# Doping strategies for increased oxygen permeability of CaTiO<sub>3</sub> based membranes

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#### Abstract

Oxygen permeation measurements are performed on dense samples of CaTi<sub>0.85</sub>Fe<sub>0.15</sub>O<sub>3-δ</sub>, CaTi<sub>0.75</sub>Fe<sub>0.15</sub>Mg<sub>0.05</sub>O<sub>3-δ</sub> and CaTi<sub>0.75</sub>Fe<sub>0.15</sub>Mn<sub>0.10</sub>O<sub>3-δ</sub> in combination with density functional theory (DFT) calculations and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) in order to assess Mg and Mn as dopants for improving the O<sub>2</sub> permeability of  $CaTi_{1-x}Fe_xO_{3-\delta}$  based oxygen separation membranes. The oxygen permeation measurements were carried out at temperatures ranging between 700-1000 °C with feed side oxygen partial pressures between 0.01-1 bar. The O<sub>2</sub> permeability was experimentally found to be highest for the Mn doped sample over the whole temperature range, reaching  $4.2 \times 10^{-3}$  ml min<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> at 900 °C and 0.21 bar O<sub>2</sub> in the feed which corresponds to a 40% increase over the Fe-doped sample and similar to reported values for x=0.2. While the O<sub>2</sub> permeability of the Mg doped sample was also higher than the Fe-doped sample, it approached that of the Fe-doped sample above 900 °C. According to the DFT calculations, Mn introduces electronic states within the band gap and will predominately exist in the effectively negative charge state, as indicated by XPS measurements. Mn may therefore improve the ionic and electronic conductivity of CTF based membranes. The results are discussed in terms of the limiting species for ambipolar transport and O<sub>2</sub> permeability, i.e., oxygen vacancies and electronic charge carriers.

**Keywords**: *dense ceramic oxygen membrane; ambipolar transport; mixed ionic-electronic conduction; CaTiO<sub>3</sub>; calcium titanate* 

### **1. Introduction**

Oxy-fuel combustion shows significant potential for implementation of  $CO_2$  capture within power generation and energy intensive industries [1]. Oxygen production by cryogenic distillation is a well-established, but energy demanding process for which only modest improvements are expected in the coming decades. On the other hand, dense ceramic oxygen separation membrane technology shows promise as being more efficient for oxygen production and integration with  $CO_2$  capture processes [2]. Further reduction in the cost and energy penalty associated with integration of this technology may be achieved through improved oxygen permeation rates of stable membrane materials.

CaTiO<sub>3</sub>-based perovskite oxides have attracted considerable attention as oxygen permeable membranes in particular due to their chemical and mechanical stability under operating conditions involving high temperature, large oxygen chemical potential gradients and CO<sub>2</sub> containing atmospheres [3,4]. These properties, commonly found as shortcomings of the more oxygen permeable La<sub>0.5</sub>Sr<sub>0.5</sub>CoO<sub>3-δ</sub> and related Co-containing materials, are crucial for the durability and applicability of oxygen permeable membranes [5–11].

Oxygen permeation through CaTi<sub>1-x</sub>Fe<sub>x</sub>O<sub>3- $\delta$ </sub> (CTF) membranes, where the lower valent Fe<sup>3+</sup> cation substitutes Ti<sup>4+</sup> in CaTiO<sub>3</sub> lattice, proceeds due to ambipolar transport of oxide ions and electronic charge carriers [12]. The total conductivity increases with Fe content [13], but the ionic conductivity decreases above x≈0.2 due to ordering of oxygen vacancies and partial transition to brownmillerite Ca<sub>2</sub>Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> [14–17]. Therefore, the ambipolar conductivity and O<sub>2</sub> permeability of CTF are found to be highest for x≈0.2 [4].

The electronic conductivity of CaTi<sub>1-x</sub>Fe<sub>x</sub>O<sub>3- $\delta$ </sub> is p-type for  $p_{O_2} \gtrsim 1 \times 10^{-5}$  based on reports for x=0.1 between 450-1200 °C [18] and  $0 \ge x \ge 0.5$  at 1000 °C [19,20]. These electrical measurements further show that the conductivity is predominately ionic over a relatively wide  $p_{O_2}$  range, and the ambipolar conductivity of CaTi<sub>1-x</sub>Fe<sub>x</sub>O<sub>3- $\delta$ </sub> may therefore be electronically limited even at high temperature and oxidizing atmospheres, e.g., T>1000 °C and  $p_{O_2}>0.1$  bar.

