



# Porous TiAl alloys fabricated by sintering of TiH<sub>2</sub> and Al powder mixtures



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## ABSTRACT

Porous TiAl alloys with different nominal powder compositions were fabricated through a cost-effective powder metallurgy (PM) approach by sintering TiH<sub>2</sub> and Al mixed powders. It is found that the pore properties vary with the TiH<sub>2</sub> and Al contents, i.e., the nature of the pores can be improved by using different compositions. Furthermore, by detailed structural characterizations, four crystalline phases, i.e.,  $\alpha_2$ -Ti<sub>3</sub>Al,  $\gamma$ -TiAl, TiAl<sub>3</sub>, and Ti<sub>2</sub>Al<sub>5</sub>, were observed in the fabricated porous TiAl alloys with different compositions. An optimal composition of TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al is preferred since its maximum open porosity is about 70% and its viscous permeability coefficient for nitrogen is 1.11  $\mu\text{m}^2$ .

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## 1. Introduction

There is great interest in porous metals as potential engineering materials in various industrial fields, especially in filtration fields, due to their unique properties such as impact energy absorption capacity, thermal conductivity, electrical insulation, and, in particular, good gas and liquid permeability [1–4]. However, their potential applications in filtration fields, e.g., high-temperature liquid and gas separation, were limited due to their poor corrosion resistance, poor oxidation resistance, and poor burn resistance at high temperatures. After extensive investigation for more than three decades [5–8] and the pioneering work of H. Clemens et al. [9–11], the TiAl alloys can now be seen as innovative high-temperature engineering materials. The advantages of this class of alloys are their sound engineering performances, including good oxidation resistance at elevated temperatures, particularly temperatures higher than 750 °C, and their excellent acid/alkali corrosion resistance. Advanced TiAl alloys, especially  $\gamma$ -TiAl based alloys, are complex multi-phase alloys that can be manufactured and processed by ingot or powder metallurgy as well as precision casting methods [7,9]. However, applications in filtration fields have been severely limited due to the alloys' high intrinsic costs. In

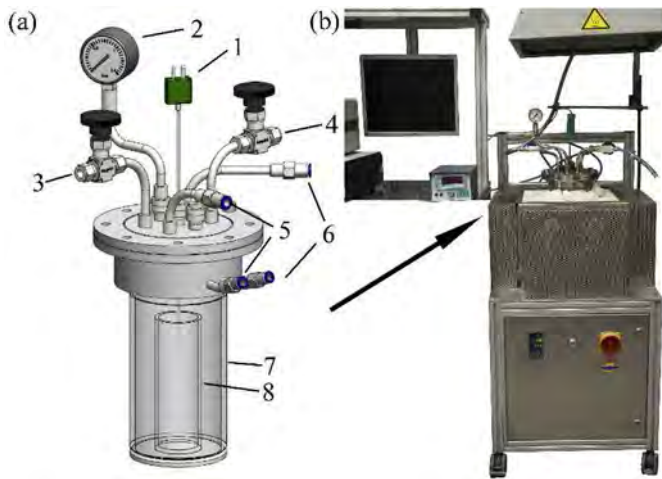
general, the sintering process of titanium-based objects should be performed in an argon or hydrogen atmosphere or in a vacuum due to titanium's high reactivity with oxygen, nitrogen, and water [12]. Therefore, cost reduction is a major driving force in the manufacturing and processing of porous TiAl alloys filters. On the other hand, the formation of titanium oxide or titanium nitride layers during sintering cannot be prevented completely under these neutral or reducing atmospheres. In order to prevent the formation of these compounds during the processing stage, the titanium hydride evolving hydrogen is an attractive raw material [12,13]. During sintering, the titanium hydride acts as a scavenger and reacts with oxide and nitrogen contaminants, resulting in titanium products that are protected against undesirable nitriding and oxidation [12].

Moreover, in the TiAl alloys system, different crystal structures, i.e., intermetallic compounds containing a mixture of metallic and covalent bonds [4], provide sound physical and chemical properties [8,9,14–17]. For example, the  $\alpha_2$ -Ti<sub>3</sub>Al phase (Al content, 14 to 23 wt %) has excellent corrosion resistivity; the  $\gamma$ -TiAl phase (Al content, 35 to 42 wt%) has low density and high-temperature structure stability; and the TiAl<sub>3</sub> phase (Al content, about 63 wt%) has good oxidation resistance and low density [18]. Consequently, it is worth investigating the effects of the Al content on pore structure and filter performance.

In this study, we introduce a new cost-effective powder metallurgy (PM) approach to fabricate porous TiAl alloys parts by

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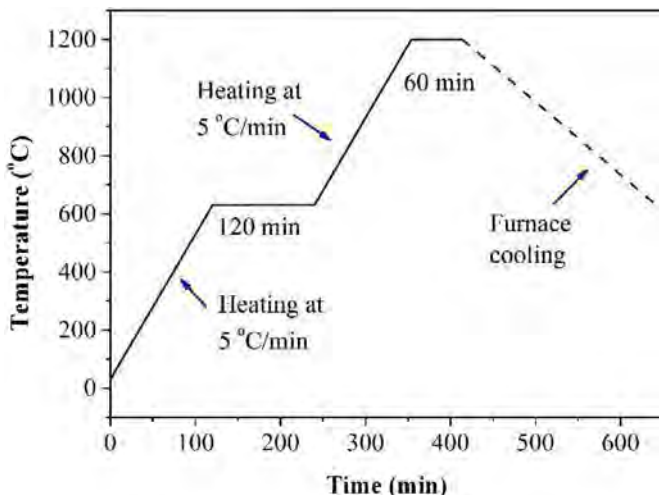


**Fig. 1.** (a) The schematic of the gas tight container for the sintering process: 1- Thermocouple, 2-Barometer, 3-Argon in, 4-Argon out, 5-Water in, 6-Water out, 7-Chamber, 8-Crucible. (b) The photograph of the sintering system.

