

ANALYSIS OF SYNTHESIS AND EFFECT OF TITANIUM DOPING IN COBALT FERRITE

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Article Received: 05 November 2025

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Article Revised: 25 November 2025

Assistant Professor, Department of Mechanical Engineering, Khwaja

Published on: 15 December 2025

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DOI: <https://doi-doi.org/101555/ijrpa.6696>

ABSTRACT

Cobalt ferrite (CoFe_2O_4) may have its structural, magnetic, and electrical/dielectric characteristics tailored for advanced applications by substituting titanium (Ti^+). The literature on $\text{Co}_{2+x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_{2-2x}\text{O}_4$ (or $\text{Co}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$, depending on stoichiometry) systems is examined in this review, along with different synthesis techniques (such as sol–gel auto combustion, solid-state reaction, thin-film deposition) and the effects of Ti content on lattice parameters, cation distribution, microstructure, magnetic parameters (saturation magnetisation, coercivity, anisotropy), and electrical/dielectric behaviour. Examined are mechanisms such cation redistribution, strain, and charge compensation. The study also identifies contradictory patterns in several investigations and suggests future lines of inquiry to maximise Ti-doped cobalt ferrite for use in spintronics, memory, and high-frequency devices.

KEYWORDS: Cobalt ferrite, Titanium doping, Spinel ferrite, Sol–gel, Solid-state reaction.

INTRODUCTION

Distinguished for its high coercivity, modest saturation magnetisation, chemical stability, and magnetocrystalline anisotropy, cobalt ferrite (CoFe_2O_4) is a well-known spinel ferrite with an inverted spinel structure [1]. Because of these characteristics, CoFe_2O_4 may be used in a variety of applications, including magnetoelectric composites, actuators, sensors, and magnetic recording. Substitution of ions (doping) at the A (tetrahedral) or B (octahedral) sites has been extensively investigated as a way to further adjust the characteristics of cobalt ferrite. Titanium (Ti^+) is one of the most intriguing potential dopants because: (i) it is non-

magnetic, which dilutes magnetic interactions; (ii) its charge (4^+) and ionic radius differ from Co^{2+} or Fe^{3+} , causing strain, defects, or a change in cation distribution; and (iii) it can significantly modify electrical conductivity and dielectric behaviour via charge compensation mechanisms.

The manufacture methods and the impact of Ti^+ doping on the structural, magnetic, and electrical/dielectric characteristics of cobalt ferrite are reviewed in this work. We look at how different research show distinct trends based on processing circumstances, Ti content, and synthesis techniques. Along with identifying gaps in the research and potential future paths, we also talk about the basic processes behind these shifts. Table 1 displays a few reviews.

Table 1: Compositions and methodology of Titanium doping Cobalt ferrite material.

Composition	Synthesis Method	Key Structural Findings	Magnetic / Electrical Effects	Ref
$\text{Co}_{1+x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_{2-2x}\text{O}_4$	Auto-combustion	Cation distribution inferred, microstructure	Dielectric constant & loss vary; higher resistivity	[1]
$\text{Co}_{1+x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_{2-2x}\text{O}_4$, $x = 0.00-0.50$	Sol-gel auto-combustion	Nanocrystalline, lattice parameter variation	M_s decreases; H_c tuned; resistivity increases	[2]
$\text{Co}_{1-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$, $x = 0.10-0.40$	Solid-state reaction	Single-phase spinel; lattice distortion	Nonlinear H_c , reduced M_s	[3]
$\text{Co}_{1-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$, $x = 0, 0.25, 0.50$	Solid-state route	Phase retention up to $x = 0.50$	Change in magnetic behavior with Ti	[4]
Ti-doped CoFe_2O_4 films	Sol-gel + spin-coating	Film crystallinity, strain	Film coercivity, magnetic anisotropy varied with Ti	[5]
$\text{Ti}^{4+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ co-substituted CoFe_2O_4	Solid-state / co-substitution	Cation redistribution	Magnetic anisotropy, M_s modulated	[6]
$\text{CoFe}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{O}_4$ ($x = 0-0.30$)	Solid-state / co-substitution	Cation site preference (Mössbauer)	Insights into superexchange changes	[7]
Review on Ti^{4+} and Li^+ doping in CoFe_2O_4	Solid-state / co-substitution	Trends summarised	Highlights effect on conductivity, magnetism	[8]
Ti-doped ultrafine CoFe_2O_4 powders	Sol-gel	Very small crystallite size	High coercivity, lower magnetization	[9]

