EMA5646
Ceramic Processing
5  Colloidal Processing
Fundamentals
Introduction

- Colloidal suspension - contains two distinct phases
  - A continuous phase or dispersion phase or medium
  - Fine, dispersed particulate phase or disperse phase, often with size \( \sim 1\text{-}1000 \text{ nm} \)

- Processing for ceramics via suspension
  - Advantages (over processing dry/semidry powders)
    - Capability to process complex shape
    - Better microstructural control and uniformity

- Issues with stability of colloidal suspension
  - Gravity of particles causing sedimentation
    - Less significant for colloidal suspension with particle size \(< 1 \mu \text{m}\)
  - Attraction between particles that cause them to flocculate/form agglomerates
    - Need to introduce repulsive force

- Additional aspects of interest
  - Rheology – movement of suspension when subject to stress
  - Electrophoresis - motion of particles in suspension when subject to electrical field

Rahaman (2003), p. 181-182

http://www.cgcri.res.in/page.php?id=43

https://britehub.com/merchants/processing/casting/slip-casting
Van der Waals Forces

- Secondary bonding force existing between all atoms, molecules, and particles

- Categories
  - Force between permanent dipoles - Keesom forces
    - E.g., between HF molecules
  - Force between permanent dipole and a induced (transient) dipole - Debye forces
    - E.g., between HF and H₂ molecules
  - Dispersion force, i.e., forces between induced (transient) dipole – London forces
    - E.g., between H₂ and H₂ molecules

- Magnitude
  Potential energy for van der Waals force generally satisfy

\[ V \propto \frac{1}{x^6} \]

Rahaman (2003), p. 183-184
Van der Waals Forces between Particles (1)

Derivation

- Assumption: Interactions (specifically attraction) between two particles is the sum of the interactions between one small unit in one particle with one small unit in the other particle
- Define
  \( \Delta v_1 \) Infinitesimally small volume in particle 1
  \( \Delta v_2 \) Infinitesimally small volume in particle 2
  \( n_1 \) Atom number density in particle 1
  \( n_2 \) Atom number density in particle 2

The potential energy between the two small units

\[
\delta V = -\frac{C}{x^6} n_1 \Delta v_1 n_2 \Delta v_2
\]

The total interactive energy between the two particles

\[
V_A = \int -\frac{C}{x^6} n_1 n_2 dv_1 dv_2
\]

Rahaman (2003), p. 185-190
Van der Waals Forces between Particles (2)

Hamaker showed

\[ V_A = -\frac{A}{\pi^2} \int \frac{dv_1 dv_2}{x^6} \]

Material/system specific  Geometric term

A is called Hamaker constant and it is material/system specific

Special cases

When \( r \gg h \)

\[ V_A = -\frac{A}{12\pi h^2} \]

When \( h \ll r \)

\[ V_A = -\frac{Ar}{6h} \]

When \( h \gg r \)

\[ V_A = -\frac{16Ar^6}{9h^6} \]

Rahaman (2003), p. 185-190
Hamaker constant usually in the range of $10^{-20}$-$10^{-19}$ J (or 2.5-25 kT) at room temperature.

Hamaker constant decreases when there is medium compared with air or vacuum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Crystal Structure</th>
<th>A in vacuum ($10^{-20}$ J)</th>
<th>A in water ($10^{-20}$ J)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha$-Al$_2$O$_3$</td>
<td>Hexagonal</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>3.67</td>
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<tr>
<td>BaTiO3</td>
<td>Tetragonal</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C (diamond)</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CaCO$_3$</td>
<td>Trigonal</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCl</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MgO</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6H-SiC</td>
<td>Hexagonal</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SiO$_2$ (quartz)</td>
<td>Trigonal</td>
<td>8.86</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TiO$_2$</td>
<td>Tetragonal</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>5.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rahaman (2003), p. 185-190
Van der Waals Forces between Particles vs. Thermal Energy

For colloidal suspension of similar particles, assuming the equation for potential energy is valid down to contact, and if

- Particle separation distance \( h = 0.3 \) nm
- Hamaker constant \( A = 10^{-20} \) J

Then van der Waals energy will be:

\[
\text{when particle radius } r = 200 \text{ nm} \\
V_A = -\frac{10^{-20} \ J \times 200 \text{nm}}{12 \times 0.3 \text{nm}} = -5 \times 10^{-19} \ J
\]

\[
\text{when particle radius } r = 20 \text{ nm} \\
V_A = -\frac{10^{-20} \ J \times 20 \text{nm}}{12 \times 0.3 \text{nm}} = -5 \times 10^{-20} \ J
\]

The negative sign represents attraction force between particles.

