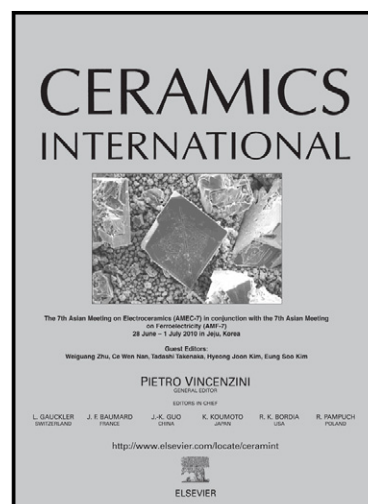


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**THE INFLUENCE OF Fe₂O₃ DOPING ON THE PORE STRUCTURE AND
MECHANICAL STRENGTH OF TiO₂-CONTAINING ALUMINA OBTAINED
BY FREEZE-CASTING**

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ABSTRACT

This work investigated TiO₂/Fe₂O₃ doped alumina prepared by the freeze-casting technique and using camphene as the solvent. Dendritic pores were formed in the TiO₂ doped alumina, a structure conferred by the frozen camphene. Contrary to this trend, further Fe₂O₃ doping of TiO₂-containing alumina resulted in the formation of non-dendritic structures. This behavior was attributed to the higher density of α -Fe₂O₃ (5.24 g cm⁻³) when compared to α -Al₂O₃ (3.95 g cm⁻³) and anatase TiO₂ (3.89 g cm⁻³), which reduced critical solidification front velocity, thus forming material with different pore shape. Fe₂O₃ doping also improved the densification of TiO₂-alumina and inhibited the formation of cracks, reflected by superior mechanical strength with best results ~150% higher for 10% Fe₂O₃ loaded samples as compared to TiO₂-alumina samples.

KEYWORDS: A. Porosity; B. Strength; C. Al₂O₃; D. TiO₂.

1. INTRODUCTION

The freeze casting technique has been gathering research interest due to its versatility in the preparation of tailored porous materials. This technique has benefited a number of applications including biomaterials derived from hydroxyapatite scaffolds for bone tissue engineering [1], unidirectional coating using nano-titania particles [2], iron oxide scaffolds [3], porous alumina substrates [4], lightweight and mechanically reliable materials with tailored pore frameworks [5], and hierarchical perovskite structures for

oxygen separation from air [6]. A common principle of this technique is the use of stable colloidal solutions in which the solvent solidifies during the cooling step. This is a very quick process, and cooling is almost instantaneous, resulting in a moving solidification front where the colloidal particles are rejected from the moving solidification front. In this process, the particles are entrapped between the growing solvent crystals [7]. As this solidification front growth can be directed into a single direction, this technique confers pore tailoring upon solvent sublimation and sintering.

Porous alumina is attractive in a large number of applications due to good compatibility with other inorganic materials, mechanical properties and low cost. For instance, porous alumina protective layers by spray coating [8, 9], foam materials [10, 11], and membrane substrates generally made by extrusion for microfiltration [12, 13], nanofiltration [14, 15], gas separation [16-18], oil/water separation [19, 20] and desalination [21-23]. The freeze casting technique also proved excellent for the production of porous alumina substrates. This is particularly important in membrane application where freeze casting substrates offer reduced resistance to gas transport as compared to conventional porous ceramic production methods. Hence, the structural development of alumina based freeze casting has been reported based on controlling the lamellar pore structure [24] by symmetrical channel arrangements along the radial axis [25]. Furthermore, a number of solvents have been investigated towards freeze casting structure formation in addition to water, including tert-butanol [4], naphthalene [26], polyether glycol [27], glycerol [28] and camphene [29, 30] among many other examples.

The mechanical properties of porous alumina substrates are also important and doping with different metal oxides is a strategy employed accordingly. For instance, it is well known that doping titania into alumina tends to form an aluminum titanate (Al_2TiO_5) phase with superior mechanical strength than alumina [31]. Recently, it was reported that TiO_2 doping with loadings above 4 wt% reduced the mechanical strength in freeze-cast alumina which was associated with the formation of microcracks [32]. Hence, metal oxide doping must be controlled to a point where it is no longer beneficial. SiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 and MgO [33-36] have also been used as doping agents into alumina in attempting to increase the poor mechanical strength related to an extensive microcracking.

