- Title: Electrical conductivity and grain boundary composition of Gd-doped and Gd/Pr co-doped
 ceria
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10 ABSTRACT

11 We characterize electrical conductivity, microstructure, nano-scale grain boundary structure and chemistry of ceria electrolytes with nominal compositions of Gd_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O_{2-δ} (GDC) and 12 Gd_{0.11}Pr_{0.04}Ce_{0.85}O_{2-δ} (GPDC). The electrolytes are fabricated using mixed oxide nanopowders 13 synthesized by spray drying. AC impedance spectroscopy was performed from 150 °C to 700 °C 14 in air to determine grain-interior electrical conductivity. Grain-boundary conductivity was 15 determined below 300 °C. The grain-interior conductivity of the GPDC was higher than that of 16 GDC by as much as 10 times, depending on the temperature. The GPDC specific grain-boundary 17 18 conductivity was measured to be approximately 100 times higher than that of GDC. Energy 19 dispersive x-ray spectroscopy (EDX) and electron energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS) in a 20 scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM) confirmed the grain-to-grain compositional uniformity of both materials following heat treatments. Grain boundaries were free of glassy 21 22 intergranular phases; dopant concentration and Ce oxidation state was found to vary significantly 23 near grain boundaries. Boundary core composition was estimated from STEM EELS to be $Gd_{0.62}Ce_{0.38}O_{2-\delta}$, and $Gd_{0.29}Pr_{0.16}Ce_{0.55}O_{2-\delta}$ in GDC and GPDC, respectively. Pr segregation to 24 25 grain boundaries in the GPDC is hypothesized to enhance conductivity by both decreasing 26 oxygen vacancy migration energy, and inducing mixed ionic-electronic conductivity in the nearboundary region. 27

28 KEYWORDS

Doped ceria, spray drying, impedance spectroscopy, grain boundary, scanning transmission
 electron microscopy, electron energy-loss spectroscopy.

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33 1. Introduction

Intermediate temperature (350 °C to 550 °C) oxygen ion conductors and mixed ionic and 34 electronic conductors have received considerable attention in recent years due to their potential 35 applications in devices such as oxygen sensors, oxygen generators, separation membranes and 36 solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs) [1-9]. Owing to its relatively high ionic conductivity under non-37 reducing conditions and at intermediate temperatures, ceria doped with trivalent cations such as 38 Gd³⁺ or Sm³⁺ has emerged as a promising candidate material to provide the desired performance 39 in this operating temperature range. Other dopants such as mixed-valence $Pr^{3+/4+}$ induce 40 electronic conductivity yielding mixed ionic and electronic conductivity, an attractive possibility 41 42 for applications which require both electronic and ionic current. Furthermore, doubly-doping with two cation species has been explored by experiment [2,5] and simulation [3]. For instance 43 Lubke et al. demonstrated increased electronic conductivity, and total ionic conductivity as the 44 result of decreased grain boundary resistance in Gd-doped ceria upon the addition of Pr [5]. This 45 result is in accordance with theoretical work based on density functional theory and Monte Carlo 46 47 simulations conducted by Dholobai et al. who predicted increased ionic conductivity in ceria doped with both Pr and Gd [3]. 48

The conductivity in a polycrystalline fluorite based oxide arises from conductivity through grains and across grain boundaries. The grain boundaries are typically orders of magnitude less conducting than the grain interior at intermediate temperatures. This reduced conductivity originates from space-charge effects which hinder the transport of ions across the boundary [10]. Changes in the structure and composition may also have a substantial influence on the grainboundary conductivity. For example, formation of thin silica layers due to impurity segregation to the grain boundary during heat treatment constricts the ion migration pathway, reducing the 56 electrical conductivity [10]. Conversely, segregation of some transition metals may reduce the 57 magnitude of the potential energy barrier at the grain boundary and enhance grain-boundary conductivity [12]. The complex interplay between composition, structure and electrical 58 59 properties of grain boundaries is still not well understood. Understanding the role of nanoscale structure and composition on grain-boundary electrical properties requires the correlation of 60 advanced transmission electron microscopy (TEM) with techniques such as impedance 61 spectroscopy. In this work, we employ AC impedance spectroscopy and high spatial resolution 62 TEM to investigate the electrical properties and nanoscale structure and chemistry of bulk 63 64 ceramics fabricated with spray-dried ceria doped with Gd, and doubly-doped with Gd and Pr.