Thermal energy

At room temperature, thermal energy on the order of \( KT \)

\[
KT = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \ J / K \cdot 298K = 4 \times 10^{-21} \ J
\]

In either case, \( KT \ll |V_A| \) → After colloidal particles collide, they tend to stick together in suspension

Rahaman (2003), p. 190-191
Estimation of Volume and Weight Fraction

- Assuming ceramic particles of diameter $d$ arranged in suspension like simple cubic fashion and with separation $h = d$ (i.e., center to center distance of $H = 2d$)
  - Please calculate the volume fraction of the particle in the suspension
  - Please calculate the weight fraction of particle in the suspension assuming density of particle is 4 g/cm$^3$ and density of solvent is 1 g/cm$^3$

$$V_p \% = \frac{1}{6} \frac{\pi d^3}{(2d)^3} = \frac{\pi}{48} = 6.5\%$$

$$W_p \% = \frac{V_p \% \cdot \rho_p}{V_p \% \cdot \rho_p + (1 - V_p \%) \cdot \rho_L} = \frac{0.065 \times 4}{0.065 \times 4 + 0.935 \times 1} = 21.8\%$$

In practical colloidal suspension, average inter-particle distance is NOT very large.
Ways to Achieve Stabilization of (Colloidal) Particle Suspensions

- Fine particles in suspension tend to flocculate due to van der Waals forces larger than thermal energy.
- Need to introduce repulsive force between particles to stabilize colloidal particle suspension.

- **Electrostatic stabilization**
  Repulsion between particles due to electrostatic charges on particle surface.

- **Steric stabilization**
  Repulsion between particles due to uncharged polymer chains adsorbed on particle surface.

- **Electrosteric stabilization**
  Combination of electrostatic and steric repulsion.

Rahaman (2003), p. 191
Particles could develop surface charge in aqueous solution in several different ways

- **Preferential ion adsorption** from (electrolyte) solution
  - Adsorption of H\(^+\) or OH\(^-\) from solution
  - Adsorption of other ions from (electrolyte) solution

- **Non-stoichiometric dissolution** (including Isomorphoric substitution)

- **Adsorption of charged polymers** (polyelectrolytes)

Rahaman (2003), p. 191
Surface Charge Development (1) – Preferential Ion Adsorption from Solution

- Preferential adsorption of H⁺ or OH⁻
  - Oxide particle surface often has surface groups such as OH, which preferentially adsorb proton H⁺ or hydroxyl ion OH⁻, which determines potential and charge on surface.
  - For M ions such as Ba²⁺, Al³⁺, Si⁴⁺, Ti⁴⁺, Zr⁴⁺, etc., the process could be:
    \[
    K_1 \quad \text{MOH} + \text{H}^+ = \text{MOH}_2^+
    \]
    \[
    K_2 \quad \text{MOH} = \text{MO}^- + \text{H}^+ \quad \text{or} \quad \text{MOH} + \text{OH}^- = \text{MO}^- + \text{H}_2\text{O}
    \]
  - Example: edge of clay particles

\[
\text{Al-OH} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \text{Al}^+ + \text{OH}^-
\]
Surface Charge Development (1’) – Preferential Ion Adsorption from Solution

- Preferential adsorption of other ions
  - Apart from H\(^+\)/OH\(^-\), other ions may also preferentially adsorb onto ceramic particle surface and become potential-determining ions
  - Example: Citrate ion adsorption on Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) (Sodium citrate is the electrolyte and Na\(^+\) is the counter ion) If initially surface neutral, preferential adsorption of citrate ion lead to negatively charged surface

Rahaman (2003), p. 194-197
MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
Surface Charge Development (2) – Nonstoichiometric (or Preferential) Dissolution

Description

- Certain solid experience non-stoichiometric dissolution, i.e., preferred dissolution of one type of ion from the particle surface, leaving the surface to be rich in the counter ions, which give it surface charge

- **Example**: AgI in water
  AgI may go through non-stoichiometric dissolution in aqueous solution:
  - When solution contain too little Ag\(^+\), (or too much I\(^-\)), excess dissolution of Ag\(^+\) from AgI surface will occur, leading to excess I\(^-\) on surface and it become negatively charged
  - When solution contain too little I\(^-\), excess dissolution of I\(^-\) from AgI surface will occur, leading to excess Ag\(^+\) on surface and it become positively charged

Rahaman (2003), p. 193-194
Reed (1994), 150-151
MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, Fine Particle Technology
Surface Charge Development (2’) – Isomorphoric Substitution

Description

- High valence ions (e.g., Al\(^{3+}\), Si\(^{4+}\)) replaced by low valence ions (e.g., Mg\(^{2+}\)), leading to extra cations (e.g., Na\(^{+}\)) adsorbed on surface for charge balance, often for clays particles:

\[
\text{Si}^{4+}\text{ lattice} = \text{Al}^{3+}\text{ lattice} + \text{Na}^{+}\text{ surface}
\]

\[
\text{Al}^{3+}\text{ lattice} = \text{Mg}^{2+}\text{ lattice} + \text{Na}^{+}\text{ surface}
\]

- Upon dispersion in water, the extra adsorbed ions on the surface dissolve and leave the particle surface to become negatively charged.