In this work we investigated the effect of Fe_2O_3 doping on the properties of TiO_2 -alumina samples obtained by freeze-casting. As far as we know, this is the first attempt to incorporate TiO_2 and Fe_2O_3 into freeze-cast alumina, thus allowing the examination of novel tailored pore structures coupled with mechanical properties. This study is supported by a series of experimental tests including X-ray diffraction (XRD), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), electron dispersive spectroscopy (EDS), Archimedes method, and X-ray microtomography (μ -CT). The cold crushing strength of the samples prepared in this work was also evaluated.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 SYNTHESIS

The freeze-cast samples were obtained following a method as published elsewhere [32]. Briefly, a solution of Texaphor 963 (Cognis, Southampton Hampshire, UK) and camphene (Aldrich / $\geq 95\%$) was prepared at 60 °C, where CT3000SG alumina particles (Almatis, Brazil / $\geq 99\%$) were then added under vigorous stirring. Texaphor 963 is a 50 wt% solution of an electroneutral salt of polycarboxylic acid with amine derivatives, whereas camphene is a bicyclic monoterpene with molecular formula $C_{10}H_{16}$. The as-prepared slurry was kept under sonication for 15 min, followed by sequential addition of TiO_2 (anatase / Sigma / $\geq 99\%$) and $\alpha-Fe_2O_3$ (Baker Chemicals / 99.4%) to this slurry. The TiO_2 loading was kept at 4 wt% of the solid concentration, whereas the Fe_2O_3 concentration ranged from 2.5 to 10 wt%. Blank samples containing pure alumina were also prepared for comparison purposes. The Texaphor 963 loading was kept at 1.8 wt% of the alumina concentration. The solid concentration in the slurries was kept constant at 25 vol%.

Subsequently, the slurries were poured into a freeze casting rig containing a high thermal conductivity copper plate and a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) mold. The bottom side of the mold was in contact with the copper plate at $\sim 77K$ (e.g. liquid nitrogen) while the top side of the mold was open to atmospheric conditions. The slurry was poured into the mold and due to a high temperature gradient, it created a front freezing the camphene crystals in the vertical orientation from the bottom to the top side of the mold. The removal of camphene was carried out in air at room temperature for at least 3 days. The samples were then calcined in air at 1500 °C for 2 h using a temperature-controlled Thermolab furnace at a heating rate of 2 °C min^{-1} .

2.2 CHARACTERIZATION

The starting powders used in this work were examined by laser granulometry with a CILAS 1064 laser granulometer. The porosity of the sintered samples was measured by the Archimedes method. The sample's shrinkage was evaluated taking into account their diameter before and after the heat treatment step. XRD was carried out using a PHILIPS-PANALYTICAL PW 1710 diffractometer, with Cu K α radiation and operating at 40 kV and 30 mA. XRD patterns were taken in the range of 10-80° (2 θ), using a step size of 0.06°. The identification of the crystalline phases was performed using the XPert Plus software. FTIR was used to analyze samples prepared as pellets with KBr and examined in a PERKIN-ELMER Frontier spectrometer. The spectra were taken from 4000 to 400 cm⁻¹, with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ and 128 scans.

SEM was carried out in a FEI Quanta 200F field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) using accelerating voltages from 10 to 20 kV. The samples were embedded in epoxy resin, ground, and polished with diamond paste. Subsequently, the samples were placed in an ultrasonic bath with acetone, dried under hot air, and sputter-coated with a 5 nm thick gold layer. Compositional analyses were measured using a NORAN EDS system available in the microscope. μ -CT was carried out with a SKYSCAN 1172 high-resolution micro system. These tests were conducted using 100 kV X-ray voltage and a 0.5 mm thick aluminum filter. Three-frame averaging and a rotation step of 0.30° were used, covering a view of 180°. Smoothing and beam-hardening correction were applied to suppress noise and beam hardening artifacts. Cold crushing tests were carried out at room temperature using a CONTENCO HD-20T servo-controlled press.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 depicts the particle size distribution of the starting powders used in this study. It is observed that the particle size distribution of α -Fe₂O₃ (0.85 μ m) and TiO₂ (0.9 μ m) is shifted towards larger particle sizes when compared to α -Al₂O₃ (0.8 μ m). These particle sizes are within the values generally used in freeze casting process, as the particle size tends not to interfere in the formation of the camphene structure. The latter provides the porous structure during the freeze-casting method. Figure 2 shows XRD patterns of samples obtained in this work. It is observed that α -Al₂O₃ is the major phase in these materials. β -Al₂TiO₅ is clearly observed in TiO₂-containing samples since the formation of this phase occurs at temperatures above 1280 °C as per equation (1), associated with the transport of aluminum ions through TiO₂ [37]. The XRD patterns also reveal that the higher the concentration of α -Fe₂O₃, the more pronounced are the diffraction lines ascribed to Fe₂TiO₅. These results suggest the formation of Fe₂TiO₅ as per equation (2), related to the diffusion of TiO₂ into α -Fe₂O₃ [38]. It is also observed at the diffraction line $2\theta \sim 50^\circ$ that the formation of Al_{2-2x}Fe_{2x}TiO₅ (with x range from 0 to 1) took place in samples prepared with Fe₂O₃ loadings above 7.5 wt%. This reaction is described in equation (3) [39].