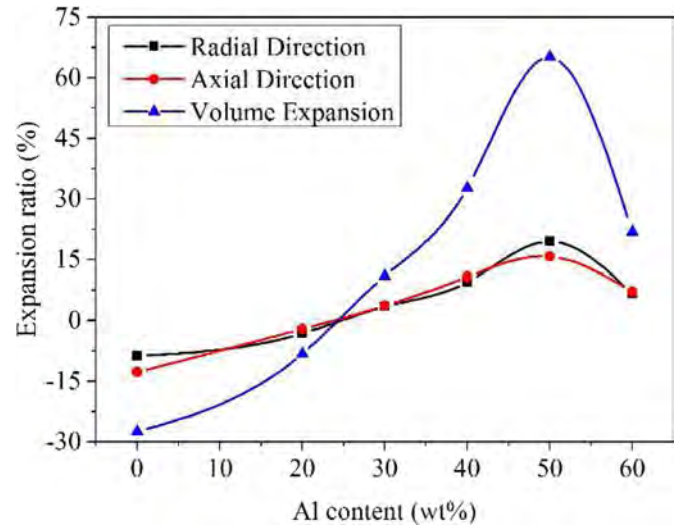
sintering  $\text{TiH}_2$  and Al powders with a nominal composition range from  $\text{TiH}_2$ -20wt% Al to  $\text{TiH}_2$ -60wt% Al. The different phases with different Al contents were characterized and the resulting filtration properties, i.e., pore structure and gas permeability/filter performance, were discussed.

## 2. Material and methods

Commercially available Al powders (99.8% purity,  $d_{50} = 55 \mu\text{m}$ ) and  $\text{TiH}_2$  powders (Ti > 99.6 wt%, C = 0.015 wt%, Fe = 0.028 wt%, H = 3.80 wt%, O = 0.21 wt%, <63  $\mu\text{m}$ , GfE, Germany) were used in the experiments. The  $d_{50}$  of  $\text{TiH}_2$  powders is 33.91  $\mu\text{m}$ . The nominal compositions varied from  $\text{TiH}_2$ -20wt% Al to  $\text{TiH}_2$ -60wt% Al with an increment of 10 wt% Al (TiH<sub>2</sub> content = 100% – Al content) in order to gain a systematic understanding of the relationship between the fabricated pore structures and different compositions. The reactant powders were first dry-mixed in a tumbler mixer for 18 h with the rolling rate of 60 rpm, followed by cold isostatic pressing (CIP, EPSI, Belgium) into compact cylinders using rubber tubes (Polyurethane, 50 duro, Trexler, USA) with a diameter of about 40 mm and a length of about 40 mm. The CIP pressure was 100 MPa and the duration



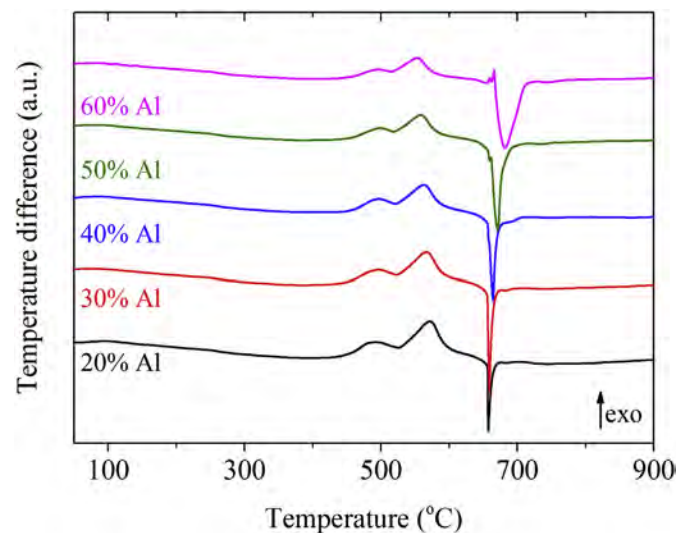
**Fig. 2.** The sintering temperature as a function of sintering time.



**Fig. 3.** The volume expansion of the compacts with the nominal composition of  $\text{TiH}_2$ -0wt% Al up to  $\text{TiH}_2$ -60wt% Al after sintering.

time was 120 s.

The compact cylinder in an  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  crucible was then put into a gas tight container, which was made of THERMAX heat-resistant steel (shown in Fig. 1(a)). Later, the container was put into the cavity of a cylindrical resistance furnace (shown in Fig. 1(b)). The temperature was measured using a thermocouple in the container, and the sintering process was protected by flowed argon with the rate of 20 ml/min. In Fig. 2, the temperature profile (sintering temperature vs. sintering time) is illustrated, and the two holding platforms are indicated. In order to avoid cracks in the compact cylinder caused by continuous heating at high heating rates, the cylinder was sintered with stepped heating at a heating rate of 5 °C/min. For the first holding platform, the cylinder was kept at 630 °C for 120 min, because it is close but lower than the melting point of Al (660 °C), at which cracks can be eliminated and the original shape of the cylinder can be preserved. Moreover,  $\text{TiH}_2$  can be decomposed completely into highly reactive Ti and  $\text{H}_2$  [19]. For the second holding platform, the cylinder was kept at 1200 °C for 60 min. The cylinder was then cooled down in the furnace.



