

# Thermomechanical properties and fracture mechanisms of calcium hexaluminate

Cristina Domínguez <sup>a,\*</sup>, Jérôme Chevalier <sup>a</sup>, Ramon Torrecillas <sup>b</sup>,  
Laurent Gremillard <sup>a</sup>, Gilbert Fantozzi <sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>GEMPPM-UMR 5510, INSA de Lyon, bât. 502, 69621 Villeurbanne Cedex, France

<sup>b</sup>INCAR, CSIC, Ap. 73, 33080 Oviedo, Spain

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## Abstract

Calcium hexaluminate is a material close to alumina which is recently being the subject of an increasing number of papers. However until now, nobody has deeply studied its properties or the mechanisms responsible for its mechanical behaviour. The flexural strength, toughness, crack growth resistance and thermal shock behaviour of calcium hexaluminate have been investigated. The observation of crack surfaces and cracks generated by indentation has allowed to identify the fracture mechanisms and to evaluate the influence of microstructure. Properties were compared to alumina. © 2001 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:** CaO–6Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>; Crack growth; Fracture; Mechanical properties; Thermal shock resistance

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## 1. Introduction

Calcium hexaluminate (CaAl<sub>12</sub>O<sub>19</sub> or CaO·6Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>), often denoted as CA<sub>6</sub>, occurs in nature as the mineral hibonite.<sup>1</sup> This phase is the most alumina-rich intermediate compound of the CaO–Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> system,<sup>2</sup> and the one which exhibits the most excellent thermal properties.<sup>3</sup> CA<sub>6</sub> has a theoretical density<sup>4</sup> of 3.79 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, crystallises in the hexagonal system (spacegroup P6<sub>3</sub>/mmc),<sup>4–6</sup> and presents the structure of magnetoplumbite.

The morphology of CA<sub>6</sub> grains show preferential growth along their basal plane.<sup>7,8</sup> This growth-rate anisotropy is responsible both for the orientation of CA<sub>6</sub> with basal planes perpendicular to the reaction front,<sup>7,9,10</sup> and for the platelet or platelike (to classify grain shapes, the terms defined by Song et al.<sup>11</sup> for alumina grains are used) grain morphologies when CA<sub>6</sub> is obtained by reaction sintering.<sup>12,13</sup> On the contrary, when CA<sub>6</sub> is synthesised and milled previously to be pressed and sintered, grains are always equiaxed.<sup>13,14</sup> It is necessary to differentiate between grain growth during and after CA<sub>6</sub> formation, because both processes will

contribute to final texture.<sup>15</sup> The morphology of CA<sub>6</sub> grains is related to the free space they have to develop during CA<sub>6</sub> formation, since their growth along their basal plane is limited by the presence of others grains. When the plates impinge upon each other, the grain growth proceeds at a much lower rate and the flat boundaries become curved. So, sometimes CA<sub>6</sub> obtained by reaction sintering can also present equiaxed morphologies.<sup>12,15,16</sup> After CA<sub>6</sub> formation, the main mechanism responsible for grain growth is the welding of neighbouring platelet grains when they are disposed with their flat boundaries, and thus with their basal planes, parallel.<sup>15</sup> For this reason, platelet grains become more equiaxed as firing temperature increases. When grains are equiaxed, the proportion of grains with basal planes parallel is very low, so the increase in firing temperature does not much affect grain granulometry. Fig. 1 illustrates the presence of both mechanisms: grain impingement and plates welding.

Some studies have been published concerning the mechanical properties of calcium hexaluminate, but in the majority of cases they are dedicated to the CA<sub>6</sub>–Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composites.<sup>17–24</sup> The published properties of pure CA<sub>6</sub><sup>13,14</sup> present a high spread due to the differences in density and microstructure mainly caused by the different processing methods employed. The values reported

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\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +33-7243-8382; fax: +33-7243-8528.  
E-mail address: jerome.chevalier@insa-lyon.fr (C. Domínguez).

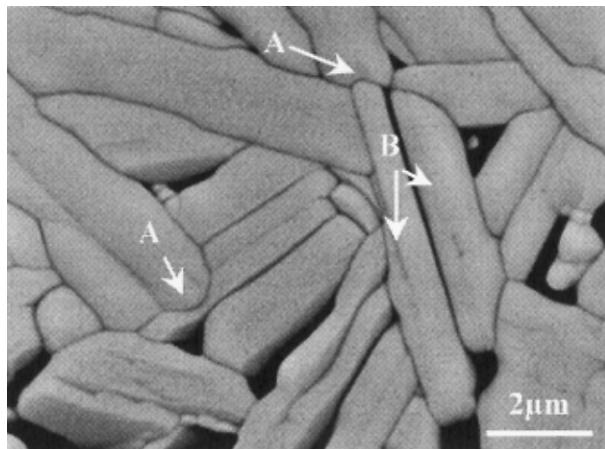


Fig. 1. SEM micrography at high magnification of a CA<sub>6</sub> sample obtained by reaction-sintering after firing at 1650°C a mixture of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and CaCO<sub>3</sub>. (A) It shows how growth is clamped by the neighbouring grains and (B) how the grains weld when they are disposed with their basal plane parallel and stuck together.