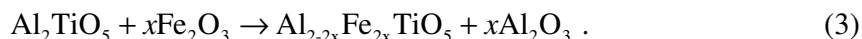
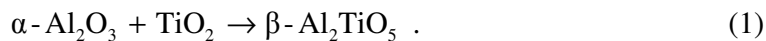


Figure 3 displays the FTIR spectra of the as-prepared materials together with the starting powders for comparison purposes. The bands at 460, 490, 610, and 645 cm^{-1} were ascribed to AlO_6 octahedra [40, 41]. The shoulder at 545 cm^{-1} was assigned to the presence of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ and anatase TiO_2 . It is observed that the higher the concentration of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, the more pronounced is this shoulder. Some authors have ascribed bands at $\sim 545 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ to Fe-O bonds [42, 43], thus coinciding with the broad absorption band also at $\sim 545 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ powder used in this study. The band at 780 cm^{-1} was assigned to AlO_4 units [44-46]. A band at 1085 cm^{-1} is clearly observed in the spectra of Fe_2O_3 -containing samples, which became more pronounced when the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ concentration increased. This feature has not been ascribed to a specific iron-related compound and could be associated with a compound formed in alumina after the co-doping of TiO_2 and $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (Fe_2TiO_5 / $\text{Al}_{2-2x}\text{Fe}_{2x}\text{TiO}_5$). It was not possible to identify the bands related to Ti-O bonds because they are masked by those associated with Al-O bonds.

The SEM micrographs of TiO_2 -containing alumina in Fig. 4 clearly show the formation of dendritic pores. As camphene tends to solidify in a dendritic fashion [47], its use as the solvent in freeze-casting leads to materials with dendritic pore channels [48-50]. Micrograph 4B shows that camphene dendrites grew macroscopically with a preferential orientation similar to the freezing direction. Fast freezing rates such as those used in this work usually lead to fine pore structures in freeze-cast materials. Figure 5 depicts SEM micrographs of materials obtained by the co-doping of TiO_2 and $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ into $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$. Dendritic pores are no longer observed in these samples. It is well established that in freeze-casting the slurry particles are pushed away by the solidification front and trapped between the growing solvent crystals. The critical

solidification front velocity (v_c) for particle trapping can be estimated by equation (4) [51, 52]:

$$v_c = \frac{\rho_l}{9\eta\rho_s} \left[-\frac{B}{2\pi Dd_0} - gDd_0(\rho_p - \rho_l) \right], \quad (4)$$

where D represents the particle diameter, g the gravitational constant, B a negative constant, η the viscosity of the liquid phase, d_0 the minimal distance between the particle and solidification front, ρ_p the particle density, ρ_s and ρ_l the densities of the solid and liquid phases, respectively. The particle engulfment occurs when the solidification velocity is higher than this critical value. Equation (4) indicates that the critical solidification front velocity is inversely proportional to the particle density. Since the density of α -Fe₂O₃ (5.24 g cm⁻³) is significantly higher than those of α -Al₂O₃ (3.95 g cm⁻³) and anatase TiO₂ (3.89 g cm⁻³), its addition to the slurry leads to a reduced critical solidification front velocity. As a consequence, the formation of dendritic pores was inhibited as evidenced in the SEM micrograph shown in Figure 5.

Figure 6 depicts SEM micrograph and EDS spectra of TiO₂/Fe₂O₃-containing alumina. The EDS signals show that the dark-gray regions were ascribed to Al, whereas light-gray areas exhibited signals associated with Al, Ti, and Fe. These results correlate well to the XRD patterns in Figure 2 and are attributed to the presence of β -Al₂TiO₅, Fe₂TiO₅, and Al_{2-2x}Fe_{2x}TiO₅ in the light-gray regions since they show a higher atomic number than alumina. The EDS signal ascribed to C is associated with the epoxy resin in which samples were embedded before the SEM tests. From Figures 5 and 6, it can be

observed that the light-gray regions are highly dispersed within the sample microstructure.

It is interesting to observe in Figure 7 that the Fe_2O_3 doping greatly reduced cracking formation. For instance, all samples containing alumina and titania resulted in cracks, some of them displaying several deep cracks. However, the samples containing alumina and titania plus Fe_2O_3 resulted in single micro-cracks only. These results strongly suggest that Fe_2O_3 doping assisted in the sintering process and promoted a superior matching between the compounds formed. Fe_2TiO_5 is an isostructural compound that might decrease the formation of cracks resulting from the thermal expansion mismatch of $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and $\beta\text{-Al}_2\text{TiO}_5$ [53, 54].

Figure 8 exhibits the porosity and shrinkage of samples prepared in this work as a function of the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ concentration. The trends are quite clear in the sense that pure alumina showed a higher porosity and lower shrinkage than the TiO_2 -containing sample. This behavior is associated with a more effective sintering of alumina when titania is added into its structure, in line with enhanced densification and grain growth [55-58]. The initial doping of 2.5 wt% Fe_2O_3 loading to the TiO_2 -containing sample seems to not alter both the porosity and shrinkage. However, when Fe_2O_3 loadings exceeded 2.5 wt%, samples with lower porosities and higher shrinkages were obtained. This finding is in line with the results reported elsewhere [59]. Archimedes tests also revealed that the materials obtained in this study show similar total and open porosities. This behavior suggests that they exhibit highly interconnected pore structures.

