Mechanical properties and grain orientation evolution of zirconium diboride-zirconium carbide ceramics


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Abstract

The effect of ZrC on the mechanical response of ZrB2 ceramics has been evaluated from room temperature to 2000°C. Zirconium diboride ceramics containing 10 vol% ZrC had higher strengths at all temperatures compared to previous reports for nominally pure ZrB2. The addition of ZrC also increased fracture toughness from ~3.5 MPa m1/2 for nominally pure ZrB2 to ~4.3 MPa m1/2 due to residual thermal stresses. The toughness was comparable with ZrB2 up to 1600°C, but increased to 4.6 MPa m1/2 at 1800°C and 2000°C. The increased toughness above 1600°C was attributed to plasticity in the ZrC at elevated temperatures. Electron back-scattered diffraction analysis showed strong orientation of the ZrC grains along the [001] direction in the tensile region of specimens tested at 2000°C, a phenomenon that has not been observed previously for fast fracture (crosshead displacement rate = 4.0 mm min-1) in four point bending. It is believed that microstructural changes and plasticity at elevated temperature were the mechanisms behind the ultrafast reorientation of ZrC.

Keywords: ultra-high temperature ceramics (UHTC); particulate reinforced composites; borides; high-temperature mechanical properties; electron backscattering diffraction (EBSD);

1. Introduction

Ultra-High Temperature Ceramics (UHTCs) are candidate materials for sharp leading edges, nose caps and flight control components of aerospace vehicles that can operate at hypersonic speeds [1-4]. These components are exposed to extreme environments that include temperatures exceeding 2000°C, heat fluxes of hundreds of W/cm² and intensive chemical aggression by dissociated air [5].
Amongst the UHTCs, zirconium diboride (ZrB₂) has excellent mechanical properties, high thermal conductivity and reasonable chemical resistance [6-8]. Its high electrical conductivity also permits electrical discharge machining and, hence, the fabrication of complex shapes [9]. However, ZrB₂ suffers from low sinterability [10, 11] and requires the use of sintering aids. Additions of disilicides (MoSi₂, TaSi₂, ZrSi₂) have been used to improve the densification of ZrB₂ [12-16], but the resultant ceramics are limited in terms of their potential structural applications because of their lower melting points. Boron carbide (B₃C) and silicon carbide (SiC) are also commonly added to ZrB₂ [17-20], but the formation of eutectic products below 2500°C remains an issue [21]. As well as improving the sinterability, the addition of second phases has also been explored to increase strength and fracture toughness [19, 22]. Additions of 30 vol% silicon carbide in a ZrB₂ matrix have shown a nearly 50% increase in the toughness [10]. Chamberlain et al. [23] reported that the room temperature bend strength of ZrB₂-30 vol% SiC attrition milled with tungsten carbide (WC) media exceeded 1 GPa and the fracture toughness peaked at 5.3 MPa√m. Zou et al. [24] added 5 vol% WC to a ZrB₂-20 vol% SiC composite, which retained a strength of 600 MPa up to 1600°C whereas ZrB₂-20 vol% SiC without WC did not.

Zirconium carbide (ZrC) additions to ZrB₂ are beneficial for both densification and mechanical properties at elevated temperatures. As observed by Gropyanov et al. [25], 10 wt% ZrC in ZrB₂ reduced the porosity of the host material to less than 1% after hot pressing at ~1900°C with a decrease in the activation energy for densification from ~774 kJ mol⁻¹ to ~527 kcal mol⁻¹. The addition of the second phase also promoted grain boundary pinning, which reduced grain size in the final ceramic. In a study of the bending creep of ZrB₂-ZrC and TiB₂-TiC [26], additions of 20 wt% ZrC reduced the porosity from ~10% to ~3% and the grain size from 6-8 μm to 2-4 μm after hot-pressing at 2100°C. More recently, spark-plasma sintering at 1800°C produced ZrB₂-ZrC with as little as ~2.5% residual porosity [27].

