

Short communication

## Physicochemical and electrochemical characterization of anatase titanium dioxide nanoparticles

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### Abstract

Nano-sized TiO<sub>2</sub> with an anatase phase is prepared by hydrolysis of titanium tetraisopropoxide in pure water. Samples are characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray diffractometry (XRD) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles experienced two processes of phase transition, i.e., amorphous to anatase and anatase to rutile, over the temperature range from 60 to 800 °C. The electrochemical properties of Li<sup>+</sup> ion insertion in nano-sized TiO<sub>2</sub> (anatase) electrodes is studied by voltammetry. The diffusion-limited insertion and extraction of Li ions in the anatase lattice within a region near the peak potential are dominating. The anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles exhibit a large initial electrochemical lithium insertion capacity of 195 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>, good reversibility, and cyclic stability.  
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*Keywords:* Nano-sized TiO<sub>2</sub>; Anatase; Electrochemical lithium insertion

### 1. Introduction

In recent years, lithium-ion intercalation materials have been examined for the development of cheap and efficient lithium-ion batteries. Nanostructured TiO<sub>2</sub> is an interesting candidate for 2-V lithium-ion batteries due to its convenient formal potential of around 1.8 V (versus Li/Li<sup>+</sup>) [1–3]. TiO<sub>2</sub> has various crystal types, such as rutile, anatase, brookite, and ramsdellite-type Li<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, spinels [4,5]. The lithium insertion reaction into these hosts has been investigated [6–8]. The Li uptake has been found to be 0.5 in anatase, whereas only a weak intercalation of Li has been detectable for rutile cells. Stashans et al. [9] studied lithium insertion into anatase and rutile by quantum chemical Hartree-Fock calculations. The results predicted a higher possibility of lithium intercalation in the anatase structure than that in rutile. The ability of the anatase phase to in-

tercalate a large number of Li-ions makes it a good candidate for application in high density, 2-V, lithium-ion batteries.

The present work focus on the synthesis and assessment of nano-sized TiO<sub>2</sub> prepared by a sol-gel method from a precursor of Ti[OCH(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>4</sub>. Enhanced electrochemical lithium insertion capacity together with good reversibility and cyclic stability are demonstrated.

### 2. Experimental

#### 2.1. Preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles

A solution of 30 mL of titanium tetraisopropoxide (Ti[OCH(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>4</sub>, Aldrich, A.C.S. Reagent) and 5 mL of isopropyl alcohol was added dropwise (1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>) into 180 mL of distilled water at pH 1.5 (adjusted with HNO<sub>3</sub>). The resulting solution was continuously stirred for 10 to 12 h until a transparent colloid was formed. The colloid solution was concentrated at 60 °C with a rotary evaporator

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and then calcined at 600 to 800 °C for 2 h in air to yield TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

## 2.2. Characterization

The size and morphology of TiO<sub>2</sub> composites were characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) imaging (JEOL JEM 2010). Samples were first ultrasonicated in acetone for 1 h and then deposited on 3-mm copper grids that were covered with a continuous film of carbon. Crystalline structures of the powders were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) with a Bruker GADDS diffractometer using Cu K $\alpha$  radiation and a graphite monochromator (the accelerating voltage and the applied current were 40 kV and 40 mA, respectively). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis of the samples was performed by means of a VG ESCALAB MKII spectrometer. Narrow-scan photoelectron spectra of Ti 2p and O 1s were recorded. Peak deconvolution was performed using the curve-fitting program VGX900.

## 2.3. Electrochemical lithium insertion

TiO<sub>2</sub> was mixed with 10 wt.% of carbon black and 10 wt.% of poly vinylidene difluoride (PVDF) in 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP). The slurry was used to coat 20- $\mu$ m thick aluminium discs of 13 mm diameter to a mass loading of 2 mg cm<sup>-2</sup> after drying (at 120 °C) and compaction (at  $2.0 \times 10^6$  Pa). Each coated electrode was assembled in a 2016 coin cell using a lithium counter electrode, a microporous polypropylene separator, and an electrolyte of 1 M LiPF<sub>6</sub> in a 50:50 (w/w) mixture of ethylene carbonate (EC) and diethyl carbonate (DEC). Cell assembly was carried out in an argon-filled glove box with less than 1 ppm each of oxygen and moisture.

