University of Wollongong

Research Online

University of Wollongong Thesis Collection 1954-2016

University of Wollongong Thesis Collections

2007

Nanostructured materials for electrodes in lithium-ion batteries

See How Ng University of Wollongong

Follow this and additional works at: https://ro.uow.edu.au/theses

University of Wollongong Copyright Warning

You may print or download ONE copy of this document for the purpose of your own research or study. The University does not authorise you to copy, communicate or otherwise make available electronically to any other person any copyright material contained on this site.

You are reminded of the following: This work is copyright. Apart from any use permitted under the Copyright Act 1968, no part of this work may be reproduced by any process, nor may any other exclusive right be exercised, without the permission of the author. Copyright owners are entitled to take legal action against persons who infringe

their copyright. A reproduction of material that is protected by copyright may be a copyright infringement. A court may impose penalties and award damages in relation to offences and infringements relating to copyright material. Higher penalties may apply, and higher damages may be awarded, for offences and infringements involving the

conversion of material into digital or electronic form.

Unless otherwise indicated, the views expressed in this thesis are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the views of the University of Wollongong.

Recommended Citation

Ng, See H, Nanostructured materials for electrodes in lithium-ion batteries, PhD thesis, Institute for Superconducting and Electronic Materials, University of Wollongong, 2007. http://ro.uow.edu.au/theses/764

Research Online is the open access institutional repository for the University of Wollongong. For further information contact the UOW Library: research-pubs@uow.edu.au

NOTE

This online version of the thesis may have different page formatting and pagination from the paper copy held in the University of Wollongong Library.

UNIVERSITY OF WOLLONGONG

COPYRIGHT WARNING

You may print or download ONE copy of this document for the purpose of your own research or study. The University does not authorise you to copy, communicate or otherwise make available electronically to any other person any copyright material contained on this site. You are reminded of the following:

Copyright owners are entitled to take legal action against persons who infringe their copyright. A reproduction of material that is protected by copyright may be a copyright infringement. A court may impose penalties and award damages in relation to offences and infringements relating to copyright material. Higher penalties may apply, and higher damages may be awarded, for offences and infringements involving the conversion of material into digital or electronic form.

NANOSTRUCTURED MATERIALS FOR ELECTRODES IN LITHIUM-ION BATTERIES

A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the

requirements for the award of the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

from

UNIVERSITY OF WOLLONGONG

by

SEE HOW NG, B. ENG. (HONS.), M. ENG.

INSTITUTE FOR SUPERCONDUCTING & ELECTRONIC MATERIALS,

FACULTY OF ENGINEERING

2007

CERTIFICATION

I, See How Ng, declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy, in the Institute for Superconducting & Electronic Materials, Faculty of Engineering, University of Wollongong, is wholly my own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged. The document has not been submitted for qualifications at any other academic institution.

See How Ng 25 September 2007

For my parents, siblings, and Sau Yen

who wonder what I do all day

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is my pleasure to acknowledge the considerable assistances that I have received from the people of the University of Wollongong (UoW), Australia and also from the Paul Scherrer Institute (PSI), Switzerland, during the course of my doctoral studies. I wish to express my utmost gratitude to my thesis supervisor, *Professor Hua Kun Liu*, and cosupervisor, *Dr. Jiazhao Wang*, for their invaluable advice, encouragement, understanding and trust during my stay at UoW. Many thanks also for their careful review of the manuscripts. Any remaining errors are my responsibility.

I would like to express my deepest appreciation to *Prof. Shi Xue Dou*, Director of the Institute for Superconducting & Electronic Materials (ISEM), and *Prof. Gordon Wallace*, Director of the ARC Center of Excellence for Electromaterials Science (ACES), for providing me with the appropriate facilities and expertise during the course of my studies. I would like to thank ISEM, ACES, and the University of Wollongong, for providing me with the financial support during my doctoral studies, by means of a Tuition Fee Waiver Scholarship and also a matching PhD Scholarship.

I would like to thank *P.D. Dr. Petr Novák*, Head of Batteries Group, *P.D. Dr. Thomas Lippert*, Head of Materials Group, and *Prof. Alexander Wokaun*, Head of the General Energy Department, all from the Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland, for their scientific assistance and support, during my appointment as a Visiting Scientist in PSI, from October 2006 till April 2007. I would also like to thank *Prof. Dr. Sotiris E. Pratsinis*,

Director of the Particle Technology Laboratory (PTL), Swiss Federal Institute of Technology Zurich, Switzerland, for providing me with the facilities for the production of nanoparticles via the flame spray pyrolysis process.

I wish to thank *Mrs. Franziska Simmen*, PhD student from PSI, for her assistance in preparing and analyzing the PLD-made LiMn₂O₄ thin films for my thesis work. Many thanks also go to *Mr. Timothy Patey* (PhD student, PSI) and *Mr. Robert Büchel* (PhD student, PTL) for their assistance in the synthesis of vanadium-based oxides nanoparticles via the flame spray pyrolysis process, for use as cathode materials in my research work. During my Visiting Scientist appointment at the Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland, I had the pleasure working with a number of scientists and postgraduate students such as *Dr. Matthias Hahn, Dr. Nicolas Tran, Dr. Maire Pascal, Dr. Joachim Ufheil, Mr. Werner Scheifele, Mr. Hermann Kaiser, Mr. Patrick Ruch, Mr. Fabio La Mantia, and Mr. Fabio Roschiano.* Their help and discussion are greatly appreciated. Also the administrative help from *Ms. Isabella Kalt* is greatly acknowledged.

Technical assistance from the people of the University of Wollongong such as *Dr*. *David Wexler* (TEM), *Dr. Jun Chen* (FT-IR, Raman, and TGA), *Dr. Konstantin Konstantinov* (spray pyrolysis, BET, TGA/DTA, and SEM/EDX), *Dr. Zaiping Guo* (EIS), and *Assoc. Prof. Chee Too* (bucky paper) are gratefully acknowledged. It is also my pleasure to work with a number of overseas collaborators such as *Prof. Dayse dos Santos* (UNESP, Brazil), *Prof. Chuanqi Feng* (Wuhan University, China), *Mr. Yann Tournayre* (France), *Ms. Dong Yun Zhang* (Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China), and *Mr. Roshan Shanmukaraj* (India) during my studies in ISEM.