A number of approaches have been employed to synthesize starting powders, or to 65 simultaneously synthesize starting materials and fabricate practical structures for the study of 66 solid ceramic electrolytes and electrodes. The overarching goal of these techniques is to fabricate 67 powders or device components with tunable chemistry and predictable microstructures which 68 provide the desired properties of the final component (e.g. high sintered density, ionic 69 70 conductivity and ionic transference for SOFC electrolytes). Researchers have reported using a diverse set of synthesis approaches including co-precipitation [8], solid-state reactions [1,11,12], 71 72 spray pyrolysis [13], pulsed-laser deposition [14], DC sputtering [15], electrostatic spray deposition [16], combustion and microwave syntheses [17] and aerosol deposition [18]. Due to 73 its simplicity, low cost, high yield, and ability to continuously produce nanoscale powders and 74 75 deposit layers of tunable composition, spray drying has also garnered attention for use in the synthesis of several materials including rare-earth doped ceria [6,19-23]. During spray drying, 76 77 pressurized gas atomizes a liquid solution of precursor ions into a fine mist which enters a

reaction vessel where it is rapidly heated to produce solid solution particles that arecompositionally mixed at the nanometer scale.

An essential prerequisite of this work is to demonstrate that the spray drying method is an 80 81 effective approach for fabricating doped ceria model electrolytes. The ability to employ a wide range of different nitrate salts in the spray drying approach makes it possible to synthesize 82 83 electrolytes with a wide range of different composition. We first show that a conventional Gddoped ceria (GDC) electrolyte can be easily fabricated and the resulting electrical properties 84 (measured with impedance spectroscopy) are comparable to GDC electrolytes synthesized with 85 86 other approaches. We then demonstrate that it is easy to introduce multiple dopants into the 87 formulation by preparing an electrolyte co-doped with Gd and Pr. Finally, we investigate the effect of single and double doping on the grain boundary structure, chemistry and electrical 88 89 conductivity. Analysis of electrical properties shows that the grain boundaries in the co-doped 90 sample are almost 100 times more conducting than the singly doped boundaries. The enhanced 91 conductivity may be the result of strong Pr segregation to the grain boundaries that we observe 92 using aberration corrected scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM) and electron 93 energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS).

94 **2. Experimental**

We fabricated doped ceria powders using a spray-drying synthesis technique developed by the authors and described elsewhere [6]. In this technique, an aqueous solution is sprayed as a fine mist into a reaction vessel where it is introduced to a stream of air heated to approximately 300° C. The hot air rapidly dries the solution droplets and initiates the decomposition of the nitrate precursors into oxide. Precursors of 99.998% purity Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O, Gd(NO₃)₃·6H₂O, and Pr(NO₃)₃·6H₂O (Alpha Aesar, Ward Hill, MA) were combined in the appropriate amounts in 101 a 0.1 M aqueous solution to yield powders of nominal composition $Gd_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O_{2-\delta}$ (GDC) and 102 $Gd_{0.11}Pr_{0.04}Ce_{0.85}O_{2-\delta}$ (GPDC). The powders were extracted from the reaction vessel using 103 methanol, allowed to dry under air, calcined at 500 °C for 2 h, crushed in a mortar and pestle, 104 and calcined further at 900 °C for 5 h. The heating rate for both calcinations was 5 °C/min, followed by furnace cooling. These additional heat treatments complete the nitrate 105 106 decomposition and result in nanoscale oxide powders that are suitable for further ceramic 107 processing. The powder was then pressed into cylindrical pellets 18 mm in diameter and approximately 1 mm thick using a hardened steel die under uniaxial compression (180 MPa) at 108 109 room temperature. Finally, pellets were sintered in air at 1350 °C for 18 h with a 2.5 °C/min 110 heating rate followed by furnace cooling.

The parallel faces of the sintered pellets were polished using 1 µm polishing paper and then 111 112 coated with Pt ink (Fuel Cell Materials, Columbus, OH). Pt wires were submerged in the ink and the assembly placed in a 100 °C oven for 1 h prior to firing at 1000 °C for 1 h (1 °C/min heating 113 rate, furnace cooling). AC impedance spectroscopy was performed on the pellets under air using 114 115 a Gamry Reference 3000 potentiostat (Gamry Instruments, Westminster, PA) with an excitation 116 voltage of 50 mV over the frequency range of 0.1 Hz to 1 MHz and the sample temperature was 117 monitored with a K-type thermocouple. Samples were heated in a stepwise manner, and impedance spectra were acquired at each dwell temperature. Impedance data were analyzed with 118 the Gamry EChem Analyst software package. Uncertainties in the measured conductivities and 119 120 activation energies are determined from uncertainty in fitting the experimental impedance data to an equivalent circuit model. 121