for the flexural strength and toughness at room temperature differ between 159–289 MPa and 3.2–4.5 MPa $\sqrt{m}$  for a pressureless sintered material, and 593–612 MPa and 3.0–3.4 MPa $\sqrt{m}$  for a hot pressed material. The works about the CA<sub>6</sub>–Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composites show sometimes contradictory results. These works can be classified depending if they refer to alumina and alumina-spinel castables or to technical ceramics. Calcium hexaluminate is a reaction product in alumina and alumina-spinel castables that enhances their mechanical properties<sup>25–27</sup> thanks to the strong bond between CA<sub>6</sub> and alumina or spinel grains. Nevertheless some studies show just the opposite, that is, a continuous decrease in flexural strength as CA<sub>6</sub> proportion increases.<sup>18</sup> In the studies about CA<sub>6</sub>–Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> technical ceramics some authors show that the addition of CA<sub>6</sub> has any influence on toughness<sup>22</sup> while the majority finds higher K<sub>IC</sub> values when CA<sub>6</sub> is added to Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.<sup>17,19–21,23</sup> It has been shown that the increase in aspect ratio of CA<sub>6</sub> grains increases the crack growth resistance,<sup>19–21</sup> and that the crack morphology is planar when CA<sub>6</sub> grains are equiaxed, and tortuous when they are plates. They consider that the later behaviour is due to grain bridging. Fracture mechanism has been studied in CA<sub>6</sub> as fibre coating. This material cleaves across basal planes,<sup>24</sup> so cracking of CA<sub>6</sub> plates occurs more easily across plains parallel to its length. This cleavage will condition its mechanical behaviour.

The recent interest in the processing of ceramics whose microstructure exhibits platelike morphologies, has arisen in great part due to the fact that elongated grains can act as bridging sites in the wake of a crack, hence resulting in improved mechanical behaviour. Between magnetoplumbites that present this kind of morphology, CA<sub>6</sub> has been chosen as a reinforcing material in alumina composites<sup>16–23</sup> due to both its chemical compatibility

and its mechanical and thermal expansion properties. Its easy cleaving crystallographic basal planes can be oriented parallel to a fibre-matrix interface making CA<sub>6</sub> a suitable material as alumina fibre coatings.<sup>24,28,29</sup> It presents a low solubility in iron containing slags<sup>30–33</sup> and a high stability in reducing atmospheres. These properties allow CA<sub>6</sub> to be in contact with steel and iron at high temperature without significant corrosion of the ceramic material. Hexaluminates can retain a large surface area at elevated temperature and can be good candidates as support materials for high temperature catalytic processes.<sup>8,34,35</sup> Thanks to the capacity of magnetoplumbites to accommodate fission product as Sr, Ba, Cs, and Ce in their structure,<sup>36–39</sup> their high chemical stability and low sensibility to radiation,<sup>40,41</sup> they are good host structures for long term immobilisation of nuclear waste.<sup>42,43</sup>

Despite the interesting potential applications of CA<sub>6</sub>, up to date, only a few investigations regarding their mechanical properties have been reported with highly spread and contradictory results. This work focused on the study of some mechanical properties of calcium hexaluminate and the mechanisms responsible for its mechanical behaviour. Creep will be the subject of a next paper.

## 2. Experimental procedure

CA<sub>6</sub> was formed by reaction sintering of a mixture of 85.9 wt.% alumina (CT3000SG, Alcoa, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania) and 14.1 wt.% calcium carbonate powders (PG-40, Asturcal, Gijon, Spain). Samples with different densities and microstructures were prepared by means of different processing methods. Details of processing methods employed, and microstructural and physical properties are reported elsewhere.<sup>15</sup> They are briefly presented in Table 1 and Fig. 2. As already reported in Ref. 15, it is difficult to reach full density in reaction sintered CA<sub>6</sub>; even increasing sintering temperature up to 1750°C, i.e. slightly below the fusion temperature of pure hibonite, the density was only 95% of theoretical density. Thus samples were always quite porous. Hot pressing could have been used to process fully dense materials, but it leads to significant anisotropy of microstructure and properties, which complicates the analysis. Microstructure and properties of hot pressed CA6 will be the subject of a further paper.

Mechanical tests were conducted in bending on bar-shaped specimens with dimensions of about 4×6×40 mm<sup>3</sup>. The tensile face of the flexural strength specimens and the largest faces of thermal shock specimens were polished with diamond paste (6 μm) and the edges were chamfered (about 45°). A straight notch was introduced, at the centre of the tensile face of specimens for toughness and R-curve tests, by means of a diamond

Table 1

Processing conditions, density and grains morphology of CA<sub>6</sub> samples

Sample	Processing conditions			Grains morphology				
	Mixing method	Forming method	Firing temperature (°C)	Bulk density (%)	Length (μm)	Width (μm)	Aspect ratio	Porosity distribution
SP	Stirring	Cold isostatic	1650	73.5±0.1	4.2±2.4	1.2±0.8	4.3±3.5	Wide size pores
		Pressing	1750	86.2±0.5	6.5±3.5	2.5±1.5	2.9±1.5	
AC	Attrition milling	Slip casting	1600	70.1±1.2	2.6±1.5	1.1±0.6	2.6±1.5	Homogeneous small pores
			1650	76.5±0.7	3.0±1.7	1.2±0.6	2.6±1.6	
			1700	88.3±0.8	3.2±2.1	1.3±0.9	2.7±1.7	
			1750	94.6±0.2	3.4±1.8	1.5±0.8	2.6±2.1	

