.m ^{1/2})
$TiB_2 + x\%TiSi_2$	2.5	1550°C, 30MPa,1h	96.00	18 ± 2	5.3 ± 1.5
	5		98.50	25 ± 2	4.6 ± 1.1
	10		98.50	20 ± 2	6.3 ± 0.6
$TiB_2 + x\%CrSi_2$	2.5	1700°C, 28MPa,1h	99.89	29 ± 2	5.9 ± 0.6
	5		98.55	28 ± 3	4.8 ± 0.4
	10		95.45	26 ± 2	3.4 ± 0.4
	15		92.30	22 ± 3	3.4 ± 0.9
$TiB_2 + x\%WSi_2$	0	1600°C, 30MPa,1h	85.00	11 ± 2	-
	2		88.50	-	-
	2.5		99.50	26 ± 3	5.0 ± 1.0
	5		~100	24 ± 3	5.9 ± 1.9
	10		~100	26 ± 2	4.3 ± 0.9
	15		~100	24 ± 2	4.8 ± 0.9
$TiB_2 + x\%CrB_2$	2.5	1750°C, 35MPa,1h	96.61	23 ± 1	2.8 ± 0.1
	5		94.77	23 ± 1	4.3 ± 0.3
	10		94.01	23 ± 1	4.9 ± 0.9
$\begin{array}{c} TiB_2 + x\% CrB_2 \\ (+20\% \ MoSi_2) \end{array}$	5	1800°C,	98.43	24 ± 1	3.5 ± 0.7
	10		95.66	19 ± 1	3.7 ± 0.4
	15		96.43	18 ± 1	4.1 ± 0.3
$(Ti_{1-x}Cr_x)B_2 \ (+20\% MoSi_2)$	0.05	35MPa,1h	96.54	21 ± 1	2.8 ± 0.2
	0.10		97.99	21 ± 1	3.5 ± 0.6
	0.15		99.20	22 ± 1	4.5 ± 0.5

Table 5.9 Relative density and mechanical properties of TiB₂ composites

5.5 Discussion on Results of densification studies

In the present study, transition/refractory metal silicides (TiSi₂, CrSi₂, WSi₂, MoSi₂) and CrB₂ were used as sinter additives. Reason for the choice of these additives is listed out in Table 3.1. Six different TiB₂ composites were studied to understand the densification mechanism of each composite.

- 1) $TiB_2 + x\%TiSi_2$ (x=2.5, 5, 10 and 15)
- 2) $TiB_2 + x\%CrSi_2$ (x=2.5, 5, 10 and 15)
- 3) $TiB_2 + x\%WSi_2$ (x=2.5, 5, 10 and 15)
- 4) $TiB_2 + x\%CrB_2$ (x=2.5, 5, 10 and 15)
- 5) $TiB_2 + x\%CrB_2 + 20\%MoSi_2$ (x=5, 10 and 15)
- 6) $(Ti_{1-x}Cr_x)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ (x=0.5, 0.10 and 0.15)

(Quantities of sinter additives are given in weight percent.)

The use of sintering aid enhances the sinterability of TiB_2 [20]. A number of earlier studies have also reported on this effect[3]. Processing and properties of TiB_2 are sensitive to microstructural details and sinter-additive content. Majority of the research investigations relate to effects on room temperature properties as well as microstructural characteristics. Basu et. al. [3, 21] reported the high temperature and tribological properties of $TiB_2 + MoSi_2$ and $TiB_2 + TiSi_2$ composites. However, very few studies on TiB_2 have focused on relating processing, microstructure and properties in particular including high temperature properties (oxidation studies) of TiB_2 . Although TiB_2 has potential for a range of high temperature applications like sharp leading edge of hypersonic re-entry vehicles, cutting tools, molten metal crucibles, control rod materials, armour materials; very few reports are available on the physical, mechanical and high temperature properties of these materials. When available, these investigations are limited to monolithic TiB₂ without any sinter additive.

An earlier study revealed that $MoSi_2$ aids in the densification of TiB_2 via liquid phase sintering by the formation of a reaction product $TiSi_2$, when hot pressed at 1973K (1700°C) for 1h in vacuum [1,11]. TEM analysis of a hot pressed TiB_2+20 wt% $MoSi_2$ composite revealed traces of TiSi₂ at grain boundary triple pockets [11]. Since the reported melting point of TiSi₂ is ~1813K (~1540°C), liquid phase sintering was noticed as dominant sintering mechanism for TiB₂+MoSi₂ composites containing up to 20wt% MoSi₂. The above observation was the motivation for the present work using TiSi₂ and other transition/refractory metal silicides as sintering aids for consolidation of TiB₂.

The transition/refractory metal disilicides are selected as sintering aids for TiB_2 , because of their ability to be selected as high temperature materials in their own right in addition to their favorable thermodynamic compatibility with many borides [20]. The densification mechanisms involved in the formation of a composite with each specific additive are identified in the following sections:

5.5.1 Densification of TiB₂ with TiSi₂ additions

Experimental investigations were pursued with the following objectives;

- i) Does $TiSi_2$ addition provide the densification at lower hot pressing temperature as compared to that for $MoSi_2$ addition?
- ii) What is the likely densification mechanism for TiSi₂ addition?
- iii) Are TiB_2 and $TiSi_2$ thermo chemically compatible (stability at the application temperatures)?
- iv) How the mechanical properties and oxidation resistance of TiB_2+TiSi_2 composite compare with respect to composite formed by addition of other sinter additives?

An improvement in densification of TiB_2 is observed with the additions of $TiSi_2$ as sintering additive, when hot pressed at 1823K (1550°C) for 1h (Fig.5.2). XRD analysis indicates the presence of Ti_5Si_3 phase. As the hot pressing is performed above the melting

point of TiSi₂ (1813K), the primary densification mechanism appears to be liquid phase sintering (LPS). From the phenomenological point of view, LPS involves the rearrangement of the TiB₂ particles. The liquid phase that is formed during sintering wets the TiB₂ grains, fills the pores of the compact and causes densification by mass transfer. The presence of Ti₅Si₃ indicates that TiSi₂ reacts with TiO₂ present on the surface of TiB₂ particles. The formation of Ti₅Si₃, has been described by two thermodynamically favorable reactions [2]:

$$7\text{Ti}O_2 + 8\text{Ti}Si_2 = 3\text{Ti}_5Si_3 + 7SiO_2$$
(5.11)

$$5\text{Ti}O_2 + 5\text{Ti}Si_2 + 2\text{C} = 2\text{Ti}_5\text{Si}_3 + 4\text{Si}O_2 + 2\text{CO}(g)$$
(5.12)

Reaction (5.12) is considered since TiB₂ powders contain some amount of carbon and hot pressing was carried out in graphite dies. The above phenomenon appears to be feasible as non-oxide ceramic powders are covered by a thin oxide layer [24,25]. Li et al.[26] reported that Si₃N₄ and SiC were effective in improving the sinterability of TiB₂ by eliminating the oxide layer of TiB₂ and with the formation of an amorphous SiO₂ phase during sintering. It needs to be mentioned here that the sintering reactions clearly indicate the existence of SiO₂ along with Ti₅Si₃ as other major product phase; but the existence of SiO₂ could not be identified from XRD analysis in the composites. It could be due to the amorphous nature of SiO₂ or its quantity may be below the instrument limit.

It can be thus said that $TiSi_2$ is an effective sintering aid in hot pressing of TiB_2 in achieving high density at lower hot pressing temperature through the formation of Ti_5Si_3 . Ti_5Si_3 , also exhibits better mechanical properties compared to $TiSi_2$ and can retain strength beyond 1473K (1200°C) [23].

5.5.2 Densification of TiB₂ with CrSi₂ additions

Experimental investigations were carried for the composite. When Si, Cr and Al based additives were added to TiB₂, oxidation resistance was enhanced due to formation of SiO₂, Cr_2O_3 or Al₂O₃ on the surface [20,26]. CrSi₂ has both the elements Cr and Si, which are known to improve the oxidation resistance. In this composite of the present study CrSi₂ was used as sintering aid in view of its excellent oxidation resistance by formation of Cr₂O₃ and amorphous SiO₂ scale.

Near theoretical density of 99.89% TD was obtained with 2.5% addition of CrSi₂ when hot pressed at 1973K (1700°C) for 1h (Fig.5.44). With increasing amount of sinter additive the density was found to decrease. The density of composites obtained with 5%, 10% and 15% CrSi₂ were 98.55%, 95.45% and 92.30% TD respectively. As the hot pressing is performed above the melting point of CrSi₂ (1750K), liquid phase sintering (LPS) mechanism appears to be important. Solution-diffusion process leads to the decomposition of CrSi₂ to other silicides with different ratio of Cr : Si accompanied with the formation of free Si (Melting point: 1687K). The presence of Si is clearly noticed in SEM-EDS analysis (Fig.5.10). The most probable reactions for the decomposition of CrSi₂ to other silicides with the formation of Si are given in section 5.3.2 and the free energy changes at 0.001 Pa for these reactions up to 2000K are presented in Fig. 5.12 [9]. For all the reactions the free energy values are more or less constant and positive till the melting point of CrSi₂. From the melting point the ΔG decreases with temperature and for all the reactions becoming more and more negative. Among all these reactions, reaction (5.1) is more negative at the hot pressing temperature of 1973K (1700°C). This explains the formation of Si during hot pressing.

Samples containing higher amounts of $\text{CrSi}_2 (\geq 10\%)$ show the presence of closed pores, as evident in the case of composite containing 15wt% CrSi_2 . The formation of pores could be due to the evaporation of Si formed during the course of hot pressing, which was carried out under a vacuum of >0.001 Pa (10^{-5} m.bar). The vapor pressure of pure Si at the hot pressing temperature (1973K) is 1.01 Pa (1.01×10^{-2} m.bar) [10]. Therefore with increased addition of CrSi_2 , decrease in density is observed due to formation of higher amounts of Si. Existence of material in the gaseous phase during sintering is not desirable, as it leads to poor densification. The measured closed porosity in these samples clearly supports the above phenomenon. Whereas in other hot pressed composites; for eg. TiB₂+TiSi₂, TiB₂+WSi₂ mainly open porosity is observed with negligible amounts of closed pores in all the samples.

Small addition (2.5%) of $CrSi_2$ has been found to be an effective sinter additive to TiB₂. Compacts with near theoretical density were prepared with the addition of 2.5% $CrSi_2$ by hot pressing at 1973K (1700°C), 28 MPa. Higher additions of $CrSi_2$ led to decrease in the density of the product.

5.5.3 Densification of TiB₂ with WSi₂ additions

Tungsten silicide coatings have outstanding abrasive and adhesive wear resistance due to its strong covalent bonds and high hardness [3]. Tungsten silicides show protective nature in oxidation up to 2273K (2000°C) in air by formation of a protective SiO₂ film [3]. WSi₂ was accordingly selected as a sinter additive.

WSi₂ was found to be an effective sinter additive to TiB₂. Compacts with near theoretical density were prepared with the addition of \geq 5% WSi₂ by hot pressing at 1873K (1600°C), 30 MPa. XRD results confirm the occurrence of chemical reactions

during hot pressing, consumption of WSi₂ phase and formation of W₅Si₃ and SiO₂ as reaction products. The probable reactions for the decomposition of WSi₂ and the formation of W₅Si₃ are given section 5.3.3. The probable reaction pathways involving different oxides (TiO₂ and B₂O₃) are also considered, as these oxides are usually present on surface of TiB₂ powders [25,26].

Based on the available thermodynamic data [9] on the free energy of formation of different compounds, the overall free energy change (ΔG) for all the above reactions to occur from left to right was calculated by using FactSage software version 6.3 at 0.001Pa and plotted as a function of temperature (Fig. 5.18). From the plots, it is clear that all the reactions are thermodynamically feasible at the hot pressing temperature of 1873K $(1600^{\circ}C)$. Free energy change for reactions (5.6), (5.7) and (5.9) are negative and are therefore feasible even at room temperature. For example free energy change for equations (5.6), (5.7) and (5.9) at 1900K are -520.93, -146.08 and -234.26 kJ/mol respectively. Reaction (5.7) and (5.10) are also considered since TiB_2 powders contain small amounts of carbon and hot pressing was carried out in graphite dies where the powders are in direct contact with carbon. The Gibbs-free energy change of the reaction (5.10) is positive up to 1000K and becomes negative (ΔG_{10} = - 234.58 kJ/mol). From the above discussions, it is evident that the formations of W₅Si₃, SiO₂, Ti₅Si₃ and SiC are feasible during hot pressing. Presence of W₅Si₃ is confirmed by XRD but other phases couldn't be traced by XRD. This could be due either to the amorphous nature of certain phases (SiO_2) or their presence in small quantities. SiO_2 is likely to exist in liquid phase at the hot pressing temperature (SiO₂ M.Pt.=1731K) of 1873K (1600°C). The formation of SiO_2 appears to be feasible because of the oxide coating that is always present on the surface of non-oxide powders [24,25].

The present experimental results suggest that the chemical reactions at the sintering temperature play an important role in determining the densification behavior and material properties of the non-oxide ceramics. WSi_2 has therefore been found to be an effective sinter additive to TiB₂.

5.5.4 Densification of TiB₂ with CrB₂ additions

Though some work has been reported earlier with the addition of CrB_2 in pressureless/ microwave sintering and hot pressing of prealloyed composite, detailed studies on the preparation and characterization of TiB_2+CrB_2 composite have not been reported so far. The present work reports on the densification behaviour of TiB_2 using CrB_2 as sinter additive.

With the addition of 2.5% CrB_2 to TiB_2 , a composite of density >96% TD was obtained by hot pressing at 2023K (1750°C) and a pressure of 35 MPa. Addition of CrB_2 was found to aid in sintering and inhibit particle coarsening during densification. Solid solution formation of TiB_2 and CrB_2 were confirmed by XRD (Fig. 5.20 shows shift in the peaks). Attainment of higher density of TiB_2 composites with CrB_2 is attributed to the higher mobility of CrB_2 and formation of solid solution with TiB_2 [3,4]. In addition, the application of high pressure for consolidation contributes to particle rearrangement and leads to high stresses at the particle contact points. This stress gradient at the contact points acts as a driving force for mass transport which aids sintering [27]. Atomic movement with simultaneous application of high pressure facilitates material transport resulting in high dense TiB_2+CrB_2 composites. No trace of liquid phase was seen in the microstructures of TiB_2+CrB_2 composite.

While hot pressing TiB₂ and CrB₂ powders at 2023K (1750 $^{\circ}$ C), the microstructure has been observed to be solid sintered (Cr,Ti)B2 clusters and particles with an unreacted base of TiB₂ with an outer layer of $(Cr,Ti)B_2$ [3] The phase diagram of CrB₂-TiB₂ system shows a complete solid solubility above a temperature of 2273K (2000°C) (Fig.5.3)[3]. As per the phase diagram, maximum CrB_2 solubility in TiB_2 does not exceed 1 mol% (1.15 wt%) at 2073K (1800°C). From the above it is clear that higher addition of CrB_2 does not contribute towards solid solution formation at the sintering temperature of 2023K (1750°C) and hence no increase in density is observed for composites with CrB₂ above 2.5%. Holcombe et al.[5] have obtained a density of 84 and 90% TD with the addition of 3% CrB₂ in pressureless sintering at 2173 and 2373K respectively. Konigshofer et al.[6] obtained a density of 98.9% TD with the addition of 0.5% CrB₂ to TiB₂ by hot pressing at a higher temperature of 2073K ($1800^{\circ}C$) and higher pressure of 45MPa. With the small addition of 2.5% CrB_2 to TiB_2 , a composite of density >96% TD was obtained by hot pressing. Addition of 2.5% CrB₂ was found to aid in sintering and inhibit particle coarsening during densification. Further addition above 5% CrB₂ has not helped to improve the densification.

5.5.5 Densification of TiB₂ with combined additions of CrB₂ and MoSi₂

In continuation of the present study, composite of TiB_2 with combined addition of CrB_2 and $MoSi_2$ was prepared. Combined additions of different sinter additives many times may be beneficial in enhancing the densification and the desired properties. For

example, simultaneous addition of 0.5 wt% Cr and Fe was found to enhance the densification of TiB_2 up to 98.8% of theoretical [28].

In previous reported work $MoSi_2$, and in the present work CrB_2 were separately used as additive to TiB_2 to improve the densification and oxidation behavior [1,29]. With $MoSi_2$, additions improvement in densification was achieved but the oxidation resistance was poor [1,29]. On the other hand, addition of CrB_2 resulted in improvement in the oxidation behavior without improvement in density. This observation provided the motivation for the present study on combined addition of CrB_2 and $MoSi_2$ on the densification as well as oxidation behavior of TiB_2 .

High density composites (>96% TD) of TiB₂ were prepared by combined addition of CrB₂ and MoSi₂. TiB₂, MoSi₂, Ti₅Si₃ and TiSi₂ phases were identified by the XRD analysis, indicating the occurrence of a reaction. Similar reaction product of TiSi₂ phase was identified in previous studies when MoSi₂ was used as a sintering aid [1,11]. CrB₂ peaks were absent in the XRD and the number & intensity of MoSi₂ peaks is also lower as compared to the initial powder mixture. A small shift in the location of TiB₂ peaks is also noticed in the pellet as compared to that of the powder mixture. These indicate the formation of solid solution of CrB₂ in TiB₂ in the composite. Similar observations were also noticed in TiB₂+CrB₂ composites.

From the above results, it is evident that the densification mechanisms were similar in TiB_2+MoSi_2 [1] and TiB_2+CrB_2 composites. In previous study [1,11] investigated that $MoSi_2$ aids in the densification of TiB_2 via liquid phase sintering by the formation of a reaction product of $TiSi_2$. Attainment of higher density of TiB_2 composites with CrB_2 is attributed to the higher mobility of CrB_2 and formation of solid solution with 5.61
TiB₂. High dense composites (>96% TD) of TiB₂ were prepared by combined addition of CrB_2 and $MoSi_2$.

5.5.6 Densification of (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂

The objective of the present investigation has been to prepare a fully dense TiB_2 with favorable resistance to oxidation and thermal shock. In order to improve resistance to thermal shock, the formation of a solid solution in preference to a two phase microstructure is desirable. Further, more uniform distribution at the atomic level of secondary phase elements can be seen in solid solution instead of particulate composites. In this regard, studies on the synthesis of starting powders and densification of pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂ using MoSi₂ as sinter additive were carried out. Densified compacts were evaluated for mechanical (hardness, fracture toughness, flexural strength, hot hardness) and physical properties (CTE, electrical resistivity). Phase identification and microstructural characterizations were carried out. Detailed oxidation and thermal cycle studies were also carried out and compared with other developed composites.

