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Amphoteric effects of Fe₂P on electrochemical performance of lithium iron phosphate–carbon composite synthesized by ball-milling and microwave heating

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Abstract

Lithium iron phosphate–carbon (LiFePO₄–C) composites with various amounts of Fe₂P are synthesized by ball-milling coupled with microwave heating to serve as cathodes for lithium-ion batteries. LiFePO₄–C in which Fe₂P is restrained below a critical concentration gives as very high discharge capacity of 165 mAh g⁻¹, excellent rate capability (85.4% *C*/50-rate discharge capacity at 2*C*) and stable cyclic retention for 250 cycles. Above the critical concentration however, electrochemical performance deterioated. Analysis and debate, based on a comparison of the physical and electrochemical properties among LiFePO₄–C composites with the variation of Fe₂P, proceeded to the conclusion that below the critical concentration, Fe₂P enhanced the conductivity of LiFePO₄–C, whereas above the critical concentration, it blocked the one-dimensional Li⁺ pathways in LiFePO₄ and might hinder Li⁺ movement in LiFePO₄. Therefore, in order to obtain a LiFePO₄–C composite that enhances electrochemical performance, it is concluded that the amount of Fe₂P should be carefully controlled below its critical concentration. © 2008 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Lithium iron phosphate-carbon composites; Discharge capacity; Rate capability; Cyclic retention; Critical concentration; Lithium-ion battery

1. Introduction

Lithium-ion batteries, in which graphite and LiCoO₂ are employed as the electrode materials, are widely used as a power source for most portable electronic devices such as cellular phones, camcorders, digital cameras and laptop computers due to their high specific energy and excellent cycle performance. The successful application of LiCoO₂ as the commercial cathode material for Li-ion batteries is attributed to its high Li-ion and electron conductivity, high potential vs. Li⁺/Li (~4 V), excellent capacity retention during cycling, and a practical capacity of about 140 mAh g⁻¹ [1]. On the other hand, its poor thermal stability and high cost have prevented LiCoO₂ from being used for

0378-7753/\$ - see front matter © 2008 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.jpowsour.2008.01.079 large-scale Li-ion batteries, which are required for novel appliances such as hybrid electric vehicles (HEVs), electric vehicles (EVs), e-bikes and robot cleaners [2–5]. Therefore, there is an apparent need to develop a new cathode material with excellent thermal stability and low cost.

Because an olivine-structured material, LiFePO₄, features excellent thermal stability, low cost and high reversibility in Li⁺ insertion/extraction, it has been considered as the most promising cathode material for the large-scale Li-ion batteries [6–10]. Nevertheless, its low electronic and ionic conductivity [11,12], and some difficulties in synthesizing single-phase material [9,13] have hindered the practical application of LiFePO₄ as a cathode material. Therefore, new strategies have been attempted for improving the electronic and ionic conductivity of LiFePO₄ such as carbon coating [14–19], particle size reduction [12,13,20] and supervalent cation doping [21]. In addition, various methods such as solid-state reac-

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tion, mechanochemical activation, sol-gel route, hydrothermal reaction and co-precipitation [12–21] have been introduced to synthesize single-phase LiFePO₄ since Padhi et al. [6,7] reported the feasibility of LiFePO₄ as a cathode material. Among these strategies, carbon coating coupled with a reduction in the particle size of LiFePO₄ to yield a lithium iron phosphate–carbon (LiFePO₄–C) composite has been generally tried because it enhances both the electronic and the ionic conductivity of LiFePO₄ [14–19]. At this stage, however, various routes for synthesizing effective LiFePO₄–C composites are still under development.

Microwave heating is a very powerful and efficient synthetic method in which the target materials can be obtained in a short time at low temperature (typically 100–200 °C below the temperature involved in conventional furnace heating) [22]. We have succeeded in simply and rapidly synthesizing LiFePO₄–C by microwave heating accompanied with vibrant ball-milling [23]. It was observed that Fe₂P, evolved by breakage of the covalent bond between phosphorus and oxygen in the PO₄^{3–} polyanion and bond formation between iron and phosphorus, exists in the LiFePO₄–C composite when the microwave heating time is beyond a critical time [13].

