# **Influence of powder characteristics on gas**  pressure sintering of Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>

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The sintering behaviours of four kinds of  $Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>$  powders were investigated by dilatometry in 10 atm  $N_2$  at 1890, 1930 and 2050°C. The sinterabilities of powders were compared and discussed in relation to the powder characteristics. A large size distribution in the powder accelerated grain and pore growth at  $\leq 1800^\circ$  C, which resulted in the inhibition of further densification at  $>1800^{\circ}$  C. The presence of carbon in a powder prevented densification. A powder with a uniform grain size kept the microstructure of the sintered material uniform during sintering at  $\leq 1800^{\circ}$  C and gave a high degree of shrinkage at  $\geq 1800^{\circ}$  C. Densification at >1800°C was accompanied by the dissolution of equi-axial  $\beta$ -Si<sub>3</sub> N<sub>4</sub> grains and reprecipitation as elongated  $\beta$ -Si<sub>3</sub> N<sub>4</sub> grains from the oxynitride liquid. The relation between the densification and microstructure is discussed in terms of the relative rates of densification and grain growth.

## **1. Introduction**

It is known that the powder characteristics have a large influence on the sintering behaviour of  $Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>$ . W6tting and Ziegler [1] pointed out that the degree of densification in pressureless sintering depended largely on the particle size, oxygen and carbon content. Homma *et al.* [2] reported that the specific surface area and  $\alpha$ -content had a large influence on the density of sintered materials. Bellosi *et al.* [3] showed that a fine particle size was necessary to get high-density materials. To fabricate high-density materials by pressureless sintering [2, 4], larger amounts of additive's were necessary than for hot-pressing [5]. The influence of the powder characteristics on densification was masked when large amounts of additives were employed [1].

Gas pressure sintering has enabled sintering to be carried out at a higher temperature than hot-pressing or pressureless sintering by stabilizing  $Si_3N_4$  in a high nitrogen pressure [6, 7]. Therefore, the amounts of additives could be reduced to the same level as in hot-pressing. The results on sintering behaviour in 10 atm  $N_2$  revealed that densification occurred at about 1400, 1700 and 1900 $^{\circ}$  C. The first two processes were rearrangement and solution-reprecipitation of liquid-phase sintering. The processes were basically the same as in pressureless sintering. The  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$  phase transition took place during the solution-reprecipitation process. The contribution of the process was large enough to get nearly fully dense materials when a large amount of additive was used. In gas pressure sintering, additional densification took place at about

 $1900^{\circ}$ C when small amounts of additive were used. The densification at about  $1900^{\circ}$ C was also a solutionreprecipitation process accompanied by the solution of equi-axial  $\beta$ -Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> grains and reprecipitation as needle-like  $\beta$ -Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> grains [7]. It has been shown [8] that the strength and fracture toughness of ceramics are determined by the microstructure and fracture behaviour. The relation between the powder characteristics, densification behaviour and microstructure development during gas pressure sintering is not well understood.

In the present work, the densification behaviours of four kinds of powder were investigated using a dilatometer in 10 atm  $N<sub>2</sub>$ . The differences in the densification behaviour, density and microstructure of sintered materials were investigated in relation to the powder characteristics. The properties of a desirable starting powder for gas pressure sintering were also investigated.

## **2. Experimental procedure**

#### **2.1.** Starting materials

Four kinds of  $Si_3N_4$  powder were mixed with 5 wt %  $Y_2O_3$  and 2 wt %  $Al_2O_3$ . They were made by different preparation methods. Powder A was prepared by the nitridation of silicon (Starck, W. Germany, LC-10 grade). Powder B was made by the chemical vapour deposition method (GTE Sylvania, USA, SN-502 grade). Powder C was made by carbothermal reduction and nitridation of silica (Toshiba Ceramics Co., Japan). Powder D was made by thermal decomposition of

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*Figure 1* SEM micrographs of starting powders (see Table I): (a) A, (b) B, (c) C and (d) D.

 $Si(NH)$ <sub>2</sub> which was prepared by the reaction of  $SiCl<sub>4</sub>$ and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  at low temperature (Toyo Soda Co., Japan, TS-7 grade). The characteristics of the powders are compared in Table I. The average grain size was determined as that corresponding to 50% cumulative weight in the size distribution curve. The grain shapes of the powders are shown in Fig. 1. Powder B is composed of both spherical and needle-like grains. The other powders are composed of spherical grains. The size distribution was the most narrow in Powder C, as can be seen in the figure. The oxygen and carbon contents were the highest in Powder C. The amount of metallic impurities was the highest in Powder A.

