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Density functional theory study on the electronic structure of \( n \)- and \( p \)-type doped SrTiO\(_3\) at anodic solid oxide fuel cell conditions

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The electronic conductivity and thermodynamic stability of mixed \( n \)-type and \( p \)-type doped SrTiO\(_3\) have been investigated at anodic solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC) conditions using density functional theory (DFT) calculations. In particular, constrained \textit{ab initio} thermodynamic calculations have been performed to evaluate the phase stability and reducibility of various Nb- and Ga-doped SrTiO\(_3\) at synthesized and anodic SOFC conditions. The density of states (DOS) of these materials was analyzed to study the effects of \( n \)- and \( p \)-doping on the electronic conductivity. In agreement with experimental observations, we find that the transformation from 20\% Nb-doped Sr-deficient SrTiO\(_3\) to a non-Sr-deficient phase occurs at high temperature and low oxygen partial pressure, which leads to a significant improvement in electronic conductivity. A mixed ionic/electronic conductor is obtained when doping 20\% Nb-doped SrTiO\(_3\) with small amounts of Ga (10\%) in a reducing environment and high temperature. Doping with higher concentrations of Ga, e.g., 20\%, diminishes the electronic conductivity of the material. These findings suggest that independent of the specific dopant, mixed ionic/electronic conductivity can be obtained in perovskite oxides under reducing conditions and high temperatures by doping the B-site with small amounts of both \( n \)-type and \( p \)-type dopants.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Although Ni-supported yttria-stabilized zirconia (Ni/YSZ) cermet exhibits very good catalytic activity for fuel oxidation in solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs), it is easily poisoned by small amounts of sulfur impurities in the fuel gas.\(^1\) Moreover, it is prone to sintering\(^2\) and coking when exposed to hydrocarbon fuels.\(^5\) As a result, exploring alternative SOFC anode materials to replace Ni/YSZ has become a crucial subject for the development of SOFC technology. Of the novel anode catalysts, perovskite-based materials have been shown to satisfy most intrinsic SOFC anode requirements such as high mixed ionic/electronic conductivity, good catalytic activity, and high thermodynamic stability at anodic conditions.\(^5\)–\(^12\)

Furthermore, perovskite-based materials possess high resistance to sulfur impurities\(^13\)–\(^15\) and coke formation\(^6\)–\(^16\),\(^17\) since both sulfur and carbon species can easily be oxidized at the surface of the perovskite oxide.\(^18\)

Among the numerous perovskite systems that have been explored, SrTiO\(_3\)-based perovskites have been widely used as alternative SOFC anode materials.\(^8\)–\(^9\),\(^14\),\(^19\) Indeed, several research groups have reported that SrTiO\(_3\)-based perovskites exhibit some advantages over Ni/YSZ anode catalysts, such as promising mixed ionic/electronic conductivity, adequate thermodynamic stability in a wide range of oxygen partial pressure, and tolerance to sulfur impurities as well as coke formation.\(^9\),\(^13\)–\(^15\)

Moreover, it has been found that yttrium-doped SrTiO\(_3\) (SYT) possesses a thermal expansion coefficient compatible with that of YSZ and Lanthanum Strontium Gallium Magnesium Oxide (LSGM)-based electrolytes.\(^9\)

However, stoichiometric SrTiO\(_3\) is a band insulator with a band gap of 3.2 eV.\(^20\) Therefore, various dopants have been introduced to improve the electronic conductivity of this material. It is well known that doping the material with either \( n \)- or \( p \)-type dopants can enhance the degree of electronic conduction.\(^21\)–\(^25\) For example, the transformation from an insulating state to a metallic state has been observed when doping SrTiO\(_3\) with \( n \)-type impurities such as La, Y, and Nb.\(^14\),\(^26\)–\(^28\) In addition theoretical studies have suggested that substituting Ti with \( n \)-type dopants can shift the Fermi level into the conduction band making the system metallic.\(^23\),\(^29\)