- Example:

\[
\text{Al}_2(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5)_2(\text{OH})_2 \rightarrow \text{Na}_{0.33}(\text{Al}_{1.67}\text{Mg}_{0.33})(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5)_2(\text{OH})_2
\]
Point of Zero Charge (PZC)

**Description**

A concept that describes the condition when total electrical charge density on surface is zero. Generally, it is the negative decimal logarithm of the activity of potential-determining ion in solution when the net charge density is zero.

- When $\text{H}^+$/OH$^-$ are potential-determining ions, it is the pH value at which adsorbed $\text{H}^+$ balance absorbed $\text{OH}^-$ and the particle surface has zero net charge and be effectively neutral.
- When other ions are potential-determining ions, it is the negative decimal logarithm of that ion activity (concentration) for which the net charge density is zero.

Rahaman (2003), p. 194-197

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>PZC</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>PZC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SiO$_2$</td>
<td>pH~2-3.7</td>
<td>CaF$_2$</td>
<td>pCa~3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SnO$_2$</td>
<td>pH~4-6</td>
<td>AgI</td>
<td>pAg~5-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TiO$_2$</td>
<td>pH~4-6</td>
<td>AgCl</td>
<td>pAg~4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZrO$_2$</td>
<td>pH~4-6</td>
<td>Ag$^2$S</td>
<td>pAg~10</td>
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<tr>
<td>CeO$_2$</td>
<td>pH~6-7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fe$_2$O$_3$</td>
<td>pH~8-9</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al$_2$O$_3$</td>
<td>pH~8-9</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZnO</td>
<td>pH~9</td>
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<tr>
<td>NiO</td>
<td>pH~10-11</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>MgO</td>
<td>pH~12.0</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Electrical Double Layer (EDL)

**Formation**

In solution, if particle surface has fixed surface charges, to maintain overall charge neutrality, oppositely charged species will preferentially surround the charged particle, often in a diffuse way. “The combination of two separated, but associated, charged region is called electrical double layer or EDL” (MD Sacks, class notes, 2001)

**Mechanism for repulsion**

When charged particles come together, the diffuse layers with charge will start to overlap. The interaction between the EDL give the repulsive force. If repulsive force greater than van der Waals, suspension will be stable.


Rahaman (2003), p. 198-202
Helmholtz model: Linear potential distribution

Fixed charge on particle surface countered by densely packed opposite charges

$\Phi_0$ Electrical potential at the surface ($x=0$)

- Zero potential outside the double layer:
  - Thickness $t$ hard to define
  - **Oversimplification and not realistic** as it does not consider any thermal distribution effect for counter charges

Rahaman (2003), p. 198-202
Electrical Potential for EDL (2)

- **Gouy-Chapman model: Exponential potential distribution**
  
  Fixed charges on surface balanced by diffuse, opposite charges in solution
  
  For low potential, electrical potential at distance $x$ from surface is approximated by:

  $$\phi = \phi_0 \exp(-\kappa x)$$

  $\phi_0$ Electrical potential at the surface ($x=0$)
  
  $\kappa$ Debye length, which can be used to approximately represent double layer thickness → at $1/\kappa$, the electrical potential drops to $1/e$ of surface potential $\phi_0$

  - Fast (“exponential”) decay of potential as distance away from surface

  (Rahaman (2003), p. 198-202)
Debye length can be approximated by

$$\frac{1}{\kappa} \approx \left( \frac{\varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0 kT}{2e^2 N_A I} \right)^{1/2}$$

in which

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \sum_j z_j^2 M_j$$

- $N_A$: Avogadro’s number $6.02 \times 10^{-23}$ mol$^{-1}$
- $e$: Electron charge $1.60 \times 10^{-19}$ C
- $k$: Boltzmann constant $1.38 \times 10^{-23}$ J$\cdot$mol$^{-1}$$\cdot$K$^{-1}$
- $I$: Ionic strength for the solution
- $z_j$: Valence for ion $j$ in the solution
- $M_j$: Molar concentration of ion $j$, in mol/m$^3$
- $T$: Temperature in K
- $\varepsilon_r$: Relative dielectric constant
- $\varepsilon_0$: Vacuum permittivity $8.85 \times 10^{-12}$ C$^2$$\cdot$N$^{-1}$$\cdot$m$^{-2}$

- Higher ionic strength leads to reduced Debye length and steeper potential decay.
Repulsion between Two Electrical Double Layers