2. Synthesis Methods of Ti-Doped Cobalt Ferrite

Many methods have been used to create Ti-doped cobalt ferrite, which has the chemical formula $\text{Co}_{2+x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_{2-2x}\text{O}_4$ or $\text{Co}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$. Phase purity, cation distribution, grain size, and defect concentration are all significantly impacted by the synthesis method.

2.1. Sol–Gel Auto-Combustion: A chemical synthesis approach for creating uniform, fine metal oxide powders, particularly at the nanoscale, is the sol–gel auto-combustion process. This process involves dissolving metal salts (often nitrates) in water to create a homogenous sol, then adding an organic fuel—such as urea, glycine, or citric acid—as a chelating agent. The sol turns into a gel with equally distributed metal ions when heated. The gel ignites and burns on its own without the need for external fuel when additional heating starts a self-sustaining exothermic redox reaction between the metal nitrates (oxidisers) and the fuel. A porous, fluffy, and fine metal oxide powder is created as a result of this auto-combustion, which releases a significant quantity of heat quickly. $\text{Co}_{2+x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_{2-2x}\text{O}_4$ sol–gel synthesis ($x = 0.00, 0.10, 0.30, 0.50$). They investigated how Ti doping adjusts magnetic properties and showed that the process produces nanocrystalline powders with adjustable composition. Because it enables low-temperature processing and uniform mixing of metal cations at the molecular level, the auto-combustion approach is beneficial [2].

2.2. Solid-State Reaction: A traditional approach for creating ceramic and inorganic materials by direct reactions between solid reactants is the solid-state reaction method. To guarantee consistent particle contact, stoichiometric proportions of solid precursor powders (such as metal oxides, carbonates, or nitrates) are precisely weighed, thoroughly mixed, and crushed. After that, the mixture is calcined at high temperatures to start a chemical reaction and diffusion between the solids, creating the desired molecule. To increase homogeneity and reaction completeness, repeated grinding and reheating are frequently necessary. Compared to wet-chemical procedures, this process is straightforward, economical, and appropriate for large-scale manufacturing; but, it often necessitates high temperatures and lengthy reaction periods, and it may produce bigger particle sizes and less chemical homogeneity. Produced $\text{Co}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$ ($x = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4$) via a solid-state reaction at a high temperature [3]. solid-state reaction to create polycrystalline $\text{Co}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$ ($x = 0.0, 0.25, 0.50$), demonstrating the impact of increasing Ti on crystal structure [4]. Even while this process frequently produces well-crystallized grains, it might be more difficult to control flaws and achieve uniformity than with chemical methods.

2.3. Thin-Film / Sol-Gel + Spin Coating: One popular approach for depositing consistent, superior thin films of metal oxides on appropriate substrates is thin-film production by sol-gel spin-coating. In this procedure, metal alkoxides or metal salts are first dissolved in a suitable solvent with stabilisers or chelating agents to create a sol. A spin coater is

used to quickly rotate a clean substrate (such as quartz, silicon, or glass) at a high speed once a little quantity of this sol is deposited onto its surface. Centrifugal force causes the solution to disperse uniformly throughout the substrate, creating a thin coating of liquid. A homogeneous gel layer is produced while the spinning process proceeds, throwing off extra solution and causing solvent evaporation. After drying, the coated film is heat-treated (annealed) to eliminate organic materials and to densify and crystallise the film. This technique is frequently utilised in applications including sensors, optical coatings, electrical devices, and functional oxide thin films because it provides great homogeneity, cheap processing costs, and perfect control over film thickness. Ti-doped CoFe_2O_4 films were created via sol-gel and spin-coating, and their crystallographic and magnetic characteristics were examined [5]. Although compositional control and strain in thin films may differ, this approach is appropriate for device integration (e.g., memory, sensors).

