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A Critical Review of the Oxidation of $\rm Ti_2AIC, \ Ti_3AIC_2$ and $\rm Cr_2AIC$ in Air

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A Critical Review of the Oxidation of Ti_2AIC , Ti_3AIC_2 and Cr_2AIC in Air

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Of all the $M_{n+1}AX_n$ phases, the most resistant to oxidation in air in the 900–1,400°C temperature range are Ti₂AlC, Ti₃AlC₂ and Cr₂AlC. A literature review, however, shows that while many claim the oxidation kinetics to be parabolic, others claim them to be cubic. Whether the kinetics are parabolic or better is of vital practical importance. By carefully re-plotting the results of others and carrying out one oxidation run for \approx 3,000 h at 1,200°C on a Ti₂AlC sample, we conclude that the oxidation kinetics are better described by cubic kinetics and that even that conclusion is an approximation. Lastly, we present compelling evidence that the rate-limiting step during the oxidation of Ti₂AlC is diffusion down the alumina scale grain boundaries.

Keywords: Ti₂AlC, Cr₂AlC, Ti₃AlC₂, Oxidation, Cubic Oxidation Rate

Introduction The $M_{n+1}AX_n$ (MAX) phases are a class of layered, machinable, early transition ternary metal carbides and/or nitrides, where M is an early transition metal, A is a group 13-16 element, and X is C and/or N. These compounds are classified as thermodynamically stable nanolaminates having relatively high fracture toughness values (8-12 MPa/m), and yet are machinable, lightweight and relatively soft.[1-5] Some also undergo a brittle-to-plastic transition at temperatures above 1,000°C. Some aluminum, Al, containing MAX phases, notably Ti₃AlC₂, Ti₂AlC and Cr₂AlC show excellent oxidation resistance due to the formation of a dense and adherent alumina layer. These ternary carbides may prove useful in practical applications where high-temperature oxidation resistance in air is required. However, before they can be used it is imperative to be able to predict the oxide thicknesses that would form after long times at elevated temperatures. This is in turn implies that the oxidation kinetics be well understood and documented.

Literature Survey The first papers to report on the oxidation of the $Ti_{n+1}AIX_n$ phases were published in 2001.[6,7] In these papers, it was shown that the oxidation resulted in the formation of a rutile-based solid solution with approximate chemistry of $(Ti_{1-y}Al_y)O_{2-y/2}$, where $y \approx 0.05$ and alumina, Al_2O_3 (Figure 1(a)). At longer

times, kinetic demixing resulted in the formation of layers of rutile henceforth referred to as TiO_2 , Al_2O_3 and porous layers (Figure 1(b)).

The oxidation kinetics were initially found to be parabolic, but at longer times tended towards linear, implying that the layers were not protective over the long run. Using Wagner's formalism it was further concluded that the rate-limiting step was the inward diffusion of oxygen and the outward diffusion of titanium through the TiO₂ layer that forms. In other words, the oxidation reaction was presumed to be [6]

$$2\text{Ti}_2\text{AlC} + 7.5\text{O}_2 = 4\text{Ti}\text{O}_2 + \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + 2\text{CO}_2.$$
 (1)

The C was presumed to diffuse through the rutile layer and oxidize. As discussed below, when the oxide that forms is TiO_2 , the oxidation resistance is poor. Fortuitously, in many cases, the oxide that forms is Al_2O_3 , in which case the oxidation resistance is excellent. In the remainder of this paper, the discussion will deal exclusively with oxidation that results in the formation of dense protective Al_2O_3 layers.

Ti₂AlC. Following the initial work in 2001, there have been many studies that have explored the oxidation behavior of Ti₂AlC. In 2003, Wang and Zhou quantified the oxidation kinetics of Ti₂AlC as cubic by heating it in

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Figure 1. (a) Oxidation of the $Ti_{n+1}AIX_n$ phases results in the formation of a rutile-based solid solution with approximate chemistry of $(Ti_{1-y}Al_y)O_{2-y/2}$, where $y \approx 0.05$ and alumina, Al_2O_3 . (b) At longer times, kinetic demixing results in the formation of layers of TiO₂, Al_2O_3 and pores.[6] (c) Scanning electron microscope, SEM, micrograph of Ti₂AlC oxidized in air at 1,200°C for 2,873 h showing $a \approx 21 \,\mu$ m thick, coherent and fully dense Al_2O_3 layer which conforms to the corners of the sample.

air for 20 h in the 1,000–1,300°C temperature range.[8] In other words, they concluded that the oxidation kinetics were best described by

$$\left(\frac{\Delta w}{A}\right)^3 = k_{\rm c}t,\tag{2}$$

where Δw is the weight gain, A is the surface area exposed to the atmosphere, t is the time and k_c is the cubic reaction rate constant. In this case, the overall simplified reaction is assumed to be

$$Ti_{2}AlC + \left(\frac{3x}{4} + y\right)O_{2} = \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)Al_{2}O_{3} + Ti_{2}Al_{1-x}C_{1-y} + yCO_{2} \quad x < 0.5.$$
(3)

Here again, the C is presumed to diffuse through the Al_2O_3 layer and oxidize. A typical microstructure of a Ti_2AlC sample oxidized for almost 3,000 h at 1,200°C is shown in Figure 1(c). Note that the reaction layer comprises almost pure Al_2O_3 and that it conforms to the samples' corners.

