

# Pushing the grain size limit of pressureless-sintered alumina nanocrystalline ceramics by non-oxidizing atmospheres

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## A B S T R A C T

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Nanocrystalline ceramics are of interest due to their refined grains and expected ductility, yet their pressureless sintering is challenging considering the large coarsening driving force and the coupled densification-coarsening kinetics. Of special interest is the pressureless sintering of alumina nanocrystalline ceramics, with fundamental significance to ceramic processing science and technology. Previously reported efforts offered dense alumina nanocrystalline ceramics with average grain size  $G_{\text{avg}}$  down to 34 nm and with a coarsening ratio  $\beta$  (defined as the ratio of average grain size after and before sintering) of 7.2 from nanoparticles to dense alumina ceramics, by synergistically optimized  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles and pressureless two-step sintering in air. Here we further pushed  $G_{\text{avg}}$  down to 29 nm and  $\beta$  down to 5.8, by changing air to non-oxidizing atmosphere (e.g., N<sub>2</sub>, Ar, and vacuum). We identified pronounced difference in sintering kinetics in air versus in N<sub>2</sub>, Ar, or vacuum, which is unexpected for wide-bandgap, redox-insensitive oxide materials of alumina. With smaller initial nanoparticles (e.g., <3.5 nm) and better optimized sintering conditions, it may be possible to pressureless-sinter dense alumina ceramics with  $G_{\text{avg}}$  below 20 nm.

## 1. Introduction

Ceramics are brittle. Refining the grain size of dense polycrystalline ceramics to a few to tens of nanometers may enable grain boundary-mediated plasticity (e.g., grain boundary sliding and grain rotation) before the fracture event. In early explorations, Gleiter *et al.* showed that CaF<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystalline ceramics with an average grain size  $G_{\text{avg}}$  of ~8 nm could be plastically deformed at 80 and 180 °C, respectively [1]. Therefore, nanostructuring could provide a plausible pathway towards tough ceramics. Regarding the ceramic materials, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is among the most important and most useful ceramics. Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ceramics have high hardness, high strength, high temperature resistance, high thermal shock resistance, high wear resistance, electrical insulation, and low cost [2-5]. However, their too low fracture toughness and reliability narrow their usefulness [6,7]. Therefore, many efforts have been made to sinter Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystalline ceramics [8].

Fabricating dense Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystalline ceramics via pressureless sintering remains challenging, primarily due to the unavailability of

disperse ultrafine  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles and the rapid growth of grains accompanying the densification process, especially in the final sintering stage [8,9]. When the specific surface area is higher than 100 m<sup>2</sup>/g, or the particle size is less than 15 nm,  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> becomes thermodynamically unstable [10]. Thus it is difficult to synthesize  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles with sizes <15 nm. Recently, disperse ultrafine  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles with average particle sizes <10 nm have been successfully prepared in our laboratory [11,12], which makes it possible to sinter Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystalline ceramics with ultrafine grains under pressureless condition. Furthermore, the two-step sintering proposed by Chen *et al.* has proven to be an effective way for the preparation of nanocrystalline ceramics under pressureless condition owing to its ability to suppress the rapid grain growth in the final sintering stage [13,14]. Typically, from completely dispersed  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles with an average particle size of 4.7 nm as raw materials and through two-step sintering, Yang *et al.* prepared dense Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystalline ceramics with an average grain size of 34 nm in our laboratory [15], which represents the grain size limit of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystalline ceramics pressureless-sintered so far. The

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tricky problem is that the two-step sintering requires the first-step sintering at a higher temperature  $T_1$  to reach a critical relative density ( $\rho_c$ ,  $\sim 83\%$  for  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ), so grain growth during the first-step sintering is unavoidable, which also determines the final grain size of the sintered ceramics to a certain extent. If one could accelerate the densification to achieve  $\rho_c$  at a lower  $T_1$ , it would be possible to prepare dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics of finer grains by two-step sintering under pressureless condition.

In general, mass transfer during pressureless sintering of solid-phase systems is accomplished through three main pathways, i.e., surface diffusion, lattice diffusion, and grain boundary diffusion. Although surface diffusion-induced particle rearrangement increases the density of the samples in the initial sintering stage [16,17], surface diffusion is considered to be a non-dominant densification mechanism because it does not directly lead to an increase in the density of the samples in the intermediate and final sintering stage [18]. Lattice diffusion and grain boundary diffusion are the primary mechanisms responsible for densification in the intermediate and final sintering stage; and the latter is regarded as being dominant at relatively lower temperatures due to its smaller activation energy compared to lattice diffusion [19-23]. Considering the high sintering activity of nanoparticles (at typical sintering temperatures  $< 1300\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) and the large volume fraction of grain boundaries in nanocrystalline samples, it is widely accepted that the main densification mechanism of  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticle green bodies during pressureless sintering is grain boundary diffusion [6,8]. Coble reported that the dependence of sintering rate of oxides on sintering atmosphere was attributed to a change in vacancy concentration with changing oxygen partial pressure ( $P_{\text{O}_2}$ ). Additionally, the diffusion coefficient would be increased by increasing the vacancies of the slower diffusing species, which increases the sintering rate of sintered samples [24]. For  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics, the grain boundary diffusion is mainly dominated by slower oxygen atom diffusion [25]. Therefore, it is feasible to promote densification of  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles by introducing extra oxygen vacancies via changing  $P_{\text{O}_2}$ , which can accelerate oxygen atom diffusion and densify ultrafine-grained  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics.

Atmospheres with low oxygen partial pressure  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  can induce more oxygen vacancies in oxide polycrystals. So sintering in low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres such as Ar,  $\text{N}_2$ , and  $\text{H}_2$  atmospheres and vacuum have been reported to assist sintering in oxide material systems [26-29]. For example, Walker reported the effect of sintering atmosphere on sintering rate of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics and found that a higher density can be obtained in low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres (such as  $\text{H}_2$  and Ar) compared to air under the same sintering condition [27]. Kitazawa and Coble reported that the ionic transference number decreases from 0.21 to 0.01 as  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  increases from  $10^{15}$  to  $10^9$  atm in MgO-doped  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics [28]. Recently, Han *et al.* systematically investigated the effect of pre-sintering atmosphere (air and vacuum) on the densification process, microstructure evolution, and final optical quality of  $\text{MgO}\cdot n\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ( $n = 1.1$  and  $1.5$ ) ceramics; they observed that the samples sintered in vacuum show higher density compared to those sintered in air under the same sintering conditions [29]. However, as far as we know, the sintering behaviors of  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles in various sintering atmospheres have not been explored so far, due to difficulties in preparation of disperse ultrafine  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles. This missing gap has motivated our current study, and here we report for the first time the preparation of dense fine-grained  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics by pressureless sintering in low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres.

In the present work, we first investigated the sintering behaviors and kinetics of home-made high-purity, well dispersed, and ultrafine  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles of 7.4 nm average particle size in various atmospheres including air, vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar. The results show that the densification of  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles was significantly promoted by low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres without causing discernible grain growth. Further kinetic analyses revealed that sintered samples of  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles have lower activation energy of grain boundary diffusion when sintered in

low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres compared to air, and the possible reasons for this will be discussed. Then, in combination with a two-step sintering, a series of dense and fine-grained  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics were successfully obtained in various atmospheres. In particular, the average grain size of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics two-step sintered in  $\text{N}_2$  from 5.0 nm  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles is 29 nm, which represents the smallest grain size of dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics achieved so far by pressureless sintering.

## 2. Experimental procedures

In the present work, ultrafine  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles were prepared using ball milling followed by a corrosion-fractionated coagulation separation process, similar to the one employed in our previous works [11,12]. The micron-sized high-purity  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  particles were milled 20 h at 250 rpm using a ball to powder ratio of 10: 1 on a Fritsch P4 planetary ball mill (Fritsch, Germany). The as-milled powders were corroded using 12 mol/L hydrochloric acid (HCl) to remove the impurities (such as Fe and Cr) introduced through stainless steel milling jars and balls. Fractionated coagulation method was employed to separate disperse  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles with different average particle sizes. Only by changing the concentration of coagulation agent,  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles with different average particle sizes can be obtained since nanoparticles of different particle sizes have different critical concentrations of coagulation. In our present work, HCl solutions with different HCl concentrations were used as coagulation agent to achieve size-selective separations by refined fractionated coagulation. Typically, the corroded  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  particles were separated using 1.8 and 1.0 mol/L HCl to obtain 5.0 and 7.4 nm  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles, respectively. Finally, both the separated nanoparticles were collected using 12 mol/L HCl and dried at  $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 h. The uniaxial pressing of the  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles at 750 MPa for 2 h at room temperature resulted in green bodies with a diameter of 6 mm, a thickness of 0.5 mm, and a relative density of 60%. The green bodies of 7.4 nm  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles were used to study their sintering behaviors and kinetics in various atmospheres. Four kinds of atmospheres including air, vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar were employed in pressureless sintering. The vacuum sintering was performed in vacuum of  $\sim 5 \times 10^4$  Pa ( $P_{\text{O}_2} \approx 1 \times 10^4$  Pa) and  $\sim 50$  Pa ( $P_{\text{O}_2} \approx 10.5$  Pa). The high-purity  $\text{N}_2$  and Ar ( $> 99.999\%$ ,  $P_{\text{O}_2} \approx 0.02$  Pa) of ambient atmospheric pressure were used in  $\text{N}_2$  and Ar sinterings. Finally, 5.0 nm  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles were used to prepare dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic in  $\text{N}_2$ .