It is well known that the substitution of \( n \)-type dopants in the SrTiO\(_3\) lattice generates a defect with an effective positive charge in the host lattice. Overall electroneutrality of the lattice can be achieved by two different mechanisms, namely, electronic compensation and cation-vacancy compensation.\(^30\)–\(^32\) At low oxygen chemical potential, the formal charges of \( n \)-type dopants are electronically compensated by creating conduction electrons that travel along the Ti–O–Ti bridge where Ti remains mixed-valent Ti\(^{3+}/\text{Ti}^{4+}\).\(^33\) This electron-transferring process is considered to be the origin of the electronic conductivity of the material.\(^34\) On the other hand at higher oxygen chemical potential the excess positive charge can be compensated by generating Sr\(^{2+}\) cation vacancies.\(^35\) This type of electron compensation provides no conduction electrons and there is no improvement in electronic conductivity. For example, Kolodiazhnyi and Petr\(c\)\(^26\) found that TiO\(_2\) and niobium oxide second phases were formed when sintering the Sr\(_{1-x/2}\)Ti\(_{1-x}\)Nb\(_x\)O\(_3\) (\( x = 0.17\) ) at low oxygen partial pressure and high temperature. This transformation can be expressed with the following equation:

\[
\text{Sr}_{1-x/2}\text{Ti}_{1-x}\text{Nb}_x\text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{Sr}_{1-x}\text{Ti}_{1-x-y}\text{Nb}_{x-y}\text{O}_{3-4y} + y\text{TiO}_2 + y\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5 ,
\]

where \( y < x < 0.2 \).

Furthermore, they observed a very high electronic conductivity of Sr\(_{0.9}\)Ti\(_{0.3}\)Nb\(_{0.4}\)O\(_3\) and Sr\(_{0.88}\)Y\(_{0.08}\)Ti\(_3\)O\(_7\) when these samples were sintered in forming gas.\(^28\)
In contrast to \( n \)-type doping, \( p \)-type dopants create an effective negative charge in the lattice. One way to neutralize the charge is introducing oxygen vacancies in the lattice. This mechanism of charge neutralization can take place at moderate oxygen chemical potentials and does generally not lead to improved electronic conductivity since there is no transfer of charges or electrons into the lattice. However, lowering the oxygen chemical potential can result in more oxygen vacancies, leading to an excess electron density in the lattice. The reduction reaction takes place at the surface of the material and delivers electrons to the lattice,

\[
O^\circ_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 (g) + V^\circ_O + 2e^-.
\]  

(2)

These conduction electrons can often be transferred to neighboring atoms such as Ti, which can be mixed-valent Ti\(^{3+}/Ti^{4+}\). As a result, the electrical conductivity of the material is again improved.

The addition of \( p \)-type impurities not only improves the electronic conductivity but also enhances the ionic conductivity by increasing the reducibility and number of oxygen vacancies in the material. Furthermore, the amount of available oxygen vacancies plays an essential role in the enhancement of the oxide ion diffusivity \( (D_{O^\circ}) \) in the lattice as evidenced by the following equation:

\[
D_{O^\circ} = \beta [V_o] a^2 v_o e^{-\Delta H_m/RT},
\]  

(3)

where \([V_o]\) is the concentration of mobile vacancies; \(a\) is the cell parameter; \(v_o\) is a characteristic lattice frequency; \(\Delta H_m\) is the enthalpy of vacancy migration; \(T\) is temperature; \(R\) is the ideal gas constant; and \(\beta = \frac{f e^{\Delta S_m/R}}{2}\) is a function of the entropy of ion migration \(\Delta S_m\), and a correction factor \(f\) \((\approx 1)\). It is noted that the mobile vacancy concentration is usually smaller than the stoichiometric concentration due to vacancy trapping or vacancy ordering.\(^{38,39}\)

Recently, various research groups reported that the catalytic activity and mixed ionic/electronic conductivity of \( n \)-type doped SrTiO\(_3\) can be modified by \( B \)-site doping with \( p \)-type impurities such as Sc, Mn, and Ga.\(^{40}\) For example, Li et al.\(^{41,42}\) suggested that doping with Sc and Co at the \( B \)-site of La\(_{0.3}\)Sr\(_{0.7}\)TiO\(_3\) can improve its ionic conductivity. Similarly, Xiao et al.\(^{45}\) and Neagu and Irvine\(^{44}\) proposed a similar doping strategy to improve the conductivity of \( n \)-type doped SrTiO\(_3\) by enhancing bulk oxide ion mobility. In particular, they studied the effects of Ga dopants on the reducibility and conductivity of \( n \)-type doped SrTiO\(_3\) systems by varying the concentration of Ga. They found that Ga doping promotes fast reduction and improves the phase stability of the material in an oxidizing environment. Impressive improvements in total conductivity were observed when doping with small amounts of Ga.

