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Oxidation of a Silicon Nitride–Titanium Nitride Composite: Microstructural Investigations and Phenomenological Modeling

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The high-temperature oxidation of a silicon nitride–titanium nitride (Si₃N₄–TiN) composite has been investigated via scanning electron microscopy and energy-dispersive and wavelength-dispersive spectrometry. At 1150°C, the oxidation of both the silicon nitride and titanium nitride phases takes place. Several oxidation processes act simultaneously and/or successively. First, the oxidation of the titanium nitride occurs and leads to the formation of a continuous titanium oxide (TiO₂) crystal layer at the surface. Next, the TiO₂ formation takes place in the sublayer at the same time as the Si₃N₄ oxidation. The oxidation of this last phase leads to the formation of vitreous silica (SiO₂). For long a duration of oxidation (>50 h), a continuous layer of SiO₂ is formed under the outer TiO₂ scale. Large pores grow in this layer and deform the outer oxide layers, whereas the oxidation occurs in the material. Based on these results and bibliographical data, a phenomenological model is proposed to describe the stages of the high-temperature oxidation of Si₃N₄–TiN materials.

1. Introduction

Ceramics that are based on silicon nitride (Si₃N₄) combine a set of properties that make them good candidates for high-temperature structural applications. With their low-density, low-thermal expansion coefficient, high hardness, high-corrosion resistance and high-mechanical properties, these ceramics are more appropriate than metals for such applications. However, the development of engineering ceramic components is impeded by two major factors. The first deals with lifetime and reliability problems, which are difficult to solve; the second concerns the high cost of fine ceramic parts. Electroconductive ceramics, such as silicon nitride–titanium nitride (Si₃N₄–TiN) composites, may offer new opportunities because they combine the high performance of Si₃N₄-based ceramics with machinability by electro-discharge machining (EDM). However, the addition of a titanium nitride phase strongly influences the oxidation behavior of the Si₃N₄ ceramic at high temperatures. The oxidation mechanisms of both titanium nitride and Si₃N₄ ceramics have been widely studied and described. These results lay the foundations for understanding the high-temperature behavior of Si₃N₄–TiN composites, which have received little study thus far.

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observations, energy-dispersive spectrometry (EDS) measurements, wavelength-dispersive spectrometry (WDS) measurements, and literature data, a phenomenological oxidation model is proposed to describe the complex oxidation behavior of such composites at >1000°C.

II. Experimental Procedures

(1) Material

A commercial Si₃N₄–TiN composite that has been retained in the present work was fabricated by Norton Desmarquest Fine Ceramics following a conventional processing route for fine ceramics, starting from a mixture of Si₃N₄ and TiN powders in equivalent weight proportions. A few percent of high purity Y₂O₃ and Al₂O₃ powders was added to the initial mixture. Alumina acts as a sintering aid because it increases the Si₃N₄ solubility in the liquid phase at the sintering temperature. The presence of Y₂O₃ leads to an increase in the high-temperature mechanical properties of the intergranular phase in Si₃N₄-based materials. After a cold isostatic compaction step, the composite is densified during sintering at 1800°C under a nitrogen atmosphere.

Figure 1 is a SEM micrograph showing the microstructure of the material after sintering, which consists of titanium nitride and silicon nitride grains and an oxide-rich intergranular phase. Silicon nitride grains exhibit an acicular form characteristic of the β-Si₃N₄ structure. The diameter of the grains does not exceed 0.5 μm. Titanium nitride grains are homogeneously distributed in the composite, and their size ranges from 0.5–8 μm. The titanium nitride phase forms a continuous network, as previously shown by the measurement of the electrical conductivity of such Si₃N₄–TiN composites.

(2) Methods

Samples (10 mm × 4 mm × 2 mm) were machined using EDM, then polished with diamond pastes down to the 1 μm grade. Various samples were oxidized at 1150°C in air for a duration of 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 100, 150, and 200 h, respectively. The microstructures of the oxidized samples have been characterized by SEM (Model XL30, Philips, Eindhoven, Netherlands) performed on both the external surfaces and cross sections. Complementary analytical investigations have been performed by energy-dispersive spectrometry (Model DX-4, EDAX International, Mahwah, NJ) and wavelength-dispersive spectrometry (Model SX50, Cameca Instruments, Courbevoie Cedex, France) to get elemental profiles across oxidized layers.