In this study, two types of pressureless sintering schedules were conducted in different atmospheres: (i) Constant-heating-rate sintering without holding: the green bodies were heated to predetermined temperatures ranging from 700 to 1200  $^\circ\text{C}$  at  $10\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$  without holding, followed by immediately cooling down to room temperature at  $5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . This schedule was utilized to study the sintering behaviors and kinetics and to explore the appropriate first-step sintering temperature for subsequent two-step sintering. (ii) Two-step sintering: the green bodies were firstly heated at  $10\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$  to a higher first-step sintering temperature  $T_1$  without holding, then immediately cooled down to a lower second-step sintering temperature  $T_2$  at  $5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ , held for certain durations at  $T_2$ , and finally cooled down to room temperature at  $5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . This sintering trajectory was utilized for the preparation of dense fine-grained  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics. The densities of both the green bodies and sintered samples were measured using the geometry method for relative densities  $\rho < 80\%$  theoretical density or Archimedes' method for  $\rho > 80\%$ . A density value of  $3.96\text{ g}/\text{cm}^3$  for  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  was used to calculate the relative density  $\rho$  (in consistency with our previous works [6,15,30,31]). Densification rates  $d\rho/dt$  in constant-heating-rate experiments were determined based on the average slopes between each sintering data point and its two neighboring data points in the  $\rho$ - $t$  plot.

The phase of the  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles was analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) on a D/max-2400 diffractometer (Rigaku, Japan)

using Cu  $K_{\alpha}$  radiation. The morphologies of  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles and sintered samples (with grain sizes <20 nm) were characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) on an FEI Tecnai G2 F30 electron microscope (FEI, USA) operated at an accelerating voltage of 300 kV. The inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) was applied to analyze the compositions of  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles on an IRIS Advantage spectrometer (Thermo Jarrell Ash, USA). The fracture surfaces of sintered samples (with grain sizes >20 nm) were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) on a Hitachi SU8010 electron microscope (Hitachi, Japan) operated at 15 kV. Particle/grain size distributions and average particle/grain sizes were statistically determined from over 500 particles/grains observed by TEM and/or SEM in difference areas of the samples. Vickers microhardness tests were conducted on the almost dense Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystalline ceramics sintered in N<sub>2</sub> after polishing, under 500 g (4.91 N) load with 10 s duration on a HYHVS-1000T Vickers Microhardness Tester (Wuyi Hengyu, China). Typically, the average microhardness values were determined by measuring over 5 tests and the distance between the two indentations was set larger than 500  $\mu$ m. After testing, the lengths of the diagonals of the indentations on the surface were observed by SEM and the microhardness  $H_V$  was calculated using [32]

$$H_V = 1854.4 \frac{P}{d^2} \quad (1)$$

where  $H_V$  is the microhardness in GPa,  $P$  presents the applied load in N, and  $d$  is the average of the diagonal lengths of indentations in  $\mu$ m. Fracture toughness  $K_{Ic}$  was also evaluated based on the indentation morphology using the following equation [33],

$$K_{Ic} = 0.016 \left( \frac{E}{H_V} \right)^{0.5} \frac{P}{c^{1.5}} \quad (2)$$

where  $E$  is the elastic modulus of the material (380 GPa for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [34]), and  $c$  presents the half-length of the cracks of indentations ( $\mu$ m).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Synthesized nanoparticles

The  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles separated at 1.0 mol/L HCl were characterized using XRD and TEM, and the results are presented in Fig. 1. The XRD pattern in Fig. 1a matches well the pattern of  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (JCPDS No. 75-1862) [35], indicating that the nanoparticles are pure  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> phase. The broadening of the diffraction peaks implies that the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles have fine grains [15]. The TEM image in Fig. 1b demonstrates that the nanoparticles are dispersed, ultrafine in size, and equiaxial in

shape. The particle size distribution in Fig. 1c reveals that the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles have a narrow size distribution of 3–12 nm, a small standard deviation  $\sigma$  (0.23) of the normalized particle/grain size distribution, and an average particle size of 7.4 nm. The ICP-AES results in Table 1 reveals that the Fe and Cr impurities are only 0.049 and 0.008 wt % of the total mass, respectively. These results correspond to a purity of 99.943 % Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (mass percent) of the ultrafine  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles.

#### 3.2. Constant-heating-rate sintering without holding

It is worth noting that the corrosion methodology used to prepare fine nanoparticles will introduce nonequilibrium defects at the surface of the nanoparticles. These defects could influence the sintering and densification behaviors of ceramics. In particular, the presence of massive nonequilibrium defects may alter the surface energy and reactivity of the nanoparticles, affecting their sintering behavior during densification. To compare the sintering behaviors of 7.4 nm  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles in air and low  $P_{O_2}$  atmospheres (vacuum (~50 Pa), N<sub>2</sub>, and Ar), the constant-heating-rate sintering experiments without holding were performed. The typical SEM images of partially and/or fully sintered Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ceramics are shown in Fig. 2, and the  $\sigma$  of the sintered samples are also inserted. The obtained relative density  $\rho$ , densification rate  $d\rho/dt$ , and average grain size  $G_{avg}$  results of all the sintered samples as a function of sintering temperature are plotted in Fig. 3. It can be found from Fig. 2 that a uniform microstructure with equiaxial grains appear in all samples, indicating no abnormal grain growth at  $T \leq 1200$  °C in all atmospheres. When sintered at 1000 °C, the samples all have significant porosity and a similar average grain size of about 34 nm, which is not strongly dependent on the sintering atmospheres (Fig. 2a–d). As the sintering temperature increases from 1000 to 1100 °C, the samples sintered in different atmospheres show different volumes of pores but still have similar average grain size of about 52 nm (Fig. 2e–h). The sample sintered in air has a large number of pores (Fig. 2e). In contrast, the samples sintered in N<sub>2</sub> and Ar contain only a few pores (Fig. 2g and h). After sintering at 1200 °C, there are no visible pores present in any samples (indicating nearly full density achieved). All sintered Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> samples still have a similar average grain size of about

**Table 1**  
ICP-AES results of 7.4 nm  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles.

| Element | Concentration (mg/L) | Mass% of cations | Mass% of total | Cations % |
|---------|----------------------|------------------|----------------|-----------|
| Al      | 401.29               | 99.893           | 52.893         | 99.947    |
| Fe      | 0.37                 | 0.093            | 0.049          | 0.045     |
| Cr      | 0.06                 | 0.014            | 0.008          | 0.008     |

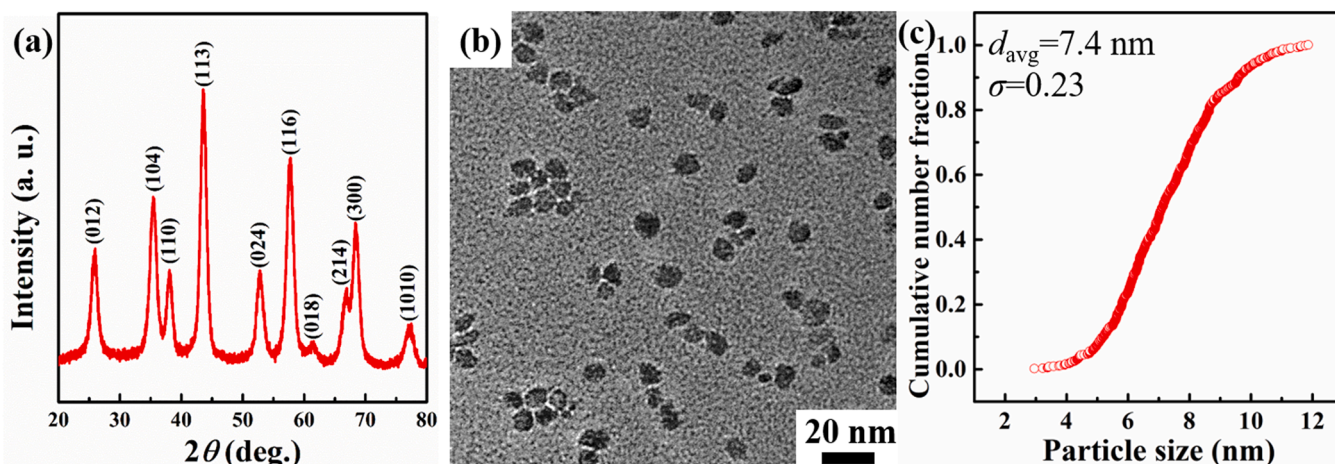


Fig. 1. XRD pattern (a), TEM image (b), and particle size distribution (c) of the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles separated at 1.0 mol/L HCl.

