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Atomic-level Understanding of “Asymmetric Twins” in Boron Carbide

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Abstract:

Recent observations of planar defects in boron carbide have been shown to deviate from perfect mirror symmetry and referred to as “asymmetric twins”. Here, we demonstrate that these “asymmetric twins” are really phase boundaries that form in stoichiometric B₄C (i.e. B₁₂C₃) but not in B₁₃C₂. TEM observations and *ab initio* simulations have been coupled to show that these planar defects result from an interplay of stoichiometry, atomic positioning, icosahedral twinning, and structural hierarchy. The composition of icosahedra in B₄C is B₁₁C and translation of the carbon atom from a polar to equatorial site leads to a shift in bonding and a slight distortion of the lattice. No such distortion is observed in boron-rich B₁₃C₂ because the icosahedra do not contain carbon. Implications for tailoring boron carbide with stoichiometry and extrapolations to other hierarchical crystalline materials are discussed.

In crystalline materials the formation of twin boundaries, which separate adjacent crystallographic regions whose lattices are related by mirror symmetry, have been associated with both crystal growth and deformation processes. Due to their inherent symmetry, twin

24 boundaries are usually coherent, have low interfacial energy, and are relatively stable as
25 compared to general grain boundaries of random misorientation [1]. The formation of twins and
26 the presence of twin boundaries can significantly affect the plasticity and strength of materials.
27 The latter is demonstrated by the development of twinning-induced (TWIP) steels [2], recent
28 observations that nanotwinned Cu is ten times stronger than coarse-grained Cu [3], and by
29 reports that nanotwinned cubic BN is harder than diamond [4, 5]. In this light, understanding
30 how twins are formed and developing effective strategies for incorporating twin boundaries into
31 polycrystalline microstructures offers an attractive approach for enhancing the mechanical
32 response of metals and ceramics.

33 Twin boundaries in relatively simple systems, such as face-centered cubic (FCC), body-centered
34 cubic (BCC) and hexagonal-closed packed (HCP) can be easily identified with the unambiguous
35 twin planes and misorientation angles. However, as the crystal structure becomes more
36 complicated and exhibits secondary and tertiary structural hierarchy (e.g. boron carbide [6]), the
37 matrix-twin relationship can be complex. Recently, Fujita *et al.* discovered a new type of planar
38 defect in boron carbide and characterized it with spherical-aberration-corrected scanning
39 transmission electron microscopy (STEM) [7]. At first glance their high-resolution STEM
40 images suggest that the planar defects are conventional twin boundaries, but closer investigation
41 reveals that the lattices do not mirror each other exactly, the angle between the (100) and (010)
42 planes differs by $\sim 2^\circ$ on either side of the boundary. Upon realizing the loss of mirror symmetry,
43 the authors named these planar defects “asymmetric twins” and stated that their formation
44 mechanisms were not fully understood. At this point, it is important to note that Fujita’s lattice
45 images show the geometric arrangement of the icosahedra, but do not give direct atomic

46 positions because even spherical aberration corrected STEM does not have the resolution to
47 image individual boron and carbon atoms within the icosahedra [7, 8].

48 In the present study, TEM observations and *ab initio* simulations are combined to demonstrate
49 that the formation of what Fujita has termed “asymmetric twins” is related to the underlying
50 stoichiometry of boron carbide, and we explain why. Both asymmetric and symmetric twins
51 were observed in B_4C (i.e. $B_{12}C_3$) but only symmetric twins in $B_{13}C_2$. Our combined approach
52 provides convincing evidence that the loss of symmetry is associated with local arrangements of
53 boron and carbon atoms and the bonding that results. The formation of “asymmetric twins” is
54 directly related to the hierarchical levels of structure that boron carbide possesses, and it is
55 reasonable to assume that such defects may also be present in other crystalline materials with
56 similar levels of complexity.