III. Results

Figure 2 shows a backscattered SEM micrograph and corresponding elemental analyses of the polished cross section of a sample that has been oxidized for 100 h. A 50 μm thick oxidized area can be observed in which large microstructural modifications have taken place. The morphology of this oxidized area is similar to that observed by Bellosi et al. and by Gogotsi et al. on similar materials. Three layers can be distinguished in this area from the surface to the nonoxidized material core.

The first layer (layer 1) is composed primarily of large light-gray crystals, which can be identified as a TiO₂ phase, according to the WDS analysis. The structure and texture of TiO₂ crystals can be seen on a top view of the sample surface (Fig. 3). The second layer (layer 2) is composed of isolated TiO₂ crystals and a continuous dark-gray glassy phase. This second phase is characterized by a silicon/oxygen atomic ratio of ~1/2, which indicates a stoichiometry close to SiO₂. This phase is the reaction product of the Si₃N₄ oxidation. The second layer contains large spherical pores with diameters of 2–20 μm. Small white or dark gray grains also can be seen in this layer. These phases are aluminum- and/or yttrium-rich and will be discussed in more detail later. The third layer (layer 3) exhibits a more complex microstructure consisting of several phases and porosity. The oxidation front (I₃) that separates this third oxidation layer from the core material can be...
The oxidation behavior of the studied Si$_3$N$_4$–TiN composite at $>1000^\circ$C is complex because of several processes that take place simultaneously. A phenomenological oxidation model is proposed

IV. Oxidation Modeling

The oxidation of titanium toward the surface is rapid at the beginning of oxidation, then slows to reach a thickness of $\approx 5-10 \mu m$ after 10 h and remains constant. For oxidation times $>50$ h, the TiO$_2$ surface layer contains numerous cracks (Figs. 3 and 5).

After $\approx 100$ h of oxidation, a continuous layer of SiO$_2$ (layer 2) containing large cavities starts forming under and around the surface TiO$_2$ crystals.

The respective thickness of the three oxidation layers varies as a function of the oxidation duration. All thicknesses were measured for each oxidation duration on SEM micrographs of polished cross sections. Results are given in Fig. 6. They show the rapid growth of layer 1 (TiO$_2$-rich) during the first oxidation hours. This layer reaches a quasi-constant thickness after $\approx 10$ h at $1150^\circ$C. Layer 3 also grows rapidly during the initial stage of oxidation, but its thickness continues to increase up to 50 h. At $>50$ oxidation hours, stabilization is observed. A delay is observed before layer 2 appears and begins growing. Indeed, this layer is observed only for oxidation times $>20$ h, and then its thickness continuously increases. For long duration (up to 200 h), it becomes difficult to separate layers 1 and 2 because of morphology changes that occur in the silica-rich layer (layer 2). As can be seen in Fig. 7, the silica phase has grown and/or flowed into the TiO$_2$ layer and the external surface of the oxidized composite is mainly composed of rounded TiO$_2$ crystals embedded in a SiO$_2$-rich phase, between which large pores form. WDS measurements performed along the white line of Fig. 7 show the presence of aluminum in this phase with an aluminum/silicon atomic ratio close to 1/4. This indicates the diffusion of aluminum toward the surface as previously observed in the case of the oxidation of Si$_3$N$_4$ ceramics with an intergranular glassy phase. This intergranular phase reacts with silica to form stable compounds or dissolves into silica. The resulting chemical gradient in the intergranular phase leads to a migration of the aluminum and yttrium species toward the surface. This can also explain the presence of small white crystals characterized by a high yttrium content and the presence of dark-gray crystals characterized by a high aluminum content (Fig. 7). Similar phases have previously been observed and identified as oxidation products of Si$_3$N$_4$-based ceramics, which concern yttrium silicates or titanates ($Y_2SiO_5$, $Y_2Si_2O_7$, $Y_2Ti_2O_7$) for the first ones and mullite crystals ($3Al_2O_32SiO_3$) for the second ones.

IV. Oxidation Modeling

The oxidation behavior of the studied Si$_3$N$_4$–TiN composite at $>1000^\circ$C is complex because of several processes that take place simultaneously. A phenomenological oxidation model is proposed.
for Si$_3$N$_4$–TiN composites in which the TiN content is high enough to constitute a continuous network at 1150°C. The model is based on the results of this experimental study and on bibliographical data.