High density composites (>97%) of pre-alloyed $(TiCr)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ were prepared by hot pressing. TiB₂ and MoSi₂ peaks were seen as major peaks in XRD analysis. CrB₂ peaks were not identified in the sample, however slight shift in TiB₂ peaks were seen. Detailed EPMA results revealed three regions of interesting. These are the light grey matrix, dark grey and black phases (Fig 5.26). To identify the elements on these regions, spectrum was analyzed separately and it was found that the elements predominantly present in the matrix are Ti, Cr and boron. Lighter regions contain Cr, Ti, Mo and B. Mo and Si are the only elements present in the dark phases. Quantitative analysis was done on the three identified regions to determine the chemical composition of the elements present, which are shown in Table 5.6. Elemental mapping of the sample shows the distribution of Ti, Cr and B in the matrix. These three elements appear to be uniformly distributed throughout the matrix. The qualitative analysis of these elements as seen by variation of brightness matches with the composition of the composite. Fig. 5.27e presents the overlay of Ti+B+Cr in the matrix, which confirms the uniform distribution of these three elements in the matrix. Fig.5.27f presents the distribution of silicon indicating that silicon is not uniformly distributed but present as clusters of 1-2 μ m size in the matrix. Fig.5.27g shows the uniform distribution of Mo throughout the matrix. This clearly indicates that a reaction has occurred between MoSi₂ and (TiCr)B₂. Mo is seen to have diffused and distributed in the matrix, leaving Si undisturbed. The white spots in Fig.5.27f indicate the location of original $MoSi_2$ particles. The elemental analysis of the polished surface indicates the presence of Ti, Cr, B and Mo uniformly distributed throughout the matrix and silicon as a second phase precipitate in the matrix. Further line scanning across different phases was carried out to confirm these results. Scan for Si indicates the non continuous presence of Si in the form of clusters. At these locations the contents of Ti, B, Cr and also Mo are comparatively low. Otherwise concentrations of these four elements are more or less constant throughout the region of line scan. Line scan analysis is in full agreement with the results of elemental mapping. High dense composite (>99%) of pre-alloyed $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ was prepared.

It may be worthwhile here to compare the densification results of all composites prepared in this work using TiB_2 of same origin. Density of TiB_2 composites with varying

MoSi₂[1], TiSi₂, WSi₂, CrSi₂, CrB₂ and composites of (TiCr)B₂+20% MoSi₂ are presented in Fig.5.44. In all cases, one can see a significant improvement in density with a small addition of 2.5% sinter additive. With higher additions in the case of TiSi₂, WSi₂ and CrB_2 content in (TiCr)B_2+20% MoSi₂ an increase in the density is observed, whereas in other cases a decrease in density is seen. The mechanism of sintering is different in each case and the sintering temperatures also vary as explained above. In the case of sintering with TiSi2 or WSi2 it is liquid phase sintering. In case of MoSi2, the major contribution in densification is due to compressive deformation of MoSi2 in addition to the formation of liquid reaction product of TiSi₂ [1,11]. Whereas during additions of CrSi₂, formation of a reaction product of Si was mainly observed, which leads to deteriorate the densification due to its existence in the gaseous phase at the hot pressing temperature under vacuum of 0.001Pa (10⁻⁵ m.bar). Near theoretical density TiB₂+CrB₂ composites were not obtained due to the absence of liquid phase sintering. At the same time, high dense composites (>96% TD) of TiB₂ were obtained by combined additions of CrB₂ and MoSi₂. Dual mechanism of sintering was observed in TiB₂+CrB₂+MoSi₂ composites namely: reactive liquid phase sintering and solid solution formation of (Ti,Cr)B₂. High dense composite (>99%) of pre-alloyed (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20%MoSi₂ were also obtained.

From the above discussion, it is clear that additions of silicides to TiB_2 helps to enhance the density by liquid phase sintering and/or activated sintering. When CrB_2 is added to TiB_2 liquid phase sintering was not seen. However, improvement in densification was seen due to the higher mobility of CrB_2 and formation of solid solution with TiB_2 . Mechanical and physical properties were evaluated and presented in the results section.

5.6 Summary

Consolidation of TiB_2 is a challenge due to its high melting point; covalent nature requires high temperatures for sintering. However, borides undergo an abnormal grain growth at high temperatures. The occurrence of microcracking at the grain boundaries is also promoted with the increase in grain size. Thus, it is very difficult to achieve crack free dense borides by the conventional cold compaction and sintering, as no shape accommodation occurs without an external pressure and large pores tend to coarsen during high temperature sintering. A thin oxygen rich layer (mainly TiO_2 and B_2O_3) is usually present on the surface of TiB_2 powder, irrespective of synthesis route. The presence of oxygen finally results in increase in grain size and coarsening of pores because the presence of oxides increases the surface diffusivity. In order to overcome the above issues it is very essential to add a suitable sinter additive. Choice of sinter additive is a challenge to obtain a density without losing its (TiB₂) inherent properties. In literature, various metallic/non metallic additives were used to lower the densification temperature. Although metallic additives helps to lower the densification temperature, from the perspective of high temperature applications, the presence of metallic binder is not desirable, the low melting point of either sintering liquid or metallic additives leads to incipient fusion and consequent degradation of high temperature properties. The principal objective of non-metallic additives is therefore to improve sinterability of TiB₂ without promoting grain growth thus circumventing limitations of metallic additives. Silicides have not been used extensively in the past for densification of TiB₂. Silicides have attracted considerable interest due to their compatibility with borides to densify at lower temperatures. In the present investigations, various silicides were used to densify the TiB_2 by hot pressing. Silicides not only lowered the densification temperature, but also helped to improve the toughness and oxidation resistance. Reactive sintering and liquid phase sintering were the main densification mechanism in all the cases. Silicon in the silicides helped to reduce the surface oxides of TiB₂, which is advantageous as mentioned above. Presence of reaction product/second phase helped to improve the fracture toughness by crack deflection or bridging mechanisms. However, presence of silicon also helped to improve the oxidation resistance by formation of a thin glassy layer on the surface. Effect of various silicides and its quantity on the densification, properties and oxidation behavior was mainly studied in this thesis. Important findings w.r.t. densification and mechanical/physical properties are listed below:

- a) Composite (TiB₂ + \geq 5% TiSi₂) pellets of 99% TD were prepared by hot pressing at 1823K (1550°C) and 30 MPa pressure in a vacuum environment for 1h. Compacts with near theoretical density were prepared with the addition of 2.5% CrSi₂ by hot pressing at 1973K (1700°C), 28 MPa, \geq 5% WSi₂ by hot pressing at 1873K (1600°C), 30 MPa. With the small addition of 2.5% CrB₂ to TiB₂, a composite of density >96% TD was obtained by hot pressing at 2023K (1750°C) and a pressure of 35 MPa. High dense composites (>96% TD) of TiB₂ were prepared by combined addition of CrB₂ and MoSi₂. High dense composite (>99%) of pre-alloyed (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20%MoSi₂ were obtained by hot pressing at 2073K (1800°C) under a pressure of 35 MPa.
- b) Ti_5Si_3 was observed as a reaction product of TiB_2 and $TiSi_2$ during hot pressing. W₅Si₃ phase was identified as a reaction product of $TiB_2 + WSi_2$ composite. Solid solution formation of TiB_2 and CrB_2 were confirmed, when CrB_2 is added to TiB_2 .

- c) Microstructural characterization results are summarized here for all the composites. EPMA studies of $TiB_2 + TiSi_2$ showed the presence of three distinct phases namely matrix (TiB₂), dark spot (Ti-61.2%, B-26.6%, Si-12.1%) and white spot (Ti->98%, Si-0.8 to 1.0%). Elemental analysis of the reaction site revealed the migration of silicon from TiSi₂ to the matrix. SEM of the fractured surface of the same composite revealed the absence of particle coarsening during densification and the mode of fracture to be predominantly intergranular. In TiB_2 + $CrSi_2$ composites three distinct regions namely a) dark grey matrix of TiB₂, b) black region, rich in Si and c) white phase, Cr laden TiB₂ were seen on the polished surface. Presence of free silicon (black phase) has been observed, which increases in quantity with the increased addition of CrSi₂. No grain growth was observed up to 5% CrSi₂ addition, whereas due to coagulation of Si, large particles were observed when CrSi₂ content was high. The failure analysis showed that the contribution by transgranular mode increases with increasing $CrSi_2$ content. No grain growth was observed up to 2.5% WSi₂ addition, to TiB₂ whereas due to coagulation of liquid/product phases, large particles were observed when WSi₂ content was high. The failure analysis showed the mixed mode of fracture. With increased CrB_2 (5 to 15%) content, failure of this composite was found to change from predominantly transgranular to a mixed (trans and intergranular) mode.
- d) Hardness (20-25GPa), fracture (indentation) toughness (4.6-6.3MPa. $m^{1/2})$ and flexural strength (390 MPa) of $TiB_2 + TiSi_2$ composite is found to match with that of monolithic TiB₂ of similar density. Hardness and fracture toughness of TiB₂ + 5.67

CrSi₂ composite were 29 ± 2 GPa and 5.97 ± 0.6 MPa.m^{1/2} respectively. With the increase in sinter additive, mechanical properties were found to decrease for TiB₂ + $CrSi_2$ composite like in the density. Hardness and fracture toughness of TiB_2 + WSi₂ composite were 25± 1 GPa and 5.0 ± 1.0 MPa.m^{1/2} respectively. Crack deflection and bridging mechanisms were apparently responsible for high fracture toughness in $TiB_2 + TiSi_2$ and $TiB_2 + WSi_2$ composites. Hardness of TiB_2 composites containing 2.5, 5 and 10% CrB₂ are close to 24 GPa and fracture toughness values in the range of 3-5 MPa \cdot m^{1/2}. Failure of this composite has been found to be through a mixed (trans and intergranular) mode of fracture. Moderate hardness in the range of 18- 24 GPa and fracture toughness values in the range of 3-4 MPa \cdot m^{1/2} were recorded for combined addition of CrB₂ and MoSi₂ to TiB₂. In pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ composites, hardness values are recorded in the range of 24-27 GPa. With increase in CrB₂ content from 5 to 15%, fracture toughness values were found to increase from 2.8 to 4.5 MPa.m^{1/2} in pre-alloyed composites.

e) Coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE) of $TiB_2 + TiSi_2$ composite is found to be close to that of TiB_2 and found to increase marginally with temperature upto 1073K (800°C) (5.8 x 10^{-6} K⁻¹ at 473K to 6.9 x 10^{-6} K⁻¹ at 1073K). Electrical resistivity increases linearly with temperature upto 1273K (1000°C) and the room temperature value of $TiB_2 + TiSi_2$ composite is slightly higher than that of TiB_2 as the specimen tested was of only 96% TD. CTE and electrical resistivity of TiB_2 + 5% CrSi₂ composites are comparable to that of monolithic TiB₂. CTE of TiB₂ + 15% WSi₂ composites are comparable to that of monolithic TiB₂. Coefficient of 5.68

thermal expansion of TiB₂+10%CrB₂ (6.21-7.43 x 10^{-6} K⁻¹ from RT to 1273K) is close to that of TiB₂ and CrB₂. Electrical resistivity of TiB₂+10%CrB₂ was measured to be 32.83, 75.97 and 116.96 μ Ω-cm at RT, 773 and 1273K respectively. These values are slightly higher than that of monolithic TiB₂ but are in the same order. In the present, studied composite's properties are not in linear combination of individual components. This could be due to the formation of a reaction products or the difference in the interfacial energies.

5.7 References

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CHAPTER 6

CHAPTER 6

OXIDATION STUDIES

6.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the non isothermal and isothermal oxidation of TiB_2 composites. Mechanism of oxidation was evaluated from the weight change data. Specific weight gain vs. time plots were fitted to parabolic and general rate equations to calculate the rate constants and to determine the slope of the oxidation curve. Important findings are given in this chapter.

Non isothermal oxidation studies were carried out in oxygen and air to determine the start and severity of oxidation and the effect of sinter additives by using TG-DTA. Morphology of the oxidized surfaces was investigated by SEM.

Isothermal oxidation studies were carried out in air by measuring the weight change to elucidate the nature of oxidation with respect to sinter additives. Morphology and phases of the oxidized surfaces were investigated by SEM-EDS, XRD and XPS. Cross section of the oxidized surface after 256h was characterized by SEM-EDS for the most oxidation resistant composites. Effect of various sinter additives ($TiSi_2/CrSi_2/CrB_2/WSi_2$) on the oxidation behavior of TiB_2 is analyzed. Effect of the combined addition of CrB_2 and $MoSi_2$ to TiB_2 on the oxidation behavior is also investigated and compared with the results of pre-alloyed ($TiCr)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ composite. Discussion on the oxidation behavior of all the composites is presented.

6.2 Continuous oxidation (non-isothermal)

TGA analysis of the composite was carried out up to 1273K (1000°C) in 1 atmosphere oxygen and air with 10 K/min heating rate. TGA plot in 1 atm oxygen (O₂) flow is given in Fig.6.1. Three different stages of weight gain are observed for each of the composites, (i) no change in sample weight up to 673 - 873K (400- 600° C), (ii) a gradual weight gain between 873 to 1073K (600 to 800° C)/ sudden increase in weight gain and (iii) a steep weight gain above 1073K (800° C). In all composites (except TiB₂+CrB₂ composites) the total specific weight gain was less than $30x10^{-3}$ kg/m² and the rates of weight gain were similar. Detailed investigations were carried out for TiB₂+CrB₂ composites using TG-DTA.

TG-DTA plot of $TiB_2 + 5\%$ CrB_2 and $TiB_2 + 10\%$ CrB_2 composites are given in Fig.6.2. Two DTA peaks were seen: one starting at 693K (420°C) and the second at 933K (660°C). The first peak indicating the start of oxidation of TiB_2 is more pronounced than the other. The second (minor) peak indicates the start of oxidation of CrB_2 . Specific weight gain of the samples indicated by TGA plot shows that the sample with higher CrB_2 content is less prone to oxidation.



Fig.6.1 TGA plot on continuous oxidation of TiB₂ composites in oxygen.



Fig. 6.2 TG-DTA analysis of $TiB_2 + CrB_2$ composites in oxygen

TGA plot on the continuous oxidation of the composites of $TiB_2 + x\%$ CrB_2 (x=5,10,15) + 20% MoSi₂ in one atmosphere oxygen pressure are given in Fig.6.1 and in air in Fig.6.3. These results are compared with that of TiB_2 composite with 5% CrB_2 . In all the composites, total specific weight gain recorded was in the range of 10-15 x 10^{-3} kg/m² at 1173K (900°C). When these composites were oxidized in air, the TGA plot (Fig. 6.3) showed two stages of weight gain, (i) no change in the sample weight up to 773K (500°C) and (ii) a gradual weight gain from 773 to 1173K (500 to 900°C). As expected, the specific weight gain recorded in the range of 5 -10 x 10^{-3} kg/m² in air is low due to lower oxygen content as compared to pure oxygen. However, TiB_2 composites containing MoSi₂ in addition to CrB_2 show low specific weight gain compared with composites containing only CrB_2 . This could be due to the availability of Si, which forms protective layer.



Fig.6.3 Specific wt. gain vs. temperature plot of TiB₂ composites oxidized in air by TGA

SEM images of oxidized surfaces of all composites (5, 10 and 15% CrB_2) up to 1273K (1000°C) after continuous oxidation (TGA) in oxygen are presented in Fig.6.4a-c.These surfaces show the formation of a thick and continuous glassy layer. The surface morphology of composite with 15% CrB_2 is free of cracks (Fig. 6.4c), whereas in the other two samples (5 and 10% CrB_2) cracks are visible (Fig. 6.4 a and b). This shows the effectiveness of CrB_2 content on the formation of a crack free and continuous oxide layer. Morphology of the oxidized surface of (TiCr)B₂+MoSi₂ samples after continuous oxidation up to 1273K (1000°C), (TGA) in oxygen are presented in Fig. 6.5a-f. These surfaces also show the formation of a thick and continuous glassy layer.



Fig. 6.4 SEM images of oxidized surfaces of (a) 5, (b) 10 and (c) 15% CrB₂ contained TiB₂ + 20% MoSi₂ composites after oxidation at 1273K (1000°C) in one atmosphere oxygen pressure (TGA sample).



Fig. 6.5 Morphology of the oxidized surface of a&b) $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$, c&d) $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$ and e&f) $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$ composites after continuous oxidation up to 1273K (1000°C), in oxygen (TGA samples)

6.3 Isothermal oxidation

This section presents the results on isothermal oxidation studies. Specific weight gain vs. time plots were drawn at different temperatures. Isothermal oxidation studies for all the composites were done at 1123K (850°C) in air at different time intervals of 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32 and 64h and in addition at 1023 and 1223K (750 and 950°C) for selected composites. This data is fitted in general rate and parabolic rate equations. Many of the composites are not following the complete parabolic behavior; still the data is fitted in parabolic rate law for comparison purpose. Mechanism of oxidation was understood from the kinetics data. XRD and SEM analysis were used to identify the oxidized products and their morphology. Important findings are given below.

6.3.1 Oxidation studies of TiB₂+TiSi₂ composites

Weight gain of the TiB₂+TiSi₂ samples during oxidation at 1123K (850° C) as a function of time is presented in Fig. 6.6 and Table 6.1. An increase in weight with time occurs. The recorded values of specific weight gain after oxidation for 64h at 1123K (850° C) were 59.83, 12.92 and 4.84 x10⁻³ kg/m² for 2.5, 5 and 10% composites respectively. In order to understand the nature of oxidation, the data were fitted in the general rate equation.

$$\left(\Delta w/A\right)^{m} = K_{m}.t \tag{6.1}$$

Where Δw - is the change in weight, A- surface area of the sample, t- oxidation time and K_m- rate constant. K_m and m values are presented in Table 6.1. The nature of oxidation appears to be near parabolic for 2.5% TiSi₂ sample as seen by the slope of the curve (1.789). To understand the kinetics of oxidation, the data was analyzed using the parabolic law.

 $(\Delta w/A)^2 = K_p.t$

Where K_p - parabolic rate constant. K_p of TiB₂+2.5% TiSi₂ are presented in Table 6.1.

XRD pattern of surface oxide layer of 2.5% $TiSi_2$ sample after 1, 4, 16 and 64 hours are shown in Fig. 6.7. The phases seen are TiO_2 (PCPDF 88-1172) and SiO_2 (PCPDF 89-1667) in all the samples.