It is the objective of this theoretical study to further investigate the effect of concurrent \( n \)- and \( p \)-doping on the number of oxygen vacancies and the electronic conductivity of SrTiO\(_3\) perovskites. In particular, we performed density functional theory (DFT) calculations of Nb- and Ga-doped SrTiO\(_3\) and analyzed the electronic structure of the resulting materials. To evaluate the thermodynamic stability of doped SrTiO\(_3\) phases at synthesized and anodic SOFC conditions, we furthermore performed constrained \textit{ab initio} thermodynamic simulations.

**II. COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS**

**A. Crystallographic data of SrTiO\(_3\)**

Stoichiometric SrTiO\(_3\) develops an ideal cubic perovskite structure at room temperature with \( Pm\bar{3}m \) space group. The structural phase transition from cubic to tetragonal and to orthorhombic occurs at 110 and 65 K, respectively.\(^{45}\) The cubic unit cell includes one molecular unit of SrTiO\(_3\). As shown in Fig. 1(a), the structure contains 12-coordinated strontium ions occupying corner positions of the cube, whereas the titanium ion, at the center of the cubic cell, is surrounded by six oxygen ions forming a TiO\(_6\) octahedral unit. The octahedral units are connected by a sharing Ti–O–Ti bridge, forming a three-dimensional framework.

**B. Computational method**

To investigate the bulk electronic properties of stoichiometric and doped SrTiO\(_3\), we initially optimized the lattice parameter of the SrTiO\(_3\) unit cell and created a 100 atom supercell containing twenty unit cells (5 × 2 × 2). To generate doped structures we replaced \( B \)-site cations (Ti) with various amounts of \( n \)-type (Nb) and \( p \)-type (Ga) dopants. Substitution of two Ti atoms with two dopants yields 10\% \( B \)-site doped SrTiO\(_3\), etc. In order to better understand the charge compensation mechanism in \( n \)- and \( p \)-type doped systems, both \( A \)-site deficient and reduced structures were created by generating strontium vacancies and
oxygen vacancies, respectively. In this study we considered up to two strontium vacancies and three oxygen vacancies in each structure. For all doped structures, we employed the lattice parameter of 20% Nb-doped SrTiO3 and tried close to all ion position possibilities to identify the lowest energy structures.

All calculations performed for this study are based on the plane wave DFT implementation of the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP 4.6).46,47 We used the projector-augmented wave (PAW) method to represent the inner core potentials46 and treated the Sr 4s4p5s, Ti 3d4s, O 2s2p, Nb 4p5s4d, and Ga 4s4p as valence electrons. The cutoff of the kinetic energy was set for all calculations to 400 eV. Exchange correlation is described within the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) with the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional.48 All calculations are spin-polarized, and Brillouin zone integration was performed with a 2 × 5 × 5 Monkhorst-Pack k-point mesh.49 For density of state (DOS) calculations we used a 4 × 10 × 10 k-mesh. In all structure optimizations, all atoms are fully relaxed until the Hellman-Feynman forces are less than 0.02 eV Å⁻¹.

Our calculated stoichiometric SrTiO3 bulk unit cell has an optimized lattice constant of 3.948 Å, which is in reasonable agreement to the experimental value of 3.90 Å.50 The optimized supercell of 20% Nb-doped SrTiO3 exhibits only a very small change in lattice parameters (3.949 Å) to that of stoichiometric SrTiO3. Computations predict a Sr-O and Ti-O bond distance of 2.792 and 1.974 Å, respectively. As illustrated in Fig. 1(b), the DOS of stoichiometric SrTiO3 exhibits insulating behavior with a band gap of 1.80 eV. It should be noted that while DFT within the GGA approximation is known to underestimate band gaps, several studies showed excellent agreement in the predicted electronic behavior of doped oxides computed by DFT within the GGA approximation and experimental observation.51-53

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this work we are most interested in the electronic properties of n- and p-type doped SrTiO3. Kolodiazhnyi and Petric28 observed experimentally that Sr0.9Ti0.8Nb0.2O3 exhibits a very high conductivity at low oxygen chemical potential, and Xiao et al.53 suggested that the reducibility of this material can be promoted by doping with a certain (small) amount of p-type dopant (Ga). Therefore, we performed three different sets of calculations based on the concentration of B-site dopants, i.e., 20% Nb-doped SrTiO3, 10% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO3, and 20% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO3. In this way we can systematically study the effect of Ga (p-type) doping on Nb (n-type) doped SrTiO3 on the reducibility/phase stability and electronic conductivity/DOS of the resulting materials.

