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Strength of tungsten triboride under pressure up to 86 GPa from radial X-ray diffraction

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1. Introduction

Many experimental and theoretical studies on boron-tungsten system (WB_x) have suggested that tungsten tetraboride (WB_4) is potentially a superhard material [1,2]. Gu et al. [1] synthesized the compounds formed by transition metals (TMs) and B, and measured their Vickers hardness (Hv) by microindentation tests. The obtained hardness values of WB₄ are 46.2(1.2) GPa and 31.8(1.2) GPa under applied loads of 0.49 N and 4.9 N, respectively. Subsequently, Wang et al. [2] calculated the hardness values of WB₄ to be 41.1–42.2 GPa, consistent with Gu et al. [1], and they [2] pointed out that WB₄ has an ultra-low compressibility with the bulk modulus between 292.7-324.3 GPa. The early works suggested that WB₄ is a potential superhard material and has an ultra-low compressibility. Successively, Mohammadi et al. [3] also measured the hardness by microindentation method as 43.3(2.9) GPa and 28.1(1.4) GPa under an applied load of 0.49 N and 4.9 N, respectively, and reported a bulk modulus $K_0 = 339(3)$ GPa at ambient conditions, for WB₄ from high-pressure X-ray diffraction (XRD) up to 30 GPa in a DAC with neon as the pressure medium. Liu et al. [4] performed the high-pressure XRD of WB₄ up to 51 GPa with silicone oil as the pressure medium

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ABSTRACT

The strength of tungsten triboride (WB₃) was determined under nonhydrostatic compression up to 86 GPa using an angle-dispersive radial X-ray diffraction technique in a diamond-anvil cell (DAC). Analyze of diffraction data using lattice strain theory indicate that the ratio of differential stress to shear modulus (t/G) changes from 0.004 at ambient conditions to 0.078 at 86 GPa. Together with theoretical results on the high-pressure shear modulus, our results here show that WB₃ under uniaxial compression can support a differential stress of 26 GPa when it starts to yield to the plastic deformation at 40 GPa. The yield strength of WB₃ increases with increasing pressure, reaching a maximum value of 30 GPa at 77 GPa. By comparison, we find that the high-pressure strength of WB₃ is comparable to those of c-BC₂N, B₆O, and γ -Si₃N₄.

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and obtained $K_0 = 325(9)$ GPa with $K'_0 = 5.1(0.6)$. Both K_0 and K'_0 are defined in the Birch-Monaghan equation of state (EoS). Xie et al. [5] measured the compression behavior of WB₄ with neon as the pressure medium up to 59 GPa and obtained $K_0 = 369(9)$ GPa with $K'_0 = 1.2(0.5)$ by fitting the data at pressures lower than 42 GPa. Xiong et al. [6] reported a bulk modulus $K_0 = 319(5)$ GPa with $K'_0 = 4.1(0.2)$ at $\psi = 54.7^\circ$ by fitting the radial X-ray diffraction (RXD) nonhydrostatic compression data to 86 GPa.

However, subsequent theoretical studies indicated that the structure of WB₄ is unstable and the previously believed WB₄ is in fact WB₃ [7,8]. Liang et al. [7] evaluated the structure stability of WB_x from first principles, and questioned the stability of WB₄ for the first time. They reported that long-believed WB₄ is actually WB₃ because their Gibbs energy shows that the WB₃ is thermodynamically stable and WB₄ is not. Subsequently, Liang et al. [9] reported that WB₃ is superhard due to its three-dimensional covalent network consisting of boron honeycomb planes interconnected with strong zigzag W-B bonds. Liang et al. [9] calculated the Vickers hardness of WB₄ (16.8 GPa) and WB₃ (43.1 GPa) using the linear correlation existing between the Vickers hardness and shear modulus for many of the known hard materials and superhard materials. They obtained the Vickers hardness of WB4 (6.8 GPa) and WB₃ (39.4 GPa) from theoretical calculation using Chen's model of hardness. The hardness of WB₄ (16.8 GPa, 6.8 GPa) is ~39% of WB₃ (43.1 GPa, 39.4 GPa). Zhang et al. [8]







compared experimental and theoretically calculated XRD patterns between WB₄ and WB₃, along with the thermodynamic, mechanical, and phonon instabilities of WB₄ using density functional theory. They denoted that WB₄ with a three-dimensional boron network is identified as WB₃ with two-dimensional boron nets. In addition, they suggested that WB₃ may not be an intrinsically superhard material due to its much lower ideal shear strengths compared with the superhard material of *c*-BN. Zang et al. [10] calculated the stress-strain relation and the ideal strength of WB₃ using the first-principles, leading the authors to conclude that the Vickers hardness of WB₃ should be well below that of ReB₂, which implies that WB₃ cannot be a superhard material. Li et al. [13] examined tungsten borides using a recently developed global structural optimization approach and identified the thermodynamically stable structures. They reported that comparison of experimental and simulated X-ray diffraction patterns leads to the identification of P6₃/mmc-4u WB₃, while R-3m-6u WB₃ is thermodynamically stable and thus viable for experimental synthesis. These studies indicate that WB₄ is unstable and leaves the issue of whether or not WB₃ is a superhard material under debate.