Material	Sp.wt. gain, kg/m ² x 10^3	$K_{p} (Kg^{2} m^{4} s^{1})$	^{\$} K _m	[#] m
$TiB_2 + 2.5\% TiSi_2$	59.83	1.377 x 10 ⁻⁷	2.280 x 10 ⁻⁷	1.789
$TiB_2 + 5\% TiSi_2$	12.95	6.11 x 10 ⁻⁸	-	1.990
$TiB_2+10\%TiSi_2$	4.84	1.25×10^{-8}	_	2.012

Table 6.1 Specific weight gain and rate constants after 64h of oxidation

 $({}^{*}K_{p}$ – Parabolic rate constant, ${}^{*}K_{m}$ – Rate constant of general rate equation, ${}^{#}m$ - Slope of general rate equation)



Fig. 6.6 Specific weight gain of the TiB₂+TiSi₂ samples during oxidation at 1123K in air



Fig. 6.7 XRD pattern of the oxidized surfaces of $TiB_2+2.5\% TiSi_2$ samples at different time intervals

Scanning electron micrographs of the surface oxide scales after oxidation at 1123K (850° C) for 64h are presented in Fig.6.8.The oxidized surface appears to be continuous and crack free with stable SiO₂ layer and spherical crystalline TiO₂.





(b)

Fig. 6.8 SEM image of the Oxidized surface of TiB₂+2.5% TiSi₂ after 64h of oxidation at 1123K

Murthy *et al.*[1] while characterizing the oxidized surface of TiB_2 and TiB_2+MoSi_2 composites under similar oxidizing conditions, have seen the major phase as TiO_2 only on the oxidized surface by XRD analysis, but SEM-EDS showed the presence of boron oxide and silicon oxide in addition to TiO_2 . Pugach et al. [2] have reported the presence of TiO_2 , SiO_2 and B_2O_3 on the surface of oxidized $TiB_2 + 20$ % $TiSi_2$ in the range of 1273-1473K (1000- $1200^{\circ}C$). Koh *et al.* [3] have reported a parabolic weight gain and the formation of $TiO_2(s)$ and $B_2O_3(l)$ on the oxidized surface of TiB_2 at temperatures below 1273K (1000°C). Graziani *et al.* [4] reported the kinetics of oxidation of $TiB_2+20\%B_4C$ in air to be parabolic upto 1173K (900°C) and the oxide scale containing TiO_2 , B_2O_3 and traces of $TiBO_3$. Kulpa *et al.* [5] have found the formation of $TiBO_3$ while heating TiB_2 in low partial pressures of oxygen up to a temperature of

1273K (1000°C). For TiB₂+2.5wt% Si₃N₄ composite, at temperature below 1273K (1000°C), parabolic weight gain was observed [7]. Formation of SiO₂ layer on the oxidized surface of TiB₂+TiSi₂ appears to be responsible for the better oxidation resistance of this composite compared with TiB₂+MoSi₂ sample [1].

Oxidation of TiB₂+TiSi₂ samples may be represented by the following overall reactions.

$$2/5\text{TiB}_2 + \text{O}_{2(\text{air})} \rightarrow 2/5\text{TiO}_2 + 2/5\text{B}_2\text{O}_3 \tag{6.3}$$

$$1/3\mathrm{Ti}\mathrm{Si}_2 + \mathrm{O}_{2(\mathrm{air})} \rightarrow 1/3\mathrm{Ti}\mathrm{O}_2 + 2/3\mathrm{Si}\mathrm{O}_2 \tag{6.4}$$

$$1/8\mathrm{Ti}_{5}\mathrm{Si}_{3} + \mathrm{O}_{2(\mathrm{air})} \xrightarrow{} 5/8\mathrm{Ti}\mathrm{O}_{2} + 3/8\mathrm{Si}\mathrm{O}_{2} \tag{6.5}$$

Free energy of formation for the above reactions is calculated for 0.21 atm partial pressure of oxygen by using FactSage software version 6.3 [6] and presented in Fig. 6.9. All these reactions are thermodynamically possible. Among these, reaction 6.4 (TiSi₂) has more negative free energy compared with reactions 6.3 and 6.5 (TiB₂ and Ti₅Si₃).



Fig. 6.9 Free energy data for the formation of oxides at 0.21 atm partial pressure of oxygen

6.3.2 Oxidation studies of TiB₂+CrSi₂ composites

The weight gain data obtained during isothermal oxidation at 1123K (850°C) as a function of time for 2.5%, 5%, 10% and 15% CrSi₂ composites are presented in Fig.6.10. Continuous weight gain with time is observed in all the samples. With increasing CrSi₂ content, decrease in weight gain rate is seen. The recorded values of specific weight gain after oxidation for 64h at 1123K (850°C) were 0.150, 0.123, 0.113 and 0.058 kg/m² for 2.5, 5, 10 and 15% composites respectively.



Fig. 6.10 Specific wt. gain vs. Time during oxidation of TiB₂+CrSi₂ composites at 1123K (850°C) in air

Calculated K_p , K_m and m values of all the composites are presented in Table 6.2. The nature of oxidation appears to be parabolic (m=1.99 to 2.71) for all the composites. Parabolic rate constants of all three composites (2.5, 5 and 10%) are in the same order (6 to 9 x 10⁻⁸ kg² m⁻⁴ s⁻¹) indicating the mechanism of oxidation to be similar. The value of parabolic rate constant is found to decrease with increase of CrSi₂ content, indicating the effectiveness of CrSi₂ addition in improving the oxidation resistance.

To measure the kinetics, oxidation of $TiB_2+5\%$ CrSi₂ was carried out at five different temperatures 1023, 1073, 1123, 1173 and 1223K (750, 800, 850, 900 and 950°C) up to 64h. Specific weight gain vs. time plots are presented in Fig.6.11. The weight gain measured was least at the lowest oxidation temperature of 1023K (750°C). At 1123 and 1223K (850 and 950°C) the

weight gain plot is parabolic up to 16h and linear afterwards. Up to 16h, the weight gain of the sample oxidized at 1123K (850°C) is lower than at 1223K (950°C). However, a reversal in weight gain is noted after 16h. This could be due to the evaporation of sub oxides of boron and/or Cr at 1223K after 16h of holding. Specific weight gain recorded after 64h of oxidation was 0.008, 0.123 and 0.103 kg/m² at 1023, 1123 and 1223K (750, 850 and 950°C) respectively.

Table 6.2 Rate constants of isothermal oxidation kinetics of TiB₂ composites at 1123K (850°C) in air up to 64h

Sinter additive	$Kp^{*} (Kg^{2} m^{-4} s^{-1}) x 10^{8}$	$\mathrm{Km}^{\mathrm{\$}} \ge 10^{\mathrm{8}}$	$m^{\#}$
2.5% CrSi ₂	8.94	6.67	2.129
5% CrSi ₂	6.91	7.05	1.992
10% CrSi ₂	6.73	1.17	2.716
15% CrSi ₂	1.91	0.37	2.540

(* K_p – parabolic rate constant, * K_m – rate constant of general rate equation, #m- slope of general rate equation)

The oxidation data up to 16h was fitted in an Arrhenius equation (6.6) and the plot is shown in Fig.6.12.

(6.6)

$$Kp = Ko \exp(-Q/RT)$$

where, Q is the activation energy, R is the gas constant, T is temperature in K. The value of activation energy obtained was 114.9 kJ/mol in the temperature range of 1023 to 1223K (750 to 950°C). Tampieri and Bellosi [8] have reported an activation energy of 230 kJ/mol (T: 673 to 1173K) and 40 kJ/mol (T: 1173 to 1373K) for monolithic TiB₂. The vast difference in the value of activation energy for TiB₂ oxidation with temperature is due to change in mechanism caused by the evaporation of B_2O_3 at higher temperatures [8].



Fig. 6.11 Specific weight gain vs. time plot of TiB₂+5%CrSi₂ composite at 1023, 1073, 1123, 1173 and 1223K (750, 800, 850, 900 and 950°C)in air



Fig. 6.12 Arrhenius plot of log K_p vs 1/T for TiB₂+5%CrSi₂ composite (Activation energy = 114.9 kJ/mol)



Fig. 6.13 XRD pattern of the oxidized surfaces of TiB_2+CrSi_2 composites after oxidation at 1123K (850°C) for 64h in air



Fig. 6.14 XRD pattern of oxidized surfaces of TiB_2 composites after oxidation at 1273K (1000°C) for 4 h in air

The activation energy obtained in the present study with the addition of $CrSi_2$ to TiB_2 lies in between the values obtained by the above authors (Tampieri and Bellosi [8]). Graziani et al. [4] have reported activation energy of 220 kJ/mol for $TiB_2+20vol\%B_4C$ composite in the temperature range of 973 to 1173K (700 to 900°C).

XRD patterns of surface layer of all the composites oxidized at 1123K (850°C) for 64 hours are shown in Fig. 6.13. TiO₂ and Cr_2O_3 phases were identified in all the composites. In addition, SiO₂ peaks were observed in 15% CrSi₂ composite. The surface oxide layer obtained at a higher temperature of 1273K (1000°C) for 4 h showed the presence of all the phases (TiO₂, Cr_2O_3 and SiO₂) (Fig. 6.14).

Oxidation of TiB₂+CrSi₂ composite may be represented by the following overall reactions:

$$2/5 \text{TiB}_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5 \text{TiO}_2(s) + 2/5 B_2 O_3(l)$$
 (6.7)

$$4/11 \operatorname{CrSi}_2(s) + \operatorname{O}_2(\operatorname{air}) \rightarrow 2/11 \operatorname{Cr}_2 \operatorname{O}_3(s) + 8/11 \operatorname{SiO}_2(s)$$
 (6.8)

$$2/7 \text{CrSi}_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/7 \text{CrO}_3(g) + 4/7 \text{SiO}_2(s)$$
 (6.9)

$$1/3 \operatorname{CrSi}_2(s) + O_2(\operatorname{air}) \rightarrow 1/3 \operatorname{CrO}_2(g) + 2/3 \operatorname{SiO}_2(s)$$
 (6.10)

For the system $CrSi_2-O_2$, the thermodynamic probability of reactions taking place resulting in the formation of gaseous SiO is small [9] and hence not considered. Free energy of formation for the above reactions in 0.21 atm partial pressure of O_2 is calculated by using FactSage software version 6.3 [6] and presented in Fig.6.15. It is clear that all these equations are thermodynamically feasible. Oxidation of TiB₂ is more favorable compared to $CrSi_2$. Although formation of gaseous CrO_3 (ΔG° =-93 kJ/mol) and CrO_2 (ΔG° =-101 kJ/mol) are thermodynamically more favorable compared to $Cr_2O_3(\Delta G^\circ$ =-80 kJ/mol), weight gain of the sample during oxidation and the XRD results indicate the formation of Cr_2O_3 only (CrO₃ and CrO₂ are in gaseous state) in the present investigation. During oxidation of the composite, B_2O_3 is formed first which increases in thickness due to the high mobility of small sized boron atom and this liquid layer of B_2O_3 controls further oxidation [10,11]. As oxygen ions have to diffuse through this liquid layer, rate of oxidation decreases further. With the available of limited oxygen beneath the liquid layer, lower oxide of chromium (Cr₂O₃) is more stable.



oxygen[6].

Crystalline B_2O_3 and TiO_2 were found on the oxidized surfaces of TiB_2 at 973 and 1073K (700 and 800°C) [8]. The large volume expansion that occurs during the oxidation of

TiB₂ to TiO₂ subsequently causes cracking of the oxide layer, resulting in an increase in the active area for further oxidation [12,13]. Dasgupta et al [14] have reported good oxidation resistance of CrSi₂ powder up to 873K (600°C) in air. Ma et al. [15] have found that oxidation of CrSi₂ starts at 1089K (816°C) and a weight gain of only about 8.6 wt% of the sample on oxidation up to 1273K (1000°C), due to a protective oxide layer (crystalline Cr₂O₃ and amorphous SiO₂) formation on the surface. Gang et al. [16] observed the formation of Cr₂O₃ and SiO₂ phases on oxidation of CrSi₂ at 1773K (1500°C) for 34h in air. Cr₂O₃ is nonvolatile, insoluble in SiO₂ and helps to form a protective layer on the surface [9]. Naoyuki et al. [18] have reported excellent oxidation resistance of CrSi₂ upto 1373K (1100°C) due to the formation of a thin and dense SiO₂ layer. Shishido et al.[19] has not observed any weight gain of the CrSi₂ during heating up to 1473K (1200°C) in air. Both SiO₂ and TiO₂ are soluble in molten B₂O₃[20,21]. In fact eutectic reaction of SiO₂ with B₂O₃ is seen at 724K (451°C) at 5% SiO₂ composition.

SEM images of oxidized surfaces (5% CrSi₂ composite) at 1023, 1123 and 1223K (750, 850 and 950°C) for 64h is shown in Fig.6.16 (a-c). All the surfaces appear to be crack free. Globules of oxidized particles are seen on oxidation at 1023K (750°C) (Fig 6.16 a). At 1123K (850°C), the oxidized particles are elongated, acicular and a few bunches of particles are joined together (Fig.6.16b). At 1223K (950°C), the size of the particles has increased due to coagulation (Fig.6.16c). These images clearly present the early stage of oxidation, growth of oxide crystals and coagulation with temperature. SEM images of oxidized surfaces of 2.5, 5, 10 and 15% CrSi₂ at 1123K (850°C) for 64h are presented in Fig.6.17(a-d). In 2.5% CrSi₂ composite, the start of coagulation of liquid formed by oxidation (Fig.6.17a) is seen. With increasing CrSi₂ content, coagulation increases to give a protective and continuous oxide layer. In the 15% CrSi₂

composite, the size of the coagulated particles is bigger and formation of a near complete protective layer is seen (Fig.6.17d). SEM images of samples (2.5, 5, 10 and 15% $CrSi_2$ composites) oxidized at 1273K (1000°C) for a shorter duration of 4h are shown in Fig.6.18 (a-d). Here also all the surfaces appear to be crack free. The morphology of oxide layer appears to be different for different composites. In 2.5% $CrSi_2$ samples, one could see fine crystals of oxide particles fusing together to form a glassy looking phase. The image for 5% $CrSi_2$ shows the surface covered with bigger size crystalline layer (Fig.6.18b). In this image also the crystals appear to be fused and joined together.





Fig.6.16 SEM images of oxidized surface of 5% CrSi₂ composite at a) 1023, b) 1123 and c) 1223K after 64 h in air



Fig. 6.17 SEM images of oxidized surfaces of $TiB_2 + CrSi_2$ composites with (a) 2.5% (b) 5 % (c) 10% and (d) 15% $CrSi_2$ after oxidation at 1123K (850°C) for 64h in air

Appearances of crystals with morphology similar to that observed presently was reported by Koh et al. [7] and Tampieri & Bellosi [8]. The latter group also reported the formation of a continuous needle like TiO_2 oxide scale at temperatures above 1173K (900°C). In 10% CrSi₂ composite more area of the surface is covered by the glassy phase and the needle like structure has disappeared (Fig.6.18c).



Fig. 6.18 SEM images of oxidized surfaces of $TiB_2 + CrSi_2$ composites with (a) 2.5% (b) 5% (c) 10% (d) 15% CrSi₂ after oxidation at 1273K (1000°C) for 4 h in air.

The surface is fully covered by glassy layer in the 15% $CrSi_2$ composite (Fig.6.18d). From the above it is clear that both temperature of oxidation and the amount of $CrSi_2$ determine the formation of a protective glassy phase. Though the formation of protective glassy layer was observed with 5% $CrSi_2$ sample at 1223K (950°C) after 64h and with 15% $CrSi_2$ at 1123K (850°C) after 64h, a continuous fully covered glassy layer is formed with 15% $CrSi_2$ at 1273K (1000°C) after 4h.

Measurement of electrical resistivity of $TiB_2 + 5\%$ CrSi₂ sample in air (Fig.6.19) has shown very interesting results. Y-axis of this Figure is in Ohm-cm, whereas that of Figure 5.32 (Electrical resistivity in inert atmosphere) is in micro Ohm-cm. A steep raise in electrical resistivity at 1103K (830°C) and continuous decrease above 1233K (960°C) was observed (Fig.6.19). The increase in resistivity is about 5 orders higher compared to that measured in an inert atmosphere, which is probably due to the formation of non-conducting oxides such as TiO₂, Cr₂O₃ and B₂O₃. At higher temperatures (above 1233K) formation of liquid/glass phases like B₂O₃, borosilicate, eutectics/mixtures of B₂O₃-TiO₂ and B₂O₃-SiO₂ are responsible for the enhanced electrical conductivity. Electrical resistivity of glasses will decrease with increase of temperature. The ion mobility of glasses increases with increasing temperature [28,29]. For example, 13 orders of lower electrical resistivity was reported for silica (SiO₂) by heating it to 1073K (800°C) from 293K (20°C) [29].



Fig. 6.19 Electrical resistivity vs. temperature of $TiB_2+5\% CrSi_2$ composite in air 6.3.3 Oxidation studies of TiB_2+WSi_2 composites

The weight gain data obtained during isothermal oxidation at 1123K (850°C) as a function of time for 2.5%, 5%, 10% and 15% WSi₂ composites are presented in Fig.6.20. Continuous weight gain with time is observed in all the samples. With increasing WSi₂ content, decrease in weight gain rate is seen. The recorded values of specific weight gain after oxidation for 64h at 1123K (850°C) were 0.130, 0.047, 0.063 and 0.038 kg/m² for 2.5, 5, 10 and 15% composites respectively.



Fig. 6.20 Specific weight gain vs. time plot of isothermal oxidation at 1123K (850°C) for 64h

 K_p , K_m and m values of all the composites are presented in Table 6.3. A drastic decrease in the K_m value is noted with addition of WSi₂, from 255.2 x 10⁻⁸ for 2.5% composite to 19.93, 2.51 and 0.22 x10⁻⁸ for 5, 10 and 15% WSi₂ respectively. The nature of oxidation appears to be linear and para-linear for 2.5% (m<1.0) and 5% (m=1.5) composites respectively, close to parabolic (m=1.86) and complete parabolic for 10% and 15% (m=2.297) composites respectively. Parabolic rate constants (Table 6.3) of all three composites (5, 10 and 15%) are in the same order (0.55 to 1.62 x 10⁻⁸ kg² m⁻⁴ s⁻¹) indicating similar mechanism of oxidation. The
value of parabolic rate constant is found to increase one order (14.22 x 10^{-8}) when the addition of WSi₂ is low at 2.5%.

composites at 1125K (650 C) in an arter 04h					
Sinter additive	Specific weight gain, Kg/m ² x 10 ³	$Kp^{*} (Kg^{2} m^{-4} s^{-1}) x 10^{8}$	Km ^{\$} x 10 ⁸	$\mathrm{m}^{\#}$	
2.5% WSi ₂	129.72	14.22	255.2	<1.0	
5% WSi ₂	46.76	0.55	19.93	1.500	
5%WSi ₂ (80%TD)	393.05	74.21	29.40	<1.0	
10% WSi ₂	62.76	1.62	2.51	1.860	
15% WSi ₂	38.10	0.63	0.22	2.297	

Table 6.3 Specific weight gain, rate constants and slope of isothermal oxidation of $TiB_2 + WSi_2$ composites at 1123K (850°C) in air after 64h

(${}^{*}K_{p}$ – Parabolic rate constant, ${}^{*}K_{m}$ – Rate constant of general rate equation, ${}^{\#}m$ - Slope of general rate equation)

XRD patterns of surface layer of all the composites (2.5, 5 & 10%) oxidized at 1123K (850° C) for 64 hours are shown in Fig. 6.21. TiO₂ and SiO₂ phases were identified in all the composites. Number of SiO₂ peaks and their intensity increase with the increase of WSi₂ addition.