The cold crushing strength results in Figure 9 shows that TiO₂-containing alumina strength was slightly higher than that of pure alumina. The initial doping of 2.5 wt% Fe₂O₃ did not alter the cold crushing strength specimens though higher mechanical strengths were obtained when the Fe₂O₃ loading increased to and above 5 wt%. The cold crushing strength as a function of the porosity decreased as porosity increased to ~27%, and from there on the crushing strength was almost independent of porosity. Therefore, Fe₂O₃ doping improved the densification of the TiO₂-containing alumina and also inhibited the formation of cracks resulting from the β -Al₂TiO₅ phase. This behavior was also attributed to the increase of the cold crushing strength by ~150% for 10% Fe₂O₃ loaded samples as compared to TiO₂-alumina samples. It is worth mentioning that, in spite of the high porosity of the samples tested; they withstood the cold crushing tests (up to fracture) and did not crumble upon handling.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Laser granulometry tests revealed that the starting powders used in this work show mean particle diameters below 1 μ m, which suggests that they do not interfere in the formation of the camphene structure. XRD patterns showed that α -Al₂O₃ was the major phase in the samples and β -Al₂TiO₅ was observed in TiO₂ doped materials. It was noticed that the higher the concentration of α -Fe₂O₃, the more pronounced were the diffraction lines related to Fe₂TiO₅ and Al_{2-2x}Fe_{2x}TiO₅. Dendritic pores were observed in the SEM micrographs of pure and TiO₂-alumina. However, this morphological feature was not observed in the Fe₂O₃ doped TiO₂-alumina. The change in pore geometry was attributed to the high density of Fe₂O₃ relative to TiO₂ and alumina. This resulted in a reduced critical solidification front velocity in the freezing of the solvent

(i.e. camphene), thus modifying the pore shape geometry. Light-gray regions with EDS signals associated with Ti, Fe, and Al were noticed in the micrographs of $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ -containing samples, which were highly dispersed within the alumina structure. Cold crushing tests pointed out that the Fe_2O_3 doping led to materials with higher mechanical strength when compared to pure and TiO_2 -alumina. This was attributed to Fe_2O_3 which improved the densification of alumina and inhibited the formation of cracks.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

