ELECTRICAL BEHAVIOR OF BaSnO$_3$ BULK SAMPLES FORMED BY SLIP CASTING: EFFECT OF SYNTHESIS METHODS USED FOR OBTAINING THE CERAMIC POWDERS

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Graphical abstract
Highlights:
- Barium stannate (BaSnO$_3$) ceramic powders were synthesized using two chemical methods (controlled precipitation and Pechini);
- Comparison of the electrical behavior in air at 300 °C for pieces sintered using a range of temperatures;
- The method of synthesis has strong effects on the electrical behavior of the sintered samples.

Abstract
In order to build bulk pieces using the slip casting technique, barium stannate (BaSnO$_3$) ceramic powders were synthesized using two chemical methods (controlled precipitation and Pechini). Differences in the electrical behavior of the pieces, depending on the synthesis method employed, were then determined. For the analysis, a stable suspension of the synthesized ceramic powder (or 57.6% solids slip) was obtained using water as solvent; the slip was poured into a mold to produce parallelepiped shaped green pieces. The electrical behavior in air at 300 °C was determined for pieces sintered using a range of temperatures. The results of this electrical characterization showed that the method of synthesis has strong effects on the electrical behavior of the sintered samples.

Keywords: ceramics, chemical synthesis, electron microscopy, electrical properties, impedance spectroscopy, defects.

1. Introduction
In the BaO–SnO$_2$ binary system, three compounds, in particular, can be obtained: BaSnO$_3$, Ba$_3$Sn$_2$O$_7$ and Ba$_2$SnO$_4$, the first of these being the best known, most widely studied and most useful. BaSnO$_3$ features a cubic perovskite type structure [1] and is a compound widely used in technological applications due to its dielectric properties, for example as a transparent conductor and to built capacitors, varistors, electrocatalytic electrodes, photovoltaic cells, and gas sensors [2, 3]. Particular features of this perovskite, and hence the interest in it, are principally related to the easy modification of its electrical properties and its high temperature stability. As a gas sensor, BaSnO$_3$ is a very promising material for high-temperatures detection [4]; in particular those temperatures are reached in the combustion processes.
The synthesis of the BaSnO$_3$ ceramic powders is carried out using a number of methods including sol–gel, co–precipitation of oxalates or hydroxides, hydrothermal process, and solid–state reactions [5, 6]. Due to modern-day requirements and with the aim of improving the functionality of the ceramic pieces (for example, gas sensor applications) the correct forming of synthesized BaSnO$_3$ powders is essential for obtaining sintered parts with the required densification, suitable microstructure and/or high mechanical properties, depending on their potential use. Regarding the formation process of the ceramic pieces, a first generation of gas sensors was prepared using thick film technology, for example screen printing, using ceramic powders. This process is not easily reproducible, given that the sensor behavior depends on percolation by means of intergranular resistance, a parameter that varies considerably according to the smallest details of the preparation process. Subsequently, the fabrication process was improved using thin film technology, applying both physical (evaporation or sputtering) and chemical (chemical vapor deposition) methods. However, this improvement in the technology of device production had the effect of reducing the sensitivity of the active material due to the lower porosity of the films. Efforts are currently being made to increase the homogeneity of the microstructure of the green pieces and their densification, making use of different techniques. Among these, slip casting stands out, and as such is the technique chosen for use in this work [7].

For making ceramic pieces by casting, small particles colloidal suspensions of the compound of interest are used (in this case BaSnO$_3$), and stabilized in a solvent, usually water, in the presence of a deflocculant. Therefore, the appropriate dosage of additives and solid (BaSnO$_3$ powders) in the starting suspension needs to be determined, with the aim of obtaining a suitably stable slip with good rheological properties for casting the pieces [8]. While colloidal forming is a widely used technique [7, 9–11] due to its versatility, only recently has it begun to be used, with enormous potential, in the formation of suspensions containing nanoparticles [12–15].

The forming method used in producing a ceramic piece clearly affects its electrical behavior, since the method employed determines its microstructural characteristics such as densification, porosity, and grain size, characteristics that in the case of gas sensors are crucially important as they determine the device sensor capacity.

In this work we used BaSnO$_3$ ceramic powders synthesized by two chemical methods (controlled precipitation and polymer precursor - Pechini) to obtain bulk ceramic pieces using the slip casting technique, with ammonium polyacrylate (PAA–NH$_4$) as deflocculant. Then, the pieces obtained were subjected to heat treatments at different temperatures to modify their microstructural characteristics.
Finally, the samples were characterized using the technique of complex impedance to study their electrical behavior and determine the effect of the synthesis method on their electrical characteristics.