Fig.6.21: XRD patterns of TiB₂+WSi₂ oxidized samples at 1123K (850°C) in air for 64h



Fig. 6.22 Plot showing the Gibbs free energy change of oxidation reactions (6.11-6.25) as a function of temperature for 0.21 atm partial pressure of oxygen

Oxidation of TiB_2+WSi_2 composite may be represented by the following overall reactions. W_5Si_3 is also considered as one of the possible oxidation product in the reactions as the presence of this phase in the composites was confirmed by XRD results (Fig.5.13).

$$2/5 TiB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5 TiO_2(s) + 2/5 B_2 O_3(s)$$
 (6.11)

$$2/5TiB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5TiO_2(s) + 2/5B_2O_3(glass)$$
 (6.12)

$$2/5TiB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5TiO_2(s) + 2/5B_2O_3(g)$$
 (6.13)

$$2/7WSi_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/7WO_3(s) + 4/7SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.14)

$$2/7WSi_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/7WO_3(g) + 4/7SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.15)

$$1/3WSi_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 1/3WO_2(s) + 2/3SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.16)

$$1/3WSi_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 1/3WO_2(g) + 2/3SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.17)

$$2/5WSi_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5 WO(g) + 2/5 SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.18)

$$3/10WSi_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 1/10W_3O_8(g) + 3/5SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.19)

$$2/21W_5Si_3(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 10/21 WO_3(s) + 6/21SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.20)

$$2/21W_5Si_3(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 10/21 WO_3(g) + 6/21SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.21)

$$1/8W_5Si_3(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 5/8WO_2(s) + 3/8SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.22)

$$1/8W_5Si_3(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 5/8WO_2(g) + 3/8SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.23)

$$2/11W_5Si_3(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 10/11WO(g) + 6/11SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.24)

$$3/29W_5Si_3(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 5/29W_3O_8(g) + 9/29SiO_2(s)$$
 (6.25)

Free energy change (ΔG°) for each of the above reactions, was calculated for 0.21 atm partial pressure of O₂ by using FactSage software version 6.3 and plotted as a function of temperature (up to 1500K) [6] and presented in Fig.6.22. All these reactions are thermodynamically feasible. Oxidation of TiB₂ (reactions -6.11 &6.12) and WSi₂ (reaction-6.16) are more favorable compared to oxidation of W₅Si₃. Formation of sub oxides of W [g] (WO, WO₃, WO₂, W₃O₈) and B₂O₃[g] are thermodynamically favorable as the change of free energy is negative for all reactions. But formation of B₂O₃(glass), B₂O₃(s), WO₃(s), WO₂(s) are more favorable compared to formation of gaseous phases due to large negative free energy change. Formation of above solid/glass phases are confirmed by the weight gain data of the samples during oxidation. B₂O₃ and SiO₂ are formed initially during oxidation of the composite which increases in thickness due to the high mobility of small size boron atom and this liquid/glassy layer of B₂O₃/SiO₂ controls further oxidation [10,11].

Crystalline B_2O_3 and TiO_2 were found on the surfaces of TiB_2 oxidized at 973 and 1073K (700 and 800°C) [8]. The large volume expansion that occurs during the oxidation of TiB_2 to TiO_2 causes cracking of the oxide layer, resulting in an increase in the active area for further oxidation [12,13]. SiO₂ and WO₃ have been reported on the surfaces of WSi₂ oxidized at 1373K (1100°C) and only SiO₂ at 1573K (1300°C) [22]. A similar observation has been reported for oxidation of WSi₂ films, where the formation of SiO₂ and WO₃ were reported [23]. Both SiO₂ and TiO₂ are soluble in molten $B_2O_3[20,21]$.

Porosity in the material is known to increase the oxidation rate due to increased surface area available for the reaction. In the present study, effect of porosity on oxidation of $TiB_2+5wt\%$ WSi₂ composite was studied using two samples with porosity and the other with full

density (~100% TD). Porous sample was prepared at lower hot pressing temperature and pressure. Specific weight gain vs. time plot of these two samples are presented in Fig.6.23. The weight gain after 8 h of oxidation is recorded as 175.92×10^{-3} and $6.49 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/m}^2$ for porous and near 100% TD samples respectively. The values after 64h of oxidation are recorded as 393.06×10^{-3} and $46.76 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/m}^2$. The oxidation behavior changed from linear (m<1.0) to para-linear (m=1.5) and the parabolic rate constant decreased from 7.4 x 10^{-7} to 5.5 x $10^{-9} \text{ Kg}^2 \text{ m}^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ with increase in density of the composite.

SEM images of surfaces of porous (80% TD) composite oxidized at 1123K (850°C) for 64h are presented in Fig. 6.24(a & b). Though continuous oxide layer has formed, some portions are severely damaged and cracks also have appeared (Fig. 6.24a). Similar features are seen at different locations and at higher magnification (Fig. 6.24b). The surface of sample with 2.5% WSi₂ (Fig. 6.25) appears to be crack free continuous oxide layer. Two SEM images of different magnifications of 5% WSi₂ oxidized sample are presented in Fig. 6.26(a & b). The surface layer appears similar to 2.5% sample but with a number of cuboids shaped particles, which were confirmed to be TiO₂ by EDAX. Appearances of highly textured crystals with similar morphology have been reported by Koh et al. [7] and Tampieri & Bellosi [8]. SEM images of oxidized surfaces of 10 & 15% WSi₂ composites are presented in Fig. 6.27 & 6.28 respectively. These surfaces appear similar to that of 2.5% sample but with more amount of glassy phase. With the increased addition of WSi₂, quantity of borosilicate glass formed would be higher during oxidation, which explains the absence of TiO₂ cuboids. As both boron and silicon atoms are smaller in size, they could easily diffuse out to the surface [10,11]. Samples with 10 & 15% WSi₂ after long duration of 128h oxidation showed some unique features on the surface. SEM images of these features are presented in Fig. 6.29 & 6.30. A thick non porous glassy layer can

be seen on the surface with flakes like transparent objects. These flakes appear to be detached from the surface during cooling after oxidation.



Fig. 6.23 Specific weight gain vs. time plot of porous (80%) and near 100% TD $TiB_2+5\% WSi_2$ oxidized samples at 1123K (850°C) in air



Fig. 6.24 SEM images of surfaces of 80% TD (5% WSi₂) composite oxidized at 1123K (850°C) for 64h at different magnifications



Fig. 6.25 SEM images of surface of 2.5% WSi_2 composite oxidized at 1123K (850°C) for 64h



Fig. 6.26 SEM images (a & b) of different magnifications of 5% WSi₂ oxidized sample at 1123K (850°C) for 64h



Fig. 6.27 SEM images of oxidized surface of 10% WSi_2 composites (a & b) at 1123K for 64h



Fig. 6.28 SEM images of oxidized surface of 15% WSi₂ composites (a&b) at 1123K for 64h



Fig. 6.29 SEM images of surfaces oxidized at 1123K for a very long duration of 128h (10% WSi₂)



Fig. 6.30 SEM images of surfaces oxidized at 1123K (850°C) for a long duration of 128h (15% WSi₂)

6.3.4 Oxidation studies of TiB₂+CrB₂ composites

The weight gain data obtained during oxidation at 1123K (850° C) as a function of time for 2.5%, 5% and 10% CrB₂ contained TiB₂ composites are presented in Fig.6.31. Continuous weight gain with time is observed in all the samples. With increasing CrB₂ content, increase in the weight gain also is recorded upto 32 hours. At 64 hours the weight gain for 5% and 10% samples are almost equal. K_p, K_m and m values are presented in Table 6.4. The nature of oxidation near parabolic (m=1.901) for 2.5% and (m=1.908) 5% CrB₂ samples, with complete parabolic nature (m= 2.5) for TiB₂+10%CrB₂ composite. Parabolic rate constants of all three composites are in the same order (4-13 x10⁻⁸ Kg²m⁻⁴s⁻¹) indicating the mechanism of oxidation to be similar.

Short duration oxidation studies were carried out at different temperatures of 873, 1073 and 1273K (600, 800 and 1000°C) for 10% CrB_2 samples. Oxidized surfaces were analyzed by XRD and SEM. XRD plots of samples which underwent short duration oxidation experiments are presented in Fig.6.32. At 873K (600°C), oxidation has just started, indicated by a few faint peaks of TiO₂. After oxidation at 1073 and 1273K (800 and 1000°C), TiO₂ and CrBO₃ peaks are identified on the surface. SEM images of the oxidized surfaces are presented in Fig.6.33(a-d). After oxidation at 873K (600°C), there is no visible change in the appearance of the surface (Fig.6.33a). After oxidation at 1073K (800°C), multiple nuclei of liquid droplets are observed (Fig.6.33b). One can see the coagulation of liquid droplets on the surface after oxidation at 1273K (1000°C) (Fig.6.33c). At higher magnification, the same surface shows patches of glassy film (Fig.6.33d).



Fig.6.31 Weight gain with time of TiB₂+CrB₂ composites during oxidation at 1123K (850°C)



Fig. 6.32 XRD patterns of the surface of $TiB_2+10\%CrB_2$ composite oxidized at 873, 1073 and 1273K (600, 800 and 1000°C)

Material	$Kp^* (Kg^2 m^{-4} s^{-1})x10^8$	Km ^{\$} x 10 ⁸	m [#]
$TiB_2 + 2.5\% \ CrB_2$	4.05	5.26	1.901
$TiB_2 + 5\% CrB_2$	9.43	11.60	1.908
$TiB_2 + 10\% CrB_2$	13.08	5.01	2.456

Table.6.4 Isothermal oxidation kinetics of TiB₂ and composites at 1123K (850°C)

 K_{p} – parabolic rate constant, K_{m} – rate constant of general rate equation, m - slope of the general rate equation



Fig. 6.33 SEM images of the oxidized surface of $TiB_2+10\%CrB_2$ at (a) 873K, (b) 1073K and (c&d) 1273K



Fig.6.34 XRD patterns of oxidized surface of TiB₂+CrB₂ composites after 64 h at 1123K

XRD pattern of surface oxide layer of the composites after 64 hours are shown in Fig.6.34. TiO₂ and CrBO₃ phases were identified in all the composites. SEM of the surface after oxidation at 1123K (850° C) for 64h is shown in Fig.6.35a-c. The surface is crack free in all the composites. In 2.5% composite, the start of formation of an oxide layer (Fig.6.35a) can be seen. With increasing CrB₂ content, more flow of liquid and disappearance of individual particles (Fig.6.35b) occur. With 10% CrB₂, a continuous protective layer is formed on the surface (Fig.6.35c). As the availability of Cr₂O₃ increases with increased CrB₂ content in the composite, a thick protective layer of CrBO₃ is formed. Increase in CrB₂ content in the sample also increases B₂O₃, a glassy phase, indicated by the absence of clear/definite peaks and the disturbance noticed in the XRD pattern (Fig.6.34).

Okada *et al.*[24] have studied the oxidation behavior of CrB_2 single crystal and reported that, oxidation begins at 997K (740°C) resulting in the formation of Cr_2O_3 and $CrBO_3$ phases. Emiliani[25] have reported that oxidation of hot pressed CrB_2 at 1373K (1100°C), a massive chromium borate (CrBO₃) scale gets formed which results in weight gain. Tombs *et al.* [26] have identified the formation of a stable compound $CrBO_3$, by reaction of Cr_2O_3 and B_2O_3 in a melt containing excess B_2O_3 . Samsanov *et al.* [27] have reported the formation of a fairly tenacious oxide film consisting of B_2O_3 and $CrBO_3$ on oxidation of CrB_2 at 1173-1273K (900-1000°C). In the present study also identified the formation of $CrBO_3$ phase.



Fig 6.35 SEM of the oxidized surface of TiB_2 composite with (a) 2.5% CrB_2 , (b) 5% CrB_2 and (c) 10% CrB_2 after 64 h at 1123K (850°C)

Oxidation of TiB₂+CrB₂ samples may be represented by the following overall reactions:

$$2/5TiB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5TiO_2(s) + 2/5B_2O_3(l)$$
 (6.26)

$$4/9 CrB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/9 Cr_2 O_3(s) + 4/9 B_2 O_3(l)$$
(6.27)

 $2/5CrB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5CrO_2(g) + 2/5B_2O_3(l)$ (6.28)

$$1/3CrB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 1/3CrO_3(g) + 1/3B_2O_3(l)$$
 (6.29)

$$Cr_2O_3(s) + B_2O_3(l) \rightarrow 2CrBO_3(s)$$
 (?) (6.30)

Though B_2O_3 starts evaporating above 1273K (1000°C), CrBO₃ is stable up to 1473K (1200°C) and at higher temperatures decomposes in the presence of oxygen to Cr₂O₃ and B₂O₃. Free energy change of formation for the above reactions except (6.30) is calculated for 0.21 atm partial pressure of oxygen by using FactSage software version 6.3 [6] and presented in Fig.6.36. Free energy of formation of CrBO₃ data is not available. However, CrBO₃ formation was confirmed in XRD. It is clear that all these reactions (6.26 to 6.29) are thermodynamically possible. Oxidation of CrB₂ is more favorable compared to TiB₂ as seen from the Fig.6.36. This could be the reason for the higher weight gain of the samples on oxidation with increased CrB₂ content. Reaction 6.26, 6.27 and 6.30 results in weight gain whereas reactions 6.28 and 6.29 result in weight loss due to the gaseous nature of CrO₂ and CrO₃ at 1123K (850°C). The overall weight gain observed in oxidation experiments indicate that reactions leading to weight gain are predominant.



Fig. 6.36 Free energy data for the formation of oxides at 0.21 atm partial pressure of oxygen

Measurement of electrical resistivity of $TiB_2 + 10$ wt% CrB_2 sample in air (Fig.6.37) has shown very interesting results. At 933K (660°C) a sudden raise of electrical resistivity and above 1158K (885°C), continuous decrease of resistivity is observed. The increase in resistivity is about 14 times higher compared to that measured in inert atmosphere. The increase in resistivity could be due to the formation of non-conducting oxide layers of TiO_2 and B_2O_3 . At higher temperatures (above 1158K) formation of liquid phases (probably B_2O_3 , and $CrBO_3$) is responsible for the enhanced electrical conductivity. Similar observations have been noted in the case of $TiB_2 + CrSi_2$ composite also.



Fig. 6.37 Electrical resistivity of $TiB_2+10\% CrB_2$ measured by 4-probe method in inert atmosphere and air

6.3.5 Oxidation studies of TiB₂+CrB₂ +20%MoSi₂ composites

The weight gain data obtained during isothermal oxidation at 1023, 1123 and 1223K (750, 850 and 950°C) as a function of time for $TiB_2+20\%MoSi_2+x\%CrB_2$ (x=5,10,15) composites are shown in Fig.6.38a, b and c respectively. Continuous weight gain with time is observed in all the samples and at all temperatures. However the rate of weight gain is different for different samples and temperatures. With increasing CrB_2 content, decrease in weight gain rate is seen at 1023 and 1123K (750 and 850°C).



Fig. 6.38 Specific weight gain vs. time plots of $TiB_2+20\%MoSi_2$ composites of a) 5% b) 10% and c) 15% CrB₂ oxidized at different temperatures

The recorded values of specific weight gain after oxidation for 64h at 1023K (750°C) were 14.97, 4.26 and 2.06 x 10^{-3} kg/m² for 5, 10 and 15% CrB₂ composites respectively (Fig. 6.38). The recorded values of specific weight gain after oxidation for 64h at 1123K (850°C) were 56.03, 46.94 and 27.02 x 10^{-3} kg/m² for the same composites (Fig. 6.38). The recorded values of specific weight gain after oxidation for 64h at 1223K (950°C) were 14.14, 24.10 and 88.76 x10⁻³ kg/m^2 for the same composites (Fig. 6.38). Comparing the weight gain between 1023 and 1123K (750 and 850°C), it is noticed that weight gain increases with temperatures for all the composites. But at 1223K (950°C) a low specific weight gain was observed for 5 and 10% CrB₂ composites compared to that oxidized at 1123K (850°C). This could be due to the evaporation of oxides that have high vapor pressure such as B_2O_3 , MoO₃ from the sample at higher temperature [1,17]. But in the case of 15% CrB₂ composite, specific weight gain recorded was higher compared to that at 1123K (850°C). This could probably be due to the formation of thick oxide layer which might have prevented the evaporation of MoO_3 and B_2O_3 . Specific weight gain of TiB_2+CrB_2 composites was higher at all time intervals compared with TiB₂+20%MoSi₂+x%CrB₂ (x=5,10,15) samples. TiB₂ composites with 20%MoSi₂ have also been reported to record very high weight gain which is about 3 orders of magnitude higher $(34790 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/m}^2)$ as compared to the present study [1]. From the above, it can be inferred that the composite with combined addition of CrB₂ and MoSi₂ has low specific weight gain during oxidation compared to TiB₂ composites that were formed either with CrB₂ or with MoSi₂ alone.

 K_p , K_m and m values at different temperatures are listed in Table 6.5. The nature of oxidation appears to be near parabolic (m=1.6 to 2.0) at 1023K (750°C) for all the composites, which alters to cubic (m>3) at 1123K (850°C). Nature of oxidation at 1223K (950°C) is not predictable, as these values will not be representative due to evaporation of MoO₃/B₂O₃.

Parabolic rate constant of 5, 10 and 15% CrB_2 composites are measured as 7.73 x10⁻¹⁰, 0.91 x10⁻¹⁰, 0.19x10⁻¹⁰ kgm⁻⁴s⁻¹ respectively at 1023K (750°C). Two orders higher parabolic rate constants are measured for the same composites at 1123K (850°C) in the range of 0.5 x10⁻⁸ to 1.8x10⁻⁸ kgm⁻⁴s⁻¹. The above parabolic rate constant values at 1023 and 1123K (750 and 850°C) indicate that mechanism of oxidation to be diffusion controlled. The value of parabolic rate constant is found to decrease with increase of CrB₂ content from 5 to 15%, indicating the effectiveness of CrB₂ addition in improving the oxidation resistance. Lower order parabolic rate constant value was observed in TiB₂ composite containing both MoSi₂ and 15% CrB₂ (Table 6.5) as compared to the composite containing either CrB₂ or MoSi₂ alone during oxidation at 1123K (850°C).