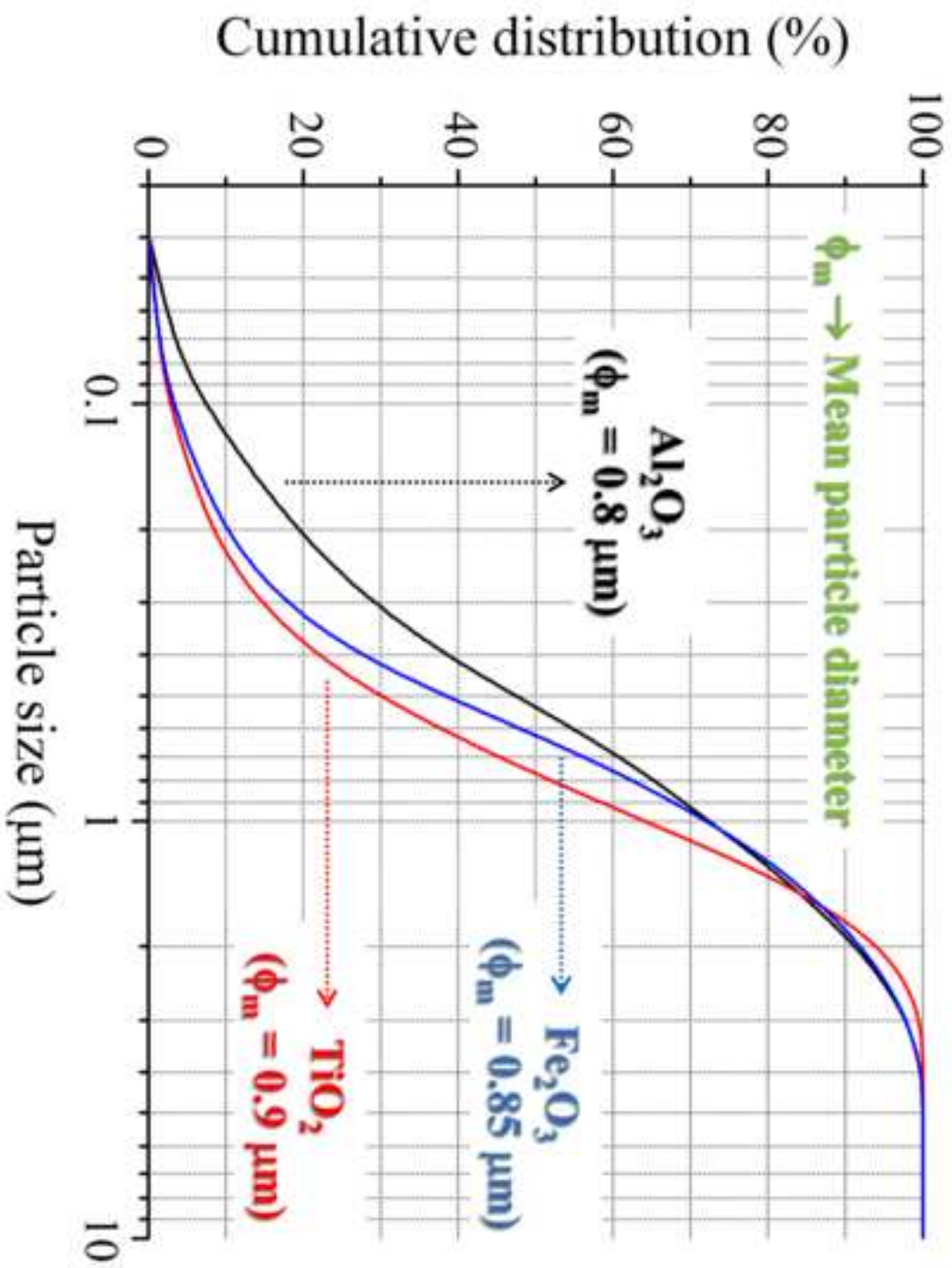
- **Figure 1:** Particle size distribution of the starting powders used in this work.
- **Figure 2:** XRD patterns of samples prepared in this study. (I) α -Al₂O₃; (II) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%); (III) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%) + α -Fe₂O₃ (2.5 wt%); (IV) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%) + α -Fe₂O₃ (5 wt%); (V) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%) + α -Fe₂O₃ (7.5 wt%); (VI) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%) + α -Fe₂O₃ (10 wt%). The JCPDS file numbers 00-010-0173, 00-041-0258, 00-076-1158, and 00-076-1157 were used as reference for α -Al₂O₃, β -Al₂TiO₅, Fe₂TiO₅, and Al_{2-2x}Fe_{2x}TiO₅, respectively.
- **Figure 3:** FTIR spectra of samples used in this work. (I) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%); (II) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%) + α -Fe₂O₃ (2.5 wt%); (III) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%) + α -Fe₂O₃ (5 wt%); (IV) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%) + α -Fe₂O₃ (7.5 wt%); (V) α -Al₂O₃ + TiO₂ (4 wt%) + α -Fe₂O₃ (10 wt%). The spectra were normalized using the band at 645 cm⁻¹ as reference.
- **Figure 4:** SEM micrographs of TiO₂-containing alumina. The scale bars correspond to 200 and 20 μ m in (A) and (B), respectively.
- **Figure 5:** SEM micrographs of TiO₂/Fe₂O₃-containing alumina. Sample prepared with a 10 wt% Fe₂O₃ loading. The scale bars correspond to 100 and 20 μ m in (A) and (B), respectively.