I also wish to thank *Mr. Kieran de Silva, Dr. Wai Kong Yeoh, Dr. Jung Ho Kim, Dr. Steve Bewlay, Dr. Scott Needham, Mr. Bernie Huang, Mr. Min-Sik Park, Mr. Jin-Soo Park, Mr. Joe Xu, Mr. Dapeng Chen, Ms. Olga Scherbakova, Mr. Andrey Scherbakov, Dr. Germanas Peleckis, Dr. Marie Roussel, Dr. Ling Yuan, Ms. Jane Yao, Mr. Brad Winton, Mr. Georgin Lao,* and *Mr. Jerry Zhao,* for all their friendly support and helpful discussions during my doctoral studies in ISEM. I wish to thank *Dr. Tania Silver* for the critical reading of all my publications, improving the standard of my written English, and also proofreading of my thesis. My heartfelt thanks also go to *Mr. Ron Kinnell,* for all the technical assistance with the maintenance of equipment and scientific facilities.

I would like to thank my mum, dad, and sisters, for their continue support and love, which translates into the strength and guidance path for me during my PhD studies. Finally, my greatest debt, however, is to my wife, *Ms. Sau Yen (Sophie) Chew*, who endured my long days in my study with particular grace and understanding. She has been, simply, indispensable.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CERTIFICATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
ABSTRACT	xiii
NOMENCLATURE	XV
LIST OF FIGURES	XX
LIST OF TABLES	XXX

CHAPTER 1	INTRODUCTION	1
	1.1 General Background	1
	1.2 Statement of Problem	3
	1.3 Importance of Study	5
	1.4 Objectives and Scopes of Research	6

CHAPTER 2	LIT	LITERATURE REVIEW		
	2.1	Lithiu	m-ion Rechargeable Batteries	8
		2.1.1	Basic Concepts and Principles of	10
			Operation	
		2.1.2	Components	17
		2.1.3	Advantages	19
		2.1.4	Commercial Applications	22
		2.1.5	On-going Scientific Challenges	26
	2.2	Negat	ive Electrode Materials For Lithium-	27
		ion Ba	atteries	
		2.2.1	Carbonaceous Materials	28
		2.2.2	Lithium-Metal Alloys	31
		2.2.3	Transition Metal Oxides	36
		2.2.4	Titanium Compounds	38
	2.3	Positi	ve Electrode Materials For Lithium-ion	39
		Batter	ries	
		2.3.1	Layered Oxides	41
		2.3.2	Spinel Oxides	43
		2.3.3	Olivines	46
		2.3.4	Vanadates	49
	2.4	Nanot	technology – The Great Leap Forward	53
		2.4.1	Definition and Terminology	55
		2.4.2	Nanostructures vs. Microstructures	56
		2.4.3	Advantages and Disadvantages	58
		2.4.4	On-going Challenges	60

CHAPTER 3	EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS			62
	3.1	Mater	ials	62
	3.2	Exper	imental Procedures	64
	3.3	Preparation of Nanostructured Materials		
		3.3.1	Filtration Technique (Positive Pressure)	65
		3.3.2	Spray Pyrolysis	66
		3.3.3	Co-precipitation Method	67
		3.3.4	Flame Spray Pyrolysis (FSP)	68
		3.3.5	Pulsed Laser Deposition (PLD)	70
	3.4	Physic	cal and Structural Characterization of	71
		Nanos	tructured Materials	
		3.4.1	X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)	72
		3.4.2	Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA)	74
		3.4.3	Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)	74
		3.4.4	Transmission Electron Microscopy	75
			(TEM)	
		3.4.5	Brunauer Emmett Teller (BET) Specific	76
			Surface Area Measurement	
		3.4.6	Raman Spectroscopy	76
		3.4.7	Four-Point Probe Conductivity	77
			Measurement	
		3.4.8	Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM)	78

		3.4.9	Rutherford Backscattering Spectrometry	80
			(RBS)	
		3.4.10	Elastic Recoil Detection Analysis	82
			(ERDA)	
		3.4.11	Surface Profilometry	83
	3.5	Electr	ode Preparation and Test Cell	84
		Assem	bly	
		3.5.1	Electrode Preparation	84
		3.5.2	Test Cell Assembly	85
	3.6	Electr	ochemical Characterization	86
		3.6.1	Cyclic Voltammetry (CV)	87
		3.6.2	Galvanostatic Measurements	88
		3.6.3	Electrochemical Impedance	89
			Spectroscopy (EIS)	
CHAPTER 4	Sinc	GLE-WA	ALLED CARBON NANOTUBE PAPER AS	90
	Fre	E-STAN	DING ANODE FOR LI-ION BATTERIES	
	4.1	Introd	luction	90
	4.2	esis Method	92	
	4.3	Physic	cal and Structural Characterizations	94
	4.4	Electr	ochemical Performance	100

4.5 Conclusions 110

CHAPTER 5	Spr	AY-PYI	ROLYZED LEAD OXIDE AND LEAD OXIDE-	111	
	CAI	RBON N	ANOCOMPOSITES AS ANODES FOR LI-ION		
	BAT	TERIES	3		
	5.1	Intro	duction	111	
	5.2	Synth	esis Method	113	
	5.3	Physi	cal and Structural Characterizations	115	
	5.4	Electi	rochemical Performance	128	
	5.5	Concl	lusions	139	
CHAPTER 6	CAI	RBON-C	COATED SILICON NANOCOMPOSITES AS	140	
	HIG	HIGH-CAPACITY LI-ION BATTERY ANODES			
	6.1	Intro	duction	140	
	6.2	Effect	t of Spray Pyrolysis Processing	143	
		Temp	perature		
		6.2.1	Synthesis Method	143	
		6.2.2	Physical and Structural Characterizations	144	
		6.2.3	Electrochemical Performance	150	
	6.3	Effect	t of Precursor Solution (Nano-Si/Citric	161	
		Acid/	Ethanol) Concentration		
		6.3.1	Synthesis Method	161	
		6.3.2	Physical and Structural Characterizations	161	
		6.3.3	Electrochemical Performance	164	
	6.4	Concl	usions	165	