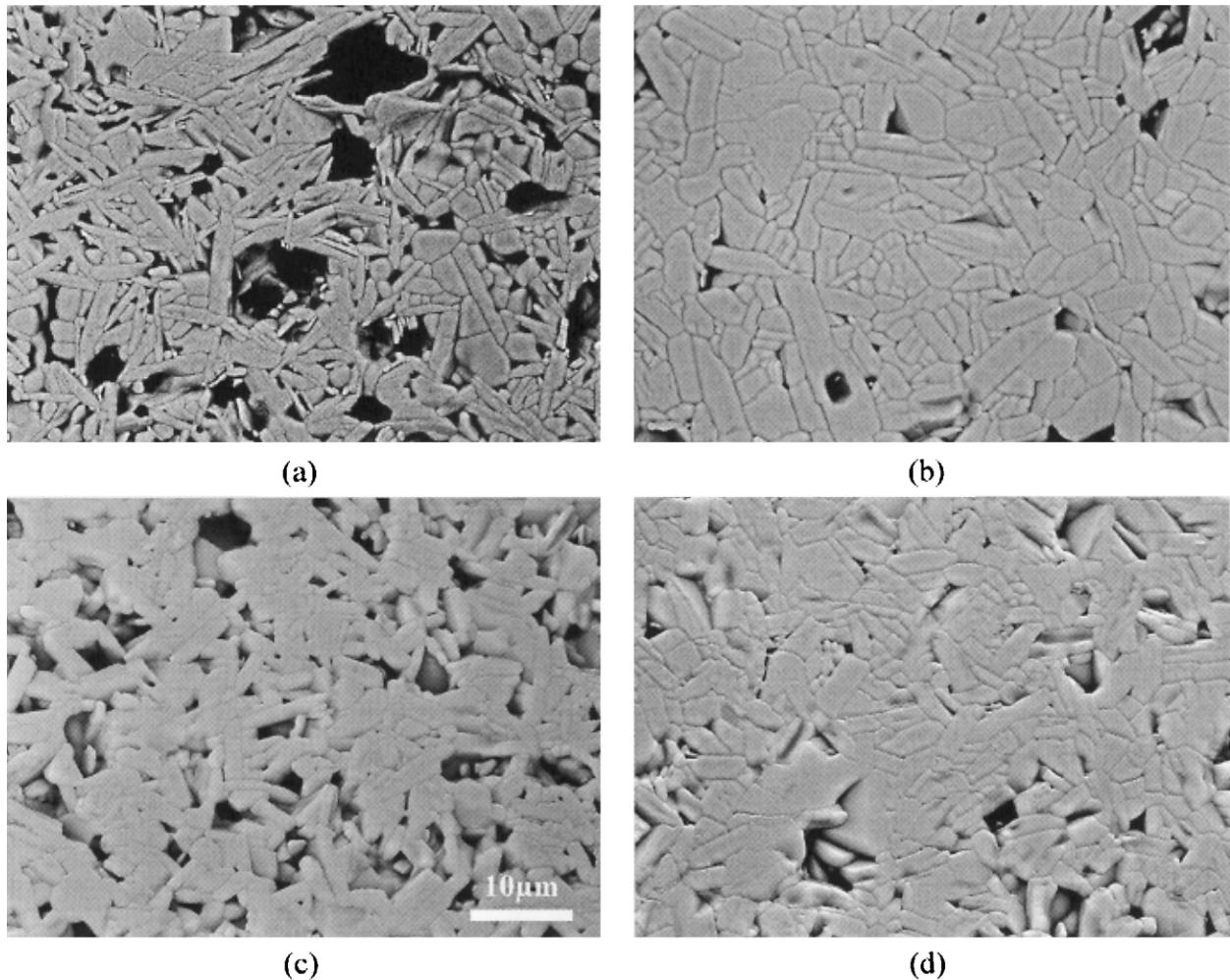


Fig. 2. SEM images of (a) SP and (c) AC samples fired at 1650°C and (b) SP and (d) AC samples fired at 1750°C. Note the higher aspect ratio of (a) in comparison with the other samples.

saw with a slot width of 0.3 mm. A second notch (diameter of about 70 μm) was carefully and slowly introduced by a razor sprinkled with a 6 μm diamond paste in correspondence of the tip of the first notch. The relative crack total length,  $a/W$ , was fixed at 0.3 and 0.55 for the toughness and R-curve tests respectively. Five specimens were used for the flexural strength, three

for the toughness, one for the R-curve and a minimum of eight for the thermal shock tests.

Fracture tests were carried out with a four-point alumina device with an outer span of 35 mm and an inner span of 10 mm. The cross-head speed was 5 mm/min, except 3 μm/min for R-curve tests. Flexural strength and toughness were measured at room temperature,

1000, 1200 and 1400°C. The fracture toughness was determined using single edge notched beam (SENB) specimens. From the room temperature strength distribution and toughness mean values, the critical size distribution was evaluated according to:

$$K_{IC} = Y\left(\frac{a}{w}\right) \cdot \sigma_R \cdot \sqrt{a} \quad (1)$$

where  $K_{IC}$  is the toughness,  $\sigma_R$  the flexural strength,  $a$  the critical crack size and  $Y(a/w)$  is the geometrical expression given by Tada et al.<sup>44</sup> The resistance to crack propagation was only measured at room temperature. The  $R$ -curve is determined during crack propagation from the measurement of the stress intensity factor,  $K_R$ , as a function of crack length. The crack length is determined indirectly from the load–displacement curve by the compliance method.<sup>45</sup> This method underestimates  $K_R$  values,<sup>46</sup> but is the only applicable due to the high porosity of most samples.

Details of the thermal shock test method have been described previously.<sup>47</sup> The specimens were initially heated in a resistance furnace at different temperatures for 10 min. and cooled symmetrically by the application of two jets of pulsed air to the largest faces. The acoustic emission (AE) of the sample was monitored by a piezoelectric transducer connected to a wave-guide in a direct contact with the specimen. The emissive response during cooling was recorded in order to detect the crack formation. The damage induced by thermal shock was characterised by measuring the evolution of the retained strength after crack detection.

To observe cracks path, sintered samples were cut and polished with a series of diamond pastes down to 6 µm. The polished samples were thermally etched at 1500°C for 1 h to release machining residual stresses, and indented at 200 N with a Vickers indenter. Finally indented samples and crack surfaces were gold coated for scanning electron microscopy observation (SEM) and energy dispersive X-ray microanalysis (EDX). Thin slices of materials were cut with a diamond wire, mechanically pre-thinned, and ion-milled for high-resolution transmission electron microscopy examination (HRTEM).

The main study was made using samples fired at 1650 and 1750°C, while the flexural strength of AC material was also measured after firing at 1600 and 1700°C in order to see the influence of porosity amount.