In 2004, Sundberg et al. reported parabolic oxidation kinetics for Ti₂AlC up to 1,400°C in air.[9] In 2007, Byeon et al. reported that the oxidation kinetics were *cubic* in isothermal and cyclical oxidation tests at 1,000°C, 1,200°C and 1,400°C.[10] Contrary to their previously published work in which it was claimed that the kinetics were cubic,[8] in a recent review article, Wang and Zhou reported that Ti₂AlC exhibited parabolic behavior.[11] In 2011, Cui et al. reported parabolic kinetics for Ti₂AlC up to 1,400°C.[12] In 2012, Yang et al. reported cubic kinetics for Ti₂AlC at 1,200°C.[13] Basu et al. also reported cubic oxidation kinetics for Ti₂AlC in both air and steam in the 1,000–1,300°C temperature range.[14]

 Ti_3AlC_2 . The oxidation behavior of Ti_3AlC_2 has been less widely studied. In 2003, Wang and Zhou reported that

the kinetics were parabolic.[15] Qian et al. reported the oxidation kinetic to be parabolic, in the $1,000-1,300^{\circ}$ C range.[16] Lee and Park [17] reported that the oxidation kinetics were temperamental; some samples formed predominantly TiO₂ layers, others formed Al₂O₃ layers in which case the oxidation reaction is presumably

$$Ti_{3}AlC_{2} + \left(\frac{3x}{4} + y\right)O_{2} = \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)Al_{2}O_{3} + Ti_{3}Al_{1-x}C_{2-y} + yCO_{2}, \quad x < 0.5.$$
(4)

Needless to add, the samples that formed an Al_2O_3 layer were quite oxidation resistant. As noted above, when the oxide layers formed were TiO₂-based, the resulting oxidation resistance was poor.

*Cr*₂*AlC*. In 2007, Lin et al. reported that the oxidation kinetics for Cr_2AlC in the 800–1,300°C range were parabolic.[18] The overall oxidation reaction was surmised to be

$$28 \operatorname{Cr}_2 \operatorname{AIC} + 25 \operatorname{O}_2 = 14 \operatorname{Al}_2 \operatorname{O}_3 + 8 \operatorname{Cr}_7 \operatorname{C}_3 + 4 \operatorname{CO}_2.$$
(5)

In this case, a continuous Cr_7C_3 sub-layer formed between the protective alumina layer and the Cr_2AlC substrate (Figure 2). As discussed below, the presence of this sub-layer has important implications and ramifications.

At 1,300°C, the Al₂O₃ layer has a tendency to spall off and the oxidation resistance is compromised.[19] In 2008, Lee et al. further showed that the cyclic oxidation resistance of Cr₂AlC in air to be excellent at 1,000°C, good at 1,100°C, intermediate at 1,200°C, but poor at 1,300°C.[20] Hajas et al., in 2011, reported parabolic oxidation kinetics for Cr₂AlC thin films in the 1,230– 1,410°C range.[21] Most recently, in 2012, Li et al. explored the effect of grain size on oxidation kinetics of Cr₂AlC: coarse-grained (CG) samples exhibited cubic



Figure 2. SEM micrograph of (a) cross-sectioned Cr_2AIC sample oxidized at 1,200°C. The outer layer is a Cr-containing Al_2O_3 and the inner layer is Cr_7C_3 ; (b) of sample oxidized at 1,100°C for 35 h clearly showing Cr_2O_3 nodules (Gupta, unpublished results). This is the only MAX phase to show the formation of a carbide layer beneath the oxide layers formed during oxidation.

oxidation kinetics at 1,100 and 1,200°C, whereas finegrained (FG) samples were less than parabolic at 1,100°C and cubic at 1,200°C.[22] Also in 2012, Lee et al. showed that at 1,200°C, after a period of about 10 h during which there was an increase in weight, beyond that time the samples lost weight more or less linearly.[23]