CHAPTER 7	VANADIUM PENTOXIDE NANOSTRUCTURES FOR				
	LIT	LITHIUM-ION BATTERY CATHODES			
	7.1	7.1 Introduction			
	7.2	V ₂ O ₅	Nanostructures Prepared via a	170	
		Preci	pitation Process		
		7.2.1	Synthesis Method	170	
		7.2.2	Physical and Structural Characterizations	170	
		7.2.3	Electrochemical Performance	173	
	7.3	V ₂ O ₅	Nanoparticles Prepared via a Flame	176	
		Spray Pyrolysis Process			
		7.3.1	Synthesis Method	176	
		7.3.2	Physical and Structural Characterizations	177	
		7.3.3	Electrochemical Performance	181	
	7.4	Conc	lusions	186	
CHAPTER 8	LIT	HIUM T	'RIVANADATE NANOPARTICLES	187	
	Syn	THESIZ	EED BY FLAME SPRAY PYROLYSIS AS		
	CAT	THODE	MATERIAL FOR LITHIUM-ION BATTERIES		
	8.1	Intro	duction	187	
	8.2	Synth	esis Method	189	
	8.3	Physi	cal and Structural Characterizations	189	
	8.4	Elect	rochemical Performance	193	
	8.5	Conc	lusions	199	

CHAPTER 9	LITHIUM MANGANESE OXIDE THIN FILM					
	Syn	SYNTHESIZED BY PULSED LASER DEPOSITION AS				
	Мо	Model Cathode For Lithium-Ion Batteries 9.1 Introduction				
	9.1					
	9.2	Synth	esis Method	203		
	9.3	LiMn	2O4 Thin Films Deposited on Silicon	205		
		Subst	rate			
		9.3.1	Physical and Structural Characterizations	206		
		9.3.2	Electrochemical Performance	207		
	9.4	LiMn	₂ O ₄ Thin Films Deposited on Stainless	208		
		Steel	Substrate			
		9.4.1	Physical and Structural Characterizations	209		
		9.4.2	Electrochemical Performance	214		
	9.5	Conc	lusions	220		
CHAPTER 10	Gen	NERAL	CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK	221		
	10.1	Gene	ral Conclusions	221		
		10.1.1	Nanostructured Anode Materials for Li-	221		
			ion Storage			
		10.1.2	2 Nanostructured Cathode Materials as Li-	224		
			ion Providers			
	10.2	2 Outlo	ok	227		
References				230		
APPENDICES				252		
APPENDIX A	LIST	г оғ Р и	BLICATIONS	252		

ABSTRACT

The commercially available lithium-ion cells, which are the most advanced among the rechargeable battery systems available so far, employ polycrystalline microsized powder as the electrode materials, which functions as the Li-ion insertion hosts. With the advancement of nanotechnology, there is an interest in the replacement of conventional materials by nanostructured materials. The use of nanoparticles in composite electrodes for Li-ion batteries may have considerable kinetic advantages due to the reduction of the diffusion length for lithium-ion insertion into the active mass, and also because of the reduction of the overall charge transfer resistance of the electrodes. In this doctoral work, several nanostructured materials were examined and characterized for possible application as electrode materials in Li-ion rechargeable batteries. Among the anode candidates studied were free-standing single-walled carbon nanotube (SWCNT) paper, lead oxide (PbO) and lead oxide-carbon (PbO-C) nanocomposite, and carbon-coated silicon (Si-C) nanocomposite materials. Meanwhile, several cathode candidates were also studied: nanostructured vanadium oxide (V_2O_5), lithium trivanadate (LiV_3O_8) nanoparticles, and lithium manganese oxide ($LiMn_2O_4$) thin film electrode.

Free-standing SWCNT paper electrodes have been synthesized by a simple filtration method via positive pressure. The free-standing electrode was produced without any binder or metal substrate, which reduced the weight significantly. The free-standing SWCNT paper electrodes were also flexible and had good electrical conductivity. With the addition of both carbon black and nanosized Si particles, the electrical conductivity and specific capacity of the free-standing SWCNT paper electrode were greatly enhanced, so that they retained a capacity of 400 mAh g⁻¹ beyond 100 cycles. A new approach has been used to prepare nanostructured PbO and PbO-C composites via the spray pyrolysis technique. The prepared powders consist of fine nanocrystalline PbO homogeneously distributed within an amorphous carbon matrix with highly developed surface area. The combination of spray technology and carbon addition increased the specific surface area (above 6 m² g⁻¹) and the conductivity of PbO, and also improved

the specific capacity, with a reversible capacity above 100 mAh g⁻¹ retained beyond 50 cycles. An effective, inexpensive, and industrially oriented approach was applied to produce carbon-coated Si nanocomposites. Carbon-coated Si nanocomposites spray-pyrolyzed in air at 400 $^{\circ}$ C showed the best cycling performance, retaining a specific capacity of 1120 mAh g⁻¹ beyond 100 cycles, with a capacity fading of less than 0.4 % per cycle. The beneficial effect of the carbon-coating in enhancing the dimensional stability of the Si nanoparticles appears to be the main reason for this markedly improved electrochemical performance.

One-dimensional (1D) nanostructures of V_2O_5 have been successfully synthesized via a precipitation process followed by heating in vacuum at 300 °C. The increase in crystallinity and higher yield of one-dimensional nanostructured oxides contributed significantly to the improved capacity and enhanced cycle life. V₂O₅ nanoparticles were also synthesized via the flame spray pyrolysis (FSP) process in air. They showed an improved cycle life when the cut-off potential for discharging was increased from 1.5 V to 2.5 V. The significant capacity loss when discharging to 1.5 V is possibly related to the dissolution of vanadium active mass and the structural changes upon cycling in the larger potential span. The flame spray pyrolyzed V_2O_5 nanoparticles show excellent cyclability when cycled between 2.5 V and 4.0 V vs. Li/Li⁺, retaining a discharge capacity of 120 mAh g⁻¹ beyond 100 cycles at a cycling rate of 100 mA g⁻¹. LiV₃O₈ nanoparticles (~24 nm in size) have been synthesized by FSP for the first time. The assynthesized LiV₃O₈ nanoparticles proved to be a promising cathode material for lithium rechargeable batteries, retaining a specific discharge capacity of 180 mAh g⁻¹ beyond 50 cycles. A series of LiMn₂O₄ thin films on either Si (100) or stainless steel substrate were successfully prepared via pulsed laser deposition (PLD). The as-deposited $LiMn_2O_4$ thin films on stainless steel substrate are highly lithium- and oxygen-deficient, as confirmed by ERDA/RBS and Raman analysis. Lithium and oxygen content increased when the pulse rate was increased, leading to thicker films. However, the LiMn₂O₄ thin film with the lowest deposition pulse rate (or thinnest film) exhibited the best electrochemical performance, retaining a charge capacity of 48 μ Ah cm⁻² μ m⁻¹ beyond 100 cycles.