Characterization of mechanical behaviour of ZrC-ZrB₂ at elevated temperature has focused on creep behaviour [26] and comparing it to the creep of ZrC [28-34]. In the ZrC-ZrB₂ system, creep has been measured for ZrC contents from 20 to 70 mol%. The creep rates of the ZrB₂-ZrC ceramics exceeded those of the individual constituents by two orders of magnitude. This superplastic behaviour correlated with the self-diffusion of carbon in ZrC [29-31, 35, 36] and has been extended to other carbides with the same crystal structure as ZrC [37-42]. Relatively few papers have explored the strength of either single-phase ZrC [33, 34]
or ZrB₂-ZrC at temperatures above 1500°C [43]. Neuman et al. [43] investigated the strength, flexural strength and fracture toughness of ZrB₂-10 vol% ZrC from room temperature to 2300°C and concluded that the observed increase in toughness in the range 1600-2000°C resulted from plasticity of the ZrC.

The present work focused on microstructure-mechanical property relationships for ZrB₂-10 vol% ZrC ceramics from room temperature to 2000°C to determine the mechanism by which the ZrC additions enhanced mechanical behaviour.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

ZrB₂ and ZrC powders (both Grade B, H.C. Starck, Karlsruhe, Germany) together with ZrH₂ (Grade S, Chemetall, Jackson, Michigan) were suspended in methyl ethyl ketone using 0.4 wt% of a dispersant (DISPERBYK®-110, BYK-Gardner, Columbia, Maryland). The slurry was ball milled for 4 h at 60 rpm in a polypropylene container using home-made ZrB₂ milling media to minimize contamination. The powder:milling media ratio was 2:1 by volume. Phenolic resin (GP 2074, Georgia Pacific, Atlanta, Georgia) was added to the slurry as a carbon precursor (the char yield was ~43 wt% at 800°C in a Ar/10H₂ atmosphere). Carbon reacts with and removes surface oxides from the powders and any residual carbon could react with ZrH₂ to form additional ZrC. The slurry was ball milled for another 20 hours, thus totalling 24 hours. The mixture was subsequently dried by rotary evaporation (Rotavapor R-124, Buchi, Flawil, Germany) at ~80°C and a rotation speed of 80 rpm. Once dried, the powders were sieved through a 60 mesh screen and uniaxially pre-pressed at ~2.4 MPa and then hot-pressed (Model HP50-7010G, Thermal Technology, Santa Rosa, California) in 63.5 mm square graphite dies lined with two boron nitride-coated layers of graphite foil having an individual thickness of ~125 μm (2010-A, Mineral Seal Corp., Tucson, Arizona).

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1 Milling media were prepared from ZrB₂ powder with additions of 1 wt% B₂C and 1 wt% C; homogeneity of the additions was achieved via ball-milling using WC-6Co balls (Note: ~1 wt% WC was added to the powder through erosion). The mixture was uniaxially pressed into beads and then cold isostatically pressed. Finally, media were pressurelessly sintered at 2050°C for 90 min in flowing Ar/H₂.
The first stage of hot pressing involved pyrolysis of the phenolic resin via heating the green body under flowing Ar/10H₂ at 5°C/min up to 800°C and holding for 1 h. Subsequently, the furnace was evacuated to ~20 Pa and the temperature was increased to 1250°C with a heating rate of 10°C/min. The temperature was held for 2 hours and then further increased to 1450°C by again heating at 10°C/min. Following another 2 h hold at 1450°C, the temperature was increased to 1600°C. After a 1 h hold at 1600°C, the furnace was backfilled to ~10¹⁵ Pa with Ar/10H₂ and a uniaxial pressure of 32 MPa was applied. The holds at 1250°C, 1450°C, and 1600°C were used to promote removal of oxide impurities such as boria and zirconia by vaporization and/or reaction with carbon, as reported in previous studies [17, 18]. The furnace was finally heated up to 1900°C by heating at 20°C/min. A final hold of 45 minutes was performed and then the chamber was cooled down with an average rate of 20°C/min. The pressure was removed at 1600°C.