TEM was used to characterize grain size, microscale compositional homogeneity, nanoscale
 structure and chemistry of grain boundaries. Following impedance spectroscopy, a GDC TEM

124 specimen is prepared by cutting a 3 mm diameter disc from the pellet using an ultrasonic disc 125 cutter (Gatan Inc., Pleasanton, CA). The disc was ground to a thickness of approximately 110 µm and then dimpled to approximately 20 µm with a Gatan Dimple Grinder. The dimpled specimen 126 127 was then ion milled to electron transparency in a Gatan PIPS2 ion mill using 4 keV Ar⁺ ions with an incidence angle of 8° on top and bottom for 120 min, followed by 2 keV Ar⁺ ions at 4° top 128 and bottom for 40 min. The GPDC specimen was prepared by standard lift-out techniques in a 129 130 FEI Nova 200 NanoSEM (FEI Co., Hillsboro, OR) equipped with Ga⁺ focused ion beam [24]. High resolution imaging, energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy (EDX), and EELS in a STEM 131 were performed using a Phillips CM200 FEG (200 kV), JEOL 4000EX (400 kV), JEOL 2010F 132 (200 kV) and a JEOL ARM200F (200 kV) (JEOL Ltd., Tky, Japan). Microscope data were 133 processed using ES Vision (Emispec Systems Inc., Tempe, AZ), Gatan Digital Micrograph, and 134 135 ImageJ, and the Pyzo Python integrated development environment (Open source, [25]). The uncertainty in the measured width of the grain boundary composition profiles is the standard 136 deviation from the mean width measured at different positions along the grain boundaries. 137

139 **3. Results and discussion**

140 **3.1. Electrical properties**





Figure 1. Nyquist plots from (a, b) Gd_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O_{1.9} (GDC) and (c, d) Gd_{0.11}Pr_{0.04}Ce_{0.85}O_{2-δ}
(GPDC) acquired at 200 °C. Spectra (b) and (d) show the high frequency portions of
spectra (a) and (c), as well as the corresponding grain and grain boundary capacitance
values determined from fit parameters.

Figure 1 displays representative impedance data as Nyquist plots acquired at 200 °C from pellets fabricated from spray dried GDC and GPDC powders. Both spectra exhibit two arcs corresponding to the grain interior and grain boundary polarizations. An arc corresponding to the 149 electrode polarization was also visible in the GPDC spectrum; however, it was not included in 150 the curve fitting procedure described below. Nyquist plots were interpreted by fitting to an equivalent circuit model comprised of a series combination of two parallel RQ circuits (grain and 151 152 grain boundary polarization), where Q represents the constant phase element (used when modeling imperfect capacitors) [29]. At higher measurement temperatures, the Nyquist plot 153 shifted to lower impedance and the grain-interior arc became inaccessible due to the 1 MHz 154 155 upper frequency limit of the potentiostat, as well as the reduced time constant of the polarization relaxation at elevated temperatures [7]. When the grain-interior arc was not visible, the grain-156 157 interior resistance was determined from fits of the grain-boundary arc only. The parallel RQ component corresponding to the grain in the equivalent circuit in these cases was replaced with a 158 single resistor whose value was assumed to be that of the grain-interior resistance. The 159 160 capacitance values given for the grain and grain boundary arcs are consistent with previously

161 reported values for Sm-doped ceria grain and grain boundary capacitances [26].



163 Figure 2. Arrhenius plots of electrical conductivity for Gd_{0.11}Pr_{0.4}Ce_{0.85}O_{2-δ} (GPDC) and

164
$$Gd_{0,2}Ce_{0,8}O_{2-\delta}$$
 (GDC)

165 Figure 2 shows Arrhenius plots of the grain interior and grain boundary electrical conductivities

166 for GPDC and GDC. The grain-interior conductivity, σ_{∞} , was calculated using

$$\sigma_{\infty} = \frac{1}{R_{\infty}} \times \left(\frac{t}{A}\right) \tag{1}$$

167 where R_{∞} , *t*, and *A* denote the grain interior resistance, electrode separation and electrode area,

168 respectively [8]. The grain boundary conductivity, σ_{gb} , was calculated from

$$\sigma_{gb} = \frac{\tau_{\infty}}{\tau_{gb}} \times \sigma_{\infty} \tag{2}$$

using the time constants of the grain interior and grain boundary polarizations (τ_{∞} and τ_{gb} ,