For all structures we first performed constrained ab initio thermodynamic calculations to evaluate the relative thermodynamic stability of the systems. This ab initio thermodynamic approach allows us to calculate the free energy of different systems as a function of oxygen chemical potential, i.e., temperature and oxygen partial pressure, and to construct phase diagrams. The reaction energies of the most dominant structures in the phase diagrams are summarized in Table I. Next, the DOS related to the most dominant structures in the phase diagrams are summarized in Table I. Figures of all structures found most stable at a specific oxygen chemical potential and the stoichiometry and reaction energy of all structures considered can be found in the supporting information.54

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase diagram</th>
<th>Reaction</th>
<th>ΔE (eV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nb2O5/NbO2</td>
<td>Nb2O3 → 2Nb2O5 + 1/2O2</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20% Nb-doped</td>
<td>Sr20Ti14Nb6O58 + 1/2O2 → Sr19Ti16Nb6O58 + SrO</td>
<td>–1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SrTiO3 with SrO-rich phase</td>
<td>Sr20Ti16Nb6O58 + O2 → Sr19Ti16Nb6O58 + 2SrO</td>
<td>–3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20% Nb-doped</td>
<td>19Sr18Ti16Nb4O60 → 18Sr19Ti14Nb4O60 + 16TiO2 + 2Nb2O5 + 9O2</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SrTiO3 with TiO2/nioibium oxide-rich phases</td>
<td>10Sr18Ti14Nb4O60 → 9Sr19Ti16Nb4O60 + 16TiO2 + 2Nb2O5 + 9O2</td>
<td>5.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO3</td>
<td>10Sr18Ti14Nb4O60 + 1/2O2 → Sr19Ti14Nb3Ga4O60 + SrO</td>
<td>–1.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with SrO-rich phase</td>
<td>Sr20Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 → Sr20Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2</td>
<td>4.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO3</td>
<td>10Sr18Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2 → Sr19Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2</td>
<td>14.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20% Nb-doped</td>
<td>10Sr18Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2 → Sr19Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SrTiO3 with TiO2/Ga2O3/nioibium oxide-rich phases</td>
<td>10Sr18Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 → 9Sr19Ti16Nb12Ga3O58 + 14TiO2 + 2Nb2O5 + Ga2O3 + 1/2O2</td>
<td>5.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oxide-rich phases</td>
<td>10Sr18Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2 → Sr19Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2</td>
<td>9.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO3</td>
<td>10Sr18Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2 → Sr19Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SrTiO3 with SrO-rich phase</td>
<td>10Sr18Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2 → Sr19Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2</td>
<td>5.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10% SrTiO3 with SrO-rich phase</td>
<td>10Sr18Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2 → Sr19Ti14Nb12Ga3O58 + 1/2O2</td>
<td>9.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A. Electronic structure and phase diagram of 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$

In this set of calculations we substituted four Ti atoms with four Nb atoms in the $5 \times 2 \times 2$ supercell to obtain a model for 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$ (Sr$_{32}$Ti$_{16}$Nb$_{4}$O$_{60}$ or Sr$_{32}$Ti$_{8}$Nb$_{2}$O$_{32}$). In addition we generated structures with one or two Sr vacancies to create partial (5%) A-site deficient (Sr$_{9}$Ti$_{16}$Nb$_{4}$O$_{60}$ or Sr$_{9.5}$Ti$_{8}$O$_{60}$Nb$_{8}$O$_{3}$) and full (10%) A-site deficient 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$ (Sr$_{18}$Ti$_{16}$Nb$_{4}$O$_{60}$ or Sr$_{9.9}$Ti$_{8}$O$_{60}$Nb$_{8}$O$_{3}$) model structures, respectively. From the configuration of the most stable structures, we observe that Nb impurities prefer to be as far apart as possible due to the repulsion of the extra electrons from the Nb$^{3+}$ cations that can be transferred to neighboring Ti atoms that are mixed-valent Ti$^{3+}$/Ti$^{4+}$. In contrast when there are Sr vacancies in the structure, Nb prefers to stay close to the vacancies since the charges originating from the Nb atoms can be compensated by the absence of the Sr$^{2+}$ cations. Moreover, it was found that the Sr-vacancy sites stay apart from each other in structures with more than one vacancy (see supplementary material for the structures, Fig. S1).$^{54}$