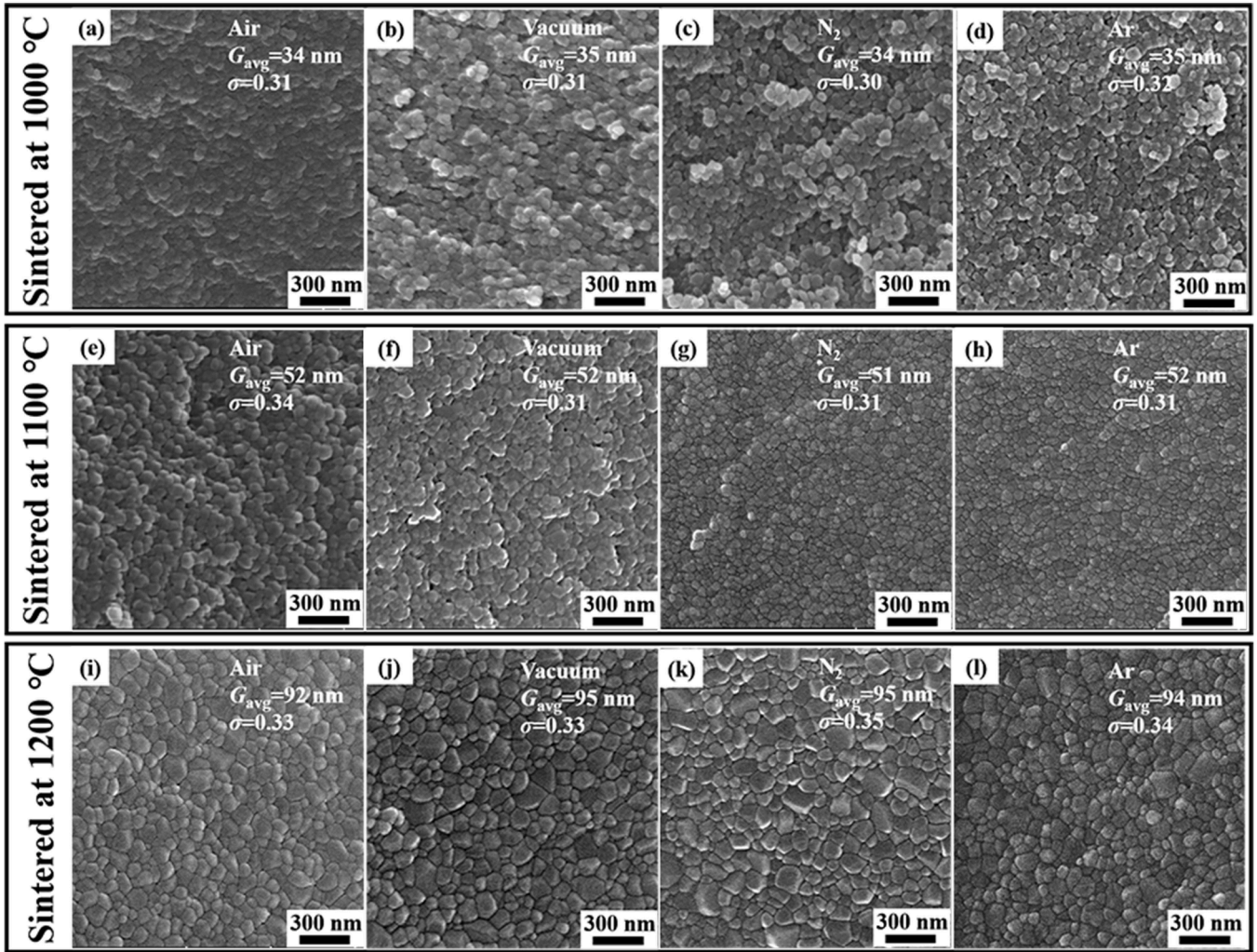


Fig. 2. SEM images of 7.4 nm green bodies sintered at 1000, 1100, and 1200 °C without holding in air (a, e, and i), vacuum (b, f, and j), N<sub>2</sub> (c, g, and k), and Ar (d, h, and l).

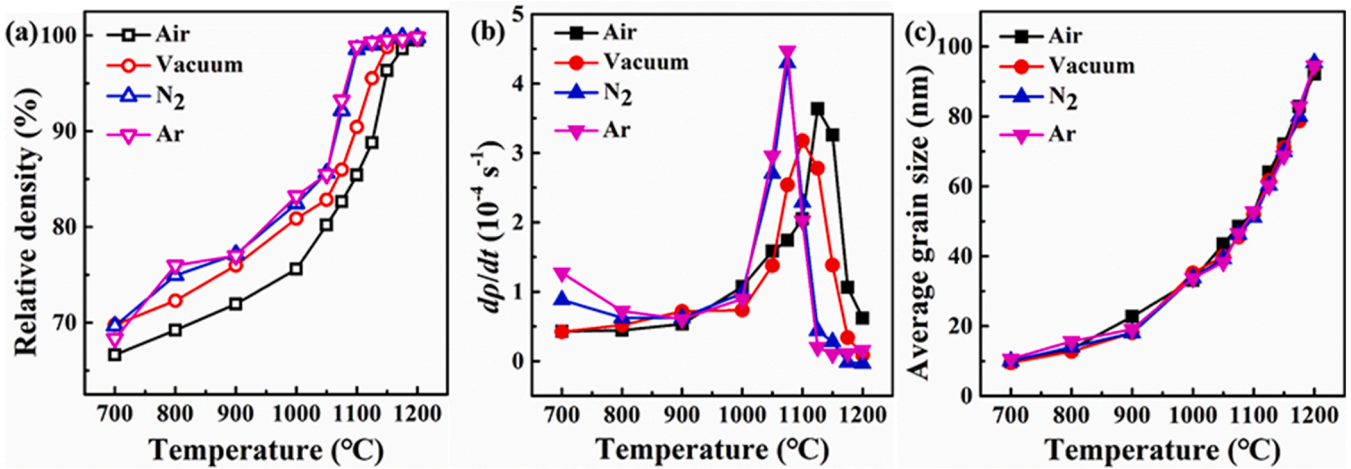


Fig. 3. Sintering curves of the green bodies of the 7.4 nm  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles in constant-heating-rate sintering experiments without holding in different atmospheres: relative density (a), densification rate  $dp/dt$  (b), and average grain size (c) as a function of sintering temperature.

95 nm (Fig. 2i-l).

Fig. 3 illustrates the sintering curves of the green bodies of the 7.4 nm  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles in the constant-heating-rate sintering

experiments. We found that the densification of the green bodies is substantially influenced by the sintering atmospheres. At the same sintering temperature, the relative densities of the samples sintered in air

are notably lower than those sintered in vacuum, N<sub>2</sub>, and Ar. The sintering temperature at which the sample reaches nearly complete densification ( $\rho=99.1\%$ ) is 1200 °C in air whereas the temperatures for nearly complete densification in vacuum ( $\rho=98.8\%$ ), N<sub>2</sub> ( $\rho=98.5\%$ ), and Ar ( $\rho=98.9\%$ ) are 1150, 1100, and 1100 °C, respectively (Fig. 3a). It should be noted that the temperatures for nearly complete densification of the 7.4 nm  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles are much lower than that of micron or submicron-sized  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> particles (>1400 °C). This indicates that our 7.4 nm  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles exhibit superior sinterability. The above results manifest that vacuum, N<sub>2</sub>, and Ar with low  $P_{O_2}$  promote the densification of  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles. This can also be seen from the variation curves of the densification rate  $d\rho/dt$  with sintering temperature in Fig. 3b. The fastest densification occurs at ~1125 °C for sintering in air ( $\sim 3.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) while the fastest densification appears at ~1100, ~1075, and ~1075 °C for sintering in vacuum ( $\sim 3.2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), N<sub>2</sub> ( $\sim 4.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), and Ar ( $\sim 4.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), respectively. Interestingly, though the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles exhibit different densification behaviors in different atmospheres (Fig. 3a and b), all the samples sintered at the same temperature but in different atmospheres have similar average grain sizes, as shown by the  $G_{\text{avg}}$  versus sintering temperature curves in Fig. 3c. This implies that unlike the densification behavior, the grain growth of the green bodies of the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles may not be strongly dependent on sintering atmospheres.