2. Experimental procedure

2.1. \( \text{BaSnO}_3 \) synthesis by the Pechini method
To obtain \( \text{BaSnO}_3 \) by the Pechini method, a mixture of ethylene glycol and citric acid was first heated to 70 °C. The precursors \( \text{C}_4\text{H}_6\text{BaO}_4 \) and \( \text{SnCl}_2.2\text{H}_2\text{O} \), in the amounts 8.4 and 7.4 g, respectively, were added to the ethylene glycol and citric acid solution. The resulting solution was brought to a basic pH and heated to 140 °C, stirring constantly until a resin was formed. The resin was then pre–calcined at 350 °C and, subsequently, subjected to a heat treatment at 1000 °C to obtain the \( \text{BaSnO}_3 \) material. The powder obtained at the end of the synthesis processes was characterized by X–Ray Diffraction (XRD) and Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) [16].

2.2. \( \text{BaSnO}_3 \) synthesis by the controlled precipitation method
To obtain the \( \text{BaSnO}_3 \) using the controlled precipitation method, \( \text{SnCl}_2.2\text{H}_2\text{O} \) and \( \text{C}_4\text{H}_6\text{BaO}_4 \) were used as precursors. These were dissolved separately in 0.1M aqueous HNO\(_3\) solutions. The suspensions obtained were then mixed and the obtained product was left to age. Finally, the suspension was washed with an aqueous solution of diethylamine. The wet solid obtained was dried at 100 °C and, in due course, was treated at 1250 °C for 2 hours. The final powder was ground in an agate mortar before being characterized [16].

2.3. Forming of ceramic pieces
In the forming of ceramics pieces by the colloidal method, calculations were made to determine the proportions of water and solid material required in order to guarantee certain "ideal" conditions in the suspension (slip density of 2.1 g/cm\(^3\) [5]). The calculations performed gave rise to suspensions of 57.6 % by weight of solids – ceramic powders synthesized by the controlled precipitation method. Ammonium polyacrylate (PAA–NH\(_4\)) was used as a deflocculant. When the dispersion process was complete, the slip was poured into the mold. This mold was formed by taking 75 g of water per 100 g of gypsum (consistency 75) according to the requirements set by international standards [16]. The slip was poured into the mold and left until it reached the desired wall size, and then the piece was removed. Sintering of the samples was performed in a Carbolite furnace model RHF 1600. The formed
pieces were subjected to heat treatments at temperatures of 1350 and 1450 °C for 3 hours and characterized using SEM.

2.4. Electrical characterization

In order to determine the electrical behavior (in air atmosphere) of the sintered ceramic pieces a HP4284A impedance analyzer was used. The measurements were carried out at a frequency interval from 20 Hz to 1 MHz. Resistance and capacitance vs. frequency measurements were carried out at 300°C. A Novocontrol BDS 1200 commercial temperature controller was used to heat the samples to different temperatures.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Characterization of synthesized powders

The diffractograms in Figure 1 show samples synthesized with the Pechini method (PDF 89–2488) obtained at 1000 °C, a lower temperature than the 1250 °C required in the controlled precipitation method to obtain the same compound (PDF 15-780).

Figure 2 shows the SEM micrographs corresponding to the BaSnO₃ ceramic powders obtained using controlled precipitation, thermally treated at 1250 °C (Fig. 2 (a)), and Pechini method, treated at 1000 °C (Fig. 2 (b)). Images demonstrate the presence of polyhedral agglomerates larger than 1μm (Fig. 2 (a)), and cubic agglomerates larger than 5 μm (Fig. 2 (b)).

3.2. Characterization of BaSnO₃ ceramic pieces formed by slip casting

Figure 3 shows the SEM micrographs of the surface microstructure for the ceramic pieces sintered at different temperatures (S1 and S3 at 1350 °C, S2 and S4 at 1450 °C). Figs. 3(a) and 3(b) depict those formed with BaSnO₃ powders synthesized by Pechini process and Figs. 3(c) and 3(d) show those obtained with the controlled precipitation method followed by slip casting. It is evident from Fig. 3 that samples show substantial porosity and that the grain size for the pieces formed with powders obtained by controlled precipitation, in some cases greater than 50 μm (Figs. 3(c) and (d), is larger than that of the pieces made with Pechini powders, slightly greater than 10 μm (Figs. 3(a) and (b)). The latter samples exhibit a more homogeneous microstructure. Table 1 show the microstructural dimensions and
characteristics of the pieces formed using ceramic powders synthesized by two distinct chemical pathways.