170 respectively), as well as the grain-interior conductivity [29]. Because a constant phase element

171 was used instead of capacitors in the equivalent circuit model, time constants (i.e. $\tau = RC$) were

172 determined from capacitances calculated from

$$C = (R^{(1-\alpha)}Y)^{1/\alpha}$$
(3)

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As shown by others, the GDC conductivities are assumed to be ionic under non-reducing 174 conditions (e.g. [27]). The measured grain conductivity for the GDC electrolyte prepared here is 175 176 in good agreement with those published by Avila-Paredes et al. [8], Zhang et al. [9] and Jasper et al. [28]. The grain interior conductivity in GDC measured at 300 °C is $(1.5 \pm 0.05) \cdot 10^{-4}$ S·cm⁻¹, 177 agrees with the value measured by Avila-Paredes et al. of approximately $1 \cdot 10^{-4}$ S·cm⁻¹ at 178 300 °C [8]. At 200 °C we find the specific grain boundary conductivity to be $(7 \pm 2) \cdot 10^{-11}$ 179 $S \cdot cm^{-1}$, approximately 10 times less than that of Avila-Paredes et al. In high-purity materials, 180 such as those used here, the grain-boundary conductivity will be affected by space-charge effects 181

182 as well as the structural and compositional character of grain boundaries. Figure 2 shows that the grain-boundary conductivity at 200 °C is 5×10^4 times lower than the grain-interior 183 184 conductivity in GDC, clearly demonstrating the deleterious effect of grain boundaries on ionic conductivity especially at low temperatures. This also illustrates the need to develop a 185 fundamental understanding of the relationship between charge transport, grain-boundary 186 187 structure and composition. Such an understanding may allow grain-boundary tailoring to be accomplished, leading to substantial improvements in ionic conductivity in polycrystalline 188 189 electrolytes.

In GPDC the grain-interior conductivity at 300 °C was measured to be $(2.1 \pm 0.05) \cdot 10^{-4}$ 190 S·cm⁻¹, approximately 40 % higher than that of GDC. The higher grain-interior conductivity of 191 this material compared to the GDC sample is in agreement with theoretical results from 192 Dholabhai et al. [3], and reasonable considering that $Gd_{0.1}Ce_{0.9}O_{1.95}$ was shown experimentally to 193 194 yield higher grain-interior ionic conductivity than Gd_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O_{1.9} [8]. Furthermore, the incorporation of Pr has been demonstrated to increase both ionic conductivity and p-type 195 electronic conductivity in $Gd_{0.2-x}Pr_xCe_{0.8}O_{2-\delta}$ for x < 0.03 [4,5]. While our observations agree 196 with these findings qualitatively, the exact origin of increased grain interior conductivity due to 197 198 Pr doping remains ambiguous at this time.

The effect of grain boundaries in the doubly-doped material is much less detrimental than in the GDC. Indeed if we compare the grain boundary conductivities of the two materials at 200 °C we find that the GPDC specific grain boundary conductivity is $(3 \pm 1) \cdot 10^{-9}$ S·cm⁻¹, approximately 50 times that of GDC ($(6 \pm 1) \cdot 10^{-11}$ S·cm⁻¹). This result suggests a significant effect on the grain-boundary electrical properties due to the addition of Pr, and is particularly surprising considering that Avila-Paredes and coworkers [8] found that the grain boundary conductivity in $Gd_{0.1}Ce_{0.9}O_{2-\delta}$ — the approximate Gd concentration of our GPDC, was approximately five times lower than that of $Gd_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O_{2-\delta}$. One possible explanation for the higher grain-boundary conductivity in the GPDC is the effect of Pr segregation to grain boundaries discussed in the next section.

209 Activation energies, E_a , for the grain-interior and grain-boundary conductivities were 210 calculated from Arrhenius slopes using equation (4)

$$\sigma T = \sigma_0 e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}} \tag{4}$$

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212 Because the associations between oxygen vacancies and cations become insignificant at higher

temperatures [8], there is a distinct change in the Arrhenius slope at approximately 450 °C. Thus,

grain-interior activation energies were determined for T < 450 °C and T \ge 450 °C. (Grain-

boundary activation energies were determined only from measurements made below 300 °C.)