## **2.2.** Sintering

The  $Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>$  powder and additives were mixed by ballmilling in n-hexane for 3 h using  $Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>$  balls and pot. After drying, about 3 g of the mixture was compressed in a steel die with an inner diameter of 16 mm under 19.6 MPa. The compact was then pressed isostatically under 196 MPa. The compact was heated at a constant heating rate of  $15^{\circ}$ C min<sup>-1</sup> and then kept at 1890, 1930 or 2050 $\degree$  C for 1 h in 10 atm N<sub>2</sub>. The densification curve was measured using a dilatometer [7].

## **2.3. Microstructural observations**

The microstructures of sintered materials were observed with a scanning electron microscope (SEM). The difference in the composition of the grainboundary glassy phase with difference of sintering temperature was investigated with Powder D using a 400 kV analytical electron microscope (STEM). The material obtained by hot-pressing at  $1700^{\circ}$ C was an example of material fabricated at low temperature. Hot-pressing was necessary to get high-density materials. Gas pressure-sintered material obtained

TABLE I Characteristics of starting  $Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>$  powders

Powder	Particle size $(\mu m)$		Specific surface	Impurities*			Phase ratio
	Range	Average	area $(m^2 g^{-1})$	$O(wt\%)$	$C(wt\%)$	Total metals (p.p.m.)	$\alpha/(\alpha + \beta)$ (%)
$\mathbf{A}$	$0.05$ to $5.0$	0.5		4. ا	0.1	1300	94
B	$0.1 \text{ to } 5.0$	1.3		1.5		240	$95^{\dagger}$
C	$0.2 \text{ to } 1.0$	1.2		2.0	1.1	130	95
D	$0.05$ to $1.0$	0.6		1.0	0.1	70	87

\* Data were supplied from manufacturers.

 $\dagger$  About 40% of the powder is amorphous.





*Figure 2* Linear shrinkage during heating at  $15^{\circ}$ C min<sup>-1</sup> and keeping at (a) 1890, (b) 1930 and (c) 2050° C. Powder  $(- - -)$  A,  $(- - -)$  B,  $(--) C, (-) D.$ 

at 1930 $\degree$ C in 10 atm N<sub>2</sub> was used as a specimen fabricated at high temperature.

## **3. Results and discussion**

The linear shrinkage during heating-up and keeping at given temperatures is shown in Fig. 2 for each powder. The highest shrinkage is obtained with Powder D, The lowest shrinkage is with Powder C at 1890 and 1930 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ , and Powder A at 2050 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ . The shrinkage rates are plotted in Fig. 3. It must be noted that the difference in the densification behaviour during gas pressure sintering at  $\langle 1800^{\circ} \text{C} \rangle$  is smaller than that at  $> 1800^{\circ}$  C. This means that the difference in the densification behaviour with the difference of powder characteristics is attributed to that at high temperature. The densification rate is higher with Powders B and D than with Powders A and C at  $> 1800^{\circ}$ C.

Nearly fully dense materials could be fabricated with large amounts of additives in pressureless sintering at  $< 1800^{\circ}$  C. It is known that the powder characteristics influence the densification behaviour very much when  $Si_3N_4$  is sintered in 1 atm N<sub>2</sub>. A phase change from  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$  has been observed [2] during

*Figure 3* Shrinkage rate during heating at  $15^{\circ}$ C min<sup>-1</sup> and keeping at (a) 1890, (b) 1930 and (c) 2050° C. Powder  $(- - -)$  A,  $(- - -)$  B,  $(--) C, (-) D.$ 





*Figure 4* Densities of materials as a function of sintering temperature. Powder  $(- - -)$  A,  $(- - -)$  B,  $(- -)$  C,  $(- -)$  D.

the solution-reprecipitation process. Microstructure development took place during the process, which determined the strength and fracture toughness of the sintered material. The requirement of high  $\alpha$  content in the starting powder was to optimize the microstructure [9]. The reason that the powder characteristics do not influence the densification behaviour at  $\langle 1800^{\circ} \text{C} \rangle$ in the present study might be related to the smaller contribution of the phase-change process compared to pressureless sintering. The difference in the densification behaviour at  $> 1800^{\circ}$  C is not directly related to the  $\alpha$  content in the starting powder because the  $\alpha$ phase had transformed to  $\beta$  phase at < 1800°C [6].

The densities of sintered materials and weight-loss values observed after sintering are shown in Figs 4 and 5, respectively. The materials with higher densities are obtained with smaller weight losses. A difference in density is related to that of the surface area [10], so a difference in weight loss might be attributed to that of the surface area of the sintered material. A weight loss is accompanied by the growth of pores from the surface of a compact [11], so a higher weight loss is



*Figure 6* Relative densities of initial and sintered materials:  $\square$  1890°C,  $\Box$  1930° C,  $\Box$  2050° C.

related to larger surface area and lower density. The relative densities of starting compacts and sintered materials are shown in Fig. 6.

