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## Calorimetric investigations on cubic BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> systems

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## **1. Introduction**

Ceramic nuclear waste forms such as synroc, tailored ceramics,  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ -matrix ceramics, glass ceramics and monazite, etc., which are alternative to glass, are under development. The  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ -matrix ceramics, an assemblage of geologically stable titanate minerals and its derivatives have been extensively considered as potential candidates for the immobilization of high level radioactive waste streams, since they are chemically more durable than the silicate assemblage due to their extremely low solubility [\[1–4\].](#page-3-0) Titanate ceramic formulations have evolved from the original polyphase assemblage to deal with the wide range of fission products, actinides, process chemicals and also more specific compositions of partitioned fission products or actinides. Alkaline earths and rare earths are the two major groups of fission product elements in the radioactive waste stream. A lanthanide fission product, neodymium, was chosen, in this study, to simulate the behaviour of its transuranium counterpart. The titanates formed by the alkaline earths, such as BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>1-x</sub>Nd<sub>x</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> are the probable phases in the waste matrix. In the selection of the nuclear waste forms, the thermodynamic stability of the constituent phases plays a vital role.

Barium titanate is also the most widely used dielectric material for application in multilayer capacitors. Pure and doped barium titanate ceramics also find application as potential candidates for

## ABSTRACT

Drop calorimetric studies were carried out on cubic BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>. Enthalpy increments were measured by inverse drop calorimetric method in the temperature range 573–1523 K using a multidetector high temperature calorimeter. Thermodynamic functions such as heat capacity, entropy, Gibbs energy functions in the temperature range 298–1600 K were computed from the measured enthalpy increments.

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intermediate-temperature fuel cell electrolytes, steam electrolysers, hydrogen and humidity sensors due to their proton conducting nature [\[5\].](#page-3-0) Hence the thermodynamic properties of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>1−x</sub>Nd<sub>x</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> are of interest. Heat capacity measurements reported in the literature for BaTiO<sub>3</sub> are limited and data are available only at temperatures below 450 K [\[6–10\]. F](#page-3-0)or the neodymium-doped BaTiO<sub>3</sub>, no data are available. Hence enthalpy increment measurements were carried out on BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>, having cubic crystal structures, in the temperature range 573–1523 K by drop calorimetry, using a multidetector high temperature drop calorimeter. BaTiO<sub>3</sub> usually crystallizes in the tetragonal system, but in the present case, pristine and Nd-doped BaTiO<sub>3</sub> could be stabilized in the cubic system by employing innovative methods of materials synthesis. The thermodynamic functions of the cubic phases are reported here for the first time.

## **2. Experimental**

#### 2.1. Preparation and characterization

BaTiO<sub>3</sub> was prepared in the form of fine powder by gel to crystallite conversion technique and hydrothermalmethod, as reported in detail elsewhere [\[11,12\]. In](#page-3-0) both the methods for the preparation BaTiO<sub>3</sub>, the starting materials, Ba(OH)<sub>2</sub> and TiOCl<sub>2</sub> were taken in such a way that the starting stoichiometry of barium and titanium are in the ratio of 1.05:1.0. The hydrated gels of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O$  were precipitated out from dilute aqueous solutions of TiOCl<sub>2</sub>. The gel was washed with boiled distilled water to make it free from chloride and ammonia. The gel was transferred to a Teflon container having a tight lid and weighed amount of  $Ba(OH)_2·8H_2O$  was added to it. The Teflon container was kept inside an autoclave and heated at 415 K for 4 h. The powders formed were washed thoroughly with boiled distilled water ( $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -free) till the powder was free from unreacted  $Ba(OH)_2$ . The oven-dried (373 K) powders were examined by X-ray powder diffraction using  $CuK_{\alpha}$  radiation, employing a Siemens D-500 powder X-ray diffractometer, in the step scan mode with a step size of 0.02<sup>°</sup>

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Fig. 1. XRD patterns of pure and Nd-doped BaTiO<sub>3</sub>: (a) and (c) As-prepared samples; (b) and (d) after enthalpy increment measurements.

 $2\theta$ /s and a counting time of 2 s per step. A similar procedure was adopted for the preparation and characterization of  $Ba_{0.9}Nd_{0.1}TiO_3$ . BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and  $Ba_{0.9}Nd_{0.1}TiO_3$  synthesized by hydrothermal and gel to crystallite conversion methods were seen to be single phase materials with cubic symmetry ( $a = 4.03 \pm 0.01$  Å for BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and a = 4.01  $\pm$  0.01 Å for Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>) as revealed by XRD. The XRD patterns of the as-prepared samples and that of the samples after calorimetric measurements are shown in Fig. 1, and there is no phase transformation in the temperature range of measurement.

#### 2.2. Multi-detector high temperature calorimeter

The enthalpy increments of the titanates were determined by drop calorimetry using SETARAM multi-detector high temperature calorimeter (MHTC-96). The calorimetric detector is a thermopile comprising 28 thermocouples embedded on the inner side of an alumina tube in which the sample crucible and an empty reference crucible are positioned one above the other. In the thermopile detector, the thermocouples are positioned at heights surrounding the outer surfaces of the crucibles so that an integrated heat exchange between the two crucibles is obtained at the output signal. In the present study, a detector, made up of Pt–30%Rh/Pt–10% thermocouples was employed. The detector is centered in a gas-tight alumina muffle placed in the furnace heated by a single graphite resistance element. All measurements were performed in ultra high pure argon atmosphere.

#### 2.3. Enthalpy increment measurements

In a typical experiment, carried out at a constant temperature four or five titanate sample pellets and an equal number of  $\alpha$ -alumina reference (SRM 720) pellets each weighing about 150–200 mg, were dropped one after the other from the specimen chamber maintained at the ambient temperature into the sample crucible kept in









**Table 2**





the calorimeter maintained at a constant temperature T. From the resultant heat flow signals corresponding to the  $\alpha$ -alumina reference ( $Q_{\rm R}$ ) and the titanate sample ( $Q<sub>S</sub>$ ), the enthalpy increments of the titanate samples ( $H<sub>T</sub> - H<sub>298</sub>$ )<sub>S</sub> were computed using the known enthalpy increment values of  $\alpha$ -alumina reference  $(H_T - H_{298})_F$ from the literature [\[13\]](#page-3-0) and the following expression:

$$
(H_T - H_{298})_S = \frac{\int Q_S dt}{\int Q_R dt} \cdot \frac{M_S}{m_S} \cdot \frac{m_R}{M_R} \cdot (H_T - H_{298})_R
$$

where  $M_{\rm R}$  and  $m_{\rm R}$  are the molar mass and mass of the  $\alpha$ -alumina reference material and  $M<sub>S</sub>$  and  $m<sub>S</sub>$  are the molar mass and mass of the titanate sample. The mean of the five heat flow values for the standard and that for the sample were used to compute the enthalpy increment at that temperature, T. Further, four or five measurements were carried out for a given temperature and the mean value of the enthalpy increments from these runs at temperature, T were used for fitting.

#### **3. Results and discussion**

The accuracy of the enthalpy increments from our measurements had been determined to be 2–4%. Enthalpy increments of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> were measured in the temperature ranges of 573–1423 K and 573–1523 K, respectively. They were fitted to polynomial functions in temperature by the least squares method using the following two constraints: (i)  $(H_T - H_{298}) = 0$  at 298 K; (ii) the derivative of the function at 298 K is equal to the value of heat capacity at 298 K. The  $C_{p,298}$  values for the BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba $_{0.9}$ Nd $_{0.1}$ TiO $_3$  (which were estimated from  $C^0_{\rm p, 298}$  of its constituent oxides from the literature [\[14\]](#page-3-0) by invoking molar additivity rule to be 101.87 and 102.76 J K<sup>-1</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). Similarly the  $S^0_{298}$ value of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and S<sub>298</sub> value of Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> needed for computing entropy and Gibbs energy functions were also estimated from the entropy values of constituent oxides [\[14\]. H](#page-3-0)owever, for the estimation of  $S_{298}$  value  $Ba_{0.9}Nd_{0.1}TiO_3$  the contribution of ideal entropy of mixing was taken into consideration. The fit equations thus obtained for BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> are given below:

### BaTiO<sub>3</sub>

$$
(H_T - H_{298}) = 127.561T + 6.064 \times 10^{-3}T^2
$$
  
+ 26.052 × 10<sup>5</sup>T<sup>-1</sup> – 47, 309 (1)

 $Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>$ 

$$
(H_T - H_{298}) = 126.636T + 7.883 \times 10^{-3}T^2
$$
  
+ 25.403 \times 10<sup>5</sup>T<sup>-1</sup> – 46, 978 (2)

## <span id="page-2-0"></span>**Table 3**

Thermodynamic functions of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> calculated from Eq.  $(1)$ .



### **Table 4**

Thermodynamic functions of  $Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>$  calculated from Eq. [\(2\).](#page-1-0)



In the above equations, the temperature is expressed in K and the enthalpy increment in J mol−1. The standard errors of the fit are 2.7% and 2.4% and the estimates of the standard deviations for the fit are 2438 J mol<sup>-1</sup> and 2339 J mol<sup>-1</sup> for BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>, respectively. The experimental values of the enthalpy increments of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> are given in [Tables 1 and 2](#page-1-0) along with the calculated values from Eqs. [\(1\) and \(2\). F](#page-1-0)rom the above fit equations, heat capacity, entropy and Gibbs energy function have also been computed which are given in Tables 3 and 4. The measured enthalpy increment values of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> are shown in Fig. 2 along with the fit values as well as those computed using molar additivity rule from the enthalpy data of the component oxides from the literature [\[13\].](#page-3-0) The values from the fit are within  $\pm 3\%$  of the measured values. Present enthalpy increment data are in agreement within 4% with the mole average values calculated for BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>. Fig. 3 shows the present heat capacity data for BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> along with the heat capacity data computed from the literature by using the molar



Fig. 2. Enthalpy increments of pure and Nd-doped BaTiO<sub>3</sub>.



Fig. 3. Heat capacity of pure and Nd-doped BaTiO<sub>3</sub>.

<span id="page-3-0"></span>additivity rule. As can be seen from [Fig. 3, t](#page-2-0)he present heat capacity data are higher than the mole average values. The deviations are about 4 and 5% for pure BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and  $Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>$  at 1000 K and they increase with increase in temperature. The larger deviation at higher temperatures could be due to the contribution of anharmonicity.

## **4. Conclusion**

Enthalpy increments of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> and  $Ba<sub>0.9</sub>Nd<sub>0.1</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>$  having cubic crystal structures have been measured in the temperature ranges 573–1523 K for the first time by inverse drop calorimetry. Other thermodynamic functions, namely, heat capacity, entropy and Gibbs energy functions were computed in the temperature range 298–1600 K.

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