Despite several theoretical calculations for WB₃, there are no direct experimental measurements. There are different opinions regarding whether WB₃ is a superhard material. Previous studies have shown that the hardness of materials has some relationship with strength which reflects the contributions of both plastic and elastic deformation. In this study, we have investigated the strength of WB₃ to 86 GPa under nonhydrostatic compression using radial X-ray diffraction (RXD) in diamond-anvil cell.

2. Experimental details

The WB₃ powder was synthesized in a DS6 * 8MN cubic press [14] at high-pressure and temperature conditions. The synthesized WB₃ sample possesses an average grain size of 0.5–1 μ m determined via scanning electron microscopy



Fig. 1. Representative powder X-ray diffraction pattern for tungsten triboride (WB₃) at ambient conditions ($\lambda = 1.5406$ Å). The XRD pattern is in agreement with Zhang et al. [8]. The corresponding Miller indices are noted for each peak. X-ray wavelength $\lambda = 1.5406$ Å.

(SEM). Fig. 1 displays the XRD pattern of the synthesized WB₃ and simulated patterns for WB₄ and WB₃ reported by Zhang et al. [8]. It can be seen that the XRD pattern of synthesized sample matches much better with that of the simulated WB₃ from Zhang et al. [8]. The measured XRD pattern shows the highly crystalline and pure phase. At ambient conditions, the synthesized WB₃ has a hexagonal structure (space group *P*6₃/mmc, see Fig. 2) with lattice parameters *a* = 5.199(0.001) Å and *c* = 6.347(0.001) Å.

A twofold panoramic DAC with a pair of beveled diamond anvils (150 µm culet diameter) was used to exert uniaxial compression on both the WB3 sample and Mo standard in the RXD measurements. A beryllium gasket was pre-indented to ${\sim}25$ - μm thickness at ${\sim}20$ GPa and a hole of 50- μm -diameter was drilled in the center of the preindented area for use as a sample chamber. Special attention was paid to make sure that the sample hole was well centered with respect to the anvil culet The WB₃ sample was loaded into the gasket hole and a piece of Mo flake with a diameter of \sim 20 µm was placed on top within 5 µm of the sample center serving as a pressure standard [15] as well as the positioning reference for X-ray diffraction. No pressure-transmitting medium was used to ensure maximum nonhydrostatic stresses. By design, the DAC was tilted at an angle of 28° to minimize the contribution of Be diffraction to the sample patterns [16]. Angle-dispersive radial X-ray diffraction experiments were performed at the 4W2 beam line of Beijing Synchrotron Radiation Facility (BSRF). Chinese Academy of Sciences, A Si(111) monochromator was used to tune the synchrotron source to a wavelength of 0.6199 Å, and the incident monochromatic X-ray beam was focused by a pair of Kirkpatrick-Baez mirrors to an approximately 26(vertical) \times 8(horizontal) μ m² spot of full width at half maximum (FWHM) and directed through the Be gasket and the sample. Twodimensional diffraction patterns were collected by a Mar345 image plate detector and analyzed with the program Fit2D [17]. The sample-to-detector distance and orientation of the detector were calibrated by a CeO₂ standard. At each pressure, the RXD pattern was collected typically for 15-20 min after about 30 min of stress relaxation.

3. Theory

The radial X-ray diffraction data was analyzed using the lattice strain theory developed by Singh and co-workers [18,19]. According to the lattice strain theory, the measured *d*-spacing $d_m(hkl)$ is a function of the azimuthal angle ψ between the DAC loading axis and the diffraction plane normal (*hkl*), and can be calculated using the relation as

$$d_m(hkl) = d_p(hkl)[1 + (1 - 3\cos^2\psi)Q(hkl)]$$
(1)

where $d_m(hkl)$ is the measured *d*-spacing, $d_p(hkl)$ is the *d*-spacing under the equivalent hydrostatic pressure, and Q(hkl) is the orientation dependent lattice strain.