Constrained $ab$ initio thermodynamic calculations of 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$ systems were performed to determine the phase stability of these structures at various temperatures and oxygen partial pressures. We employed two different types of calculations based on the main products that were generated when the phase transition occurred. First, we calculated the free energies of 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$ with a SrO-rich second phase experimentally obtained by cooling SrTi$_{0.8}$Nb$_{0.2}$O$_3$,

$$
\text{Sr}_{20}\text{Ti}_{16}\text{Nb}_4\text{O}_{60} + \frac{x}{2}\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Sr}_{20-x}\text{Ti}_{16}\text{Nb}_4\text{O}_{60} + x\text{SrO},
$$

(4)

where $x$ represents the number of Sr-vacancy sites in the structure ($x = 1, 2$), and free energies are given by

$$
\Delta G = E_{\text{Sr-vacancy}} + xE_{\text{SrO}} - E_{\text{full}} - x[E_O + \Delta\mu_O(T, P)],
$$

(5)

with $E_{\text{Sr-vacancy}}$ being the DFT-calculated electronic energy of the structure with Sr-vacancy, $E_{\text{full}}$ is the DFT-calculated electronic energy of the structure without Sr-vacancy, $E_{\text{SrO}}$ is the DFT-calculated electronic energy of the SrO lattice, and $E_O$ is half of the energy of an oxygen molecule $E_{O_2}$, which is obtained from the H$_2$O splitting reaction using the experimental reaction energy and calculated DFT energies of H$_2$ and H$_2$O in the gas phase,$^{55,56}$

$$
E_{O_2} = 2\left[(E_{\text{H}_2})_{\text{DFT}} + E_{\text{H}_2}^{\text{ZPE}}\right] - E_{\text{H}_2},
$$

(6)

where $E_{\text{ZPE}}$ is the experimental zero point energy,$^{57}$ $E_{\text{H}_2}^{\text{ZPE}}$ is the experimental heat of formation of a gas-phase H$_2$O molecule,$^{57}$ and $E_{\text{DFT}}$ is the energy calculated with PBE functional. The chemical potential of O, which includes the temperature- and pressure-dependent free energy contributions of the O$_2$ molecule, is described by $\Delta\mu_O(T, P)$ and has been calculated from first principles and the rotational, translational, and vibrational partition functions of the O$_2$ molecule. We note that we neglect all zero point energies in Eq. (5) and assume that entropic contributions from the solids to the free energy difference are insignificant.$^{58-60}$ Also, the pressure dependence of $\Delta\mu_O(T, P)$ is obtained assuming that the gas phase is ideal,$^{59}$

$$
\Delta\mu_O(T, P) = \frac{1}{2}\left(\Delta\mu_O(T, P^0) + k_BT\ln\left(\frac{P}{P_0}\right)\right),
$$

(7)

Next, we employed the same $ab$ initio thermodynamic approach to investigate the thermodynamic stability of 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$ with TiO$_2$ and niobium oxide-rich second phases that can experimentally be obtained by heating Sr-deficient 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$. Considering that Nb$_2$O$_5$ can be reduced to NbO$_2$ in a reducing environment at high temperature,$^{61}$ we first performed $ab$ initio thermodynamic calculations of the Nb$_2$O$_5$/NbO$_2$ system

$$
\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5 \rightarrow 2\text{NbO}_2 + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2,
$$

(8)

and Fig. 2 illustrates that at low temperature Nb$_2$O$_5$ is the dominant phase whereas the NbO$_2$ phase predominates at higher temperatures.