The sintering trajectories ( $G_{\text{avg}}-\rho$  plots) of the 7.4 nm  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles in various sintering atmospheres are plotted in Fig. 4. Obviously, all  $G_{\text{avg}}-\rho$  trajectories exhibit a similar path.  $G_{\text{avg}}$  increases almost linearly with  $\rho$  in the  $\rho < \sim 96\%$  range, followed by a rapid grain growth in the  $\rho > \sim 96\%$  range. This is consistent with the phenomenon observed in the sintering experiments of the 4.7 nm  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles in our previous work [15]. The similarity of the sintering trajectories suggests that the low  $P_{O_2}$  atmospheres do not change the densification mechanism of  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles, namely, the dominant densification mechanism of  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles remains grain boundary diffusion when sintered in air, vacuum, N<sub>2</sub>, and Ar.

### 3.3. Sintering kinetics from constant-heating-rate experiments

It is reasonable to assume that the grain boundary diffusion is the

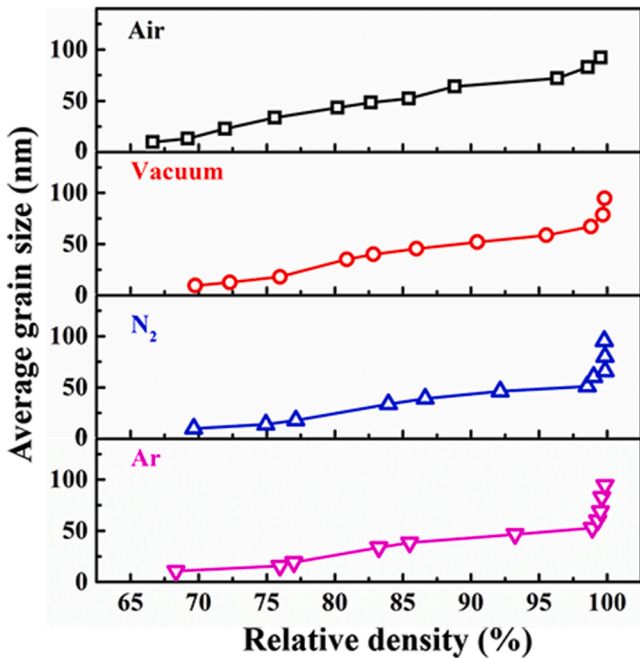


Fig. 4. Average grain size-relative density sintering trajectories of the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> samples sintered in air, vacuum, N<sub>2</sub>, and Ar.

main densification mechanism for sintering our ultrafine  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles based on the sintering results (fine grains <100 nm obtained at low temperature  $\leq 1200$  °C). The sintering kinetics of the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles in different atmospheres were investigated by means of two well-established classical models combined with the constant-heating-rate sintering data in Section 3.2. The first model is that proposed by Johnson and later on adapted by Young and Cutler [36] using the following sintering equation,

$$\left(\frac{\Delta L}{L_0}\right)^{2.06} \frac{d(\Delta L/L_0)}{dt} = \frac{11.2\gamma\Omega\delta D_{\text{GB}}}{k_{\text{B}}TG_{\text{avg}}^4} \quad (3)$$

where  $\Delta L/L_0$  is the linear shrinkage ( $L_0$  and  $\Delta L$  are the initial thickness and change in thickness of green bodies during sintering, respectively, which were measured five times using micrometer (0.001 mm in precision, Sanliang, Japan) on each sample and took an average),  $t$  is the time,  $\gamma$  is the grain boundary energy (1.97 J/m<sup>2</sup> for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) [37],  $\Omega$  is the atomic volume ( $4.28 \times 10^{-29} \text{ m}^3$  for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>),  $\delta$  is the grain boundary thickness (1 nm, as observed in our previous study [15]),  $D_{\text{GB}}$  is the grain boundary diffusion coefficient,  $k_{\text{B}}$  is the Boltzmann constant,  $T$  is the absolute temperature, and  $G_{\text{avg}}$  is the average grain size. The sintering data above 1000 °C in air, above 900 °C in vacuum, and above 800 °C in N<sub>2</sub> and in Ar with  $75\% < \rho < 90\%$  (where major sintering event takes place) were analyzed using Johnson's model. The calculated  $D_{\text{GB}}$  and the fitted grain boundary diffusion activation energy  $E_a$  (via the Arrhenius equation, i.e.,  $D_{\text{GB}} = D_{\text{GB},0} \exp(-E_a/RT)$ ) are plotted in Fig. 5a and listed in Table 2, respectively. For the sintering in air, the fitted  $E_a$  is 5.10 eV. For the vacuum sintering,  $E_a$  is 4.32 eV. For the N<sub>2</sub> sintering,  $E_a$  is 3.31 eV. And for the Ar sintering,  $E_a$  is 3.06 eV.

We then analyzed the sintering kinetics by the sintering model proposed by Herring [38],

$$\frac{d\rho}{\rho dt} = F(\rho) \frac{3\gamma\Omega\delta D_{\text{GB}}}{k_{\text{B}}TG_{\text{avg}}^4} \quad (4)$$

where  $F(\rho) \approx 12,000$  for  $75\% < \rho < 85\%$  under Hansen's assumption [39]. The calculated  $D_{\text{GB}}$  and the fitted  $E_a$  are plotted in Fig. 5b and listed in Table 2, respectively. For the air sintering, the fitted  $E_a$  is 3.73 eV.  $E_a$  for the vacuum sintering is 3.52 eV.  $E_a$  for the N<sub>2</sub> sintering is 2.51 eV. And  $E_a$  for the Ar sintering is 2.58 eV. Although there exists some dissimilarity in the  $E_a$  values obtained by the Johnson's and Herring's models (the  $E_a$  obtained through the Johnson's are larger than those from the Herring's model, which is consistent with the phenomenon reported in literature [30,31,40,41]), it can be found from Table 2 that (1) the  $E_a$  values (5.10 eV for Johnson's model and 3.73 eV for Herring's model) obtained from the air sintering data are similar to the air sintering results reported in literature (in the range of 5.14–6.16 eV for Johnson's model and 3.54–4.58 eV for Herring's model for  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> sintered in air). (2) The  $E_a$  values of the samples sintered in vacuum (4.32 eV for Johnson's model and 3.52 eV for Herring's model), N<sub>2</sub> (3.31 eV for Johnson's model and 2.51 eV for Herring's model), and Ar (3.06 eV for Johnson's model and 2.58 eV for Herring's model) are obviously smaller than those sintered in air, which is consistent with the low sintering temperature required to reach full density and implies high sinterability in vacuum, N<sub>2</sub>, and Ar atmospheres.

### 3.4. Two-step sintering

Fully dense Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystalline samples with an average grain size of  $G_{\text{avg}}=51$  nm can be prepared in N<sub>2</sub> via constant-heating-rate sintering without holding at 1100 °C (Fig. 2g), from the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles with an average particle size of 7.4 nm. To inhibit rapid grain growth in the final sintering stage and obtain fully dense Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystalline ceramics with average grain sizes  $G_{\text{avg}} < 50$  nm, two-step sintering was utilized and optimized. In two-step sintering, the green bodies were firstly heated to a higher first-step sintering temperature  $T_1$  without

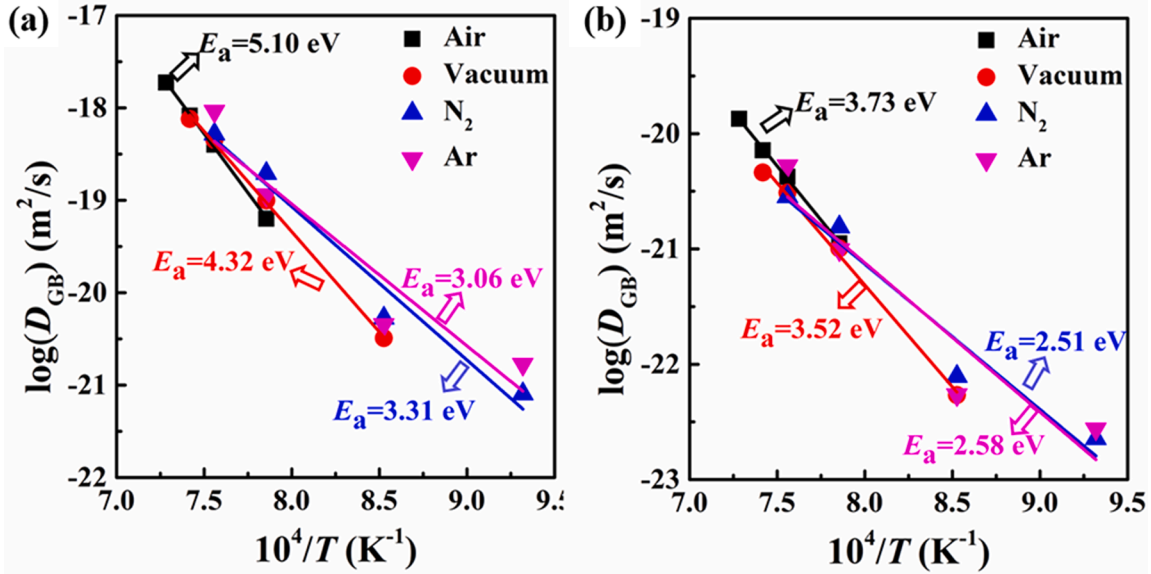


Fig. 5. Arrhenius plots of grain boundary diffusivity values in different atmospheres calculated by Johnson's model (a) and Herring's model (b).