Parabolic, Cubic or Power Law Kinetics The brief review of the literature of the oxidation of Ti₂AlC, Ti₃AlC₂ and Cr₂AlC makes it amply clear that most agree on one fact, namely the formation of an alumina layer is critical, endowing these compounds with their excellent oxidation resistance. When rutile forms instead, the oxidation resistance is greatly diminished. Where there is quite a bit of disagreement, however, is whether the kinetics are cubic or parabolic. This distinction is of outmost importance, because if the kinetics are indeed parabolic, then the long-term prognosis is not good. However, if the kinetics are slower than parabolic, e.g. cubic or even better, then the oxidation resistance would be good enough for practical applications. This is a crucial point that needs to be established beyond a reasonable doubt since many, following the lead of Wang and Zhou, also assumed parabolic oxidation kinetics. The same conclusion was reached in a recent review article [11] despite the fact that Byeon et al. [10] and more recently Basu et al. [14] clearly showed the kinetics to be cubic. More problematic is that most of the studies on the oxidation of Cr₂AlC to date claim parabolic oxidation kinetics, including a recent review article on this compound.[11,18-20,24]

In the remainder of this paper, we emphatically make the case that the oxidation kinetics are better described as cubic, and quite comparable for the three compounds. The latter conclusion should not be surprising given that a dense, cohesive Al_2O_3 -rich layer forms in all cases. We make our case using a two-pronged approach. The first is to re-plot some of the results of the early papers in which the authors maintained that the oxidation kinetics were parabolic and show that they can be better described by cubic kinetics (i.e. Equation (2)). The second is to report on the longest oxidation experiment carried out to date on Ti₂AlC at 1,200°C that clearly show the oxidation kinetics to be cubic or near cubic. Before proceeding further, we note that typically three laws have been used to describe the oxidation kinetics of alumina formation in literature: parabolic, cubic and power law given by, respectively,

$$\Delta x^2 = K'\left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right),\tag{6}$$

$$\Delta x^3 = K'\left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right),\tag{7}$$

$$\Delta x = K' \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^n,\tag{8}$$

where Δx is the oxide scale thickness (µm), $t_0 = 1$ s, K' is a constant and n is the power law scale growth exponent. In the following sections, we critically assess which law best fits the oxidation of Ti₃AlC₂, Ti₂AlC and Cr₂AlC.

*Ti*₂*AlC and Ti*₃*AlC*₂. When the results of Wang and Zhou reported in [15] for Ti₃AlC₂ are re-plotted as $(\Delta w/A)^3$ vs. *t* (Figure 3(a)) least-squares fits of the data resulted in R^2 values that were quite high (>0.998). The R^2 value for the parabolic plot given by the authors (Figure 2 in [15]) is around 0.98. In other words, their own results fit a cubic law better than a parabolic one. It thus makes more sense to assume the kinetics to be cubic.

Also plotted in Figure 3(a) are the results by the same authors reported in [8] for Ti₂AlC. This side-byside comparison makes it clear that the kinetics for both compounds are not only both cubic, but as importantly, of the same order of magnitude. At 1,100°C, the oxidation kinetics for both ternary phases are nearly identical as they should be if in *both* cases, a dense alumina layer forms. Given the latter, it is highly unlikely that the kinetics would be parabolic in one case (Ti₃AlC₂) and cubic (Ti₂AlC) in the other. This conclusion is further confirmed when the post-oxidation microstructures are compared. After 20 h oxidation at 1,300°C, the Al₂O₃ layer thickness is $\approx 25 \,\mu$ m in Ti₂AlC and $\approx 14 \,\mu$ m in Ti₃AlC₂. After 20 h at 1,200°C, the oxide





Figure 3. (a) Replotted results from the 2003 Wang and Zhou papers on the oxidation of Ti₃AlC₂ and Ti₂AlC [8,15] showing a linear fit when $(\Delta w/A)^3$ is plotted vs. *t*. Least-squares fit of the 1,300°C plot results in an R^2 value of 0.998, compared to 0.98 for the parabolic fit reported in the original articles. The compounds and graphs are color coded for clarity. (b) Oxide scale thickness (x) versus time for Ti₂AlC held at 1,200°C for >2,800 h. A power fit of the results shown yields a time exponent of 0.36, viz. cubic kinetics. Dashed line shows the Δx based on a parabolic rate constant fitted to the first 100 h of oxidation. The black square shows Byeon et al. results after 1000, 1 h cycles to 1,200 °C.[10]

layer thicknesses—at $\approx 5 \,\mu$ m—are almost identical for both compounds.[8,15]

Furthermore, Byeon et al. showed that when commercially available Ti₂AlC polycrystalline samples were heated in air, a continuous, adherent α -Al₂O₃ formed.[10] They also concluded that the oxidation kinetics were cubic.[10] The thickness of the layer was $\approx 15 \,\mu$ m after 25 h of isothermal oxidation at 1,400°C. Roughly, the same thickness was observed after 1,000 one hour cycles from ambient temperature to 1,200°C. In both cases, the layers remained adherent and protective (Figure 4(a)).

