# STRUCTURE AND ELECTROCHEMICAL

## **PROPERTIES OF TITANIUM DOPED**

## SPINEL MANGANESE OXIDE

Paradron Lektrakoontara

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the

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**Degree of Master of Science in Chemistry** 

Suranaree University of Technology

Academic Year 2016

# โครงสร้างและสมบัติทางเคมีไฟฟ้าของสปิเนลแมงกานีสออกไซด์เจือ ไทเทเนียม



ะ ราวักยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุรบาง



# STRUCTURE AND ELECTROCHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF TITANIUM DOPED SPINEL MANGANESE OXIDE

Suranaree University of Technology has approved this thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a Master's Degree.

Thesis Examining Committee

(Prof. Dr. Jatuporn Wittayakun)

Chairperson

Therann Siritanon

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Theeranun Siritanon)

Member (Thesis Advisor)

Rapee Uthe

(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Rapee Utke)

Member

what Jupit

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Sanchai Prayoonpokarach)

Member

Jonsi

(Prof. Dr. Santi Maensiri)

Vice Rector for Academic Affairs

and Internationalization

neur

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Worawat Meevasana)

Dean of Institute of Science

ภราคร เล็กตระกูลธารา : โครงสร้างและสมบัติทางเคมีไฟฟ้าของสปิเนลแมงกานีส ออกไซค์เจือไทเทเนียม (STRUCTURE AND ELECTROCHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF TITANIUM DOPED SPINEL MANGANESE OXIDE) อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา : ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ คร.ธีรนันท์ ศิริตานนท์, 71 หน้า.

งานวิจัขนี้ได้ศึกษาผลของไทเทเนียมต่อโครงสร้าง องก์ประกอบทางเกมี สัณฐานวิทยา พื้นที่ผิว เลขออกซิเดชัน และพฤติกรรมทางไฟฟ้าเกมีของแมงกานีสออกไซด์ สปีเนลแมงกานีสอ อกไซด์เจือไทเทเนียมสังเคราะห์ด้วยวิธีทำปฏิริกิริยาระหว่างกรดกับ LiMn<sub>2x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> โดยสารละลาย ของแข็งของ LiMn<sub>2x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (x = 0 0.25 0.5 0.75 และ 1) สามารถสังเคราะห์ได้ด้วยวิธีการทำปฏิกิริยา สถานะของแข็ง จากการศึกษาพบว่า การแทนที่โลหะแมงกานีสด้วยโลหะไทเทเนียมส่งผลเล็กน้อย ต่อสัณฐานวิทยาและพื้นที่ผิว แต่ส่งผลกระทบต่อโครงสร้างอย่างมีนัยสำคัญซึ่งมีบทบาทสำคัญต่อ พฤติกรรมทางเกมีไฟฟ้า โดยใช้ไซกลิกโวแทมเมทรีศึกษากุณสมบัติทางเกมีไฟฟ้า ทั้งนี้การเก็บ ประจุของผลิตภัณฑ์ถูกแขกออกเป็นการเก็บประจุที่ผิวและภายใน โดยอาศัยการปรับอัตราเร็วการ เปลี่ยนแปลงศักย์ไฟฟ้า แข้ว่าการเก็บประจุที่ผิวจะลดลงอย่างต่อเนื่องเมื่อปริมาณของโลหะ แมงกานีสลดลง แต่โครงสร้างของสารส่งผลต่อการเก็บประจุภายใน การมีอยู่ของไทเทเนียมใน แมงกานีสออกไซด์ช่วยเพิ่มขนาดหน่วยเซลล์และเหนี่ยวนำให้แมงกานีสและไทเทเนียมบางส่วนไป อยู่ในคำแหน่ง 16c และ 8a ตามลำดับ โดยแมงกานีสและไทเทเนียมในตำแหน่งดังกล่าวจะลดการ แพร่ผ่านของไอออนเข้าสู่ภายในโครงสร้าง ในขณะที่การขยายตัวของหน่วยเซลล์จะช่วยเพิ่ม โอกาสการแทรกตัวของไอออนเข้าไปในโครงสร้างของวัสดุ ทำให้ความสามารถในการเก็บประจุ ของสารตัวอย่างที่มี x = 0.25 ถึง 0.75 เพิ่มตามปริมาณไทเทเนียมในโครงสร้าง

> ลายมือชื่อนักศึกษา<u>ภาาตร เล็กดาระกูลก</u>ารา ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา<u>ในนท์ สวีดหนนท์</u>

สาขาวิชาเคมี ปีการศึกษา 2559

# PARADRON LEKTRAKOONTARA : STRUCTURE AND ELECTROCHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF TITANIUM DOPED SPINEL MANGANESE OXIDE. THESIS ADVISOR : ASST. PROF. THEERANUN SIRITANON, Ph.D. 71 PP.

#### SUPERCAPACITOR/OXIDES/CAPACITIVE ELEMENTS/ACID LEACHING

The effect of Ti on structure, chemical composition, morphology, surface area, oxidation state and electrochemical behavior of spinel MnO<sub>2</sub> have been investigated. Solid solutions of LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (x = 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75 and 1) were synthesized by solid state reaction. To obtain Ti doped MnO<sub>2</sub>, deintercalation of LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> was achieved by acid treatment. Replacing Mn with Ti has little effect on the morphology and surface area but significantly affect the crystallographic structure which is found to play important roles in determining the electrochemical behaviors. Cyclic voltammetry is used to study the electrochemical properties. Capacitive elements of the products were separated to surface capacitance and insertion capacitance by varying scan speeds. Although the surface capacitances generally decrease when the number of Mn active species decrease, the change in insertion capacitance is affected by crystallographic structure of the compounds. The presence of Ti in MnO<sub>2</sub> increases lattice parameter and induces Mn and Ti to occupy in the 16c and 8a site, respectively.

The presence of Mn and Ti in the mentioned site reduces ion diffusion into bulk material. On the other hand, the increase of lattice parameters could improve ion intercalation. Therefore, the specific capacitance increase with Ti content in the samples with x = 0.25 to x = 0.75.



School of Chemistry Academic Year 2016 Student's Signature <u>มาตร เล็กตาะกูล</u>ธามา Advisor's Signature <u>**โนะกลานก Sinitanou**</u>

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to thank my thesis supervisor, Asst. Prof. Dr. Theeranun Siritanon, for her helpful, supportive advices and support throughout the thesis and the writing of this thesis.

I also would like to acknowledge the committee including Prof. Dr. Jatuporn Wittayakun, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Rapee Utke and Asst. Prof. Dr. Sanchai Prayoonpokarach for all of their guidance through this thesis.

Lastly, I would like to thank my scholarship, Development and Promotion of Science and Technology Talents Project (Royal Government of Thailand scholarship), for financial supports.

Paradron Lektrakoontara

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## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Introduction**

Electrochemical capacitors (ECs) or supercapacitors become the promising device for energy storage applications due to its high power density, high cycle performance and fast recharging process. Cathode is one of the important parts of supercapacitors which affects their performance and electrical capacity. Several materials such as carbon, conducting polymers and metal oxides have been studied as possible cathode materials. Charge storage of supercapacitors is based on two mechanisms: electric double layer capacitance (EDLC) which is an electrolytic charge accumulation at electrode surfaces and pseudocapacitance which is related to redox reactions of active materials.

At present, metal oxides have been focused on in electrode materials development due to their high specific capacitance (Zhi *et al.*, 2013; Zhang *et al.*, 2009). The highest capacitance was found on RuO<sub>2</sub> but its cost and toxicity have limited RuO<sub>2</sub> in commercial production (Zhang *et al.*, 2009). Recently, many researchers are interested in MnO<sub>2</sub> for electrode materials due to its low cost, environmental compatibility and good electrochemical behavior. Unfortunately, despite the high theoretical capacitance, it was reported in literatures that experimental specific capacitance of MnO<sub>2</sub> is only about 100 F g<sup>-1</sup> for powder and 700 F g<sup>-1</sup> for thin film owing to electrode corrosion and lack of electronic and ionic conductivity (Ghodbane *et al.*, 2009). There are several factors which affect specific capacitance of materials such as morphology (Mao *et al.*, 2012), pore structure (Luo *et al.*, 2007), pore diameter (Sawangphruk *et al.*, 2012), synthesis method (Zhi *et al.*, 2013; Subramanian *et al.*, 2005), specific surface area and particle size. Additional factors include electrode preparation such as loading method and loading mass (Wan *et al.*, 2014).