- Ion concentration increases between particles
- If planar surface with small surface potential
  \[ V_R = 2 \varepsilon \varepsilon_0 \kappa \phi_0^2 \exp(-\kappa h) \]
- If spherical particles with small surface potential
  - For large double layer thickness (\(1/\kappa > 0.2r\)) \[ V_R \approx 2\pi r \varepsilon \varepsilon_0 \phi_0^2 \exp(-\kappa h) \]
  - For small double layer thickness (\(1/\kappa < 0.1r\)) \[ V_R \approx 2\pi r \varepsilon \varepsilon_0 \phi_0^2 \ln[1 + \exp(-\kappa h)] \]

Rahaman (2003), p. 203-205
Surface Potential & Surface Charge Density

For low surface potential, surface charge density can be approximated:

\[ \sigma_0 = \frac{\varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0}{1/\kappa} \phi_0 \]

in which

- \( \varepsilon_r \) Relative dielectric constant of liquid
- \( \varepsilon_0 \) Vacuum permittivity
- \( 1/\kappa \) Debye length

Knowing capacitance

\[ C = \frac{\varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0}{t} \]

For \( t = 1/\kappa \), the above equation becomes

\[ \sigma_0 = \frac{\varepsilon \varepsilon_0}{1/\kappa} \cdot \phi_0 = C \cdot \phi_0 \]


This means electrical double layer can be approximated as a parallel capacitor with effective thickness of \( t = 1/\kappa \) and relative dielectric constant of \( \varepsilon_r \).
Stability of Electrostatically Stabilized Colloids

- Total potential energy between particles is the sum of van der Waals attraction and electrostatic repulsion

\[ V_T = V_A + V_R \]

- Major categories of behaviors
  
  A. Repulsion is weak and particles attract one another and reach equilibrium at M1 – sedimentation with large separation
  
  B. Repulsion is stronger, but thermal activation can knock system into flocculation
  
  C. Repulsion large enough that form stable colloids
  
  D. Repulsion is so large that extreme stable colloids form that only allows low solid loading

Rahaman (2003), p. 206-208
Example of Debye Length and Electrostatic Stabilization

- For 1:1 electrolyte dissolved in water with different concentration

\[ \frac{1}{\kappa} \approx \left( \frac{\varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0 kT}{2e^2 N_A I} \right)^{1/2} \]

\[ I = \frac{1}{2} \sum_j z_j^2 M_j \]

Assuming for charged particles \( r = 200 \text{ nm}, \Phi_0 = 0.05 \text{V}, 1/\kappa = 30 \text{ nm}, h = 30 \text{ nm} \)

Van der Waals attraction energy

\[ V_A = -\frac{10^{-20} J \times 200 \text{nm}}{12 \times 30 \text{nm}} = -5.5 \times 10^{-21} J \]

Thermal energy

\[ KT = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} J / K \cdot 298 K = 4 \times 10^{-21} J \]

Electrostatic repulsion energy

\[ V_R \approx 2\pi r \varepsilon \varepsilon_0 \phi_0^2 \ln[1 + \exp(-Kh)] = 6 \times 10^{-19} J \]

Therefore, the colloidal suspension will be stable against agglomeration.
Electrophoresis, Mobility & Zeta Potential $\zeta$ (1)

**Electrophoresis**

When electric field is applied to a colloid suspension, charged particles will move under the electrical field.

**Mobility from electrophoresis**

DC voltage $V$ is applied to parallel electrodes at fixed distance $l$, particle velocity $v$ is observed (e.g., using a microscope).

For a particle with radius $r$ and net charge $q$ under electrical field $E$, driving force

$$F = qE$$

In a viscous medium, terminal velocity is reached quickly, as determined by Stokes Law, we have

$$F = 6\pi \eta rv$$

- $\eta$ Viscosity of liquid
- $v$ Terminal velocity

Rahaman (2003), p. 209-211
Electrophoresis, Mobility & Zeta Potential $\zeta$ (2)

Continue from previous page

$$F = qE \quad F = 6\pi \eta rv$$

Therefore, $qE = 6\pi \eta rv$

Mobility $u = \frac{v}{E} = \frac{q}{6\pi \eta r}$ which can be measured

Zeta Potential

As a charged particle moves in solution due to electrophoresis, it will drag solution and certain counter ions with it. The electrical potential at the slippage plane or plane of shear, i.e., the plane along which particle with adsorbed solution and ions actually moves, is called zeta potential $\zeta$

Generally, $\zeta = \frac{1}{f_{kr}} \cdot \frac{u \eta}{\varepsilon \varepsilon_0}$

For concentrated solution with $1/\kappa < 0.005r$ ($\kappa r > 200$), $f_{kr} = 1$, $\zeta = \frac{u \eta}{\varepsilon \varepsilon_0}$

For very small colloidal or low ionic strength with $1/\kappa > 10r$ ($\kappa r < 0.1$), $f_{kr} = 2/3$, $\zeta = \frac{3u \eta}{2\varepsilon \varepsilon_0}$
Electrical Potential for EDL (3)  
Stern Model & Zeta Potential $\zeta$

- **Stern Model: Stern – Diffuse Bilayer**
  
  Fixed charge on surface balanced by inner closely adsorbed layer and outer diffuse (Gouy) layer.