### 3. Results

Any glassy phase was observed by TEM, neither at grain boundaries, nor at triple joints. Nevertheless, inside the grains, it was seen the evidence of high dislocation activity, as shown in Fig. 3. The dislocations are located in bands of planes parallel to flat boundaries. At each side of these bands, the material has the

same orientation, and dislocation planes are also parallel to one of the crystallographic planes of CA<sub>6</sub>. As it was seen before, flat boundaries develop parallel to CA<sub>6</sub> basal planes, meaning that dislocation planes are also parallel to crystallographic basal planes.

Fig. 4 shows the flexural strength of different materials,  $\sigma_R$ , at room temperature, as a function of firing temperature. It can be observed that values as high as 380 MPa can be obtained, even if densities are never higher than 95%. The flexural strength of a ceramic material is linked to both its density and pores morphology. Usually, an increase in firing temperature leads to an increase in density and accordingly in flexural strength. This behaviour is followed only by AC samples, while in SP specimens  $\sigma_R$  decreases slightly as firing temperature increases. The evolution of  $\sigma_R$  as a function of total porosity is displayed in Fig. 5. For the same porosity values, SP samples have always a lower flexural strength than AC ones. The common behaviour is the decrease in  $\sigma_R$  as porosity rate increases, but SP material shows a slight increase with porosity. Only  $\sigma_R = f(p)$  values of AC material can be fitted by a classical exponential law on the form:

$$\sigma_R = 430 \cdot e^{-2.6p} \quad (2)$$

where  $p$  is porosity.

Fig. 6 presents the toughness,  $K_{IC}$ , as a function of firing temperature.  $K_{IC}$  increases with firing temperature mainly due to the decrease in materials porosity. Thanks to the platelet microstructure of CA<sub>6</sub>, a strengthening was expected due to a bridging mechanism, as it is usually observed in other platelet ceramic materials, but the material with higher aspect ratio (SP) is the one who shows the lower toughness values. This fact means that either bridging mechanisms are weak, or the low density of this material hides any strengthening effect.

Flexural strength is not an intrinsic parameter of a material, since it depends on the flaws present in the specimen. So the critical flaw sizes were measured. That of AC specimens (Fig. 7) does not change significantly with firing temperature. On the contrary, in SP samples, the critical flaw size grows up to about 100 µm when firing temperature increases to 1750°C.

The evolution of flexural strength as a function of test temperature is shown in Fig. 8. The  $\sigma_R$  decrease is more important in the samples that show high values at room temperature, so at 1400°C, the differences are small. It can also be observed that, in the temperature interval from 1000 to 1200°C,  $\sigma_R$  decreases significantly. Outside this temperature interval, the  $\sigma_R$  decrease is less important. As regard the toughness evolution as a function of test temperature (Fig. 9), it is similar in all tested materials, and almost constant between 1000 and 1400°C.

Fig. 10 shows the evolution of crack growth resistance,  $K_R$ , at room temperature with increasing crack