NOMENCLATURE

Symbol	Name	Unit
a_i	Activity of species <i>i</i>	mol dm ⁻³
С	Concentration	Μ
C-rate	Rate of charge or current density	mA g ⁻¹ or μ A cm ⁻²
C_C	Charge capacity	Ah kg ⁻¹ or mAh g ⁻¹
C_D	Discharge capacity	Ah kg ⁻¹ or mAh g ⁻¹
C_{dl}	Double-layer capacitance	F m ⁻²
D_P	Average crystal size	nm
d	Distance between atomic layers in a	Å or nm
	crystal	
d_t	Tube diameter	nm
d_{t-s}	Target-substrate distance	cm
E	Potential of half-reactions	V or mV
E_{dc}	DC potential	V or mV
E_{f}	Final potential	V or mV
E_i	Initial potential	V or mV
E_s	Switching potential	V or mV
E^{0}	Standard electrode potential	V or mV
$E^{0,(-)}$	Negative electrode potential	V or mV
$E^{0,(+)}$	Positive electrode potential	V or mV
$\Delta E^{0}, U^{0}$	Cell potential	V or mV
f	Frequency	Hz
$arDelta G^{0}$	Standard Gibbs free energy	J mol ⁻¹
Ι	Current	A or mA
Κ	Shape factor of the average crystallite	(dimensionless)

• List of Symbols

Symbol	Name	Unit
L	Crystal size	nm
M_p	Mass of the target atom	kg or g
M_r	Mass of the incident ion	kg or g
<i>m</i> , <i>m</i> _i	Mass of species <i>i</i>	kg or g
N^{O}	Number of pulses	(dimensionless)
n	Number of electrons exchanged or integer	(dimensionless)
P_d	Downstream pressure	bar
P_{O2}	Oxygen background pressure	mbar
P_u	Upstream pressure	bar
P_{v}	Power density	W dm ⁻³
р	Specific power	W kg ⁻¹
Q	Solution flow rate	mL min ⁻¹
Q	Capacity	Ah or mAh
Q_{irrev}	Irreversible capacity loss	%
q_{th}	Theoretical specific charge capacity	Ah kg ⁻¹ or mAh g ⁻¹
R_n	Reversible capacity at cycle <i>n</i>	Ah kg ⁻¹ or mAh g ⁻¹
R_{ct}	Charge-transfer resistance	Ω
Q	Capacity	Ah or mAh
Q_{irrev}	Irreversible capacity loss	%
q_{th}	Theoretical specific charge capacity	Ah kg ⁻¹ or mAh g ⁻¹
R_n	Reversible capacity at cycle <i>n</i>	Ah kg ⁻¹ or mAh g ⁻¹
R_{ct}	Charge-transfer resistance	Ω
S_{BET}	Specific surface area	$m^2 g^{-1}$
Т	Temperature	K or ^o C
T_s	Substrate temperature	K or ^o C
t	Time	h
V	Scan rate	$mV s^{-1}$
Vi	Stoichiometric coefficients of species <i>i</i>	(dimensionless)
$W_{V.th}$	Theoretical energy density	Wh dm ⁻³
W _{th}	Theoretical specific energy	Wh kg ⁻¹
Δx	Amount of guest species	mol

• List of Symbols (con't)

Symbol	Name	Unit
β	Full width at half maximum in radians	radians
\mathcal{O}_{RBM}	RBM frequency	cm^{-1}
λ	Wavelength of the incident X-ray beam	nm
arphi	Laser fluence	J cm ⁻²
heta	Angle of incidence	° or degrees
σ	Electrical conductivity	S cm ⁻¹
τ	Pulse width	ns

• List of Symbols (con't)

• List of Fundamental Constants

Quantity	Symbol	Value	Power of Ten	Unit
Avogadro constant	N_A	6.022	10^{23}	mol ⁻¹
Boltzmann constant	k	1.381	10 ⁻²³	J K ⁻¹
Elementary charge	е	1.602	10 ⁻¹⁹	С
Faraday constant	$F = N_A \times e$	9.6487	10^{4}	C mol ⁻¹
Gas constant	$R = N_A \times k$	8.319	10^{0}	J K ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹

• List of Conversion Factors

Value	Equivalence
1 eV	$1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$
	86.5 kJ mol ⁻¹
	8066 cm^{-1}
1 cm^{-1}	$1.986\times10^{\text{-}23}\text{ J}$
1 μm	10 ⁻⁶ m
1 nm	10 ⁻⁹ m
1 Å	10^{-10} m

Abbreviation Meaning AFM Atomic force microscopy a.u. Arbitrary unit BET Brunauer Emmett Teller CB Carbon black CCCC Computer controlled cell capture CNT Carbon nanotube CV Cyclic voltammetry CVD Chemical vapor deposition DC Disordered carbon dc Dynamic current DEG Diethylene glycol DMC Dimethyl carbonate **DWCNT** Double-walled carbon nanotube EC Ethylene carbonate EDS Energy dispersive spectroscopy EIS Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy ERDA Elastic recoil detection analysis ETH Swiss Federal Institute of Technology EV Electric vehicle FE-SEM Field-emission scanning electron microscopy FSP Flame spray pyrolysis **FWHM** Full width at half maximum Hexagonal-close-packed hcp HEV Hybrid electric vehicle HR-TEM High-resolution transmission electron microscopy IPRI **Intelligent Polymer Research Institute ISEM** Institute for Superconducting and Electronic Materials **JCPDS** Joint committee on powder diffraction standards LTB Lithium tert-butoxide MWCNT Multi-walled carbon nanotube Ni-Cd Nickel-cadmium

• List of Abbreviations

•	List of Abbreviations	(con't)
---	-----------------------	---------

Abbreviation	Meaning
Ni-MH	Nickel-metal hydride
NMP	1-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance
NNI	National nanotechnology initiative
NRA	Nuclear reaction analysis
OCP	Open circuit potential
OEM	Original equipment manufacturer
PC	Propylene carbonate
PLD	Pulsed laser deposition
PSI	Paul Scherrer Institute
PSPD	Position sensitive photo-detector
PVDF	Polyvinylidene fluoride
PZT	Piezo-electric
RBM	Radial breathing mode
RBS	Rutherford backscattering spectrometry
R & D	Research and development
rms	Root mean square
SAEDP	Selected area electron diffraction pattern
SEI	Solid-electrolyte interphase
SEM	Scanning electron microscopy
SEM	Scanning electron microscopy
SHE	Standard hydrogen electrode
SS	Stainless steel
SWCNT	Single-walled carbon nanotube
TEM	Transmission electron microscopy
TGA	Thermogravimetric analysis
THF	Tetrahydrofuran
TMO	Transition metal oxide
UV	Ultra-violet
XRD	X-ray diffraction