Improvement of the oxygen permeability of  $CaTi_{1-x}Fe_xO_{3-\delta}$  is highly desirable. In the present work we further investigate doping strategies for improving the oxygen permeability of the  $CaTi_{1-x}Fe_xO_{3-\delta}$  system by fixing *x* at 0.15 and substituting additional Mg and Mn on the Ti site. Mg is expected to be fully ionized, i.e.,  $Mg_{Ti}^{//}$ , and the effective acceptor concentration is thereby increased, while the charge state of Mn is uncertain and may vary depending on temperature and  $p_{O_2}$ . We present results from O<sub>2</sub> permeation measurements of densely sintered disc samples as function of temperature and feed side  $p_{O_2}$ . Furthermore, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and density functional theory (DFT) calculations are employed to elucidate the nature of the dopants in terms of their preferred charge states and electronic structure, as well as association between  $Mg_{Ti}^{//}$  and oxygen vacancies.

# 2. Theory

The simplified electroneutrality condition for acceptor doped CaTiO<sub>3</sub> can be written

$$\left[\operatorname{Acc}^{\prime}\right] = 2\left[\operatorname{v}_{0}^{\cdot}\right] \tag{1}$$

where [Acc'] and  $[v_0^{"}]$  are the concentrations of acceptor dopants and oxygen vacancies, respectively, in Kröger-Vink notation. The relative concentration of  $v_0^{"}$  and electron holes, h<sup>"</sup>, respectively, is governed by the equilibrium with oxygen gas

$$\frac{1}{2}O_2(g) + v_0^{"} = O_0^{\times} + 2h^{"}$$
<sup>(2)</sup>

Accordingly, by combining Eq. 1 and 2, the concentration of h<sup>-</sup>, and thereby the electronic conductivity,  $\sigma_{\rm e}$ , is proportional to  $p_{O_2}^{\frac{1}{4}}$ . The resulting effect of  $p_{O_2}$  on the oxygen permeability,  $J_{O_2}$ , can be evaluated from the Wagner equation [21]

$$J_{O_2} = \frac{RT}{16F^2 L} \int_{p_{O_2}}^{p_{O_2}^f} \frac{\sigma_0 \sigma_e}{\sigma_0 + \sigma_e} d\ln p_{O_2}$$
(3)

where  $p_{0_2}^{f}$  and  $p_{0_2}^{s}$  are  $p_{0_2}$  at the feed and sweep side, respectively,  $\sigma_0$  is the oxide ion conductivity and  $\frac{\sigma_0 \sigma_e}{\sigma_0 + \sigma_e}$  is the ambipolar conductivity. *L* is the membrane thickness and *R*, *T* and *F* have their usual meanings. When  $J_{0_2}$  is limited by electronic conductivity ( $\sigma_e \ll \sigma_0$ ) and  $\sigma_e \propto p_{0_2}^{\frac{1}{4}}$ , integration of Eq. 3 yields  $J_{0_2} \propto (p_{0_2}^f)^{\frac{1}{4}} - (p_{0_2}^s)^{\frac{1}{4}}$  [22]. On the other hand, if the electronic conductivity is not limiting and the oxide ion conductivity is given by the concentration of  $v_0^r$  which is approximately fixed by the dopant concentration (Eq. 1), the ambipolar conductivity is independent of  $p_{0_2}$ . Integration of Eq. 3 then yields  $J_{0_2} \propto \log\left(\frac{p_{0_2}^f}{p_{0_2}^5}\right)$ , i.e.,  $J_{0_2}$  is proportional to the ratio of the oxygen pressures at the feed and permeate sides.