57 To investigate the characteristics of “asymmetric twins”, two boron carbide samples with
58 different stoichiometries ($B_{12}C_3$ and $B_{13}C_2$) were fabricated. The $B_{12}C_3$ (i.e. B_4C) samples were
59 produced at Rutgers University by consolidating B_4C powders (previously synthesized by a rapid
60 carbothermal reduction method) via spark plasma sintering under 50 MPa for 5 minutes at
61 nominal temperatures exceeding 1900°C, as described in [9]. The B-rich $B_{13}C_2$ sample was
62 produced at Ceradyne by hot-pressing H.C. Starck grade-C amorphous boron and ESK Tetrabor
63 grade-10 μ m B_4C powders at 1900-2200°C and 13.8MPa for approximately an hour [10]. Both
64 sets of samples were processed at temperatures and under conditions that resulted in fully dense
65 boron carbide. TEM thin foils were prepared by slicing the consolidated materials with a
66 diamond saw and then mechanically polishing on diamond lapping papers using a tripod polisher
67 to create a thin wedge. The specimens were further thinned to electron transparency with ion
68 milling. TEM observations were carried out using a CM300FEG TEM to perform high-

69 resolution (HRTEM) phase contrast imaging. To complement and explain the experimental
70 observations, we performed first-principles simulations with the Vienna *ab initio* simulation
71 package (VASP), with specific emphasis on elucidating the lattice angle differences between the
72 asymmetric and symmetric twin boundaries [11, 12].

73 Both B₄C and boron-rich B₁₃C₂ consolidated samples were used in this study and observed to
74 contain a high twin density (Figs. 1a and 1b). The twin densities were found to be non-uniform
75 in both samples. Some grains contained only a few microtwins, while others contained a high
76 density of nanotwins. In some cases, both microtwins and nanotwins were present within the
77 same grain. The chemical composition of both samples was quantified using electron energy loss
78 spectroscopy (Fig. 1c) with special precautions to avoid C contamination issues. The EELS
79 measurements were supported by comparisons with lattice parameter measurements via X-ray
80 diffraction and by Raman spectroscopy.

81 Closer inspection of more than ten boundaries in each sample revealed that both asymmetric
82 (~30%) and symmetric (~70%) twins are present in the B₄C sample (Figs. 2 a-d), whereas only
83 symmetric twins were observed in the B₁₃C₂ sample (Figs. 2 e-f). The HRTEM image shown in
84 Fig. 2a is a typical example of the “asymmetric twins” observed in B₄C along the [001] zone axis.
85 The (100) planes of both crystals are marked with solid red lines. The angles between (100) and
86 (010) were measured to be $\alpha=73.8\pm0.3^\circ$ in the crystal on the left and $\alpha'=72.0\pm0.4^\circ$ on the right,
87 indicating that the lattices do not mirror each other exactly ($\alpha\neq\alpha'$). These values are comparable
88 to that reported by Fujita *et al.* [7]. To further elucidate the asymmetric nature, we focused on the
89 boundary of Fig. 2a and put red ‘+’ markers on the white dots along (100) and (010) planes on
90 the left crystal (Fig. 2b). Note that the white dots are *not* atoms in HRTEM, rather the distances
91 and angles between the white dots represent those between the icosahedra [7]. We then reflected

92 the markers about the boundary with the (100) planes aligned. Now the markers on the right
93 crystal indicate where the bright spots should be if the twin was perfectly symmetric. It can be
94 seen that the markers along (010) plane in the right crystal do not exactly match the bright spots
95 and a small deviation can be observed. This confirms the fact that the boundary in Figs. 2a-b is
96 indeed an “asymmetric twin boundary”. Fujita et al. [7] only reported asymmetric twins, but not
97 all of the twin boundaries that we observed in our B₄C specimens were asymmetric. In many
98 cases, symmetric twins were also observed, as shown in Figs. 2c-d. The angles in the two
99 crystals associated with this boundary were measured to be $\alpha=73.8\pm0.3^\circ$ and $\alpha'=73.7\pm0.3^\circ$, that
100 $\alpha=\alpha'$ (Fig. 2c). When the markers on the left grain were reflected to the right, no apparent
101 deviation was observed (Fig. 2d). In the case of B-rich B₁₃C₂, all ten twin boundaries studied by
102 HRTEM were found to be symmetric with a typical example shown in Figs. 2e-f. The angles
103 were measured to be $73.2\pm0.2^\circ$ and $73.3\pm0.4^\circ$, indicating $\alpha=\alpha'$ (Fig. 2e). The reflected markers
104 also show no apparent deviation (Fig. 2f), suggesting it is a symmetric twin boundary.