The changes of density of materials as a function of temperature and heating time at  $1930^{\circ}$ C are shown in Fig. 7. The relations at 1890 and 2050 $\degree$ C are about the same as in Fig. 7. The sinterability is, of course, related to the final density of the sintered material, but it is easier to discuss it in terms of the initial density and the degree of shrinkage. Although the densification behaviour of Powder B is about the same as that of Powder D, the relation between the density and temperature or heating time is similar to that of Powders A and C as shown in Fig. 7. The main difference between Powders A, B and C is attributed to that of the initial density. Powder A has the highest initial density because of the wide range of particle size distribution. Powder B has the lowest initial density because of the presence of needle-like particles. Powder C is intermediate in density due to its uniform grain size. Powder A has the highest shrinkage rate at  $< 1800^{\circ}$ C as shown in Fig. 3. An analysis of grain boundary phases in sintered  $\beta$ -sialon with Y<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> addition revealed that Powder A gave a higher  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$ concentration than Powder D [12]. The increased amount of  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  at grain boundaries lowered the melting temperature and increased the amount of



*Figure 5* Weight loss observed after sintering. Powder  $(- - -)$  A,  $(----) B, (----) C, (---) D.$ 



*Figure 7* The change of density as a function of temperature and heating time at 1930°C. Powder  $(- - -)$  A,  $(- - -)$  B,  $(- -)$  C, —) D.



*Figure 8* Fractured surfaces of materials fabricated at 1890°C from Powder (a) A, (b) B, (c) C and (d) D.

grain boundary phase so as to increase the shrinkage rate. The lowest density of material from Powder B might be related to the lowest initial density and the highest weight loss. It is most likely that the highest weight loss is related not only to the highest surface area but also to the presence of chlorine and OH in non-crystalline materials. Powder C showed a small shrinkage. The reason is attributed to the presence of carbon in the starting powder [1]. It is expected that the carbon is not free and is reacted as SiC because it was well burnt in an  $O_2$  atmosphere. The reaction of  $SiC$  with  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  forms  $SiO$  and  $CO$  at high temperature, which results in a decrease in the liquid phase. The presence of a small amount of liquid phase is responsible for the small shrinkage and grain growth during the sintering of Powder C.

Powder D gives the highest density due to the moderate initial density and highest shrinkage at  $> 1800^{\circ}$  C. The metallic compositions of the grain boundary phases in materials obtained at 1700 and 1930 $\degree$ C are shown in Table II [13]. The calculated values are based on the assumption that surface silica on the  $Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>$  powder and  $Y<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>$  did not dissolve into the grains, whereas 80 mol % of  $Al_2O_3$  dissolved into the grains. The calculated and observed values are normalized by the yttrium content, because it is the most likely that all the  $Y_2O_3$  remains at grain boundaries. The Si/Y and A1/Y ratios in materials obtained at  $1700^{\circ}$ C are not so different from the calculated values. This suggests that  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $Y<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>$  remained at

grain boundaries and that most of the  $AI_2O_3$  dissolved into grains. The main composition of the grain boundary phase might be an oxide of the system  $SiO_2-Y_2O_3$ . i.e.  $8.1\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 5\text{Y}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 0.8\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ . The grain boundary phases in materials obtained at  $1930^{\circ}$ C have higher silicon contents than those obtained at  $1700^{\circ}$ C. The aluminium content might be inferred to be the same as in materials at  $1700^{\circ}$ C because of the relatively large error in quantitative analysis due to the small amount. The result suggests that  $Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>$  dissolved into the grain boundary phase at  $> 1800^{\circ}$  C. The composition should be  $8.1SiO_2 \cdot 1.8Si_3N_4 \cdot 5Y_2O_3 \cdot 1.3Al_2O_3$ . The calculated nitrogen content is  $5.0$  wt %. Although the presence of nitrogen in the grain boundary phase was not detected from the electron energy-loss spectrum (EELS), this may be due to the fact that the value is the same as the detection limit for nitrogen. The result reveals that the densification process observed at  $> 1800^{\circ}$ C is due to the diffusion of material through the increased amount of liquid phase. It is expected

TABLE II Metallic composition of grain boundary phase in sintered materials from Powder D

Sintering	Metallic composition (at $\%$ )				
temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	v	Si(Si/Y)	AI (Al/Y)		
1700	50.6	41.0(0.81)	8.3(0.16)		
1930	38.5	51.6 (1.34)	9.9(0.26)		
Calculated	55.4	34.8(0.63)	9.8(0.18)		

![](_page_5_Picture_0.jpeg)

*Figure 9* Fractured surfaces of materials fabricated at 2050°C from Powder (a) A, (b) B, (c) C and (d) D.

that the same reaction to increase the amount of grain boundary phase may occur in materials from Powders A and B, but the contribution of the hightemperature process is small because of the elongation of grains at low temperature as shown below.