# 3. Experimental

### 3.1 Synthesis and characterization

Ceramic powders of CaTi<sub>0.85</sub>Fe<sub>0.15</sub>O<sub>3-\delta</sub>, CaTi<sub>0.75</sub>Fe<sub>0.15</sub>Mg<sub>0.05</sub>O<sub>3-\delta</sub> and CaTi<sub>0.75</sub>Fe<sub>0.15</sub>Mn<sub>0.10</sub>O<sub>3-\delta</sub>, denoted CTF, CTFMg5 and CTFMn10, respectively, were synthesized using a route derived from the Pechini method. Nitrate salts were used as starting agents, citric acid as a complexing agent and ethylene glycol for polymerization. An aqueous titanium citrate solution was prepared by applying titanium isopropoxide (Sigma Aldrich,  $\geq 97$  %) in water containing dissolved citric acid (Sigma Aldrich, 99 %) at 80-90 °C under rigorous stirring for 2 hours before filtering (S & S, Ashless paper filter blue ribbon, 589<sup>3</sup>). This solution as well aqueous solutions of  $Ca(NO_3)_2 \cdot H_2O_1$ ,  $Fe(NO_3)_3 \cdot 9H_2O_1$  $Mg(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ and as  $Mn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 4H_2O$  were standardized by thermal decomposition to the respective oxides (CaO, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub>, MgO and Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) at 700-1100 °C for 6 h in ambient air. For each synthesis, the standardized nitrate salt solutions were mixed in stoichiometric ratios at a concentration of 0.00052-0.0014 mol cation/g solution. Additional citric acid was added in a molar ratio (citric acid:cations) of 1.1:1, and after stirring for 30 min, ethylene glycol (Aldrich, 99.8%) was added in a molar ratio of 1:1 with respect to citric acid content. The solutions were heated to 120 °C under stirring for 60 min and further evaporated to form dry polymeric gels. Upon heating to 200-250 °C self-ignition occurred and the gels decomposed in a smoldering process. The smoldering temperature varied for the different compositions. The residual powders were pre-calcined at 400 °C, gently crushed in a mortar before further annealing at 900 °C for 6 h in ambient air. The resulting crystalline powders, and later the sintered samples, were analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Bruker D8 Focus diffractometer with Cu Kα radiation and LynxEye detector. In addition to the perovskite phase, a secondary CaO phase was present after annealing at 900 °C. The annealed powders were pressed into pellets of 21 mm diameter and further sintered in air for 6 hours at 1250 °C for CTFMg5 and 1300 °C for CTF and CTFMn10 to obtain fully densified samples free from CaO. The diffraction data was analyzed using the Rietveld method as implemented in the TOPAS software by Bruker. The samples and surfaces were investigated by XRD and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) after  $O_2$  permeation measurements using a FEI Quanta 200 F.

### **3.2 Oxygen permeation measurements**

The sintered disc samples were gradually polished to a roughness of 6 µm with SiC grinding paper and subsequently to a roughness of 1 µm using diamond paste. The final thicknesses of the samples were 1.0, 1.36 and 0.91mm for CTFMn10, CTFMg5 and CTF, respectively. The samples were sealed to alumina support tubes ( $\emptyset = 13-16 \text{ mm}$ ) in a ProboStat measurement cell (NorECs, Norway) using similarly polished gold O-ring gaskets (made by welding gold wire of  $\emptyset = 1$  mm). An alumina spring load assembly provided a force of approx. 45 N on the sample against the gold gasket and alumina support tube during sealing and measurements. Mass flow controllers were utilized to supply O<sub>2</sub>/He feed gas mixtures and Ar sweep gas at 50 and 25 ml min<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The concentrations of  $O_2$  permeate and He leakage were monitored with a Varian CP-4900 gas chromatograph (GC). A S-type thermocouple was placed in the vicinity of the gold O-ring inside the measurement cell, which was inserted into a vertical tube furnace. A successful seal, as determined by a He leakage below the background He level in the GC, i.e., approx. 5 ppm, was usually obtained by heating to 1000 °C. Oxygen permeation fluxes were measured as function of feed side oxygen partial pressure in the range 10<sup>-2</sup> to 1 bar at temperatures between 700-1000 °C. For dense ceramic membranes, the O<sub>2</sub> permeability,  $J_{O_2}$ , is taken as the thickness normalized O<sub>2</sub> flux at given feed and sweep side conditions with units ml(STP) min<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>.

### 3.3 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

After the O<sub>2</sub> permeation measurements, the CTF and CTFMn10 samples were equilibrated at 900 °C in a vertical tube furnace (ambient air, 19 h) and subsequently quenched by dropping them directly into liquid N<sub>2</sub>. As such, the equilibrium oxygen non-stoichiometry and dopant charge states at 900 °C may be retained. The samples were fractured under vacuum in the spectrometer in order to expose fresh surface from the bulk of the material and to avoid surface oxidation. XPS spectra were acquired on an Axis Ultra<sup>DLD</sup> spectrometer (Kratos Analytical, UK) using monochromatic Ala radiation. The employed acquisition settings allow for an energy resolution of 0.7 eV, as determined by the full width at half maximum of the Ag  $3d_{5/2}$  peak of sputter cleaned silver.