XRD patterns of surface layer of all the composites oxidized at 1123K (850°C) for 64 hours are shown in Fig. 6.39. TiO₂, Cr₂O₃ and SiO₂ phases were identified in all the composites. XPS analysis of oxidized surfaces was carried out to understand the presence of amorphous/glassy phases. Results are presented in the Fig. 6.40(a & b) for 5% and 15% CrB₂ samples. Similar to XRD results, TiO₂, Cr₂O₃ and SiO₂ phases were observed in both the composites. In addition MoO₃ and B₂O₃ phases were identified in 5% CrB₂ samples. Unidentified peaks are due to the conductive coating material used for sample preparation. From the above it is clear that higher content of CrB₂ (\geq 10%) forms a protective coating and prevents the escape of boron and molybdenum species as suboxides.

Sample	Wt. % CrB ₂	Sp.wt. gain, Kg/m ² x 10^3	$Kp^{*}(Kg^{2}m^{-4}s^{-1})$	Km ^{\$}	m [#]
	At 1023K (750°C)				
	5	14.97	7.73×10^{-10}	1.84×10^{-9}	1.812
$(11B_2 + 20\%)$ MoSi ₂) + CrB ₂	10	4.26	9.13×10^{-11}	$1.47 \ge 10^{-15}$	3.906
	15	2.06	$1.86 \ge 10^{-11}$	1.67×10^{-10}	1.661
		At 112	3K (850°C)		
	2.5	105.25	$4.05 \ge 10^{-8}$	5.26×10^{-8}	1.901
$TiB_2 + CrB_2$	5	158.86	$9.43 \ge 10^{-8}$	$11.60 \ge 10^{-8}$	1.908
	10	155.84	$13.08 \ge 10^{-8}$	5.01×10^{-8}	2.456
	0^1	34789.7	5992	33490	1.423
$\begin{array}{c} (TiB_2 + 20\% \\ MoSi_2) + CrB_2 \end{array}$	5	46.94	$1.06 \ge 10^{-8}$	2.80×10^{-9}	2.396
	10	56.03	$1.84 \ge 10^{-8}$	5.23×10^{-11}	3.876
	15	27.02	4.91 x 10 ⁻⁹	$1.73 \ge 10^{-11}$	3.495
TiB ₂ ¹	0	305238.6	$6.0 \ge 10^{-8}$	-	-
At 1223K (950°C)					
$\begin{array}{c} (TiB_2 + 20\% \\ MoSi_2) + CrB_2 \end{array}$	5	14.14	1.26×10^{-9}	2.43×10^{-14}	4.422
	10	24.10	3.50×10^{-9}	4.71×10^{-14}	4.821
	15	88.76	6.63×10^{-8}	8.49×10^{-14}	7.403

Table 6.5 Specific weight gain and rate constants after 64h of oxidation at different temperatures

(${}^{*}K_{p}$ – Parabolic rate constant, ${}^{*}K_{m}$ – Rate constant of general rate equation, ${}^{#}m$ - Slope of general rate equation)



Fig. 6.39 XRD patterns of surface of 5, 10 and 15% CrB₂ composites oxidized at 1123K



Fig.6.40 XPS analysis of oxidized surface of (a) 5% and (b)15% CrB_2 composite after isothermal oxidation at 1123K (850°C) for 64h in air

Oxidation of $TiB_2+MoSi_2+CrB_2$ composite may be represented by the following overall reactions:

$$2/5 TiB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5 TiO_2(s) + 2/5 B_2 O_3(s)$$
 (6.31)

$$2/5TiB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5TiO_2(s) + 2/5B_2O_3(glass)$$
 (6.32)

$$2/5TiB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5TiO_2(s) + 2/5B_2O_3(g)$$
 (6.33)

$$4/9 CrB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/9 Cr_2 O_3(s) + 4/9 B_2 O_3(l)$$
(6.34)

$$2/5CrB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 2/5CrO_2(g) + 2/5B_2O_3(l)$$
 (6.35)

$$1/3CrB_2(s) + O_2(air) \rightarrow 1/3CrO_3(g) + 1/3B_2O_3(l)$$
 (6.36)

$$2/7MoSi_2 + O_2(air) \rightarrow 4/7SiO_2 + 2/7MoO_3(s)$$
 (6.37)

$$2/7\text{MoSi}_2 + O_2(\text{air}) \rightarrow 4/7\text{SiO}_2 + 2/7\text{MoO}_3(g)$$
(6.38)

Free energy change (ΔG°) for each of the above reactions was calculated for 0.21 atm partial pressure of O₂ by using FactSage software version 6.3 and plotted as a function of temperature up to 1200K (927°C) (for reaction – 6.32 up to 800K) in Fig.6.41 [6]. It is clear that reactions (6.31)-(6.37) are thermodynamically feasible as the change in free energy is negative. Oxidation of CrB₂ (reaction 6.34) is more favorable compared to TiB₂ and MoSi₂. Formation of gaseous sub oxides of chromium (CrO₃, CrO₂), MoO₃[g] and B₂O₃[g] are thermodynamically favorable as the change of free energy is negative for all reactions. But the reactions for the formation of B₂O₃(glass), Cr₂O₃(s), MoO₃(s) have more negative free energy change compared to reactions leading to gaseous product phases. Formation of the solid/glass phases as indicated above was confirmed by the weight gain data and XRD analysis of the samples during oxidation.



Fig. 6.41 Free energy formation data of various possible oxidation reactions for 0.21 atm partial pressure of O₂ [6] 6.46

 B_2O_3 and SiO₂ are formed initially during oxidation of the composite which increases in thickness due to the high mobility of small sized boron atom and this liquid/glassy layer of B_2O_3/SiO_2 controls further oxidation [10,11]. In fact, eutectic reaction of SiO₂ with B_2O_3 is seen at 724K (451°C) at 5% SiO₂ composition. Both SiO₂ and TiO₂ are soluble in molten $B_2O_3[20,21]$. Crystalline B_2O_3 and TiO₂ were found on the oxidized surfaces of TiB₂ at 973 and 1073K (700 and 800°C) [8]. The large volume expansion that occurs during the oxidation of TiB₂ to TiO₂ (7 vol%) causes cracking of the oxide layer, resulting in an increase in the active area for further oxidation [12,13]. CrBO₃ phase has been identified on oxidation of CrB₂ [24,25,27]. This particular compound was not identified on the oxidized surface of the TiB₂ + 20% MoSi₂ + x% CrB₂ (x=5,10,15) composites. It is well-established that the excellent oxidation resistance of MoSi₂ at high temperatures is attributed to the formation of a self-healing, glassy silica (SiO₂) layer. But during low temperature (673-873 K) oxidation, it exhibits pest behavior. 'Pest' means disintegration of the material (the disintegrated MoSi₂ results in powdery products) [1].

SEM images of oxidized surfaces of all composites (5, 10 and 15% CrB_2) at 1123 and 1223K (850 and 950°C) for 64h are presented in Fig.6.42(a-f). At 1123K (850°C), the oxidized surface of 5% CrB_2 composite shows the formation of glassy phase partially covering the surface (Fig. 6.42a). At 1223K (950°C) the glassy layer completely covered the surface (Fig. 6.42b). Though the weight gain data shows that evaporation is more at higher temperature for this composite, the higher temperature has also helped in the formation of liquid glassy phase. With 10% CrB_2 composite globules of oxidized particles are seen covered with the glassy layer (Fig. 6.42c) at 1123K (850°C). At the higher temperature, the glassy layer appears to be punctured by the evaporating species (Fig. 6.42d) and the oxide crystals appear to be bigger in size. This is in conformity with the results of weight gain data on oxidation. With further increase in CrB_2 (15%) the oxidized surface appears to be crack free, continuous and with cuboid shaped crystalline particles after oxidation at 1123K (850°C) (Fig 6.42e). After oxidation at 1223K (950°C) the surface of the same composite appears fully covered with a wavy pattern (Fig. 6.42f). This feature goes well with the weight gain pattern shown by this composite at 1223K (950°C) with lower evaporation and higher weight gain.

To understand the role of various elements during oxidation of TiB₂ composites extended carried out at 1123K (850°C) for 256h. Cross oxidation was section of the TiB₂+15%CrB₂+20%MoSi₂ oxidized surface after 256h was characterized by SEM-EDS and presented in Fig.6.43. The thickness of the oxide layer is $\sim 100 \,\mu\text{m}$ and the elemental distribution of this layer for Si, Ti, B, Mo, Cr and O is also presented. Outer most layer of oxidized surface is boron oxide. Boron content decreases drastically up to 20 µm and then gradually increases up to 100 μ m from the outer most layer of oxidized surface. Beyond 100 μ m, the boron content is uniform. This clearly shows the migration of boron towards the outer surface. The next inner layer is silicon oxide. Higher silicon content is seen from 5 to 60 µm from the outer layer. This shows that silicon also migrates to the outer surface. It has also been reported that due to the small radius of the boron atom, it can diffuse easily to the surface during oxidation of $TiB_2[1]$. Both silicon and boron have very high affinity for oxygen, which also aid the migration. Qualitative analysis of this oxide layer shows that boron migrates towards the surface layer. Silicon combined with oxygen forms the barrier layer for further diffusion of oxygen ions.



Fig. 6.42 SEM images of oxidized surfaces of 5, 10 and 15%CrB₂ composites at 1123K (850°C) (a,c,e) and the same composites at 1223K (950°C) (b,d, f) for 64h



Fig. 6.43 SEM - EDS analysis of cross section of the composite $TiB_2 + 20$ wt.%MoSi₂ +15 wt. %CrB₂ oxidized at 1123K (850°C) for 256h

6.3.6 Oxidation studies of (TiCr)B₂ +20%MoSi₂ composites

The weight gain data obtained during isothermal oxidation at 1023, 1123 and 1223K (750, 850 and 950°C) as a function of time for all the composites are presented in Fig. 6.44(a-c). Continuous weight gain with time is observed in all the samples and at all temperatures. However the rate of weight gain is different for different samples and temperatures. With

increasing CrB₂ content, decrease in weight gain rate is seen at all temperatures. The recorded values of specific weight gain after oxidation for 64h at 1023K (750°C) were 4.73, 2.32 and 3.07 x 10^{-3} kg/m² for $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2$, $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2$ and $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composites respectively (Fig. 6.44). The recorded values of specific weight gain after oxidation for 64h at 1123K (850° C) were 34.62, 26.07 and 8.17 x 10^{-3} kg/m² for the same composites (Fig. 6.44). The recorded values of specific weight gain after oxidation for 64h at 1223K (950°C) were 57.32, 39.58 and 4.58 $\times 10^{-3}$ kg/m² for the same composites (Fig. 6.44). Comparing the weight gain between 1023 and 1223K (750 and 950°C), it is noticed that weight gain increases with temperatures for all the composites. But at 1223K (950°C) a low specific weight gain was observed for (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20% MoSi₂ composites compared to that oxidized at 1123K (850°C). Specific weight gain of TiB₂+CrB₂+20%MoSi₂ composites was higher at all time intervals compared with the (TiCr)B₂ +20%MoSi₂ samples. From the above, it can be inferred that the composite with pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂ with addition of 20%MoSi₂ has low specific weight gain during oxidation compared to TiB₂ composites that were formed without pre-alloyed $(TiB_2 + CrB_2).$

 K_p , K_m and m values at different temperatures are presented in Table 6.6. The nature of oxidation appears to be complete parabolic (m=2.1 to 2.6) for 5 and 10%CrB₂ composites and cubic (m>3) for (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20% MoSi₂ composite at 1023K (750°C). Parabolic rate constant of (Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B₂, (Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B₂ and (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20% MoSi₂ composites are measured as 1.25, 0.23, 0.53 x 10⁻¹⁰ kg m⁻⁴ s⁻¹ respectively at 1023K (750°C). One order higher parabolic rate constants are measured for the same composites at 1123K (850°C) in the range of 3 to 5 x 10⁻⁹ kgm⁻⁴s⁻¹. The above parabolic rate constant values at 1023 and 1123K (750 and

 850° C) indicate that mechanism of oxidation to be diffusion controlled. The value of parabolic rate constant is found to decrease with increase of CrB₂ content from 5 to 15%, indicating the effectiveness of CrB₂ addition in improving the oxidation resistance.

Sample	Sp.wt. gain, $Kg/m^2 x$ 10^3	Kp^{*} $(Kg^{2}m^{-4}s^{-1})$	Km ^{\$}	m [#]	
	At 1023 K	(750°C)			
$(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	4.73	1.25×10^{-10}	2.69×10^{-12}	2.687	
$(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	2.32	2.32×10^{-11}	8.50×10^{-12}	2.156	
$(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	3.06	5.26×10^{-11}	3.49×10^{-15}	3.590	
At 1123 K (850°C)					
$(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	34.62	5.24×10^{-9}	1.55×10^{-9}	2.327	
$(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	26.07	3.72×10^{-9}	3.57×10^{-10}	2.602	
$(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	8.17	1.75×10^{-9}	6.80×10^{-14}	4.359	
At 1223 K (950°C)					
$(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	57.32	1.46×10^{-8}	2.69×10^{-8}	1.807	
$(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	39.58	9.96×10^{-9}	8.01×10^{-11}	3.410	
$(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\% MoSi_2$	4.58	2.14×10^{-10}	2.43×10^{-31}	10.953	

Table 6.6 Specific weight gain and rate constants after 64h of oxidation at different temperatures

 $(K_p - Parabolic rate constant, K_m - Rate constant of general rate equation, m- Slope of general rate equation)$

XRD patterns of surface layer of all the composites oxidized at 1023, 1123 and 1223K (750, 850 and 950°C) for 64 hours are shown in Fig. 6.45(a-c). TiO₂, Cr₂O₃ and SiO₂ phases were identified in all the composites after oxidation at 1023 and 1123K (750 and 850°C). TiO₂, CrO₃, B₂-SiO₅ phases were identified in all the composites after oxidation at 1223K (950°C).



Fig. 6.44 Specific weight gain vs. time plots of a) $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂, b) $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ and c) $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composites oxidized at different temperatures.

SEM images of oxidized surfaces of all composites (5, 10 and 15% CrB₂) at 1023, 1123 and 1223K (750, 850 and 950°C) for 64h are presented in Fig.6.46 to 6.48. At 1023 K (750°C), start of formation of a liquid phase can be seen on (Fig.6.46a) (Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B₂+20% MoSi₂ sample. More amount of liquid phase is spreading on the surface of (Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B₂ and (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20% MoSi₂ composites (Fig. 6.46 b & c). At 1123K (850°C), surface cracks 6.53

were seen on the $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2$ oxidized sample (Fig.6.47a). $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2$ and $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ samples were fully covered with dense oxide layer (Fig.6.47 b & c). At 1223K (950°C), more continuous and protective oxide layer was seen with increasing the CrB₂ content in the sample (Fig.6.48a-c).



Fig. 6.45 XRD patterns of (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂composites at a)1023, b)1123 and c)1223K



(c) Fig. 6.46 SEM images of a) $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂, b) $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ and c) $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composites oxidized at 1023K (750°C) for 64h



Fig. 6.47 Morphology of the oxidized surfaces of a & b) $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂, c & d) $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ and e & f) $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composites after isothermal oxidation at 1123K (850°C) for 64h in air



(c) Fig. 6.48 SEM images of a) $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂, b) $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ and c) $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composites oxidized at 1223K (950°C) for 64h

To understand the role of various elements during oxidation of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2 + 20\%$ MoSi₂ composite, extended oxidation was carried out at 1123K (850°C) for 256h. Cross section of the 15%CrB₂ contained (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ oxidized surface after 256h was characterized by SEM-EDS and is presented in Fig.6.49. The thickness of the oxide layer is <10 µm and the elemental distribution of this layer for Si, Ti, B, Mo, Cr and O is also given. Outer most layer of oxidized surface is seen to be that of silicon oxide. Only in the top layer of upto 10 µm, there is a deficiency of the metallic elements. This layer is dominated by silicon and oxygen, clearly indicating the migration of silicon towards the outer surface. Cross section results of pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂ composite is compared with the separate addition of TiB₂ and CrB₂ are brought out below. The thickness of the oxide layer is ~100 μ m for TiB₂+15%CrB₂+MoSi₂ composite, which is much higher than that of (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20%MoSi₂ composite of <10 μ m. Migration of boron towards the outer surface was observed in TiB₂+15%CrB₂+MoSi₂ composite, where as migration of silicon in case of (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20%MoSi₂ composite.



Fig. 6.49 Cross section of (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20% MoSi₂ oxidized surface after 256h at 1123K

Thermal cycling study was carried out for $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ composite, using a twin zone vertical furnace (Fig.3.8b) with pneumatic movement of the sample holder from hot

zone to the cold zone and vice versa. Movement of the sample between zones was rapid (<5 sec). Hot zone and cold zone were maintained at 850°C and 150°C respectively. In a single cycle sample remained in each zone for 10 minutes. The samples were tested up to 1000 cycles and the degradation of the material was estimated by measurement of elastic modulus using ultrasonic method (UT 340 pulser receiver system, Canada) as per the ASTM C 1419-99a test procedure. During thermal cycling, defects can be generated either on the surface of the specimen or within the bulk. Surface defects can easily be viewed by various optical techniques. However, to ascertain the presence of defects in the bulk, indirect techniques that provides evidence of the presence of defects. That affect physical properties such as elastic modulus are preferred. There was no change in physical appearance of the sample even after 1000 cycles. Elastic modulus values measured 515 GPa even after 1000 cycles. A small, insignificant variation of 5 GPa in modulus value was observed. This indicates the stability of composite with respect to thermal cycling.

Effect of isothermal oxidation (1123K for 64h) behavior of TiB₂ composites are compared with that of different individual additives such as $MoSi_2[1]$, WSi_2 , $CrSi_2$, $TiSi_2$ and CrB_2 and all the data is summarized in Table.6.7. Weight gain of WSi_2 composite is relatively lower compared with other additives as indicated above. Addition of $MoSi_2$ have been reported to be ineffective due to degradation of oxide layer by the evaporation of $MoO_3[1]$. Formation of a protective SiO_2 / borosilicate glass layer has been observed on the oxide scale, when $TiSi_2$ is added. However, the protective layer was in patches and incomplete. In case of CrB_2 , formation of a continuous and protective layer of $CrBO_3$ has been noticed. Continuous and protective layer of SiO₂ is also observed with 15% CrSi₂ sample. In the case of WSi₂ addition also, formation of a crack free protective and continuous oxide layer was observed in all the dense composites. Formation of SiO₂ and the solubility of SiO₂ in liquid B₂O₃ to form a stable glass could be the reasons for the improved oxidation resistance of CrSi₂ & WSi₂ composites. Effect of isothermal oxidation (1123K for 64h) behavior of TiB₂ composite is with combined addition of MoSi₂ and CrB₂ compared with that of different additives such as MoSi₂[1], WSi₂, CrSi₂, TiSi₂ and CrB₂ (Table.6.7). Weight gain of TiB₂ composite is with combined addition of MoSi₂ and crB₂ to make the top of TiB₂ composite is with combined addition of MoSi₂ and CrB₂ is relatively lower compared with other additives as indicated above.