The cells were discharged and charged at 25 °C on a MACCOR battery test system. Cyclic voltammetry was conducted with a EG&G model 273 potentiostat/galvonostat.

## 3. Results and discussion

The results of thermal analysis of TiO<sub>2</sub> xerogels that record the weight loss and DTA profiles of each sample with temperature are presented in Fig. 1. The total weight loss value was about 24% and profile was flat after 400 °C, which indicated that organic residues were eliminated before this temperature. The DTA profiles of TiO<sub>2</sub> xerogels exhibit a three-step weight loss. The weight loss below 100 °C corresponds to the removal of adsorbed isopropyl alcohol. The second weight loss at about 110 °C is attributed to the removal of adsorbed water. The third weight loss, between 190 and 400 °C, is attributed to the expulsion of organics and the removal of structural hydroxyls, which increases the number of bridging oxygen atoms and thus the monolithic nature of the gel matrix [10].

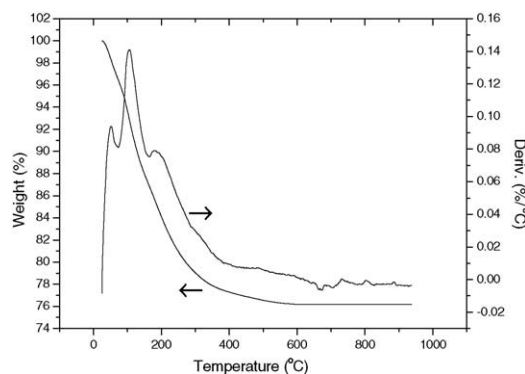


Fig. 1. TG and DTA traces for TiO<sub>2</sub> xerogels.

To determine the actual sizes of the powder samples, the TiO<sub>2</sub> powder calcined at 600 °C was suspended in ethanol under sonification for 1 h. The results, as shown in Fig. 2, indicate that the powder is highly aggregated. The average particle size of the individual particles is about 20 nm or less and it seems that most of the fine particles are round in shape.

X-ray diffraction analysis was used to identify the crystal phases, to estimate the anatase to rutile ratio, and to determine the crystallite size of each phase present. The TiO<sub>2</sub> exists mainly in three crystallographic forms, namely: anatase, brookite and rutile. The rutile form is thermodynamically more stable than the anatase counterpart. Brookite is the unstable phase of TiO<sub>2</sub>. The XRD peaks at  $2\theta = 25.25$  (101) and  $48.0^\circ$  in the spectrum for TiO<sub>2</sub> are easily identified as the anatase form, whereas the peaks at  $2\theta = 27.42$  (110) and  $54.5^\circ$  belong to the rutile form. The XRD patterns of the as-prepared gel powder of TiO<sub>2</sub> and the powders calcined at different temperatures are given in Fig. 3. All the peaks for gel powder show the presence of both anatase and amorphous phases. With increasing calcination temperature, the intensity of the anatase peaks increased correspondingly. The average crystallite size (diameter)  $L$  can be estimated from the integral width of the diffraction peaks using the Scherrer formula:  $L = K\lambda/\beta \cos \theta$ , where  $K$  is the shape factor (a value of 0.9 was used in this study),  $\lambda$  is the X-ray radi-

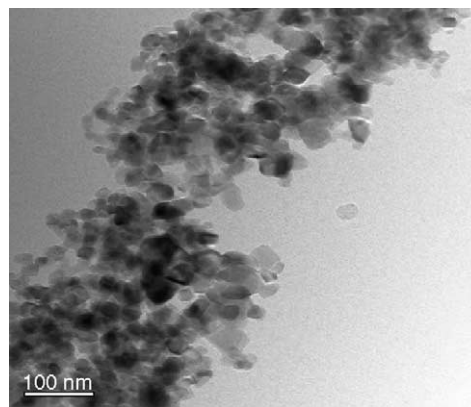


Fig. 2. TEM image of TiO<sub>2</sub> powder calcined at 600 °C and suspended in ethanol under sonification for 1 h.