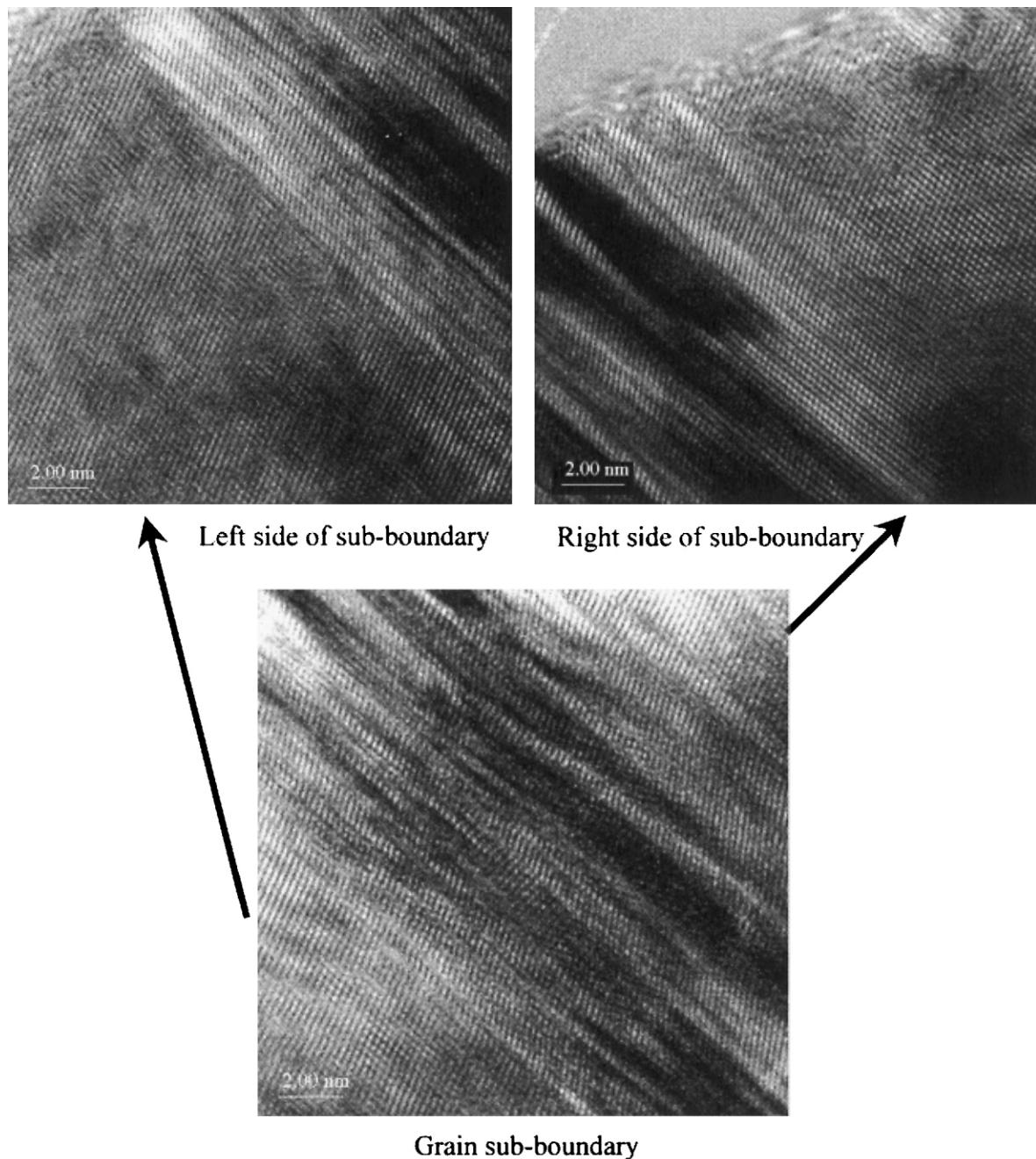


Fig. 3. TEM image of the bulk of a calcium hexaluminate grain.

length.  $K_R$  increases mainly in materials fired at 1750°C while those fired at 1650°C show any  $R$ -curve effect.

The crack surfaces of materials fired at 1750°C and tested at high temperature show the presence of tiny hexagonal plates on some grain boundaries, as shown in Fig. 11. These hexagonal plates are also composed of CA<sub>6</sub>. This isolated fact is found only in materials fired at 1750°C, and after high temperature mechanical tests.

To better understand the mechanical behaviour of calcium hexaluminate, we decided to observe crack surfaces by SEM and to indent flat samples in order to follow crack paths. A typical crack surface of CA<sub>6</sub> is

displayed in Fig. 12. It can be seen that cracking is mostly due to transgranular cleavage. The arrow shows a good example of “cleavage steps”.

Fig. 13 shows the typical path followed by an indentation crack in an specimen of AC material fired at 1750°C. This path is complex and particularly sinuous. The crack goes through some grains boundaries (A points), but it propagates preferably through grains, and principally by planes parallel to flat boundaries (B points). Sometimes, and mainly in materials fired at 1750°C, crack can deflect to cross the grains by its larger dimension (C point). Any crack bridging was observed.

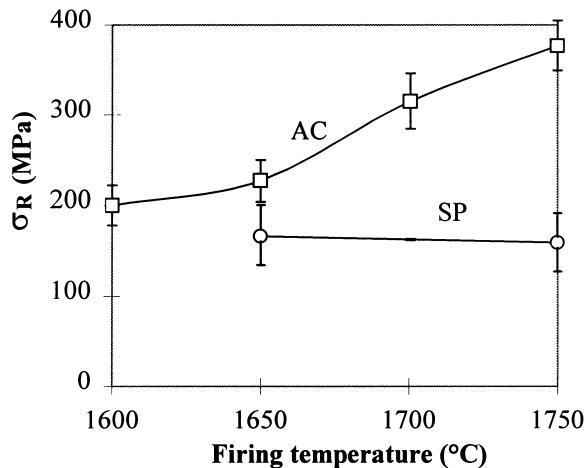


Fig. 4. Flexural strength at room temperature as a function of firing temperature.

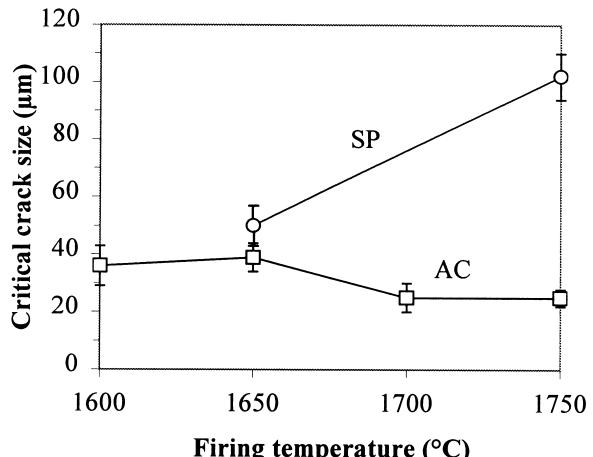


Fig. 7. Critical crack size evolution as a function of firing temperature.

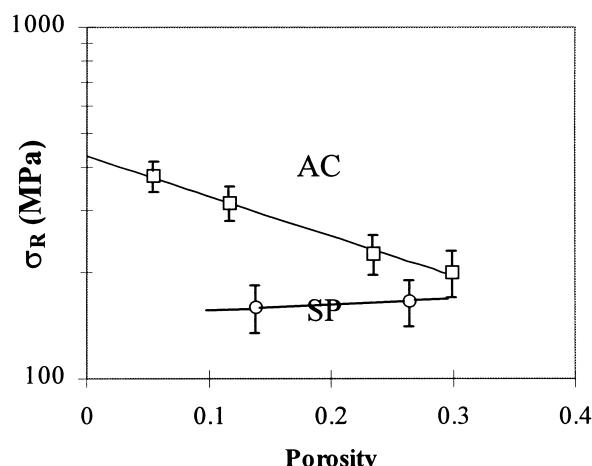


Fig. 5. Flexural strength evolution as a function of porosity.

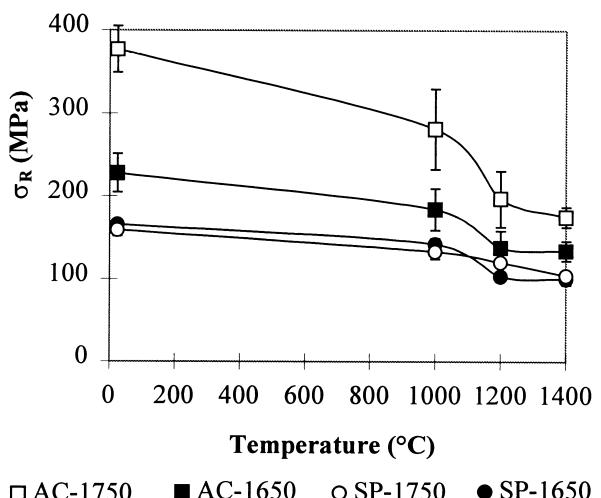


Fig. 8. Flexural strength evolution as a function of temperature.