**Fig. 4.** DTA plots of the  $\text{TiH}_2$ -Al powder mixtures with different Al contents.

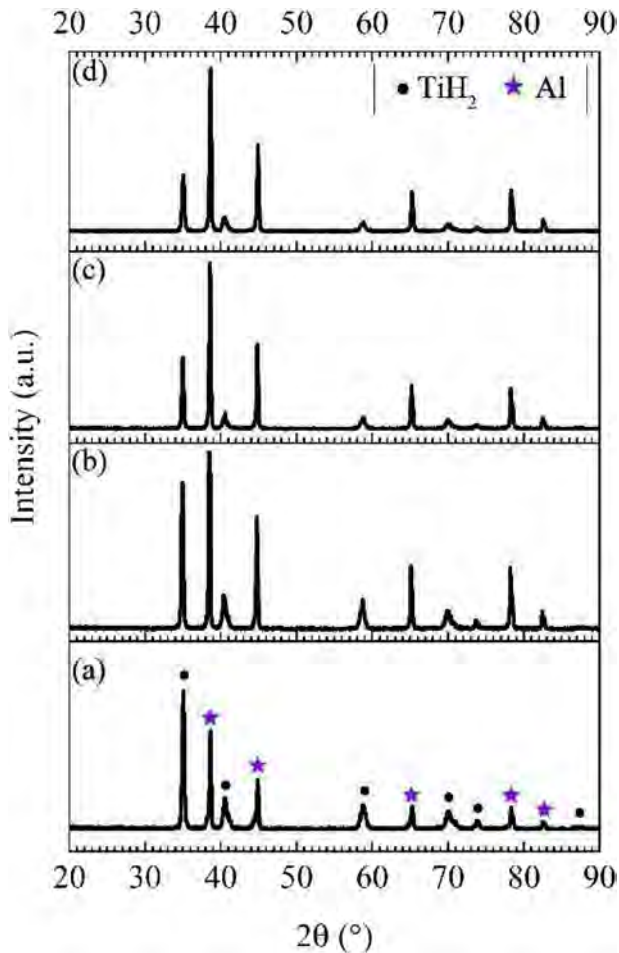


Fig. 5. X-ray patterns of green cylinders after CIP: (a) TiH<sub>2</sub>-20wt% Al, (b) TiH<sub>2</sub>-40wt% Al, (c) TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al, (d) TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al.

The dimensions of the cylinders were measured before and after sintering to determine the volume contraction or volume expansion. The cylinders before and after the sintering processes were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD, DLMAX-2200, Rigaku, Japan) to identify the crystalline phases. The pore structure before sintering was characterized by optical microscope (OM), while the pore structure after sintering was observed by OM and scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Zeiss SIGMA Field Emission SEM, Germany) with electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX, Oxford EBSD and EDX System). After coating the specimen surfaces with paraffin to prevent the penetration of water into the specimen, the overall porosity of the porous cylinders was measured using the Archimedes method. The open porosity was evaluated by measuring the weight and volume of the paraffin that penetrated into the porous cylinders when they were boiled in the paraffin. The sintered TiAl alloys cylinders were cut into discs with the thickness of about 3 mm, and then the bubble-point test method was used to measure the maximum pore size (Porolux 1000 porometer, IB-FT GmbH, Germany). According to the standard DIN EN ISO 4022:2006 [20], the gas permeability for nitrogen was also measured using this porometer at room temperature (23 °C). Hereby, the feed pressure was increased up to 2 bar while the permeable side was kept under atmospheric pressure.

In order to investigate the decomposition of TiH<sub>2</sub> and the reactions between the TiH<sub>2</sub>-Al powder mixtures during sintering,

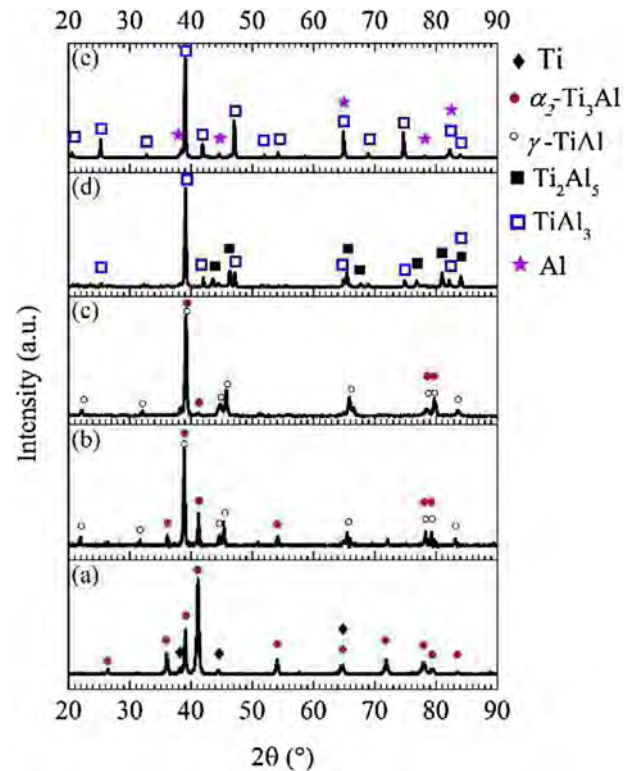


Fig. 6. X-ray patterns of porous TiAl alloy cylinders with different compositions: (a) TiH<sub>2</sub>-20wt% Al, (b) TiH<sub>2</sub>-30wt% Al, (c) TiH<sub>2</sub>-40wt% Al, (d) TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al, (e) TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al.

differential thermal analysis (DTA, NETZSCH STA 409C, Germany) was used to measure the thermal responses of the TiH<sub>2</sub>-Al powder mixtures with different Al contents. The samples were heated at a rate of 5 °C/min from 25 °C to 900 °C under an Ar flow.