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1	Overview of the different reaction potentials of electrode materials for the lithium-ion battery. White rectangles represent the positive electrode materials, and shaded rectangles the negative electrode material. On the left y-axis the materials are plotted against potential vs. Li/Li ⁺ , and on the right y-axis against potential vs. the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE) [Tarascon and Armand, 2001; Whittingham, 2004].	9
Figure 2.2	Some standard potentials of battery electrodes [Novak, 2007].	13
Figure 2.3	Principles of Li-ion battery operation [courtesy of Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland].	17
Figure 2.4	Schematic drawing showing the shape and components of various Li-ion battery configurations: (a) cylindrical, (b) coin, (c) prismatic, and (d) thin and flat [Tarascon and Armand, 2001].	19
Figure 2.5	Comparison of the specific energy and energy density of rechargeable lithium batteries with those of other systems [Manthiram and Kim, 1998].	20
Figure 2.6	Discharge behaviors of batteries [Piotto, 2004].	20
Figure 2.7	Ragone plot of numerous battery systems and supercapacitors [Broussely, 2005].	22
Figure 2.8	Uses for each type of rechargeable battery [Source: Institute of Information Technology Ltd., Japan, 2002].	23
Figure 2.9	Li-ion battery market share for 2002 [Source: Institute of Information Technology Ltd., Japan, 2002].	24
Figure 2.10	(a) Structure of layered lithium cobalt oxide (LiCoO ₂), and (b) schematic diagram of the layered LiCoO ₂ structure showing the ABCABC stacking of the O-Li-O-Co-O-Li-O layers, adapted from [Reimers and Dahn, 1992; Winter et al., 1998].	41

Figure 2.11	(a) The three-dimensional structure of $LiMn_2O_4$ spinel and (b) the crystal structure of a typical AB_2O_4 spinel structure. Hatched, solid, and open circles refer to Li^+ , $Mn^{3+/4+}$, and O^{2-} ions, respectively, for $LiMn_2O_4$. The numbers refer to various crystallographic positions in the spinel structure. Adapted from [Pervov et al., 1997; Winter et al., 1998].	44
Figure 2.12	The crystal structure of olivine LiFePO ₄ in projection along [001]. On the left, expanded view of the framework built on FeO ₆ octahedra and PO ₄ tetrahedra, with Li-ions in red. The FeO ₆ octahedra are linked together through corner sharing in the (b, c) plane. On the right, restricted view of Li, Fe and P distribution between two distorted, hexagonal close packed (hcp) oxygendense layers (P_{Td} [LiFe] _{oct} O ₄). LiO ₆ octahedra share edges and Li-ions may diffuse along [010] and [001]. Image taken from Tarascon and Armand [2001].	47
Figure 2.13	Structures of layered LiVO ₂ , LiV ₂ O ₅ , double sheet LiV ₄ O ₁₀ , V ₆ O ₁₃ , and LiV ₃ O ₈ . VO ₅ square pyramids are pink, VO ₆ octahedra are blue, and lithium atoms are green [Adapted from Whittingham et al., 2005].	49
Figure 2.14	Electrochemical behaviour of bulk and nanostructured α -Fe ₂ O ₃ as shown by voltage-composition curves. The capacity retention and scanning electron micrographs of both samples are shown in the insets [Adapted from Aricò et al., 2005].	57
Figure 2.15	Voltage profile of a 6 nm anatase (TiO ₂) electrode cycled at 0.1 A g^{-1} , 1 A g^{-1} , and 10 A g^{-1} . Inset shows the cycle performance at 10 A g^{-1} [Adapted from Jiang et al., 2006].	59
Figure 2.16	The supply value chain for commercializing nanotechnology, starting with nanomaterials and technology and ending with commercial applications. The factors that impede commercialization are shown in the inner circle and NNI initiatives to overcome these challenges are shown in the outer circle [Helmus, 2006].	61
Figure 3.1	The overall framework of my experimental studies.	64
Figure 3.2	Schematic diagram of the filtration cell used for the fabrication of composite bucky papers.	66
Figure 3.3	Schematic diagram of the spray pyrolysis process, with inset illustrating oxides-carbon nanocomposites formation, redrawn with modifications from Needham [2007].	67
Figure 3.4	Experimental set-up of the FSP process [Mädler et al., 2002].	69

Figure 3.5	Schematic diagram of the experimental set-up for the PLD process at the Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland [courtesy of Mrs. Franziska Simmen]: (1) cylindrical target rod, (2) plasma plume generated by the laser beam, (3) heated and rotating substrate, (4) focusing lens, (5) laser beam, (6) vacuum pump, and (7) inlet for oxygen.	71
Figure 3.6	Reflection of X-rays from lattice planes according to Bragg's law [Giacovazzo, 2002].	73
Figure 3.7	Experimental set-up for resistivity measurement via the four-point probe technique (Jandel multi-height four-point probe and resistivity test unit, model RM2).	77
Figure 3.8	Schematic diagram of a contact mode AFM [Campana, 2005].	78
Figure 3.9	Sketch of the inter-atomic forces variation vs. distance between the AFM tip and sample [Campana, 2005].	80
Figure 3.10	Principle of Rutherford Backscattering Spectrometry [Dumont et al., 2006]. <i>E</i> is the ion energy, M_r is the mass of the incident ion, M_p is the mass of the target atom, and θ is the scattering angle.	81
Figure 3.11	Principle of Elastic Recoil Detection Analysis [Dumont et al., 2006]. <i>E</i> is the ion energy, M_r is the mass of the incident ion, M_p is the mass of the target atom, and θ is the scattering angle.	82
Figure 3.12	Profilometer (Dektak 8000) for measurements of film thickness and surface roughness [courtesy of Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland].	83
Figure 3.13	Cross-sectional schematic diagram of the coin-type cell, CR2032, used in ISEM (Chew, 2006).	85
Figure 3.14	Schematic diagram of the homemade electrochemical cell used in PSI (Coluccia, 2000).	86
Figure 3.15	A common impedance spectrum and the corresponding equivalent circuit for such spectra [Lindsay, 2004].	89
Figure 4.1	Photograph of a typical 4-cm diameter SWCNT-derived bucky paper.	93
Figure 4.2	TEM images of SWCNT precursor powder: (a) low resolution image shows inter-mingled bundles of nanotubes, and (b) high resolution image revealing the outer diameter of the SWCNT as approximately 2.7 nm.	95