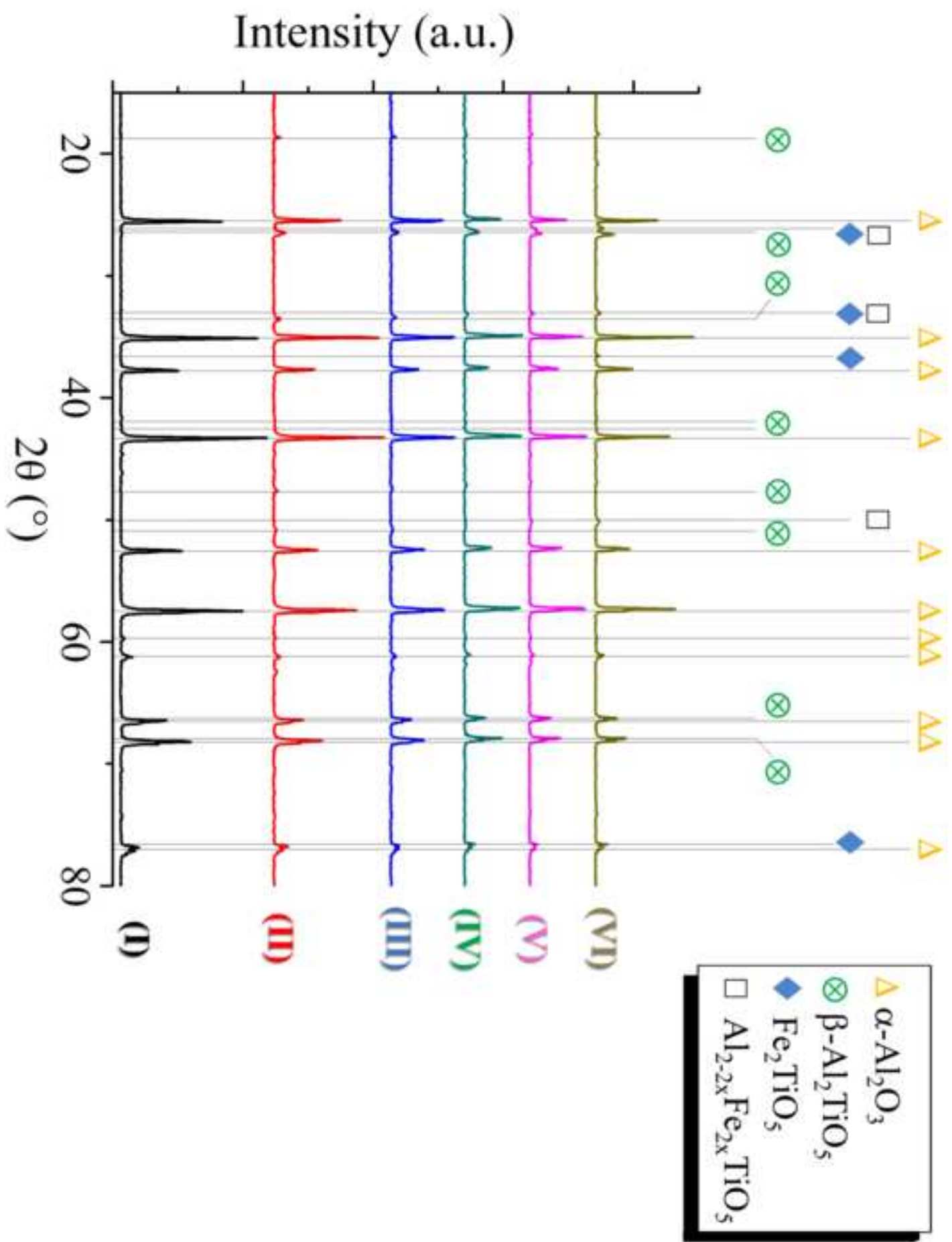
- **Figure 6:** SEM micrographs and EDS spectra of TiO₂/Fe₂O₃-containing alumina. Sample prepared with a 10 wt% Fe₂O₃ loading. The scale bar in the micrograph corresponds to 20 μm.

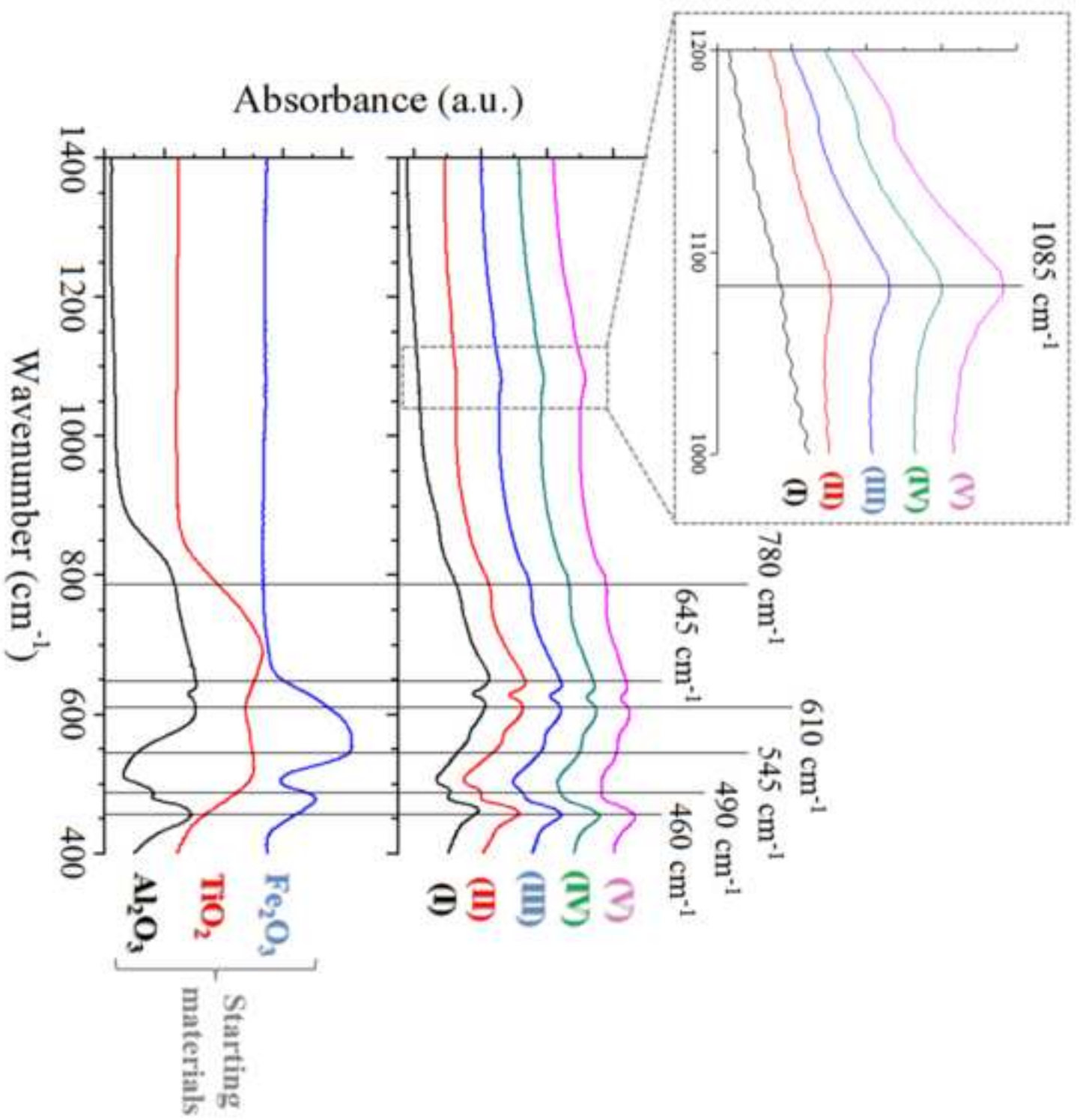
- **Figure 7:** μ-CT images of materials obtained in this work.