### 3. Results and discussion

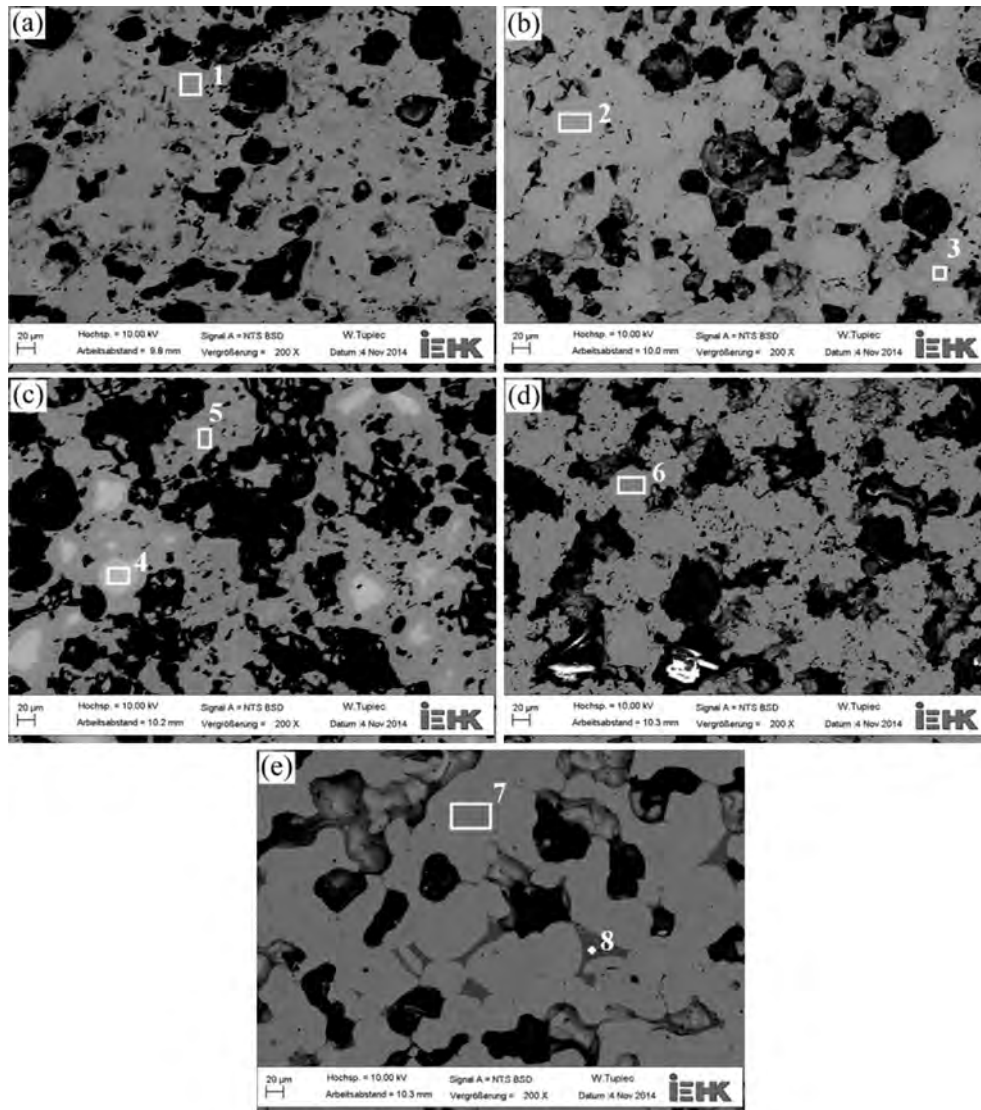
#### 3.1. Volume contraction and volume expansion

The dimension change during the sintering procedure for the porous TiAl alloys system is one of the most remarkable phenomena observed in studies of TiAl alloys [4,6,7,18]. Fig. 3 shows the volume and dimension expansion ratios (the volume/dimension of the cylinders after sintering divided by the volume/dimension of the un-sintered cylinders) as a function of the Al content. As seen from Fig. 3, the volume expansion of the cylinder with 20 wt% Al content was about -8% (volume contraction). The reason for this is that the lots of micron-gaps formed by H<sub>2</sub> which was released from the dehydrogenation of TiH<sub>2</sub> below the first holding platform (630 °C), after that shrinkage occurred at the second holding platform (1200 °C). In order to estimate the volume loss

Table 1

Crystalline phases in the sintered samples with different compositions measured by XRD.

Compositions	Phases
TiH <sub>2</sub> -20wt% Al	α <sub>2</sub> -Ti <sub>3</sub> Al, Ti
TiH <sub>2</sub> -30wt% Al	α <sub>2</sub> -Ti <sub>3</sub> Al, γ-TiAl
TiH <sub>2</sub> -40wt% Al	α <sub>2</sub> -Ti <sub>3</sub> Al, γ-TiAl
TiH <sub>2</sub> -50wt% Al	TiAl <sub>3</sub> , Ti <sub>2</sub> Al <sub>5</sub>
TiH <sub>2</sub> -60wt% Al	TiAl <sub>3</sub> , Al



**Fig. 7.** Backscatter diffraction images of porous TiAl alloy cylinders after sintering: (a) TiH<sub>2</sub>-20wt% Al, (b) TiH<sub>2</sub>-30wt% Al, (c) TiH<sub>2</sub>-40wt% Al, (d) TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al, (e) TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al.

(contraction) caused by the dehydrogenation of TiH<sub>2</sub>, 100 wt% TiH<sub>2</sub> powders were sintered using the same procedure. The volume contraction was 27.5%, as shown in Fig. 3. As shown in Fig. 4, the DTA plots show two exothermal peaks, which indicates that the dehydrogenation of TiH<sub>2</sub> occurs in a two-step process as TiH<sub>2</sub> → TiH<sub>x</sub> → α-Ti, where 0.7 < x < 1.1 [19]. Meanwhile, the great heat released by the dehydrogenation of TiH<sub>2</sub> while can lead to local Al melting, which leads to an instantaneous reaction between solid Ti and liquid Al. Al melt then flows away along Ti particles or grain boundaries, leaving pores behind [21]. On the other hand, through preferential diffusion of Al atoms into the Ti particles, as a result of the Kirkendall effect [6,21,22], the intermetallic compound TiAl<sub>3</sub> on the surfaces of the titanium particles forms. Consequently, particle volume increases. For this reason, the volume contraction of the sample with 20 wt% Al decreased to -8%. According to A.P. Savitskii's work on the reaction sintering of Ti-Al powder mixtures [6,23], the reaction between solid Ti and liquid Al is a strongly exothermic process. However, because the amount of Al melt is not very large and the reaction rate is so high that it cannot be resolved by calorimetry, the exothermal peak cannot be observed clearly [24]. Taking into consideration the temperature profile (Fig. 2),

below the temperature of the first holding platform, the temperature of the compact may be higher than that in the furnace. Afterwards, the temperature of the compact could be cooled to 630 °C during the first holding platform. As shown in Fig. 4, with increasing temperature, in the case of TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al and TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al only, tiny exothermal peaks could be seen, which practically overlapped with the melting peak of Al, which indicated that the liquid Al covering the Ti particles had become saturated. This meant that the temperature of the compact was probably not

**Table 2**

The composition of the selected area in Fig. 7(a)–(e) measured by EDX.

