SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF OXIDE CONDUCTORS IN PbO-Bi₂O₃-M₂O₅ (M = V, P, As)

ii

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By

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April 2004

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Materials of compositions $PbBi_6M_2O_{15}$ and $(PbO)_n(BiMO_4)$, where M = V, P, As and n = 1, 2, 4 were prepared via solid state reaction. These materials were characterised using X-ray diffraction (XRD), density measurement, inductively coupled plasmaatomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES), ac impedance spectroscopy, differential thermal analysis (DTA), thermogravimetry analysis (TGA), Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM).

Complete solid solution series were obtained in the $PbBi_6V_2O_{15}$ - $PbBi_6P_2O_{15}$, $PbBi_6V_2O_{15}$ - $PbBi_6As_2O_{15}$ and $PbBi_6P_2O_{15}$ - $PbBi_6As_2O_{15}$ systems. All the materials were isostructural, and crystallised in orthorhombic symmetry. However, the cell parameter a of these materials was twice those reported in JCPDS. The conductivity of these materials decreased in the order of $PbBi_6V_2O_{15} > PbBi_6As_2O_{15} >$ $PbBi_6P_2O_{15}$. $PbBi_6V_2O_{15}$ is an oxide ion conductor as it has a transference number of 0.8 above 650°C. Substitution of Sr for Pb in PbBi₆V₂O₁₅ resulted in the formation a new material of SrBi₆V₂O₁₅ with higher conductivity. On the other hand, Pb in both PbBi₆V₂O₁₅ and PbBi₆As₂O₁₅ could be replaced by Na and Bi, resulting in the formation of NaBi₁₃V₄O₃₀ and NaBi₁₃As₄O₃₀. Besides successfully suppressing the phase transition observed in PbBi₆V₂O₁₅, these materials had higher conductivity compared to that of PbBi₆(V/As)₂O₁₅. The conductivity of these materials was in the range of ~ 10^{-3} ohm⁻¹ cm⁻¹ at 800°C. Conductivity decreased in the order of NaBi₁₃V₄O₃₀ > SrBi₆V₂O₁₅ > PbBi₆V₂O₁₅. These materials appeared to be oxide ion conductors.

Complete solid solution series were formed in the $Pb_2BiPO_6-Pb_2BiAsO_6$, $Pb_4BiPO_8-Pb_4BiVO_8$, $Pb_4BiPO_8-Pb_4BiAsO_8$ and $Pb_4BiVO_8-Pb_4BiAsO_8$ systems. The properties determined generally agreed with those reported; these materials were mixed oxide ion conductors. The conductivity decreased in the order of $Pb_2BiMO_6 > PbBiMO_5 > Pb_4BiMO_8$, and V > As > P.

Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia sebagai memenuhi keperluan untuk ijazah kedoktoran

SINTESIS DAN PENCIRIAN KONDUKTOR OKSIDA DALAM PbO-Bi $_2O_3$ -M $_2O_5$ (M = V, P, As)

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Bahan-bahan dengan komposisi PbBi₆M₂O₁₅ dan (PbO)_n(BiMO₄), di mana M = V, P, As dan n = 1, 2, 4 telah disediakan melalui tindak balas keadaan pepejal. Bahanbahan telah dicirikan dengan mengunakan pembelauan sinar-X (XRD), pengukuran ketumpatan, plasma aruhan keduaan-spektroskopi penyebaran atom (ICP-AES), spektroskopi impedans ac, analisis perbezaan terma (DTA), analisis termogravimetri (TGA), spektroskopi inframerah transformasi Fourier (FT-IR) dan spektroskopi imbasan electron (SEM).

Larutan pepejal lengkap telah diperolehi dalam sistem PbBi₆V₂O₁₅-PbBi₆P₂O₁₅, PbBi₆V₂O₁₅-PbBi₆As₂O₁₅ dan PbBi₆P₂O₁₅-PbBi₆As₂O₁₅. Semua bahan mempunyai simetri yang sama, dan mereka dihablurkan dalam simetri ortorombik. Tetapi, parameter unit cell a bahan-bahan ini adalah dua kali ganda daripada yang dilaporkan dalam JCPDS. Kekonduksian bahan-bahan ini menurun dalam susunan PbBi₆V₂O₁₅ > PbBi₆As₂O₁₅ > PbBi₆P₂O₁₅. PbBi₆V₂O₁₅ adalah konduktor ion oksida disebabkan ia mempunyai nombor pindahan 0.8 pada suhu 650°C ke atas. Pertukaran Sr untuk Pb dalam PbBi₆V₂O₁₅ telah menghasilkan pembentukan satu bahan baru SrBi₆V₂O₁₅ dengan kekonduksian yang lebih tinggi. Selain itu, Pb dalam PbBi₆V₂O₁₅ and PbBi₆As₂O₁₅ boleh diganti dengan Na dan Bi, mengakibatkan panghasilan NaBi₁₃V₄O₃₀ dan NaBi₁₃As₄O₃₀. Selain daripada berjaya menghilangkan peralihan fasa yang dilihat dalam PbBi₆V₂O₁₅, bahan-bahan ini mempunyai kekonduksian yang lebih tinggi daripada PbBi₆(V/As)₂O₁₅. Kekonduksian bahanbahan ini adalah dalam lingkungan ~ 10⁻³ ohm⁻¹ cm⁻¹ pada suhu 800°C. Kekonduksian menurun dalam susunan NaBi₁₃V₄O₃₀ > SrBi₆V₂O₁₅ > PbBi₆V₂O₁₅. Bahan-bahan ini merupakan konduktor ion oksida.