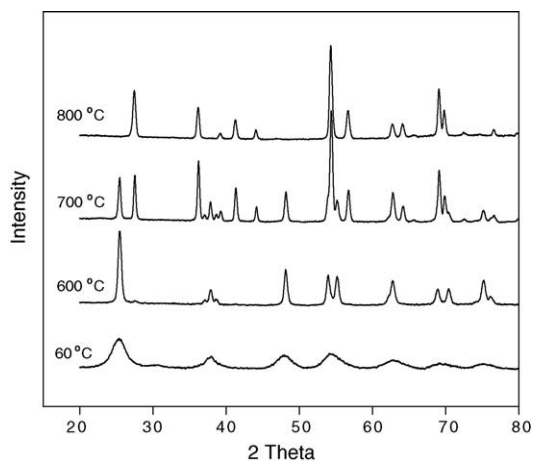


Fig. 3. XRD patterns of as-prepared gel powder of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and powders calcined at different temperatures.

tion wavelength ( $1.54056 \text{ \AA}$  for  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ ), and  $\beta$  is the line width at half-maximum height of the main broadening. The calculation results, which are 7.8, 18.5 and 22.7 nm for pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  calcined at 60, 600 and 700 °C, respectively, indicate that the average crystalline size of the resulting anatase phase increases with increasing calcination temperature.

Several studies [11–15] have reported that a sol-gel sample of  $\text{TiO}_2$  should undergo a phase transformation from an anatase phase to a thermodynamically favourable rutile phase during sintering treatment. In the present study, all the samples were sintered from 400 to 800 °C and their diffractograms were recorded. It is observed that  $\text{TiO}_2$  undergoes the phase transformation somewhat above 600 °C. The conversion of  $\text{TiO}_2$  from anatase to rutile is thorough, almost no anatase peak can be observed after sintering at 800 °C.

The surface oxidation states of the metals were determined by XPS. As most of the atoms in small particle clusters are surface atoms, the oxidation state measured as such will also reflect well the bulk oxidation state. The Ti 2p and O 1s regions of the XPS spectrum for the  $\text{TiO}_2$  are shown in Fig. 4. In the XPS spectrum for Ti 2p, the spin-orbit components ( $2p_{3/2}$  and  $2p_{1/2}$ ) of the peak are well deconvoluted by two curves (at approximately 458.7 and 464.3 eV, respectively). This indicates that the Ti element exists mainly as the chemical state of  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  on the basis of the principle and instrument handbook of XPS [16]. The two eV values agree well with those reported in the literature [17,18].

The XPS spectra of O 1s in Fig. 4 is asymmetric, i.e., the left side is wider than the right, and this indicates that at least two kinds of oxygen species are present on the surface, which can be recognized by resolving the XPS curves. The dominant peak at about 530 eV is characteristic of metallic oxides, which is in agreement with the O 1s electron binding energy arising from titania lattice. The oxygen atoms in the titania matrix make the primary contribution to the spectrum. The other O 1s peak at 532 eV is due to surface hydroxyl groups.