Figure 4.3	(a) XRD pattern of SWCNT precursor powder. (b) Raman spectrum of the SWCNT precursor powder, using a 532 nm laser line. The inset shows the RBM region of the SWCNTs, with the numbers indicating the diameters of the SWCNTs.	95
Figure 4.4	Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) images of SWCNT-derived bucky paper: (a) low resolution cross- sectional image of SWCNT paper, exhibiting densely packed layers of nanotubes; (b) corresponding high resolution image of (a), clearly showing highly entangled SWCNTs between the layers; (c) low resolution image of SWCNT composite paper with carbon black, where the wide distribution of tiny white spots indicates carbon black nanoparticles; and (d) the corresponding high resolution image of (c), where the carbon black agglomerates are highlighted as white circles.	97
Figure 4.5	Raman spectra for the SWCNT electrodes with 532 nm laser line: (a) carbon black powder, (b) SWCNT powder, (c) SWCNT paper, and (d) SWCNT composite paper with carbon black.	98
Figure 4.6	Electrical conductivity as a function of thickness for SWCNT papers.	100
Figure 4.7	Impedance plots for the SWCNT electrodes: (a) bucky paper and bucky paper with 10 wt.% carbon black, and (b) bucky paper with different thicknesses.	101
Figure 4.8	Nyquist plots for SWCNT electrodes: (a) SWCNT powder on Ni foam, (b) thin SWCNT paper, (c) thick SWCNT paper, and (d) SWCNT paper with 10 wt.% carbon black.	103
Figure 4.9	Charge-discharge profiles of SWCNT electrodes: (a) conventional slurry-coated electrode, and (b) "free-standing" bucky paper electrode.	105
Figure 4.10	Discharge capacities vs. cycle number. Current density was 0.08 mA cm ⁻² .	106
Figure 4.11	Cyclic voltammograms of the SWCNT composite paper electrodes: (a) SWCNT paper with 10 wt.% carbon black, and (b) SWCNT paper with 10 wt.% carbon black and 10 wt.% nanosized Si particles addition. The scan rate applied is 0.5 mV s ⁻¹ and the numbers indicate the cycle number.	107
Figure 4.12	(a) Cycle life of the composite bucky paper electrodes. The current density was 0.08 mA cm^{-2} . (b) Discharge capacities of the composite bucky paper electrodes at different cycling rates. The electrodes were cycled between 0.02 and 1.20 V vs. Li/Li ⁺ .	108

Figure 4.13	SEM images of "free-standing" SWCNT paper electrodes: (a) before cycling, and (b) after 100 cycles.	109
Figure 5.1	Typical XRD patterns of α -PbO powders sprayed at different temperatures. The solution concentration was 0.5 M, and the flow rate was 3.14 mL min ⁻¹ . The traces of β -PbO are marked by *.	115
Figure 5.2	TEM dark-field images obtained from samples sprayed at (a) 600 °C and (b) 800 °C. Individual crystallites are marked as C.	117
Figure 5.3	Typical SEM images of powders sprayed at (a) 600 $^{\circ}$ C, (b) 700 $^{\circ}$ C, and (c) 800 $^{\circ}$ C. The solution concentration was 0.5 M, and the flow rate was 3.14 mL min ⁻¹ .	119
Figure 5.4	TGA curves of PbO-C nanocomposites with different PbO/C ratios.	121
Figure 5.5	XRD patterns of PbO-C nanocomposites from (a) pure PbO; (b) 97PbO/3C; (c) 91PbO/9C; and (d) 90PbO/10C.	123
Figure 5.6	SEM images of PbO and PbO-C nanocomposites from (a) pure PbO; (b) 97PbO/3C; (c) 91PbO/9C; and (d) 90PbO/10C.	124
Figure 5.7	TEM images of nanocrystalline PbO and PbO-C nanocomposites: (a) centered dark-field image of pure PbO, where individual crystallites are marked as C; (b) bright-field image of 97PbO/3C, with large PbO particles marked as P; (c) and (d) bright field images and selected area electron diffraction patterns (inset) of 90PbO/10C at different magnifications. The lead oxide particles in the carbon rich cluster in (c) are significantly smaller than those in (b). Some carbon rich clusters, such as that shown in (d), contained no lead oxide particles, as indicated by the diffuse contrast in the associated SAED pattern.	126
Figure 5.8	Raman spectra of PbO-C nanocomposites from (a) 97PbO/3C, (b) 91PbO/9C, and (c) 90PbO/10C; and (d) pure disordered carbon produced from sugar.	128
Figure 5.9	EDX mapping of PbO-C nanocomposites made from 90PbO/10C (left) and 97PbO/3C (right).	129
Figure 5.10	CVs of (a) pure nanocrystalline PbO and (b) 90PbO/10C nanocomposite. The scan rate was 0.1 mV s^{-1} .	131
Figure 5.11	The 1 st , 2 nd , 5 th and 10 th charge/discharge profiles of (a) pure nanocrystalline PbO and (b) 90PbO/10C nanocomposite. The current density was 0.1 mA cm ⁻² .	133

Figure 5.12	Discharge capacity dependencies of PbO materials sprayed at (a) different temperatures at 0.5 M and 3.14 mL min ⁻¹ , and at (b) different solution concentrations at 700 °C and 1.57 mL min ⁻¹ . The current density applied was 0.1 mA cm ⁻² .	135
Figure 5.13	Cycle life of PbO-C nanocomposites. The current density was 0.1 mA cm ⁻² . The inset figure presents the specific capacity vs. cycle number data for the bare carbon powder, and the current density applied was also 0.1 mA cm^{-2} .	136
Figure 5.14	Impedance plots for (a) pure PbO and (b) 90PbO/10C electrodes in the de-lithiated state.	138
Figure 6.1	Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) curves of nanocrystalline Si precursor powder; carbon-coated Si nanocomposites spray- pyrolyzed in air at 500 °C, 400 °C, and 300 °C; and amorphous carbon spray-pyrolyzed from citric acid at 400 °C in air. The ratio Si/DC refers to the ratio of the amount of silicon by weight to the amount of disordered carbon in the spray-pyrolyzed nanocomposites, as estimated from the TGA curves.	144
Figure 6.2	X-ray diffraction patterns of (a) nanocrystalline Si precursor powder; carbon-coated Si nanocomposites spray-pyrolyzed in air at (b) 500 °C; (c) 400 °C; and (d) 300 °C; and (e) amorphous carbon spray-pyrolyzed from citric acid at 400 °C in air.	147
Figure 6.3	SEM images of carbon-coated Si nanocomposites spray- pyrolyzed in air at (a) 400 $^{\circ}$ C (low-magnification image); (b) 500 $^{\circ}$ C; (c) 400 $^{\circ}$ C; and (d) 300 $^{\circ}$ C.	148
Figure 6.4	TEM images of nanocrystalline Si and carbon-coated Si nanocomposites: (a) low-magnification image of nanocrystalline Si, with the indexed selected area diffraction pattern (inset) confirming the presence of Si particles; and (b) carbon-coated Si nanocomposite spray-pyrolyzed at 400 °C. (c), (d), and (e) are TEM images of carbon-coated Si nanocomposites spray- pyrolyzed at 300 °C, 400 °C, and 500 °C, respectively, revealing the thickness of the carbon-coating layer for each nanocomposite. (f) High-resolution image of carbon-coated Si spray-pyrolyzed at 400 °C, clearly showing the presence of an interface between the nanocrystalline Si particle and the amorphous carbon layer.	149
Figure 6.5	The first discharge/charge plots of nanocrystalline Si and carbon- coated Si nanocomposite electrodes. Cycling took place between 0.02 V and $1.20 V$ versus Li/Li ⁺ at a cycling rate of 100 mA g ⁻¹ .	152