# 4. Computational

The DFT calculations were performed using the projector-augmented wave (PAW) method [23,24] as implemented in VASP [25-27]. The generalized gradient approximation by Perdew, Burke and Ernzerhof [28] (GGA-PBE) and the hybrid functional due to Heyd, Scuseria, and Ernzerhof [29] with a screening factor of 0.2 (HSE) was employed. Hybrid functional calculations – intermixing 25% exact Hartree-Fock exchange – provide a proper description exchange interactions in oxides containing multi-valence transitions metals [30,31]. Geometric optimization of the CaTiO<sub>3</sub> Pbnm cell was performed with a plane wave cut-off energy of 500 eV, and subsequent defect calculations were performed in  $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercells (80 atoms) with fixed lattice parameters and a 400 eV cut-off energy. A  $3 \times 3 \times 2$ supercell (360 atoms) was also used for GGA-PBE calculations of the interaction between  $Mg_{Ti}^{\prime\prime}$  and  $v_0^{\circ}$ . All atomic positions, cell parameters and shapes were optimized until the residual forces for the relaxed atoms were within 0.05 eV Å<sup>-1</sup> (0.02 eV Å<sup>-1</sup> for GGA-PBE) with an energy convergence of  $10^{-6}$  eV for self-consistency. k-point sampling was done according to a 2×2×2 Monkhorst-Pack [32] scheme for both supercell sizes. Initial GGA-PBE calculations showed that the stability of  $v_0^{"}$  is very similar on the 4c and 8d oxygen sites with an energy difference of only 0.04 eV, and only the 8d site was considered further for HSE type calculations.

The Gibbs formation energies of oxygen vacancies and cation acceptor dopants in various charge states were calculated from the total energy difference between the defective and perfect supercells according to

$$\Delta G_{\text{defect}}^{\text{f}} = E_{\text{defect}}^{\text{tot}} - E_{\text{perfect}}^{\text{tot}} + \sum_{i} \Delta n_{i} \mu_{i} + q \mu_{\text{e}}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

where  $\Delta n_i$  is the number of constituent atoms exchanged upon defect formation,  $\mu_i$  are the atomic chemical potentials, q is the charge state of the defect and  $\mu_e$  is the Fermi level. The atomic chemical potentials define the environmental conditions and the activity of the metal constituents. The chemical potential of gases is obtained from

$$\mu_i(T, p_i) = \mu_i^\circ + k_{\rm B} T \ln\left(\frac{p_i}{p^\circ}\right) \tag{5}$$

where the temperature dependency of  $\mu_i$  is obtained from thermochemical tables as described by, e.g., Kuwabara et al. [33] The chemical potential of oxygen is defined from the equilibrium between H<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub> in order to avoid using the O<sub>2</sub> molecule which is problematic within the GGA [34,35]

$$\mu_0 = \mu_{\rm H_20} - \mu_{\rm H_2} \tag{6}$$

For H<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>,  $\mu_i^{\circ}$  is taken as the total energies of the respective molecules and the equilibrium partial pressures,  $p_i$ , under given conditions are obtained from thermochemical databases [36]. In order to accommodate doping on the Ti-site, the chemical potentials of Ca and Ti were chosen as Ca-rich, i.e.,

$$\mu_{\rm Ti} = \mu_{\rm CaTiO_3} - \mu_{\rm Ca} - 3\mu_{\rm O} \tag{7}$$

The chemical potentials of Ca, Mg, Fe and Mn were related to the binary oxides, i.e., CaO and MgO ( $Fm\bar{3}m$ ), Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ( $R\bar{3}c$ ) and Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Pbca), according to

$$\mu_{\rm M} = \frac{1}{x} \mu_{\rm M_x O_y} - y \mu_{\rm O} \tag{8}$$

For the solid phases, we approximate  $\mu_i = \mu_i^\circ = E_i^{\text{tot}}$ .

### **5.** Experimental results

#### 5.1 Synthesis and characterization

The sintered CTF and CTFMn10 samples were found to be single phase by XRD with the *Pbnm* space group. For CTFMg5, XRD revealed the presence of MgO in the sample sintered at 1250 °C, as shown in Figure 1. A more comprehensive structural investigation of the Ca(Ti, Fe, Mn)O<sub>3- $\delta$ </sub> system will be included in a separate work.