Selected area	Ti (wt%)	Al (wt%)	O (wt%)	Phase
1 (20 wt% Al)	80	20	–	α <sub>2</sub> -Ti <sub>3</sub> Al
2 (30 wt% Al)	81	19	–	α <sub>2</sub> -Ti <sub>3</sub> Al
3 (30 wt% Al)	66	34	–	γ-TiAl
4 (40 wt% Al)	83	17	–	α <sub>2</sub> -Ti <sub>3</sub> Al
5 (40 wt% Al)	61	39	–	γ-TiAl
6 (50 wt% Al)	45	55	–	TiAl <sub>3</sub> , Ti <sub>2</sub> Al <sub>5</sub>
7 (60 wt% Al)	37	63	–	TiAl <sub>3</sub>
8 (60 wt% Al)	2	95	3	Al

higher than the temperature in the furnace during the second heating process.

For Al contents from 30 wt% to 50 wt%, the volume expansions increased almost linearly as the Al content increased. The maximum volume expansion ratio reached about 65% when the Al content was 50 wt%. With increasing higher Al content, the Al melt formed comparatively rigid skeleton forms in the compact and flowed away along the Ti particles or grain boundaries, which enabled it to increase rapidly in size as a result of a diffusional growth of the titanium particles [6,23,25]. Therefore, the volume expansion caused by the flowing away of Al melt increased as the amount of Al melt was increased. In the case of TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al, the volume expansion reduced to about 22%. For this sample, Al was oversupplied to form the TiAl<sub>3</sub> phase, which was confirmed by the XRD patterns and EDX results mentioned in next section. After exceeding the melting point of Al, the Al melts were excessive and resulted in the shrinkage of the sintered grains due to the surface tension of the liquid phase [26]. Meanwhile, this blocked the pores

formed between the sintered grains. Consequently, these synergistic effects led to the reduction of the volume expansion for the TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al sample. The axial and radial expansion behaviors were also shown to be similar to the behavior of the volume expansion. The maximum axial and radial expansion ratios at the Al content of 50 wt% were ~16% and ~19%, respectively.

### 3.2. Phase identification

Fig. 5 presents the XRD patterns of green cylinders after CIP with different Al contents. As can be expected, only the Al and TiH<sub>2</sub> phases existed in all the samples before sintering. Fig. 6 shows the XRD patterns after sintering, and six different phases were found in five samples with different Al contents, which is also listed in Table 1. Furthermore, the phases in the sintered samples were confirmed by EBSD and EDX, as shown in Fig. 7 and listed in Table 2. For the sintered cylinder of TiH<sub>2</sub>-20wt% Al, only the  $\alpha_2$ -Ti<sub>3</sub>Al phase was detected, as shown in Fig. 7(a). For the samples of TiH<sub>2</sub>-30wt%