Interestingly, MnO<sub>2</sub> has several possible crystallographic structures. Each structure is constructed with MnO<sub>6</sub> octahedral building block in various arrangements presenting 1D, 2D and 3D structure with different tunnel size. Devaraj *et al.* (2008) and Grobane *et al.* (2009) studied electrochemical behavior of MnO<sub>2</sub> with different crystal structure. They found that each structure gives different capacitance value. It was found that there are two significant factors affecting the capacitance; the specific surface area and the ionic conductivity. Ionic conductivity of each structure is related to its tunnel. High ionic conductivity is observed in structures with large channel size. Therefore, MnO<sub>2</sub> with large tunnel size tends to present higher specific capacitance. Interestingly, spinel MnO<sub>2</sub>, whose structure consists of relatively small channels for ion diffusion, exhibits unexpectedly high ionic conductivity and specific capacitance. Thus, it is concluded that not only the size, but also the connectivity of such channels plays important roles in determining the capacitance of MnO<sub>2</sub> (Ghodbane *et al.*, 2009).

The current research aims to further study the effects of channel size on the electrochemical behavior of spinel  $MnO_2$ . Titanium is chosen as the doped metal to enlarge unit cell and expand the size of three-dimensional interconnected channel in  $MnO_2$  spinel lattice. The relationship between the composition, structure and electrochemical properties of Ti-doped  $MnO_2$  is discussed. The obtained results are

believed to be useful in deepening the understanding of charge storage mechanisms of related oxides.



## **CHAPTER II**

### LITERATURE REVIEW

Capacitor is a well-known charge storage device used in many applications such as automobiles, aircraft and space, medicine, computers and power supply circuits. Leiden jar, the first technology of capacitor was developed by Pieter van Musschenbroek in 1745 (Jayalakshmi and Balasubramanian, 2008).

## 2.1 Types of capacitors

#### **2.1.1 Electrostatic capacitors**

An electrostatic capacitor or conventional capacitor is a basic and first generation of capacitors. Today, conventional capacitors comprise of two parallel metallic electrodes placed in mutual opposition and separated by dielectric materials or insulators such as paper, water, paraffin, polymer and air. (Figure 2.1)



Figure 2.1 Basic configuration of electrostatic capacitor.

Charge storage principle can be descripted as follow: when voltage is applied between 2 electrodes, electrons on the metallic plate from one side will be driven to the other plate. In this case, electrons will flow from low to high potential until the potential between two plates are equal to that of the applied one. As a result, positive charges occur on the metallic plate which losses electrons and negative charges will be stored on the other plate. After that, the applied voltage is cut off. This described process is called a charging process. When capacitors are used, electrons from the rich-electron electrode will be released and flowed back to the deficient-electron electrode until charges between two electrodes are balanced. (Figure 2.2)



**Figure 2.2** Charging process (left) and discharging process (right) of an electrostatic capacitor.

Generally, capacitance of electrostatic capacitors is in the range of 0.1 to 1  $\mu$ F in a voltage range of 50 to 400 V. Capacity of conventional capacitors is explained by equation (2.1) where C is electrostatic capacity ( $\mu$ F),  $\epsilon$  is dielectric constant, A is surface area of the electrode (cm<sup>2</sup>) and d is thickness of dielectric (cm)

$$C = \varepsilon A/d \tag{2.1}$$

In an electrical circuit, when capacitors are connected to other capacitors or components, the equivalent capacitance can be calculated by equation (2.2) and (2.3) when the capacitors are connected in parallel and series configuration, respectively.  $C_{eq}$  is an equivalent capacitance.

$$C_{eq} = C_1 + C_2 + \ldots + C_n$$
 (2.2)

$$C_{eq} = 1/C_1 + 1/C_2 + \dots + 1/C_n$$
 (2.3)

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Electrode materials of electrostatic capacitors such as silicon usually gives low capacitances. Its capacitance could be increased by using insulator materials with a high permittivity and effective surface areas. Surface area of silicon-based electrodes could be increased by etching process (Jayalakshmi and Balasubramanian, 2008).

#### 2.1.2 Electrolytic capacitor

An electrolytic capacitor is the second generation of capacitors. The capacitance of electrolytic capacitors is improved by the use of dielectric oxides with increased  $\varepsilon$  value. The configuration of electrolytic capacitors consists of a cathode foil, an anode foil, a dielectric film and an electrolyte. A dielectric film is fabricated at surface of a cathode foil by anodizing process (Figure 2.3). There are many kinds of electrolytic capacitors depending on types of electrodes, dielectrics and electrolyte.



Figure 2.3 Basic configuration of electrolytic capacitor.

Charge storage mechanism of electrolytic capacitors is based on the double layer capacitance. Electrons are stored at electrode surface and stabilized by positive charge of the electrolyte. To demonstrate on how electrons flow in electrolytic capacitor, basic schematic electrical circuit showing basic components in capacitors is shown in Figure 2.4. C is the capacitance,  $R_{ESR}$  is the equivalent series resistance,  $L_{ESL}$  is the equivalent series inductance and  $R_{leak}$  is the resistance from leakage current.



Figure 2.4 Basic schematic electrical circuit of electrolytic capacitor.

The commercial Ta capacitors use  $Ta_2O_5$  as a dielectric film. Sulfuric acid is used as electrolyte for a wet type. Organic electrolytes such as polyaniline, polypyrrole and ethylene carbonate are used as an electrolyte for solid type. Its capacitances are in range of 0.1 to 10  $\mu$ F. Like electrostatic capacitors, Ta capacitors are improved by increasing the effective area.

Additionally, there are ceramic capacitors constructed from layers of metals and ceramics. Ag-Pd and other metals such as Mn and Ca are used as electrodes and many types of ceramics are used as dielectrics such as  $BaTiO_3$ ,  $CaZrO_3$ ,  $MgTiO_3$  and  $SrTiO_3$ . Their capacitance is in a range of 10  $\mu$ F.

Besides oxide compounds and ceramics, the other types of electrolytic capacitors are film capacitors which use polyester and polypropylene as dielectric film and metal-glazed capacitors (Jayalakshmi and Balasubramanian, 2008).

#### 2.2 Supercapacitors

Supercapacitors or ultracapacitors are high performance capacitors. According to Table 2.1 and Ragone plot in Figure 2.5, supercapacitors could store more energy than electrostatic capacitors and have more power density than batteries which fulfills the gap between conventional capacitors and batteries. Because of its properties, supercapacitors are used in many applications which require high energy and power such as engine start or acceleration for electric vehicles, backup power sources and energy storage devices (Zhang *et al.*, 2009). Capacitance, energy (E) and power ( $P_{max}$ ) of supercapacitors are calculated from equation (2.4), (2.5) and (2.6), respectively. Q is the collected charges in coulomb, C is the capacitance in Farads, V is voltage, and R is the equivalent series resistance in ohms. (Liu and Zhua, 2007).

$$C = Q/V \tag{2.4}$$

$$E = CV^2/2 \tag{2.5}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{\max} = \mathbf{V}^2 / 4\mathbf{R} \tag{2.6}$$



 Table 2.1 Properties of battery, electrostatic capacitors and supercapacitors (Zhang et al., 2009).

**Figure 2.5** Ragone plot reveals power density and energy density of many types of energy storage devices (Stan, 2014).

Basic configuration of a supercapacitor consists of two electrodes, an electrolyte and a separator. Generally, separators are used to decrease ion movement speed in electrolyte solution in order to avoid short circuit (Figure 2.6).



Figure 2.6 Basic configuration of a supercapacitor.

Comparing to batteries, supercapacitors store electrical charges only at surface rather than the entire electrodes. Types of supercapacitors are simply classified to electrical double layer capacitors (EDLC) and electrochemical capacitors (Pseudocapacitor) based on its charge storage character.

Charge storage of supercapacitors is similar to that of electrostatic capacitors. In charging process, the voltage is applied and electrons are stored at the electrode, positive and negative charges arise at electrodes and the opposite charges of electrolyte built up at electrode surface to locally neutralize electrical charge forming a Helmholtz layer. In a discharging process, electrons are released to generate electrical current and charged species in an electrolyte at the electrode surface would flow back to the electrolyte bulk (Figure 2.7).

Besides the double layer capacitance, some materials such as metal oxides could additionally have faradaic capacitance, called pseudocapacitance by reacting with the electrolyte and storing electrons in the form of chemical reactions.



Figure 2.7 Charging process (left) and discharging process (right) of supercapacitors.