2.2. Characterisation

Hot pressed billets were sliced and then polished using successively finer diamond colloidal suspensions with a final abrasive size of 0.25 μm. Polished sections were etched at 100°C for 20 s using 2.0 molar KOH solution. The microstructure was characterized using a field emission gun scanning electron microscope, FEGSEM (JSM 7000F, JEOL USA Inc., Peabody, Massachusetts) equipped with an energy-dispersive X-Ray spectrometer (EDS Oxford) and wavelength-dispersive X-Ray spectrometer (WDS Oxford) for chemical analysis. The grain sizes of the ZrB₂ and ZrC and the amount of the two phases were determined by computerized image analysis by counting at least 200 grains (ImageJ software, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland). For higher resolution observation and nanoscale analysis a transmission electron microscope (JEOL 2100F, JEOL USA Inc., Peabody, Massachusetts) was used.

X-Ray diffraction (XRD) and grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) (X'Pert³ MRD, PANalytical B.V., Almelo, The Netherlands) were used for the characterisation of the crystalline phases in as-sintered materials and specimens broken at elevated temperatures. ICDD Cards no. 34-0423 and 74-1221 were used to identify respectively ZrB₂ and ZrC. Cross sections of bars broken in 4-point bending at 1800°C and 2000°C were analysed using electron back scattered diffraction (EBSD) analysis on a Quanta 3D FEGSEM (Hillsboro, Oregon) equipped with a EBSD detector (NordLysNano, Oxford Instruments, Abingdon, United Kingdom). Data were analysed using the software CHANNEL 5 (HKL Technology,
Specimens were polished using the same procedure outlined above, but with a final polish using a 40 nm colloidal silica suspension (OPS, Struers Aps, Ballerup, Denmark). The same analysis was also carried out on a specimen that had not been broken as a reference. The EBSD scans were performed with a step size of 0.5 μm. The acquired Kikuchi patterns were indexed automatically by selecting the space group Fm̅3m for ZrC [44] and P6/mmm for ZrB2 [10]. The overall texturing was expressed in multiples of uniform density (MUD) which varied from 1 (random orientation) to infinity (perfectly oriented single crystal). A coordinate frame x̂yz was defined as follows: the z direction was parallel to the bending stress axis, whereas x and y determined the plane of the cross section of the specimen.

2.3. Mechanical testing at room temperature

Flexural strength was tested in 4-point bending using a fully articulated fixture and B type bars specimens were used (45 x 4 x 3 mm) according to ASTM C1161. The bars were machined from hot-pressed billets by diamond grinding (600 grit) on a surface grinder (FSG-3A818, Chevalier, Santa Fe Springs, California). The tensile surfaces were then polished to a 1 μm finish using diamond slurries. Ten specimens were tested at room temperature in a screw-driven load frame (Model 33R4204, Instron, Norwood, Massachusetts). The crosshead displacement rate was 0.5 mm min⁻¹.

Toughness was measured by the chevron notch beam method using B bars (45 x 4 x 3 mm) in 4-point bending according to ASTM C1421. The notch was obtained using a dicing saw (Accu-cut 5200, Aremco products, Ossining, New York) with an ~150 μm-thick diamond blade. The notch dimensions were measured after testing using a digital microscope (KH-3000, Hiroy-USA, Hackensack, New Jersey) and 5 specimens were tested at room temperature. The crosshead displacement rate was 0.05 mm min⁻¹.

Young’s modulus was determined both from the slope of the load-displacement curves (ASTM E411) and by dynamic measurements according to ASTM E1876.

2.4. Mechanical testing at elevated temperature

Flexural strengths were measured at 1000°C, 1400°C, 1600°C, 1800°C and 2000°C according to ASTM C1211 using the same size bars as the room temperature specimens. The tests were performed using an induction heater (SB30KWLF, Superior Induction Technology,
Pasadena, California) with a graphite susceptor. The system was enclosed in an environmental chamber with a flowing argon atmosphere around the test fixture [45]. The specimens were loaded and secured by cyanoacrylate glue in the fully articulated four-point bending fixture [46]. The specimen was heated up to test temperature with a rate of 50°C/min and held for 5 minutes to permit temperature equilibration of the specimen and fixtures. Crosshead displacement rate was varied with temperature to maintain a linear elastic response to rupture with the rates summarized in Table 2. The reported strength was the average of five measurements at each temperature. Fracture toughness was tested at the same elevated temperatures and in the same chamber as flexural strength. The reported values of fracture toughness were the average of three measurements.