The fractured surfaces of materials obtained at 1890 and  $2050^{\circ}$  C are shown in Figs 8 and 9, respectively. Fig. 9d shows that the densification at  $> 1800^{\circ}$ C is accompanied by the growth of needle-like  $\beta$ -Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> grains in an equi-axial  $\beta$ -Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> matrix. The fracture toughness of sintered material is increased by this "composite" microstructure. The increase in fracture toughness is related to the increase in the aspect ratio of needle-like grains [7, 8, 14]. The growth of needlelike grains is also detected in Figs 8a and b, where the relative density is fairly low compared to that of materials from Powder D. The solution-reprecipitation at  $\lt$ 1800 $^{\circ}$ C is based on the dissolution of small grains and overgrowth on large grains. The grain growth was accelerated by the size distribution [12]. The presence of larger amounts of  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  in Powders A and B might also be responsible for the grain growth. Sinterability is destroyed by the grain growth. The grain growth is also accompanied by the growth of pores as shown in Figs 9a and b. There is a critical pore radius over which pores do not shrink by sintering [15]. This might be the reason why Powders A and B did not densify appreciably at  $> 1800^{\circ}$  C.

Brook *et al.* [16] discussed the sinterability of ceramic powders and the effect of additives in terms of the ratio of grain growth to densification. They defined the factor

$$
\Gamma^* = \frac{\text{Grain growth rate}}{\text{Density}} = \frac{\dot{G}\varrho}{G\dot{\varrho}} \qquad (1)
$$

Where  $G$  and  $\tilde{G}$  are the grain size and rate of grain growth, respectively.  $\rho$  and  $\dot{\rho}$  are the density and the rate of densification, respectively. They observed that additives for  $A<sub>1</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>$  sintering decreased the  $\Gamma^*$  factor in the high relative density region, which increased the final density. Bellosi *et al.* [3] observed the  $\Gamma^*$  factor in the pressureless sintering of  $Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>$ . They revealed that the difference in  $\Gamma^*$  due to a difference in powder characteristics was small at 85% relative density, but it was large at 90% relative density. They attributed the difference in  $\Gamma^*$  to that of the viscosity of the liquid phase and the resultant microstructure.

In the present study, the shrinkage rate at a constant heating rate is obtained from Fig. 2. The relation between the density and grain growth was compared in Powders A and D. Powder A was a representative of the group of Powders A, B and C. The rate of grain growth during sintering of Powder A is larger than that of Powder D. Appreciable grain growth is observed at 70 to 80% relative density for Powder A, whereas it is not observed at 85% relative density for Powder D. For the evaluation of sinterability, the F factor is defined in present study:

$$
F = kl/\dot{g} \tag{2}
$$

![](_page_6_Figure_0.jpeg)

*Figure 10* Plot of F factor as a function of relative density for Powder  $(- - -)$  A,  $(- -)$  D.

where k is a constant, l is the rate of linear shrinkage and  $\dot{g}$  is the rate of grain growth. A qualitative representation of  $F$  is shown in Fig. 10 as a function of relative density. It is shown that Powder D had a higher  $F$  value at high relative density. This shows that the abnormal grain growth in materials from Powder A at low relative density retarded further densification. The growth of needle-like grains may occur when grains are covered with liquid phase completely and have enough space around the grains. The fact that needle-like grains are observed at low relative density in materials from Powder A suggests that there is a large inhomogeneity in the compacts. The large size distribution may be responsible for the local distribution of liquid phase. The growth of needle-like grains at low relative density results in the growth of pores and the retardation of further densification. On the other hand, the compacts from Powder D keep a uniform microstructure over a wide range of relative density. A uniform distribution of small pores retards the growth of needle-like grains at low relative density. The growth of needle-like grains is observed only when the relative density exceeds about 85%. It was concluded that it is necessary to keep the microstructure uniform up to about  $1800^{\circ}$ C to get highdensity materials by gas pressure sintering.

#### **4. Conclusions**

A desirable powder for gas pressure sintering of  $Si_3N_4$ with 5 wt %  $Y_2O_3$  and 2 wt %  $A1_2O_3$  addition should have the following properties:

1. High purity in terms of metallic and non-metallic impurities. The presence of impurities lowers the melting temperature of liquid phase which increases the rate of grain growth.

2. Spherical particles to give uniform and highdensity compacts.

3. A narrow size distribution to minimize the grain growth at  $\langle 1800^{\circ}$ C and at low relative density.

If the conditions are fulfilled, densification at  $< 1800^{\circ}$ C should not accompany appreciable grain growth. Densification at  $> 1800^{\circ}$ C through the increased amount of liquid phase should contribute to further densification. The growth of needle-like grains in a uniform matrix at the final stage of densification would give sintered materials with "composite" microstructures and high fracture toughness.

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