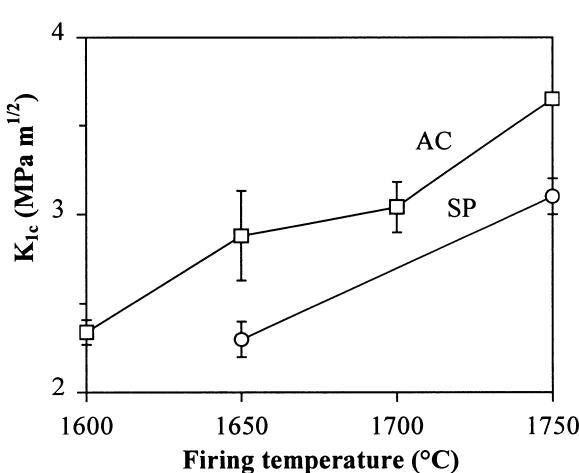


Fig. 6. Toughness at room temperature as a function of firing temperature.

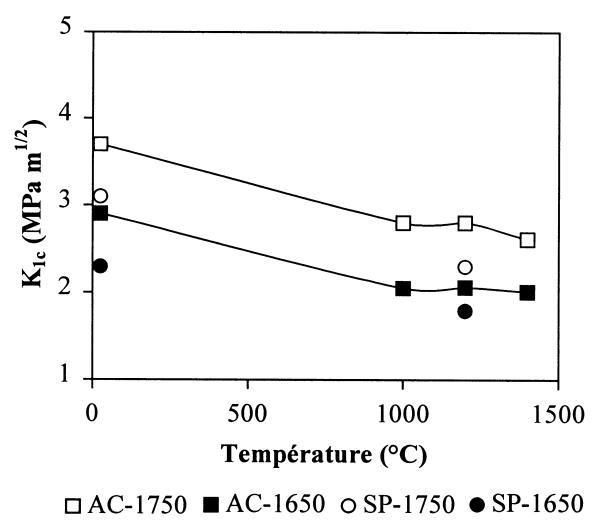


Fig. 9. Temperature dependence of toughness.

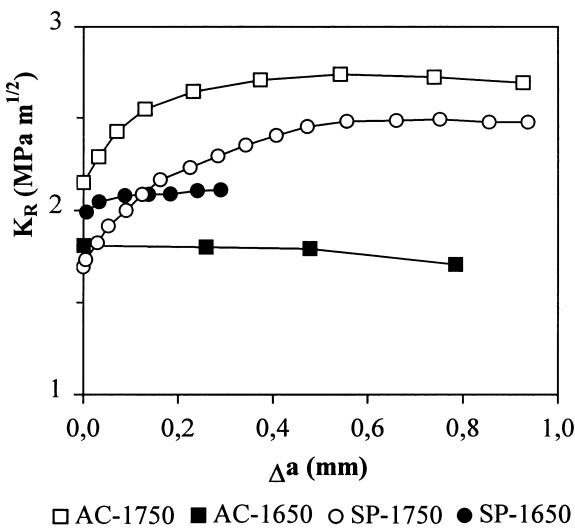


Fig. 10. Crack growth resistance.

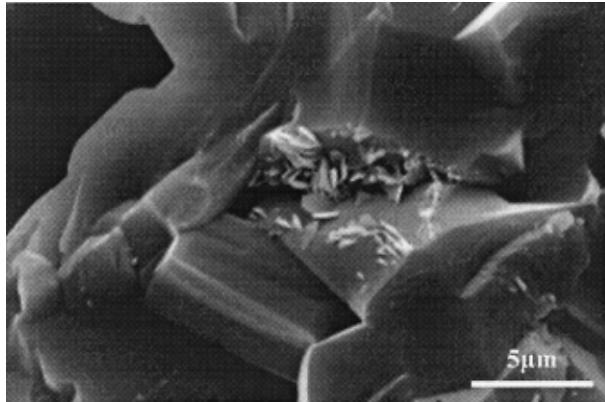


Fig. 11. Detail of crack surface of a SP specimen fired at 1750°C after a fracture test at 1000°C.

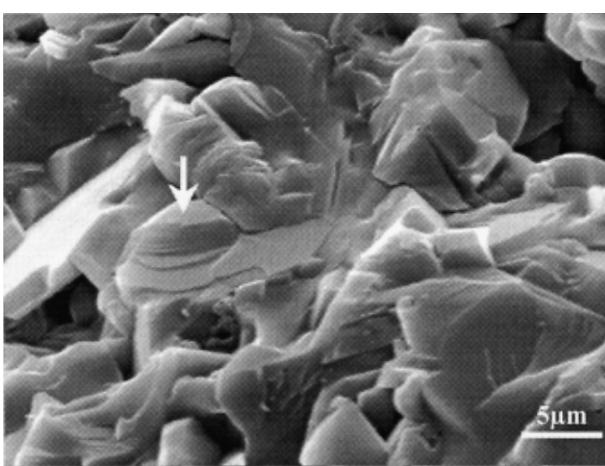


Fig. 12. SEM image of a typical crack surface of materials SP and AC.