3. Results and discussion

The theoretical density was calculated based on the nominal composition (ZrB$_2$-10 vol% ZrC) using values of 6.09 g cm$^{-3}$ for the ZrB$_2$ [10] and 6.56 g cm$^{-3}$ for the ZrC [47]. The resultant value was 6.14 g cm$^{-3}$, which is consistent with the value determined by geometric density (6.17 g cm$^{-3}$). The amount of ZrC, as determined by imaging, was 9.9 vol%, with 0.4 vol% amorphous phase. The ZrB$_2$ had a mean grain size of 4.7 ± 1.6 μm with a maximum size of ~10 μm and an aspect ratio 1.5 ± 0.4, whilst the ZrC grain size was 1.7 ± 0.7 μm with an aspect ratio 1.4 ± 0.3.

The microstructures shown in Figure 1 showed that the ceramics were nearly fully dense and did not contain a significant fraction of pores. A small volume fraction (<0.1 vol%) of pores was observed entrapped within ZrB$_2$ grains.
Figure 1. Backscattered-electron micrographs of ZrB₂-ZrC at different magnifications. ZrC grains are in light grey and black spots represent the amorphous phase. c) and d) show clusters of ZrC grains with the amorphous phase.

A residual phase with very dark contrast was also present, which appeared as black spots in the micrographs as indicated by arrows in Figure 1d. This phase was distinguished from pores because of charging observed around the perimeter of pores during imaging. As shown in Figure 2, TEM-EDS revealed the presence of aluminium, silicon, and calcium in the amorphous phase.
Submicrometer monoclinic ZrO$_2$ grains were typically found encapsulated within the amorphous phase (e.g., as shown in Figure 3). The amorphous phase containing zirconia was predominantly found adjacent to ZrC grains. The zirconia particles were likely formed by spontaneous oxidation of ZrC during the reaction of ZrH$_2$ and carbon at low oxygen activity in the densifying compact. The boron nitride formation may be associated with reaction of...
boria with nitrogen impurities contained in the starting powders [48]. As will be discussed later, the presence of the amorphous phase adjacent to the nascent ZrC may play an important role in the mechanical behaviour at elevated temperatures.

Figure 3. Morphology of the amorphous phase encapsulating monoclinic zirconia grain.

Heating to elevated temperatures for mechanical testing did not result in any changes in the phases present in the test bars. X-ray diffraction patterns shown in Figure 4 showed the same relative amount of zirconia (ICCD card no. 37-1484) compared to the as-sintered material (labelled RT). Note that a logarithmic scale was used to increase the size of low-intensity peaks. Grazing incidence angle X-ray diffraction performed on the tensile surface of test bars revealed that the surface of the specimen broken at 2000°C (labelled GI2000°C) is free from zirconia, but the intensity of ZrC was higher.
Figure 4. XRD patterns of the as-sintered ZZC10, after mechanical testing at 2000°C and GIXRD of the sample broken at 2000°C.

Fracture surfaces of specimens tested in 4-point bending at room temperature, 1000, 1400, 1600, 1800 and 2000°C are shown in Figure 5. At room temperature (Figure 5a), ZrB$_2$ grains exhibited transgranular fracture, whilst failure was intergranular at high temperature (Figure 5b), c), d), e) and f)). The specimens fractured from 1000 to 1600°C showed the formation of a zirconia layer on both the ZrB$_2$ and ZrC grains.
Figure 5. Fracture surfaces of specimens broken at a) room temperature, b) 1000°C, c) 1400°C, d) 1600°C, e) 1800°C and f) 2000°C.

The morphology is shown in detail in Figure 6. At 1800°C and 2000°C, no zirconia was observed on the fracture surfaces. This implied the presence of a transition from an oxidising to inert furnace environment at temperatures between 1600°C and 1800°C. The oxygen
activity in the furnace was previously estimated to be between $10^{-16}$ and $10^{-14}$ atm [22]. The observed transition and oxygen activity are consistent with a Zr-O-C volatility diagram reported by Maitre et al. [49]. They calculated that the upper limit of oxygen activity for stability of solid ZrC was $10^{-20}$ atm at 1327°C and $10^{-17}$ atm 1527°C. Since the stability domain for ZrC moves to higher oxygen pressures with increasing temperature, it is reasonable that the pO$_2$ is in the range $10^{-16}$ - $10^{-14}$ atm at 1800°C. Moreover, at pO$_2$ values as low as about $10^{-14}$ atm, carbon can oxidise in CO-rich atmospheres [50]. At 1527°C, CO partial pressures lower than ~10$^6$ atm can reduce ZrO$_2$. Overall, the thermodynamics suggest that the oxygen partial pressure in the mechanical testing furnace was low enough to inhibit oxidation of the ZrB$_2$ and ZrC at temperatures of 1800°C or higher. Further, the carbon-rich environment of the induction-heated graphite hot zone may have promoted reduction of any zirconia that was present near the tensile surface. This localised carbothermal reduction may also explain the decrease in the amount of zirconia formed with increasing temperature (Figure 5 b, c and d) [51, 52].