105 Understanding the role of stoichiometry on the formation of “asymmetric twins” requires an
106 understanding of how the atoms are arranged. Experimental HRTEM and STEM images cannot
107 provide this information, but *ab initio* simulations based on density functional theory (DFT) can
108 provide the energies associated with various atomic configurations. In the case of B₄C, the most
109 stable configuration is B₁₁C_p-CBC, where the first 12 atoms are contained in the icosahedron, the
110 last 3 atoms make up the chain, and the subscript *p* denotes an atom sitting in a polar site [13-16].
111 The next stable configuration is B₁₁C_e-CBC, where *e* denotes the carbon occupies the equatorial
112 site. This configuration is 0.54 eV higher than B₁₁C_p-CBC per unit cell. With the appropriate
113 crystallographic shear translation, the B₁₁C_p-CBC configuration forms the twin lamella
114 illustrated in Fig. 3a. Only four complete icosahedra are shown for clarity. The top icosahedron

115 shows the atomic configuration in the matrix, the middle one sits at twin boundary, and the
116 bottom two delineate the twinning process. The twin boundary is marked by a dashed line and
117 the shear translation is indicated by the arrow. Note that the arrow does not lie parallel to the
118 page and has an out-of-plane component. The bottom translucent icosahedron depicts the atomic
119 configuration before shear. The boron atom labeled B_1 is at the equatorial site and is bonded to a
120 carbon atom in a neighboring chain (compare with a matrix icosahedra in Fig. 3b for clarity).
121 The carbon atom in this translucent icosahedron is at the polar site and bonds with a boron atom
122 of the middle icosahedron. After the shear translation to the twin orientation, the bottom
123 icosahedron sits at the new position (the solid one). The B_1 atom is now at the polar site (labeled
124 as B_1'), bonding with middle icosahedron; and the carbon atom in the icosahedron (labeled as C')
125 is at the equatorial site, bonding with the carbon atom in a neighboring chain. In the twin lamella,
126 the atomic configuration changed from the original $B_{11}C_p$ -CBC to $B_{11}C_e$ -CBC (e denotes
127 equatorial site). To verify this hypothesis that different atomic occupancy can change the lattice
128 angles, we constructed the model accordingly and relaxed it using DFT (Perdew-Burke-
129 Ernzerhof flavor) as shown in Fig. 3b. The angles measured from the simulations are 73.8° for
130 $B_{11}C_p$ -CBC and 72.2° for $B_{11}C_e$ -CBC. The slightly smaller angle in $B_{11}C_e$ -CBC is a result of
131 stronger $C_{\text{icosahedron}}-C_{\text{chain}}$ interaction that pulled them slightly closer. The angles generated from
132 the simulation agree very well with our experimental measurements of 73.8° and 72.0° ,
133 respectively. This suggests that these “asymmetric twin boundaries” are actually phase
134 boundaries between two very similar phases of $B_{11}C_p$ -CBC and $B_{11}C_e$ -CBC.

135 In addition to these phase boundaries, many symmetric twins were also observed in B_4C
136 stoichiometry boron carbide. Our DFT calculations indicate that the interfacial energy of the
137 symmetric twin is 83.2 mJ/m^2 while the interface energy for the “asymmetric twin” is 189.2

138 mJ/m^2 , suggesting that the formation of symmetric B_{11}C_p -CBC twins is more thermodynamically
139 favorable. Nevertheless, the formation of metastable structures like twins is governed by both
140 kinetics and thermodynamics. Crystallographic translation and rotation of the icosahedra can be
141 used to geometrically transform the matrix into a symmetric twin, as shown in Fig. 3, but it is
142 currently not clear whether the twins form during solid state processing or are the result of
143 thermal or mechanical stresses. Our DFT simulations do suggest that the carbon atom in the
144 bottom translucent icosahedra initially sits at the polar site (Fig. 3c). After rotating to the boron
145 site labeled B_1 and translating to the twin orientation, now the carbon atom (C' in the solid
146 bottom icosahedron) still occupies the polar site, but is bonded to a different boron atom from the
147 middle icosahedron. Thus this combination of crystallographic rotation and translation retains the
148 B_{11}C_p -CBC atomic configuration in the twinned region, leading to symmetric twin boundaries
149 (Fig. 3d).