Figure 6.6	(a) First cycle differential capacity plots of nanocrystalline Si and carbon-coated Si nanocomposite electrodes (inset: enlarged plot of (a)). (b), (c), and (d) are differential capacity plots for carbon-coated Si nanocomposites spray-pyrolyzed at 500 °C, 400 °C, and 300 °C, respectively, with the numbers indicating the cycle number. Cycling took place between 0.02 V and 1.20 V versus Li/Li^+ at a cycling rate of 100 mA g ⁻¹ .	153
Figure 6.7	(a) Cycle life of nanocrystalline Si and carbon-coated Si nanocomposite electrodes cycled between 0.02 V and 1.20 V versus Li/Li^+ at a cycling rate of 100 mA g ⁻¹ . (b) The corresponding capacity retained with respect to the first discharge capacity in (a).	155
Figure 6.8	Cycling behaviour for electrodes of (a) carbon-coated Si nanocomposite spray-pyrolyzed at 400 °C, with 44 wt.% Si content; and (b) amorphous carbon spray-pyrolyzed at 400 °C. Cycling took place between 0.02 V and 1.20 V versus Li/Li ⁺ at a cycling rate of 100 mA g ⁻¹ .	157
Figure 6.9	Impedance plots for electrodes of (a) nanocrystalline Si; and (b) carbon-coated Si nanocomposite spray-pyrolyzed at 400 °C. All measurements were conducted in the de-lithiated state.	159
Figure 6.10	Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) curves of nanocrystalline Si precursor powder; carbon-coated Si nanocomposites spray- pyrolyzed in air at 400 °C with different initial precursor solution concentrations; and amorphous carbon spray-pyrolyzed from citric acid at 400 °C in air, with an initial precursor solution weight ratio (nano-Si/citric acid) of 1/10.	162
Figure 6.11	X-ray diffraction patterns of (a) nanocrystalline Si precursor powder, (b) 83Si/17DC, (c) 68Si/32DC, (d) 51Si/49DC, (e) 44Si/56DC, and (f) amorphous carbon spray-pyrolyzed from citric acid at 400 °C in air.	163
Figure 6.12	(a) Cycling behaviour of the nanocrystalline Si and Si/DC nanocomposite electrodes cycled between 0.02 V and 1.20 V vs. Li/Li^+ at a cycling rate of 100 mA g ⁻¹ . (b) The corresponding discharge capacity retained, compared to the first discharge capacity in (a).	164
Figure 7.1	XRD patterns for (a) commercial V_2O_5 , (b) V_2O_5 annealed for 45 mins at 300 °C (sample A), and (c) V_2O_5 annealed for 1 hr at 300 °C (sample B).	171
Figure 7.2	SEM images of nanostructured V_2O_5 electrodes: (a) and (b) are for V_2O_5 annealed for 45 mins at 300 °C (sample A), while (c) and (d) are for V_2O_5 annealed for 1 hr at 300 °C (sample B).	172

Figure 7.3	Cyclic voltammograms of nanostructured V_2O_5 electrodes. The applied scan rate was 0.5 mV s ⁻¹ .	173
Figure 7.4	The 1 st , 10 th , and 20 th charge-discharge profiles of nanostructured V_2O_5 electrodes: (a) V_2O_5 annealed for 45 mins at 300 °C (sample A), and (b) V_2O_5 annealed for 1 hr at 300 °C (sample B). (c) Charge capacity vs. cycle number for nanostructured V_2O_5 electrodes cycled between 1.5 V and 4.0 V at a cycling rate of 50 mA g ⁻¹ .	175
Figure 7.5	Cycling behaviour for sample B V_2O_5 electrode at different cut- off voltages: (a) 1.5 V, (b) 2.0 V, and (c) 2.5 V. The current density applied was 50 mA g ⁻¹ .	176
Figure 7.6	XRD patterns for (a) commercial V_2O_5 (micron-sized), and (b) V_2O_5 (nano-sized) produced by a one-step flame spray pyrolysis process.	178
Figure 7.7	SEM images of V_2O_5 nanoparticles synthesized via FSP: (a) low magnification image, revealing the homogeneity of the spherical-shaped particles, and (b) high-magnification, field emission SEM images, confirming the nanosized nature of the particles, with sizes ranging from 20-40 nm.	179
Figure 7.8	TEM images of V_2O_5 nanoparticles synthesized via FSP: (a) and (b) are low resolution images, showing that the nanoparticles are not exactly spherical in shape; (c) is a high-resolution TEM image, with the (200) crystalline lattice parameter highlighted; and (d) is the corresponding selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern for the V_2O_5 nanoparticles in image (c).	180
Figure 7.9	Cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of the FSP-made nanostructured V_2O_5 electrodes for the first 20 cycles at different cut-off voltages: (a) 1.5 V, (b) 2.0 V, and (c) 2.5 V. The applied scan rate was 0.1 mV s ⁻¹ . (d) Plot of discharge capacity vs. cycle number for the corresponding CVs in plots (a), (b), and (c).	182
Figure 7.10	Prolonged cycling behaviour for the FSP-made nanostructured V_2O_5 electrodes at different discharge cut-off voltages: 1.5 V, 2.0 V, and 2.5 V. The current density applied was 100 mA g ⁻¹ .	183
Figure 7.11	(a) Electrochemical performance for the FSP-made nanostructured V_2O_5 electrode, cycled between 2.5 V and 4.0 V versus Li/Li ⁺ at a cycling rate of 100 mAh g- ¹ . (b) Cycling behaviour for the FSP-made nanostructured V_2O_5 electrode at different current densities, when cycled between 2.5 V and 4.0 V versus Li/Li ⁺ .	185
Figure 8.1	XRD pattern of the LiV ₃ O ₈ nanoparticles synthesized by FSP.	190