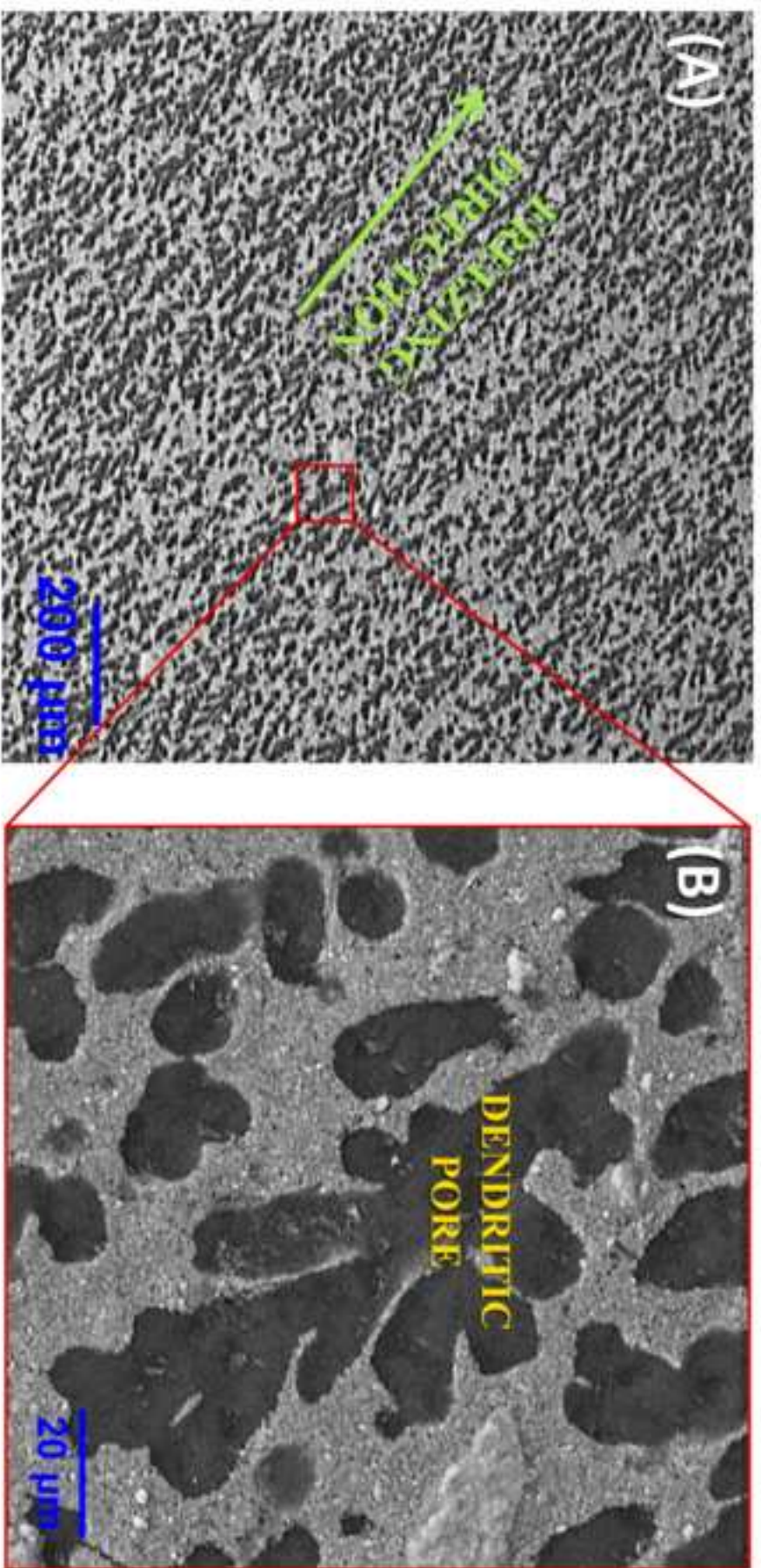
- **Figure 8:** Porosity and shrinkage of samples prepared in this study as a function of the Fe₂O₃ loading. The dotted lines are used only as a guide to the eyes.