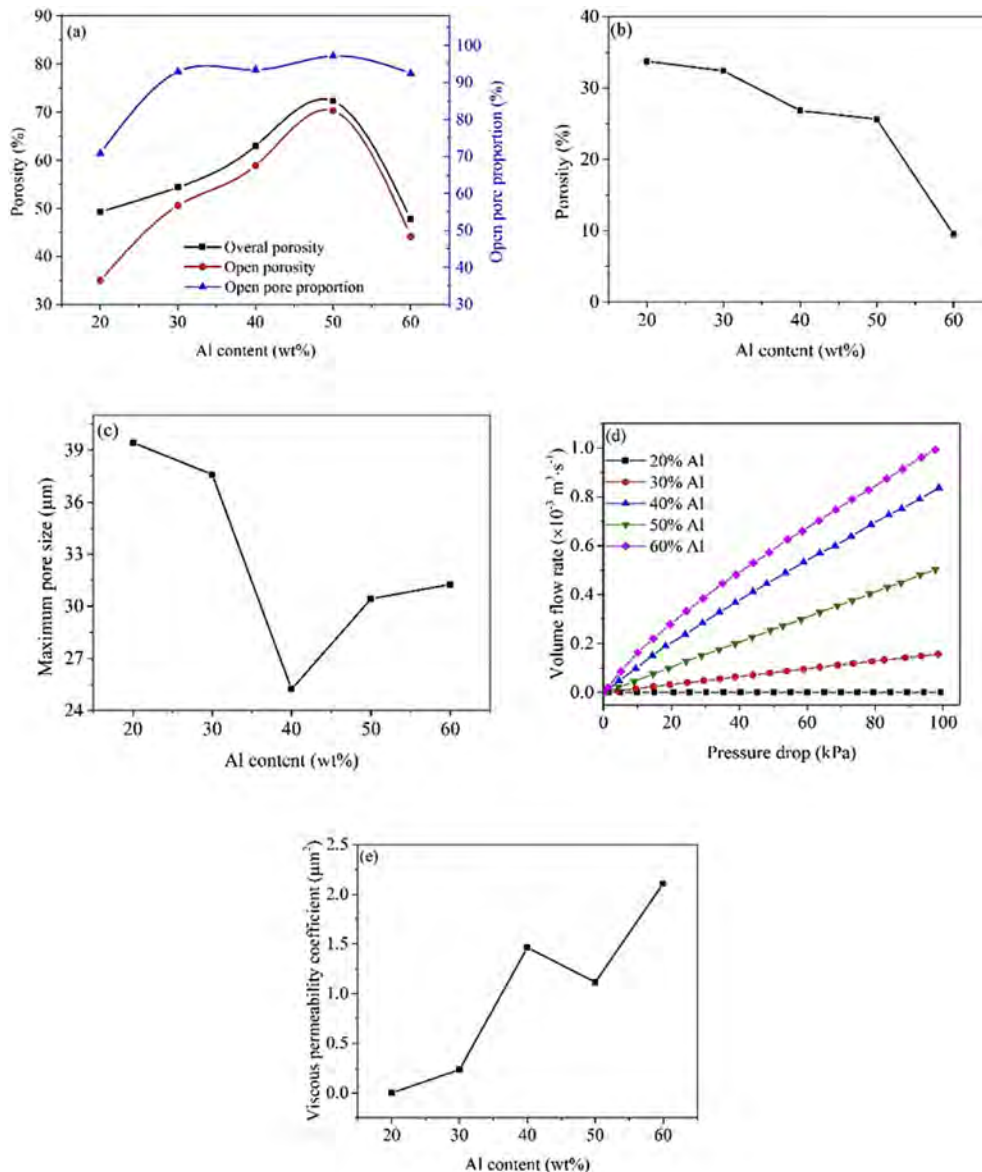


Fig. 8. The relationships between pore properties and the Al content of the porous TiAl alloys: (a) overall porosity, open porosity, and open pore proportion after sintering, (b) porosity before sintering, (c) maximum pore size, (d) nitrogen permeability, (e) viscous permeability coefficient.

Al and TiH<sub>2</sub>-40wt% Al, the  $\gamma$ -TiAl and  $\alpha_2$ -Ti<sub>3</sub>Al phases were observed, as shown in Fig. 7(b)–(c). For the sintered cylinder of TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al, the TiAl<sub>3</sub> and Ti<sub>2</sub>Al<sub>5</sub> phases could be found by BSD and EDX, as shown in Fig. 7(d). For the sample of TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al, the TiAl<sub>3</sub> and Al phases were present, as shown in Fig. 7(e). It can be seen that no free Al was observed except in the sample of TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al. Moreover, it should also be pointed out that the existence of six different phases didn't well match the phases found through the Ti–Al binary phase diagram [27] for the same compositions, especially for the Ti<sub>2</sub>Al<sub>5</sub> phase. The reason may be that the sintering and cooling processes are different from the equilibrium solidification process. Besides, the H<sub>2</sub> released from TiH<sub>2</sub> could influence the formation of Ti–Al intermetallic compounds, which will be investigated in the future.

### 3.3. Pore structure

Apart from the effect on the volume expansion of sintered porous TiAl alloys, the TiH<sub>2</sub> and Al contents also affected the pore structure of the porous TiAl alloys, which is an important factor for practical use, especially when aiming to filter parts of the alloys. In

general, two key parameters are used to comprehensively describe the pore structural properties, i.e., the open porosity and maximum pore size.

Fig. 8(a) shows the relationships between the overall and open porosities of the porous TiAl alloys and the Al/TiH<sub>2</sub> content. It should be noted that the result of open porosity could be biased against the real one. The reason for this is that the Archimedes method using paraffin tends to exclude the fine pores. It was found that a certain amount of closed pores exist because the interparticle pores in the green compacts could not be avoided. Fig. 9 shows the microstructure of the green compact cylinders before sintering. In Fig. 9, the white areas are attributed to Al particles, the gray areas to TiH<sub>2</sub> particles, and the black gaps among the particles are the interparticle pores. Due to the more irregular shape of TiH<sub>2</sub> powders compared to Al powders, more interparticle pores were created in the green compacts, which can be confirmed by the change in the porosity with an increasing hydride ratio of the green compacts before sintering. As shown in Fig. 8(b), the porosity of the green compacts before sintering decreased as the aluminum content increased.