2.4. Other Techniques / Co-Substitution: Co-substitution, such as Ti^+ and Co^{2+} substituting Fe^{3+} sites to adjust structural and magnetic characteristics, has also been studied [6]. Understanding Ti's location in the spinel lattice is aided by cation-distribution investigations (e.g., via Mössbauer, XRD) [7].

3. Structural Effects of Ti Doping

3.1. Lattice Constant and Phase Purity: Numerous investigations show that ionic size differences cause a systematic change in lattice parameter as Ti concentration rises. For example, the lattice constant has been shown to expand or vary when the Ti percentage increases [2]. It is discovered that the samples maintain the spinel structure (space group $\text{Fd}3\text{m}$) with no significant secondary phases even at high Ti ($x = 0.5$) [4]. On the other hand, high concentrations of Ti can cause strain, microstrain, or peak broadening in X-ray diffraction (XRD), which could indicate defects, smaller crystallites, or non-stoichiometry.

3.2. Cation Distribution: Ti^+ ions may displace Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} because they prefer to occupy certain positions in the spinel lattice, which are frequently octahedral. Redistribution of Co and Fe between tetrahedral (A) and octahedral (B) sites upon Ti doping is inferred from the magnetic data [3]. Ti substitution influences the superexchange contacts (A–B, B–B), which changes magnetic behaviour, according to research on cation distribution (e.g., via revised magnetic moment models) [7].

3.3. Microstructure and Defects: Lattice distortion (from ionic substitution) introduces microstrain and defects (like oxygen vacancies) to compensate for charge imbalance (Ti^+

replacing Fe^{3+} or Co^{2+}), which can affect both magnetic and electrical properties. Ti doping often results in smaller crystallite sizes when prepared via chemical routes like sol–gel, due to inhibited grain growth [2].

4. Magnetic Properties

Ti substitution strongly modulates the magnetic behavior of cobalt ferrite:

- **Saturation Magnetization (M_s):** Generally speaking, M_s falls as Ti concentration rises. Ti^+ dilutes the net magnetic moment since it is non-magnetic. M_s for $\text{Co}_{2+x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_{2-x}\text{O}_4$ decreases as x rises, according to Patil et al. The balance of magnetic moments is also changed by Ti-induced redistribution of Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} between A and B sites, which contributes to the decrease [2].
- **Coercivity (H_c):** The trend of coercivity with Ti content is more intricate. A tendency that is not linear. Depending on thermal treatment, H_c rises to a modest Ti concentration before potentially declining at greater Ti levels. Microstructural effects, domain-wall pinning by defects, and strain-induced anisotropy are frequently blamed for the rise in H_c [3].
- **Magnetic Anisotropy:** In some situations, Ti-induced lattice distortion and cation redistribution lessen magnetocrystalline anisotropy. Lowered coercivity with high Ti may be a result of reduced anisotropy, which lowers energy barriers for magnetisation reversal. Because it can impact switching behaviour and magnetic stability, the anisotropy change is crucial for applications [2][3].
- **Temperature Dependence:** Several studies show that Curie temperature slightly drops with increasing Ti, despite the fact that this is not always consistently reported. This is because the presence of non-magnetic Ti reduces magnetic interactions (superexchange).