In the early stage of LiFePO₄ research, Fe₂P was considered as a by-product that should be excluded during synthesis of single-phase LiFePO₄, as pointed out by Arnold et al. [13]. By contrast, Herle et al. [24] demonstrated that metal phosphocarbides and Fe₂P (metallic compound, σ : 10⁻¹ S cm⁻¹ at room temperature) play a crucial role in enhancing the electronic conductivity of LiFePO₄–C composite up to ~10⁻² S cm⁻¹. Based on this work, it appears that the conductivity enhancement by Fe₂P may contribute to the improvement in the rate capability of the LiFePO₄–C composite. The above authors did not, however, confirm a positive effect of Fe₂P on the electrochemical performance of the LiFePO₄–C composite. Aside from this report, there has not been any systematic research to clarify the correlation between the existence of Fe₂P and the electrochemical performance of LiFePO₄–C composite.

In the study reported here, the amphoteric effect of Fe₂P on the electrochemical performance of LiFePO₄–C composite is clarified based on structural and electrochemical observations.

2. Experimental

2.1. Preparation of synthesis

LiFePO₄–C was prepared by ball-milling and microwave heating method using Li_3PO_4 (Aldrich) and $Fe_3(PO_4)_2 \cdot 8H_2O$ (Kojundo) as the precursor materials. Full details of the preparation route have been reported in the previous publication [23].

2.2. Characterization of material

In order to confirm the phase of the LiFePO₄–C, XRD analysis (D/max-IIIC, Rigaku) was conducted from 15° to 45° at a scan rate of 1° min⁻¹ using Cu K α radiation. The morphology of LiFePO₄–C was observed by TEM (transmission electron microscopy, JEOL) operating at 300 kV, and the

particle size of LiFePO₄-C was measured by a LPSA (laser particle size analyzer, LS230 System/Small Volume Module, Beckman Coulter) equipped with a polarization intensity differential scattering (PIDS) analyzer and a 116-channel detector for detecting 0.4-0.04 µm sized particles. The amount of residual carbon in LiFePO₄-C was measured by means of a CHNS elemental analyzer (Vario EL III, Elementar). The room temperature conductivity was measured on microwave-sintered pellets (\sim 12.5 mm diameter and \sim 1 mm thickness) by four-point dc methods (SR1000, Chang-Min Co.). A two-phase Rietveld refinement was performed for more sensitive detection of Fe₂P using the GSAS (general structure analysis system) program [25]. The XRD data for Rietveld refinement were measured from 15° to 120° at a step of 0.02° using Cu K α radiation with a graphite monochromator in the reflection geometry (Dmax2200V, Rigaku). Silicon (NIST 640c) powder was chosen as an external standard to correct the zero-point shift for the measured diffraction data. Mössbauer spectroscopy (MR351, FAST) with ⁵⁷Co γ -ray source was also employed for accurately detecting Fe₂P in LiFePO₄-C. Velocity calibration was carried out using the spectrum of α -Fe at room temperature.

2.3. Cell fabrication and electrochemical analysis

The slurry for the LiFePO₄–C cathode was prepared by mixing LiFePO₄-C and acetylene black, to which was added a *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidene (NMP) solution containing polyvinylidene fluoride (PVdF). The weight ratio (wt.%) of LiFePO₄, acetylene black (residual amount in LiFePO₄-C and mixed amount) and PVdF was 72:20:8. The slurries were coated on Al foil substrates by baker applicator (Yoshimitsu) to give a uniform thickness, and then dried for 12 h at 120 °C in a vacuum oven. The dried cathodes were pressed and then cut into a 1.33 cm² discs. The cathode (except Al foil) mass and thickness were $\sim 5.5 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ and $\sim 50 \,\mu\text{m}$, respectively. 2016 coin-type cells (Toyo system) were assembled in an argon-filled glove box (M-braun MB 20G) by placing a microporous polypropylene separator (Celgard 2400TM) between the cathode and the lithium metal foil anode (Cyprus Foote Mineral, 99.98%, USA). A constant volume (120 µl) of liquid electrolyte (1 M LiClO₄ in 1:1 ethylene carbonate/dimethyl carbonate (EC/DMC; (Merck)) was added to the cell during cell fabrication. The cells were charged and discharged galvanostatically between 2.5 and 4.3 V (vs. Li/Li⁺) using a Toscat-3100u battery tester (Toyo System). The rest time between charging and discharging was 10 min. Various charge-discharge rates (C-rates) based on the nominal capacity measured at a extremely low rate were applied to examine the rate capability of LiFePO₄–C.