150 In the case of B_{13}C_2 , the most stable configuration is B_{12} -CBC, where the icosahedron is
151 composed of 12 boron atoms, and the shear of the icosahedra does not result in a phase
152 transformation. In the model illustrated in Fig. 3e, the crystallographic shear translation of the
153 bottom icosahedra changes the bonding: one originally equatorial boron atom (B_1) becomes the
154 polar site atom and an originally polar site boron atom becomes an equatorial atom bonding with
155 a chain carbon atom. But the switching in bonding does not change the atomic occupancy in the
156 twinned region; boron still occupies the polar site and the crystal on one side mirrors the other,
157 forming a symmetric twin boundary (Fig. 3f). This careful accounting of atomic positions
158 explains why shear-transformed phase boundaries can form in B_4C but not in B-rich B_{13}C_2 .

159 This atomic-level description of the shear-induced phase boundary indicates that stoichiometry
160 and alloying additions can be used to tailor the type and density of planar defects, and thus the

161 attendant mechanical, ballistic and electrical properties of boron carbide and other boron-based
162 compounds. Phase diagrams report a wide range of solubility for boron carbide [6], and this
163 solubility may be accommodated by the presence of planar defects, much like Wadsley defects
164 and polysomatic series have been used to describe the modular aspects of minerals [17]. The role
165 of these planar defects is still under debate, but identification of local atomic arrangements at
166 planar boundaries, like the work reported here, is very much needed to elucidate their influence
167 on the overall composition and properties of boron carbide.

168 In a larger context, our finding that hierarchically structured materials possess a complex array of
169 crystalline defects should be applicable to broad families of ceramics and minerals. The current
170 study identified two necessary criteria for the formation of shear-induced phase boundaries. First,
171 the material must have a hierarchical crystal structure. In boron carbide, the primary structures
172 are 12-atom icosahedra and 3-atom chains, and the secondary structures are rhombohedral unit
173 cells comprised of icosahedra and CBC chains. Small changes in the atomic arrangement of the
174 primary building blocks can be reflected as phase boundaries in the secondary structure. Non-
175 hierarchical materials such as, Cu, Mo, Mg, etc. cannot form these phase boundaries because the
176 basic building blocks for the crystals are individual atoms. Secondly, the primary structure must
177 be polar. The icosahedra in B_4C are $B_{11}C$ and a modification in the bonding characteristics of
178 carbon changed the secondary structure. On the other hand, B_{12} icosahedra in $B_{13}C_2$ are non-
179 polar, and do not lead to the formation of the phase boundaries. Therefore, any crystalline
180 material that satisfies the aforementioned two criteria should contain these planar defects.
181 Prospects for an expanded classification of criteria and defect structures seem highly plausible
182 with the integration of ever more sophisticated experimental and computational capabilities.

183 In summary, our TEM observations and *ab initio* simulations show that “asymmetric twins” are
184 actually shear-induced phase boundaries that form in B₄C but not in boron-rich B₁₃C₂. This novel
185 planar defect results from the interplay of stoichiometry, atomic positioning, twinning, and
186 structural hierarchy. The presence of these planar boundaries and local changes in atomic
187 bonding and structure are expected to influence the mechanical, electrical, and magnetic
188 properties of boron carbide [18-22], and the importance of stoichiometry offers a unique handle
189 for tailoring these properties.

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199 **List of Figures:**

200 **Figure 1:** Bright-field TEM micrographs of (a) B_4C and (b) $B_{13}C_2$. The diffraction contrast
201 shows that both microtwins and nanotwins are prevalent in both samples. (c) Typical examples
202 of EELS spectra of B_4C and $B_{13}C_2$ boron carbide samples. Note the carbon K-edge peak in B_4C
203 is more prominent than $B_{13}C_2$. The relative intensities of zero-loss peak (ZLP) and plasmon peak
204 in both examples are very similar, indicating the foil thicknesses, where EELS spectra were
205 acquired, are also similar.

206 **Figure 2:** HRTEM micrographs showing (a) and (b) an “asymmetric twin” in B_4C ; (c) and (d) a
207 symmetric twin in B_4C , and (d) and (e) a symmetric twin in $B_{13}C_2$. Red solid lines indicate (100)
208 planes in both crystals across the twin boundaries. The “+” are markers labeling the positions of
209 bright spots in the left crystal and then mirrored by the twin boundary to the right crystal to
210 investigate the symmetry across the twin boundaries.