- **Figure 9:** Cold crushing strength as a function of the Fe₂O₃ loading and porosity. The dotted lines are used only as a guide to the eyes.

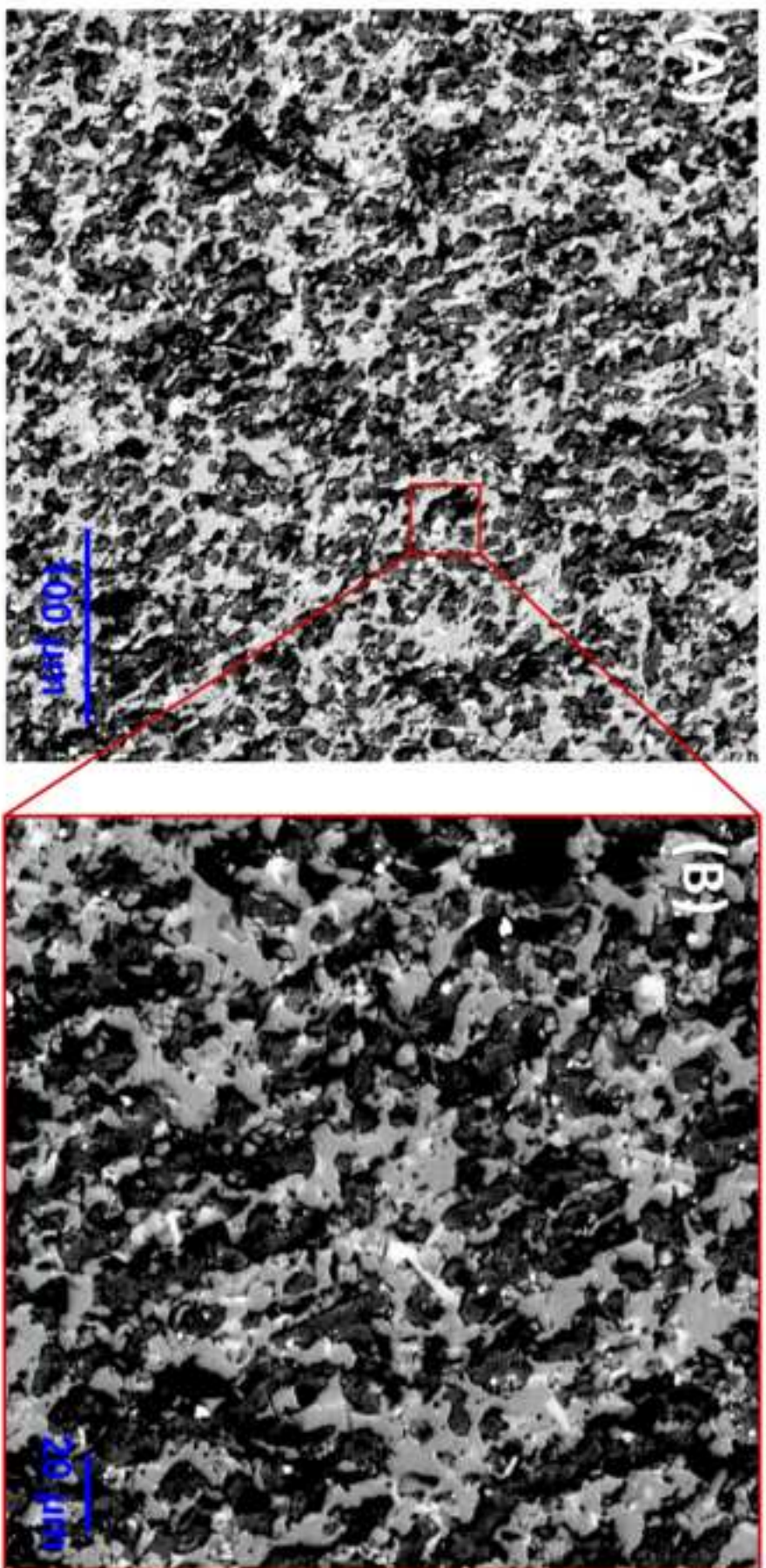








TiO₂-containing alumina



TiO₂ / Fe₂O₃-containing alumina