Similarly, recent results by Basu et al. [14] on the oxidation of commercially available Ti₂AlC samples also showed that: (i) the oxidation kinetics up to 120 h were *cubic*; (ii) there is little difference between oxidation in air and in a 100% steam environment up to 1,300°C; (iii) the activation energy was about 270 kJ/mol and (iv) the oxidation results in a continuous and stable layer of α -Al₂O₃, along with a thin surface layer of rutile in both environments. The thin TiO₂ layer, however, volatilizes by forming gaseous TiO(OH)₂ in the presence of water vapor at temperatures >1,200°C.

To help resolve this question, we conducted an isothermal oxidation experiment on Ti₂AlC at 1,200°C for >2,800 h. Samples were prepared by pouring prereacted Ti₂AlC powders (Kanthal, Sweden) in a graphite die that was in turn placed in a hot press and hot pressed, HPed, for 4 h at 1,300°C under a load corresponding to a stress of \approx 30 MPa and a vacuum of 10⁻² torr. The resulting fully dense samples were electro-discharged machined into smaller blocks (10 × 5 × 3 mm³) with a final surface preparation of 1 µm diamond suspension polish.

The initial dimensions and weights were recorded. Samples were then loaded into a box furnace and held at 1,200°C for 25, 100, 500, 1,000, 2,000 and 2,873 h. After almost 3,000 h, the resulting microstructure (Figure 1(c)) clearly shows the formation of a thin cohesive Al_2O_3 layer. After holding at 1,200°C for up to 2,873 h, the oxide layer reached a thickness of about 21 μ m (Figure 1(c)). Grain size was measured using the line intercept method on fractured surfaces (Figure 9). About 200 grains per sample were measured.

When Δx^3 is plotted vs. *t*, a straight line (not shown) is obtained. Least-squares fit of the results resulted in an $R^2 > 0.988$. To further confirm the cubic kinetics, a power law fit (Equation (8)) of the results (Figure 3(b)) resulted in the following relationship:

$$\Delta x(\mu m) = 1.2 \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{0.36} \quad R^2 = 0.99, \qquad (9)$$

where $t_0 = 1$ s. At 14μ m, the Al₂O₃ layer thickness observed after 1,000 h is in very good agreement to the 15 µm found after 1,000, 1 h cycles to 1,200°C conducted by Byeon et al.,[10] shown in Figure 3(b) as a black square. Based on these results and previous work, it is reasonable to conclude that the oxidation kinetics of Ti₂AlC are indeed near cubic. Table 1 summarizes the k_c values obtained from the various studies on Ti₂AlC, Ti₃AlC₂ and Cr₂AlC.

What is noteworthy and of great practical importance is the fact that even after this extended time at 1,200°C, no cracks were observed anywhere, not even at the corners (Figure 1(c)). One of the main reasons why the oxidation resistance of Ti₂AlC is as good as it is, and so resistant to thermal cycling, is the excellent match in thermal expansions between it and the α -Al₂O₃ protective layer that forms. Photoluminescence of the α -Al₂O₃ scale indicated that the residual stresses formed in that layer were compressive, a function of time and temperature and of the order of 500 MPa (Figure 4(a)).[10] Such residual stresses are considered low, and partially explain the high spallation resistance of the α -Al₂O₃ scale (Figure 4(b)).



Figure 4. (a) Magnitude of compressive residual stress within the Al_2O_3 scale determined from luminescence-shifts as a function of time of isothermal oxidation at 1,000, 1,200 and 1,400°C.[10] The residual stresses are compressive, a function of time and temperature, and of the order of 500 MPa which is considered low.[10] (b) Oxidation kinetics of Ti₂AlC are compared with other more established/commercial oxidation-resistant alloys. Note that if the very first oxidation cycle is omitted from the Ti₂AlC results, its oxidation kinetics are comparable to PM2000.[10]

Table 1. Summary of k_c (kg³m⁻⁶s⁻¹) values for the oxidation of Ti₂AlC, Ti₃AlC₂ and Cr₂AlC.

| Phase | 1,000°C | 1,100°C | 1,200°C | 1,300°C | 1,400°C | Comments and Ref. |
|--|--|--|--|--|-----------------------------------|--|
| Ti ₂ AlC ^a Ti ₂ AlC Ti ₂ AlC Ti ₃ AlC ₂ Cr ₂ AlC Cr ₂ AlC CG Cr ₂ AlC CG Cr ₂ AlC FG Cr ₂ AlC | $\frac{3.2 \times 10^{-13}}{3.3 \times 10^{-13}} \\ 5.6 \times 10^{-13}$ | $1.4 \times 10^{-12} \\ 1.9 \times 10^{-12} \\ 2.0 \times 10^{-12} \\ 1.7 \times 10^{-12b} \\ 2.8 \times 10^{-13b} \\ 7.5 \times 10^{-13b} \\ 4.4 \times 10^{-13b} \\ \end{cases}$ | 3.0×10^{-12} 1.0×10^{-11} 1.2×10^{-11} 3.2×10^{-12b} 3.8×10^{-12b} 9.7×10^{-12b} 1.47×10^{-11b} | $\frac{1.5 \times 10^{-11}}{5.1 \times 10^{-11}}$ 6.0 × 10^{-11} $\frac{2.9 \times 10^{-11b}}{3.2 \times 10^{-11b}}$ | 6. 3_ × 10 ^{-10b} | $\begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ Air [14] \\ 100\% H_2O [14] \\ \begin{bmatrix} 15 \\ 18 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ 22 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 23 \end{bmatrix}$ |