3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1 shows XRD patterns of a LiFePO₄–C composite prepared by ball-milling for 30 min and subsequent microwave heating for 2–4 min, respectively. For the sample microwave heated for 2 min, all of the peaks in the XRD pattern are assigned to the triphylite LiFePO₄. After microwave heating for 3 min, an additional peak corresponding to the Fe₂P phase appears.



Fig. 1. X-ray diffraction patterns of LiFePO₄–C prepared by ball-milling for 30 min and subsequent microwave heating for 2–4 min, and inorganic crystal structure database (ICSD) reference pattern (no. 83-2092; triphylite LiFePO₄) in JADE5 software.

This means that the atmosphere encompassing the precursors of LiFePO₄ was sufficiently reductive to form Fe₂P. Hence, a microwave heating time above 4 min increases the amount of Fe₂P phase, as confirmed by the increase in the Fe₂P peak intensity in the XRD pattern.

In Fig. 2, the TEM images of LiFePO₄–C are given with the selected area diffraction patterns (SADP). As shown in the TEM images, LiFePO₄–C composites have similar morphologies (LiFePO₄ particle size, degree of carbon distribution), irrespective of the heating time. Two distinctive forms of particles (polygonal particles and cotton-like particles) are observed in the TEM images; each is identified as crystalline LiFePO₄ and amorphous carbon. This SADP also reveals that the LiFePO₄ particle is characteristic of a single crystal. In the LiFePO₄–C composite, most of LiFePO₄ particles are connected by amorphous carbon, and LiFePO₄ is uniformly distributed with carbon.

The results from laser particle size analysis and elemental analysis of the LiFePO₄–C composite are summarized in Table 1. From the mean particle size, D75 and D90 in Table 1, it is concluded that the LiFePO₄–C composite has small particle size and a homogeneous size distribution. The increase in particle size with variation in the microwave heating time is very slight, as expected from the study by Nakayama et al. [26]. Because microwave heating can minimize undesirable grain growth without any grain-growth inhibitors [22], it appears that the LiFePO₄–C composite maintains a grain size similar to that of the initial grain. Another reason for the restrained grain growth of LiFePO₄ is that the uniform distribution of carbon around LiFePO₄ hinders grain growth [27].

In Table 1, the continuous decrease in residual carbon content (from an initial 5 wt.% to a final 2.874 wt.%) with microwave heating time implies that more carbon is oxidized to CO_2 or CO gas (carbothermal reaction) with longer microwave heating. For furnace heating, a decrease in the amount of carbon acting as a grain-growth inhibitor gives rise to a substantial increase in LiFePO₄ grain size [27]. As for microwave heating, a decrease in the carbon content has little influence on the grain growth of LiFePO₄.

The initial charge-discharge curves of the LiFePO₄-C composite are presented in Fig. 3a. In the discharge curve for the LiFePO₄-C composite prepared by microwave heating for 2 min, a long and flat voltage-plateau appears at around 3.41 V, and then the voltage falls sharply to the cut-off value (2.5 V). This behaviour yields a high discharge capacity of 165 mAh g^{-1} (97.1% of the theoretical capacity of LiFePO₄). For Fe₂P-included LiFePO₄-C composites produced by microwave heating for 3 and 4 min, shorter voltage-plateaux appear, and then the voltage drops gradually to give low discharge capacities of 111 and 97 mAh g^{-1} , respectively. Given that the amount of Fe₂P in the Fe₂P-included LiFePO₄-C composite is small, as predicted by the low peak intensity in Fig. 1, it appears that the significant reduction in the charge-discharge capacity of the Fe₂P-included LiFePO₄-C composite is not primarily related to the amount of electrochemically inactive Fe₂P.