  Zeta potential $\zeta$ represent surface potential for the **electrokinetic unit** moving through the solution, which is approximated that at the interface between Stern layer and diffuse layer.

- Zeta potential is close to potential at the beginning of diffuse layer potential, $\Phi_d$, but lower than that at particle surface, which is $\Phi_0$.
- Impacts phenomena that depend on electrical double layer.
- Independent of particle size.
- Higher zeta potential corresponds leads to better stability against flocculation, while lower zeta potential leads to fast flocculation.
- At 20 °C, zeta potential of $\approx$25 mV is needed to counter van der Waals attraction.
Example 1: \( \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \) colloidal suspension in water

- Zeta potential \( \zeta \) become more positive when pH decreases while more negative when pH increases
- As solution ionic strength \( I \) (e.g., \([\text{KNO}_3]\)) increases, absolute value of zeta potential \( \zeta \) become smaller

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
Example 2: TiO₂ colloidal suspension in water

- Zeta potential ζ become more positive when pH decreases and more negative when pH increases
- As solution ionic strength $I$ (e.g., $[\text{KNO}_3]$ or $[\text{NaI}]$) increases, absolute value of zeta potential ζ become smaller

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, Fine Particle Technology
Example 3: \( \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \) colloidal suspension with sodium citrate

As citrate ion (potential-determining ion) concentration increases,

- Initially, \( \zeta \) become more negative as more citrate ions adsorb on \( \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \) surface
- After reaching highest value, \( \zeta \) starts to decrease due to higher ionic strength \( I \), which depress Debye length \( 1/\kappa \)

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
Example 4: AgI colloidal suspension in water

- pAg > PZC (pAg~5), \( \zeta < 0 \) due to preferential Ag\(^+\) dissolution (or I\(^-\) adsorption) and AgI surface become negative charged by excess I\(^-\) ions
- pAg < PZC (pAg~5), \( \zeta > 0 \) due to preferential I\(^-\) dissolution (or Ag\(^+\) adsorption) and AgI surface become positive charged by excess Ag\(^+\) ions

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, Fine Particle Technology
Isoelectrical Point (IEP)

Description

- A concept that describes the condition when $\zeta$ zeta potential, which is the electrostatic potential at the plane of shear (or roughly the interface between Stern layer and diffuse layer) is zero.
- Often it is the negative decimal logarithm of the activity of potential-determining ion in solution when the net charge density is zero.
- Usually, $\text{PZC} \approx \text{IEP}$

Rahaman (2003), p. 194-197
Zeta Potential on Structure of Powder Compacts from Colloidal Suspension (1)

- When colloids is not stable due to low zeta potential
  Flocculation/sedimentation happen quickly and the structure formed is loosely packed with high porosity

- When colloids is stable due to high zeta potential
  Flocculation/sedimentation happen very slowly and the structure formed is densely packed with low porosity and often has feature of ordering

Microstructure for powder compact formed from 0.7 μm colloid SiO₂ via centrifugal consolidation
For SiO$_2$, IEP $\approx$ 3-4

- At pH=3.7, zeta potential small, without PVA polymer dispersant, packing density is lower while pore size is larger due to agglomeration of SiO$_2$ colloidal particles.
- At pH=7.3, negative charge on particle surface results in more negative zeta potential and relative high packing density and smaller median pore size.

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
For SiO$_2$, IEP ≈ 3-4

- At pH=4.0, zeta potential ~0, porosity is high while pore size is larger due to severe agglomeration of SiO$_2$ colloidal particles.
- At pH=8.0, negative charge on particle surface results in more negative zeta potential and relative low green porosity and much smaller median pore size.
- At pH=1.0, too high ionic strength leads to compression of EDL and agglomeration and resulting higher porosity and larger pore size.
For $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, IEP ≈ 8-9

- When pH in range of ~7-10, zeta potential absolute value is low, the suspension has severe agglomeration and sediments’ relative porosity is high
- As pH decreases further from ~7 or increases further from ~10, zeta potential absolute value is high, suspension is stable and the sediments relative porosity is low

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
Ways to Achieve Stabilization of (Colloidal) Particle Suspension

- Fine particles in suspension tend to flocculate due to van der Waals forces larger than thermal energy.
- Need to introduce repulsive force between particles to stabilize colloidal particle suspension.
  - **Electrostatic stabilization**
    Repulsion between particles due to electrostatic charges on particle surface.
  - **Steric stabilization**
    Repulsion between particles due to uncharged polymer chains adsorbed on particle surface.
  - **Electrosteric stabilization**
    Combination of electrostatic and steric repulsion.