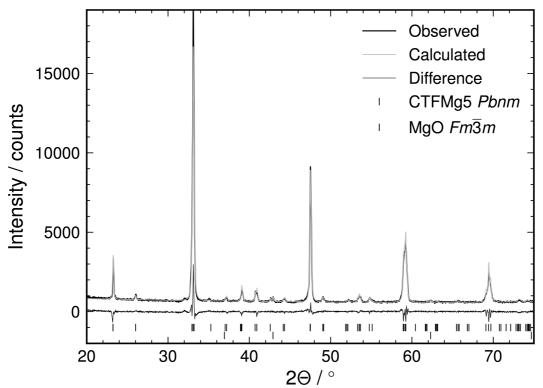


Figure 1: X-ray diffractogram of the CTFMg5 sintered sample showing a secondary phase of MgO. CTFMg5 was fitted to the *Pbnm* space group (a=5.39, b=5.43, c=7.65 Å). The Bragg positions refer to CTFMg5 (top) and MgO (bottom).

XRD and SEM analysis of the samples after  $O_2$  permeation measurements showed no evidence of demixing of the materials during the course of the experiments, as exemplified in the SEM micrograph of the CTFMn10 sweep side surface in Figure 2.

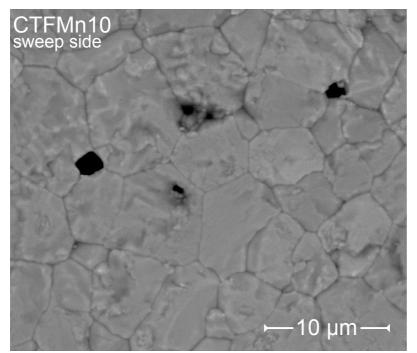


Figure 2: SEM surface micrograph of CTFMn10 sweep side using the backscattered electron detector after permeation measurements for approx. 200 hours.

#### 5.2 O<sub>2</sub> permeation measurements

The oxygen permeabilities,  $J_{O_2}$ , of CTFMn10, CTFMg5 and the CTF reference sample are shown as function of inverse temperature in Figure 3a. The O<sub>2</sub> permeability is highest for CTFMn10 at all temperatures, while CTFMg5 is close to CTFMn10 at low temperature and close to CTF at high temperature. Figure 3b shows an Arrhenius type plot of  $J_{O_2} \cdot T$  with linear fits in two temperature regimes for all samples. The corresponding activation energies are listed in Table 1. The CTF sample exhibited a slight lowering of  $J_{O_2}$  as function of time at 800 °C with feed side  $p_{O_2}$ =0.21 bar (Figure 3), from 1.21 to  $1.16 \times 10^{-3}$  ml min<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> over approx. 18 h. This degradation is significantly lower than that associated with ordering of oxygen vacancies [18,19].

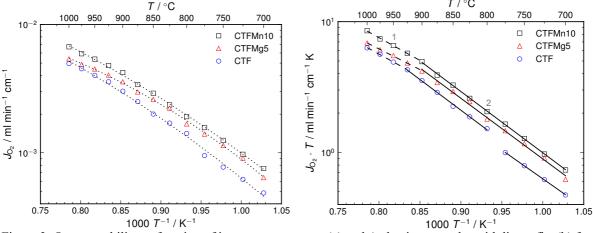


Figure 3: O<sub>2</sub> permeability as function of inverse temperature (a) and Arrhenius type plot with linear fits (b) for feed side  $p_{0_2}$ =0.21 bar.

Table 1: Activation energies of  $O_2$  permeability according to the linear fits of the two temperature regions in Figure 3b: 1. high temperature (dashed lines), 2. lower temperature (solid lines).

Specimen	$E_{\rm a}^1$ / eV	$E_a^2 / eV$
CTFMn10	0.69	0.93
CTFMg5	0.63	0.92
CTF	0.68	0.93/0.87

The feed side  $p_{O_2}$  dependency of the O<sub>2</sub> permeability is shown for all samples in Figure 4. At high  $p_{O_2}$ , the O<sub>2</sub> permeability is highest for CTFMn10 at all temperatures, while that of CTFMg5 is slightly higher than for CTF except at 900-1000 °C. At  $p_{O_2}$ <0.1 bar, the O<sub>2</sub> permeability is highest for CTFMg5 at all temperatures, followed by CTFMn10 and CTF.

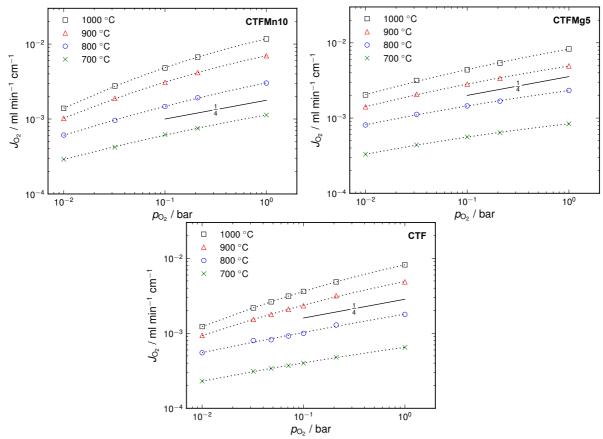


Figure 4: O<sub>2</sub> permeability as function of feed side  $p_{0_2}$  at temperatures from 1000-700 °C for CTFMn10 (a), CTFMg5 (b) and CTF (c).