In the following we performed $ab$ initio thermodynamic calculations of the Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$ system according to the dominant phase in the Nb$_2$O$_5$/NbO$_2$ phase diagram, i.e., whenever the NbO$_2$ phase is preferred we calculate the free energies of the system according to Eq. (9),

$$
(20 - x)\text{Sr}_{18}\text{Ti}_{16}\text{Nb}_4\text{O}_{60} \\
\rightarrow 18\text{Sr}_{20-x}\text{Ti}_{16}\text{Nb}_4\text{O}_{60} + (32 - 16x)\text{TiO}_2 + (4 - 2x)\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_3 + (18 - 9x)\text{O}_2,
$$

(9)

and whenever NbO$_2$ is preferred, we calculate the free energies of the system according to Eq. (10),

$$
(20 - x)\text{Sr}_{18}\text{Ti}_{16}\text{Nb}_4\text{O}_{60} \\
\rightarrow 18\text{Sr}_{20-x}\text{Ti}_{16}\text{Nb}_4\text{O}_{60} + (32 - 16x)\text{TiO}_2 + (8 - 4x)\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_3 + (20 - 10x)\text{O}_2,
$$

(10)

where $x$ is the number of Sr vacancies with $x = 0.1$. Figure 3 shows the calculated phase diagrams of 20%
Fig. 3. (Color online) Calculated phase diagram of 20% Nb-doped SrTiO₃ with (a) SrO-rich phase and (b) TiO₂/niobium oxide-rich phases. Differently shaded areas mark the stability regions of various structures for a given temperature and partial pressure of oxygen. The hatched area describes possible changes in the phase diagram if computed reaction energies shown in Table I are off by ±0.2 eV (our estimated error bar). Green, yellow, and red areas symbolize stability of Sr₀.₉Ti₀.₈Nb₀.₂O₃, Sr₀.₉₅Ti₀.₈Nb₀.₂O₃, and SrTiO₃, respectively.

Fig. 4. Density of states of (a) Sr₀.₉Ti₀.₈Nb₀.₂O₃, (b) Sr₀.₉₅Ti₀.₈Nb₀.₂O₃, and (c) SrTiO₃. Fermi energy is set to zero on energy scale. Numbers of electrons shown in the figure indicate the integrated number of electrons per supercell for the specified DOS area, i.e., states below the Fermi level.

It is interesting to note that the simulation results are in agreement with experimental observations from Kolodiazhnyi and Petric. They reported that the transformation of cation vacancy compensated materials to electronically compensated materials (and corresponding change in electronic conductivity) occurred when the materials were equilibrated at high temperature and low oxygen partial pressure. This condition corresponds to anodic SOFC conditions with temperatures between 1000 and 1200 K and oxygen partial pressures in the range of 10⁻¹⁰⁻¹⁵ bar.

B. Electronic structure and phase diagram of 10% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO₃

Substitution of two Ti atoms with two Ga atoms in our 20% Nb-doped SrTiO₃ model leads to 10% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO₃. The presence of Sr and oxygen vacancies in the structure was investigated in a similar manner, as described previously. It is found that Ga atoms prefer to be next to Nb atoms since the extra electron from the Nb dopant can be compensated by the electron hole generated from the Ga dopant (see also supporting information, Fig. S2). At high temperatures and low oxygen partial pressure oxygen vacancies start to form. The first oxygen vacancy is created by removing an oxygen atom from the Ga–O–Ti bridge forming GaO₅ units, whereas the second vacancy is positioned next to the same Ga atom generating a GaO₄ unit. Upon removal of the third oxygen atom another GaO₅ unit is formed in our unit.
FIG. 5. (Color online) Calculated phase diagram of 10% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$ with (a) SrO-rich phase and (b) TiO$_2$/Ga$_2$O$_3$/niobium oxide-rich phases. Differently shaded areas mark the stability regions of various structures for a given temperature and partial pressure of oxygen. The hatched area describes possible changes in the phase diagram if computed reaction energies shown in Table I are off by ±0.2 eV (our estimated error bar). Blue, green, yellow, and red areas symbolize stability of Sr$_{0.95}$Ti$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{3}$, Sr$_{0.95}$Ti$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{3}$, Sr$_{0.95}$Ti$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{2.9}$, and Sr$_{0.95}$Ti$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{2.85}$, respectively. The hatched violet area symbolizes the possible stability of a SrTi$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{2.95}$ phase.

cell. It is noteworthy that we find structures with neighboring Ga atoms to be significantly less stable.