Rahaman (2003), p. 191
Polymers Structure in Solution

Structure of polymer chain in solution determined by two opposing factors:

- Van der Waals attraction between monomer units → leading to collapse of polymer to a small ball
- Maximization of configurational entropy → leading to outward random spreading of polymer chain

Size of polymer chain

Approximated by the “root-mean-square” end-to-end distance, given by

\[ \langle r^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \sqrt{Nl} \]

- \( N \) Number of (repeating) units in the polymer
- \( l \) Length for a (repeating) unit

Example: \( l = 0.1 \) nm; \( N = 10^4 \), \( \langle r^2 \rangle^{1/2} = 10 \) nm

http://www2.chemistry.msu.edu/faculty/reusch/VirtTxtJml/polymers.htm

Adsorption of Polymers from Solution

- **General configuration**
  Van der Waals force between polymers and particle surface lead to adsorption of polymer on particle surface with “anchor” points and loops/tails extend into solution.

- **Approaches for improved anchoring effects**
  - Use graft/block copolymers
    Some portions/blocks of the polymer has low solubility and attach to particle surface while other portions/blocks extend into solvent.
    - Poly(vinyl pyrrolidone)/polystyrene (PVP/PS)
    - Poly(ethylene oxide)/polystyrene (PEO/PS)
  - Use polymers with polar head groups
    The polar head groups adsorb strongly onto particle surfaces (e.g., via hydrogen bond or acid-base interactions) while the non-polymer tail extend into solvent.
  - Use polymers with function groups that react with surface sites
    E.g., $\text{Si-OH}_{\text{surface}} + X\text{-Si-[CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{]}_n\text{-R} \rightarrow \text{Si-O-Si-[CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{]}_n\text{-R}_{\text{surface}} + \text{HX}$
Suppose $h$ is interparticle distance and $L$ is thickness of adsorbed polymer layer, and $L \approx <r^2>^{1/2}$

- No interaction when $h > 2L$
- Mixing effect when $L < h < 2L$

Adsorbed polymer molecule on one particle start to interpenetrate with adsorbed polymer molecule on another particle $\rightarrow$
This may lead to attraction or repulsion depending on polymer molecule and solvent

- Elastic/entropy effect When $h < L$
Adsorbed polymer molecule become compressed $\rightarrow$
This always lead to repulsion due to decreased entropy (also called volume restriction) effect

- Total interaction energy
Depend on the combination of the two factors: mixing + elastic

Different scenarios

A. No polymer: only van der Waals attraction
B. With low polymer coverage, long-range attraction caused by polymer “bridging” effect → leading to “bridging flocculation
C. With even higher polymer coverage, long-range attraction become weaker while repulsion increases
D. At high coverage, only repulsion

Rahaman (2003), p. 219-220
Solvent “quality” and temperature have effects on steric stabilization

- For a polymer dissolved in solvent:
  - Above certain temperature, total free energy change due to polymer interpenetration is positive, solvent is referred to as “good solvent”, and polymer tend to spread out more.
  - Below certain temperature, total free energy change due to polymer interpenetration is negative, solvent is referred to as “poor solvent”, and polymer tend to coil tightly.
  - That temperature corresponds well with critical flocculation temperature.

Amount of polymer adsorbed on particle surface changes with:

- Polymer concentration: higher concentration leads to more adsorption until saturation.

Example: PVA adsorption on SiO$_2$ in water at pH=3.7 (~IEP)

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, **Fine Particle Technology**
Amount of polymer adsorbed on particle surface changes also with:

- Surface condition: cleaner surface tends to adsorb more polymer
- Molecular weight: higher molecular weight polymer tends to adsorb more

Example: PVA adsorption on SiO$_2$ in water at pH=3.7 (~IEP)

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, Fine Particle Technology
Amount of polymer adsorbed on particle surface changes also with

- Solvent quality: “good” solvent leads to more adsorption of polymer

Example: Non-polar polymer PVB adsorption over $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ in mixed solvents of polar methanol (MEOH) vs. non-polar methanol-Methyl isobutyl ketone (MIBK): as solvent become less polar, solvent become better solvent for PVB and more PVB adsorption on $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ surface

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
Additional Interactions Caused by Unadsorbed Polymers in Free Solution

- **Depletion stabilization**
  Work must be done to drive polymer away from the region between particles, which leads to stabilization.

- **Depletion flocculation**
  When particles become too close that is smaller than polymer cluster size, no polymer exist between particles and solvent between particles tend move to regions with higher polymer concentration, leading to flocculation.

Rahaman (2003), p. 220-222
For SiO$_2$, IEP ≈ 3-4

- At pH=7.3, high negative charge on particle surface and electrostatic stabilization, leading to high packing density and small median pore size.
- At pH=3.7, with PVA polymer dispersant addition, initially, packing density decrease due to more agglomeration via bridging then at high PVA loading, steric stabilization come to play and packing density increases while pore size decreases.