A single electron transfer is discussed here as equation (2.7) and (2.8). M is an electroactive material, X<sup>+</sup> is cation species in the electrolyte, A<sup>-</sup> is anion, MC and MA are the obtained species. Both cation and anion in electrolyte could react with an electroactive material depending on the nature of materials and the types of ions. Typically, cations like H<sup>+</sup> and alkali ion such as Li<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> are used while anions such as Cl<sup>-</sup>, Br<sup>-</sup>, I<sup>-</sup> and SCN<sup>-</sup> are electron donating group (Zhang *et al.*, 2009).

$$M + A^{-} \longrightarrow MA + e^{-}$$
 (2.7)

$$M + X^{+} + e^{-} \longrightarrow MC$$
 (2.8)

#### **2.2.1 Electrical double layer capacitor (EDLC)**

Theoretically, electrical double layer capacitors store electric charges only by a double layer mechanism. As a result, capacitance of EDLC is affected by number of charge accumulated on electrode surfaces. Therefore, the development of EDLC is based on increasing the specific surface area (Jayalakshmi and Balasubramanian, 2008). Carbon is a dominant material for EDLC electrodes because of the large surface area, high conductivity, low cost, non-toxicity and high stability. Several types of carbon have been investigated as summarized in Table 2.2 (Zhang *et al.*, 2009).

In reality, the key for high capacitance is not only specific areas of carbon materials but also carbon structure, pore size, particle size, electrical conductivity and surface functionalities (Pandolfo and Hollenkamp, 2006). Additionally, capacitance of nanoporous carbons depends on its matching degree to the applied electrolytes rather than its overall pore volume (Liu and Zhua, 2007).



Carbon-based material	Electrolyte	Working	Specific capacitance
		voltage (V)	(F g <sup>-1</sup> )
Activated carbon (AC)	1 M Et <sub>4</sub> NBF <sub>4</sub> +	1.5	40
	PC		
Graphite	1 M Et <sub>4</sub> NBF <sub>4</sub> +	3.0	12
	PC		
Carbon aerogel	1.5 M	3.0	160
	Et <sub>3</sub> MeNBF <sub>4</sub> +		
	PC		
Mesoporous carbon	30 wt% KOH	0.9	180
Meso/macroporous	6 М КОН	0.8	130
carbon			
C <sub>60</sub> -loaded AC fiber	0.5 M H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	1.0	172
Single-wall CNTs	EMITFSI	2.3	50
Multi-wall CNTs sheet	1.96 M TEMABF <sub>4</sub> + PC	2.5 โลยีสุรุป	13

 Table 2.2 Examples of carbon-based materials for EDLC electrode (Zhang *et al.*,

 2009).

 $*PC = poly carbonate, TEMABF_4 = Triethylmethylaammoniumtetrafluoroborate and$ 

EMITFSI = 1-Ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide.

#### 2.2.2 Electrochemical capacitor (pseudocapacitor)

Charge storage principle of pseudocapacitors is based on both double layer capacitance and faradaic process providing more capacitances than EDLC. Many types of transition metal oxide compounds have been investigated as electrode materials for pseudocapacitors such as RuO<sub>2</sub>, Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub>, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, WC, V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, SnO<sub>2</sub> and MnO<sub>2</sub>as summarized in Table 2.3 (Zhang *et al.*, 2009).

 Table 2.3 Examples of transition metal oxide compounds for pseudocapacitor

 electrodes (Zhang *et al.*, 2009).

Transition metal	Electrolyte	Working voltage	Specific
oxide compound	, I D	(V)	capacitance (F g <sup>-1</sup> )
RuO <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> O	0.5 M H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	1.0	650
RuO <sub>2</sub> /carbon	PVA hydrogel	0.8	1000
MnO <sub>2</sub>	0.5 M K <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	0.8	261
SnO <sub>2</sub> /carbon	1 M H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	1.0	68
aerogel		19	
Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub>	3% KOH	0.8	578
Cobalt-nickel	1 M KOH	1.0	569
oxide/ CNTs			
WC/carbon	$1 \text{ M H}_2 \text{SO}_4$	0.9	477
TiN	1 M KOH	0.2	238
$V_2O_5$	2 M KCl	0.7	262

According to Table 2.3, RuO<sub>2</sub> seems to be the best material because of its high specific capacitance, long cycle life, high conductivity, and good electrochemical reversibility. However, the high cost, low abundance and toxicity limit the commercial uses of RuO<sub>2</sub>. To surpass these limitations, other transition metal oxide compounds have been investigated.

#### 2.3 Manganese oxide

Manganese oxide or manganese (IV) oxide (MnO<sub>2</sub>) is blackish or brown solid found naturally in pyrolusite mineral. MnO<sub>2</sub> is used in many applications including as an essential component in dry-cell batteries such as Zn-carbon battery, a pigment, a catalyst for alcohol oxidation and a precursor for other manganese compounds such as KMnO<sub>4</sub>. Moreover, MnO<sub>2</sub> is considerably cheaper and less toxic than most chemicals.

#### 2.3.1 Crystal structures of MnO<sub>2</sub>

Structure of MnO<sub>2</sub> consists of octahedral building block of six atoms of oxygen and one atom of manganese as shown in Figure 2.8. The difference of edge sharing and corner sharing of this octahedral building block leads to several crystal structures of MnO<sub>2</sub>with different tunnel size. The MnO<sub>2</sub> is named by two main systems: the common name and the geek alphabet one as shown in Table 2.4.



**Figure 2.8** Octahedral building block of MnO<sub>2</sub>: pink atom is manganese and white atom is oxygen (Eni, 2017; Ben, 2006).

Geek alphabet	Common name	Crystal structure	Tunnel size
α	Cryptomelane	<b>D</b>	(2x2)
β	Pyrolusite		(1x1)
γ	Ramsdellite		(1x2)
δ	Birnessite		Inter layers
ε			(1x1)(1x2) [
λ	Spinel		3D channel
-	Romanechite		(2x3)
- Ch	<sub>OMS-5</sub> วักยาลัยเทคโ	นโลยสุรั	(2x4)
-	Todorokite		(3x3)
-	Wooddruffite		(3x4)

 Table 2.4 Nomenclature and several crystal structures of MnO<sub>2</sub> (Ghodbane *et al.*,

 2009).

#### 2.3.2 Electrochemical behavior of MnO<sub>2</sub>

Recently, manganese oxide has attracted much attention as a material for supercapacitor electrodes because of its low cost, electrochemical behavior and environment compatibility. Generally, pseudocapacitance mechanism of  $MnO_2$  is based on single-electron transfer reaction. According to equation (2.9) where X<sup>+</sup> is alkali cation such as Li<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup>; charges are stored in the form of faradaic reaction between cation and  $MnO_2$ . When  $MnO_2$  is completely reduced from  $Mn^{4+}$  to  $Mn^{3+}$ , its specific capacitance would be 1233 F g<sup>-1</sup> which is close to that of RuO<sub>2</sub> (Zhang *et al.*, 2009)

$$MnO_2 + X^+ + e^- \longrightarrow MnOOX$$
 (2.9)

However,  $MnO_2$  suffers from its low electronic conductivity and corrosive effect. Many literatures report that experimental specific capacitance of  $MnO_2$  is only about 100 F g<sup>-1</sup> for powder and 700 F g<sup>-1</sup> for thin film which is far from the theoretical value and not yet enough for commercial applications (Ghodbane *et al.*, 2009).

In principle, there are 2 processes contributing to  $MnO_2$  capacitance which are double layer capacitance and pseudocapacitance. Moreover, pseudocapacitance can be divided into two capacitive elements which are pseudocapacitive faradaic capacitance of  $MnO_2$  surface (surface capacitance) and faradaic reaction of  $MnO_2$ center requiring cation insertion/deinsertion (insertion capacitance). The surface capacitance occurs at outer surface of materials while insertion/deinsertion capacitance occurs at inner surface. Scan rate dependence of the current is used to separate each capacitive element. Equation (2.10) shows relation of the current as a function of scan rate when i(V) is the current at a given voltage, v is scan rate,  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are scan rate dependent constants of surface capacitance and intercalation process.

$$i(V) = k_1 v + k_2 v^{1/2}$$
(2.10)

As these two processes occur at different rates, Trasatti *et al.* (1990) developed a method to quantitatively separate capacitive elements. They proposed that if sufficient time is given, all electrochemical process scan take place and the capacitance at scan rate at 0 mV s<sup>-1</sup> will demonstrate the total capacitance ( $C_{tot}$ ). On the other hand, the capacitance at scan rate infinity will demonstrate only surface capacitance ( $C_{sur}$ ). Then, the insertion capacitance can be obtained from the difference between total capacitance and surface capacitance ( $C_{tot}$  -  $C_{sur}$ ). Therefore, the certain number of  $C_{tot}$  and  $C_{sur}$  can be obtained by extrapolation of specific capacitance value at semi linear range from plot of specific capacitance as a function of  $v^{1/2}$  and  $v^{-1/2}$ , respectively.