Table 2

Calculated activation energies for grain boundary diffusion in  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics using pressureless sintering data in different atmospheres in our present work and reported in literatures.

| Average particle size | Activation energy $E_a$ (eV) |                 | Atmosphere (Reference) |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|
|                       | Johnson's model              | Herring's model |                        |
| 7.4 nm                | 5.10                         | 3.73            | Air                    |
| 7.4 nm                | 4.32                         | 3.52            | Vacuum                 |
| 7.4 nm                | 3.31                         | 2.51            | $\text{N}_2$           |
| 7.4 nm                | 3.06                         | 2.58            | Ar                     |
| 4.5 nm                | 5.14                         | 3.99            | Air [30]               |
| 4.7 nm                | 5.22                         | 3.75            | Air [31]               |
| 9.0 nm                | 5.09                         | 3.54            | Air [40]               |
| 16 nm                 | 6.16                         | 4.58            | Air [41]               |
| 62 nm                 | 5.40                         | 3.87            | Air [41]               |

holding to achieve the critical relative density  $\rho_c$  (at  $\rho_c$  the pores are in a thermodynamically unstable state;  $\rho_c \sim 83\%$  for  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  [6,15,31]) and then cooled to a lower second-step sintering temperature  $T_2$ , and held at  $T_2$  for some duration to reach full density without significant grain growth.

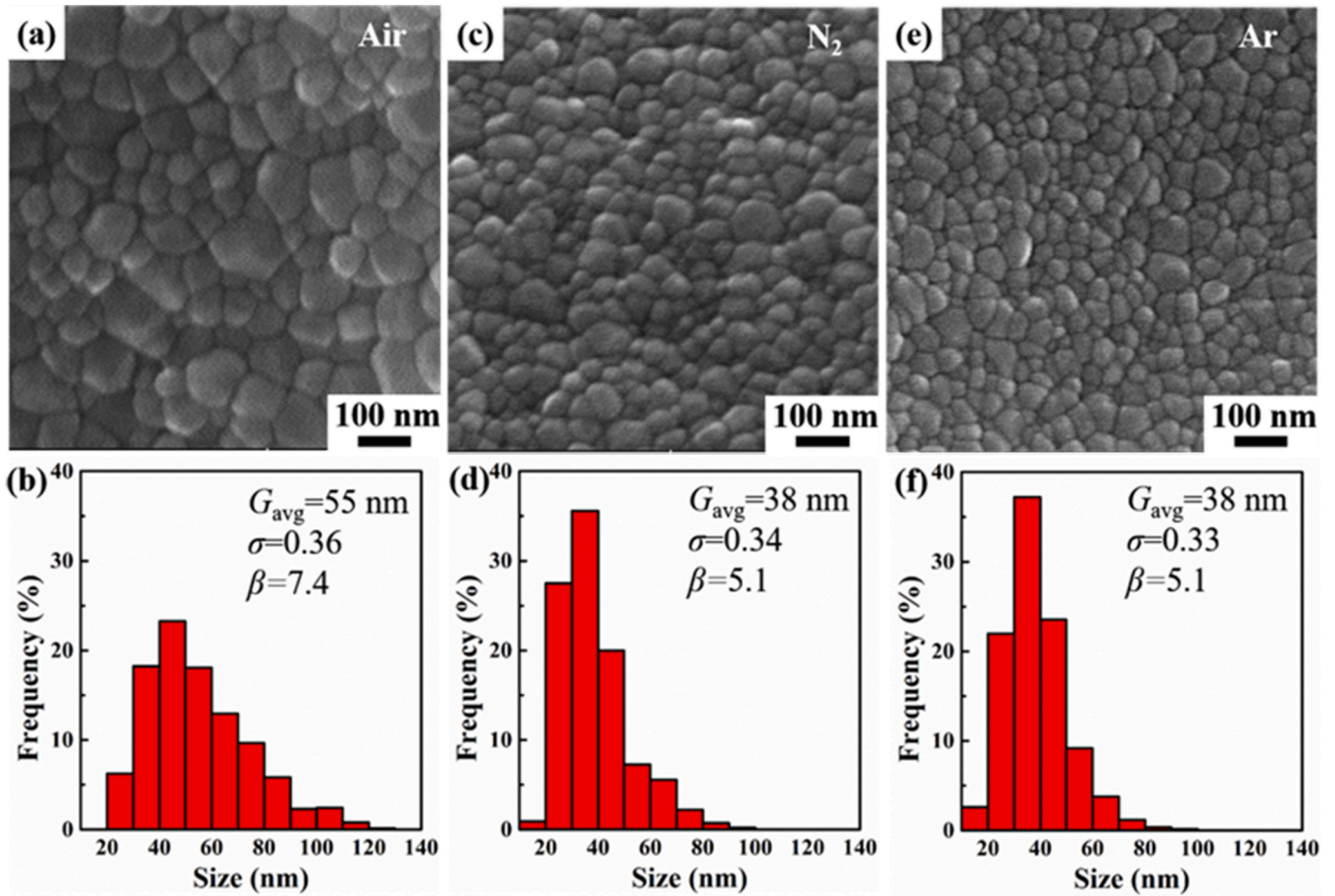
According to the above constant-rate-sintering results (Figs. 3 and 4), the sample with a relative density of  $\rho=85.4\%$  and an average grain size of  $G_{\text{avg}}=52$  nm sintered at  $1100^\circ\text{C}$  without holding in air, the sample with  $\rho=85.6\%$  and  $G_{\text{avg}}=39$  nm sintered at  $1050^\circ\text{C}$  without holding in  $\text{N}_2$ , and the sample with  $\rho=85.4\%$  and  $G_{\text{avg}}=38$  nm sintered at  $1050^\circ\text{C}$  without holding in Ar have relative densities  $\rho$  larger than the critical relative density  $\rho_c$  ( $\sim 83\%$ ). So  $1100^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $1050^\circ\text{C}$ , and  $1050^\circ\text{C}$  are selected as  $T_1$  for two-step sintering of the green bodies of the 7.4 nm  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles in air,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar, respectively. Specifically, we found that (1) the sample sintered at  $T_1=1100^\circ\text{C}$  without holding and at  $T_2=1000^\circ\text{C}$  for 20 h (minimal holding times to achieve  $>99\%$  relative density) in air (Fig. 6a and b) has  $\rho=99.1\%$ ,  $G_{\text{avg}}=55$  nm, and coarsening ratio  $\beta$  (defined as the ratio of the average grain size after sintering to the average size of the initial powders before sintering)=7.4; (2) the sample sintered at  $T_1=1050^\circ\text{C}$  without holding and at  $T_2=950^\circ\text{C}$  for 20 h in  $\text{N}_2$  (Fig. 6c and d) possesses  $\rho=99.2\%$ ,  $G_{\text{avg}}=38$  nm, and  $\beta=5.1$ ; and (3) the sample sintered at  $T_1=1050^\circ\text{C}$  without holding and at  $T_2=950^\circ\text{C}$  for 20 h in Ar (Fig. 6e and f) exhibits  $\rho=99.4\%$ ,  $G_{\text{avg}}=38$  nm, and  $\beta=5.1$ . None of the two-step sintered samples experiences obvious grain growth during the second-step sintering and all have a uniform microstructure.

Compared to the sample two-step sintered in air, the samples two-step sintered in  $\text{N}_2$  and Ar require low sintering temperatures to achieve full density and thus have finer grains. The  $G_{\text{avg}}$  of the samples two-step sintered in  $\text{N}_2$  and Ar (38 nm) from the 7.4 nm nanoparticles is even close to that of the sample two-step sintered in air ( $G_{\text{avg}}=34$  nm) from the 4.7 nm nanoparticles [15], though the average size of the starting nanoparticles used in our present study is about 1.6 times of that in the latter study.