Four stages can be distinguished in the oxidation process of these Si$_3$N$_4$-based materials (Fig. 8).

(1) **Stage 1**

During the first oxidation stage (Fig. 8(a)), which occurs rapidly during the first oxidation hours, titanium nitride particles close to the surface are oxidized to TiO$_2$ according to reaction (1). The growth of the oxide layer covering the titanium nitride particles is controlled by the diffusion of titanium through TiO$_2$, leading to a lateral growth of rutile crystals that progressively covers the entire surface. This mechanism is not in agreement with the general theory for the oxidation of titanium nitride, which considers that the process is controlled by anionic diffusion.$^6,8,15,16$ However, it is admitted that oxygen diffuses via short-circuit diffusion paths in polycrystalline rutile; whereas in single-crystal rutile, the titanium diffusion is faster than the oxygen diffusion.$^6,17$ In the case of the Si$_3$N$_4$–TiN composite, the titanium nitride particles are small (0.5–8 μm). During the first oxidation stage, a single-crystal of rutile could be formed on the surface of each outer titanium nitride particle. That should explain the faster diffusion of titanium toward the surface, which was observed in our experiments. Given the nonstoichiometry of TiO$_2$, other explanations are possible involving point defects and possible effects of impurity. The oxidation of

Fig. 5. Backscattered SEM micrographs of cross sections of the Si$_3$N$_4$–TiN composite after different oxidation durations at 1150°C in air.

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Fig. 6. Evolution of the respective thickness of layers 1, 2, and 3 of the oxidized area as a function of the oxidation duration at 1150°C in air.

Fig. 7. Backscattered SEM micrograph of a cross section of the Si$_3$N$_4$–TiN composite after 200 h at 1150°C in air. Graphs indicate the variations of the atomic contents measured by WDS along the continuous white line.
the silicon nitride phase, which is slower than that of the titanium nitride phase, does not act significantly during this stage.

At the end of this first stage, the material surface is almost entirely covered with TiO$_2$. The titanium impoverishment in the titanium nitride particles close to the surface (because of the outward diffusion of titanium) causes an increase in the nitrogen dissociation partial pressure, which is then released. Pores, formed by the coalescence of the vacancies induced by the motion of titanium and nitrogen, appear in the sublayer, into the site of the initial titanium nitride particles. This porosity can contain molecular nitrogen, which can also diffuse toward the surface.

(2) Stage 2

The formation and growth of porosity in the sublayer reduce the available surface for titanium diffusion, from inner titanium nitride toward the TiO$_2$ layer and the atmosphere. The diffusion of titanium then slows during the first oxidation stage. On the other hand, oxygen can diffuse toward the material core through porosity in a molecular form. Assuming that oxygen diffusion through the porosity is faster than through the rutile, the diffusion rate of oxygen remains constant when porosity grows. The inward diffusion of oxygen then becomes faster than the outward diffusion of titanium. During the second oxidation stage, inner titanium nitride particles are oxidized, caused by the oxygen having diffused in the sublayer porosity. Because the titanium diffusion is faster than oxygen diffusion through the newly formed rutile crystals, the oxidation reaction takes place at the TiO$_2$/O$_2$ interfaces. The growth of these new inner TiO$_2$ crystals partially fills the porosity in the outer area of the sublayer, and at the same time, the titanium migration leads to the formation of new porosity close to the oxidation front that separates the core material from the oxidized one. Oxygen can then reach these new pores, leading to a gradual internal oxidation.

During this stage, the silicon nitride phase begins to oxidize into silica, according to reaction (2). No oxynitride phase has been identified in the oxide layer, as was observed between SiO$_2$ and Si$_3$N$_4$ phases, during oxidation of pure silicon nitride.$^{21-23,27-29}$ However, the oxynitride phase has rarely been observed in the case of the oxidation of silicon nitride with an intergranular phase.$^{30-34}$ The data of the present paper does not provide sufficient information either to prove or disprove whether an oxynitride phase is present. This model does not depend on the presence of an oxynitride phase. Oxidation of the Si$_3$N$_4$ phase is, therefore, controlled by the diffusion of oxygen through SiO$_2$.