Both the surface and the insertion capacitance are important in determining electrochemical behaviors of  $MnO_2$ . While the surface capacitance significantly depends on the surface area and morphology, several works have shown that crystallographic structures of  $MnO_2$  have great impact on the insertion one.

Sang *et al.* (2011) synthesized nanowire/nanorod  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, urchins  $\gamma$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> and nanoplates  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> via persulfate treatment of divalent manganese compound at room temperature. Specific surface area and specific capacitance of each compound are presented in Table 2.5. The capacitive behavior can occur via two mechanisms which are adsorption/desorption of cations on its surface and intercalation/deintercalation into manganese lattice. The result showed that  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> is favorable for both mechanisms. Because it has the largest surface area compared to the others MnO<sub>2</sub> which increase surface capacitance, and the 2D layered structure provides a large channel size which allows more ion intercalation. However,  $\gamma$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> which has neither 2D interlayer structure nor channel available for cation shows a larger capacitance than  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> due to a greater adsorption process from its larger specific surface. It was found that  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod with a larger specific surface area has more specific capacitance than  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> nanowires.



Table 2.5 Comparison between specific area and capacitance of several types of MnO<sub>2</sub>.

Chen *et al.* (2016) investigated the phase transformation of MnO<sub>2</sub> crystal structure from  $\beta$ -phase to  $\alpha$ -phase inducing by doping Ce<sup>3+</sup>. MnO<sub>2</sub> is prepared from a redox reaction between Mn<sup>2+</sup> and S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub><sup>2-</sup>.  $\alpha$ -phase is formed because the presence of Ce<sup>3+</sup> at 2x2 tunnel prevents structure collapsing. It was found that doping Ce not only induces the phase transformation of MnO<sub>2</sub> but also changes size of nanorod (Figure 2.9). When  $\beta$ -phase is transformed to  $\alpha$ -phase, specific capacitance is significantly increased from 13.1 to 57 F g<sup>-1</sup>. Moreover, the highest specific capacitance is found on

the sample which has the smallest size of nanorod compared to the others. The experiment showed that higher specific capacitance was obtained from  $\alpha$ -phase (2x2 tunnel) which has larger tunnel size comparing to  $\beta$ -phase (1x1 tunnel), and sample with smaller particle size give more specific capacitance.



Figure 2.9 Phase transformation of  $MnO_2$  and relation between nanorod size and amount of doped Ce<sup>3+</sup> (Chen *et al.*, 2016)

Ragupathy *et al.* (2009) studied capacity retention on nano $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> and also investigated the effects of synthetic condition on its structure.  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> is prepared via direct reaction between KMnO<sub>4</sub> and ethylene glycol. The solution was dried at different temperatures to observe structure change and electrochemical behavior. It was found that  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> changed to  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> at temperature above 400 °C. As a result, specific capacitance and specific surface area dramatically decreased when  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> is changed to  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>. The results obtained from this work indicate that large ion transporting channel of  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> demonstrate more specific capacitance than 1D structure of  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> which has narrow tunnel compared to interlayer structure. Zhang *et al.* (2014) synthesized Na-OL-1 MnO<sub>2</sub> ( $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>) and Na-OMS-5 MnO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 2.10) and studied their electrochemical performance. The result showed that BET surface area of Na-OL-1 MnO<sub>2</sub> and Na-OMS-5 are 43.9 and 66.8 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>. Although, specific surface area of Na-OL-1 is lower than Na-OMS-5, specific capacitance of Na-OL-1 MnO<sub>2</sub> is 308 F g<sup>-1</sup> which is higher than Na-OMS-5 (141 F g<sup>-1</sup>) because surface area has limited impact on specific capacitance and the opened 2D structure enhancing cation intercalation into bulk material. Moreover, in this study, not only specific capacitance was studied but the total charge, outer charge and inter charge were also determined as a function of varied scan rate (Table 2.6). The results showed that outer charge is significantly lower than inner charge in both MnO<sub>2</sub> structure which suggests that the intercalation/deintercalation is the main charge storage mechanism compared to adsorption/desorption in Na-OL-1 and Na-OMS-5.



Figure 2.10 Structures of Na-OL-1 (δ-MnO<sub>2</sub>) and Na-OMS-5 (Zhang *et al.*, 2014).

Type of MnO <sub>2</sub>	Total charge	Outer charge	Inner charge
	$(C g^{-1})$	$(C g^{-1})$	$(C g^{-1})$
Na-OL-1	1362	85	1277
Na-OMS-5	420	61	359

Table 2.6 Total charge, outer charge and inner charge of Na-OL-1 and Na-OMS-5.

Devaraj and Munichadraiah (2008) studied the effects of crystallographic structure from five types of MnO<sub>2</sub>:  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$  and  $\lambda$  on its electrochemical properties. They found that specific capacitance value decreased in the order of  $\alpha$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\lambda$  to  $\beta$ . The presence of large tunnel size in some MnO<sub>2</sub> structure such as  $\alpha$ -type (2x2) and  $\delta$ -type (layered structure) were more suitable for ion insertion and extraction compared to  $\gamma$ type (1x2) and  $\beta$ -type (1x1) which have narrow channel. MnO<sub>2</sub> with large channel size tends to be good for charge accumulation and have more specific capacitance even though its specific surface area was lower than the others (Table 2.7). As a result, it was concluded that tunnel size plays an important role in the ion insertion and extraction process which significantly affects the specific capacitance.

<sup>รา</sup>วักยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุรุบ
Туре	Crystal structure	Specific area	Specific capacitance
of MnO <sub>2</sub>		$(m^2 g^{-1})$	$(F g^{-1})$
α	Q	17.29	241
β		31.56	107
δ	harinaharinahari <sup>1</sup> harinaharinahar	20.93	236
λ		5.21	21

Table 2.7 Comparison between specific area and capacitance of several types of MnO<sub>2</sub>.

Ghodbane *et al.* (2009) also studied the effects of MnO<sub>2</sub> crystal structure on charge storage properties. Seven types of MnO<sub>2</sub>: pyrolusite, ramsdellite, cryptomelane, Ni-todorokite, OMS-5, birnessite and spinel have been investigated. Phase purity, morphology, specific surface area, specific capacitance, electronic and ionic conductivity of MnO<sub>2</sub> were measured. It was found that electronic conductivity of all MnO<sub>2</sub> was not significantly different, but the different channel size resulted in the different ionic conductivity. As their specific capacitances were different despite the similar electronic conductivity, it was concluded that charge storage mechanism of MnO<sub>2</sub> was mainly pseudocapacitance rather than double layer capacitance. The results also showed that ionic conductivity increase with the increasing channel size and connectivity of the structure. Additionally, the presence of Ni<sup>2+</sup> in Todorokite hiders ion insertion/extraction and decrease both ionic conductivity and specific capacitance which ensures that tunnel size of MnO<sub>2</sub> strongly impacts the capacitance. However, specific surface area is anticipated to play some roles on the specific capacitance of MnO<sub>2</sub> as well. The ionic conductivity, specific surface area and specific capacitance are compared and shown in Figure 2.11. Despite having a relatively small tunnel (1x1), it was found that the three-dimensional interconnected channel in spinel MnO<sub>2</sub> promotion diffusion allowing the high capacitance. In fact, Ghodbane *et al.* (2009) reported that it has the highest capacitance followed by birnessite, OMS-5, cryptomelane, ramsdellite, Ni-todorokite and pyrolusite, respectively.



**Figure 2.11** Relative values of specific capacitance, ionic conductivity and BET surface area of MnO<sub>2</sub> with different structure (Ghodbane *et al.*, 2009).

According to the investigation of Ghodbane, Pascal and Favier (2009), spinel-MnO<sub>2</sub> is an interesting structure for supercapacitor application due to the high specific capacitance and ionic conductivity.

General formula of spinel oxides is  $AB_2O_4$  with oxide anion arranged in face-centered lattice and cation A and B occupying tetrahedral and octahedral site, respectively (Figure 2.12). Oxidation state of B could be divalent, trivalent and tetravalent and that of A could be monovalent and divalent depending on types of elements. For spinel-MnO<sub>2</sub>, Mn occupied octahedral site and its oxidation state is 4+ while the tetrahedral sites are empty. It was first synthesized by acid leaching of LiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (Hunter, 1981).



**Figure 2.12** Spinel structure: blue spheres represent oxygen while red spheres are B cation and yellow spheres are Acation (Uberuaga *et al.*, 2015).