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, Fine Particle Technology
For SiO$_2$, IEP $\approx$ 3-4

- At pH=3.7, with higher molecular weight PVA, the interaction distance $L$ grow longer (e.g., for MW=10$^4$, L $\approx$ 10 nm; MW=10$^5$, L $\approx$ 30 nm), and particles are better stabilized and green density increase significantly while pore size decreases:

- At pH=7.8, more adsorption of polymer/larger polymer size by going to higher molecular weight does not help increase density or decrease pore size much

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MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, Fine Particle Technology
For $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ in organic solvents with non-polar polymer dispersant

- With more polar solvent (e.g., methanol MEOH), PVB polymer pack denser and less dispersion of colloidal suspension and lower powder compact density
- With less polar solvent (e.g., 3:1 of MIBK-MEOH mixture), PVB polymer is more spread out, and better dispersion of colloidal suspension and higher powder compact density

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
Ways to Achieve Stabilization of (Colloidal) Particle Suspension

- Fine particles in suspension tend to flocculate due to van der Waals forces larger than thermal energy
- Need to introduce repulsive force between particles to stabilize colloidal particle suspension
  - **Electrostatic stabilization**
    Repulsion between particles due to electrostatic charges on particle surface
  - **Steric stabilization**
    Repulsion between particles due to uncharged polymer chains adsorbed on particle surface
  - **Electrosteric stabilization**
    Combination of electrostatic and steric repulsion

Rahaman (2003), p. 191
Dissociation of Polyelectrolytes in Solution

- **Polyelectrolyte dissociates in solvents**
  - Example
    - Poly methacrylic acid (PMAA)
      - The –COOH group may exist as acid group or dissociate and release H\(^+\) and form charged group of –COO\(^-\), which make PMAA anionic polyelectrolyte

- **Extent of dissociation depends on pH and salt concentration**
  - Example
    - For PMAA, the higher the pH or higher Na salt concentration, the higher the extent of dissociation → the larger the polymer molecule cluster in solution

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poly(methacrylic_acid)

For PMAAA solution

Cesarano, J Am Ceram Soc 1988, p250

Rahaman (2003), p. 223-224
Electrostatic interaction leads to adsorption of polyelectrolytes from solution onto (charge) ceramic particle surface

Example
- $\alpha$-Al$_2$O$_3$ develops positive charge in pH of $<\sim 9$ while PMAA dissociates to form negatively charged group at pH of 3.5-8.5, leading to electrostatic attraction.
  - The lower the pH, the polyelectrolyte become smaller and pack more dense, and more polymer is needed to form adsorbed monolayer (saturation)

For PMAA solution
Cesarano, J Am Ceram Soc 1988, p250
Example: Al$_2$O$_3$ (2 vol.% in water) colloidal solution with PMAA-Na

- As PMAA-Na electrolyte concentration increases, the Al$_2$O$_3$ particle selectively adsorb more negatively charged PMAA, and zeta potential changed from positive to negative.

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
Common Polyelectrolytes

**Weak polyacids**

- poly(acrylic acid)
- poly(methacrylic acid)
- carboxymethylcellulose
- vinyl alkyl ether-maleic acid copolymers

**Strong polyacids**

- poly(ethylenesulfonic acid)
- partially sulfated poly(vinyl alcohol) (sometimes called poly(vinyl alcohol sulfate) to denote residual unesterified -OH groups)
- poly(styrenesulfonic acid)
- poly(vinylphosphonic acid)

**Polybases**

- poly(vinylamine)
- poly(ethyleneimine)
- poly(4-vinylpyridine)
- poly(4-vinyl-N-alkylpyridinium halides)

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
Stability of Electrosterically Stabilized Solution

Stability depends on multiple factors

- Polyelectrolyte concentration
  - If too low, not enough electrosteric effect while bridging might actually cause flocculation
  - At higher concentration, electrostatic repulsion at larger inter-particle distance and steric repulsion at shorter distance

- Solution pH
  - pH impacts the extent of polyelectrolyte dissociation and surface charge state of the ceramic particles
Rheology of Colloidal Suspension

Rheology

- “Study of the flow of matter, primarily in a liquid state, but also as 'soft solids' or solids under conditions in which they respond with plastic flow rather than deforming elastically in response to an applied force”
  

- (Plastic) deformation and flow characteristics of (liquid or soft) material in response to stress

Importance of rheology

- Key characteristics of colloidal suspension
- Parameter for quality control and/or process optimization
Basic Concept for Rheology

- **Rheological properties often measured from simple shear experiments**

  Define
  
  $\tau$  Shear stress
  $\gamma$  Shear strain
  $\dot{\gamma}$  Shear strain rate or shear velocity
  $\eta$  Viscosity

  We have $\tau = \eta \dot{\gamma}$

- **Classification of fluid**
  
  - Newtonian - viscosity of fluid is a constant
  - Non-Newtonian – viscosity of fluid changes with shear strain rate
Newtownian Behavior