216 Results of these calculations are tabulated in Table 1.

Sample Nominal composition	Average grain size (μm)	Grain interior $E_a T < 450 \ ^\circ C$ (eV)	Grain interior $E_a T \ge 450 \ ^{\circ}C$ (eV)	Grain Boundary <i>E_a</i> (eV)
Gd _{0.2} Ce _{0.8} O _{1.9} (GDC)	0.75 ±	0.87 ± 0.02	0.42 ± 0.04	0.92 ± 0.20
	0.31			
$Gd_{0.11}Pr_{0.04}Ce_{0.85}O_{2-\delta}$	0.45 ±	0.78 ± 0.01	0.39 ± 0.04	0.58 ± 0.10
(GPDC)	0.18			

217	Table	1. S	Summary	of	data	for	all	sampl	es
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For GDC, the activation energies for grain-interior and grain boundary ionic conductivities are comparable with previous works [5,8]. The activation energies for GPDC with T < $450 \,^{\circ}$ C are lower than for GDC, which is consistent with our observation of higher conductivity in the doubly-doped material. This trend also agrees with the report of Lubke et al; however, the absolute values vary somewhat, likely due to differences in the Gd and Pr doping levels. Interestingly, the GPDC grain boundary activation energy is significantly lower than that of the grain interior. This may stem from electronic conduction induced in the boundary region as a result of significant Pr segregation (see below) [36].

3.2. Nanoscale structure and chemistry



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Figure 3. Low magnification bright field TEM micrograph of sintered GPDC.

TEM imaging revealed that sintered ceramics have a dense single-phase polycrystalline microstructure (fig.3). X-ray diffraction and analysis of electron diffractograms from GDC (Figure 8a inset) and GPDC (fig. 5a inset) confirmed that both materials have a fluorite structure. Scanning electron micrographs and low magnification images of the sintered samples were used to estimate the average grain size of the ceramics (e.g. fig. 3). There was a decrease in the grain size with increasing total dopant concentration which is consistent with previous observations of sintered undoped and Gd-doped ceria [14].





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Figure 4. (a) electron energy-loss spectra and (b) energy dispersive x-ray spectra from

GPDC and GDC





Figure 5. (a) BF TEM micrograph of a typical GPDC grain boundary with [011] zone axis
 diffractogram inset, and (b) triple grain junction in the sintered GPDC.

As the presence of an amorphous intergranular phase and/or dopant segregation to grain interface regions are expected to affect grain-boundary transport properties, high-resolution imaging was used to investigate the structure of grain boundaries following sintering. All grain interfaces, like those shown in Figure 5 for GPDC, appeared to be structurally abrupt and free of significant amorphous intergranular phases, an observation consistent with the work of previous researchers [28,29]. Again we find that the spray drying technique produces material with microstructures comparable to those produced by other preparation methods.



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Figure 6. (a) BF TEM and (b) ADF STEM micrographs of a typical grain boundary in
 GDC. (c) Electron-energy loss spectra from GDC acquired at the grain boundary core and
 grain interior depicted in (b). (d) Ce and Gd N_{5,4} edge profiles corresponding to the scan
 path shown in (b). (STEM probe size was ≈ 0.2 nm)

To investigate variations in cation concentrations (Ce, Pr, and Gd) at the boundaries (which are not readily apparent via imaging), STEM EELS was performed. Figure 6a shows a bright 273 field (BF) TEM micrograph of a grain boundary which is slightly tilted, but clean (i.e. free of 274 amorphous material). Diffraction contrast variation is visible in the two adjacent grains, indicating that the right grain is in a stronger electron diffracting condition than the left. Figure 275 276 6b shows an annular dark field (ADF) STEM image of the same grain boundary; the dotted line 277 depicts the scan path of the STEM EELS linescan in (d). There is visible contrast variation caused by misorientation between adjacent grains, as well as dark contrast at the grain boundary 278 279 core. The dark contrast visible at this grain boundary core is believed to be the result of the more open interfacial atomic structure scattering fewer electrons to the annular detector, thus resulting 280 281 in a less intense signal at the grain-boundary core relative to the adjacent grains. Figure 6c compares energy-loss spectra acquired from the grain interior and the grain-boundary core. 282 There is a marked increase in the Gd $N_{5,4}$: Ce $N_{5,4}$ edge integrated intensity ratio at the grain 283 284 boundary core indicating considerable enhancement of the Gd concentration at the grain 285 boundary. The spectra also show that the Ce edge is much more rounded at the grain boundary indicating that a significant change in local Ce bonding has taken place in the grain-boundary 286 287 core.





Figure 7. Background-subtracted experimental GDC and reference CeO₂ ([30]) energy loss
 spectra with highlighted integration windows used for peak overlap correction. (The CeO₂
 spectrum is normalized to the GDC Gd N_{5.4} edge maxima.)



intensity (A_3) from the combined Ce + Gd N_{5,4} signal ($A_2 + A_3$) in the 144 eV to 184 eV energy loss window.