From Fig. 3b, it can be seen that the LiFePO₄–C composite produced by microwave heating for 2 min provides an excellent rate capability that maintains 85.4% of the C/50-rate discharge capacity at 2C, but the other composites obtained by microwave heating for 3 and 4 min sustain only 65.5% and 47.8%, respectively. In addition, the LiFePO₄–C composite synthesized by



Fig. 2. TEM images of LiFePO₄–C prepared by ball-milling for 30 min and microwave heating for (a) 2 min, (b) 3 min and (c) 4 min, and selected area diffraction pattern (SADP).

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Microwave heating time (min)	Mean particle size (µm)	D25 (µm)	D50 (µm)	D75 (µm)	D90 (µm)	Carbon content (wt.%)
2	0.530	0.157	0.365	0.522	1.590	3.817
3	0.585	0.123	0.280	0.526	1.851	3.299
4	0.640	0.145	0.322	0.592	1.903	2.874

Particle size of LiFePO₄-C measured by LPSA and carbon content (wt.%) in LiFePO₄-C detected by CHNS elemental analyzer

Particle size *Dn*: *D* is particle diameter and *n* is cumulative percentage in volume distribution. Given the group of particles cumulated up to *n* percent, *Dn* signifies the diameter of the largest particle in that group.

microwave heating for 2 min has an outstanding rate capability, its capacity at 30C corresponds to 58.9% (97 mAh g^{-1}) of the discharge capacity at C/50, as illustrated in Fig. 3c. Based on the previous result that the conductivity of LiFePO₄-C composite can be enhanced by Fe₂P [24], it is contradictory that the rate capability of LiFePO₄-C composite including Fe₂P is much inferior to that of LiFePO₄-C composite excluding Fe₂P. Moreover, four-point dc conductivity measurement show that the LiFePO₄–C composites prepared by microwave heating have the similar conductivities, irrespective of the heating time; $1.00 \times 10^{-1} \,\mathrm{S \, cm^{-1}}$ for 2 min, $1.06 \times 10^{-1} \,\mathrm{S \, cm^{-1}}$ for 3 min, and $1.15 \times 10^{-1} \,\mathrm{S \, cm^{-1}}$ for 4 min. Therefore, the inferior rate capability of Fe₂P-included LiFePO₄-C seems to result from not the variation in the amount of carbon or the morphological difference but from other factors that accompany the formation of Fe₂P.

Table 1

It is well known that when the cell reaction rate is forced to increase for supplying higher current to an external circuit, the poor reaction kinetics decrease the cell capacity by dropping the cell voltage faster. Therefore, the decrease in the capacity of Fe₂P-included LiFePO₄-C composite, shown in Fig. 3a, may be associated with its poor rate capability in Fig. 3b. In fact, the discharge capacity of the Fe₂Pincluded LiFePO₄-C composite increases with reducing the discharging rate below C/50 ($1C = 170 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$), then eventually approaches the nominal discharge capacity (113 mAh g^{-1}) for the 3 min-microwave heated LiFePO₄–C, 99 mAh g^{-1} for the 4 min-microwave heated LiFePO₄-C). Considering the discharge capacity at C/50 in Fig. 3a, however, the increment in discharge capacity is relatively small. Therefore, the poor rate capability of the Fe₂P-included LiFePO₄–C composite hardly affects the decrease in its discharge capacity shown in Fig. 3a. This means that the decrease in the capacity in Fig. 3a also has no significant relation to the poor rate capability.