#### 5.3 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

Manganese XPS spectra obtained on the CTFMn10 sample are shown in Figure 5, together with Mn 2p reference spectra from Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and MnO<sub>2</sub> and peak fitting results for Mn 3s. The acquired Mn 2p spectrum fits well with published spectra for Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Figure 5a) [37,38], the presence of Mn<sup>4+</sup> can, however, not be excluded as differences in the bond geometry between MnO<sub>2</sub> and CTFMn10 can lead to differences in the spectral shape. Manganese 3s spectra show a main peak-satellite doublet structure due to multiplet splitting. This spectral structure reflects the total spin of the atom and is thus a good measure of the oxidation state [39]. The separation between the main peak and the satellite amounts to  $5.2\pm0.2$  eV in the CTFMn10 sample which indicates an oxidation state near +3 [37,38,40], corresponding to Mn<sup>7</sup><sub>Ti</sub>.

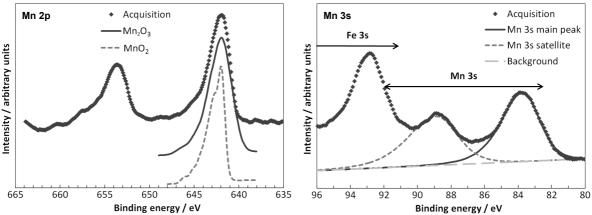


Figure 5: Mn 2p (a) and Mn 3s (b) energy regions for CTFMn10. Reference spectra for  $Mn_2O_3$  and  $MnO_2$  from Biesinger *et al.* [38] are shown in (a) for comparison.

#### 6. Computational results

The Gibbs formation energy of  $\operatorname{Fe}_{Ti}^q$ ,  $\operatorname{Mn}_{Ti}^q$ ,  $\operatorname{Mg}_{Ti}^{\prime\prime}$  and  $v_0^{\circ}$  is shown as function of the Fermi level at 900 °C and  $p_{0_2}=0.21$  bar in Figure 6. The transition metal dopants, Fe and Mn, may take different charge states. Notably,  $\operatorname{Mn}_{Ti}^{\times}$  is less stable than the effectively charged counterparts,  $\operatorname{Mn}_{Ti}^{\cdot}$  and  $\operatorname{Mn}_{Ti}^{\prime}$ . Furthermore, the thermodynamic transition levels,  $\varepsilon$ , for Fe and Mn are deep within the band gap and therefore  $\operatorname{Fe}_{Ti}^{\prime}$  and  $\operatorname{Mn}_{Ti}^{\prime}$  will predominately be charge compensated by  $v_0^{\circ}$  while electron holes are in minority. Electroneutrality is maintained when  $\Delta G_i^f$  for  $v_0^{\circ}$  and the cation acceptor dopant is *similar* (the effective charge of the acceptor and site ratio must be considered), as marked with grey circles in Figure 6. Thus, within the dilute limit approximation of these calculations,  $\operatorname{Mg}_{Ti}^{\prime\prime}$  is predicted as the most stable acceptor followed by  $\operatorname{Fe}_{Ti}^{\prime}$  and  $\operatorname{Mn}_{Ti}^{\prime}$ , with respect to the binary oxides (see Eq. 8).

The calculations imply that Mn will predominately exist as  $Mn_{Ti}^{/}$  in accordance with the results from XPS (section 5.3). Furthermore, a notable amount of Fe may be present as  $Fe_{Ti}^{\times}$  due to its rather similar stability to  $Fe_{Ti}^{/}$  under these conditions. The latter is in qualitative agreement with the  $Fe_{Ti}^{\times}$  concentrations of 2-5% of the total Fe content obtained from Mössbauer spectroscopy [41] and coulometric titration of similar samples [17].

