Solid state reactions

Often defined as reactions between two solids

Here the definition is extended to any reaction involving a solid:

•Solid/solid

- •Solid/gas (Reaction, decomposition)
- •(Solid/liquid)
- Intercalation

2 Solid-State Reactions

- 2.1 Reactions Between Solid Compounds
- 2.1.1 Ceramic Method
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- **2.4 Intercalation Reactions**
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Ceramic method

Direct reaction of solids to form the final product In principle no decomposition is involved.

Solids do not react with solids at room temperature even of thermodynamics is favorable.

High temperature must be used.

Solid-solid reactions are simple to perform, starting materials are often readily available at low cost and reactions are "clean" i.e. do not involve other chemical elements.

Disadvantages include the need for high temperatures, the possibility of non-homogeneity, contamination from containers etc. etc.

Synthesis of YBCO, $YBa_2Cu_3O_{7-x}$ Direct reaction between Y_2O_3 , BaO_2 , CuO (Reaction between <u>three</u> solid components) Grind to obtain large surface area Press into pellets (contact) Heat in alumina boat, temperature profile:





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Other precursors may be used, e.g. BaCO₃, which may be decomposed to fine grained BaO during the reaction. (+ nitrates etc.) Decomposition must be performed in a controlled manner in order to avoid violent decomposition (i.e. choosing an appropriate temperature)

Many other ways of synthesizing YBCO:

Precursor methods Sol/gel Flux Many melt-texturing methods

including partially melting/fluxing





Figure 2-2. Deduction of the unit cell of $YBa_2Cu_3O_7$ (right) from the perovskite structure. Three perovskite unit cells (left) are stacked above each other. Then the oxygen atoms marked by an x are removed.



Figure 2-3. In 1933, Walter Meissner and Robert Ochsenfeld discovered that a superconducting material will repel a magnetic field (the "Meissner–Ochsenfeld effect"). A body made of a superconducting material thus floats above the surface of a magnet.

Solid state reactions, general aspects



Reactions often involve other reactions and transport mechanisms. Electrons, gaseous species, oxygen ions, defects ...

Reaction occurs at $AB_2O_4-B_2O_3$ interface: oxygen gas phase transport with A^{2+} ion and electron transport through AB_2O_4 :

$$A^{2+} + 2e^{-} + \frac{1}{2}O_2 + B_2O_3 = AB_2O_4$$

AO AB_2O_4 B_2O_3 $AC AB_2O_4$ B_2O_3 A^{2+} $2e^-$

Reaction occurs at $AO-AB_2O_4$ interface: oxygen gas phase transport with B^{3+} ion and electron transport through AB_2O_4 :

$$AO + 2B^{3+} + 6e^{-} + \frac{3}{2}O_2 = AB_2O_4$$



Diffusion is a thermally activated process



Fig. 6.8. (a), (b), and (c) are schematic drawings showing the sequence of configurations involved when an atom jumps from one normal site to a neighboring one. (d) shows how the free energy of the entire lattice would vary as the diffusing atom is reversibly moved from configuration (a) to (b) to (c).

Transport: Diffusion in a gradient (i.e. chemical potential gradient, $\Delta\mu$)



Fig. 6.9. Diffusion in a potential gradient $\Delta \mu$; ΔG^{\dagger} is the activation energy and λ the jump distance.

Mass transport in an ionic solid is often achieved by transport of a charged species and counter transport of a differently charged ion or defect in the opposite direction.

Then the electrochemical potential is the driving force, and not the chemical potential or the concentration gradient.

The electrochemical potential (η_i) of species i is the sum of the chemical potential and electrostatic potential ϕ :

$$\eta_i = \mu_i + Z_i F \phi$$

Where Z_i is the effective charge and F is the Faraday constant.

The flux is given by:

$$j_{i} = c_{i}v_{i} = -c_{i}B_{i}\frac{\partial\eta_{i}}{\partial x} = -c_{i}B_{i}\left[\frac{\partial\mu_{i}}{\partial x} + Z_{i}F\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x}\right]$$

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Implications of the expression for flux:

- The effect of the terms may pull in oppposite directions (i.e. a concentration gradient may be countered by an electrical field gradient)
- A different type of effect may occur due to the local electrical field between oppositely charged species. This may affect the transport of an ion relative to other(s). This coupling results in e.g. that both Al³⁺ and O²⁻ move in Al₂O₃ (in contrast one would normally expect O²⁻ to by fairly immobile due to the large ionic size)

Example of parabolic growth: NiO + Al₂O₃ \rightarrow NiAl₂O₄



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Ions in solids are not mobile at low temperatures.