Under isostress conditions (the Reuss limit), the differential stress, *t*, can be expressed as

$$t = 6G\langle Q(hkl) \rangle \tag{2}$$

where $\langle Q(hkl) \rangle$ represents the Q value averaged over all observed reflections of Q(hkl), and G is the aggregate shear modulus of the polycrystalline sample. The pressure dependence of G can be obtained from extrapolation of ultrasonic or theoretically calculated single-crystal elastic constants. If the differential stress t has reached the limiting value of yield strength at high pressures when



Fig. 2. Crystal structure of WB₃.

materials start to deform plastically, $6\langle Q(hkl)\rangle = t/G$ will reflect the ratio of yield strength to shear modulus. In addition, this ratio might be a good qualitative indicator of hardness as it reflects the contributions of both plastic and elastic deformation [20].

Eq. (1) indicates that the $d_m(hkl)$ vs $(1-3\cos^2\psi)$ plot is a straight line for given $d_p(hkl)Q(hkl)$, and its slope, $d_p(hkl)Q(hkl)$, is directly related to $t/G = 6\langle Q(hkl) \rangle$. $d_p(hkl)$ is normally at $\psi = 54.7^\circ$. With additional, independent constraints on the high-pressure shear modulus, the differential stress or yield strength at high pressure can be determined.

For the conventional RXD experiments, the incident X-ray beam is perpendicular to the compression axis and passes through a Be gasket which contributes intense diffraction lines to the sample patterns. Thus, we can tilt the DAC to an angle of α between the compression axis and the incident X-ray to minimize the Be contribution to the sample patterns ($\alpha = 28^\circ$) [16]. In this geometry, ψ in Eq. (1) can be rewritten as [21]

$$\cos\psi_{hkl} = \sin\alpha\cos\delta\cos\theta_{hkl} + \cos\alpha\sin\theta_{hkl} \tag{3}$$

where θ is the diffraction angle and δ is the azimuthal angle in the plane of the detector.

4. Results and discussion

The RXD diffraction patterns are integrated over each azimuthal sector with a 5° interval using Fit2D [17] for data analyzes. The program Multifit 4.2 is used to perform macro decomposition of the 2D diffraction images into azimuthal slices within Fit2D [17], yielding one-dimensional plots of X-ray intensity as a function of $2\theta t$, as well as peak positions, intensities, and FWHM of the diffraction peaks. To determine the variation of the diffraction peak positions with δ , we integrated the diffraction patterns with segments of 5° in the azimuth angle, in the range of 180–270°, and fit peak positions. RXD spectra of WB₃ were collected up to an equivalent pressure of 86 GPa, where pressures were derived from the EoS of Mo [15] with the unit cell volume obtained from $d_p(110)$ of Mo at ψ =54.7°.

The plots of *d*-spacing as a function of $1-3\cos^2\psi$ for selected diffraction peaks of WB₃ at 45 GPa are shown in Fig. 3. As expected from the lattice strain theory [18,19], *d*-spacing for all diffraction peaks shows a linear relationship with $1-3\cos^2\psi$. The (101) peak of WB₃ exhibits a slope that is about twice as great as that of the (201) peak, indicating that the (201) peak is more sensitive to nonhydrostatic stresses compared to the (101) peak.

According to Eq. (1), the orientation dependent lattice strain Q(hkl) can be derived from the slope of the linear relationship between the observed *d*-spacing and $1-3\cos^2\psi$. The ratio of t/Gwas obtained from the averaged value of Q(hkl) over all observed reflections. Fig. 4 displays t(hkl)/G as a function of WB₃ pressure. The large variations for different lattice planes are due to differences in stress levels for different lattice orientations and are an indication of high elastic anisotropy in the material. t(002)/G is the largest at nearly double the smallest ratio, t(101)/G. For WB₃, the ratio of t/G ranges from 0.004 to 0.076 at pressures of 1-86 GPa with an average value of 0.051. High t/G values of WB₃ indicate that WB₃ may serve as a structural template for designing superhard materials. The ratio of t/G remains almost unchanged above \sim 40 GPa, indicating that WB₃ undergoes plastic deformation and t/G reaches its limiting value of 0.076 at this pressure. This ratio might be a good qualitative indicator of hardness as it reflects the contributions of both plastic and elastic deformation. In addition, the increase in t/G WB₃ levels off after ~77 GPa, suggesting that the local deviatoric stress is partially relaxed.

Together with the results of first-principles calculation on highpressure shear modulus (Fig. 5), we obtained the differential stress



Fig. 3. *d* Spacings vs $1-3\cos^2\psi$ for selected diffraction peaks of WB₃ at 45 GPa. The solid lines are least-squares linear fits to the data. The pressures are determined from the Mo(110) peak at ψ = 54.7°.