3.3. Electrical characterization
A complete circuit used to describe the electrical behavior should include electrodes and bulk effects, deep bulk traps, and grain boundaries, Figure 4 [17, 18].

The total capacitance dependence on frequency is strongly affected by the presence of deep bulk traps. More specifically, expected deep traps, with a distribution of activation energies, imply a distributed impedance element. A constant phase element (CPE) is a simple distributed element that reflects the microscopic material inhomogeneities, having a constant phase angle in the complex plane [19]. A CPE is an empirical impedance function of the following form

\[ Z_{\text{CPE}} = \frac{1}{A(j\omega)^\alpha} \]  

(1)

The constant \( A \) determines the impedance modulus and the exponent \( \alpha \) determine the impedance angle. In the special case of \( \alpha=1 \), the CPE acts like a capacitor with \( A \) equal to the capacitance. The CPE can also behave as an inductance, \( \alpha=-1 \), or a resistance, \( \alpha=0 \). At low frequencies, the equivalent capacitance of the circuit of Fig. 4 is given by

\[ C_p = C_{gb} + \frac{A \text{sen}(\alpha \pi/2)}{\omega^{1-\alpha}} \]  

(2)

showing a slope that depends on the parameter \( \alpha \). At high frequency values, Eq. (2) reduces to

\[ C_p |_{\omega \to \infty} = C_{gb} \]  

(3)

In order to study grain boundary capacitance changes, we found that, in our case, for a frequency of 100 kHz, \( C_p \approx C_{gb} \) (assuming that grains present Schottky potential barriers). Also, the electrode effects on total impedance and total capacitance, for our working frequency, can be neglected [20]. Thus, the
electrical capacitance behavior of the possible grain boundary barriers was analyzed at 100 kHz as a function of external bias, from 0 to 40 volts (see Fig. 5).

In Figure 5 it can be observed that grain size differences (see table I) do not directly correlate with changes of $C_p$ (at 100 kHz) for samples S1, S2, and S3. However, a large electrical capacitance ($C_p=C_{gb}$) is observed for the controlled precipitation method when the samples (S4) are sintered at 1450 °C. Figure 5 also indicates mild capacitance dependence with bias for the Pechini method (S1 and S2) and controlled precipitation (S3). Conversely, S4 shows appreciable capacitance dependence with bias from 0 to 20 V. This dependence is another evidence of the grain boundary barriers formation in these grains. For no bias, grain boundary capacitance measurements are shown in Table 2.

With the information given in Table 1, we can calculate the capacitance considering that we are dealing with a homogeneous material:

$$C_{bloks} = \varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0 \frac{S}{d}$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

where, $\varepsilon_r$=18 [21]. With Eq. (4) the experimental capacitance should be about 10 pF. A significantly larger value indicates the presence of intergranular potentials barriers and a bulk region at the center of the grains. The large capacitance value found in the 1450 °C blocks made using the controlled precipitation method constitutes strong evidence that this is the case in which potential barriers are not overlapped. Related with this, a lower resistance was observed in the full bias range for the precipitation method and it is shown in Figure 6.

In principle, the capacitance is inversely related to the distance between electrodes. For a homogeneous material, this is directly the thickness $d$ as shown in Eq. 4. However, if Schottky barriers are developed at grain surfaces, i.e., when potential barriers are not overlapped, the effective distance between electrodes is reduced. In a grain of size $z$, having two depletion regions of width $L$, every grain reduces their effective width to $2L$. Thus, in a one dimensional approximation, the resulting capacitance when barriers are non–overlapped, $C_{no}$, related to that corresponding to a sample with overlapped barriers, $C_o$, can be expressed as [22]:

$$\frac{C_{no}}{C_o} = \frac{z}{2\Lambda}$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)
where \( z \) is the grain size and \( \Lambda \) is the depletion layer width. For the controlled precipitation method, following sintering, the capacitance of the BaSnO\(_3\) blocks changes considerably in the explored sintering temperature range. Indeed, the ratio between the block capacitances at 1450 °C and at 1350 °C is \( \approx 56 \), using the results of Figure 7 or Table 2. This change can be interpreted with Eq. (5) as the consequence of depletion widths that are narrower than the grain radius, due to a higher doping. From Eq.(5), considering that S4 has mostly non-overlapped barriers, the depletion layer can be estimated as

\[
\Lambda = \frac{z}{2} \left( \frac{C_\text{d}}{C_{\text{S4}}} \right) \approx 1.19 \times 10^{-7} \text{m} \tag{6}
\]