^aIn [8], the results listed in their Table 1 are wrong. The correct values, based on the results they show in their Figure 1(c), are listed here and are the correct ones.

^bThese values are calculated from the weight gain results reported in the original papers. In the original papers, k_c was either not provided or incorrectly reported as parabolic.

Figure 4(b) compares the oxidation kinetics of Ti_2AIC with other more established/commercial oxidation-resistant alloys.[10] We note in passing that commercially available Fe- and Ni-based Al_2O_3 -forming alloys have relatively high coefficient of thermal expansions, CTEs, and typically require reactive element additions to improve their spallation resistance.[25] Also note that if the very first oxidation cycle is omitted from the Ti_2AIC results, its oxidation kinetics are comparable to PM2000 (Figure 4(b)).

After heating Ti₂AlC to 1,200°C, and cooling to room temperature, Cui et al. identified twins and stacking faults bounded by partial dislocations by transmission electron microscopy, TEM, in surface TiO₂ grains.[12] These defects most probably formed as a result of the thermal stresses generated due to thermal expansion mismatches during cooling. Cui et al. also confirmed the formation of Al₂TiO₅ above 1,400°C following the reaction:

$$TiO_2 + Al_2O_3 = Al_2TiO_5$$
(10)

This Al_2TiO_5 layer was correlated with the formation of cracks upon cooling. These cracks were ascribed to

thermal expansion mismatches, and as importantly to the high anisotropy of thermal expansion of Al₂TiO₅. This compound has a CTE of 10.9×10^{-6} K⁻¹ along the *a*-axis, 20.5×10^{-6} K⁻¹ along *b* and -2.7×10^{-6} K⁻¹ along *c*. The formation of Al₂TiO₅ should thus be avoided as much as possible.

Using TEM, Lin et al. explored the microstructures of Ti_3AlC_2 and Ti_2AlC samples after oxidation in air for 10 h at 1,200°C.[26] An enrichment of Ti in the Al₂O₃ grain boundaries and Ti-rich precipitates in the Al₂O₃ scales was identified. They also showed that Al depletion at the oxide/substrate interface was *minimal*, indirectly confirming that the diffusivity of Al in the carbides is quite fast at these temperatures. These results again emphasize the close similarities of the oxidation behavior observed in both Ti_3AlC_2 and Ti_2AlC .

Crack Healing. Before discussing the oxidation of Cr_2AlC , it is important to review a remarkable property of Ti_2AlC and Ti_3AlC_2 , namely their crack healing ability.[27,28] Crack healing of Ti_3AlC_2 was investigated



Figure 5. After oxidation at 1,100°C in air for 2 h, crack healing of Ti₃AlC₂ is seen via SEM micrographs (a) showing the formation of primarily α -Al₂O₃, as well as some rutile TiO₂; Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy element maps of the crack region show concentrations of (b) Ti, (c) Al and (d) O as the alumina forms in the crack. (e) A schematic of the process according to Ref. [27]

by oxidizing partially pre-cracked samples. A crack near a notch was introduced into the sample by tensile deformation. After oxidation at 1,100°C in air for 2 h, the crack was completely healed, with oxidation products consisting primarily of α -Al₂O₃, as well as some rutile TiO₂ (Figure 5(a)–(d)). A schematic of the process is shown in Figure 5(e). The indentation modulus and hardness of the crack-healed zone were slightly higher than those of the original Ti₃AlC₂ base material. The preferential oxidation of Al atoms in Ti₃AlC₂ grains on the crack surface resulted in the predominance of α -Al₂O₃ particles forming in a crack less than 1 µm wide.