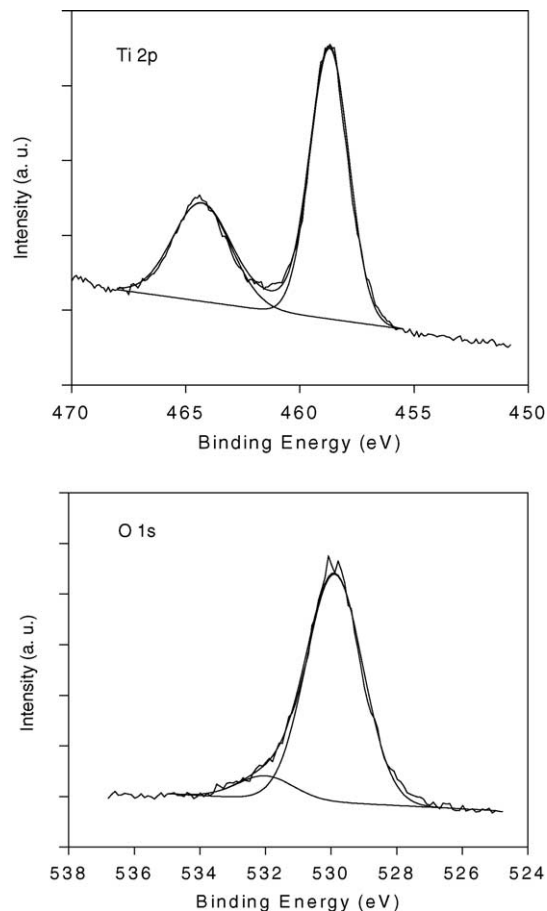


Fig. 4. Typical XPS Ti 2p and O 1s spectra for  $\text{TiO}_2$  sample calcined at 600 °C.

The discharge–charge curves of the electrode made of anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles are shown in Fig. 5. The initial discharge and charge capacity of the electrode is 203 and 177  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$ , respectively, which indicates an initial loss in capacity of about 14% between the insertion and the removal

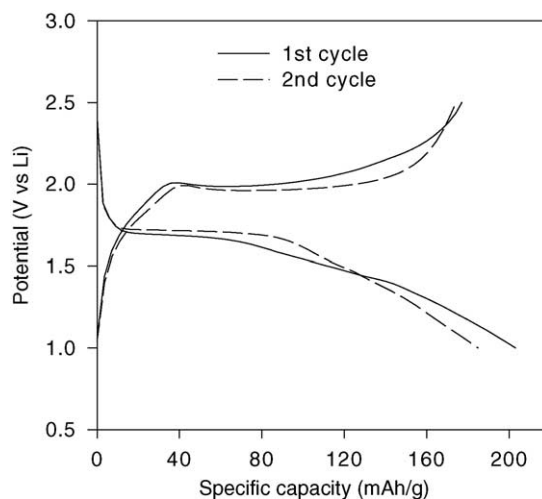


Fig. 5. Charge and discharge curves for nano-sized anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  electrode at charge–discharge current density of  $50 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  at 25 °C.

of Li. The loss in capacity for the second discharge–charge cycle decreases to 6% between insertion and removal of Li. Potential plateaux at about 1.72 and 2.00 V for discharging (insertion of Li) and charging (extraction of Li) are observed, which is consistent with the presence of predominantly anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> [2,19]. Thus, the electrochemical behaviour is assigned to the insertion/extraction of Li to/from the anatase lattice:



Theoretically, insertion of 1 Li per TiO<sub>2</sub> unit corresponds to a capacity of 335 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>. The insertion coefficient,  $x$ , in anatase is usually close to 0.5 [20]. The maximum extraction coefficient of lithium in TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles is calculated to be 0.53 from an electrochemical charge capacity of 177 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>. The interaction of the nanoparticles with lithium ions occurs mostly on the surface rather than in the bulk due to the small particle size. This means that lithium insertion/extraction can be readily achieved in TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. This will result in a higher storage capacity with respect to ordinary anatase TiO<sub>2</sub>.

The cyclic voltammograms of the electrode made of the anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles at different scan rates are shown in Fig. 6. A pair of cathodic (insertion) and anodic (extraction) peaks located between 1.4 and 2.5 V are observed. The actual peak positions depend on the applied scan rate. If the capacitive effects are neglected, dependence of the peak current,  $i_p$  on the square root of the scan rate,  $\nu$  indicates a diffusion-controlled irreversible kinetics [21,22], i.e.,

$$|i_p| = 0.4958 n F A C \left( \frac{D \alpha n F \nu}{RT} \right)^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

where:  $i_p$  is the peak current in amperes;  $n$  is taken as unity;  $A$  is the inner electrode area in cm<sup>2</sup>;  $C$  is the maximum obtainable concentration of Ti<sup>3+</sup> in the lattice, i.e.,  $C = 0.024 \text{ mol cm}^{-3}$  for  $x = 0.5$  [22];  $D$  is the chemical diffusion constant for the Li ions in cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>; the other symbols