Thermal shock degradation, evaluated in terms of critical temperature and retained strength is represented in Table 2. Critical temperature is the temperature at which a sudden drop in strength appears due to the

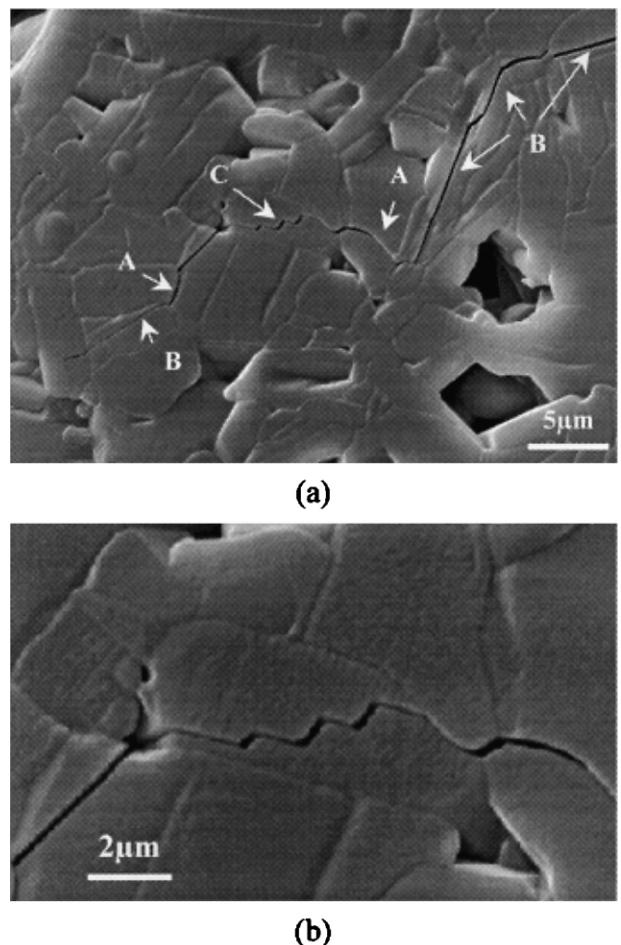


Fig. 13. (a) Crack path followed by an indentation crack in AC material fired at 1750°C: A, intergranular fracture; B, transgranular fracture without crack deviation; C, transgranular fracture with crack deviation. (b) Detail of C.

catastrophic propagation of incipient cracks. The lost of strength after thermal shock is an indicator of the extent of crack propagation. Material SP fired at 1650°C shows a strong fall off of strength (86%) as temperature reaches 550°C. When fired at 1750°C this materials presents a smaller fall off (49%) at a lower temperature. Material AC shows a similar behaviour, when fired at 1650°C its retained strength exhibits a strong degradation as temperature reaches 610°C, similar to that of material SP fired at the same temperature. Material AC also presents a smaller fall off (67%) at a lower temperature when fired at 1750°C than when fired at 1650°C. To sum up, critical temperature is higher in materials fired at 1650°C than in those fired at 1750°C. On the contrary, the retained strength is higher in materials fired at 1750°C.

#### 4. Discussion

Even if any glassy phase was observed by TEM, a very small quantity of glassy phase must be present in

materials fired at 1750°C. The reason is the presence of tiny CA<sub>6</sub> plates on some grain boundaries in materials tested at high temperature (Fig. 11). It is indeed known that silica is rejected by CA<sub>6</sub> and accumulates at grain boundaries or triple points,<sup>9,48</sup> giving a silica and CA<sub>6</sub> rich glassy phase. During cooling, some CA<sub>6</sub> nucleation germs form from this glassy phase. During mechanical test at high temperature, these germs can grow to give the small CA<sub>6</sub> plates observed in Fig. 11.

As has been reported before,<sup>15</sup> the main mechanism responsible for the growth of calcium hexaluminate grains is the welding of neighbour grains when they are disposed with their basal planes parallel. Transmission electron microscopy showed the presence of dislocations at the interface between plates of the same orientation (Fig. 3). This fact shows that grain boundaries do not completely disappear during grain growth, and that a band of several dislocation planes appears instead, leading to the formation of many sub-boundaries inside grains. These sub-boundaries are parallel to basal plane in CA<sub>6</sub> grains.

Therefore, sub-boundaries can be seen as a preferential path to crack propagation. It was seen that the fracture is mainly transgranular across planes parallel to flat boundaries (Fig. 13). These planes can be identified as either basal planes or sub-boundaries. If crack deflects between sub-boundaries to cross the grains, it will lead to a larger distance between cleavage steps than when it deflects between basal planes. The height of steps showed in Fig. 13, larger than those observed in Fig. 12, can be interpreted as a sub-boundaries cracking. Usually in platelet microstructures an important grain bridging is observed. In calcium hexaluminate any grain bridging was noticed, but the high crack deflection observed instead will strengthen the material. This transgranular fracture along sub-boundaries means that the fracture energy of sub-boundaries is low, on the same order of the fracture energy for real grain boundaries (we shall remember that sub-boundaries correspond to the initial boundaries between plates of smaller dimensions). Thus, it is easier for the crack to propagate straight through the grains than along the grain boundaries, where long scale deviation is needed.

As has been seen in Fig. 5, only the flexural strength of AC samples can be related to the porosity. Flexural strength is not an intrinsic parameter of a material, since it depends on the flaws present in the specimen tested. The critical flaw size of AC specimens (Fig. 7) does not change significantly with firing temperature. On the contrary, in material SP, it grows up to about 100 µm when firing temperature is increased to 1750°C. A previous work of present authors showed that in low-density specimens (SP) pores have a wide size distribution and pores size can attempt 50 µm.<sup>15</sup> It is well known that the tendency of large pores during a densification process is to grow while that of small ones is to shrink and disappear.<sup>49</sup> In SP material, the slight increase in density

with firing temperature is due to the size reduction of small pores, while bigger pores remain in the microstructure and even increase in size. As both pores size and critical flaw size of SP specimens grow up when firing temperature increases, it can be considered that in this material pores are the critical flaws. The grow up of critical flaw size when firing temperature increases explains the flexural strength decrease observed, in SP specimens, at high firing temperatures. Microstructure seems to do not play a direct role on CA<sub>6</sub> flexural strength because this property is mainly controlled by density and pores size. Therefore, to increase  $\sigma_R$ , it is necessary to optimise processing in order to decrease flaw size and increase density. Nevertheless, it is possible that a certain strengthening is produced in materials fired at 1750°C, those which present the higher  $\sigma_R$  values. At high temperature some grain boundaries disappear to form the sub-boundaries. These sub-boundaries will be stronger than the original grain boundaries.