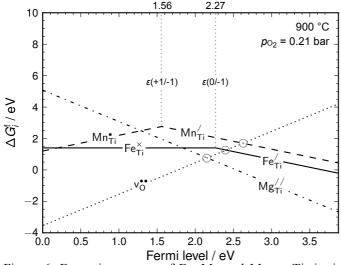


Figure 6: Formation energy of Fe, Mn and Mg on Ti-site in various charge states and fully ionized oxygen vacancies as function of the Fermi level within the theoretical band gap (3.94 eV) at 900 °C and  $p_{0_2}$ =0.21 bar. The grey circles represent simplified electroneutrality conditions where  $v_0^{"}$  is predominately charge compensated by  $Mg_{Ti}^{\prime\prime}$ ,  $Fe_{Ti}^{\prime}$ ,  $Mn_{Ti}^{\prime}$ , respectively.

Figure 7 shows the site-projected electronic density of states for Mg, Mn and Fe in CaTiO<sub>3</sub>. The valence band is comprised mainly of O-states, while the conduction band is comprised mainly of Ti-states. The occupied Ca and Mg states are located at significantly lower energy (not shown). Fe and Mn introduce electronic states within the band gap corresponding to  $Fe_{Ti}^{/}$  and  $Mn_{Ti}^{/}$  when filled, consistent with  $\varepsilon(0/-1)$  and  $\varepsilon(+1/-1)$ , respectively, in Figure 6.

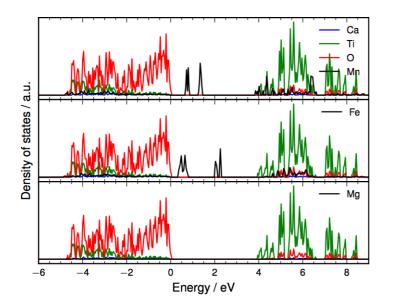


Figure 7: Site projected density of states for  $\mathbf{Mn}_{Ti}^{\prime}$ ,  $\mathbf{Fe}_{Ti}^{\prime}$ ,  $\mathbf{Mg}_{Ti}^{\prime\prime}$  and the CaTiO<sub>3</sub> constituents. The valence band maximum is referenced to 0 eV.

The binding energy between  $Mg_{Ti}^{/\prime}$  and  $v_0^{\circ}$  was calculated according to association reaction

$$Mg_{Ti}^{//} + v_0^{"} = (Mg_{Ti}v_0)^{\times}$$
(9)

The enthalpy of Reaction 9 was slightly positive, i.e., non-binding: 0.07 and 0.13 eV for the 4c and 8d oxygen site, respectively.

### 7. Discussion

The general trend in the measured O<sub>2</sub> permeability, which increases in the order CTF<CTFMg5<CTFMn10, may be accounted for by the difference in effective doping concentration: while the nominal amount of  $Mg_{Ti}^{//}$  in CTFMg5 is equivalent to that of  $Mn_{Ti}^{/}$  in CTFMn10, Mg was not fully dissolved in CTFMg5. The lower solubility of Mg compared to Fe and Mn can be understood from its higher effective charge and in terms of size; the ionic radius of VI-coordinated Mg<sup>2+</sup>, 0.72 Å, is quite large compared to that of Ti, 0.61 Å, while Fe<sup>3+</sup> and Mn<sup>3+</sup> are comparable in size at 0.55-0.65 and 0.58-0.65 Å, respectively [42]. Nevertheless, the role and potential of the Mn, Mg and Fe dopants may be understood from the limiting species for ambipolar transport and O<sub>2</sub> permeability of the different samples.

The O<sub>2</sub> permeability exhibits two rather distinct activation energies within the 700-1000 °C temperature range with a changeover at 900-925 °C (Figure 3b). The low temperature activation energies of 0.87-0.93 eV correspond well with 0.83-0.91 eV reported for ionic conductivity in CaTi<sub>1-x</sub>Fe<sub>x</sub>O<sub>3- $\delta$ </sub> for 0.2 $\geq$ x $\geq$ 0.1 [18,19]. At higher temperatures, the ambipolar conductivity and O<sub>2</sub> permeability is increasingly influenced by electronic conductivity. It can be noted that the enthalpy of h<sup>-</sup> mobility is reported to be in a much lower range, i.e., 0.17-0.23 eV [18,43,44]. The O<sub>2</sub> permeability of CTFMg5 approaches that of CTF in the temperature range where the activation energy is suggested to be increasingly influenced by electronic conductivity. This indicates that Mg<sup>T/</sup><sub>Ti</sub> does not contribute to electronic conduction, which can be associated with the lack of electronically active Mgstates (Figure 7). The activation energy of O<sub>2</sub> permeability for CTFMg5 is similar to the other samples and therefore shows no clear evidence of trapping of v<sub>0</sub><sup>o</sup> in (Mg<sub>Ti</sub>v<sub>0</sub>)<sup>×</sup> complexes in accordance with the positive binding energies of the nearest neighbor complexes obtained by DFT.