In a Schottky barrier, the height (\( \phi \) and width (\( \Lambda \)) are directly related [20, 21]:

\[
\phi = \frac{eN_d}{2\varepsilon} \Lambda^2 \tag{7}
\]

where \( N_d \) is the donor density. (Strictly, \( \phi \) refers to band bending in Eqs. 7-10.) With Eq. (7) the donor concentration \( N_d \) can be estimated considering a typical values of barrier height of 0.65 eV (value that we will confirm below):

\[
N_d = \frac{2\varepsilon \phi}{e\Lambda^2} \tag{8}
\]

The dopant concentration can also be determined considering the capacitance for \( n \) intergrains in series:

\[
\frac{1}{C_{\text{gb}}} = 2\left( \frac{2\phi n^2}{e\varepsilon N_d S^2} \right)^{1/2} \tag{9}
\]

where \( \phi \) is given in V. Equation (9) corresponds to the capacitance obtained from measurements shown in Fig. 7(a). \( N_d \) can be calculated from \( C_{\text{gb}} \) as:
\[ N_d = \frac{C_d^2}{q\varepsilon_0\varepsilon_r S^2} \]  

(10)

With Eq. (10) the value for the dopant concentration can be determined, \( N_d = 1.22 \times 10^{23} \) m\(^{-3}\), which is quite close to the one determined using Eq. (8). On another hand, results for capacitance values indicate that Schottky barriers do not develop for samples S1, S2, and S3. This implies very low-doped samples. Indeed, for having complete depleted samples, the dopant concentration in a spherical grain should be:

\[ N_d \leq \frac{6\varepsilon\phi}{eA^2} \]

For a grain of 5 mm, this implies a \( N_d \leq 6 \times 10^{20} \) m\(^{-3}\). This is a relatively low doping but this is expected because samples were sinterized and always exposed to air. Apparently, the sample preparation using controlled precipitation method favors the oxygen vacancy formation.

To gain confidence in the previous analysis based on capacitance measurements, we calculated the total current due to both tunnelling and thermionic emission. The total current density over and through a barrier can be calculated as:

\[
J = \frac{AT}{k} \int_{0}^{\phi} f(E)P(E)dE + AT^2 \exp(-e\phi/kT) 
\]

(11)

The first term corresponds to the tunneling current \( J_{\text{tunneling}} \) and the second to the thermionic current, \( A \) and \( k \) are the Richardson and Boltzmann constants respectively, \( f(E) \) is the Fermi-Dirac distribution and \( P(E) \) the transmission probability. The analysis leading to Eq.(11) can be extended to incorporate thermionic-field emission or tunneling contributions, which can be calculated using

\[
J_{\text{tunneling}} = \frac{AT}{k} \int_{0}^{\phi} F(E)P(E)dE . \]

(12)

\( F(E) \) is the Fermi-Dirac distribution and \( P(E) \) is the transmission probability for a reverse-biased Schottky barrier, which can be determined by means of the Wentzel-Kramer-Brilloin (WKB)
approximation [17]. The experimental current density \( J_{\text{exp}} \) can be obtained from the grain boundary resistance (Fig. 7(b)) with the following relationship:

\[
J = \frac{V}{SR_{gb}} \quad \text{(13)}
\]

where \( V \) is the applied voltage during impedance spectroscopy measurements, \( S \) the block area \((6.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2)\) and \( R_{gb} \) the grain boundary resistance measured at low frequencies. Then, a pair of \( N_d \) and \( \phi \) values was used for fitting experimental values with Eqs. 10–13. Iterative calculations were carried out until the calculated total current (thermionic and tunnel current) was equal to the experimental value obtained with Eq. (13), see Table 3 confirming our previous estimations. The study of the electrical behavior of the ceramic pieces was carried out at a temperature of 300 °C for two reasons. First, gas sensors present maximum sensitivity at about this temperature and, second, at room temperature the conductivity is some cases is too low to be measured and then comparisons are not possible.

In order to compare the two synthesis methods, the electrical capacitance and resistance response as functions of frequencies, at 300 °C and 0 Bias, for samples sintered at 1450 °C were measured (S2 and S4). These studies are presented in Figure 7(a), and Figure 7(b), respectively.