It was found that structural cavity size of spinel- $MnO_2$  is 2.9 Å in radius which is too small for hydrated cation intercalation such as hydrated K<sup>+</sup> and Li<sup>+</sup>. Thus, diffusion of cation is achieved only by diffusion of desolvated cation such as K<sup>+</sup> (1.51 Å) and Li<sup>+</sup> (0.73 Å) into tetrahedral sites whose radius is about 1.94 Å (Ghodbane *et al.*, 2012).

Increasing of d-spacing and lattice parameters have a possibility in increasing cavity size of tetrahedral site which would allow more ion diffusion. One way to increase the cell is to dope larger elements in manganese site. Many metals such as Sc, Cr, Co, Ni, Zn, In, Ge, Fe and Ti have been doped in LiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, but most resulted in similar lattice parameters (Xie *et al.*, 2005; Wu *et al.*, 2002; Guler *et al.*, 2014). Only Ge, Fe and Ti doping increase cell parameters (Tarascon *et al.*, 1991). Among these compounds, acid leached Ti-doped LiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> had the largest cell parameter (Table 2.8) and is the focus of this current research.

**Table 2.8** Cell parameters of acid leached  $\text{LiMn}_{2-x}M_xO_4$  when x = Ti, Ge and Fe (Tarascon *et al.*, 1991).

Compounds	Cell parameter (Å)
Leached LiTiMnO <sub>4</sub>	8.153
Leached LiGe <sub>0.2</sub> Mn <sub>1.8</sub> O4	8.052 10
Leached LiFe <sub>0.2</sub> Mn <sub>1.8</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	8.082
Leached LiMn <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	8.022

# 2.4 Research objectives

1. To prepare Ti doped MnO<sub>2</sub> with spinel structure.

2. To study the structure, physical and electrochemical properties of the obtained materials.

3. To explain the effects of structure and composition on properties of the obtained compounds.



# **CHAPTER III**

# **EXPERIMENTAL**

# **3.1** Chemicals and materials

- Lithium carbonate (Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>), 99%, Acros Organic
- Manganese (II) acetate tetrahydrate (Mn(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O), 99%, Acros Organic
- Titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>), 99%, Sigma-Aldrich
- Hydrochloric acid (HCl), 37%, Carlo Erba -
- Polyvinylidine fluoride (PVDF), 99%, Acros Organic
- N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (CH<sub>3</sub>NCOC<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>), 99%, Acros Organic
- Acetone (CH<sub>3</sub>COCH<sub>3</sub>), 99.8%, Carlo Erba
- Potassium sulfate (K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>), 99%, Carlo Erba
- Carbon black, 99%, Sigma-Aldrich
- Sigma-Aldrich Nickel foam (1x0.5 cm<sup>2</sup>), Sigma-Aldrich

# **3.2 Instruments**

- Powder X-Ray diffractometer (XRD), Bruker D2 Phaser
- Scanning electron microscope coupled with energy dispersive spectroscope (SEM-EDS), JSM-6010 LV, JEOL

- Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES), optima8000, PerkinElmer
- X-ray absorption spectroscope, beam line 5.2, Synchrotron Light Research Institute
- Potentiostate, Reference 600, Gamry instrument
- BET surface area analyzer, Bel sorp Mini II

# **3.3 Sample preparation**

#### 3.3.1 Solid state method

Solid state method is a classic process used for solid synthesis. Solid state synthesis has been widely used because it is simple, solventless and reagentless. In a typical method, solid state precursors were mixed together in a mortar and finely ground and mixed by a pestle. Highly volatile organic solvents such as acetone and ethanol were used to improve sample homogeneity in the grinding process. After that, the mixture was heated under designated condition to obtain the product.

In this work, stoichiometric mixtures of lithium carbonate, manganese acetate tetra hydrate and titanium dioxide were mixed with 5 mL of acetone and crushed in a mortar with a pestle. The mixtures were first calcined at 350 °C for 12 hours to eliminate acetate. After that, the mixtures were finely ground, pressed into pellets and sintered at 800 °C for 12 hours 2 times to give products.

#### **3.3.2 Acid leaching for lithium extraction**

Strong acidic solution is a common reagent used for lithium extraction from lithium metal compounds such as LiCoO<sub>2</sub> and LiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to produce metal oxide residues.

According to equation (3.1) (Hunter, 1981), extraction of lithium takes place by disproportionation of  $Mn^{3+}$  to  $Mn^{4+}$  and  $Mn^{2+}$  when the compound reacts with diluted HCl solution. As a result,  $MnO_2$  is obtained as the only non-soluble product.

$$2\text{LiMn}_2\text{O}_4 + 4\text{HCl} \longrightarrow 2\text{LiCl} + 3\text{MnO}_2 + \text{MnCl}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \quad (3.1)$$

To prepare leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$ , the solid products of  $LiTi_xMn_{2-x}O_4$  obtained from solid state reaction were dispersed in 0.5 M HCl solution and stirred for 48 hours at room temperature. After that, the resulting suspension was filtered by cellulose acetate filter paper (0.45 micron diameter) and the non-soluble residues were collected.

### 3.3.3 Preparation of electrodes

Electrodes are composed of 80 weight% of the samples, 10 weightt% of acetylene black and 10 wt % of polyvinylidene fluoride as a binder. All components were mixed and crushed with 5 mL of acetone. After all acetone is evaporated, the resulting powder was mixed with 5 mL of N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone by sonification for 3 minutes. The resulting black suspension was coated onto Ni foam by dropping with micropipette, and subsequently dried at 100 °C in an oven. A step of coating and drying was repeated to get loading mass close to 0.5 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. Finally, the electrodes were dried at 130 °C overnight and immerged in 0.5 M K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution prior to electrochemical characterization.

#### **3.4 Characterizations**

#### 3.4.1 Structural and physical characterization

#### **3.4.1.1** Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD)

In this study, the X-ray powder diffraction patterns were used as a fingerprint of samples for phase identification and phase purity confirmation.

LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> powders were investigated by powder X-ray diffraction technique (XRD) using Bruker D2 Phaser diffractometer (Cu K $\alpha$  radiation) in Bragg-Brentano configuration. Short step-scan data for phase identification were recorded in the angle interval 10–60 (2 $\theta$ ) with a step of 0.02° (2 $\theta$ ) and a counting time of 0.2 second per step, and long step-scan data were in the angle interval 10–120° (2 $\theta$ ) with a step of 0.02° (2 $\theta$ ) and a counting time of 2 second per step. Lattice parameters, unit cell volume, crystallographic information including atomic position and occupancies were determined by Reitveld refinement using a TOPAS software. In a typical refinement, the occupancy of oxygen was fixed while those of other elements were refined. The total occupancies of Li, Mn, and Ti in leached LiMn<sub>2-</sub> <sub>x</sub>TixO<sub>4</sub> were fixed to the values obtained from chemical analyses.

# 3.4.1.2 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy-dispersive

#### X-ray spectroscopy (EDS)

In this study, SEM provides morphology, particle size, shape, and distribution of sample particles. In the experiment, the samples were coated with a layer of gold using a Balzer sputtering coater and characterized with a scanning electron microscope, (SEM-EDS), JSM-6010 LV, JEOL. EDS (SEM-EDS), JSM-6010 LV, JEOL is used for elemental analysis in this study.

3.4.1.3 Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES)

In this study, ICP-OES optima8000, PerkinElmer was used to determine the amount of Li, Mn and Ti in the solution obtained from acid leaching of  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  by calibration curve quantification. Standard solution of lithium, manganese and titanium were prepared from lithium acetate, manganese acetate and ammonium hexafluorotitanate.

#### **3.4.1.4 X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS)**

Oxidation state of Mn and Ti in the solid products was investigated by X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS). The measurements of Mn K-edge and Ti Kedge XANES spectra were carried out in transmission mode at beam line BL-5.2 in Synchrotron light research institute (SLRI), Nakonrachasrima. MnO, Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and MnO<sub>2</sub> were used as standard for Mn<sup>2+</sup>, Mn<sup>3+</sup> and Mn<sup>4+</sup>, respectively. Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> (rutile) were used as standard for Ti<sup>3+</sup> and Ti<sup>4+</sup>, respectively. XAS measurement was performed under Ar atmosphere at room temperature.

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#### 3.4.1.5 Gas adsorption

In this study, BET measurement was used to investigate the specific area and pore volume of the obtained materials. Samples were weighted and put in a tube. Each sample was degassed at 200 °C for 4 hours under vacuum to remove moisture. N<sub>2</sub> gas was slowly filled in the tube. The specific surface area of the sample was calculated following the Brunner Emmet Teller (BET) method and the Barrett Joyner Halenda (BJH) method at the relative pressure range 0 - 1 (p/p<sub>0</sub>) of liquid nitrogen and the total volume was calculated from a single point at  $p/p_0 \sim 1$ . Data were analyzed using the Brunner-Emmett-Teller (BET), Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH), and t-plot methods.