The oxidation process takes place in the outer surface but also through internal porosity, which contains oxygen. The diffusion of oxygen through silica is very slow in comparison with the diffusion through TiO$_2$. Thus, the main mechanism controlling the oxidation rate during this stage is the diffusion of oxygen through the surface and inner TiO$_2$ crystals, separated by porosity. Nevertheless, the oxidation of the Si$_3$N$_4$ phase can slightly modify the kinetics, particularly at higher temperatures (at $\sim$1200°C).

(3) Stage 3

The transformation of Si$_3$N$_4$ into SiO$_2$ leads to a 96% molar volume increase, which can create internal stresses. After several hours of oxidation, the quantity of silica begins to be important, and growth stresses associated with this oxidation process increase. Silica, which has a viscous behavior at $>1000°C$, flows under these stresses and fills the available spaces, i.e., the porosity and the spaces between the surface TiO$_2$ crystals. The nitrogen released by the oxidation reaction diffuses toward the surface and/or forms gas bubbles in silica (Fig. 8(c)). Bubbles can be
formed under low nitrogen pressures in silica, as shown by Mieskowski et al., because of the low viscosity of the vitreous oxide. Yttrium and aluminum, initially present in the intergranular glassy phase, migrate toward the surface and are dissolved into silica or form mullite (3Al₂O₃·2SiO₂) and yttrium silicates and/or titanates.8–10,30,31

At the same time, the internal oxidation of the titanium nitride phase continues to occur in the core material, because of the oxygen having reached the pores. However, the available surface for oxygen diffusion through TiO₂ crystals and porosity, toward inner titanium nitride particles, decreases with the growth and the flow of silica in the porosity of the upper area of the sublayer. Because oxygen diffusion through SiO₂ is slower than through TiO₂ and porosity, the oxidation of inner titanium nitride then slows down. During the third stage, which is a transient step, oxidation is controlled by two mechanisms. The oxidation of the Si₃N₄ phase remains controlled by oxygen diffusion through SiO₂, whereas titanium nitride oxidation is controlled by both oxygen diffusion through TiO₂ and through SiO₂, which progressively fills the porosity near the outer TiO₂ crystals.

(4) Stage 4

When silica forms a continuous layer under the material surface (Fig. 8(d), oxygen has to diffuse across this new layer to oxidize the inner titanium nitride and Si₃N₄ phases. An oxidation deceleration is observed. The oxidation rate is then controlled during the fourth stage via the diffusion of oxygen through the SiO₂ layer. The nitrogen, which is still released, diffuses toward the surface or forms gas bubbles that grow in silica and sometimes burst on the surface.

V. Discussion

The present oxidation model involves three major and successive oxidation modes. Each is controlled by a dominant diffusion mechanism. These three modes, described by the stages 1, 2, and 4 of the model, are separated by transient stages (such as stage 3). The rate of the dominant mechanism slows regularly as the oxidation duration increases, i.e., from step 1 to step 4. The duration of each step depends strongly on the temperature level.

A microstructural discussion can be made regarding the three oxidation layers previously described (Figs. 2, 4, 5, and 6). The growth of each layer (Fig. 6) can be related to one of the three oxidation modes. Layer 1 consists primarily of TiO₂ crystals. A continuous layer is formed for an oxidation duration as shown in 1 h at 1150°C. The growth of this layer stops after a few hours of oxidation. Its formation is related to the first oxidation mode (stage 1), which concerns the oxidation of titanium nitride in TiO₂ controlled by the diffusion of titanium through TiO₂. Layer 3 consists of TiO₂ and partially oxidized Si₃N₄. Its growth also occurs rapidly at the beginning of oxidation, slows down after ~10 h at 1150°C, and then stabilizes after 50 h. The growth of layer 3 is thus related to the oxidation of the inner titanium nitride grains, and is primarily controlled by the inward diffusion of oxygen through TiO₂, which corresponds to the second mode of the model (stage 2). The deceleration of the growth of this layer corresponds to the transient stage (stage 3) separating the second (stage 2) and third (stage 4) modes.

After 50 h of oxidation at 1150°C, layers 1 and 3 have reached a constant thickness, and only layer 2 continues to grow. The latter is formed by a progressive consumption of layer 3. The fact that the thickness of layer 3 remains constant after 50 hours of oxidation means that its formation at the I3 interface (interface between layer 3 and the core material) and its consumption at the I2 interface (interface between layers 2 and 3) take place at the same rate and that they are controlled by the same mechanism. This oxidation stage thus corresponds to the third oxidation mode (stage 4), controlled by the diffusion of oxygen through the silica, which is the main component of layer 2.