As mentioned above, the LiFePO₄–C composite prepared in this work has an electronic conductivity in the range of $1.00-1.15 \times 10^{-1}$ S cm⁻¹ depending on the microwave heating time. These values almost reach the most enhanced conductivities observed by Herle et al. [24]. This suggests that the Fe₂P phase may also be formed in the LiFePO₄–C composite prepared by 2 min-microwave heating, because the conductivity of the LiFePO₄–C composite cannot reach about 10^{-1} S cm⁻¹ at room temperature without Fe₂P, as reported by Xu et al. [27]. Yamada et al. [9] demonstrated that small amount of impurities were not detected by XRD analysis. Therefore, it was clear that more sensitive detection tools are required to confirm the presence of Fe₂P.

Fig. 4a and b shows the results from studies with X-ray Rietveld refinement and Mössbauer spectroscopy, respectively. The two-phase X-ray Rietveld refinement reveals that 0.56 wt.% Fe₂P is present in the LiFePO₄-C composite synthesized by 2 min-microwave heating. Mössbauer spectroscopy also supports the existence of Fe₂P, as shown in Fig. 4b. The amount of Fe₂P detected by Mössbauer spectroscopy is 1.03 wt.% in the LiFePO₄-C composite produced by 2 min-heating and 14.15 wt.% in case of 4 min-heating. Mössbauer spectroscopy is a very useful tool to detect the impurity phases because it can catch non-crystalline as well as crystalline phases in contrast to the X-ray diffraction that detects only crystalline phases [29]. The complementary use of X-ray Rietveld refinement and Mössbauer spectroscopy allows confirmation of the formation of Fe₂P. As a result, it is clarified that the excellent electrochemical performance of LiFePO₄-C prepared by 2 minmicrowave heating comes not only from the good crystallinity, small particle size and extremely uniform carbon distribution, but also from enhancement of the electronic conductivity by Fe₂P.

Fig. 5 shows the excellent cycle performance of the LiFePO₄–C composite synthesized by 2 min-microwave heating, where the initial discharge capacity (148 mAh g⁻¹) obtained at C/2 is maintained up to the 250th cycle. By contrast, the LiFePO₄–C composites synthesized by microwave heating for 3 and 4 min exhibit poor cycle behaviour, even at C/10. These trends in cycling capability are consistent with those observed for charge–discharge capacity and rate capability.

The aim of this work is to demonstrate that the electrochemical performance of LiFePO₄–C composites clearly depends on the concentration of Fe₂P. Actually, the deteriorated electrochemical properties are obtained above the critical concentration of Fe₂P and vice versa. The positive effect of Fe₂P below the critical concentration can be attributed to increased conductivity of the LiFePO₄–C composite caused by Fe₂P, but the reason for the negative effect is not clear. Nevertheless, based on the conclusions from the electrochemical data and the physical properties of LiFePO₄–C, it can be inferred that the formation of Fe₂P above the critical concentration leads to disruption of the one-dimensional Li⁺ pathways followed by hindrance of Li⁺ transport [30].

The disrupting effect is easily verified from the Mössbauer spectroscopy data in Fig. 4b. Based on the amount of Fe₂P detected, the capacity evolved by pure LiFePO₄ can be calculated. The nominal discharge capacity evolved by pure LiFePO₄ for the LiFePO₄–C composite synthesized by 2 min-microwave heating is 167 mAh g^{-1} , while that for the



Fig. 3. (a) Galvanostatic charge–discharge curves of LiFePO₄–C at 27 °C. *C*/50 rate (1*C*=170 mA g⁻¹). (b) Rate capability of LiFePO₄–C at 27 °C. Various current densities based on nominal capacity (2 min; 165 mA h g⁻¹, 3 min; 113 mA h g⁻¹, 4 min; 99 mA h g⁻¹) measured at extremely low rates of less than *C*/50 used in the test. Current density of each sample is: 2 min; 1*C*=165 mA g⁻¹, 3 min; 1*C*=113 mA g⁻¹, 4 min; 1*C*=99 mA g⁻¹. (c) Discharge curves of LiFePO₄–C prepared by 2 min-microwave heating collected at various *C*-rates from *C*/50 to 30*C* (1*C*=165 mA g⁻¹).