Similar to the relationship between the volume expansion and

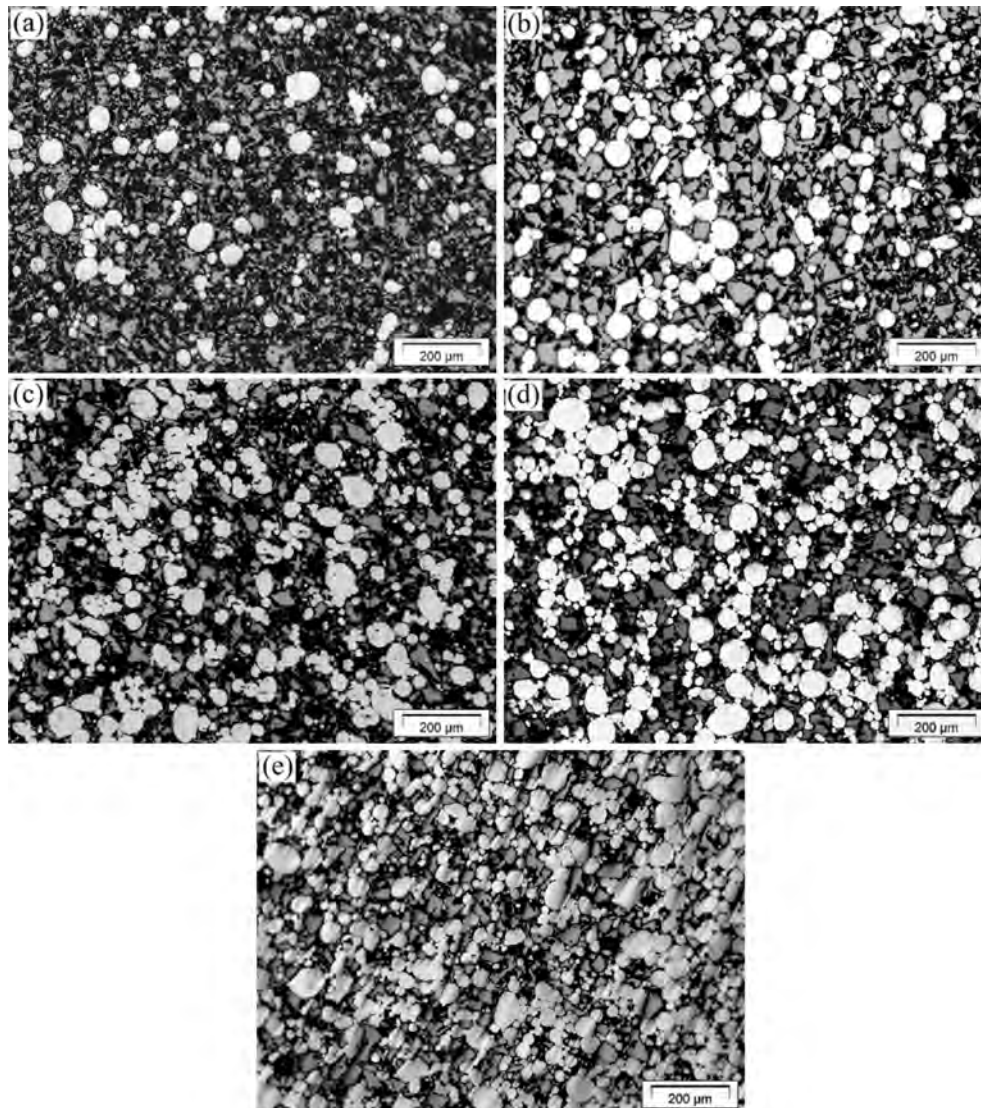


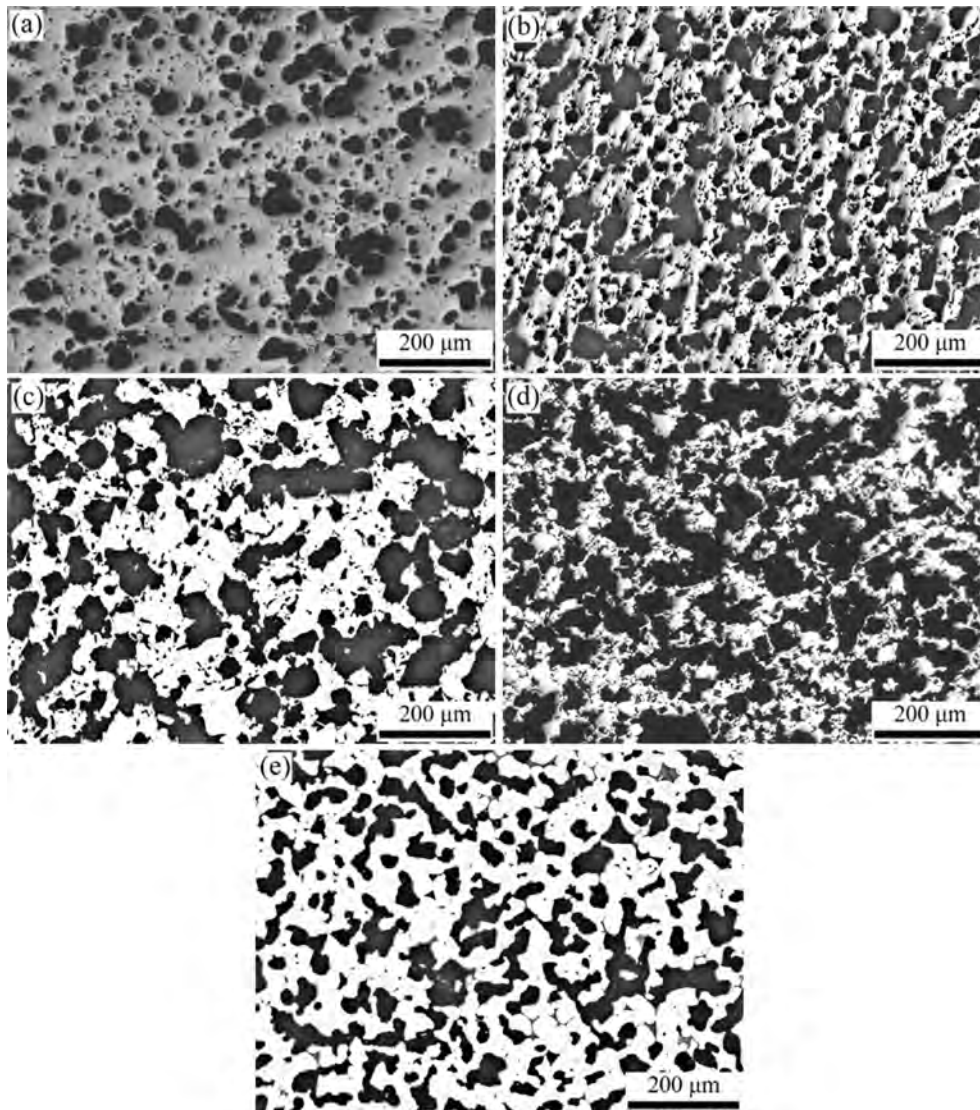
Fig. 9. Microstructure of the green compact cylinders before sintering: (a) TiH<sub>2</sub>-20wt% Al, (b) TiH<sub>2</sub>-30wt% Al, (c) TiH<sub>2</sub>-40wt% Al, (d) TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al, (e) TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al.

the Al content for the sintered samples, the open porosity increased as the Al content rose up to 50 wt%. The maximum open porosity of the porous TiAl alloys was about 70% at the composition of TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al. This indicates that the pores were initiated by the consumption of the Al during the reactive sintering. After that, the open porosity began to reduce gradually. The reason for this is that the excessive Al melt coats over the TiAl<sub>3</sub> grains and blocks the pores that are formed between the sintered grains. As a result, the open porosity and overall porosity decreases.