Effect of isothermal oxidation (1123 K for 64h) behavior of $(TiCr)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ composites are compared with that of composites without pre-alloyed TiB₂+ CrB₂+20% MoSi₂ additive (Table. 6.7, 6.8 and 6.9). Weight gains of pre-alloyed composites are relatively lower compared to the admixed composites without pre-alloying. Pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ composite has better oxidation resistance compared to TiB₂+ CrB₂+20% MoSi₂ composites prepared from mixture of individual components. Reason for improved oxidation resistance in this (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ composite is due to the migration of silicon towards the outer surface, which forms a protective glassy phase, impeding further oxidation.

Overall observations on the effect of sinter additives on the oxidation resistance are summarized in Table 6.8 for all the composites. The order therefore is (from least resistant to most resistant): $TiB_2 + TiSi_2 < TiB_2 + CrB_2 < TiB_2 + CrSi_2 < TiB_2 + WSi_2 < TiB_2 + CrB_2 + MoSi_2 < (TiCr)B_2 + MoSi_2$.

Sample	% additive	Sp.wt. gain, $kg/m^2 \ge 10^3$	$Kp^{*}(kg^{2}m^{-4}s^{-1})$	Km ^{\$}	m [#]
At 1023K (750°C)					
$TiB_2 + x\%CrSi_2$	5	8.82	4.45×10^{-10}	3.11×10^{-12}	3.003
	5	4.73	1.25×10^{-10}	2.69×10^{-12}	2.687
$Ti(x\%Cr)B_2$	10	2.32	2.32×10^{-11}	8.50×10^{-12}	2.156
$(+20\% \text{ MOSI}_2)$	15	3.06	5.26×10^{-11}	3.49×10^{-15}	3.590
	5	14.97	7.73×10^{-10}	1.84 x 10 ⁻⁹	1.812
$TiB_2 + x\%CrB_2$ (+20% MoSi2)	10	4.26	9.13×10^{-11}	1.47×10^{-15}	3.906
$(+20\% \text{ WOSI}_2)$	15	2.06	1.86 x 10 ⁻¹¹	1.67×10^{-10}	1.661
		At 11	23K (850°C)	·	•
	2.5	59.83	1.37×10^{-7}	2.28×10^{-7}	1.789
$TiB_2 + x\%TiSi_2$	5	12.95	6.11×10^{-8}	-	1.990
	10	4.84	1.25×10^{-8}	-	2.012
	2.5	150.19	8.94×10^{-8}	6.67 x 10 ⁻⁸	2.129
	5	122.63	6.91 x 10 ⁻⁸	7.05×10^{-8}	1.992
$11B_2 + X\% CrS1_2$	10	112.69	6.73×10^{-8}	1.17×10^{-8}	2.716
	15	58.48	1.91×10^{-8}	0.37×10^{-8}	2.540
	2.5	105.25	4.05×10^{-8}	5.26×10^{-8}	1.901
$TiB_2 + x\%CrB_2$	5	158.86	9.43×10^{-8}	11.60×10^{-8}	1.908
2 2	10	155.84	13.08×10^{-8}	5.01 x10^{-8}	2.456
$\frac{\text{Ti}(x\%\text{Cr})\text{B}_2}{(+20\%\text{ MoSi}_2)}$	5	34.62	5.24×10^{-9}	1.55×10^{-9}	2.327
	10	26.07	3.72×10^{-9}	3.57×10^{-10}	2.602
(+20/0 100012)	15	8.17	1.75×10^{-9}	6.80×10^{-14}	4.359
	5	46.94	$1.06 \ge 10^{-8}$	2.80×10^{-9}	2.396
$TiB_2 + x\%CrB_2$ (+20% MoSia)	10	56.03	$1.84 \ge 10^{-8}$	5.23×10^{-11}	3.876
(+20/0 100012)	15	27.02	4.91×10^{-9}	1.73×10^{-11}	3.495
	2.5	129.72	14.22×10^{-8}	255.2 x 10 ⁻⁸	<1.0
	5	46.76	0.55×10^{-8}	19.93 x 10 ⁻⁸	1.500
$TiB_2 + x\%WSi_2$	5(80%TD)	393.05	74.21 x 10 ⁻⁸	29.40 x 10 ⁻⁸	<1.0
	10	62.76	1.62×10^{-8}	2.51×10^{-8}	1.860
	15	38.10	0.63×10^{-8}	0.22×10^{-8}	2.297
TiB ₂	0%	305238.6	6.0×10^{-8}	-	-
At 1223K (950°C)					
$TiB_2 + x\%CrSi_2$	5	103.50	6.18×10^{-8}	1.47×10^{-9}	3.489
	5	57.32	1.46×10^{-8}	2.69×10^{-8}	1.807
$Ti(x\%Cr)B_2$ (+20% MoSi ₂)	10	39.58	9.96x10 ⁻⁹	8.01×10^{-11}	3.410
(12070 100012)	15	4.58	2.14×10^{-10}	2.43×10^{-31}	10.953
	5	14.14	1.26×10^{-9}	2.43×10^{-14}	4.422
$T_1B_2 + x\%CrB_2$ (+20% MoSi ₂)	10	24.10	3.50×10^{-9}	4.71×10^{-14}	4.821
(12070 100012)	15	88.76	6.63×10^{-8}	8.49×10^{-14}	7.403

Table 6.7 Specific weight gain and rate constants after 64h of oxidation

(* K_p – Parabolic rate constant, * K_m – Rate constant of general rate equation, #m- Slope of general rate equation)
Composite	Surface oxides	Surface	General remarks	Technological
		morphology	/observations	nature
$TiB_2 + TiSi_2$	SiO_2 , TiO_2	Continuous and	Nature of oxidation	Better than
		crack free glassy	is near parabolic	monolithic
		layer		TiB_2
$TiB_2 + CrSi_2$	Cr_2O_3 , SiO_2 ,	Continuous and	Complete parabolic	Protective
	TiO ₂	glassy layer	nature of oxidation	
$TiB_2 + WSi_2$	SiO_2 , TiO_2	Crack free,	Complete parabolic	Protective
		continuous and	nature of oxidation	
		glassy layer		
$TiB_2 + CrB_2$	CrBO ₃ , TiO ₂	Continuous and	Parabolic nature of	Protective
		thick glassy film	oxidation	
$TiB_2 + CrB_2 +$	Cr_2O_3 , SiO_2 ,	Continuous and	Cubic nature of	Protective
MoSi ₂	TiO ₂	thick glassy phase	oxidation	
$(TiCr)B_2 +$	Cr_2O_3 , SiO_2 ,	Continuous, crack	Best oxidation	Excellent
MoSi ₂	TiO_2 , B_2 - SiO_5	free and thick	resistant composite	Protective
		glassy phase	among all these	
			composites.	

Table 6.8 Summary of oxidation results of the presently studied composites

6.4 Discussion on results of oxidation studies

In this section, the experimental results are analyzed for elucidating a) thermodynamic feasibility of various oxidation reactions b) influence of sinter additives and their quantity on oxidation kinetics, and c) analysis of oxide scale and identification of probable mechanism.

The oxidation mechanism of TiB_2 depends on the temperature, partial pressure of oxygen, duration of exposure, porosity and composition, i.e. quantity of sinter additives. Six different TiB_2 based composites were prepared and subjected to oxidation studies. The objective was to study the effect of sinter additives and their quantities on the oxidation mechanism. All the composites contained either Si and/or Cr as a component. Cr and Si form stable oxides under oxidation conditions at elevated temperatures.

The kinetics of oxidation has been analyzed starting from weight gain per unit surface area (Δ W/S) as a function of time (t) and fitting the data into equations (6.1) and (6.2). Table 6.7 records the oxidation exponent of all the TiB₂ composites. A value of m = 1 or 2 or 3 indicates operation of a linear or parabolic or cubic law, respectively. Values of m = 1.5 or 2.5 indicates the mixed kinetics.

When TiB_2 is exposed to air at elevated temperatures, the following reactions occur:

$$TiB_2(s) + 5/2 O_2(air) \rightarrow TiO_2(s) + B_2O_3(l)$$

(6.39)

Above 1273K:
$$B_2O_3$$
 (l) $\rightarrow B_2O_3$ (g) (6.40)

When the oxidation temperature is increased to 1073K (800°C) the oxide scale on TiB₂ consists of both TiO₂ and B₂O₃ phases [8]. The diffusion coefficients of oxygen in B₂O₃ and SiO₂ are about 10⁻¹¹ and 10⁻¹³ m²/s respectively at 1173K (900°C) [9,10,30]. Whereas, the oxygen diffusivities are much lower for TiO₂ and Cr₂O₃, 10⁻¹⁸ and 10⁻¹⁹ m²/s respectively at 1273K (1000°C) [9,10,31,32]. In the present study composites, consisting of Ti, Cr, B, Mo, Si and B constituents. From the Ellingham diagram, the stabilities of these oxides are seen in the following order: MoO₃<Cr₂O₃<B₂O₃<SiO₂<TiO₂ [33]. TiO₂ is most stable and forms readily. Hence, at or above 1273K (1000°C) the protective role of TiO₂ increases with increasing temperature, by the formation of rutile scale layer on the samples. At high temperatures (1273-1473K), B₂O₃ evaporates due to its high volatility and is not detected in the oxide scale [30].

The oxidation of TiB_2 composites can be minimized either by providing resistance to the diffusion of oxygen ion into the material or to the diffusion of the base ceramic forming element ions through the oxide to the oxide-air interface. Mitra [34] reported that both SiO₂ and Al₂O₃ can form protective scales on surface and also exhibit low parabolic rate constants for the growth

of respective oxides, because of their high thermodynamic stability and low diffusivity for both cations and anions. In case of the oxidation resistant silicides, the amorphous SiO₂ scale is more protective than the crystalline SiO₂, because of the possible grain boundary diffusion in the latter (crystalline phase). In the present case, weight gain of the samples, oxide layer thickness and parabolic rate constant values, all decrease with an increase in the amount of sinter-additive (Table 6.7). Also, there is a decrease in oxidation rate of $(TiCr)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$. This is attributed to the formation of protective, thin, SiO₂ layer of thickness <10 µm, which acts as a barrier for the diffusion of oxygen ions (Fig. 6.49). It is interesting to note that with increasing sinter additive content from 2.5 to 5 or 10%, nature of oxidation changes from linear to parabolic or cubic in the present study. Similar observations were also noted for specific weight gain change and parabolic rate constants. SEM images of oxidized surfaces provide confirmation of the above cited observations. From the present study, it can therefore be inferred that at least 5 wt% sinter additive is needed to a form protective SiO₂ and/or a borosilicate glass and/or a CrBO₃ layer for improving the oxidation resistance of TiB₂.

Present studies on oxidation were carried out below 1273K (1000°C), where liquid B₂O₃ forms that fills all pores/cracks in the oxide scale and provides resistance to further diffusion of oxygen ions. Surface cracks of the oxidized samples are expected in TiB₂ due to volumetric expansion during formation of TiO₂. In general, sinter additives for borides are essential in order to modify chemical composition of the oxide layer and to decrease the inward diffusion of oxygen ions through this oxide layer at high temperatures. In the composites presently chosen, as boron and silicon atoms being small in size, diffuse out and get oxidized readily. B₂O₃ is liquid at the oxidation temperature of ≤ 1273 K ($\leq 1000^{\circ}$ C). Both SiO₂ and TiO₂ are soluble in molten B₂O₃[20,21]. In fact, (melting temp of B₂O₃= 800K) eutectic reaction of SiO₂ with B₂O₃ is seen

at 724K (451°C) at 5% SiO₂. Hence, formation of B_2O_3 and SiO₂ glass forms and spreads all over the surface and acts as a barrier for diffusion of oxygen ions. Composites that contain Cr based additive in addition to Si, will also form a Cr₂O₃ layer below the top layer of B_2O_3 and SiO₂ (seen in Fig. 6.43 & 6.49). As the outer layers of B_2O_3 and SiO₂ allow only limited oxygen diffusion, it will lead to formation of a more stable Cr₂O₃ layer. (Cr₂O₃ stability will be enhanced in the absence or limited supply of oxygen). The diffusion coefficients of oxygen in B_2O_3 and SiO₂ are about 10⁻¹¹ and 10⁻¹³ m²/s respectively at 1173K (900°C) [30,31]. Based on the above observations, improved oxidation resistance is expected in the composites with additives containing both Cr and Si. The oxidation mechanisms involved in the formation of a composite with each specific additive are described in the following sections:

6.4.1 Effect of TiSi₂ addition on oxidation behavior of TiB₂

The values of the exponent 'm' in the general rate equation (equation- 6.1) obtained were in the range of 1.7 and 2.0. Although strict parabolic behavior was not observed here (except $TiB_2+15\%TiSi_2$ composite), the rate constants are in the range of 10^{-7} to 10^{-8} Kg²m⁻⁴s⁻¹. The observed parabolic kinetics indicate a diffusion controlled reaction in the composite. The value of K_p showed a decrease with the increase in amount of sinter additive (TiSi₂) to TiB₂. This could be due to the availability of more amount of Si. Figure 6.6 shows the variation of rate of change of weight gain per unit surface area with time for oxidation at 1123 K (850° C).

XRD patterns of the all the oxidized surfaces show the presence of TiO_2 and SiO_2 . Scanning electron micrographs show that the oxidized surfaces appear to be continuous and crack free with stable SiO_2 layer and spherical crystalline TiO_2 .

The oxidation behavior of the presently investigated composite will now be discussed in reference to literature results. Pugach et al. [2] have reported the presence of TiO_2 , SiO_2 and

 B_2O_3 on the surface of oxidized $TiB_2 + 20 \% TiSi_2$ in the range of 1273-1473 K (1000- 1200° C). Raju et al.[42] have reported the low oxidation kinetics of $TiB_2+10\% TiSi_2$ composites has been attributed to the presence of protective SiO_2 and borosilicate glass layer formation, which acts as a barrier for the diffusion of oxygen ions.

In the present study, isothermal oxidation was carried out at 1123K (850°C). According to literature, B₂O₃ should exist on the oxidized surface of the present composites. However, that B₂O₃ was not detected by XRD indicates that B₂O₃ could either be present in amorphous form or in low quantity. Thermodynamic calculations (equation- 6.4) indicate that TiSi₂ is more readily oxidized due to more negative free energy change for oxidation as compared to that for TiB₂ and Ti₅Si₃ (Ti₅Si₃ is a reaction product formed during densification of TiB₂ + TiSi₂ composite). Formation of SiO₂ layer on the oxidized surface of TiB₂+TiSi₂ appears to be responsible for the parabolic nature and improved oxidation resistance, as diffusivity coefficient of oxygen ion in SiO₂ (10⁻¹³ m²/s) is two orders less than that in B₂O₃ (10⁻¹¹ m²/s) at 1173K (900°C) [30,31]. This inference is further confirmed as the rate of oxidation decreased with the increase of sinter additive (TiSi₂). Composites having \geq 5% TiSi₂, showed higher resistance to oxidation due to the formation of a uniform layer providing an effective barrier for oxygen ion diffusion.

6.4.2 Role of CrSi₂ addition on oxidation behavior of TiB₂

The weight gain data obtained during isothermal oxidation at 1123K (850° C) as a function of time for 2.5%, 5%, 10% and 15% CrSi₂ composites are presented in Fig.6.10. Continuous weight gain with time is observed in all the samples. With increasing CrSi₂ content, rate of weight gain decreased. The nature of oxidation appears to be parabolic (m=1.99 to 2.71) for all the composites. Parabolic rate constants of all three composites (2.5, 5 and 10%) are in the

same order (6 to 9 x 10^{-8} kg²m⁻⁴s⁻¹) indicating the mechanism of oxidation to be diffusion controlled reaction. TiO₂ and Cr₂O₃ phases were identified in all the composites. In addition, SiO₂ peaks were observed in 15% CrSi₂ composite. Various possible oxidation reactions of TiB₂ and CrSi₂ are presented in equations 6.7 to 6.10. From the data all reactions are thermodynamically feasible and oxidation of TiB₂ is more favorable as compared to CrSi₂. XRD results indicate the formation of Cr₂O₃. SEM images of oxidized surfaces of all the samples appear to be crack free. With increasing CrSi₂ content, protective and continuous oxide layer was seen. The value of parabolic rate constant is found to decrease with increase of CrSi₂ content and Cr₂O₃ and SiO₂ formation on the oxidized surfaces; indicating the effectiveness of CrSi₂ addition in improving the oxidation resistance.

During oxidation of the composite, B_2O_3 is formed first and increases in thickness due to the high mobility of small sized boron atom and this liquid layer of B_2O_3 controls further oxidation [10,11]. As oxygen ions need to diffuse through this liquid layer, rate of oxidation decreases further. With limited oxygen supply, the lower oxide of chromium namely Cr_2O_3 is favored as compared to CrO_2 or CrO_3 . Among the three probable oxides of Cr namely Cr_2O_3 , CrO_2 and CrO_3 , the lower oxide Cr_2O_3 is more stable and favorable.

Few bunches of TiO₂ crystals were seen as elongated and acicular shape on the oxidized surfaces. Appearances of crystals with similar morphology have been reported by Koh et al. [7] and Tampieri & Bellosi [8]. The latter have also reported the formation of a continuous needle like TiO₂ oxide scale at temperatures above 1173K (900°C). In 10% CrSi₂ composite, more area of the surface is covered by the glassy phase and the needle like structure (TiO₂) has disappeared (Fig.6.18 c). The surface is fully covered by glassy layer in 15% CrSi₂ composite (Fig.6.18 d).

Formation of a protective glassy phase is composed of SiO_2 owing to higher $CrSi_2$ and thereby Si content.