Figure 6. Formation of zirconia layer on the fracture surface of ZZC10 tested at 1000°C.

Specimens fractured at 2000°C exhibited a terraced structure on the surfaces of the grains (Figure 7). Texturing on fracture surfaces has previously been attributed to minimisation of surface energy [53]. According to Wulff’s rule [54, 55], the ratio of specific surface energy ($\gamma_i$) to the distance of the crystal faces from a point within the crystal ($h_i$) is constant. Thus, the crystallographic plane with the lowest $\gamma_i$ has the lowest $h_i$, which indicates the lowest crystal growth rate. The crystallographic plane with the lowest $\gamma_i$ generally corresponds to the highest atomic density. For example, the (111) plane in the ZrC lattice has a higher surface density than other planes such as (001) and (011) and, therefore, a lower $\gamma_i$. Hence, for ZrC,
formation of the terraces in the [111] direction should be suppressed, while formation in the [001] direction should be promoted.

![Image of ZrB2 and ZrC grains](image)

Figure 7. Fracture surface of ZZC10 broken at 2000°C with formation of terraced microstructure.

HRTEM analysis (Figure 8) of a ZrC grain adjacent to amorphous phase confirmed the formation of a faceted surface as well as the crystalline orientations of the facets. The d-spacing of 0.281 ± 0.008 nm corresponded, within the uncertainty of the measurements, to the separation (0.274 nm) of the {111} family of planes in ZrC.

![Image of faceted ZrC grains](image)

Figure 8. Faceted ZrC grains at the ZrC-amorphous phase interface.

However, it must be noted that at the ZrC-ZrB2 interface, the grains are not faceted (see Figure 9).
Figure 9. Boundary between ZrB<sub>2</sub> and ZrC grains.

This suggests that the faceted morphology is typical of free surfaces which are either:

i) On the fracture surface; after fracture, the specimen cooled at a rate of 20°C/min.

However, this means that the specimen temperature was above 1800°C for 10 min. At these temperatures, both ZrB<sub>2</sub> and ZrC grains on the fracture surface are able to rearrange their crystalline structures.

ii) At the interface with the amorphous phase; at 2000°C, the amorphous phase is viscous and exerts only a marginal constraint on the grains as they evolve towards a faceted morphology.

This microstructural rearrangement in both ZrB<sub>2</sub> and ZrC was triggered at temperatures above 1800°C. Rearrangement occurred at free surfaces such as the fracture surface (Figure 7) and at interfaces with the viscous/molten amorphous phase (Figure 8). For strong interfaces such as those between ZrB<sub>2</sub> and ZrC (Figure 9), the faceted morphology was not observed.