The sintering additives contained in the material (Al₂O₃, Y₂O₃) affect the morphology and composition of the oxide layer. Indeed, an outward diffusion of aluminum and yttrium, initially present in the intergranular phase, has been observed according to WDS analyses (Figs. 2 and 7). However, we have assumed in the present oxidation model that these phenomena have a negligible effect on the mechanisms controlling the oxidation process. We are now going to discuss the way these additives can affect the model stages.

Some effects of the intergranular phase, containing elements issued from the sintered aids, on the oxidation process have been reported in the literature for Si₃N₄-based materials. In this phase, aluminum and yttrium species can react with SiO₂ to form crystalline compounds (mullite, yttrium silicates), which can crack the oxide layer.30,31 When the intergranular phase is vitreous, the aluminum and yttrium species diffuse rapidly toward the surface, releasing oxygen, which can lead to an internal oxidation of Si₃N₄ grains.32,34 Some species can also dissolve in silica, leading to a decrease in viscosity.30,33 The oxygen can quickly diffuse through the oxide, the crystallization of vitreous oxide is favored, and nitrogen forms bubbles more easily, which can burst on the surface.

In the case of the Si₃N₄–TiN composite, the effect of the sintering aids should be weak during the first two stages of the oxidation described in the model, because they primarily involve oxidation of the titanium nitride phase. The third and fourth oxidation stages involve oxidation of both the titanium nitride and Si₃N₄ phases, so the intergranular phase may have an effect. Crystalline compounds (mullite and yttrium silicates or titanates), issued from reactions between aluminum and yttrium species of the intergranular phase and silicon and/or titanium oxides, were observed in the silica-rich sublayer. They may have affected the diffusion rate of oxygen through this layer. However, those crystals are rare and isolated and are surrounded by vitreous silica, so the risk of crack formation caused by growth stresses is small. They may slightly decrease the diffusion rate of oxygen through SiO₂, because the diffusion through crystals is slower than through a vitreous phase. The crystals can have a stronger effect if vitreous oxide crystallizes, which is favored by aluminum dissolution in SiO₂. Cracks can then be formed during the growth of Mullite and yttrium silicates or titanates crystals. However, this phenomenon is observed only at high temperatures or for long oxidation duration at ~1200°C.50 More important is the effect of dissolved aluminum in SiO₂, which leads to an increase in the diffusion rate of oxygen through vitreous oxide, which has a lower viscosity. The formation and growth of bubbles in the sublayer confirms the low viscosity of this vitreous phase.

However, these phenomena do not significantly modify the main oxidation mechanisms, even if they change their rate. The model is valid as long as the SiO₂ phase remains vitreous. When silica crystallizes, cracks may appear because of crystalline growth stresses, and oxygen can diffuse through the bulk material via this path.

VI. Conclusion

This paper is a contribution toward a better understanding of the oxidation behavior of silicon nitride–titanium nitride composites. Microstructural and kinetics studies of the oxidation of such a material were conducted initially. Taking into account the results of these studies and bibliographical data, an oxidation model of the material at 1150°C has been proposed.

Three oxidation modes, controlled by distinct diffusion mechanisms, take place successively:

(1) At an early stage, the oxidation process is controlled by the diffusion of titanium through TiO₂, which is oxidized at the oxide/gas interface, resulting in the formation of a continuous rutile (TiO₂) layer at the outer surface. The outward diffusion of titanium leads to the formation of porosity in the titanium nitride grains of the sublayer. These cavities lead to a reduction in the available surface for titanium diffusion, and thus a deceleration of the oxidation rate.
(2) The oxidation kinetics become gradually controlled by the oxygen diffusion through the rutile and through the cavities of the sublayer, where it reacts with the internal titanium nitride particles and the Si₃N₄ phase.

(3) For greater oxidation times, the silicon nitride phase oxidation leads to the formation of a continuous layer of amorphous silica under the surface TiO₂ layer. The dominating process becomes the diffusion of oxygen through this SiO₂-rich phase. These three modes are separated by transient stages, during which the rate of the dominating mechanism gradually decreases. The model allows us to understand the microstructural characteristics of the oxides formed at 1150°C.

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