Dasgupta et al [14] have reported good oxidation resistance of $CrSi_2$ powder up to 873K (600°C) in air. Ma et al. [15] have found that oxidation of $CrSi_2$ starts at 1089K (816°C) and a weight gain of about 8.6wt% of the sample only on oxidation up to 1273K (1000°C), due to a protective oxide layer consisting of crystalline Cr_2O_3 and amorphous SiO₂ formation on the surface. Gang et al. [16] observed the formation of Cr_2O_3 and SiO₂ phases on oxidation of $CrSi_2$ at 1773K (1500°C) for 34h in air. Cr_2O_3 is nonvolatile, insoluble in SiO₂ and helps to form a protective layer on the surface [9]. Naoyuki et al. [18] have reported excellent oxidation resistance of $CrSi_2$ upto 1373K (1100°C) due to the formation of a thin and dense SiO₂ layer. Both SiO₂ and TiO₂ are soluble in molten B₂O₃ [20,21]. In fact eutectic reaction of SiO₂ with B₂O₃ is seen at 724K (451°C) at 5% SiO₂ composition.

Parabolic nature of oxidation was observed and with increasing $CrSi_2$ content a decrease in rate of weight gain was observed. This composite was found to possess superior oxidation resistance as compared to other TiB_2 composites with $MoSi_2$ [1] and $TiSi_2$. Increased duration of exposure (up to 64h), higher temperature of oxidation (up to 1273K) and higher content of $CrSi_2$ (up to 15wt%) influence the formation of a continuous and protective glassy layer on the surface. The top layer of the oxidized surface contains B_2O_3 and SiO_2 in liquid or glassy form due to the small radius of B and Si atoms resulting in higher diffusivity. Below this layer Cr_2O_3 is stable due to the presence of only limited oxygen and acts as a further barrier. Although some amount of oxygen ions may diffuses through B_2O_3 (10^{-11} m²/s at 1173K) and SiO₂ (10^{-13} m²/s at 1173K) layers, further diffusion across the Cr_2O_3 layer is very difficult due to the low diffusivity coefficient (10^{-19} m²/s at 1273K) of oxygen in Cr_2O_3 [30-32].

6.4.3 Influence of WSi₂ addition on oxidation behavior of TiB₂

Continuous weight gain with time is observed in all the samples containing WSi₂. With increasing WSi₂ content, decrease in weight gain rate is seen. The nature of oxidation appears to be linear and para-linear (in between parabolic and linear) for 2.5% (m<1.0) and 5% (m=1.5) composites respectively, close to parabolic (m=1.86) and complete parabolic for 10% and 15% (m=2.297) composites respectively. Parabolic rate constants (Table 6.3) of all three composites (5, 10 and 15%) are in the same order (0.55 to 1.62 x 10^{-8} kg² m⁻⁴ s⁻¹) indicating the mechanism of oxidation to be diffusion controlled. TiO₂ and SiO₂ phases have been identified in all the composites. Number of SiO₂ peaks and their intensities increase with the increase in WSi₂ addition.

Various possible oxidation reactions of TiB₂, WSi₂ and W₅Si₃ were calculated (equations 6.11 to 6.25). W₅Si₃ appears to be a reaction product of TiB₂+WSi₂ composite during densification. It is evident that all the reactions are thermodynamically feasible. From the data, oxidation of TiB₂ (reactions -6.11 &6.12) and WSi₂ (reaction-6.16) appear to be more favorable compared to the oxidation of W₅Si₃. The formation of solid/glassy phases (TiO₂(s), B₂O₃(glass), B₂O₃(s), WO₃(s), WO₂(s)) has been confirmed by the weight gain data of the samples during oxidation.

The surface of sample with 2.5% WSi₂ (Fig. 6.25) appears to be crack free with continuous oxide layer. SEM images of 5% WSi₂ oxidized sample also show it to be crack free with a number of cuboid shaped particles, which were confirmed to be TiO_2 by EDS. Appearance of highly textured crystals with similar morphology have been reported by Koh et al. [7] and Tampieri & Bellosi [8]. The surfaces of composites containing 10 & 15% WSi₂ appear similar to that of 2.5% sample but with higher amount of glassy phase. With the increased addition of WSi₂, quantity of SiO₂ glass formed would be higher during oxidation, which explains the absence of TiO₂ cuboids. As both boron and silicon atoms are smaller in size, outward diffusion of either atom is easier [10,11].

SiO₂ and WO₃ have been reported on the surfaces of WSi₂ oxidized at 1373 K (1100 $^{\circ}$ C) and only SiO₂ at 1573 K (1300 $^{\circ}$ C) [22]. A similar observation has been made for oxidation of WSi₂ films, where the formation of SiO₂ and WO₃ were reported [23].

Microscopic observation of the 10% WSi_2 oxidized surface presented a crack free continuous and protective glassy layer on the surface. In the present composite diffusion of oxygen ions takes place through B_2O_3 liquid layer and subsequently through SiO_2 glassy phase, which is the rate controlling step.

As WSi_2 and $CrSi_2$ are the two additives which form a stable protective oxide layer on TiB_2 , the comparisons between these two additives are brought out below. Origin of the TiB_2 powder, processing and oxidation conditions of both the composites were same. Parabolic rate constants obtained were lower in case of composite with WSi_2 (except 2.5%) compared to that of $CrSi_2$ on isothermal oxidation at 1123K (850°C) for 64h in air (see in Table 6.7 & 6.8).

6.4.4 CrB₂ role in the oxidation behavior of TiB₂ composites

Continuous weight gain with time is observed in all the samples. With increasing CrB₂ content, increase in the weight gain also is recorded. The nature of oxidation is near parabolic (m=1.901) for 2.5% and (m=1.908) 5% CrB₂ samples, with complete parabolic nature (m= 2.5) for TiB₂+10%CrB₂ composite. Parabolic rate constants of all three composites are in the same order (4-13 x 10^{-8} Kg²m⁻⁴ s⁻¹) indicating the mechanism of oxidation to be diffusion controlled process. TiO₂ and CrBO₃ peaks are identified on the oxidized surface. Though B₂O₃ starts evaporating above 1273 K (1000° C), CrBO₃ is stable up to 1473 K (1200° C) and at higher temperatures decomposes in the presence of oxygen to Cr₂O₃ and B₂O₃ [27].

Standard free energy of formation for the possible oxidation reactions are calculated (equations from 6.26 to 6.30). From the thermodynamic data, all reactions appear to be thermodynamically possible. Oxidation of CrB_2 is more favorable as compared to TiB_2 as seen from the Fig.6.36. This could be the reason for the higher weight gain of the samples on oxidation with increased CrB_2 content. Reaction 6.26, 6.27 and 6.30 results in weight gain whereas reactions 6.28 and 6.29 result in weight loss due to the gaseous nature of CrO_2 and CrO_3 at 1123K (850°C). The overall weight gain observed during oxidation studies point to the fact that reactions leading to formation of non-volatile oxide species are predominant.

SEM images of the surface after oxidation at 1123K (850° C) indicate that the oxide layer is crack free in all the composites. With increasing CrB₂ content, one can see higher flow of liquid phase and disappearance of individual particles (Fig.6.35b). With 10% CrB₂, a continuous protective layer is seen to have formed on the surface (Fig.6.35c). As the formation of Cr₂O₃ increases with increased CrB₂ content in the composite, a thick protective layer of CrBO₃ is formed. Increase in CrB₂ content in the sample also increases B₂O₃, a glassy phase, indicated by the absence of clear/definite peaks (Fig.6.34). Okada *et al.*[24] have studied the oxidation behavior of CrB_2 single crystal and reported that, oxidation begins at 997K (740°C) resulting in the formation of Cr_2O_3 and $CrBO_3$ phases. Emiliani [25] have reported that oxidation of hot pressed CrB_2 at 1373K (1100°C), a massive chromium borate ($CrBO_3$) scale gets formed which results in weight gain. Tombs *et al.* [26] have identified the formation of a stable compound $CrBO_3$, by reaction of Cr_2O_3 and B_2O_3 in a melt containing excess B_2O_3 . Samsanov *et al.* [27] have reported the formation of a tenacious oxide film consisting of B_2O_3 and $CrBO_3$ on oxidation of CrB_2 at 1173-1273K (900-1000°C). TiO₂ is an n-type oxide, which exhibits both titanium interstitial ions and oxygen vacancies. Due to such defect structure, TiO₂ is prone to oxidation by diffusion of both cations as well as anions [35].

The nature of oxidation of the present composite appears to be parabolic at 1123K (850° C). Protective oxide layer CrBO₃ was identified on the surface of the oxidized samples. Formation of a protective, continuous and thick glassy film was observed with increased CrB₂ content (up to 15 wt%) in the composite. CrBO₃ is more stable compound compared with B₂O₃ [27]. Rate controlling step in this composite is diffusion of oxygen thorough CrBO₃ layer.

It is worthwhile here to compare the oxidation behavior of TiB_2+CrB_2 composites with that of TiB_2+CrSi_2 composites (Table 6.7 & 6.8). Parabolic rate constants obtained were lower in case of composite with $CrSi_2$ compared to that of CrB_2 on isothermal oxidation at 1123K (850°C) for 64h in air (Table 6.7). Specific weight gain vs. time of $TiB_2 + 5\% CrB_2$ and $TiB_2 + 5\% CrSi_2$ are compared in Fig.6.1. Oxidation of $CrSi_2$ starts at 873K (600°C) where as that of CrB_2 composite at a lower temperature of 733K (460°C). Specific weight gain of $TiB_2 + 5\%$ $CrSi_2$ composite at all temperatures is lower than that of TiB_2+CrB_2 composite. Total weight gain of the composite with $CrSi_2$ is much lower at 19.28 x 10⁻³ compared to that of with CrB_2 which was high at 54.83 x 10⁻³ kg/m². Hence, it can be concluded that TiB_2 composite with $CrSi_2$ is a more oxidation resistant material than that with CrB_2 . Silicon based additives to transition metal borides, improve oxidation protection due to the formation/stability of the outer layer of borosilicate glass that acts as a barrier to diffusion of oxygen to the substrate [17].

6.4.5 Effect of combined addition of CrB₂ and MoSi₂

Continuous weight gain with time is observed in all the samples. With increasing CrB_2 content, decrease in weight gain rate is seen. Comparing the weight gain between 1023 and 1123K (750 and 850°C), it is noticed that weight gain increases with temperatures for all the composites. The nature of oxidation appears to be near parabolic (m=1.6 to 2.0) at 1023K (750°C) for all the composites, which alters to cubic (m>3) at 1123K (850°C). Parabolic rate constant of 5, 10 and 15% CrB_2 composites are measured as 7.73, 0.91, 0.19 x 10⁻¹⁰ kgm⁻⁴s⁻¹ respectively at 1023K (750°C). Two orders higher parabolic rate constants are measured for the same composites at 1123K (850°C) in the range of 0.5 to 1.8 x 10⁻⁸ kgm⁻⁴s⁻¹. The above parabolic rate constant values at 1023 and 1123K (750 and 850°C) indicate that mechanism of oxidation to be diffusion controlled. The value of parabolic rate constant is found to decrease with increase of CrB₂ content from 5 to 15%, indicating the effectiveness of CrB₂ addition in improving the oxidation resistance.

Specific weight gain of TiB₂ composites with only CrB_2 addition was higher at all time intervals compared with TiB₂+20%MoSi₂+x%CrB₂ (x=5,10,15) samples. TiB₂ composites with only 20%MoSi₂ addition have also been reported to record very high weight gain which is about 3 orders of magnitude higher (34790 x10⁻³ kg/m²) [1] as compared to the composite containing both the CrB₂ and MoSi₂. From the above, it is seen that a composite with combined additions of 6.73 CrB_2 and $MoSi_2$ has low specific weight gain during oxidation compared to TiB_2 composites that were formed with additions of either CrB_2 or with $MoSi_2$ alone. Lower order parabolic rate constant value was also observed in TiB_2 composite containing both $MoSi_2$ and 15% CrB_2 (Table 6.5) as compared to the composite containing either CrB_2 or $MoSi_2$ alone during oxidation at 1123K (850°C).

TiO₂, Cr₂O₃ and SiO₂ phases were identified in all the composites. XPS analysis of oxidized surfaces shows the presence of MoO₃ and B₂O₃ phases in addition to TiO₂, Cr₂O₃ and SiO₂. Oxidation of TiB₂+MoSi₂+CrB₂ composite is represented by the possible overall reactions (equations 6.31 to 6.38). It is evident that reactions (6.31)-(6.37) are thermodynamically feasible. Oxidation of CrB₂ (reaction 6.34) is more favorable compared to TiB₂ and MoSi₂. However, the reactions for the formation of B₂O₃ (glass), Cr₂O₃(s), MoO₃(s) have more negative free energy change compared to reactions leading to gaseous product phases. Formation of the solid/glass phases as indicated above were confirmed by the weight gain data, XRD and SEM-EDS analysis of the samples during oxidation.

At 1123K (850°C), the oxidized surface of 5% CrB_2 composite shows the formation of glassy phase partially covering the surface (Fig. 6.42a). At 1223K (950°C) the glassy layer completely covered the surface (Fig. 6.42b). Though the weight gain data shows that evaporation is more at higher temperature for this composite, the higher temperature has also helped in the formation of liquid glassy phase. With 10% CrB_2 composite globules of oxidized particles are seen covered with the glassy layer (Fig. 6.42c) at 1123K (850°C). At the higher temperature, the glassy layer appears to be discontinuous by the evaporating species (Fig. 6.42d) and the oxide crystals appear to be bigger in size. This is in conformity with the results of weight gain data on

oxidation. With further increase in CrB₂ (15%) the oxidized surface appears to be crack free, continuous and with cuboids shaped crystalline particles after oxidation at 1123K (850°C) (Fig 6.42e). After oxidation at 1223K (950°C) the surface of the same composite appears fully covered with a wavy pattern (uneven surface) (Fig. 6.42f). This feature goes well with the weight gain pattern shown by this composite at 1223K (950°C) with lower evaporation and higher weight gain.

To understand the role of various elements during oxidation of TiB₂ composites extended 1123K (850°C) for 256h. Cross oxidation carried out at section of was the TiB₂+15%CrB₂+20%MoSi₂ oxidized surface after 256h was characterized by SEM-EDS (Fig.6.43). The thickness of the oxide layer is $\sim 100 \ \mu m$. Outer most layer of oxidized surface is seen to be composed of boron oxide. Boron content decreases drastically up to 20 µm and then gradually increases up to 100 µm from the top layer of the oxidized surface. Beyond 100 µm, the boron content is uniform. This clearly indicates that the outward diffusion of boron across the oxide layer is taking place. The next inner layer is seen to be composed of silicon oxide. Silicon content is seen to increase from 5 to 60 µm from the outer layer, indicating thereby the outward diffusion to be dominant. Qualitative analysis of this oxide layer shows that boron migrates towards the surface layer and is seen evaporating. Silicon combined with oxygen forms the barrier layer for further oxidation. Both SiO_2 and TiO_2 are soluble in molten $B_2O_3[20,21]$. Crystalline B₂O₃ and TiO₂ were found on the oxidized surfaces of TiB₂ at 973 and 1073K (700 and 800°C) [8]. The large volume expansion that occurs during the oxidation of TiB_2 to TiO_2 causes cracking of the oxide layer, resulting in an increase in the active area for further oxidation [12,13]. CrBO₃ phase has been identified on oxidation of CrB_2 [24,25,27]. This particular compound was not identified on the oxidized surface of the TiB_2 + 20% $MoSi_2$ + x% CrB_2 (x=5,10,15) composites. It is well-established that the excellent oxidation resistance of MoSi₂ at high temperatures is attributed to the formation of a self-healing, glassy silica (SiO₂) layer. But during low temperature (673-873 K) oxidation, it exhibits pesting behavior. Pesting indicates disintegration of the material (the disintegrated MoSi₂ results in powdery products) [1].

The nature of oxidation of the TiB₂+15%CrB₂+20%MoSi₂ composite was observed to be parabolic at 750 and cubic at 850°C. Protective oxide layers of B₂O₃ and SiO₂ were identified on the surface of the oxidized samples. Formation of a continuous and protective thick glassy phase was observed with increased CrB₂ (up to 15%) content in the composite. This composite is found to be a more oxidation resistant material compared to the composite containing either CrB₂ or MoSi₂ only. Boron and silicon diffuse towards the surface during the oxidation was mainly observed. Due to limited oxygen supply from top layers of B₂O₃ and SiO₂, forms a sable Cr₂O₃ as third layer, which acts as a diffusion barrier for further diffusion of oxygen ions (Fig. 6.43).

6.4.6 Oxidation studies of (TiCr)B₂ +20%MoSi₂ composites

This section deals with oxidation behavior of composites consisting of $(TiCr)B_2$ and 20%MoSi₂. The study deals with effect of varying the CrB₂ content from 5, 10 and 15 wt% in the TiB₂ composite while the MoSi₂ content is constant at 20%. The pre-alloyed $(TiCr)B_2$ with varying CrB₂ Content is consolidated in the presence of MoSi₂. The nature of oxidation appears to be complete parabolic (m=2.1 to 2.6) for $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2$ and $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composites and cubic (m≥3) for $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composite at 1023K (750°C). Parabolic rate constant of $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2$, $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2$ and $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composites are measured as 1.25, 0.23, 0.53 x 10⁻¹⁰ kg m⁻⁴ s⁻¹ respectively at 1023K (750°C). One

order higher parabolic rate constants are measured for the same composites at 1123K (850°C) in the range of 3 to 5 x 10^{-9} kg m⁻⁴ s⁻¹. The above parabolic rate constant values at 1023 and 1123K (750 and 850°C) indicate that mechanism of oxidation to be diffusion controlled. The value of parabolic rate constant is found to decrease with increase of CrB₂ content from 5 to 15%, indicating the effectiveness of CrB₂ addition in improving the oxidation resistance. Specific weight gain in the case of TiB₂+CrB₂+20%MoSi₂ composites was higher at all time intervals compared with the pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂ +20%MoSi₂ samples. From the above, it can be inferred that the composite with pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂ with addition of 20%MoSi₂ has low specific weight gain during oxidation compared to TiB₂ composites that were formed without pre-alloyed (TiB₂ + CrB₂). This could probably be due to the more uniform distribution at the atomic level of Cr in the (TiCr)B₂ composite.

TiO₂, Cr₂O₃ and SiO₂ phases were identified in all the composites after oxidation at 1023 and 1123K (750 and 850°C). In addition, B_2SiO_5 (solid solution of B_2O_3 and SiO_2) phase was also observed when oxidized at 950°C. This clearly inferred the formation of a borosilicate consisting of both B_2O_3 and SiO_2 during oxidation of these composites. In case of MoSi₂-30 vol% TiB₂ composite, the oxide scale reportedly consisted of TiO₂ and glassy SiO₂ after the oxidation at 1473K (1200°C) for 24h [36].