Larutan pepejal lengkap telah dibentuk dalam sistem $Pb_2BiPO_6-Pb_2BiAsO_6$, $Pb_4BiPO_8-Pb_4BiVO_8$, $Pb_4BiPO_8-Pb_4BiAsO_8$ dan $Pb_4BiVO_8-Pb_4BiAsO_8$. Kelakuan yang ditentukan adalah agak sama dengan yang dilaporkan; bahan-bahan ini merupakan konduktor campuran ion oksida. Kekonduksian menurun dalam susunan $Pb_2BiMO_6 > PbBiMO_5 > Pb_4BiMO_8$, dan V > As > P.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS / NOTATIONS / GLOSSARY OF TERMS

3D	three dimensions
ac	alternating current
BIMEVOX	bismuth metal vanadium oxide
dc	direct current
DTA	differential thermal analysis
FT-IR	Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy
ICDD	international centre for diffraction data
ICP-AES	inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectrometry
JCPDS	Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards
μPDSM	micro powder diffraction search / match
SEM	scanning electron microscopy
SOFC	solid oxide fuel cell
TGA	thermogravimetry analysis
XRD	X-ray diffraction
YSZ	yittria stabilised zirconia
a, b, c, α , β , γ	lattice constant
А	area
A_w	Warburg coefficient
С	capacitance
C _b	bulk capacitance
C _{dl}	double-layer capacitance
C_{gb}	grain boundary capacitance
Co	vacuum capacitance

d	d-spacing
D	density
е	charge of the conducting species
eo	permittivity of free space
Е	electric field
E_a	activation energy
٤'	relative permittivity
£ [*]	complex permittivity
f	frequency
F	Faraday constant
h, k, l	Miller indice
Ι	current
j	flux of charge
J	density of the current
l	thickness
λ	wavelength
М	dopant introduced
M'	real part of modulus
M"	imaginary part of modulus
M*	complex modulus
μ	mobility of the species
Р'	partial pressure to be measured
<i>P</i> "	reference partial pressure
R	resistance

R	universal gas constant
R _b	bulk resistance
R _{gb}	grain boundary resistance
σ	conductivity
t	transference number
Т	temperature
θ	Bragg angle
τ	electrical relaxation times
ω	angular frequency
Ζ	formula unit
Z	impedance
Z'	real part of impedance
Z"	imaginary part of impedance
Z*	complex impedance

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Ionic Conductivity and Solid Electrolytes

Electrical conduction in solid materials usually occurs by the long range diffusion of either electrons or ions. This has therefore created many different characteristics of electrical conductivity, such as metallic conductivity, superconductivity, semiconductivity and ionic conductivity.

Ionic conductivity occurs in materials known variously as solid electrolytes, superionic conductors or fast ion conductors. Many of the crystalline materials such as NaCl or MgO, have low ionic conductivities because the atoms or ions can only vibrate at their atomic positions. However, solid electrolytes are an exception. Solid electrolytes usually have freely moving cations (e.g. H⁺, Na⁺, Li⁺, Ag⁺) or anions (e.g. O²⁻, F⁻) that move throughout the crystalline structure.

Figure 1.1 shows the different types of electrical conductivities and examples of the different materials. Solid electrolytes have conductivities that fall between that of the semiconductor and aqueous electrolyte.

Solid electrolytes are, therefore, intermediate between normal crystalline solids with regular three dimensional structures as well as immobile atoms or ions and liquid electrolytes, which do not have regular structures but mobile ions. This characteristic is supported by data on the relative entropies of polymorphic transitions and melting.



Figure 1.1: Electrical conductivities of selected common substances and representative solid electrolytes (Greenblatt, 1994)

Solid electrolytes are often stable only at high temperatures. At low temperatures, they may undergo a phase transition to give a polymorph with a low ionic conductivity and a more usual type of crystalline structure (Figure 1.2). Besides, solid electrolytes may also form as a consequence of a gradual increase in defect concentration with increasing temperature.



Figure 1.2: Solid electrolytes as intermediate between normal crystalline solids and liquids (West, 1999)

Intensive research has been carried out on solid electrolytes in recent years as these materials offer a wide range of potential technological applications, such as highenergy-density batteries, fuel cells, sensors, electrochromic materials for both optical display and 'smart window' devices, low-cost electrolysis of water and selective atomic filter. Some of these devices are available commercially. For example, oxygen detectors for automotive pollution-control systems employ solid O²⁻ conductors and Li⁺ batteries for electronic equipment.