5. Electrical and Dielectric Properties

Ti doping also impacts electrical conductivity and dielectric behavior:

- **DC Resistivity:** In $\text{Co}_{2+x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_{2-x}\text{O}_4$ nanoparticles, DC resistivity rises with Ti concentration. Defects that function as scattering centres are introduced and electron hopping routes ($\text{Fe}^{2+} \leftrightarrow \text{Fe}^{3+}$) are disrupted by the insertion of Ti^+ [2].
- **Dielectric Constant & Loss:** Defect-mediated dipole relaxation and interfacial polarisation (Maxwell–Wagner effect) are responsible for the variations in dielectric constant and loss tangent with Ti substitution [1].

- **Activation Energy:** According to Arrhenius plots, the activation energy for conduction tends to rise with Ti, suggesting more impeded charge transport as a result of defect states or less hopping.

6. Mechanisms Underpinning Property Changes

The effects of Ti doping on CoFe_2O_4 can be understood via several mechanisms [10][11][12]:

- **Charge Compensation & Defect Generation:** Ti^+ must be substituted since it has a larger charge than Co^{2+} or Fe^{3+} . This results in the formation of cation vacancies, oxygen vacancies, or modifications to the oxidation states of Co/Fe. Both electrical and magnetic behaviour are significantly impacted by these flaws.
- **Lattice Strain:** Microstrain is produced by lattice deformation caused by the difference in ionic radii (Ti^+ vs. $\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Fe}^{3+}$). This strain affects domain-wall pinning and magnetic anisotropy by changing local crystal fields.
- **Cation Redistribution:** Other cations must be rearranged due to Ti occupancy, which frequently occurs at octahedral B sites. This modifies macroscopic magnetisation and coercivity by influencing superexchange interactions (A–B, B–B).
- **Microstructure Effects:** Spin disorder and interfacial polarisation are encouraged by smaller grain sizes and more grain boundaries, particularly in chemically synthesised substances. These lead to modified dielectric behaviour and decreased M_s .

7. Challenges, Conflicting Trends & Future Directions

Challenges & Conflicts

- Different examinations reveal non-uniform trends in coercivity with Ti concentration, possibly because to changes in synthesis process, heat treatment, particle size, and defect density.
- Achieving phase purity at high Ti doping levels is challenging; some works exhibit secondary phases or non-stoichiometric compositions.
- There is significant disagreement over the precise location of Ti since several investigations estimate cation distribution indirectly (by magnetics) rather than directly (via neutron diffraction or Mössbauer).
- Little research has been done on device-level performance, such as how Ti doping influences ageing, thermal stability, or high-frequency losses.

Future Directions

- To accurately ascertain cation site occupancy and defect states, employ sophisticated characterisation techniques like as neutron diffraction, Mössbauer spectroscopy, and EXAFS.
- Methodical investigations that map out ideal compositions by changing both the Ti concentration and synthesis conditions (such as sintering temperature and environment).
- Computational research based on first principles (such as density functional theory) to simulate the energetics of defect generation, magnetic interactions, and Ti substitution.
- Incorporate Ti-doped CoFe_2O_4 into device prototypes (memory, microwave absorbers, inductors) to assess performance in practical settings.

8. CONCLUSION

The structural, magnetic, and electrical/dielectric characteristics of cobalt ferrite ($\text{Co}_{2+x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_{2-x}\text{O}_4$ or $\text{Co}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$) may be effectively adjusted by titanium doping. Researchers may control magnetisation, coercivity, anisotropy, resistivity, and dielectric losses by substituting non-magnetic Ti^+ for some magnetic Co^{2+} or Fe^{3+} ions. Lattice strain, cation redistribution, and charge compensation (defect formation) are the fundamental processes. Phase purity, accurately determining cation site occupancy, and converting material-level changes into device performance are still problems, despite the numerous encouraging trends that have been shown. To fully realise the promise of Ti-doped cobalt ferrite, further research integrating sophisticated characterisation, computational modelling, and prototype devices will be crucial.

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