#### **3.4.2 Electrochemical characterization**

Cyclic voltammetry is an electrochemical measurement using electrochemical cell which consists of 3 conventional electrodes: a working electrode, a counter electrode and a reference electrode. When the potential window is set, working electrode potential is linearly ramped. After the potential reached the set point, the potential is ramped in the opposite direction returning to the initial value. Voltammogram showing electrochemical characteristic information of materials is a plot of current counted by the working electrode versus the applied potential.

Specific capacitance (C<sub>s</sub>) can be calculated by equation (3.2) and (3.3) where Q is collected charge in coulomb,  $\Delta V$  is potential window, m is material mass in gram, v is scan rate (v s<sup>-1</sup>) and I is current in ampere.

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{s}} = \mathbf{Q}/\Delta \mathbf{V}\mathbf{m} \tag{3.2}$$

$$C_{\rm s} = \int I dV / v \Delta V m \tag{3.3}$$

In this work, three conventional electrodes composing of Pt counter electrode, Ag/AgCl reference electrode and a composite electrode as a working electrode were used. 0.5 M  $K_2SO_4$  solution was used as an electrolyte. Potential window was set in the range of 0.9 V to -0.1 V. The potential step was set to 0.5 mV.

## **CHAPTER IV**

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

#### 4.1 Structure and phase purity analysis

#### 4.1.1 X-ray diffraction

Figure 4.1 shows XRD patterns of LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in 2 $\theta$  range of 10° to 60°. Diffraction peaks of both series can be indexed to cubic spinel structure with  $Fd\overline{3}m$  space group, in accordance with previous reports (Tarascon *et al.*, 1991; Wang et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2010; Krins et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2015). No impurity phase arises with the increase of Ti content until x = 0.75. Impurity is observed in a sample with x = 1 (Figure 4.2) showing that solubility limit of Ti in LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is 0.75. Mn and Ti are supposed to be in 16d site and Li is located in 8a site due to their ionic radius. However, previous studies (Avdeev et al., 2009; Petrov et al., 2005; Vu et al., 2017) reported that Ti and Mn are able to replace some Li in 8a site which can be observed by the increase of (220) diffraction when x is increased (Wang et al., 2014). This increase of (220) intensity is also observed in this work as shown in Figure 4.2. However, different synthetic route and sintering temperature also affect occupancies of Ti and Mn. It was found that samples prepared by quenching and sintering at 1000 °C have more Mn/Ti in 8a site. Thus, (220) peak intensity is higher comparing to that of the samples prepared at 800 °C without quenching (Petrov et al., 2005; Vu et al., 2017). After deintercalaction process, 8a site is almost vacant.

Thus, the (220) plane is not observed in leached  $\text{LiMn}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{O4}$ . In addition, XRD patterns of leached  $\text{LiMn}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{O4}$  shows that peak intensity of (400) plane is increased with the amount of Ti (Figure 4.3) which agrees with that reported by Avdeev *et al.* (2009). The XRD peaks continuously shift toward lower diffraction angles when x is increased in both series confirming the expansion of lattice parameter. Figure 4.4 shows the lattice parameter change in both  $\text{LiMn}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{O4}$  and leached  $\text{LiMn}_{2-x}\text{Ti}_x\text{O4}$ . In this case, lattice parameters of all samples trend to increase when doping content is increased because the ionic radii of  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  ion (0.605 Å) is larger than that of  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$  ions (0.530 Å) which also indicating that Ti ions are successfully doped into the Mn position in spinel structure (Shannon and Prewitt, 1969; Shannon, 1976; Scordari,1992). On the other hand, lattice parameters of LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> are smaller than those of LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> due to the extraction of Li and the oxidation of Mn<sup>3+</sup> to Mn<sup>4+</sup> after acid leaching process as ionic radii of Mn<sup>4+</sup> is smaller than that of Mn<sup>3+</sup> (0.645 Å).





**Figure 4.1** XRD patterns of  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  and leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$ .



Figure 4.2 Close-up XRD patterns of LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.



Figure 4.3 Close-up XRD patterns of leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.



Figure 4.4 Lattice parameters of  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  and leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  series.

#### **4.1.2 Rietveld refinement**

Rietveld refinement was performed to study site and occupancy of Ti and Mn in the leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. Spinel structure and site occupation are shown in Figure 4.5. Refined parameters for leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  when x = 0, 0.25, 0.5 and 0.75 are shown in Table 4.1. However, the sample with x = 1 was not refined because the presence of TiO<sub>2</sub> impurity could provide inaccurate determination of cation occupancies in each position. The refinement data show that 8a site is almost vacant as Li<sup>+</sup> are leached, and 16d site is mainly occupied by Mn<sup>4+</sup> and Ti<sup>4+</sup>. Although, almost all Li<sup>+</sup> are extracted from 8a site, a small amount of Li<sup>+</sup> is still present and trapped in 16d site (Avdeev et al., 2009). Moreover, it was found that Ti<sup>4+</sup> occupies in 8a site. Occupancy of  $Ti^{4+}$  in 8a slightly increases when Ti content in leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is increased. Interestingly, the data also shows that  $Mn^{3+}$  occupies 16c site. It was found that occupancy of  $Mn^{3+}$  in 16c increases when Ti content is increased (Figure 4.6). The occupancy of  $Mn^{3+}$  in 16c site is explained by site preference and electron hopping process. The Li extraction is achieved by disproportionation of Mn<sup>3+</sup> in 16d site and oxidation of  $Mn^{2+}$  in 8a site. In the case of  $Mn^{2+}$ , electrons move from bulk  $Mn^{2+}$  to Mn<sup>4+</sup>, and both ions transform to Mn<sup>3+</sup>. However, the octahedral site preference of Mn<sup>3+</sup> is very high (Avdeev et al., 2009). Therefore, Mn<sup>3+</sup> should shift from 8a site to the adjacent 16c site which has lower energy site preference.

Atom	Site	Occupancy	Beq
X = 0; 8.0603(2)	24) Å, Rexp : 1.50 Rwp : 2.90	GOF : 1.94	
Mn	16d (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	1.00(1)	0.5
O <sup>2-</sup>	32e(u,u,u), u = 0.2665(3)	1	1.0
<b>X</b> = <b>0.25</b> ; 8.086	7(1) Å, Rexp : 1.29 Rwp : 2.2	29 GOF : 1.78	
Li <sup>+</sup>	16d (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	0.054(2)	0.5
	<b>H A R</b>		
Li <sup>+</sup>	8a (0.125, 0.125, 0.125)	0.073(5)	0.5
Mn <sup>3+</sup>	16c(0, 0, 0)	0.039(1)	0.5
Mn <sup>3+</sup>	16d (0 5, 0 5, 0 5)	0.051(11)	0.5
	100 (0.0, 0.0)	0.001(11)	0.0
$Mn^{4+}$	16d(0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	0.78	0.5
C	100 (0.3, 0.3, 0.3)	19	0.5
Ti <sup>4+</sup>	16d (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	0.116(2)	0.5
11		0.110(2)	0.5
<b>T;</b> 4+	<b>8</b> <sub>0</sub> (0.125, 0.125, 0.125)	0.018(4)	0.5
11	oa (0.123, 0.123, 0.123)	0.010(4)	0.3
O <sup>2-</sup>	22a(u, u, u) = 0.2610(2)	1	1.0
0-	52e(u,u,u), u = 0.2610(2)	1	1.0

 $\label{eq:table_$ 

Atom	Site	Occupancy	Beq		
	0				
<b>X</b> = <b>0.5</b> ; 8.1050	D(1) Å, Rexp : 1.42 Rwp : 2.50	0 GOF : 1.75			
Li <sup>+</sup>	16d (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	0.06	0.5		
Mn <sup>3+</sup>	16c (0, 0, 0)	0.06	0.5		
Mn <sup>4+</sup>	16c (0, 0, 0)	0.040(1)	0.5		
Mn <sup>4+</sup>	16d (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	0.630(1)	0.5		
Ti	16d (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	0.234(2)	0.5		
Ti	8a (0.125, 0.125, 0.125)	0.032(3)	0.5		
0	32e(u,u,u), u = 0.2583(2)		1.0		
5					
<sup>7</sup> ่วักยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุร <sup>บไ</sup>					

Table 4.1 Refined parameters and reliability factor for leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_2O_4$  (Continued).