**Newtownian fluid**
- Linear relationship between shear stress and shear strain rate
- Viscosity does not change with shear strain rate (under normal condition)

![Graph showing linear relationship between shear stress (τ) and strain rate (γ̇)](image)

- Examples:
  - Water
  - Alcohol
  - Some molten oxides
  - Well dispersed colloidal suspension
Non-Newtownian Behaviors (1)

- **Shear thickening or dilatant**
  Viscosity increases with increasing shear strain rate
  Examples: High concentration suspension of small equiaxial particles

- **Shear thinning or pseudoplastic**
  Viscosity decreases with increasing shear strain rate
  Example: ketchup, paint
Non-Newtownnian Behaviors (2)

- **Plastic or Bingham**
  Elastic solid at low stress but flows as a viscous liquid after certain yield stress

- **Pseudoplastic with a yield stress**
  Viscosity decreases with increasing shear strain rate but with yield stress
Summary of Rheological Behaviors

- **Different behaviors**
  - Shear thickening – Undesirable
  - Plastic (Bingham) – Desirable
  - Pseudo plastic – Acceptable

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Viscosity
Surface Charge/Zeta Potential Effect on Colloidal Suspension Rheology (1)

For SiO$_2$, IEP = ~3.7

Viscosity behavior changes with pH

- pH=4.0, very little charge on particle surface, particles tend to agglomerate and show plastic or shear thinning behavior
- pH of ~6.3-9.0, OH$^-$ adsorb on particle surface leading to electrostatic stabilization, and suspension viscosity decreases and gradually transform to Newtonian behavior
- pH > >10, too high ionic strength leads to reduction in Debye length and suspension starts to agglomerate again with viscosity increase

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
For Al$_2$O$_3$, IEP ≈ 8-9

- When pH is in range of ~7-10, suspension has severe agglomeration and viscosity is high
- As pH decreases further from ~7 or increases further from ~10, suspension viscosity decreases due to stable dispersion
- As pH decrease further from ~4 or increase further from ~12, viscosity increases due to too high ionic strength

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
For SiO$_2$, IEP = ~3-4

- At pH=3.7, very little charge on particle surface, particles tend to agglomerate
  - With no dispersant, and show plastic or shear thinning behavior
  - With low PVA addition, bridging happen leading to agglomeration and shear thinning.
  - When more PVA is added to achieve “monolayer coverage”, particles become well dispersed due to Steric stabilization and behave like Newtonian fluid
- At pH=7.3, high negative charge develop on particle surface, and suspension is stable and show Newtonian behavior

MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, *Fine Particle Technology*
For SiO$_2$, IEP = ~3-4

- At pH=3.7, very little charge on particle surface, particles tend to agglomerate
  - With increasing PVA molecular weight, particles become better dispersed and viscosity decreases and display Newtonian behavior
  - As PVA molecular weight increases to too high, viscosity increases again and display shear thinning behavior again
For $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ in organic solvents with PVB dispersant

- When using methanol as solvent, solvent quality low and $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ selectively covered by solvent and not polymer, leading to poor dispersion and high viscosity even up to high polymer loading.
- When using methanol-methyl-isobutyl ketone mixed solvent, $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ surface become selectively covered by PVB polymer and suspension is stable and show Newtonian behavior even at very little polymer loading.
As particles become better dispersed via adding more polyelectrolytes, the viscosity decreases.

Too much polyelectrolyte leads to viscosity increase.

![Graph showing the effect of PAA on viscosity](image)
Solid Loading Effect on Colloidal Suspension Rheology

- As solid loading increases, viscosity increases
  
  Example: SiO2 colloidal suspension in water

![Graph showing the effect of solid loading on viscosity](image-url)
Particle Shape Effect on Colloidal Suspension Rheology

Particle shape

“A suspension of anisotropic particles usually has a higher viscosity compared to suspension of spherical particles at the same solids volume”

Reason

“Rotation of anisotropic particles produces greater perturbations… and, hence, enhanced energy dissipation”

Example

Compared with spherical particles, whiskers with axial ratio of ~20, the viscosity almost double and the effect is even more significant as aspect ratio increases further

Rahaman (2003), 241-243
MD Sacks, (2001), Classnotes, Fine Particle Technology
Comparing of single mode, bi-modal or continuous particle size distribution leads to reduced viscosity at the same solid loading.

Rahaman (2003), 241-242

Small: 129 nm PMMA
Large: 823 nm PMMA
Homework

- Due Nov 6
- Read textbook and slides carefully and given statements confirm reading
- Explain in your own words all the features in the following plots for Al2O3 colloidal in water

![Graph 1: Zeta Potential vs pH](image1.png)

![Graph 2: Porosity vs pH](image2.png)
Homework

- Explain in your own words all the features in the following plots for SiO2 colloidal in water with PVA dispersant.