High temperatures, as a rule of thumb, at 2/3 of the melting temperature (of one component) the diffusion is sufficient to achieve solid state reactions.

Formation of $BaTiO_3$ by reacting $BaCO_3$ and TiO_2 is an example of a seemingly simple reaction is more complex than expected.

BaTiO₃ is an important electroceramic, (Thermistors, capacitors, optoelectronic devices, DRAMs)

 $BaCO_3$ is decomposed to reactive BaO: (Rock salt, ccp of the oxide anions, Ba^{2+} in octahedral sites),

 TiO_2 (Rutile, hcp of oxide ions, Ti^{4+} in half of the octahedral sites) At least three stages are involved in formation of BaTiO₃ from BaO and TiO₂.

- BaO react with the surface of TiO₂, forming nuclei and a surface layer of BaTiO₃.
- Reaction between BaO and BaTiO₃ to form Ba₂TiO₄. NB! This is a necessary phase for increasing migration of Ba²⁺ ions.
- Ba²⁺ ions from the Ba-rich phase migrate into the TiO₂ phase and form BaTiO₃.

Reaction rates depends on:

- Area of contact between the reacting solids, i.e. surface area and "density"
- The rate of nucleation
- Rates of diffusion of ions (and other species)

Disadvantages, e.g.:

- •Nucleation and diffusion related problems (high temperature)
- •Formation of undesired phases (reaction paths) (e.g. BaTi₂O₅)
- •Homogeneous distribution, especially for dopants, is difficult
- •Difficult to monitor the reaction directly, in-situ...??
- •Separation of phases after synthesis is difficult
- •Reaction with containers/crucibles
- •Volatility of one or more of the components



Surface area: Surface area is increased by crushing/milling

1 cm3 cube: surface area 6 cm²
1 mm cubes: surface area 60 cm²
10μm cubes: surface area 6000 cm²
10 nm cubes: surface area 6000000 cm² (600m²)



Figure 2-5. When a cubic crystal of $1 \times 1 \times 1$ cm (total surface area 6 cm²) is cut ten times parallel to each face, 10^3 cubic crystallites of $0.1 \times 0.1 \times 0.1$ cm are obtained. The total volume is the same but the total surface area increases to 60 cm².

Increase diffusion rates (decrease diffusion lengths)

Small particles by grinding, ball milling, spray drying, freeze drying, spray pyrolysis etc. Cooling and regrinding may be necessary

Intimate mixture of reactants by coprecipitation, sol-gel processes, spray pyrolysis etc.

Reduction of diffusion distances by incorporating the cations in the same solid precursor.

Solid state reactions involving melts, molten fluxes or high temperature solvents.

Nucleation

Nucleation limited reactions may be described by the Avrami-Erofeyev equation:

$$x(t) = 1-exp(-kt^n) \{ or x(t) = 1-exp(-(kt)^n) \}$$

N is a real number, usually between 1 and 3 (n>4 is often interpretated as autocatalytic nucleation)

For n > 1 the curve is sigmoidal

Note: This is more empirical for most solid state reactions. It is difficult to talk about reaction order and activation energy for these reactions.



Figure 2-6. Avrami equation for two different values of n. The curve for n = 3 graphically shows the induction period at the beginning of the reaction.

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Nucleation may be facilitated by structural similarity between the reacting solids, or products.

In the reaction between MgO and Al2O3, MgO and spinel have similar oxide ion arrangements. Spinel nuclei may then easily form at the MgO surfaces.

There is often a structural orientational relationship between the reactant, nuclei and product.

The lattice spacing (e.g. distance between oxide ions) should not be too different for oriented nucleation.

Epitactic and topotactic reactions

Epitactic: structural similarity restricted to the surface / interface between two crystals layer

Topotactic: Structural similarity through the crystal

The ease of nucleation depends also on the actual surface structure of the reactants.



Figure 2-7. Different planes of the BaO (rock salt) structure. The open circles represent the oxygen atoms, the smaller dark circles the metal atoms.