Figure 8.2	SEM image of the LiV_3O_8 nanoparticles synthesized by FSP.	191
Figure 8.3	TEM images of LiV_3O_8 nanoparticles synthesized via FSP: (a) low resolution image, showing the nanosized nature of the particles; and (b) high-resolution image, with the (100) crystalline lattice parameter highlighted (inset: the corresponding selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern for the LiV_3O_8 nanoparticles).	192
Figure 8.4	Cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of flame spray pyrolyzed LiV_3O_8 nanoparticles, recorded at 0.1 mV s ⁻¹ from 1.5 to 4.0 V for the first 20 cycles.	194
Figure 8.5	Cycle life behaviour for a compound electrode with the FSP-made LiV_3O_8 nanoparticles as the active electromaterial. The current density applied was 100 mA g ⁻¹ , with cut-off potentials of 2 and 4 V.	196
Figure 8.6	The 2^{nd} , 10^{th} , and 50^{th} cycle discharge/charge plots of LiV ₃ O ₈ electrode, with the numbers indicating the cycle number. Cycling took place between 2 V and 4 V versus Li/Li ⁺ at a cycling rate of 100 mA g ⁻¹ .	197
Figure 8.7	Cycling behaviour for the FSP-made nanostructured LiV_3O_8 electrode at different current densities, when cycled between 2 V and 4 V versus Li/Li^+ . The 1C rate is assumed to be equivalent to 150 mA g ⁻¹ in this case.	198
Figure 9.1	(a) Schematic diagram of the experimental set-up for the pulsed laser deposition (PLD) of LiMn_2O_4 thin films: (1) cylindrical target rod, (2) plasma plume generated by the laser beam, (3) heated and rotating substrate, (4) focusing lens, (5) laser beam, (6) vacuum pump, and (7) inlet for oxygen; (b) a photograph depicting a real PLD chamber used in this research work at the Materials Group, Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland; and (c) a photograph showing a PLD experiment in action, where a plasma plume (purple cloud) that was generated from the laser beam heating the target is deposited onto the heated substrate [image obtained from Mrs. Franziska Simmen].	204
Figure 9.2	X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of $LiMn_2O_4$ thin film on Si (100) substrate [analyzed by Mrs. Franziska Simmen]. Numbers on peaks denote the <i>hkl</i> index (JCPDS 35-0782).	206
Figure 9.3	XRD patterns of $LiMn_2O_4$ thin films deposited on stainless steel (SS) substrate: (a) 8400 pulses, and (b) 27000 pulses [analyzed by Mrs. Franziska Simmen].	211

Figure 9.4	Film thickness vs. number of pulses used in the deposition conditions when $LiMn_2O_4$ thin films were deposited onto stainless steel substrate heated to 500 °C and then cooled in an oxygen atmosphere [analyzed by Mrs. Franziska Simmen].	212
Figure 9.5	Surface topography (flat images) as measured by atomic force microscopy (AFM) of the as-deposited $LiMn_2O_4$ thin films grown on stainless steel substrate at different numbers of pulses: (a) 8400 pulses, (b) 13200 pulses, (c) 18000 pulses, and (d) 27000 pulses. The films were cooled in air without post-deposition annealing.	213
Figure 9.6	Cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of different types of LiMn ₂ O ₄ electrode recorded at 0.1 mV s ⁻¹ from 3.5 to 4.4 V for the first 20 cycles: (a) classical method, where a (70 wt.% LiMn ₂ O ₄ + 20 wt.% CB + 10 wt.% PVDF) slurry mixture was coated onto aluminium foil, and (b) as-deposited LiMn ₂ O ₄ thin film grown on stainless steel substrate via PLD [analyzed by Mrs. Franziska Simmen]. The LiMn ₂ O ₄ thin film was deposited at N ^o = 27000 pulses, $T_s = 500$ °C, $d_{t-s} = 4$ cm, $\phi = 4.3$ J cm ⁻² , and cooled in air with no post-deposition annealing.	215
Figure 9.7	(a) Cycle life of the as-deposited LiMn_2O_4 thin film electrodes on stainless steel substrate cycled between 3.5 V and 4.4 V versus Li/Li^+ at a cycling rate of 50 μA cm ⁻² . (b) The corresponding capacity retained compared to the first discharge capacity in (a) [analyzed by Mrs. Franziska Simmen].	217
Figure 9.8	Cycle life behaviour of the as-deposited $LiMn_2O_4$ thin film electrode on stainless steel substrate cycled between 3.5 V and 4.4 V versus Li/Li^+ at a cycling rate of 50 μ A cm ⁻² . The $LiMn_2O_4$ thin film was deposited at N° = 8400 pulses, T _s = 500 °C, d _{t-s} = 4 cm, ϕ = 4.3 J cm ⁻² , and cooled in air with no post-deposition annealing [analyzed by Mrs. Franziska Simmen].	218
Figure 9.9	Cycle life behaviour of the as-deposited LiMn ₂ O ₄ thin film electrode on stainless steel substrate cycled between 3.5 V and 4.4 V versus Li/Li ⁺ at different cycling rates. The LiMn ₂ O ₄ thin film was deposited at N ^o = 13200 pulses, T _s = 500 °C, d _{t-s} = 4 cm, φ = 4.3 J cm ⁻² , and cooled in air with no post-deposition annealing [analyzed by Mrs. Franziska Simmen]. The 1C rate is assumed to be equivalent to 5 µA cm ⁻² in this case.	218
Figure 9.10	SEM images of the as-deposited LiMn ₂ O ₄ thin film electrode on stainless steel substrate: (a) before cycling, and (b) after 100 charge-discharge cycles. Cycling took place between 3.5 V and 4.4 V versus Li/Li ⁺ at a cycling rate of 50 μ A cm ⁻² . The LiMn ₂ O ₄ thin film was deposited at N ^o = 18000 pulses, T _s = 500 °C, d _{t-s} = 4 cm, ϕ = 4.3 J cm ⁻² , and cooled in air with no post-deposition annealing [measured by Dr. Anja Weber].	219