The composition and properties of ZrB<sub>2</sub>-ZrC ceramics are reported in Table 1; the room temperature elastic moduli were 525 GPa from static bend testing and 515 GPa from the acoustic method. Both values are in agreement with predictions made using a volumetric rule of mixtures and moduli values for the constituent phases in the range 490-530 GPa for ZrB<sub>2</sub> [10, 11, 56, 57] and 390-460 for ZrC [8, 58, 59]. The flexural strength was 596 MPa, which was more than 50% higher than the strength of ZrB<sub>2</sub> with 0.5 vol% of carbon, labelled as ZB-
0.5C and reported as a reference material [60] in Figure 10. The room temperature fracture toughness value was 4.3 MPa√m, which is higher than monolithic ZrB₂ (typically ~3.5 MPa√m) [60] and comparable with ZrB₂-SiC composites ceramics [23]. The toughness increase is likely due to the residual stresses that arise due to the differences in the coefficients of thermal expansion for the ZrB₂ matrix and the isolated ZrC particles. An Eshelby analysis [61] of ZrB₂ – ZrC predicts that the stress in the matrix was about 450 MPa assuming that the temperature of stress relaxation was 1400°C, the particulate radius 0.85 μm, the matrix radius 2.35 μm, the coefficient of thermal expansion 6.7 x 10⁻⁶ K⁻¹ [10] for ZrB₂ and 7.5 x 10⁻⁶ K⁻¹ for ZrC [62], the Poisson’s ratio 0.133 for ZrB₂ [10] and 0.197 for ZrC [63], and the Young’s modulus 520 GPa for ZrB₂ [64] and 450 GPa for ZrC [63]. Based on this analysis, the matrix will be in compression because of the lower CTE of ZrB₂. This compressive stress acting on the matrix may promote the fracture toughness increase of the composite [65] as:

\[
\Delta K_{IC} = 2\bar{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{2(\lambda - 2a)}{\pi}} = 1.19 \text{ MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}
\]  

(1)

where \(a\) is the particulate radius, \(\bar{\sigma}\) is the interfacial pressure and \(\lambda\) is the average interparticulate spacing [66], evaluated as:

\[
\lambda = \frac{1.085 \times 2a}{\sqrt{f_p}} = 5.83 \mu\text{m}
\]  

(2)

where \(f_p\) is the volume fraction of the particulate.

ZrB₂ with 0.5 vol% C had a toughness at room temperature of 2.9 MPa√m, but with the addition of ZrC, the value increased to 4.3 MPa√m. The estimated residual stresses are highly influenced by CTE mismatch and reported CTE values for ZrC vary from ~7 to above 8x10⁻⁶ K⁻¹ [62, 67-70]. Overall, the addition of ZrC to the ZrB₂ matrix enhanced the flexure strength and fracture toughness because of the CTE difference between the constituents.

The flexure strength and fracture toughness at elevated temperature are summarized in Table 2. Figure 10 shows the flexural strength and fracture toughness as a function of testing temperature. Strength did not vary significantly between room temperature and 1000°C, but decreased to about 330 MPa by 1800°C and then maintained roughly that strength up to 2000°C. The drop in strength above 1000°C has been observed for a number of carbides and borides [38, 71-74] and is likely due to the relaxation of thermal residual stresses [19].
Figure 10. a) Flexure strength and b) fracture toughness for ZrB$_2$-10 vol% ZrC as a function of temperature. Red circle symbols represent ZrB$_2$ with the addition of 0.5 vol% of carbon, which was used as reference material.