It should be noted that a 40 eV energy loss range was selected for the Gd integration window is a compromise to maximize the signal strength and minimize extrapolation errors [31]. The intensity in the Gd $N_{5,4}$ signal, I_{Gd} , in the energy loss spectra from GDC can be expressed as

$$I_{Gd} = A_3 = (A_2 + A_3)^{GDC \ exp.} - A_1^{GDC \ exp.} \left(\frac{A_2}{A_1}\right)^{CeO_2 \ Ref.}$$
(5)

The quantity $(A_2/A_1)^{CeO_2 Ref.}$ is the integrated intensity ratio of the Ce N_{5,4} tail to the Ce N_{5,4} edge determined from the CeO₂ reference spectrum. This quantity was multiplied by the measured Ce N_{5,4} edge intensity, $A_1^{GDC exp.}$, to approximate the Ce tail contribution $(A_2^{GDC exp.})$ to the total signal in the Gd-N_{4,5} energy loss window, $(A_2 + A_3)^{GDC exp.}$. Knowledge of the Gd-N_{5,4} signal, I_{Gd} , enabled estimation of the [Gd]/[Ce] concentration ratio using

$$\frac{[Ce]}{[Gd]} = \frac{I_{Ce}}{I_{Gd}} * \frac{\sigma_{Gd}}{\sigma_{Ce}}$$
(6)

where I_{Ce} and I_{Gd} are the signals in the energy loss spectrum integrated over 115 eV to 135 eV 311 and 144 eV to 184 eV, respectively, and σ_{Ce} and σ_{Gd} are the relevant inelastic scattering cross 312 313 sections [32]. To estimate compositional variations at grain boundaries, we assumed both 314 nominal cation composition at grain interiors (i.e. $([Ce]/[Gd])_{\infty} = 4)$, as well as constancy of the cross-section ratio (i.e. $\sigma_{Gd}/\sigma_{ce} = k$). This so-called *k factor* was determined to be 0.32 ± 315 316 0.03 using I_{Ce} : I_{Gd} ratios acquired at grain interiors. The concentrations were determined by using equation (6) and assuming that the cation concentrations sum to 1 (or 100 for percentages). The 317 typical fractional error associated with concentrations was 0.05 to 0.1 determined from 318 319 uncertainty in the calculated k-factor.

Figure 6d shows the result of this k-factor analysis for a linescan along the highlighted scan path across the grain boundary in Figure 6b. The composition was found to vary significantly along the scan path, from approximately $Gd_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O_{1.9}$ in the grain interiors to approximately $Gd_{0.55}Ce_{0.45}O_{2-\delta}$ at the grain-boundary core. The width of this Gd enhancement zone, measured from the full-width half-maxima of the concentration profile, was estimated to be (2.2 ± 0.3) nm.





Figure 8. (a) BF TEM micrograph of a triple grain junction in GDC with [011] zone axis
 diffractogram inset on the corresponding grain. (b) STEM EELS 2D elemental map
 indicating the distribution of Gd in the region of the junction. (STEM probe size was ≈
 0.2nm.)

Triple grain junction regions in GDC were also investigated using STEM EELS 2D elemental mapping. This made it possible to visualize the spatial extent of cation concentration fluctuations along grain boundaries, and in the vicinity of the triple-grain junction. Figure 8a shows a BF TEM micrograph of one such junction in GDC with the corresponding elemental map provided in Figure 8b. The slight distortion in the grain boundary shape visible in the map is due to specimen drift during the STEM EELS spectrum image acquisition. The average fraction of cation sites occupied by Gd in the grain boundary core is approximately 0.55, similar to the 337 grain boundary line scan in Figure 6b. Though, in some regions there does appear to be 338 considerable non-uniformity in the Gd distribution, with the cation site occupancy fraction of Gd ranging from 0.4 to 0.7. The estimated average grain boundary core cation site occupancy 339 340 fraction of Gd was 0.62 ± 0.03 , which is comparable with previous work of Lei et al. who measured a grain boundary composition of $Gd_{0.41 \pm 0.04}Ce_{0.59 \pm 0.04}O_{1.24 \pm 0.17}$ in a nominally 341 $Gd_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O_{2-\delta}$ electrolyte [33]. These authors also measured the width of the Gd-segregation 342 region (i.e. the chemical grain boundary) to be approximately 2 nm to 2.5 nm, which is 343 consistent with the 2.2 ± 0.3 nm chemical grain boundary width observed in this work. Lee et al. 344 345 also reported Gd enhancement extending approximately 1.5 nm to 2 nm from grain boundary cores in $Gd_{0.3}Ce_{0.7}O_{2-\delta}$ thin films using STEM EDS [34]. 346