 $J_{O_2}$  follows a dependency close to  $(p_{O_2}^f)^{\frac{1}{4}}$  for all samples (Figure 4), which is similar to  $(p_{O_2}^f)^{\frac{1}{4}} - (p_{O_2}^s)^{\frac{1}{4}}$ , indicating that the O<sub>2</sub> permeability is electronically limited as described in Section 2. However, under these feed and sweep side conditions, i.e.,  $0.01 \le p_{O_2}^f \le 1$  bar and  $1 \times 10^{-4} \le p_{O_2}^s \le 4.5 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $\log \left(\frac{p_{O_2}^f}{p_{O_2}^s}\right)$  corresponds to a similar but slightly lower functional dependency. Thus, the O<sub>2</sub> permeability seems to be in the transition region between being limited by electronic conductivity and being determined by the  $p_{O_2}$  gradient.

The O<sub>2</sub> permeability of CTF at 900 °C and  $p_{O_2}^f = 0.21$ ,  $3.0 \times 10^{-3}$  ml min<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>, is significantly higher than the reported values of  $5.2-5.4 \times 10^{-4}$  ml min<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>, while that for x=0.2 (CTF20) is higher, 4.0-7.0×10<sup>-3</sup> ml min<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>, for various sample thicknesses under similar conditions [45,46]. One may argue that the reported difference in O<sub>2</sub> permeability of more than one order of magnitude is rather surprising considering the slight increase in dopant concentration between CTF15 and CTF20 [45]. CTFMn10 exhibits an O<sub>2</sub> permeability similar to or slightly lower than CTF20 under the same conditions,  $4.2 \times 10^{-3}$  ml min<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>. Still, as being demonstrated in our forthcoming studies. Mn is a promising dopant for improving the  $O_2$  permeability of CTF since it exhibits high dopant solubility without evident ordering of oxygen vacancies [47], and Mn-doped asymmetric tubular membranes exhibit long term stability at 900 °C [48]. The O<sub>2</sub> permeability of CTFMn10 based membranes is however 10-70 times lower than state-of-the-art membrane materials such as  $Ba_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}Co_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}O_{3-\delta}$  [5], Ba<sub>0.3</sub>Sr<sub>0.7</sub>FeO<sub>3- $\delta$ </sub> [49], BaCe<sub>0.1</sub>Co<sub>0.4</sub>Fe<sub>0.5</sub>O<sub>3- $\delta$ </sub> [50], La<sub>0.8</sub>Sr<sub>0.2</sub>Ga<sub>0.7</sub>Ni<sub>0.3</sub>O<sub>3- $\delta$ </sub> [51], and Ce<sub>0.8</sub>Gd<sub>0.2</sub>O<sub>2-δ</sub> with 15 vol% MnFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> at 900 °C [52]. The superior flux of these membranes may in general be associated with their higher content of multivalent dopants facilitating both ionic and electronic conduction, or the presence of a secondary electronically conducting phase, e.g., MnFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. In this respect, further improvement of the O<sub>2</sub> permeability of CTFMn10 membranes has been achieved by adjusting the Mn-content [47].

# 8. Conclusions

Mn is identified as a potential dopant for improving the O<sub>2</sub> permeability of  $CaTi_{1-x}Fe_xO_{3-\delta}$  based membranes based on O<sub>2</sub> flux measurements of dense samples of  $CaTi_{0.85}Fe_{0.15}O_{3-\delta}$ ,  $CaTi_{0.75}Fe_{0.15}Mg_{0.05}O_{3-\delta}$  and  $CaTi_{0.75}Fe_{0.15}Mn_{0.10}O_{3-\delta}$ . The O<sub>2</sub> permeability was found to be highest for the Mn-doped sample over the whole temperature range of 700-1000 °C and it was 40% higher than Fe-doped sample at 900 °C and 0.21 bar O<sub>2</sub> in the feed. While the O<sub>2</sub> permeability of the Mg-doped sample was higher than Fe-doped sample, they were quite similar above 950 °C where the O<sub>2</sub> permeability is increasingly governed by electronic conductivity. These findings can be explained by the DFT results: while both Mn and Mg predominately exist in effectively negative charge states, only Mn introduces electronic states within the band gap which may facilitate electronic transport.

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