In 2011, the same group [28] revisited the oxidation of Ti₂AlC and carefully examined the morphology of the various oxide layers that formed both on flat and curved surfaces or cracks. They found that after oxidation at 1,200°C for 16–100 h, the α -Al₂O₃ particles that formed on flat surfaces were small ($\approx 1 \mu$ m), densely packed and columnar. Those that formed in the cracks or cavities, on the other hand, were more equiaxed and less densely packed. The rutile grains, however, exhibited a broad size distribution, ranging from sub-micrometer to 10 μ m. The authors also confirmed the presence of small TiO₂ particles at the α -Al₂O₃ grain boundaries first reported by Lin et al.[26]

Even more recently, the same group [29] showed that Ti₂AlC was capable of repeatedly repairing damage events. When the authors introduced Knoop indentations on the tensile side of Ti₂AlC flexural bars, the flexural strength dropped from 211 ± 15 to 152 ± 20 MPa. Heating the indented bars, in air for two hours, resulted in an increase in the flexural strengths to 224 ± 50 MPa, a value that was slightly *higher* on average than the virgin samples, albeit with larger scatter. Even more impressively,



Figure 6. Images of fracture and crack healing in Ti₂AlC: (a) Crack path after four cycles of healing at 1,200°C for 2 h, and subsequent fracture. (b) Crack path after seven cycles of healing, and subsequent fracture. The red arrows indicate the location of remnant crack parts. (c) OM image of a crack fractured eight times before annealing in air at 1,200°C for 100 h showing the complete filling of the crack. (d) Enlarged OM image taken from (c). Two opposite fracture surfaces were covered by the same Al₂O₃ layer and the gap between the two surfaces was fully filled by a mixture of Al₂O₃ (black) and TiO₂ (white particles). (e) SEM image of the healed-damage zone obtained using electron backscatter diffraction.[29]

after successively extending the same crack seven times and healing it between each fracture event, the fracture toughness dropped from $\approx 6.5 \text{ MPa}/\text{m}$, to about 3 MPa/m. It is important to note here that by the end of the seventh cracking iteration, the filled crack was of the order of 1 mm (Figure 6(a)). As in their previous work, Li et al. showed that the main healing mechanism at high temperature is the filling of the cracks by the formation of well adhering Al₂O₃ layers and some TiO₂ (Figure 6(b)-(e)). The authors write in their abstract: "Self-healing ceramics have been studied for over 40 years to obtain some performance recovery and to prevent material failure during service, but so far only materials with the capability of single healing event per damage site have been realized." They then proceed to show how Ti₂AlC is capable of multiple healing events.

*Cr*₂*AlC*. As noted above, the situation for Cr₂AlC is even more muddled, since most papers claim parabolic kinetics,[18–21,24] when as shown below they are far from parabolic. Figure 7(a) re-plots the results of Lin et al.[18] together with two power fits (solid lines), assuming cubic kinetics (dotted lines) and the parabolic rate constants reported by the authors (dashed lines). The power fits result in the following relationships at 1,200°C and 1,300°C, respectively

$$\Delta w(\text{kg/m}^2) = 1.4 \times 10^{-4} \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{0.34}, \quad R^2 = 0.986,$$
(11)

$$\Delta w(\text{kg/m}^2) = 8.8 \times 10^{-4} \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{0.25}, \quad R^2 = 0.977.$$
(12)



Figure 7. (a) Re-plots of the results of Lin et al.[18] together with two power fits (solid lines), assuming cubic kinetics (dotted lines) and the parabolic rate constants reported by Lin et al. (dashed lines) are shown. Cubic power fits result in time exponents of 0.34 and 0.25 for samples oxidized at 1,200°C and 1,300°C, respectively. (b) The same exercise in (a)—carried out on data by Lee et al.[23]—results in power fits shown by the solid lines with time exponent values of 0.24, 0.46 and 0.18 for samples oxidized at 700°C, 800°C and 1,000°C, respectively. With the possible exception of 800°C, the oxidation kinetics of Cr_2AIC are certainly not parabolic, and in most cases even better than cubic.

When the same exercise was carried out on some recent long-term oxidation (up to one year) results by Lee et al. [23] reproduced in Figure 7(b), the following relationships—shown by the solid lines in Figure 7(b) for samples oxidized at 700°C, 800°C and 1,000°C, respectively, were obtained:

$$x(\mu m) = 0.009 \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{0.24}, \quad R^2 = 0.91,$$
 (13)

$$x(\mu m) = 0.001 \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{0.46}, \quad R^2 = 0.98,$$
 (14)

$$x(\mu m) = 0.24 \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{0.18}, \quad R^2 = 0.99.$$
 (15)

Taken *in toto* these results make it amply clear that with the possible exception of oxidation at 800°C, the oxidation kinetics of Cr_2AlC are certainly not parabolic, and for the most part, not even cubic. These results are noteworthy because they confirm that at 700°C, 1,000°C and 1,300°C, the oxidation kinetics are significantly *slower than cubic*. In other words, the time exponents are significantly less than 1/3. At 1,200°C they are close to cubic. The results at 800°C are anomalous, and reflect either enhanced oxidation kinetics at 800°C for reasons that are unclear and/or experimental uncertainty. If the first point at 800°C is ignored, the exponent value drops to about 0.38, which is probably more realistic. This comment notwithstanding, more work at 800°C is needed to better understand the nature of this possible anomaly.