Fig. 4. Ratio of differential stress to shear modulus (t/G) as a function of pressure for WB₃. The errors are estimated from the variations of d(hkl) vs 1–3cos² ψ .

at each pressure step as $t=6G\langle Q(hkl)\rangle$. Fig. 6 compares differential stresses obtained for several reported superhard materials (*c*-BC₂N [22], B₆O [23], γ -Si₃N₄ [24]) from RXD in the DAC. It can be seen that, the differential stress, *t*, increases slowly above ~40 GPa, indicating that WB₃ begins to experience macro yield with plastic deformation as *t* reaches its limited value (yield strength) of 25.5 GPa at this pressure. In addition, after ~77 GPa, the differential stress begins to level off, and similar behaviors were observed for *c*-BC₂N [22].

At ~77 GPa, differential stress as high as ~30 GPa is supported by WB₃. For comparison, a differential stress of ~38 GPa is supported by *c*-BC₂N [22] at ~66 GPa, B₆O [23] supports a maximum differential stress of ~30 GPa at a confining pressure of 65 GPa, and γ -Si₃N₄ [24] reaches a maximum differential stress of 23 GPa at a pressure of 68 GPa. The differential stress of WB₃ is very large



Fig. 5. Linear fits to the isotropic elastic moduli of WB₃ as a function of pressure.



Fig. 6. Differential stress as a function of pressure for WB_3, c-BC_2N, B_6O, and $\gamma\text{-}Si_3N_4.$

due to its large t/G and large shear moduli. It can be seen that, the maximum differential stress in the pressure range studied of WB₃ is close to that of B₆O [23], which is much larger than that of γ -Si₃N₄ [24], but lower than that of *c*-BC₂N [22].

The differential stress of WB₃ is even "higher" than that of *c*-BC₂N, B₆O, and γ -Si₃N₄ below 40 GPa, and it seems that WB₃ is "harder" than these materials. However, the Vickers hardness should consider the maximum differential stress before yield [20], as well as grain size [25]. WB₃ experiences macro yield with plastic deformation at ~40 GPa and sustains a differential stress of ~25.5 GPa. For comparison, c-BC₂N begins to yield at a pressure of \sim 66 GPa with a maximum differential stress of \sim 38 GPa, and B_6O started to yield at nonhydrostatic compression of ~65 GPa and differential stress reaches its limiting yield strength value of 29.5 GPa. For γ -Si₃N₄, the yield point is ~67 GPa with a yield strength of \sim 23 GPa. In addition, the strength of polycrystalline materials is also known to increase with decreasing grain size, and grain-size effects on high-pressure strength have been documented in previous RXD experiments [25]. Hence, grain-size effects on high-pressure strength should also be taken into account when comparing WB₃ (microcrystalline), c-BC₂N [22] (nanocrystalline), B_6O (microcrystalline) [23] and γ -Si₃N₄ (nanocrystalline)

[24]. The results probably indicate that the Vickers hardness of WB₃ is lower than that of *c*-BC₂N (\sim 70 GPa [29]), B₆O, (45 GPa [25]), and γ -Si₃N₄ (35 GPa [26] and 43 GPa [27,28]).

Liang et al. [9] obtained a Vickers hardness of 39.4 GPa for WB₃ from theory calculation using Chen's model of hardness [15] and 43.1 GPa using the correlation [31] existing between the Vickers hardness and shear modulus. However, Zhang et al. [8] demonstrate that WB₃ cannot be intrinsically superhard because of its much lower ideal strengths compared to *c*-BN. And Zang et al. [10] argue that the Vickers hardness of WB₃ should be well below that of ReB₂ (30.1 GPa [11], 26.6 GPa [1], and 18.4 GPa [12]) as calculating the stress–strain relation and the ideal indentation strength from first-principles shows that the calculated ideal indentation strength of WB₃ is considerably lower than that of ReB₂ via calculating the stress–strain relation and the ideal strength.

5. Conclusion

We have examined the strength of WB₃ in a diamond anvil cell under nonhydrostatic compression up to 86 GPa at room temperature using radial X-ray diffraction together with the lattice strain theory. The differential stress of WB₃ increases with pressure from 0.4% of the shear modulus at 1 GPa to 7.8% at 77 GPa. Given the theoretically calculated values for the shear modulus at high pressures, the supported differential stress ranges from 1 GPa at 1 GPa to 30 GPa at 77 GPa. The change of *t* with pressure indicates that WB₃ starts to yield with plastic deformation and *t* reaches 26 GPa at a nonhydrostatic compression of ~40 GPa. The increase in *t* with pressure reaches a maximum value of 30 GPa at ~77 GPa. The differential stresses of WB₃ are comparable to those of several reported superhard materials (c-BC₂N, B₆O, γ -Si₃N₄).

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