To be more confident of the effect of oxygen partial pressure  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  on the sintering behavior of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics in a wider range of  $P_{\text{O}_2}$ , two-step sinterings were further carried out at the same sintering condition but at different vacuum levels ( $\sim 1 \times 10^5$ ,  $\sim 5 \times 10^4$ , and  $\sim 50$  Pa corresponding to  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  values of  $\sim 2 \times 10^4$ ,  $1 \times 10^4$ , and  $10.5$  Pa, respectively). Similarly, it can be found from Figs. 3 and 4 that the sample with  $\rho=85.6\%$  and  $G_{\text{avg}}=46$  nm sintered at  $1075^\circ\text{C}$  without holding in  $\sim 50$  Pa vacuum exhibits relative density  $\rho > 83\%$ , so  $1075^\circ\text{C}$  was selected as  $T_1$  for two-step sintering of the 7.4 nm  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticle green bodies at different vacuum levels. The typical characteristics of the sintered samples are shown in Fig. 7. Interestingly, the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  samples two-step sintered at  $T_1=1075^\circ\text{C}$  without holding and  $T_2=975^\circ\text{C}$  for 20 h at different vacuum levels show different relative densities but similar grain sizes around 46 nm. All sintered samples have uniform microstructure (Fig. 7a, c, and e), unimodal grain size distribution (Fig. 7b, d, and f), and nearly equiaxed grains without abnormal grain growth. Typically, the sample sintered in air (Fig. 7a and b) shows  $\rho=91.3\%$ ,  $G_{\text{avg}}=46$  nm, and  $\beta=6.2$ ; the sample sintered in  $\sim 5 \times 10^4$  Pa vacuum (Fig. 7c and d) exhibits  $\rho=92.6\%$ ,  $G_{\text{avg}}=48$  nm, and  $\beta=6.5$ ; the sample sintered in  $\sim 50$  Pa vacuum (Fig. 7e and f) displays  $\rho=99.3\%$ ,  $G_{\text{avg}}=46$  nm, and  $\beta=6.2$ . These results suggest that the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics can be densified completely by decreasing  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  under the same two-step sintering condition. This is mainly attributed to the higher relative density obtained after first step sintering at  $T_1$  without holding at lower  $P_{\text{O}_2}$ , which is beneficial to densification during the second step sintering at  $T_2$ .

### 3.5. Pushing the grain size limit using finer nanoparticles via non-oxidizing atmospheres

To further obtain dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics with average grain sizes  $G_{\text{avg}} < 30$  nm, 5.0 nm  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles (Fig. 8a and b) were pressed into green bodies and two-step sintered in  $\text{N}_2$ . The green bodies of the 5.0 nm nanoparticles reach a relative density of 85.5%



**Fig. 6.** SEM images (a, c, and e) and grain size distributions (b, d, and f) of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics two-step sintered in air at  $T_1 = 1100$  and  $T_2 = 1000$  °C for 20 h (a, b), in  $\text{N}_2$  at  $T_1 = 1050$  and  $T_2 = 950$  °C for 20 h (c, d), and in Ar at  $T_1 = 1050$  and  $T_2 = 950$  °C for 20 h (e, f).

(> $\rho_c \sim 83$  %) with  $G_{\text{avg}} = 28$  nm (Fig. 8c and d) after the first-step sintering at  $T_1 = 1000$  °C without holding in  $\text{N}_2$ . When cooled to and held at  $T_2 = 900$  °C for 40 h (minimal holding times to achieve >99 % relative density), the fully dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic was obtained without obvious grain growth. The sintered sample has relative density  $\rho = 99.5$  % and an ultra-uniform microstructure (Fig. 8e) which shows fine equiaxed grains between 10 and 75 nm and a unimodal grain size distribution with an average grain size of  $G_{\text{avg}} = 29$  nm (Fig. 8f). It is worth noting that the average grain size  $G_{\text{avg}} = 29$  nm of this  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic is 5.8 times of the initial nanoparticle size (5.0 nm), much lower than 7.2 times of the initial nanoparticle size (4.7 nm) for the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic (34 nm) two-step sintered in air [8, 15]. This "advantage" may stem from the increased oxygen vacancy concentration in grain boundaries of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  in low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres which can lower the energy barrier for grain boundary diffusion and increase the grain boundary diffusivity. This demonstrates the effectiveness and feasibility of the low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmosphere two-step sintering for the preparation of fine-grained  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics. To the best of our knowledge, the average grain size of  $G_{\text{avg}} = 29$  nm is the smallest average grain size reported to date in dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics achieved by pressureless sintering.

### 3.6. Microhardness and fracture toughness

To demonstrate the superior mechanical properties of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics with different grain sizes, we conducted Vickers indentation tests on the polishing surfaces of pure  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics with  $G_{\text{avg}} = 38$  and 95 nm. The  $H_V$  and  $K_{\text{Ic}}$  were evaluated from the indentations observed by SEM, as exhibited in Fig. 9. The SEM

observations of the indentations (inserted in Fig. 9a) reveal that similar fracture behaviors occur at various grain sizes. The formation of cracks can be clearly observed around the indentations in the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics with different grain sizes. Interestingly, as the average grain size increases from 38 to 95 nm, the diagonal length of indentation decreases obviously, while the crack length increases significantly. This indicates that the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic with  $G_{\text{avg}} = 38$  nm shows a lower  $H_V$  but higher  $K_{\text{Ic}}$  compared to the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic with  $G_{\text{avg}} = 95$  nm. The  $H_V$  data are plotted against  $G_{\text{avg}}$  in Fig. 9a and compared with literature data [42-49], revealing that the Hall-Petch relationship holds until the  $G_{\text{avg}}$  reduced to  $\sim 90$  nm (higher  $H_V = 26.4$  GPa can be obtained for the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic with  $G_{\text{avg}} = 95$  nm in this work). The higher  $H_V$  indicates that  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic with  $G_{\text{avg}} = 95$  nm still has good grain boundary cohesion without softening. However, it is worth noting that a relatively low  $H_V$  (18.7 GPa) is obtained for  $G_{\text{avg}} = 38$  nm. The  $K_{\text{Ic}}$  data of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics with different  $G_{\text{avg}}$  are plotted in Fig. 9b and compared with literature data [43,47,48,50], which presents the sample with a smaller  $G_{\text{avg}}$  (38 nm) showing a higher  $K_{\text{Ic}}$  (4.06  $\text{MPa}\cdot\text{m}^{1/2}$ ) among all the dense pure  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics.

## 4. Discussions

From the above results, it can be concluded that the densification of the  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles is strongly affected by the sintering temperature and atmospheres during pressureless sintering. It is worth noting that the  $G_{\text{avg}}$  results of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  samples sintered at the same temperature in different atmospheres are similar (Fig. 2), implying that different sintering atmospheres mainly affect the densification and have