Fig. 4. (a) Rietveld refinement patterns of LiFePO₄–C prepared by 2 minmicrowave heating. A difference (obs. – cal.) plot is shown beneath. Tick marks above the difference data indicate the reflection position. Upper and lower tick marks above the difference data indicate the reflection position for Fe₂P and LiFePO₄ phases, respectively. $R_{wp} = 11.16\%$, $R_p = 8.15$, $\chi^2 = 1.93$, weight fraction (wt.%) of LiFePO₄ to Fe₂P = 99.44:0.56. (b) Mössbauer spectra of pure Fe₂P and LiFePO₄–C synthesized by microwave heating for 2 and 4 min. At 2 min-microwave heating, IS (isomer shift) and QS (quadrupole splitting) for blue doublet are 1.11 and 2.96 mm s⁻¹, respectively. With 4 min-microwave heating, IS and QS for the blue doublet are 1.10 and 2.96 mm s⁻¹, respectively. These IS values typically correspond to those for Fe²⁺ ion [28]. Comparison of Fe₂P Mössbauer spectrum with other spectra confirms that red peaks originate from Fe₂P. Weight fractions (wt.%) of LiFePO₄ to Fe₂P are 98.97:1.03 for 2 min and 85.85:14.15 for 4 min. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of the article.)



Fig. 5. Cyclic performance of LiFePO₄–C at $27 \,^{\circ}$ C. For LiFePO₄–C produced by 2 min-microwave heating, the cycling test was carried out by varying the current density.

4 min-microwave heated sample is only 113 mAh g⁻¹. With the latter composite, therefore, the Li⁺ pathways in LiFePO₄ are blocked, which decreases the intrinsic Li-capacity of LiFePO₄. This disrupting effect is the obvious reason for the decrease in the capacity shown in Fig. 3a, but does not explain why the rate capability and the cycle performance are degraded, as seen in Figs. 3b and 5, respectively, because they are associated with Li⁺ moving into or out of the LiFePO₄ framework for completing the total cell reaction $(Li_{1-x}FePO_4 + xLi^+ + xe^- \rightarrow LiFePO_4)$.

From the X-ray diffraction patterns in Fig. 1, it is found that the intensity ratio of peaks of LiFePO₄ for the 2 min-microwave heated sample is similar to that of the corresponding peaks in the ICSD pattern. By contrast, the intensity ratio of the peaks of LiFePO₄ for the 3 or 4 min-microwave heated samples is different from that of the corresponding peaks in the ICSD pattern. This change in the peak intensity ratio can stem from a chemical inhomogeneity (the change in the atomic arrangements in the LiFePO₄ unit cell) [31,32]. Accordingly, Li⁺ transport through the one-dimensional Li⁺ pathways of LiFePO₄ may be hindered by the chemical inhomogeneity above the critical concentration of Fe₂P. If the hindering effect be verified, it can account for the degradation of the rate capability and the cycle performance. Having recognized this clue found in the X-ray diffraction data, we are continuing to study the effects of the formation of Fe₂P on Li⁺ motion in LiFePO₄ with the intention of elucidating the reason for the hindering effect of Fe₂P.

4. Conclusions

A study has been conducted of the physical and electrochemical properties of LiFePO₄–C composites with variation of Fe₂P amount and synthesized by ball-milling followed by microwave heating. LiFePO₄–C with Fe₂P formed within the critical concentration delivers a very high discharge capacity, excellent rate capability and stable cycle behaviour. By contrast, LiFePO₄–C with Fe₂P formed above the critical concentration gives much poorer electrochemical performance. This phenomenon is because within the critical concentration of Fe₂P, the formation of Fe₂P only increases the conductivity of LiFePO₄–C, where as above the critical concentration of Fe₂P, it causes blocking of the one-dimensional Li⁺ pathways in LiFePO₄ and offers the possibility of hindering Li⁺ movement in LiFePO₄. Although the in situ formation of Fe₂P in LiFePO₄ during the synthesis process is a very promising method to enhance the electrochemical performance of LiFePO₄–C. The amount of Fe₂P should be carefully controlled to prevent the negative effect of Fe₂P.

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