211 **Figure 3:** (a) An illustration depicting the “asymmetric twin” formation of B_4C by shear
212 translation; (b) the relaxed DFT model of the “asymmetric twin” in B_4C . (c) An illustration
213 depicting the formation of B_4C symmetric twins by rotation and shear translation; (d) the relaxed
214 DFT of symmetric twin in B_4C , (e) An illustration depicting twin formation of $B_{13}C_2$ by shear
215 translation; (f) the relaxed DFT model.

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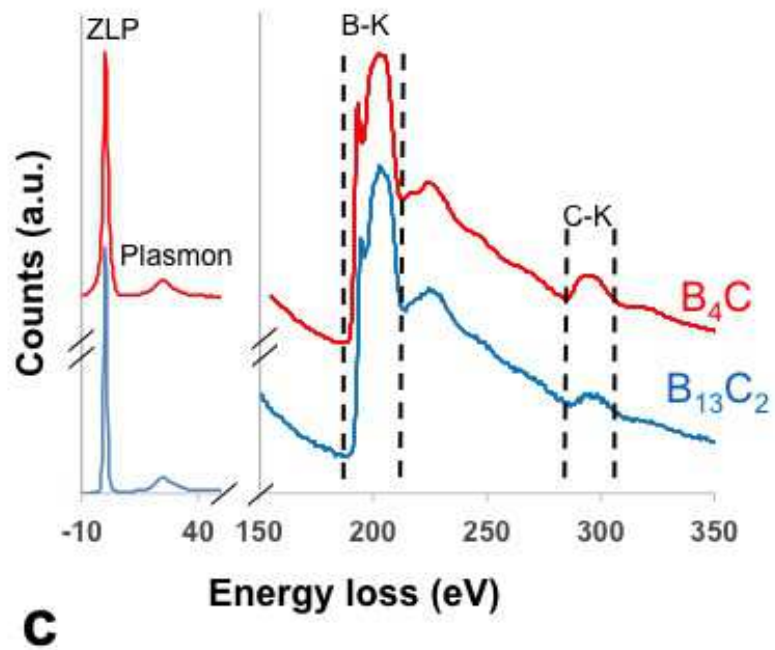
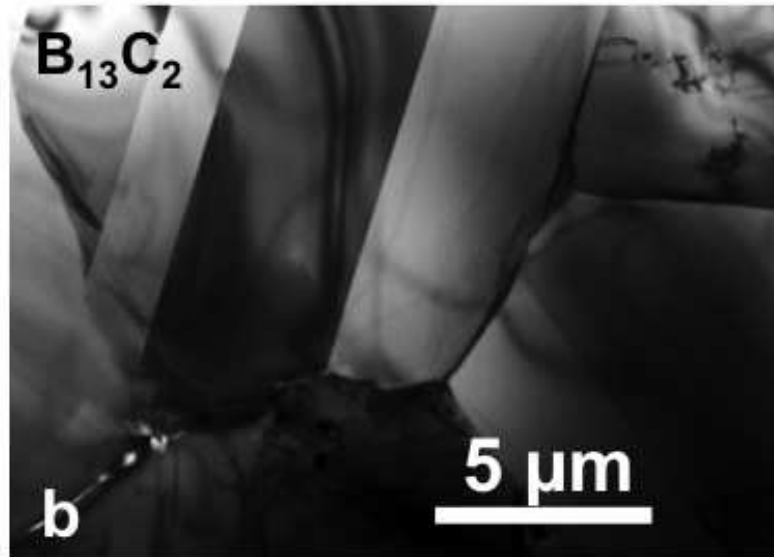
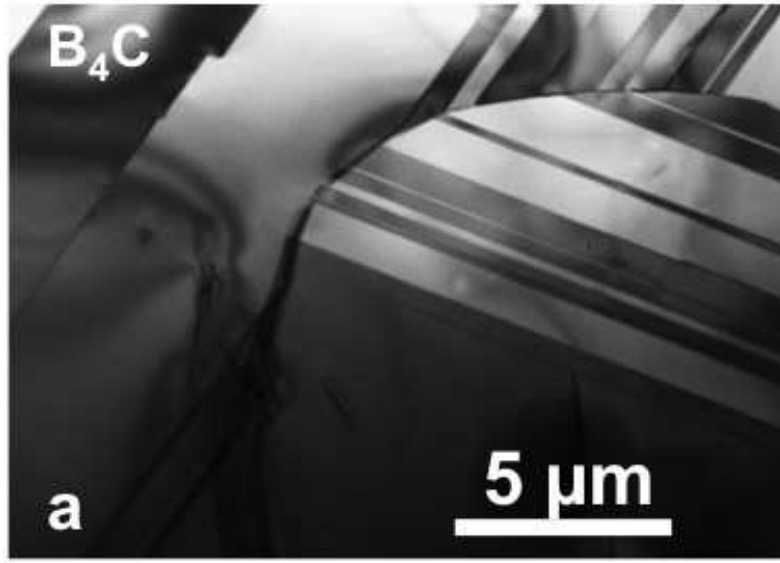
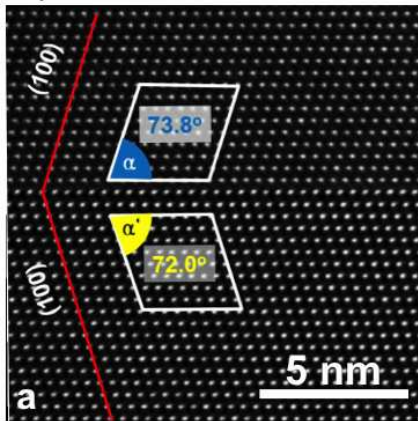
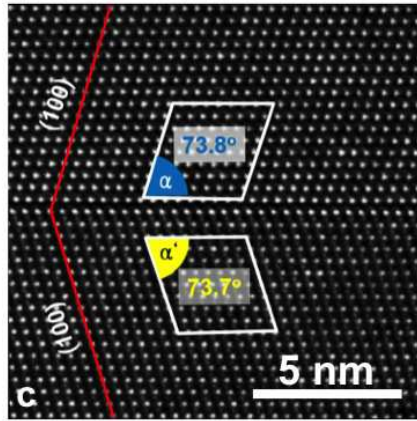