1.1.1 Ionic Conduction

The electrical conductivity is defined as the constant of proportionality between the flux j of charge and the electric field, E

$$j = \sigma E \tag{1.1}$$

If

$$j = e_{i}J \tag{1.2}$$

with e_i = charge of the conducting species, i

J = density of the current

and

$$\mu_{\rm i} = \frac{J}{n_{\rm i} \rm E} \tag{1.3}$$

where μ_i = mobility of the species

 n_i = number of charge carrier

therefore, for any material and charge carrier, the specific conductivity is given by

$$\sigma = \sum_{i} n_i e_i \mu_i \tag{1.4}$$

For ionic conductivity,

$$\sigma = N_{\rm ion} e \mu_{\rm ion} \tag{1.5}$$

where N_{ion} = number of ions which can change their position under the influence of an electric field

 $\mu_{\rm ion}$ = the mobility of these ions

(Elliott, 1998; West, 1999)

In order for the ions to move through a crystalline solid, they must have sufficient energy to pass over an energy barrier and there must be empty lattice sites for the ions to jump into. Thus, for an intrinsic conduction, N_{ion} depends on the vacancy concentration caused by Schottky or Frenkel defects.

Transference number, t_i is defined as the ratio of the partial current generated by migration of species i to the total current generated by all conductive species. Therefore,

$$t_{i} = \frac{\sigma_{i}}{\sum_{i} \sigma_{i}}$$
(1.6)

For an ideal ionic conductor, transference number $t_i = 1$ (Kudo and Fueki, 1989).

Conductivities are usually temperature dependent, and for all materials, except metals, the conductivity increases with increasing temperature.

The temperature dependence of ionic conductivity is usually given by the Arrhenius equation, where graphs of $\log_e \sigma$ against T⁻¹ should give straight lines of slope $\frac{-E_a}{R}$.

$$\sigma = A \exp(\frac{-E_a}{RT}) \tag{1.7}$$

where E_a = activation energy

- R = universal gas constant
- T = absolute temperature, K
- A = pre-exponential factor, which depends on the vibrational frequency of the potentially mobile ions and some structural parameters

For an ionic conduction to take place, there are certain conditions that must be satisfied:

- 1. A large number of the ions of one species should be mobile (i.e. a large value of *n* in the equation $\sigma = ne\mu$).
- There should be a large number of empty sites available for the mobile ions to jump into.
- 3. The empty and occupied sites should have similar potential energy with a low activation barrier for jumping between neighbouring sites.
- 4. The structure should have a framework, preferably 3D, permeated by open channels through which mobile ions may migrate.
- 5. The anion framework should be highly polarisable.

Even when all these conditions are met, the ionic conduction may still be affected by microstructural factors such as grain boundaries, grain size, pores size and between grain-grain contact. However, these effects have not been studied experimentally in great detail.

1.2 Solid Solutions

A solid solution is basically a crystalline phase that can have variable composition. As with doped crystals, simple solid solutions are divided into two types: substitutional solid solutions in which the atom or ion that is being introduced directly replaces an atom or ion in the parent structure and interstitial solid solutions in which the introduced species occupies a site that is normally empty and no ions or atoms are left out.

Doping is an important mechanism in preparing solid solutions. Usually, doping with aliovalent cations (the substituted ions are ions of different charge) will result in creation of vacancies or interstitials (ionic compensation) or electrons or holes (electronic compensation). Therefore, substituting a cation of lower valence may result in creating anion vacancies, thus, increasing the oxygen vacancies in the oxide ion conductor and consequently increasing the conductivity.

In solid solution formation, ions of similar size may substitute for each other easily and extensive solid solutions could form which are stable at all temperatures; the enthalpy of mixing of such similar-sized ions is likely to be small and the driving force for solid solution formation is the increased entropy. Solid solutions may form at high temperatures if substituting ions differ in size by 15 to 20%, where the entropy term is able to offset the positive enthalpy term. With ions that differ in size by more that \sim 30%, however, solid solutions are normally not expected to form.

Solid solution formation is very temperature dependent. Thus, extensive solid solutions often form at high temperatures whereas at lower temperatures, these may be more restricted or practically non-existent.

In order to form a complete solid solution, it is essential that the end members are isostructural; however, the reverse is not necessarily true.

1.3 Oxide Ion Conductors and Their Applications

A very interesting subgroup of solid electrolytes is the materials that display oxygen ion conductivity, known as oxide ion conductors, where the oxide ions are the charge carriers.

Oxide ion conductors have been with us for over a century. The first application was by Nerst in around 1900, who used stabilised zirconia as filaments in his revolutionary 'glower' electric lights, driven by the need to replace dirty and dangerous candles and gas lamps. Remarkably, the same basic material, now known as yttria-stabilised zirconia, is the key solid electrolyte component currently in various solid oxide fuel cell and sensor applications.