FIG. 6. Density of states of (a) Sr$_{0.95}$Ti$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{3}$, (b) SrTi$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{2.95}$, (c) SrTi$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{2.85}$, (d) SrTi$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{2.85}$, and (e) SrTi$_{0.7}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.1}$O$_{2.85}$. Fermi energy is set to zero on energy scale. Numbers of electrons shown in the figure indicate the integrated number of electrons per supercell for the specified DOS area, i.e., states in the band gap and states below the Fermi level.
C. Electronic structure and phase diagram of 20% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$

Replacing another two Ti atoms with Ga atoms in 10% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$ we obtain a model for 20% Ga- and 20% Nb-doped SrTiO$_3$. The most stable structures in this set of calculations have Ga atoms close to Nb atoms. Up to three oxygen vacancies were generated in this structure to study the effect of reducing conditions. It is preferable to create the first two oxygen vacancies at the Ga–O–Ti bridge where two vacancies share the same Ga atom forming a GaO$_3$ unit, whereas the third oxygen vacancy is again positioned at a Ga–O–Ti bridge forming a GaO$_5$ unit (see supporting information for the structures, Fig. S3).$^{54}$

Constrained $ab$ initio thermodynamic calculations of this system were carried out to determine the phase stability at various temperatures and oxygen partial pressures. In some respects the phase transition of this system is quite similar to that of the 10% Ga-doped system. In particular, the presence of a reduced phase of both the 10 and 20% Ga-doped systems occurs at approximately the same temperature and oxygen partial pressure range, indicating that increasing the concentration of Ga does not significantly improve the reducibility of the material. However, the phase diagram of the 20% Ga-doped system shown in Fig. 8 displays no Sr-deficient phase (i.e., there are no SrO or TiO$_2$/Ga$_2$O$_3$/niobium oxide-rich second phases). Furthermore, we observe from the DOS (Fig. 9) a reduction in the electronic conductivity with increase in Ga doping. As shown in Figs. 9(c) and 9(d), the DOS of SrTi$_{0.8}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.2}$O$_{2.9}$ and SrTi$_{0.6}$Nb$_{0.2}$Ga$_{0.2}$O$_{2.85}$ exhibit only two conduction electrons at the Fermi level. It seems that doping with 20% Ga (and 20% Nb) and removing the first oxygen atom in our supercell leads to a compensation of the hole-doping effect of two Ga atoms and generation of two conduction electrons from two uncompensated Nb atoms at the Fermi level [Fig. 9(b)]. In contrast, removing one or two more oxygen atoms from the supercell leads to localized electrons observed in an extra peak in the DOS between the valence and conduction band and no compensation of the hole-doping effect of the remaining two Ga atoms, and thus, no increase in charge carrier density [Figs. 9(c) and 9(d)]. Interestingly, creating a fourth oxygen vacancy under very reducing conditions (usually not encountered in SOFC operation and therefore not included in the phase diagram) leads again to a full compensation of the hole-doping effect of all four Ga atoms and generation of four conduction electrons from the four Nb atoms at the Fermi level (see supporting information, Fig. S4).$^{54}$ Thus, while doping with 20% Ga improves the ionic conductivity, the electronic conductivity of the material is likely diminished under realistic fuel cell operating conditions.
IV. CONCLUSIONS

We have investigated the electronic properties and thermodynamic stability of Nb (n-type) and Ga (p-type) doped SrTiO₃ perovskites using DFT and constrained *ab initio* thermodynamic simulations. We find that cation vacancy compensated 20% Nb-doped Sr-deficient SrTiO₃ (Sr₉₀,Ti₈₅,Nb₂₀₂O₃) transforms to an electronically compensated non-Sr-deficient phase (Sr₉₀,Nb₂₀₂O₃) at high temperature and low oxygen partial pressure, which leads to a significant improvement in electronic conductivity. This result is in excellent agreement with the defect chemistry model and experimental observations reported by Kolodiazhnyi and Petric. Doping 20% Nb-doped SrTiO₃ with 10% Ga enhances the ionic conductivity of the material by creating oxygen vacancies. The electronic conductivity is not reduced by small amounts of Ga so that a mixed ionic/electronic conductor is formed. However, doping with 20% Ga decreases the electronic conductivity of the material. This result supports the experimental observations that doping with a small amount of Ga improves the conductivity and promotes fast reduction of the material. From both experimental observations and our calculations, we propose that a mixed *n*-and *p*-type doping strategy could be a general approach to obtaining mixed ionic/electronic conductivity in perovskite oxide materials.

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