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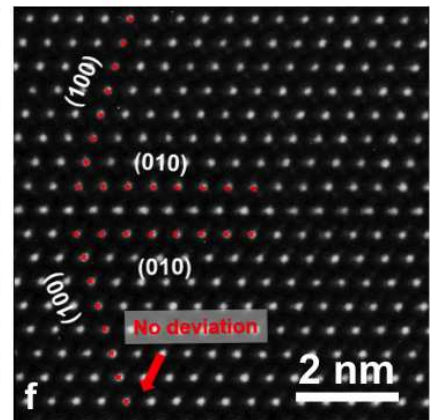
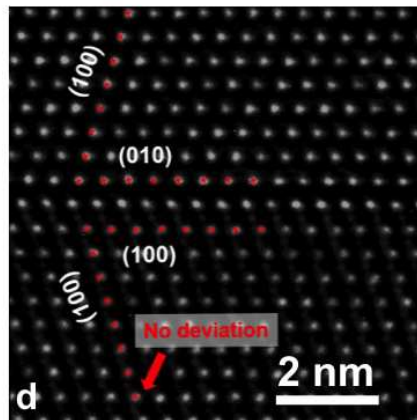
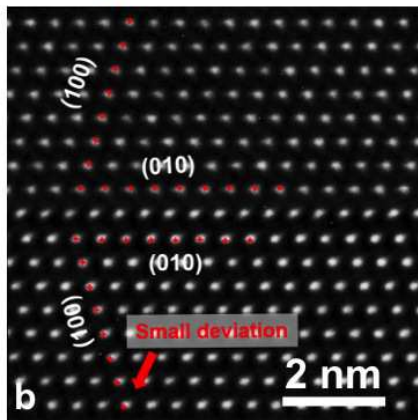
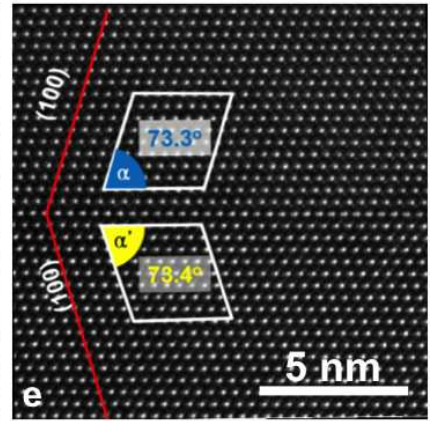
B₄C – “Asymmetric twins”