Neuman et al. [43] observed a similar trend for ZrB$_2$-10 vol% ZrC with a minimum value of the strength at 1600°C, even though the starting ZrC powder was coarser than in the present work. An additional mechanism leading to the strength degradation at 1400°C can be explained by the presence of the low-viscosity amorphous phase. The improved purity of the starting powders, and the low content of oxide phases, should not provoke any grain
boundary softening, which is typical, for example, of ZrO$_2$ [71]. Overall, addition of ZrC increased the strength of the ZrB$_2$ over the entire temperature range 25-2000°C. The strength decreased above 1000°C, but it is almost stable from 1600 to 2000°C, which is consistent with other reports of borides and carbidies. Compared to room temperature, fracture toughness increased to ~4.8 MPa√m at 1000°C, but decreased to a minimum of 4.1 MPa√m at 1400°C and 1600°C. A similar observation was reported by Watts et al. [19] for ZrB$_2$-SiC ceramics, which was attributed to relaxation of the residual stresses occurring due to the mismatch in the CTE values. Fracture toughness increased to 4.6 MPa√m at 1800°C and 4.4 MPa√m at 2000°C, which were both higher than the value at room temperature. The increase of toughness in the range 1600-2000°C can be attributed to plasticity of ZrC since Neuman [60] observed a plateau in the toughness of ZrB$_2$ from 1500 to 2300°C. It should be noted, however, that in Neuman’s work the grain size was >10 μm and this may have limited grain boundary sliding and, therefore, plasticity. The plasticity in the ZrC has been attributed to carbon self-diffusion by Lee et al. [30], who studied creep of single crystal ZrC$_{0.945}$ in the temperature range 1400-2000°C. They found that the activation energy for creep was comparable to the energy of carbon self-diffusion in single crystal ZrC$_{0.97}$, as reported by Sarian et al [35] and in polycrystalline ZrC$_{0.96}$ as reported by Babad-Zakhryapi [75]. These data support the hypothesis that dislocation motion is assisted by carbon diffusion and can be described with the model proposed by Kelly and Rowcliffe [39] for TiC that can be extended to all carbides with a NaCl structure [36]. This suggests that the addition of ZrC is effective in increasing the toughness not only at room temperature, as result of residual thermal stresses, but also at temperatures above 1600°C due to plasticity. Microstructures were examined before and after testing to find evidence of grain reorientation as a result of the stresses applied. As-sintered ZrB$_2$-ZrC ceramics did not exhibit any significant texturing or preferred orientation as indicated by the EBSD phase map as shown in Figure 11. The distribution of ZrC within the ZrB$_2$ matrix appears to be homogeneous and no grain growth was observed after testing at elevated temperatures within the limit of the resolution of the EBSD map (0.5 μm). The grain size of the ZrB$_2$ was 3.2 ± 1.9 μm and 1.4 ± 0.8 μm for the ZrC and both had aspect ratios of 1.5 ± 0.5. These values are compatible with estimates made from the SEM images in Figure 1. Based on the inverse pole diagrams, no significant grain orientation was observed prior to testing at elevated temperatures.
EBSD mapping was conducted on the tensile and compressive surfaces of the specimens fractured at 1800°C and 2000°C. After testing at 1800°C, the degree of orientation of the grains was not noticeably changed; however, preferential orientation of ZrC grains occurred in a narrow band within 20 μm of the tensile surface of the specimen tested at 2000°C (Figure 12). After testing, the grains were aligned with the <100> directions parallel to the tensile stress. No texturing was observed at any location more than ~20 μm from the tensile surface. It must be noted that this region has a slightly higher ZrC content (~1.3 vol%) than the bulk, which is consistent with the observation of carbothermal reduction of zirconia near the fracture surface.
Whilst ZrC grains became strongly oriented after testing at 2000°C, the ZrB$_2$ also showed a weak orientation of the [001] direction parallel to the tensile stress. Once again, this only occurred in proximity of the tensile surface.

![EBSD phase map](image)

**Figure 12.** EBSD phase map of the tensile region of a specimen tested at 2000°C. ZrC is the red phase and ZrB$_2$ is blue. The inverse poles show the magnitude of the preferential orientation of ZrC grains in different areas along the x axis.

**Figure 13** shows the evolution of the orientation for both the ZrB$_2$ and ZrC in the area close to the tensile surface. Following ASTM C1211, a relatively fast crosshead rate was used for testing at elevated temperature (4.0 mm min$^{-1}$ at 2000°C) to maintain linear-elastic behavior. Previously, this degree of orientation has only been observed during long duration creep experiments when the strain rate is low [76]; it has not been observed before during fast fracture.

The orientation of ZrC may be the result of several mechanisms acting simultaneously. One possibility would be that plastic flow could produce orientation where the stress is high.
enough, which could occur in a narrow region close to the tensile surface. However, the
direction type of orientation observed in a face-centred cubic lattice such as ZrC should be
$<-110>$ and not $<100>$ [77]. A second possibility is that ZrC grains adjacent to the
amorphous phase and ZrC formed by reduction of ZrO$_2$ can rotate and align along the $<100>$
direction, which is the same orientation of the planar growth terraces in ZrC. Under an
applied stress, which is maximized at the tensile surface, the terraces can rotate and align
along the $<100>$ direction. Another explanation is related to the cohesive strengths [78] of the
ZrC/ZrC, ZrC/ZrB$_2$, ZrB$_2$/ZrB$_2$ and ZrC/amorphous phase interfaces, which is that grain ZrC
rotation is observed at ZrC/ZrC and ZrC/amorphous phase interfaces because the
cohesive forces are lower than ZrB$_2$/ZrB$_2$ and ZrB$_2$/ZrC.