In the final analysis, the oxidation kinetics of Cr_2AIC , for the most, part cannot be fit adequately with a simple model for the simple reason that the kinetics are initially relatively fast, but then slowly decrease with time to the point where the oxide layers almost stop getting thicker. The best example of this state of affairs can be found in the results shown in Figure 7(b). After 30 days of oxidation at 1,000°C, the oxide thickness was $3.5 \,\mu$ m; in the next 330 days, however, the oxide thickness increased by less than 2 μ m.

Lastly, when all the results given in Table 1 are plotted on an Arhennian plot (Figure 8), it is clear that the absolute values of the cubic rate constants are comparable in the 1,100–1,200°C. However, at 507 \pm 90 kJ/mol, the activation energy for the oxidation of Cr₂AlC is roughly double the 250 \pm 30 kJ/mol for the Ti₂AlC and Ti₃AlC₂ compositions. Why the activation energies are so different is not clear at this time.

Note that the results listed in Table 1 all assumed cubic kinetics, when in some cases, as discussed above, the kinetics may not have been exactly cubic. The values listed in Table 1 are nevertheless useful because it is only by using them can the oxidation kinetics of the various materials be compared. However, for practical purposes where predictions of oxide thickness values at long times need to be made, the power law fits—with may be the omission of the first 10 or so hours—are to be used instead.

Implications of the Presence of Cr_7C_3 Layer after the Oxidation of Cr_2AlC Of more than 20 MAX phases whose oxidation response in air has been studied,[30–38] only one— Cr_2AlC —forms a carbide layer. This observation indirectly implies that for this compound C is *not* diffusing out as fast as the Al, which results in its accumulation at the substrate/oxide interface. This in turn implies that the alumina that forms on Cr_2AlC must be somewhat different from the one that forms on Ti_2AlC . Further evidence for the conclusion that



Figure 8. Arrhenian plot of cubic rate constants for Al₂O₃-forming MAX phases, Ti₂AlC, Ti₃AlC₂ and Cr₂AlC listed in Table 1.

the Al₂O₃ oxide layer that forms on Cr₂AlC is different than the one that forms on Ti₂AlC can be found in the over two orders of magnitude better corrosion resistance of Cr₂AlC to oxidation in the presence of Na₂SO₄, compared with Ti₂AlC or Ti₃AlC₂.[18] Lastly, a perusal of the results listed in Table 1 and shown in Figure 8 makes it clear that at all temperatures <1,200°C, Cr₂AlC has better oxidation resistance. Why this is the case is unclear at this time, but the dissolution of small amounts of Cr₂O₃ in the Al₂O₃ layer that forms when Cr₂AlC is oxidized [18,19,21,23,24] could play a role. Another factor may be the presence of small TiO₂ particles at the grain boundaries of the alumina that forms on Ti₂AlC.[6,8,10,13,14,26,29]

Note that the behavior of Cr_2AlC cannot be traced to the stability of Cr_7C_3 relative to TiC since the latter is significantly more stable. It is also unlikely that the anomalous behavior is associated with a low diffusivity of Al in Cr_2AlC since there is no reason to believe that the diffusivity of Al in Cr_2AlC is much different than it is in Ti₂AlC, which is fast enough to prevent any depletion of Al at the oxide/Ti₂AlC interface.

The presence of Cr_7C_3 , however, is quite problematic for the simple reason that if for any reason the protective alumina layer is breached, the oxidation of the underlying carbide at high temperature would, more likely than not, be catastrophic (Figure 2(b)). When this is combined with the fact at 1,200°C, scale cracking and spalling is observed and at 1,300°C, the oxidation resistance deteriorates quickly as a function of cycling owing to the formation of voids and scale spallation,[20] it follows that despite its excellent oxidation resistance, it is unlikely that Cr₂AlC can be used at temperatures much higher than 1,100°C or even 1,000°C. Note the propensity for spallation can be traced to the relatively high CTE of this compound ($\approx 12.8 \times 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$ [39]) relative to that of the protective alumina layer that forms. Comparison to FeCrAl Alloys It is well documented that grain size coarsening leads to a decrease in oxide scale thickness growth rates in FeCrAl alloys, where inward oxygen diffusion dominates.[40-45] Naumenko et al. have shown a near cubic rate power law dependence by correlating oxide grain growth with the scale thickness, with a time dependence exponent ranging from 0.35 to 0.37 in FeCrAIY.[41] Liu et al. [42] developed a mathematical model to explain the dependence of scale thickness on oxide grain coarsening, which was seen to follow a $t^{1/3}$ dependence in the scale layer in FeAlCrY, in good agreement with previous work by Whittle et al.[43] Quadakkers et al. have criticized the use of parabolic rate calculations for determining the oxidation kinetics of α -Al₂O₃ in FeCrAl alloys, showing instead that they are better described by near cubic time dependencies with a power law fit. [40] Smeltzer et al. showed that the decrease in grain-boundary diffusion paths over time limits the inward diffusion of oxygen during oxidation.[46] As the area fraction of short circuit paths decreases, there is an overall decrease in oxide scale growth rates. Unsurprisingly, as discussed in the next section, the alumina layers formed herein are similar to those seen in other alumina forming materials (Figure 9).