As discussed above, we measured the specific grain-boundary conductivity of the GPDC 347 $(Gd_{0.11}Pr_{0.04}Ce_{0.85}O_{2-\delta})$ to be approximately 50 times that of the GDC $(Gd_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O_{2-\delta})$ at 200 °C. 348 This result was particularly interesting considering the work of Avila-Paredes and Kim, who, 349 when varying the Gd cation fraction (x) in $Gd_xCe_{(1-x)}O_{2-\delta}$ (0.01 < x < 0.2), found the specific 350 351 grain-boundary conductivity of x = 0.2 sample to be approximately five times greater than that of the x = 0.1 sample at approximately 200 °C. In light of this result, we concluded that the higher 352 353 specific grain-boundary conductivity in our GPDC was the result of Pr doping, as doping with 0.2 Gd cation fraction should have resulted in higher grain boundary conductivity than 0.11 Gd 354 cation fraction. 355



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Figure 9. (a) Background-subtracted energy loss spectra acquired from $Gd_{0.11}Pr_{0.04}Ce_{0.85}O_{2}$. δ showing variations in the Ce, Pr and Gd M_{4,5} edges across the grain boundary in (b). (b) Aberration-corrected STEM image of a grain boundary with inset color map illustrating the cation distribution in the interfacial region; constituent color maps are provided. (c) Profiles of estimated cation fraction and the Ce M₄/M₅ white line ratio—an indicator of the Ce oxidation state. (STEM probe size was \approx 0.1 nm.)

To explore effects of Pr doping on grain boundaries, variations in constituent cation fractions and Ce oxidation state were studied with EELS using an aberration corrected TEM/STEM operating at 200 kV. Figure 9a illustrates the effect of the grain boundary on the M_{5,4} edges of Ce, Pr and Gd. Each background-subtracted spectrum is labeled $A \rightarrow K$ and represents the sum of all spectra in each row of the inset spectrum image in Figure 9b, also labeled $A \rightarrow K$ and highlighted with a rectangular box. The integration (I_{Ce} , I_{Pr} and I_{Gd}) and background fitting (B_{Pr}

369 and B_{Gd} windows used for spectrum quantification are highlighted with solid and dashed boxes, 370 respectively in figure 9a. Though omitted for clarity, a 45 eV-wide background fitting window positioned 5 eV to the left of the Ce $M_{5,4}$ integration window was used for quantification. 371 372 Because of the close proximity of the Pr and Ce edge onsets, a two window background fitting 373 procedure was adopted to extract the Pr signal with one narrow window just in front of the Pr $M_{5,4}$ edge and a second just before the Gd $M_{5,4}$ edge. Figure 9b shows an ADF STEM image of 374 375 a grain boundary in GPDC with an inset energy-loss spectrum image. The spectrum image is false colored by overlaying the color maps (left of STEM image) derived from integrating the 376 377 M_{5.4} signal for each cation at every pixel. Figure 9c displays variations in the estimated cation 378 concentration, the relative dopant concentration, as well as the Ce M_4/M_5 white line ratio, which is an indication of the oxidation state of the Ce ion [35]. The data points are separated by 379 380 approximately 5.2 Å and labeled $A \rightarrow K$ to indicate the row in the spectrum image from which they were derived. From inspection of these figures, position H is taken to be the approximate 381 position of the grain boundary core. 382

383 Figure 9a shows significant variation in the cation concentration and the Ce oxidation state with position in the grain boundary region. Distinct increases in the IPr:ICe and IGd:ICe signal 384 385 intensity ratios are clearly visible, indicating an enhancement of the Pr and Gd concentrations relative to Ce. Like the GDC, this enhancement is attributed to dopant segregation during 386 sintering of the bulk ceramic disc. Also visible is a decrease in the Ce M₄/M₅ white line ratio 387 from $M_4/M_5 \approx 1.2$ at grain interiors to $M_4/M_5 \approx 1.0$ at the boundary core. This change is 388 characteristic of the reduction of Ce^{4+} to $Ce^{(4-y)+}$ ($0 \le y \le 1$), and suggests the absence of bonded 389 390 oxygen ions [35]. This white-line ratio reaches a minimum at the grain boundary core, 391 presumably due to the oxygen non-stoichiometry associated with the highly defective core392 structure of this particular grain boundary.