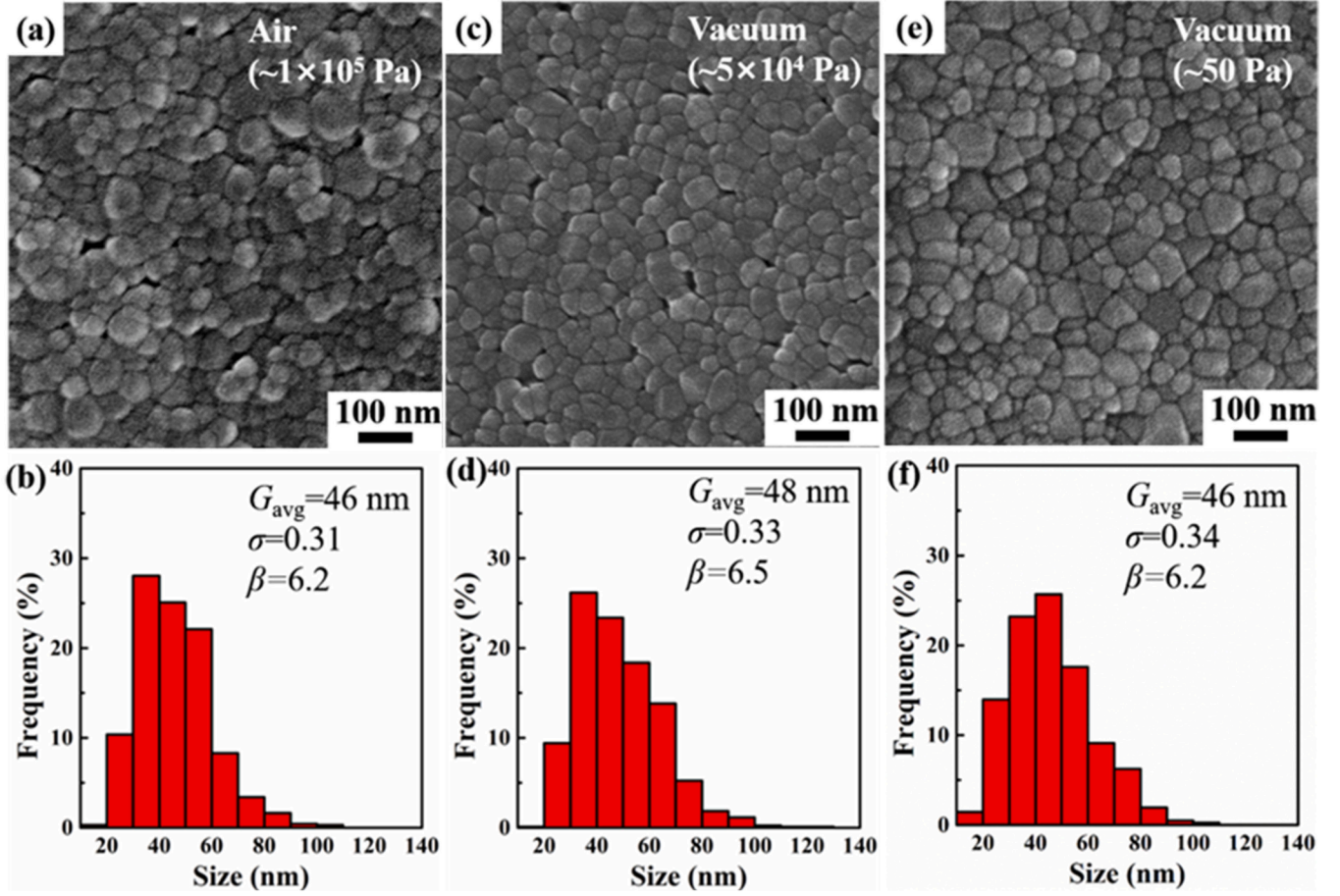


Fig. 7. SEM images (a, c, and e) and grain size distributions (b, d, and f) of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics two-step sintered in air (a, b),  $\sim 5 \times 10^4$  Pa vacuum (c, d), and  $\sim 50$  Pa vacuum (e, f) at  $T_1 = 1075$  without holding and  $T_2 = 975$  °C for 20 h.

little effect on grain growth. The obtained results from the sintering curves demonstrate that the densification is significantly affected by low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres (Fig. 3a). The vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar atmospheres exhibit obviously enhanced densification compared to air. However, a similar density can be achieved at lower temperatures in vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar, at which the sintered samples have smaller grains (Fig. 3a and c). This "positive" effect of the vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar atmospheres on the sintering of  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles is beneficial for the preparation of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics with ultrafine grains. Typically, the enhancement of densification was well known for oxide material systems sintered in low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  environments, especially in a reducing atmosphere [27, 29, 51-53]. And the higher densification rate in lower  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  environments can be due to more oxygen vacancies formed in grain boundaries induced by lower  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  [29].

However, only a few studies reported the grain boundary oxygen vacancies participating in grain growth or suppression of oxide material systems, and the corresponding grain growth mechanisms are not clear. Ren *et al.* reported that faster grain growth occurs at the center regime during flashing sintering 3 mol.% yttria-stabilized zirconia. This mainly results from the massive oxygen vacancies induced by large electric current, which significantly lowers the migration energy of cations leading to grain growth. However, the reduction of grain size was also observed at the cathode, which may be related to the massive recrystallization of zirconia induced by oxygen vacancies condensing to form voids [54]. Yoshida *et al.* reported that the grain size can be effectively suppressed for pure and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -doped  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics sintered in  $\text{N}_2 + 5\%$   $\text{H}_2$  compared to air atmosphere at the same temperature [55]. Notably, by studying the grain growth behavior of  $\text{Nd}_2\text{O}_3$ -doped  $\text{BaTiO}_3$  ceramics at different vacancy concentrations, An *et al.* revealed that the effects of

donor concentration and vacancy concentration on grain growth behavior are related to their effect on grain boundary structure [56]. In our present work, the extra grain boundary oxygen vacancies can significantly enhance the grain boundary diffusion, which can accelerate densification rate of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics but cannot cause grain growth owing to the unactivated grain boundary migration at lower temperatures.

The results obtained in the present work demonstrate the beneficial effects of low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres (vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar) on the production of dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics of finer grains. Low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres can reduce the  $E_a$  of grain boundary diffusion, which enhances mass transport at low temperature, probably through the generation of extra diffusion mechanisms induced by reduced  $P_{\text{O}_2}$ . According to the previous studies reported in literature [15, 31], grain boundary diffusion is recognized as the main mechanism of densification in fine-grained  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics during pressureless sintering, which involves the diffusion of both aluminum and oxygen along grain boundaries. The predominant mechanism of mass transport in the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics is attributed to oxygen diffusion due to its lower diffusion rate triggered by its larger ionic radius [24-26, 57, 58]. Therefore, the reduction in  $E_a$  of grain boundary diffusion should be mainly related to the oxygen diffusion. Normally, point-defect models based on Wagner oxidation theory have historically been applied to explain the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  grain boundary diffusion, and the oxygen diffusivity can be expressed in terms of oxygen vacancy diffusivity using relevant equations,

$$D_{\text{O}}^{\text{GB}} C_{\text{O}}^{\text{GB}} = D_{\text{V}_\text{O}}^{\text{GB}} C_{\text{V}_\text{O}}^{\text{GB}} \quad (5)$$

where  $D_{\text{V}_\text{O}}^{\text{GB}}$  is the oxygen vacancy grain boundary diffusivity, and  $C_{\text{V}_\text{O}}^{\text{GB}}$

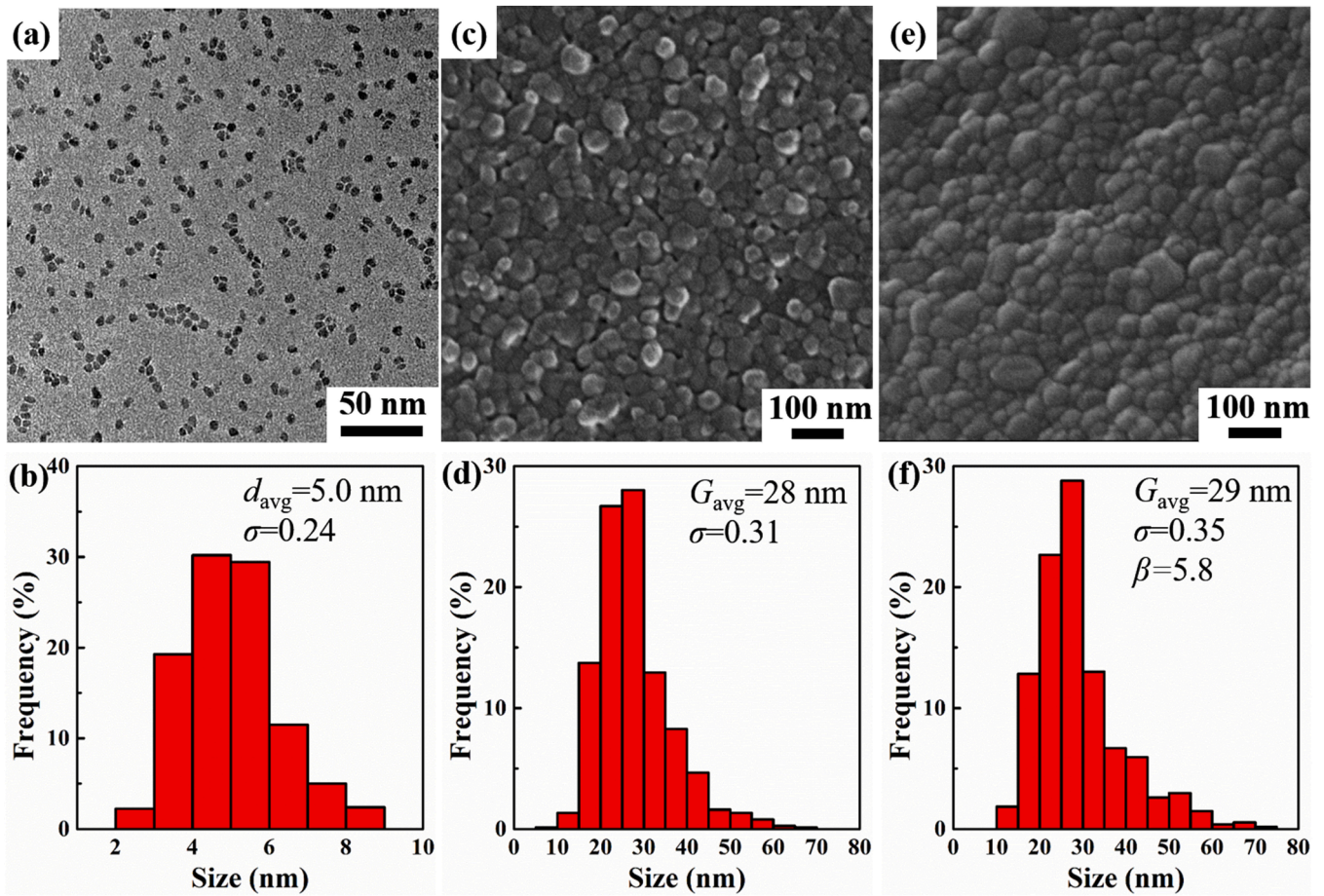


Fig. 8. TEM image (a) and particle size distribution (b) of  $\alpha$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles. SEM images (c, e) and grain size distributions (d, f) of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic sintered in  $\text{N}_2$  at  $T_1 = 1000^\circ\text{C}$  without holding (c, d) and sintered in  $\text{N}_2$  at  $T_1 = 1000^\circ\text{C}$  without holding and  $T_2 = 900^\circ\text{C}$  for 40 h (e, f).