The mechanisms of pore formation can be demonstrated as follows: (1) The pores are initiated from the consumption of Al during the reactive sintering in accordance with the pore formation mechanism caused by the Kirkendall effect [6,21,22]. Since the Al atoms move into Ti particles, whereas the Ti atoms remain almost immobile [5], the movement (consumption) of Al atoms must be balanced by the vacancies. As a result, a large number of vacancies form at the original positions of the Al atoms and the excessive vacancies condense into pores to reduce the system's Gibbs free energy [4], i.e., the reaction between Al and Ti results in the formation of smaller pores directly. (2) With increasing temperature, the dehydrogenation of TiH<sub>2</sub> occurs first and lots of micron-gaps

form because of the release of H<sub>2</sub>. Meanwhile, because of the great heat given out by the dehydrogenation of TiH<sub>2</sub>, the local Al melts and leads to an instantaneous reaction between the solid Ti and the liquid Al. The Al melt then flows away along Ti particles or grain boundaries to spread over the Ti particles, leaving larger pores behind. As a result, the contact surface between Ti and Al is enlarged and the reaction between the solid Ti and the liquid Al is accelerated [21,24]. Therefore, more smaller pores caused by the Kirkendall effect form. (3) At temperatures above the melting point of Al, the liquid Al becomes saturated before all the initial pores are eliminated, and the transition of the solid phase into the melt ceases and densification stops. As a result, the residual pores are contained [28]. For the sample with 60 wt% Al, residual porosity existed due to the existence of the residual Al phase, which was confirmed by XRD and EDX.

The maximum pore size of the porous TiAl alloys as a function of Al content is shown in Fig. 8(c). When the Al content was less than 40 wt%, the maximum pore size decreased as the Al content increased; when the Al content was more than 40 wt% and less than 60 wt%, the result was the opposite. On the one hand, the decomposition reaction of TiH<sub>2</sub> formed some pores and more TiH<sub>2</sub>



**Fig. 10.** Pore microstructure of the porous TiAl alloys after sintering: (a) TiH<sub>2</sub>-20wt% Al, (b) TiH<sub>2</sub>-30wt% Al, (c) TiH<sub>2</sub>-40wt% Al, (d) TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al, (e) TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al.

powder, leading to a larger pore size. Besides this, the proportion of open pores increased as the Al content increased (see Fig. 8(a)). On the other hand, if the number of Al powders had been significantly greater than the number of Ti powders, an agglomeration behavior of Al powders would have occurred, and this would have enlarged the practical size of the Al particles. Since pores were mainly generated from the exhaustion of Al, as mentioned in the mechanisms of pore formation (2), the larger Al particle size led to the formation of larger pores. When the Al content was less than 40 wt %, the effect of TiH<sub>2</sub> decomposition on the maximum pore size was dominant. However, the effect of the exhaustion of Al was dominant when the Al content was over 40 wt%. It should be mentioned that for the sample with 60 wt% Al, the maximum pore size continued to increase even if some residual Al existed and led to a reduction of the porosity. In addition, Fig. 10 shows the OM images of five porous TiAl alloys with different Al contents after sintering. In Fig. 10 the bright areas are attributed to mixtures and the dark areas are attributed to pores. As can be clearly seen, the general pore size increased as the Al content increased when the Al content was less than 50 wt%. After that, the pore size began to reduce at the Al content of 60 wt%.

### 3.4. Gas permeability/filter performance

As a porous medium, viscous permeability plays an important role in filter performance. According to the standard DIN EN ISO 4022:2006 [20], gases are more suitable than liquids for the determination of the viscous permeability coefficient  $\psi_v$ . For a laminar flow regime, the incompressible fluid flow in a porous medium is governed by Darcy's law, in which the permeability can be evaluated using:

$$Q = \frac{\psi_v A}{\eta e} \Delta P, \quad (1)$$

where  $Q$  is the volume flow rate,  $A$  is the cross-sectional area ( $2.83 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$ ),  $e$  is the thickness of the sample (3 mm),  $\eta$  is the dynamic viscosity of the fluid ( $\text{N}_2$ ,  $\eta = 1.766 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Pa s}$  [29] at room temperature), and  $\Delta P$  is the pressure drop from the entrance to the exit of the sample. As shown in Fig. 8(d), the pressure drop versus the volume flow rate curves were experimentally determined. The plots of  $Q$  as a function of  $\Delta P$  for different Al content samples are linear and can be demonstrated with a straight line. This linearity indicates that the flow was in the laminar flow regime and that Darcy's law was applicable to our samples. Using Eq. (1), the viscous permeability coefficients were calculated from the slope of the line plotted for  $\Delta P$  versus  $Q$ . The result is shown in Fig. 8(e). It can be seen that the gas permeability increased as the Al content increased. Except for the samples with 20 wt% and 30 wt% Al, the viscous permeability coefficients of other porous TiAl alloys samples were sufficient for the solid-to-gas separation applications (from  $1.46 \mu\text{m}^2$  for the TiH<sub>2</sub>-40wt% Al to  $2.11 \mu\text{m}^2$  for the TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al).

## 4. Conclusions

Porous TiAl alloys parts for filter applications with nominal compositions ranging from TiH<sub>2</sub>-20wt% Al to TiH<sub>2</sub>-60wt% Al were successfully fabricated by the reactive synthesis of TiH<sub>2</sub> and Al elemental powders using the PM method. By increasing the Al contents (and, vice versa, decreasing the TiH<sub>2</sub> contents), four intermetallic phases were observed in the sintered porous TiAl alloys:  $\alpha_2\text{-Ti}_3\text{Al}$ ,  $\gamma\text{-TiAl}$ ,  $\text{TiAl}_3$ , and  $\text{Ti}_2\text{Al}_5$ . The effects of the Al content (TiH<sub>2</sub> content) on the pore properties, including open porosity, maximum pore size, and gas permeability, were

comprehensively determined. Moreover, the formation mechanisms of pores were demonstrated according to different Al contents. An optimal composition of TiH<sub>2</sub>-50wt% Al was defined, as its maximum open porosity was about 70% and its viscous permeability coefficient for nitrogen was  $1.11 \mu\text{m}^2$ . One of the advantages of these porous TiAl alloys over conventional porous materials is that they can be fabricated using a cost-effective and simple PM method.

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