393 The dopant segregation profiles are approximately (1.8 ± 0.3) nm wide, a figure similar to 394 that of our GDC. Ce, Pr and Gd cation fractions were estimated using a k-factor analysis routine 395 similar to that described for GDC above, and found to be 0.55, 0.16 and 0.29 at the boundary 396 core, respectively. Interestingly, the relative dopant concentration ratio ([Pr]:[Gd]) was found to 397 vary between approximately 0.28 at grain interiors and 0.55 at the boundary core showing that a greater fraction of Pr segregates to the boundary compared to Gd. The FWHM peak width of the 398 399 white line ratio profile is approximately 0.8 nm, consistent with the structural width of grain 400 boundaries visible in high resolution images herein. This indicates that the reduced ceria is 401 associated with the grain boundary core.

402 Enhancements in both ionic and electronic conductivity may play a role in the enhanced grain-interior and grain boundary conductivities of GPDC sample relative to the GDC sample, 403 though the active charge transport mechanisms have not been fully identified. Previous 404 405 theoretical work based on DFT calculations and Monte Carlo simulations predicted increased 406 grain-interior ionic conductivity in Gd/Pr doubly-doped ceria, with enhancements dependent on 407 relative dopant concentrations (i.e. [Pr]:[Gd]) [3]. Here, greater grain-boundary conductivity of the GPDC sample relative to the GDC sample correlates with a high Pr segregation to the 408 boundary. A plausible explanation for the greater GPDC grain boundary conductivity is an 409 410 increase in ionic conductivity due to a reduction in the oxygen vacancy migration energy associated with Pr segregation to grain interfaces [3]. Moreover, such high Pr doping levels 411 412 would very likely facilitate small polaron hopping [4,36] in the vicinity of grain boundaries, 413 giving rise to considerable electronic current through the boundary. Such a contribution from an

- 414 electronic current is reasonable when the very significant reduction in observed migration
- 415 activation energy of the grain boundary is also considered.

417 **4.** Conclusions

418 $Gd_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O_{2-\delta}$ (GDC) and $Gd_{0.11}Pr_{0.04}Ce_{0.85}O_{2-\delta}$ (GPDC) powders were successfully synthesized with spray drying, and used to fabricate sintered pellets for bulk electrical 419 420 characterization by AC impedance spectroscopy performed between 150 °C and 700 °C. Following electrical characterization, specimens were analyzed via scanning transmission 421 electron microscopy (STEM) using high resolution imaging, energy dispersive x-ray 422 423 spectroscopy (EDX) and electron-energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) in a number of scanning TEMs. Electrical conductivity in GDC was interpreted as ionic conductivity and was in 424 425 reasonable agreement with previous reports. The grain interior and grain boundary conductivities 426 of the GPDC were higher than GDC by up to 1 and 2.5 orders of magnitude depending on the measurement temperature. Interestingly, the GPDC grain boundary migration activation energy 427 428 was found to be (0.58 ± 0.1) eV, considerably lower than that of the grain interior which was 429 measured to be (0.92 ± 0.2) eV.

TEM analysis indicated that GDC microstructures were consistent with those in the 430 431 literature. EDX and EELS confirmed the presence of dopants throughout grains in both materials, thus highlighting the efficacy of the spray drying approach to produce sintered pellets 432 433 with uniform grain-interior doping. Grain boundaries were free of glassy intergranular phases, and significant dopant concentration enhancement was observed. The grain boundary core 434 composition was estimated from EELS to be Gd_{0.62}Ce_{0.38}O_{2-δ}, and Gd_{0.29}Pr_{0.16}Ce_{0.55}O_{2-δ} in GDC 435 436 and GPDC, respectively. Such a large enhancement in Pr concentration at the grain boundary, along with the significant reduction in migration activation energy suggested possible 437 438 enhancement in ionic conductivity and the formation of an electronic conduction pathway along 439 grain boundaries. In GPDC, the relative dopant concentration ([Pr]:[Gd]) varied as well in the

440 grain boundary region. Lastly, the oxidation state of the Ce host cation was found to decrease in 441 the grain boundary core, likely indicating the absence of oxygen due to disorder at the grain 442 interface.

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454 **6. Disclaimer**

455 Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are 456 those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation.

The full description of the procedures used in this manuscript includes identification of certain commercial products and their suppliers. The inclusion of such information should in no way be construed as indicating that such products or suppliers are endorsed by NIST or are recommended by NIST or that they are necessarily the best materials, instruments, software or suppliers for the purposes described.

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