B₄C – Symmetric twins



B₁₃C₂ – Symmetric twins



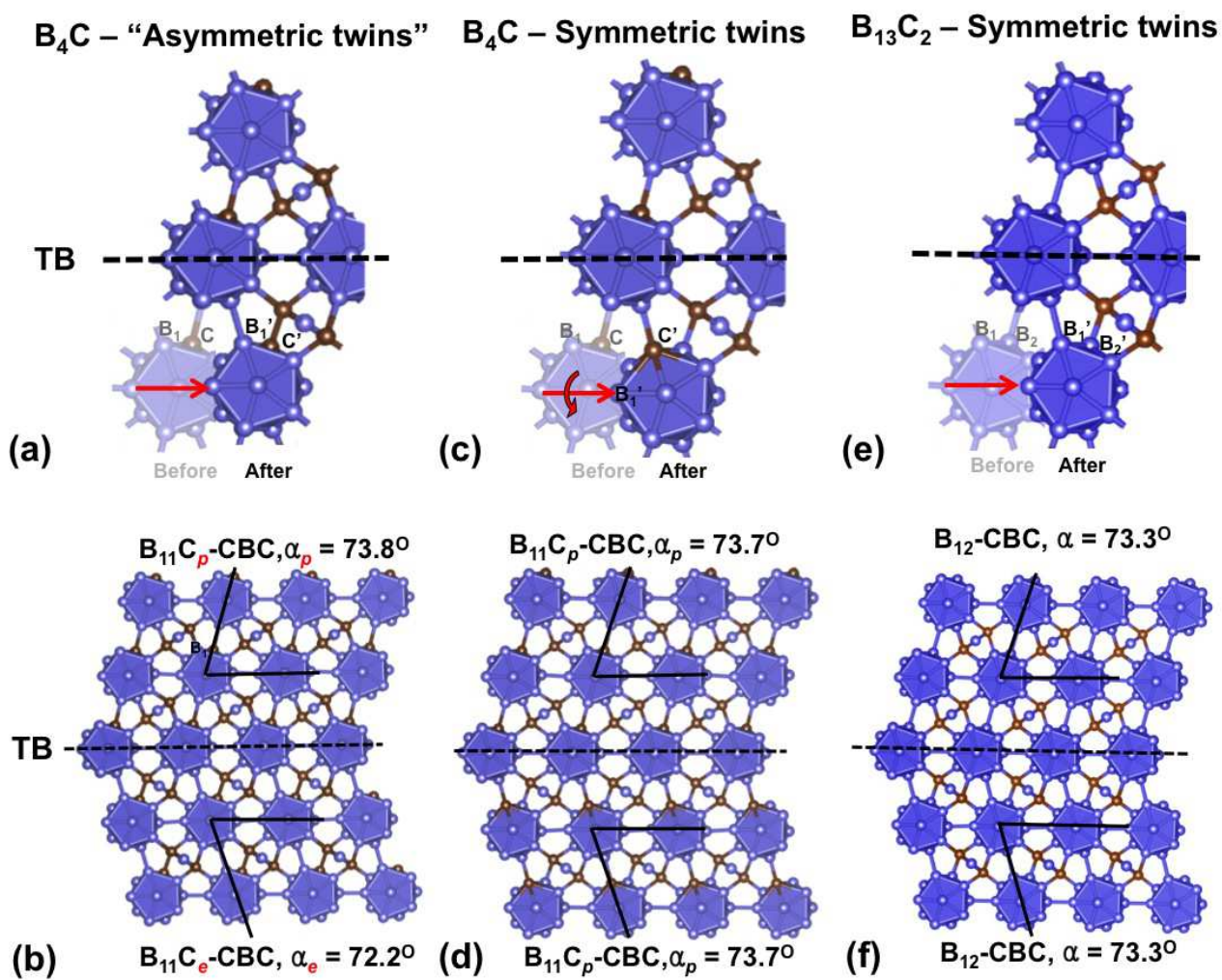


Figure 3