At low frequencies, the film electrical behavior can be described with the electrical model shown in Figure 4. In this circuit, the resistance \( R_{\text{traps}} \) and the CPE mimic the effect of deep traps \([23, 24]\). An increase in \( C_p \) (Figure 7(a)) at low frequencies is observed due to the presence of deep bulk traps in all samples. Moreover, Figure 7(b) shows that grain size differences cannot be responsible for the huge change in resistance. However, this can be interpreted as the formation of narrow intergranular barriers that facilitate conduction in the S4 sample.

4. Conclusions

The results obtained in this study indicate that the method of synthesis used to obtain the raw material as well as the method employed in forming the pieces determines the electrical behavior of the barium stannate block samples. The method used is then crucial for the resulting morphology and electrical properties. Depending on the preparation method, and then the donor concentration, intergranular potential barriers could be overlapped or not. For a large enough donor concentration, when barriers are non–overlapped, the electrical capacitance is relatively large due to the narrow depletion layers at
intergrains, which also facilitate conduction. Linked with this, the grain boundary electrical capacitance show dependence with the applied voltage as donor concentration is large.

5. Acknowledgements
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References


[21] CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 87th Ed. D. R. Lide. Boca Raton, FL; 2006; Ch.12, p. 44.


Figure 1. XRD graphs of the solid samples synthesized using controlled precipitation and Pechini routes; the powders were thermally treated for 2 hours at 1250 °C and 1000 °C, respectively.
Figure 2. SEM images of BaSnO$_3$ powders synthesized using (a) controlled precipitation method (thermally treated at 1250 °C) and (b) Pechini polymeric precursor route (treated at 1000 °C).
Figure 3. SEM images of the surface of the ceramic pieces formed by slip casting using powders synthesized with the Pechini method, sintered at (a) 1350 °C labeled S1 and (b) 1450 °C labeled S2, and synthesized with the controlled precipitation method, sintered at (c) 1350 °C labeled S3 and (d) 1450 °C labeled S4.
Figure 4. Equivalent circuit that includes four different contributions to the overall impedance (for the full frequency range): grain boundary, bulk, deep bulk traps, and electrode contact. $R_{gb}$ and $C_{gb}$ represent grain boundary resistance and capacitance, respectively. $R_b$ and $C_b$ represent bulk resistance and capacitance, respectively. The electrode elements are $R_e$ and $C_e$, while a constant phase element (CPE) is used to model deep bulk traps.
Figure 5. Capacitance as a function of applied bias for S1, S2, S3, and S4 samples.
Figure 6. Resistance vs. bias for S3 and S4.
Figure 7. Capacitance (a) and Resistance (b) as a function of frequency for the S2 and S4 samples.
Table 1. Microstructural characteristics of pieces formed using synthesized ceramic powders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural measurements</th>
<th>Pechini</th>
<th>Controlled Precipitation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sintering temperature (°C)</td>
<td>1350</td>
<td>1450</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contact Area “S”(m^2) x 10^{-5}</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>6.47</td>
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<td>Block thickness “d” (mm)</td>
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<td>1.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grain size “z” (µm)</td>
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<td>No. of grains in thickness d</td>
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<td>130</td>
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</table>
Table 2. Electrical Parallel Capacitance ($C_p$) at 100 kHz for different sintering temperatures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Blocks measured at 0 bias</th>
<th>Pechini</th>
<th>Controlled precipitation</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Sintering temperature (°C)</td>
<td>S1=1350</td>
<td>S2=1450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>($C_p$ at f=100 kHz) (pF)</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>10.9</td>
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</table>
Table 3. Electrophysics parameters obtained from the experimental measurements.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Blocks measured at 0 Bias</th>
<th>Controlled precipitation</th>
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<tr>
<td>Sintered temperature (°C)</td>
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<td>$C_p$ (pF)</td>
<td>22.6</td>
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<td>$R_{gb}$ (kΩ) = $R_p$</td>
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<td>$J_{total}$ (A/m$^2$)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$J_{tunnel}$ (A/m$^2$) (model)</td>
<td>Overlapped potential</td>
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<tr>
<td>$J_{thermionic}$ (A/m$^2$) (model)</td>
<td>Potential barriers</td>
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<td>Barrier height $e\phi$ (eV)</td>
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<td>Donor concentration (1/m$^3$)</td>
<td>$C = \varepsilon S/d$</td>
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<tr>
<td>Depletion layer width (nm)</td>
<td>$J = V / \sqrt{SR_{gb} (2e\phi)}$</td>
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