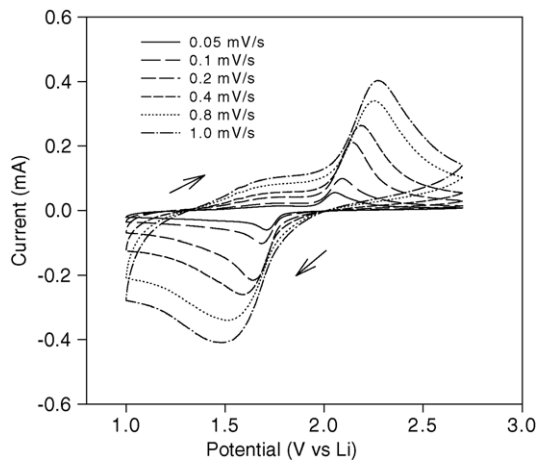


Fig. 6. Cyclic voltammograms for nano-sized anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> electrode at various scan rates.

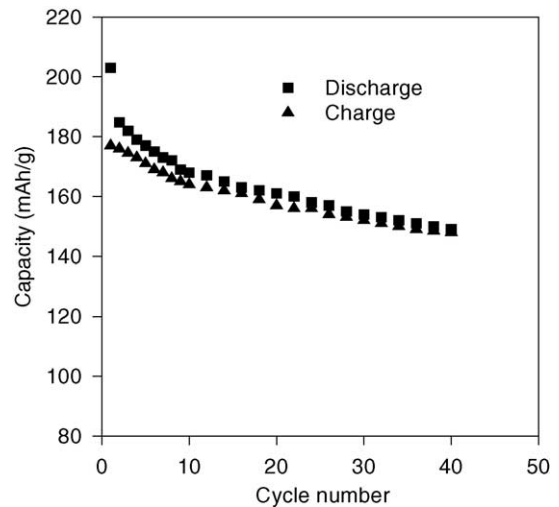


Fig. 7. Dependence of cyclability of nano-sized anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> electrode at charge–discharge current density of 50 mA g<sup>-1</sup> at 25 °C.

have their usual meaning. Even if the capacitive charging cannot be neglected, the  $i_p$ – $\nu$  dependency (for anatase) still follows a power-law with the exponent of  $\nu$  being between 0.5 and 1 [22]. The cathodic and anodic peak scales are dependent upon  $\nu^{1/2}$  for scan rates between 0.05 and 1 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. Assuming  $\alpha \approx 0.5$  and a roughness factor of 80, the diffusion coefficient can be calculated from Eq. (2) for cathodic and anodic peaks. The values for insertion and extraction are  $2.9 \times 10^{-17}$  and  $3.7 \times 10^{-17}$  cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The values agree with those reported for nanoporous anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> electrodes [23].

The discharge–charge behaviour of the electrode made of anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles at 50 mA g<sup>-1</sup> is demonstrated in Fig. 7. The cut-off potentials for discharge and charge were set to be 1.0 and 2.5 V versus Li, respectively. The electrode shows good stability towards electrochemical cycling. The reversible capacity after 40 cycles is 148 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>, or 84% retention of initial capacity. Progressive lithium insertion in TiO<sub>2</sub> anatase leads to an increase in the fraction lithium titanate phase and a decrease in the lithium anatase phase fraction [19]. The optimum cycling behaviour is obtained for regimes that involve compositions between 0.15 and 0.45 Li/TiO<sub>2</sub> mole ratio, as reported previously [1]. It is very necessary to improve the stability of the TiO<sub>2</sub> electrode.

#### 4. Conclusions

Anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles with a particle size of about 20 nm are prepared by hydrolysis of titanium tetraisopropoxide in pure water. X-ray diffraction analysis reveals that TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles experience two processes of phase transition, i.e., amorphous to anatase and anatase to rutile, over the temperature range from 60 to 800 °C. Cyclic voltammetry measurements indicate that the diffusion-limited insertion and extraction of Li<sup>+</sup> ions in the anatase lattice within a region

near the peak potential are dominating and yield diffusion coefficients of the order of  $10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles exhibit a large initial electrochemical lithium insertion capacity of  $203 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$ , as well as, good reversibility and cyclic stability.

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