Atom	Site	Occupancy	Beq		
$\mathbf{X} = 0.75; 8.116$	55(2) A, Rexp : 1.60 Rwp : 2.3	80 GOF : 1.75			
Li <sup>+</sup>	16d (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	0.045	0.5		
Mn <sup>3+</sup>	16c (0, 0, 0)	0.045	0.5		
Mn <sup>4+</sup>	16c (0, 0, 0)	0.116(1)	0.5		
Mn <sup>4+</sup>	16d (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	0.434(1)	0.5		
Ti <sup>4+</sup>	16d (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	0.367(2)	0.5		
Ti <sup>4+</sup>	8a (0.125, 0.125, 0.125)	0.017(4)	0.5		
O <sup>2-</sup>	32e (u,u,u), u = 0.2572(2)		1.0		
5					
<sup>7</sup> ่วักยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุร <sup>ูปไ</sup>					

Table 4.1 Refined parameters and reliability factor for leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_2O_4$  (Continued).



Figure 4.5 Spinel structure and site occupation.



Figure 4.6 Occupancy of Ti in 8a site and Mn in 16d site in leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$ .

#### **4.2 Oxidation state and elemental analysis**

#### 4.2.1 X-ray absorption spectroscopy

Figure 4.7 and 4.8 show the Ti K-edge and Mn K-edge XANES spectra for each sample at room temperature. K-edge XANES spectra of Ti in LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> are shown in Figure 4.7. Pre-edge indicates 1s electron into hybridized Ti 3d/4p states with  $e_g$  symmetry. Its intensity is influence by the coordination of Ti. Apparently, pre-edge intensity of leached samples is higher than that of pre-leached samples suggesting that not only Ti located in octahedral site (16d site) but it also occupies tetrahedral site (8a site) when Li is removed. The higher intensity of Ti pre-edge in the leached products indicates that amount of Ti in 8a site is higher in leached sample comparing to pre-leached samples. In addition, Ti spectra lie between spectrum of  $Ti_2O_3$  and  $TiO_2$  (rutile phase). Although the energy edge position could imply that Ti is in mixed valence state between 3+ and 4+, it is unlikely. There is no report about  $Ti^{3+}$  in spinel LiMn<sub>2-x</sub> $Ti_xO_4$ . On the other hand, few studies on oxidation state of Ti in LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> indicate only Ti<sup>4+</sup> (Murphy *et al.*, 2015). In addition, it was found that Ti<sup>4+</sup> in different structure has different K-edge energy (Balzarotti, 1980). Thus, it is concluded that oxidation state of Ti is 4+ in both LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and the slight shift in the edge energy is due to the change in crystallographic structure.

K-edge XANES spectra of Mn in LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> are shown in Figure 4.8. The pre-edge arises from dipole-forbidden 1s to 3p transition of Mn. Pre-edge intensity could be used to indicate coordination of Mn. In both LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, the pre-edge intensity and feature of Mn spectra are not significantly different suggesting the same coordination of Mn.

Moreover, it was found that spectra of Mn K-edge of all samples lie between those of  $Mn_2O_3$  and  $MnO_2$ . Edge feature of Mn Li $Mn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  and leached Li $Mn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  arise from dipole allowed transition of 1s to 4p (Murphy *et al.*, 2015). The edge position slightly shift to lower energy when x is increased indicating the mixed state of  $Mn^{3+}$  and  $Mn^{4+}$  in Li $Mn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  series. Positions of the edge energy also suggest the raising of  $Mn^{3+}$  when x is increased. After acid treatment, it was found that spectra of leached Li $Mn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  overlap with that of standard  $MnO_2$ . The results indicate that oxidation state of Mn is changed after acid treatment from mixed valence to 4+ due to oxidation and disproportionation process of Mn.





Figure 4.7 Ti K-edge spectra of  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  (a) and leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  (b).



Figure 4.8 Mn K-edge spectra of  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  (a) and leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  (b).

#### 4.2.2 Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy

To study the elemental ratio of each sample, the amount of Li, Mn and Ti in the leached solution was investigated by ICP-OES. Acid leaching process of LiTi<sub>x</sub>Mn<sub>2-x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> when x = 0 could be explained by equation (4.1) based on disproportionation reaction of Mn<sup>3+</sup> (Hunter *et al.*, 1981; Devaraj *et al.*, 2008). However, it was found in some cases that Mn<sup>3+</sup> cannot completely react with acid, and some of Li is maintained to balance the charge (Ghodbane *et al.*, 2009).

$$2\text{LiMn}_2\text{O}_4 \longrightarrow 2\text{Li}^+ + \text{Mn}^{2+} + 3\text{MnO}_2 \qquad (4.1)$$

Acid leaching of  $\text{LiTi}_{x}\text{Mn}_{2-x}O_{4}$  has been studied by Tarascon *et al.* (1991). The equation is more complicated than pristine  $\text{LiMn}_{2}O_{4}$ . Ti<sup>4+</sup> is involved in the reaction as described by equation (4.2).

$$2(2-y)\text{LiTi}_{x}\text{Mn}_{2-x}\text{O}_{4} + 4(2-y)\text{H}^{+} \longrightarrow (2-y)\text{Mn}^{2+} + y\text{TiO}_{2} + 2(2-y)\text{Li}^{+} + 2(2-y)\text{H}_{2}\text{O} + (3-2y)\text{Ti}_{x}\text{Mn}_{2-x}\text{O}_{4}$$
(4.2)

According to equation (4.2), not only that  $Mn^{2+}$  and Li<sup>+</sup> were extracted from the sample, but Ti<sup>4+</sup> was also removed from LiTi<sub>x</sub>Mn<sub>2-x</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. To determine the product empirical formula, Li, Mn and Ti ion in the leached solution were determined by ICP-OES. The final formula of residual product was calculated from the elemental difference between LiTi<sub>x</sub>Mn<sub>2-x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and ions in the solution. As shown in Table 4.2, it was found that elemental composition of the leached samples are similar to those of LiTi<sub>x</sub>Mn<sub>2-x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> which agree well with equation (4.2). However, complete removal of Li cannot be achieved when Ti content is increased. Two different explanations were given for the incomplete Li extraction. Tarascon *et al.* (1991) stated that TiO<sub>2</sub> occurred during the reaction covers the particles and blocks the Li removal. On the other hand, Avdeev *et al.* (2009) suggested that complete removal of Li cannot be achieved because only Li in 8a position could be removed with this method. Thus,  $Li^+$  that occupies 16d position will remain in the solid residues. As summarized in Table 4.2, our leached solution contains Ti which indicates that most TiO<sub>2</sub>, if not all, formed during the leaching should be dispersed in the solution and should not significantly hinder the Li removal. On the other hand, the correlation between  $Li^+$  in 8a position and  $Li^+$  in the leached solution is not as clear as reported in the work of Avdeev *et al.* Thus, further analyses are required to clarify this matter.

#### 4.2.3 Energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy

Although the elemental compositions of all samples were determined from ICP-OES, it is considered an indirect method as the compositions of the leached samples were not directly analyzed. Therefore, energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy was used to determine the composition of the residual product (Table 4.2). The sample formula obtained after acid treatment was calculated from atomic % of Mn and Ti in solid residual product. Because of the limitation of EDS techniques in analyzing light atoms, only the ratio of Mn and Ti are investigated here. Generally, the EDS results agree well with the ICP-OES.

Ti content	Unleached sample	Leached sample		
	(from ICP-OES)	ICP-OES	EDS	
0	LiMn <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	MnO <sub>2</sub>	-	
0.25	LiMn <sub>1.75</sub> Ti <sub>0.25</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Li 0.18Mn1.74Ti0.25O4	Li <sub>1-y</sub> Mn <sub>1.95</sub> Ti 0.25O4	
0.5	$LiMn_{1.5}Ti_{0.5}O_4$	Li 0.12Mn1.46Ti0.5O4	Li <sub>1-y</sub> Mn 1.58 Ti 0.5O4	
0.75	LiMn <sub>1.25</sub> Ti <sub>0.75</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	$Li \ _{0.09} Mn_{1.19} Ti_{0.75} O_4$	Li <sub>1-y</sub> Mn 1.27 Ti 0.75O4	
1	LiMnTiO <sub>4</sub>	Li 0.1Mn0.89TiO4	Li <sub>1-y</sub> Mn 0.93 Ti O4	

Table 4.2 Elemental compositions of the samples.