$\sigma_R$  shows an important degradation as test temperature increases in the temperature interval from 1000 to 1200°C (Fig. 8). This degradation is more important in AC sample fired at 1750°C. The materials fired at this temperature present at 1000°C a punctual crystallisation of glassy phase. The formation of small crystal can generate stresses and microcracks that can be responsible of this  $\sigma_R$  fall off observed at temperatures close to 1000°C. Outside the 1000–1200°C interval, the  $\sigma_R$  decrease follows a typical law of decrease in atomic bonding energies with temperature.

Usually, in platelet materials, grain bridging and crack deflection are the strengthening mechanisms. Thanks to the platelet microstructure of CA<sub>6</sub>, a high strengthening was expected due to a bridging mechanism, and therefore a high crack growth resistance behaviour, but it has been shown that the material with the more equiaxed grains is the one who shows the higher toughness values and the only with a real *R*-curve effect. In fact, crack resistance is controlled by another mechanism. The crack predisposition to propagate along the basal planes or sub-boundaries, that produce high crack deflections, will strengthen the material. Again higher values of toughness and crack growth resistance are obtained in materials fired at 1750°C, even if grains seem equiaxed.

Retained strength after thermal shock (Table 2) is higher in materials that present a rising *R*-curve behaviour. Materials fired at 1750°C present a certain crack growth resistance, contrary to those fired at 1650°C, explaining the higher retained strength values of the former. The higher critical temperature of materials fired at 1650°C can be explained by their higher porosity, that induces a lower Young modulus and consequently lower thermal stresses.

Calcium hexaluminate is a material close to alumina, so their properties can be compared. Comparison is

Table 2

Critical temperature and retained strength after thermal shock in air for CA<sub>6</sub> materials

	SP		AC	
	1650°C	1750°C	1650°C	1750°C
T <sub>c</sub>	550	470	610	500
σ/σ <sub>0</sub>	0.14	0.51	0.13	0.33

quite delicate, specially as regard toughness measurement, because values are highly dependent of the employed method. Indentation methods must be avoided because they overestimate toughness in highly porous materials.<sup>50,51</sup> Notch diameter in SENB specimens has also an important influence. Usually, notch diameters as high as 0.2–0.3 mm are used, leading to an overestimate of toughness.<sup>52,53</sup> In this work notch diameters of 70 μm were used, that will give results closer to true K<sub>IC</sub>. Calcium hexaluminate and alumina materials exhibit similar flexural strength and toughness values when density and grains size are similar.<sup>54</sup> It can even be higher in CA<sub>6</sub> at high porosity rates. At high temperatures flexural strength values of both materials are comparable<sup>55</sup> while toughness can be higher in CA<sub>6</sub>. An alumina material with a similar grain size rarely exhibits an R-curve behaviour or it is very small,<sup>56</sup> so calcium hexaluminate can present a better crack growth resistance. Generally, alumina has a better thermal shock resistance than CA<sub>6</sub>, showing both higher critical temperature and retained strength.<sup>57–58</sup> The main reason of this behaviour is the low thermal conductivity of CA<sub>6</sub>, between 6 and 8 times lower than alumina at room temperature, and about a half at 1000°C.<sup>59</sup>

## 5. Conclusions

Until now, calcium hexaluminate was a material not fully characterised, as regards to its properties. A quite complete mechanical study has been done in order to understand the mechanisms responsible of its mechanical behaviour and to evaluate the influence of microstructure.

Calcium hexaluminate exhibits a flexural strength and toughness comparable to alumina at similar porosity. They can even be higher in CA<sub>6</sub> at high porosity rates. At high temperatures flexural strength values of both materials are similar while toughness can be higher in CA<sub>6</sub>. Grain morphology seems to do not play an important role on CA<sub>6</sub> flexural strength because this property is mainly controlled by density and pores size. Nevertheless, it is possible that a certain strengthening is produced in materials fired at 1750°C, thanks to the disappearing of grain boundaries to form the sub-boundaries. Thanks to the platelet microstructure of

CA<sub>6</sub>, a high strengthening was expected due to a bridging mechanism, and therefore a high crack growth resistance behaviour, but any grain bridging was observed. Nevertheless fracture is controlled by another mechanism, that is, the crack predisposition to propagate along the basal planes or the sub-boundaries, that produces high crack deflections. This strengthening allows calcium hexaluminate to present a better crack growth resistance than alumina. Nevertheless, due to the lower thermal conductivity of CA<sub>6</sub>, its thermal shock resistance is lower than in alumina, showing both lower critical temperature and retained strength.

As CA<sub>6</sub> is a “new” material, it is necessary to look for its potentialities. This material will be better than alumina for applications where it is necessary to have a porous, low thermal conductivity or high crack growth resistant material. It is also important to consider its high stability in reducing atmospheres and low solubility in iron containing slags. Nevertheless it is necessary to keep in mind its low thermal shock resistance. New applications for monolithic CA<sub>6</sub> could be in filters or thermal insulating, specially in insulating fibres because alumina ones show an important sintering at high temperatures, but the future of this material will be in alumina composites thanks to the higher crack growth resistance that it brings. This application would now be better developed thanks to the knowledge of mechanism that controls CA<sub>6</sub> behaviour.

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