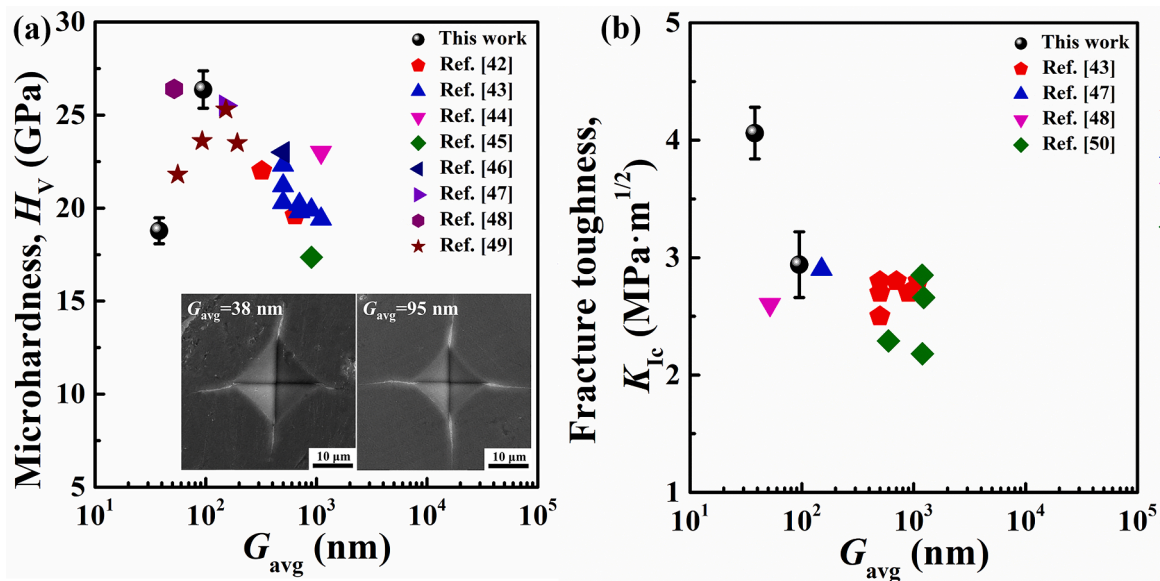


Fig. 9. Microhardness  $H_V$  (a) and fracture toughness  $K_{Ic}$  (b) as a function of average grain size  $G_{avg}$  for dense pure  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramics. The indentation images were inserted in the insets of (a).

presents the oxygen vacancy concentration in grain boundaries.  $C_{V_O}^{GB}$  is mainly dependent on the  $P_{O_2}$  of sintering atmospheres and tends to decrease with increasing  $P_{O_2}$  [28]. Generally, the relevant defect

chemistry reaction within  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  encompasses intricate reactions leading to the generation of defects, oxygen vacancies, and electron participate, which can be succinctly expressed as [25]



where  $\text{O}_\text{O}^\times$  represents an oxygen anion,  $\text{V}_\text{O}^{\bullet\bullet}$  is oxygen vacancy, and  $e'$  is electron. Further, the dependence of  $C_{\text{V}_\text{O}^{\bullet\bullet}}^{\text{GB}}$  can be described by [25]

$$C_{\text{V}_\text{O}^{\bullet\bullet}}^{\text{GB}} \propto P_{\text{O}_2}^{-1/6} \quad (7)$$

It is widely recognized that subjecting  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  to elevated temperatures in uniform environments leads to the formation of various defects such as Schottky pairs or Frenkel pairs [57]. Apart from these thermally generated defects, additional defects such as oxygen vacancies form when the material is placed in low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres such as vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar. While the amount of reduction-generated oxygen vacancies in the bulk is expected to be small under weakly reducing atmospheres considering alumina's large bandgap, the amount of reduction-generated oxygen vacancies could be significant on the surfaces of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles and in the grain boundaries of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics. This phenomenon can significantly accelerate oxygen diffusion along grain boundaries and promote densification of  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles. In our present work, we found that fast densification of the  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles occurs in vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar compared to air (Fig. 3a). In addition, the fastest densification can be achieved at lower temperatures for sintering in vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar than that in air (Fig. 3b). This fast densification at low sintering temperatures in vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar can be primarily attributed to the generation of extra oxygen vacancies in grain boundaries resulting from decreased  $P_{\text{O}_2}$ . Notably, the formation of more oxygen vacancies induced by decreased  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  in grain boundaries can result in a loose structure in grain boundaries, which can reduce the diffusion barrier resulting in the lower  $E_a$  for grain boundary diffusion and make the diffusion of atoms through grain boundaries easier at low temperatures [57]. As a result, the  $E_a$  values of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  samples sintered in vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar are obviously smaller than those sintered in air, as shown in Fig. 5 and Table 2. Similarly, the lower  $E_a$  of oxygen grain boundary diffusion of non-doped polycrystal  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  in low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  ( $10^{-8}$  and  $10^{-4}$  Pa) conditions was also reported by Kitaoka *et al.* [57] and Matsudaira *et al.* [59] who evaluated the  $E_a$  values of oxygen grain boundary diffusion to be 395 and 506 kJ/mol, respectively, significantly lower than the values reported by Prot *et al.* (921 kJ/mol in undoped polycrystal  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ) [21] and Reddy (825 kJ/mol in polycrystal  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ) [60]. The reduction of  $E_a$  can be mainly attributed to the formation of extra oxygen vacancies, which preferentially exist in grain boundaries induced by low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  conditions. The formation of extra oxygen vacancies can reduce a barrier to grain boundary diffusion of oxygen, leading to the lower  $E_a$  [57,59].

Microhardness results of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics exhibit apparent strengthening effect as the average grain size decreases to  $\sim 90$  nm, probably attributed to the presence of massive grain boundaries in  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics inhibiting dislocation slip. Notably,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics show obvious softening and toughening effects as the average grain size is reduced to 38 nm (Fig. 9). This phenomenon may be attributed to grain boundary softening instead of the dislocation slip mechanism. High volume fraction of grain boundaries may favor plastic deformation by grain boundary sliding and soften and toughen the material [61,62]. The decrease in  $H_V$  with reducing grain size was known as an inverse Hall Petch relationship, which was reported in several nanocrystalline ceramics (e.g.,  $\text{MgAl}_2\text{O}_4$  nanocrystalline ceramics and  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{SiO}_2$  nanocrystalline composite ceramics) [62–64]. Our results demonstrate that the two-step sintered  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics with finer grain sizes (38 nm) and uniform microstructure (ultra-narrow grain size distribution with  $\sigma=0.34$ ) show lower microhardness but higher fracture toughness. More detailed studies on the mechanical properties and plastic deformation mechanisms of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics with different grain sizes will be reported in the future.

## 5. Conclusions

1. The feasibility of low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres (vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar) for sintering dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics of finer grains by pressureless sintering was demonstrated. The results show that the vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar atmospheres can significantly promote the densification of  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles without abnormal grain growth.
2. The kinetic results show that  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  samples have lower activation energies for grain boundary diffusion in low  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  atmospheres compared to air, which can be attributed to the formation of extra oxygen vacancies induced by decreased  $P_{\text{O}_2}$ . The induced extra oxygen vacancies in grain boundaries can reduce the diffusion barrier and accelerate oxygen diffusion.
3. Dense fine-grained  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics can be prepared in vacuum,  $\text{N}_2$ , and Ar by two-step pressureless sintering. In particular, a fully dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramic with a relative density of  $\rho=99.5\%$ , an average grain size of  $G_{\text{avg}}=29$  nm, and a coarsening ratio of  $\beta=5.8$  was sintered in  $\text{N}_2$  using 5.0 nm  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles and represents the finest grain size in dense  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocrystalline ceramics achieved so far by pressureless sintering.

## CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Yupeng Wang:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Hongbing Yang:** Formal analysis, Data curation. **Zhengjun Pei:** Data curation. **Bing Shen:** Data curation. **Jun Shao:** Data curation. **Masood Mukhtar:** Data curation. **Zhikun Ma:** Data curation. **Herbert Gleiter:** Supervision. **Yanhao Dong:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization. **Tengfei Ma:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization. **Jiangong Li:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization.

## Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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