Figure 9. SEM micrographs of the fracture surface of Ti_2AlC after (a) 25 h and (b) 2,873 h at 1,200°C in air. Note clear increase in grain size with time.



Figure 10. (a) Oxide scale grain coarsening kinetics plotted with a power law fit. (b) A least-squares fit of d^m vs. t results in a straight line, where the intercept is equal to d_0^m . At 0.93 μ m, d_0 is sufficiently small to assume that at long times it can be ignored in Equation (19).[42]

Modelling of the Oxidation Kinetics In general, the scale thickening rate can be written as [47]

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t} = D_{\mathrm{eff}} \frac{\Delta\mu}{RT} \cdot \frac{1}{x},\tag{16}$$

where D_{eff} is the effective diffusion coefficient, $\Delta \mu$ the oxygen potential difference between the scale/gas and scale/metal interfaces, and *R* and *T* are the universal gas constant and the temperature in degrees Kelvin, respectively.

If one assumes that the oxidation kinetics are controlled by grain-boundary diffusion of oxygen, then [48]:

$$D_{\rm eff} = D_{\rm GB} \frac{2\delta_{\rm GB}}{r_G},\tag{17}$$

where D_{GB} is the oxygen grain-boundary diffusion coefficient, δ_{GB} the grain-boundary width and r_{G} the oxide grain size.

In general, grain coarsening kinetics can be described by [49]

$$d^m = d^m_0 + Kt, \tag{18}$$

where *K* is a constant, *m* is the grain growth exponent and d_0 the initial grain size. Combining Equations (16)–(18), it can be shown that at longer times [42]:

$$x^2 \approx K' \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{(m-1)/m},\tag{19}$$

where x is the scale thickness and K' is a constant (see [42]). It follows that if the assumptions made above are correct, then the following relationship applies:

$$n \approx \frac{(m-1)}{2m}.$$
 (20)

To test this idea we measured the grain sizes of the alumina films that formed on the Ti₂AlC sample that was oxidized for almost 3,000 h. The results are shown in Figure 10(a). Based on the least-squares fit of the results, $m \approx 3.23$. According to Equation (20), $n \approx 0.345$, which, coincidentally or not, is in excellent agreement with

the value of 0.36 derived from the results shown in Figure 3(b). Plotting $d^{3.23}$ vs. *t* (Figure 10(b)) results in a straight line fit, with intercept $d_0 = 0.93 \,\mu$ m, further validating the assumption—that d_0 can be ignored at longer times—made in deriving Equation (19). Whether this agreement is fortuitous or not must await the results of further work at different temperatures and different alumina forming MAX phases.

Summary and Conclusions The oxidation resistances, in air, of the MAX phases, Ti2AlC, Ti3AlC2 and Cr2AlC are excellent because, in most cases, a dense, spallresistant and protective Al₂O₃ layer forms. Of the three, and despite the fact that the oxidation kinetics of Cr2AlC at temperatures <1,200°C are slower than those of Ti_2AlC (Figure 8), for practical applications Ti_2AlC is by far the most attractive for several reasons that include: (a) the higher concentration of Al as compared to Ti_3AlC_2 , which is important because it increases the activity of Al at the substrate/oxide interface thus increasing the probability of the formation of the all-important alumina layer; (b) the excellent match between the thermal expansions of Ti₂AlC and alumina, which in turn minimizes thermal residual stresses and concomitant propensity of spallation; (c) lower density and (d) crack healing. Lastly, the fact that the raw materials for this MAX phase are some of the lowest costing of all MAX phases cannot be underestimated.

The formation of Cr_7C_3 upon the oxidation of Cr_2AlC is unique to this compound and implies that the alumina layer that forms is less pervious to *C* than the one that forms on Ti₂AlC, Ti₃AlC₂ and other MAX phases. The reason for this somewhat surprising result is unclear at this time.

At most temperatures, the oxidation kinetics are better described as cubic than parabolic. This comment notwithstanding, even cubic kinetics are an approximation. The best strategy to predict the time dependence of the alumina layer thickness is to fit the results to a power law fit. Lastly, by measuring the grain sizes of the alumina scale, we present evidence that the rate-limiting step is diffusion of oxygen and/or aluminum ions down the alumina scale grain boundaries. The agreement with power law equations derived assuming grain-boundary diffusion is shown to be quite good. Further studies at different temperatures with other alumina forming MAX phases are indicated at this time to further confirm these conclusions.

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