![Diagram](https://via.placeholder.com/150)

Figure 13. Orientation evolution with the testing temperature of ZrB$_2$ and ZrC grains on the tensile surface.

4. Conclusions

The mechanical behaviour of dense ZrB$_2$ - 10 vol% ZrC ceramics was studied from room
temperature to 2000°C. The addition of 10 vol% ZrC particles into a ZrB$_2$ matrix enhanced
the flexural strength over the entire range of temperatures compared to nominally pure ZrB$_2$.
The strength of ZrB$_2$-10 vol% ZrC was nearly 600 MPa from room temperature up to 1000°C
and it then decreased almost linearly with temperature to the minimum value of 330 MPa at
1800°C where it stabilized. The strength at 2000°C was 350 MPa, which is ~50% higher than
the strength of nominally pure ZrB$_2$ obtained by processing the same powders. Fracture
toughness was 4.3 MPa$\sqrt{m}$ at room temperature and increased to 4.8 MPa$\sqrt{m}$ at 1000°C
followed by a drop to 4.1 MPa$\sqrt{m}$ at 1400°C due to relaxation of residual thermal stresses.
The toughness increased to 4.4 MPa$\sqrt{m}$ at 1800°C and above due to the possible plastic flow
within the dispersed ZrC particles.

Microstructural analysis revealed that ZrC particles were both homogeneously distributed and
randomly oriented in the as processed ZrB$_2$ matrix. In addition, a residual amorphous phase
was observed adjacent to ZrC grains. Occasionally, zirconia grains were observed entrapped
in the amorphous phase. For specimens fractured at 1800°C and below, ZrC grains on the
fracture surface were randomly oriented. However, fracturing at 2000°C led to formation of
terrace-like structures with well-defined crystallographic orientation and ZrC particles
oriented with the $<100>$ direction parallel to the tensile stress within 20 μm of the tensile
surface of the specimens. At lower temperatures and away from the tensile surface at 2000°C,
no texturing was observed. This is the first report of plastic deformation and texturing of ZrC
during fast fracture.

Acknowledgements

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manager Ali Sayir) and the JECS Trust Foundation (Contract No. 201363-01)
Table 1. Microstructural, physical and mechanical properties of ZrB$_2$-ZrC ceramics at room temperature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual composition / vol%</th>
<th>Density / g cm$^{-3}$</th>
<th>Grain size / μm</th>
<th>Hardness / GPa</th>
<th>Modulus (static, dynamic) / GPa</th>
<th>Strength $\sigma_b$ / MPa</th>
<th>Toughness $K_{IC}$ / MPa$\sqrt{\text{m}}$</th>
<th>Critical flaw size / μm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ZrB$_2$ = 89.9</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>ZrB$_2$</td>
<td>4.7 ± 1.6</td>
<td>525 ± 17</td>
<td>596 ± 111</td>
<td>4.3 ± 0.5</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZrC = 9.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>ZrC</td>
<td>1.7 ± 0.7</td>
<td>515 ± 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C = 0.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Mechanical properties of ZrB$_2$-ZrC ceramics at elevated temperature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temperature / °C</th>
<th>Crosshead rate (strength, toughness)</th>
<th>Strength $\sigma_b$ / MPa</th>
<th>Toughness $K_{IC}$ / MPa$\sqrt{\text{m}}$</th>
<th>Critical flaw size / Y=1.59 - 1.99 / μm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>0.5, 0.03</td>
<td>563 ± 16</td>
<td>4.8 ± 0.4</td>
<td>28.8 - 18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1400</td>
<td>0.5, 0.04</td>
<td>400 ± 20</td>
<td>4.1 ± 0.5</td>
<td>40.6 - 25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1600</td>
<td>2.0, 0.05</td>
<td>378 ± 32</td>
<td>4.1 ± 0.1</td>
<td>46.5 - 29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1800</td>
<td>3.0, 0.05</td>
<td>330 ± 35</td>
<td>4.6 ± 0.1</td>
<td>76.6 - 49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>4.0, 0.06</td>
<td>350 ± 19</td>
<td>4.4 ± 0.4</td>
<td>61.2 - 39.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References


60. Neuman, E.W., Elevated temperature mechanical properties of zirconium diboride based ceramics. 2014.