SEM image at 1023K (750°C) indicating the start of formation of a liquid phase can be seen in sample $(Ti_{0.95}Cr_{0.05})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ (Fig.6.46a). High amount of liquid phase is seen on the surfaces of $(Ti_{0.90}Cr_{0.10})B_2$ and $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composites (Fig. 6.46b & c). To understand the role of various elements during oxidation of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%$ MoSi₂ composite, oxidation for extended duration was carried out at 1123K (850°C) for 256 h. Cross section of the $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ was characterized by SEM-EDS (Fig.6.49). The thickness of the oxide layer is $<10 \ \mu$ m. Entire oxide layer of oxidized surface is seen to be composed of silicon oxide. This layer is dominated by silicon and oxygen, clearly indicating the outward diffusion of silicon ions and form SiO₂.

Oxidation and Cross section results of pre-alloyed $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ composite is compared with the individual addition of TiB₂ and CrB₂ are presented in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9 comparison of oxidation and cross section results of pre-alloyed $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ and $TiB_2+15\%CrB_2+20\%MoSi_2$

Feature/observation/result	$TiB_2 + 15\% CrB_2 + 20\% MoSi_2$	$(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$	
Thickness of the oxide layer	~100 µm	<10 µm	
Diffusion of ions towards the	Boron	Silicon	
outer surface			
Surface oxides	Cr_2O_3 , SiO_2 , TiO_2	Cr_2O_3 , SiO_2 , TiO_2 , B_2 - SiO_5	
Surface morphology	Continuous and thick glassy	Continuous, crack free and	
	phase	thick glassy phase	
Nature of oxidation	Parabolic	Cubic	

The thickness of the oxide layer is ~100 μ m for TiB₂+15%CrB₂+MoSi₂ composite, as compared to less than 10 μ m in the case of (Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B₂+20%MoSi₂. The thickness of the oxide layer is low in the case of pre-alloyed composite of (TiCr)B₂ mainly due to the extremely low outward diffusion of Si ions as also the inward diffusion of oxygen ions appear to be rate controlling. Koh et al.[37] reported the observation of a very thick oxide layer (~170 μ m) on the surface of TiB₂ after the oxidation in air at 1473K (1200°C) for 10h. When TiB₂+2.5 wt% Si₃N₄ specimen is exposed at 1200°C for 2h, a single TiO₂ oxide layer of 100 μ m was noticed [7]. In the present composite thickness of the oxide layer was only <10 μ m, but oxidized at only 1123K (850°C) for a long stretch of 256h.

The nature of oxidation of the composite changed from parabolic to cubic with increase of CrB_2 content from 5 to 15%. Protective oxide layers of TiO_2 , Cr_2O_3 and SiO_2 were identified

on the surface of the oxidized samples at 750 and 850°C. B₂-SiO₅ phase was identified instead of SiO₂ when oxidized at 950°C. Formation of a continuous, crack free and protective thick glassy phase was observed with increased CrB_2 content in the composite. This composite is found to be a more oxidation resistant material compared to the all other composites studied in the present work. Diffusion of boron towards the outer surface was observed in TiB₂+15%CrB₂+MoSi₂ composite, where as diffusion of silicon in case of $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ composite. This could be due to that boron is attached with solid solution of (TiCr)B₂, which is in low energy state compared with TiB₂ and CrB₂. Hence, boron is not readily available to diffuse out and oxidizes. Next smallest available element of silicon diffuses out and readily gets oxidized. SiO_2 glassy layer is more protective compared with B₂O₃ as diffusivity coefficient of oxygen in SiO₂ $(10^{-13} \text{ m}^2/\text{s})$ is two orders less than that of B₂O₃ $(10^{-11} \text{ m}^2/\text{s})$ at 1173K (900°C) [30,31]. Further diffusion of oxygen through thin glassy SiO₂ layer (<10 µm) is not allowed to increase the thickness of the oxide layer. It is evident from the SEM-EDX line scanning of the cross section of the oxidized surface (Fig. 6.49). As Silicon diffuse towards the surface is responsible for better oxidation resistance of (TiCr)B₂ +20% MoSi₂ composite

Usually 15 to 25% of the sinter additive forms good protective silica and/or borosilicate oxide glass layers and provides oxidation resistance [38-40]. For example, the presence of SiC particles improved the oxidation resistance in the HfB₂ +19vol%SiC +5.8vol%Si₃N₄ composite and this is attributed to the formation of a protective borosilicate glassy coating on the exposed surfaces at temperatures of higher than 1400°C [38]. For the pressureless sintered ZrB_2 +20vol% MoSi₂ composite, Sciti et al.[39] mentioned that the silica, resulting from MoSi₂ facilitated the oxidation resistance at 1200°C. These ZrB_2 composites are reported to exhibit good room temperature mechanical properties and also could retain four-point flexural strength of 500 MPa

up to 1773K (1500°C) [40]. Whereas such higher amounts of sintering additives (~ 20% SiC or $MoSi_2$), would impart deleterious effect on the densification and mechanical properties of TiB₂ [41]. It is plausible that the addition of more amounts (> 10 %) of sintering additive may improve the oxidation resistance of TiB₂; however, one has to optimize the sinter additive amount to retain the unique properties of TiB₂.

6.5 Conclusions

Oxidation resistance of $TiB_2 + TiSi_2$ composite is found to be superior to that of TiB_2+MoSi_2 . Addition of $MoSi_2$ have been reported to be ineffective due to degradation of oxide layer by the evaporation of $MoO_3[1]$. The formation of SiO_2 layer in addition to TiO_2 on the surface improves the oxidation resistance of $TiB_2 + TiSi_2$ composite.

Oxidation of TiB₂+CrSi₂ composite starts at 873K (600° C) and a steep increase in the oxidation rate was noted above 1073K (800° C). Parabolic nature of oxidation was observed. With increasing CrSi₂ content rate of weight gain decreased. This composite was found to be a superior oxidation resistant material as compared to other TiB₂ composites with MoSi₂, TiSi₂ and CrB₂. TiO₂ and Cr₂O₃ were observed on the oxidized surface. When the oxidation temperature was high at 1273K (1000°C) or CrSi₂ content high at 15%, formation of SiO₂ was also observed in addition to the above two oxides. Microscopic observation of the oxidized surface presented a crack free oxide layer and the formation of glassy phase. Increased duration of exposure, higher temperature of oxidation and higher content of CrSi₂ influence the formation of a continuous glassy layer on the surface, which is protective.

Parabolic oxidation was observed and with increasing WSi_2 content rate of weight gain decreased. This composite exhibits superior oxidation resistance as compared to other TiB_2 composites with $MoSi_2$, $TiSi_2$, CrB_2 and $CrSi_2$. Microscopic observation of the 10% WSi_2 oxidized surface presented a crack free continuous glassy layer on the surface. The nature of oxidation of the composite was observed to be parabolic at 1023K (850°C).

Protective oxide layers of TiO_2 and $CrBO_3$ were identified on the surface of the oxidized TiB_2+CrB_2 samples. Formation of liquid phase ($CrBO_3$) was noticed at 1073K ($800^{\circ}C$) and glassy liquid patches at 1273K ($1000^{\circ}C$). Formation of a protective, continuous and thick glassy film was observed with increased CrB_2 content in the composite.

The nature of oxidation of $TiB_2 + MoSi_2 + CrB_2$ composite was observed to be parabolic at 1023K (750°C) and cubic at 1123K (850°C). Protective oxide layers of TiO_2 , Cr_2O_3 and SiO_2 were identified on the surface of the oxidized samples of $TiB_2 + MoSi_2 + CrB_2$ composite. Formation of a continuous and protective thick glassy phase was observed with increased CrB_2 content in the composite. This composite is found to be a more oxidation resistant material compared to the composite containing either CrB_2 or $MoSi_2$ only. Boron and silicon diffuse towards the surface during the high temperature oxidation of $TiB_2 +$ $MoSi_2 + CrB_2$ composite.

Weight gain due to oxidation of pre alloyed $(TiCr)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ composites is relatively lower compared with all composites. Protective oxide layers of TiO₂, Cr₂O₃ and SiO₂ were identified on the surface of the oxidized samples at 1023 and 1123K (750 and 850°C). B₂-SiO₅ phase was identified instead of SiO₂ when oxidized at 1223K (950°C). Formation of a continuous, crack free and protective thick glassy phase was observed with increased CrB_2 content in the Ti(Cr)B_2+20% MoSi₂ composite. This composite is found to be a more oxidation resistant compared to the composite without pre-alloyed TiB₂+ CrB₂+20% MoSi₂. Silicon is seen to diffuse towards the outer surface during the high temperature oxidation.

6.6 References

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CHAPTER 7

CHAPTER-7

SUMMARY AND SCOPE FOR FUTURE WORK

7.1 Summary of the present work

Syntheses of single-phase refractory metal borides from elemental constituents are expensive. CVD techniques are complex, generally used for coatings and not for commercial production of powders. Borothermic reduction involves loss of expensive boron in the form of boron oxides. Thus, boron carbide reduction method is a better method for the synthesis of refractory metal borides considering both start materials availability and ease of process comfort. B_4C serves both as a reducing agent (due to the presence of carbon) as well as the source of boron to form borides. Hence, the present study of synthesis of borides by carbothermic reduction in the presence of boron carbide leads to obtain a single phase refractory metal borides. By using this method, single phase TiB_2 , CrB_2 , $(Ti_{0.95}C_{0.05})B_2$, $(Ti_{0.90}C_{0.10})B_2$ and $(Ti_{0.85}C_{0.15})B_2$ materials were synthesized successfully in the present thesis.

Consolidation of TiB_2 is a challenge due to its high melting point; covalent nature requires high temperatures for sintering. However, borides undergo an abnormal grain growth at high temperatures. The occurrence of microcracking at the grain boundaries is also promoted with the increase in grain size. Thus, it is very difficult to achieve crack free dense borides by the conventional cold compaction and sintering, as no shape accommodation occurs without an external pressure and large pores tend to coarsen during high temperature sintering. A thin oxygen rich layer (mainly TiO_2 and B_2O_3) is usually present on the surface of TiB_2 powder, irrespective of synthesis route. The presence of oxygen finally results in increase in grain size and coarsening of pores because the presence of oxides increases the surface diffusivity. In order to overcome the above issues it is very essential to add a suitable sinter additive. Choice of sinter additive is a challenge to obtain a density without losing its (TiB₂) inherent properties. In literature, various metallic/non metallic additives were used to lower the densification temperature. Although metallic additives helps to lower the densification temperature, from the perspective of high temperature applications, the presence of metallic binder is not desirable, the low melting point of either sintering reaction product or metallic additives leads to incipient fusion and consequent degradation of high temperature properties. The principal objective of non-metallic additives is therefore to improve sinterability of TiB₂ without promoting grain growth thus circumventing limitations of metallic additives. Silicides have not been used extensively in the past for densification of TiB₂. Silicides have attracted considerable interest due to their compatibility with borides to densify at lower temperatures. In the present investigations, various silicides were used to densify the TiB_2 by hot pressing. Silicides not only lowered the densification temperature, but also helped to improve the toughness and oxidation resistance. Reactive sintering and liquid phase sintering were the main densification mechanism in all the cases. Silicon in the silicides helped to reduce the surface oxides of TiB₂, which is advantageous as mentioned above. Presence of reaction product/secondary phase helped to improve the fracture toughness by crack deflection or bridging mechanisms. However, presence of silicon also helped to improve the oxidation resistance by formation of a thin glassy layer on the surface. Effect of various silicides and its quantity on the densification, properties and oxidation behavior was mainly studied in this thesis.

Densification results of all composites prepared in this work using TiB_2 of same origin are summarized. Density of TiB_2 composites with varying $MoSi_2$, $TiSi_2$, WSi_2 , $CrSi_2$, CrB_2 and composites of $(TiCr)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ are presented in Fig.5.44. In all cases, one can see a significant improvement in density with a small addition of 2.5% sinter additive. With higher additions in the case of TiSi₂, WSi₂ and CrB₂ content in (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ an increase in the density is observed, whereas in other cases a decrease in density is seen. The mechanism of sintering is different in each case and the sintering temperatures also vary as explained above. In the case of sintering with TiSi₂ or WSi₂ it is liquid phase sintering. In case of MoSi₂, the major contribution in densification is due to compressive deformation of MoSi2 in addition to the formation of liquid reaction product of TiSi2. Whereas during additions of CrSi2, formation of a reaction product of Si was mainly observed, which leads to deteriorate the densification due to its existence in the gaseous phase at the hot pressing temperature under vacuum of 0.001Pa (10^{-5} m.bar). Near theoretical density TiB₂+CrB₂ composites were not obtained due to the absence of liquid phase sintering. At the same time, high dense composites (>96% TD) of TiB_2 were obtained by combined additions of CrB₂ and MoSi₂. Dual mechanism of sintering was observed in TiB₂+CrB₂+MoSi₂ composites namely: reactive liquid phase sintering and solid solution (>99%) formation of $(Ti,Cr)B_2$. High dense composite of pre-alloyed $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ were also obtained.

From the above, it is clear that addition of silicides to TiB_2 helps to enhance the density by liquid phase sintering and/or activated sintering. When CrB_2 is added to TiB_2 liquid phase sintering was not seen. However, improvement in densification was seen due to the higher mobility of CrB_2 and formation of solid solution with TiB_2 . Mechanical and physical properties were evaluated for all these composites.

Effect of isothermal oxidation (850° C for 64h) behavior of TiB₂ composites are brought here. Weight gain of WSi₂ composite is relatively lower compared with other additives such as MoSi₂, CrSi₂, TiSi₂ and CrB₂. Addition of MoSi₂ was found to be to be ineffective due to degradation of oxide layer by the evaporation of MoO_3 at 850°C. Formation of a protective $SiO_2/$ borosilicate glass layer has been observed on the surface oxide scale, when $TiSi_2$ is added. However, the protective layer was in patches and incomplete. In case of CrB_2 , formation of a continuous and protective layer of $CrBO_3$ has been noticed. Continuous and protective layer of SiO_2 is also observed with 15% $CrSi_2$ sample. In the case of WSi_2 addition also, formation of a crack free protective and continuous oxide layer was observed in all the dense composites. Formation of SiO_2 and the solubility of SiO_2 in liquid B_2O_3 to form a stable glass could be the reasons for the improved oxidation resistance of $CrSi_2$ & WSi_2 composites.

It is worthwhile here to compare the oxidation behavior of TiB_2+CrB_2 composites with that of TiB_2+CrSi_2 composites. Parabolic rate constants obtained were lower in case of composite with $CrSi_2$ compared to that of CrB_2 on isothermal oxidation at 850° C for 64h in air. Oxidation of $CrSi_2$ starts at 600° C where as that of CrB_2 composite at a lower temperature of 460° C. Specific weight gain of $TiB_2 + 5\%$ $CrSi_2$ composite at all temperatures is lower than that of TiB_2+CrB_2 composite. Total weight gain of the composite with $CrSi_2$ is much lower at 19.28 x 10^{-3} Kg/m² compared to that of with CrB_2 which was high at 54.83 x 10^{-3} Kg/m².

As WSi₂ and CrSi₂ are the two additives which form a stable protective oxide layer on TiB₂, the comparisons between these two additives are brought out below. Parabolic rate constants obtained were lower in case of composite with WSi₂ (except 2.5%) compared to that of CrSi₂ on isothermal oxidation at 850° C for 64h in air. Total weight gain of the composite with 15% WSi₂ is much lower at 38.10 x 10^{-3} Kg/m² compared to that of with CrSi₂ which was high at 58.48 x 10^{-3} Kg/m². Hence, it can be concluded that TiB₂ composite with WSi₂ exhibits better oxidation resistance than that with CrSi₂.

Effect of isothermal oxidation (850° C for 64h) behavior of TiB₂ composite is with combined addition of MoSi₂ and CrB₂ compared with that of different TiB₂ composites with additives such as MoSi₂, WSi₂, CrSi₂, TiSi₂ and CrB₂. Weight gain of TiB₂ composite is with combined addition of MoSi₂ and CrB₂ is relatively lower compared with other composites as indicated above. Hence, it can be concluded that TiB₂ composite with combined addition of MoSi₂ and CrB₂ exhibits better oxidation resistance than that of other composites.

Effect of isothermal oxidation (850° C for 64h) behavior of $(TiCr)B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ composites are compared with that of composites without pre-alloyed TiB₂+ CrB₂+20% MoSi₂ additive. Weight gains of pre-alloyed additive composites are relatively lower compared to composites without pre-alloyed TiB₂+ CrB₂+20% MoSi₂ additive. After 256h of oxidation, thickness of the oxide layer was found only <10 µm for $(Ti_{0.85}Cr_{0.15})B_2+20\%MoSi_2$ composite, where as it was ~100 µm for TiB₂+15%CrB₂+MoSi₂ composite. It is clear that pre-alloyed (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ composite has the better oxidation resistance compared to TiB₂+ CrB₂+20% MoSi₂ composites. Reason for improved oxidation resistance in this (TiCr)B₂+20%MoSi₂ composite is due to the migration of silicon towards the outer surface, which forms a protective glassy phase, impeding further oxidation (Fig. 6.43 and Fig. 6.49).

7.2 Scope for future work

In this work, only hot pressing and pressureless sintering was used for densification. Advanced processing technique i.e. Spark Plasma Sintering (SPS) can be attempted in future for the densification of these composites. Conventional pressure assisted consolidation techniques like hot pressing, hot isostatic pressing etc., require long processing time and high temperature in order to produce high density composites. The driving force for densification by SPS is provided by passing current directly through the particle material, with simultaneously applying pressure in separate steps. High shear force in combination with pulsed electric power is initially applied to the particle material to generate electrical discharge that activates the particle surface by evaporation of oxide film, impurities and moisture. Subsequently bonding is accomplished by resistance heating at the contact points between the activated particles in the presence of high pressure. The time and temperature required for consolidation is lowered as high current density is applied in addition to high pressure which leads to localized heating and plastic deformation at interparticle contact areas. The rapid sintering which preferably lasts for less than a few minutes prevents grain growth and allows the particles to retain their microstructure. Spark plasma sintering (SPS), Plasma activated sintering (PAS), Plasma pressure consolidation (PPC) and instrumented pulse electro-discharge consolidation are the different names given for the same process.

In the present investigation, the oxidation studies are conducted using isothermal or continuous heating. Considering the fact that TiB_2 materials would experience thermal cycling during high temperature applications, future studies should focus on oxidation resistance behavior in terms of the stability/protectiveness of oxide scale during thermal cyclic oxidation behavior.

Present developed materials have potential for wear resistant applications due to their high hardness and elastic modulus. Hence, tribological studies of these materials can be carried out under different temperatures and atmospheric conditions. In the present study, only refractory metal silicides and borides are used as sintering aids, but in future rare earth metal silicides and borides can be used to enhance the high temperature oxidation properties. In the present study only particulate composites were prepared; in future fiber/whisker reinforced composites can be developed in order to enhance the fracture toughness of the composites.