#### 4.3 Surface and morphology

#### 4.3.1 Scanning electron microscopy

SEM images of LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>T<sub>ix</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (Figure 4.9 and 4.10) provide the morphology and particle size information. The results indicate that particle size is in the range of 1-5  $\mu$ m. The large particles were formed by aggregation of numerous smaller particles. The morphology of the compounds strongly depended on sample preparation (Ghodbane *et al.*, 2009). The results indicate that particle size and shape of all samples synthesized by solid state method are not significantly different and also confirme that leaching process and the increasing of Ti contents do not affect sample morphology and particle size. Moreover, shape and particle size of LiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> synthesized by solid state method is similar to those obtained from sol-gel preparation (Wang, Lai *et al.*, 2015; Wang, Chen *et al.*, 2015).



Figure 4.9 SEM images of  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$ , x=0 (a), x=0.25 (b), x=0.5 (c), x=0.75 (d) and x= 1 (e).



Figure 4.10 SEM images of leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$ , x = 0 (a), x = 0.25 (b), x = 0.5 (c), x = 0.75 (d) and x = 1 (e).

#### 4.3.2 Gas adsorption and BET method

Table 4.3 shows average specific surface area, pore volume and pore diameter. The results indicate that those parameters of all leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  samples are not significantly different compared to each other as they were prepared by method. According to the results, specific surface area is related to pore volume. The specific surface area of spinel MnO<sub>2</sub> prepared in this work is similar to that reported by Devaraj *et al.* (2008).

Criteria	x = 0	x = 0.25	x = 0.5	x = 0.75	x = 1
Average <b>BET</b>					
$(\mathbf{m}^2 \mathbf{g}^{-1})$					
	17	8	10	9	14
Average total pore					
volume (cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )					
C.	0.0665	0.0325	0.046	0.0342	0.069
Average pore	จิ๊กยาลั	รแทดโเ	แลยีสุร <sup>เ</sup>		
diameter (nm)	15.57	15.675	18.99	15.365	19.475

**Table 4.3** Average BET surface area of leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

#### 4.4 Electrochemical study

To study the effects of Ti on electrochemical behavior of leached  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$ , cyclic voltammetry was performed on the prepared electrodes. According to Trasatti et. al. (1990), total capacitance can be separated to 2 capacitive elements which are surface capacitance and insertion capacitance. Specific capacitance of leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> samples, when x = 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75 and 1.00, were collected at different scan speeds from 0.5 to 100 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. Cyclic voltammograms of leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> at different scan rates are shown in Figure 4.11-4.20. Each capacitive element can be determined by plotting the specific capacitance vs inverse square root of scan speed and plot of inverse specific capacitance vs square root of scan speed (Figure 4.21 and Figure 4.22). Figure 4.23 showed insertion (red box), surface capacitance (black box) and total capacitance (red box and black box assemble) of each compound. The results show that total capacitances depend on Ti content. The capacitance decrease continuously when Ti content was increased from x = 0 to x = 0.75 due to the decrease of Mn active species. The capacitance partially increased when x = 1 due to the significant increase of specific surface area. Another possible reason is that the presence of  $TiO_2$  small particles may have decreased the agglomeration of the sample particles and increased the accessible portion of the sample surface (Nia et al., 2015). On the other hand, Figure 4.24 shows relation between % insertion capacitance and unit cell parameter change. The difference of % insertion capacitance can be explained by the difference in site occupancy and cell parameters. It was found that % insertion capacitance instantly decreased from x = 0 to x = 0.25, because Ti in spinel MnO<sub>2</sub> induce Mn<sup>3+</sup> to occupy in 16c site which hinder ion diffusion into the bulk. However, % insertion capacitance increased continuously from x = 0.25 to x = 0.75. Although, Ti content induces the presence of Mn<sup>3+</sup> in 16c

site which hinder ion diffusion in spinel lattice, it also increases unit cell parameter which expands the tunnel and allows more ion to diffuse into the bulk. The effect of larger unit cell parameter due to Ti doping will dominate when x = 0.75. However, % insertion capacitance significantly drops in sample with x = 1 due to the present of TiO<sub>2</sub> rutile impurity. The segregation of TiO<sub>2</sub> rutile could block ion diffusion and decrease the insertion capacitance.





Figure 4.11 Voltammogram of MnO<sub>2</sub> at 5, 10, 50, 75 and 100 mV/s of scan speed.



Figure 4.12 Voltammogram of MnO<sub>2</sub> at 0.5, 1 and 2 mV/s of scan speed.



Figure 4.13 Voltammogram of leached LiTi<sub>0.25</sub>Mn<sub>1.75</sub>O<sub>4</sub> at 5, 10, 50, 75 and 100 mV/s

of scan speed.



Figure 4.14 Voltammogram of leached  $LiTi_{0.25}Mn_{1.75}O_4$  at 0.5, 1 and 2 mV/s of scan speed.



Figure 4.15 Voltammogram of leached LiTi0.5Mn1.5O4 at 5, 10, 50, 75 and 100 mV/s

of scan speed.



Figure 4.16 Voltammogram of leached  $LiTi_{0.5}Mn_{1.5}O_4$  at 0.5, 1 and 2 mV/s of scan speed.



Figure 4.17 Voltammogram of leached  $LiTi_{0.75}Mn_{1.25}O_4$  at 5, 10, 50, 75 and 100 mV/s

of scan speed.



Figure 4.18 Voltammogram of leached  $LiTi_{0.75}Mn_{1.25}O_4$  at 0.5, 1 and 2 mV/s of scan speed.


Figure 4.19 Voltammogram of leached LiTiMnO<sub>4</sub> at 5, 10, 50, 75 and 100 mV/s of

scan speed.



Figure 4.20 Voltammogram of leached LiTiMnO<sub>4</sub> at 0.5, 1 and 2 mV/s of scan speed.



Figure 4.21 Inverse specific capacitance versus square root of scan speed.



Figure 4.22 Specific capacitance versus inverse square root of scan speed.



**Figure 4.23** Insertion capacitance (red box) and surface capacitance (black box) of leached LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.



Figure 4.24 Plot of insertion capacitance and unit cell parameter change versus Ti content.

## **CHAPTER V**

## CONCLUSIONS

Ti doped MnO<sub>2</sub> spinel have been synthesized via acid treatment of  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$ . The starting solid solutions of  $LiMn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$  were prepared by solid state reaction at 1073K. X-ray diffraction indicate that the pure phase of spinel is obtained at x = 0, 0.25, 0.5 and 0.75, while TiO<sub>2</sub> rutile impurity is present in a sample with x =1. XANE spectra show that the oxidation state of Ti and Mn are 4 with a slight mixing of 3+. The oxidation state of Mn is increased after acid leaching. Inductively coupled plasma spectroscopy and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy suggest the empirical formula of the products to be  $Li_{1-y}Mn_{2-x}Ti_xO_4$ . The deintercalation of Li is based on disproportionation of  $Mn^{3+}$  and oxidation of  $Mn^{2+}$ . In samples with x > 0, it was found that the acid treatment used in this work could not completely remove Li from the structure. X-ray diffraction patterns of LiMn<sub>2-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>O<sub>4</sub> indicate the mixed occupancies of Li and another heavy cation between 8a and 16d site in the lattice which could be a reason for an incomplete delithiation. In contrast, after acid treatment, 8a site is occupied by a very small amount of Ti while the remaining Li and some Mn are distributed in 16d and 16c sites. Although Ti clearly affects the crystallographic structure of MnO<sub>2</sub>, it has very little effects, if any, on the sample surface morphology and specific surface area.

Cyclic voltammetry was used to study electrochemical behavior of the obtained products. Total capacitance and the surface capacitance are generally affected by the amount of manganese which is the electroactive species. However, the presence of Ti in MnO<sub>2</sub> have two important effects on the crystal lattice. It enlarges the cell parameter and the channel size in the structure while causing some Ti<sup>4+</sup> and Mn<sup>3+</sup> to occupy 8a and 16c position. Although the first improves insertion capacitance of the sample, the latter worsens it. The combined effects result in the change of insertion capacitance when Ti content is changed from x = 0 to 0.75. TiO<sub>2</sub> impurity in the sample with x = 1 cause some deviation from the general trend. While TiO<sub>2</sub> may have additionally contributed to the surface capacitance of the sample giving rise to the unexpectedly high value, they most likely block ion diffusion to the bulk and consequently lower its insertion capacitance.





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# **CURRICULUM VITAE**

Name	Mr. Paradro	n Lektrakoontara
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Date of Birth Juner 18th, 1991, Khonkaen, Thailand

Address 76/3 moo.4 Sirchan rd. Naimuang sub district, Muang district Khonkaen 40000

#### Education

2010-2013 B.Sc. (Chemistry), Khonkaen University, Thailand

2014-2017 Student at department of chemistry, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand

