LETTER

Porous alumina ceramics produced with lycopodium spores as pore-forming agents

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Received: 26 March 2007 / Accepted: 14 May 2007 / Published online: 15 July 2007 Springer Science+Business Media, LLC 2007

Many applications of porous ceramics require a precise control of porosity, as well as pore size, pore shape and pore space topology. Among the various pore-forming agents (PFA) used in ceramic technology, those of biological origin are especially popular for fabricating porous ceramics, due to the fact that their burnout is usually harmless from the ecological and hygiene point of view, while their content of ash-producing inorganic salts is mostly low enough to be neglected with respect to the ceramic composition. Examples are wood flour (saw dust), crushed nut shells $[1-3]$ and poppy seed $[4]$ $[4]$ for pore sizes of several hundreds of micrometers and, on the other hand, starch for pore sizes below 100 μ m [[5–25\]](#page-4-0). Commercially available starch types cover the size range from approx. $5 \mu m$ for rice starch to approx. $50 \mu m$ for potato starch (median diameter) [\[5–25](#page-4-0)]. Unfortunately, closer inspection reveals that between corn and tapioca starch, which both have a median size of approx. $12-15 \mu m$, there is a size gap which can currently only be satisfied by wheat starch (median size approx. 21 μ m) [[14\]](#page-4-0). Wheat starch, however, is known to be strongly bimodal, with the large size fraction being highly anisometric (oblate shape), which of course cannot be tolerated for all applications. As a consequence, there is currently no biogenic pore-forming agent available that would fill this gap and thus enable e.g. ceramic filters to better compete on the market with their polymeric counterparts for water treatment, which are commonly commercially available with logarithmic pore

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size grades, e.g. 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50 μ m. In this paper, therefore, we have tested the use of lycopodium spores as a new PFA for the preparation of porous alumina ceramics. As shown in this paper, lycopodium spores can be easily mixed with ceramic suspensions, exhibit satisfactory rheological behavior (up to a certain concentration), as well as defect-free burnout and lead to a uniform microstructure with isometric pores of a size of slightly below 30 μ m and a percolation threshold of slightly above 10%. We would like to emphasize, that the filtration performance mentioned above is not primarily determined by the size of the pore-forming agent, but by the interconnections between the pores in the sintered ceramic (which extends essentially to the submicron range). Thus the materials in this paper will exhibit fine particle retention [\[26](#page-4-0)], which makes them possible candidates for particulate filters.

Lycopodium powder (for this work supplied by H. Klenk, Schwebheim, Germany) consists of isometrically shaped spores of certain club mosses (ground pines), especially Lycopodium clavatum L. [[27–29\]](#page-4-0), cf. Fig. [1.](#page-1-0) The particle size distribution was determined via laser diffraction (Analysette 22 NanoTec, Fritsch, Idar-Oberstein, Germany) using the Fraunhofer approximation and via microscopic image analysis (Jenapol, Zeiss, Jena, Germany and Lucia G 4.81, Laboratory Imaging, Prague, Czech Republic) by manual sampling of 1,000 spores. The median diameter is 30.6 μ m according to laser diffraction and $33.1 \mu m$ according to image analysis (after transforming the number-weighted distribution to a volume-weighted one), cf. Fig. [2](#page-1-0). Obviously, the reason for the slight difference is the certain amount $(\langle 7 \text{ vol.} \%)$ of spore fragments and dust with a size below $20 \mu m$, which has been neglected in the image analysis. The size distribution of the spores proper is very narrow, indicating that the natural

Fig. 1 Optical micrograph of lycopodium spores

growth conditions lead to rather monodisperse systems in this case. This is of course an advantage with respect to the pore size controllability in porous ceramics.

Figure 3 shows the thermogravimetric and differential thermal analysis curves of lycopodium powder measured with a heating rate of 10 $^{\circ}$ C/min (Setsys Evolution 1750, Setaram, France). It is evident that lycopodium powder burns out in an exothermic reaction in the temperature range between 200 and 530 $^{\circ}$ C. This temperature range is broader than that for starch $(270-540 \degree C)$ and therefore it is expected that no special firing schedule is required when high-temperature processing is done with a heating rate of 2 °C/min, say.

In this work, alumina ceramics were prepared from submicron alumina powder (CT 3000 SG, Almatis, Ludwigshafen, Germany) by slip casting aqueous suspensions, deflocculated by a polyelectrolyte (0.5% of Dolapix CE 64, Zschimmer & Schwarz, Lahnstein, Germany), into plaster molds. After demolding and drying the resulting green bodies (cylindrical rods, diameter approx. 5 mm, length approx. 50 mm) were fired at 1570 $^{\circ}$ C (heating rate 2 $^{\circ}$ C/ min, hold 2 h). For lycopodium contents of up to 15 vol.%

Fig. 2 Particle size distribution of the lycopodium powder (full line laser diffraction, dotted line microscopic image analysis)

Fig. 3 Thermal analysis of lycopodium powder, indicating burnout behavior (full line thermogravimetry—left ordinate in relative mass loss, dotted line differential thermal analysis—right ordinate in arbitrary temperature units)

(with respect to alumina) suspensions with an alumina content of 80 wt.% (i.e. 50 vol.%) exhibited a sufficiently low viscosity to enable casting (<200 mPas at a shear rate of 100 s⁻¹ and <100 mPas at 1,000 s⁻¹, as determined from flow curves at room temperature using rotational viscometry—RV1, ThermoHaake, Karlsruhe, Germany). In order to achieve higher lycopodium contents while retaining similarly low apparent viscosities, the alumina content had to be reduced, cf. Table [1](#page-2-0). The density of lycopodium (which is a necessary input information for the calculation of the volume percentage of PFA) is 1.2 $g/cm³$ (determined by neutral floating in a sugar solution), cf. also [\[29](#page-4-0)]. The Archimedes method (double weighing in water) was used to determine the bulk density, open porosity and total porosity (based on the theoretical density of alumina, which is 4.0 g/cm^3 of the as-fired porous alumina ceramics. Total shrinkage was measured using a slide caliper. Table [1](#page-2-0) lists the average values (arithmetic mean) and the standard deviation of 5–10 samples. Figure [4](#page-2-0) shows the values of bulk density and porosity. It is evident that for a lycopodium content of 10 vol.% open porosity is not detectable, while for higher lycopodium contents the percolation threshold is exceeded and up to approx. 30% total porosity the closed porosity remains at a constant level of 10–12%. Moreover, the total porosity can be well controlled up to 30 vol.%, whereas the porosity of samples prepared with a lycopodium content of 40 vol.% is significantly higher than expected.

Figure [5a](#page-3-0)–d show micrographs of polished sections after cutting and grinding with $1 \mu m$ diamond paste. It is evident that for lycopodium contents from 10–30 vol.% the microstructure is uniform and the pores are randomly distributed, while for 40 vol.% lycopodium there is a steep porosity gradient from the sample surface to the interior. Due to this porosity gradient (dense shell—porous core) cracks appear

suspensions (alumina content in wt.% related to water), lycopodium $(in \%)$								
Alumina content $(wt, \%)$	Lycopodium content (vol. $%$)	Bulk density (g/cm^3)	Open porosity $(\%)$	Total porosity $(\%)$	Linear shrinkage $(\%)$			
80	10	3.56 ± 0.01	$\mathbf{0}$	10.9 ± 0.2	8.7 ± 0.1			
80	15	3.34 ± 0.03	4.3 ± 0.8	16.5 ± 0.7	8.7 ± 0.1			
78	20	3.21 ± 0.02	6.9 ± 0.4	19.7 ± 0.4	9.4 ± 0.1			
75	30	2.86 ± 0.03	19.3 ± 0.9	28.7 ± 0.7	11.0 ± 0.1			
70	35	2.53 ± 0.03	31.1 ± 1.6	36.9 ± 0.8	11.4 ± 0.1			
68	40	2.17 ± 0.05	43.7 ± 1.1	45.6 ± 1.2	(not meas.)			

Table 1 Microstructural characteristics of as-fired alumina ceramics prepared with lycopodium as a PFA: initial concentrations of suspensions (alumina content in wt.% related to water), lycopodium

content (in vol.% related to alumina), bulk density (in $g/cm³$), open porosity (in %), total porosity (in %) and linear shrinkage after firing

Fig. 4 Bulk density (crosses) and porosity (open squares—open porosity, full squares—total porosity) of porous alumina ceramics prepared with lycopodium powder as a pore-forming agent

inside these samples, which contribute to the high total porosity value and the high degree of open porosity.

From Table 1 it is also evident that the shrinkage (in the range 9–11%) shows a distinct dependence on the alumina concentration in the suspension, but is largely independent of the PFA content. The absolute values are typical for slipcast ceramics and the qualitative trend is in agreement with previous experience with other types of PFA, particularly starch [[15\]](#page-4-0).

In addition to the samples prepared with lycopodium as the only PFA, tests have been made with a combination of lycopodium together with other PFA of smaller and larger size, respectively: corn starch (median size $14 \mu m$) and potato starch (median size 49 μ m), cf. [[14\]](#page-4-0). The composition and microstructural characteristics of these samples are given in Table [2](#page-3-0). It is evident, that the bulk density and total porosity of both types of samples (which have a total PFA content of 30 vol.%) correspond very closely to the values for samples prepared with lycopodium alone (30 vol.%). There are, however, differences in the open porosity, which is significantly lower for the samples prepared with potato starch in combination with lycopodium (11% compared to 19%). Although the reason for this phenomenon is not definitely clear, it can be surmised that the large potato starch granules tend to be surrounded by a thin layer of ceramic suspension (free of PFA), similar to the observed effect of PFA depletion in the suspension close to the mold wall at high PFA concentration (cf. Fig. [5](#page-3-0)d). Therefore, after firing, the resulting large pores resulting from potato starch will represent isolated void volumes surrounded by a thin shell of dense alumina and thus are not connected to the percolating pore space network, which is essentially formed by the touching pores resulting from lycopodium burnout. The shrinkage values listed in Table [2](#page-3-0) are in good agreement with the shrinkage values measured for ceramics prepared with lycopodium alone from suspensions with corresponding alumina concentration, i.e. approx. 11%.

Figure [6](#page-3-0) shows the size distribution of the equivalent pore diameters measured by mercury intrusion (AutoPore IV 9500, Micromeritics, USA). It is evident, that the pore size measured does not correspond to the size of the pore bodies (which are clearly spherical and exhibit diameters corresponding to those of the PFA, corrected by shrinkage, i.e. $27.5-29.8 \mu m$, but represent essentially the size of the interconnections between pores (pore throats with a size from below 1 μ m to approx. 10 μ m), resulting from the contact points of touching lycopodium spores, in accordance with the usual interpretation of mercury porosimetry results in terms of equivalent cylinder diameters (evaluated via the Washburn equation). The pore throat size exhibits a trend from very small values (approx. $0.4 \mu m$) for small PFA concentrations to significantly higher values (several lm) for higher PFA concentrations, and the cumulative volume of large-diameter throats (approx. $10 \mu m$) plays a more significant role in the systems with higher PFA content, as expected. Also, for the PFA combinations lycopodium/corn starch and lycopodium/potato starch the mercury porosimetry results seem to corroborate the above hypotheses: the cumulative volume of large-diameter $(10 \mu m)$ pore throats in the ceramic body plays only a minor role in the pore size distribution when the PFA system consists of lycopodium and potato starch, while it is more than twice as large when lycopodium alone is used as a PFA.

Fig. 5 Optical micrographs of polished sections of porous alumina ceramics prepared with lycopodium contents of 10% (a), 20% (b), 30% (c) and 40% (d)

Table 2 Microstructural characteristics of as-fired alumina ceramics prepared with lycopodium (density 1.2 g/cm³) and starch (density 1.5 g/cm3) as PFA: starch type (C—corn starch, P—potato starch), nominal lycopodium content and nominal starch content (both in

vol.% related to alumina), bulk density (in g/cm³), open porosity (in %), total porosity (in %) and linear shrinkage after firing (in %); alumina content 75 wt.% (related to water), total PFA content 30 vol.%

Starch type	Nominal lycopod. content (vol. $%$)	Nominal starch content $(vol.\%)$	Bulk density (g/cm^3)	Open porosity (%)	Total porosity (%)	Linear shrinkage (%)
C	22		2.85 ± 0.02	18.7 ± 1.3	28.7 ± 0.6	11.8 ± 0.2
P	22		2.79 ± 0.01	11.4 ± 0.3	30.3 ± 0.3	10.9 ± 0.1

Fig. 6 Size distribution of equivalent pore diameters determined by mercury intrusion porosimetry (bold dashed—20%, bold dotted—30%, bold solid—35% lycopodium, thin with plusses—22% lycopodium and 8% potato starch, thin with crosses—22% lycopodium and 8% corn starch)

In concluding, it can be said that the monodispersity of lycopodium powder systems (narrow particle size distribution) makes them promising candidates for pore-forming agents usable to efficiently control pore size in porous ceramics. Thermal analysis indicates that the burnout behavior of lycopodium spores is similar to starch, and in this work it has been confirmed that it does not pose any problems in high-temperature processing. Of course, the rheology has to be carefully controlled when slip casting is used for shaping of the green bodies. This requires lowering the alumina concentration in the suspension (of course at the cost of higher shrinkage) according to the desired content of pore-forming agent and currently limits the lycopodium content to values below 40 vol.%. At this concentration, although the fluidity of the system is sufficiently high when the alumina content is lowered to 68 wt.%, the resulting ceramic bodies exhibit significant porosity gradients, with a higher lycopodium concentration (higher porosity) in the center and an almost lycopodiumfree (i.e. dense after firing) surface layer. It may be expected, however, that these problems can be solved by optimizing the dispersion of lycopodium at higher lycopodium concentrations via a control of the mutual interaction forces e.g., using appropriate deflocculants, so that porous ceramics with up to 50% porosity with uniform microstructure consisting of approx. 30 µm pores seem to be a realistic target for the near future. Therefore lycopodium is a promising candidate to fill the gap in PFA sizes

Acknowledgment This work was part of the research program ''Preparation and Research of Functional Materials and Material Technologies using Micro- and Nanoscopic Methods'', supported by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic (Grant No. MSM 6046137302). The support is gratefully acknowledged.

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