Electrochimica Acta 54 (2009) 6816-6820

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect



Electrochimica Acta

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/electacta

TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in CO exhibiting high performance for lithium ion intercalation

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 18 April 2009 Received in revised form 26 June 2009 Accepted 27 June 2009 Available online 4 July 2009

Keywords: Li ion intercalation TiO_2 nanotube arrays CO annealing Point defects Charge-transfer

ABSTRACT

Anatase titania nanotube arrays were fabricated by means of anodization of Ti foil and annealed at 400 °C in respective CO and N₂ gases for 3 h. Electrochemical impendence spectroscopy study showed that CO annealed arrays possessed a noticeably lower charge-transfer resistance as compared with arrays annealed in N₂ gas under otherwise the same conditions. TiO_2 nanotube arrays annealed in CO possessed much improved lithium ion intercalation capacity and rate capability than N₂ annealed samples. At a high charge/discharge current density of 320 mA g⁻¹, the initial discharge capacity in CO annealed arrays was found to be as high as 223 mAh g⁻¹, 30% higher than N₂ annealed arrays, ~164 mAh g⁻¹. After 50 charge/discharge cycles, the discharge capacity in CO annealed arrays remained at ~179 mAh g⁻¹. The improved intercalation capacity and rate capability could be attributed to the presence of surface defects like Ti–C species and Ti³⁺ groups with oxygen vacancies, which not only improved the charge-transfer conductivity of the arrays but also possibly promoted phase transition.

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1. Introduction

Titanium dioxide is abundant in nature and can be easily fabricated with low cost in addition to its chemical stability and various favorable physical properties, and thus has been extensively explored and studied for applications in energy conversion and storage [1–3]. For example, it has been widely studied as electrodes in dye-sensitized solar cells [4–5], biosensors [6–7], and lithium-ion batteries [8-9]. As the intercalation host for lithium-ion batteries, TiO₂ differs from other intercalation transition metal oxides, such as V_2O_5 and MnO_2 by possessing a lower lithium ion intercalation voltage, \sim 1.7 V vs. Li/Li⁺ [10–12]. This intercalation character makes TiO₂ as a possible anode candidate for lithium-ion batteries. In recent years, there have been increasing concerns on the safety issue of the graphite anode that is commonly used. TiO₂ could be one of the favorable alternatives [13]. However, one of the major drawbacks of TiO₂ is the relatively low intercalation capacity as compared with that of graphite that possesses a capacity of >300 mAh g⁻¹ [14,15]. High intercalation capacity has been demonstrated only in a relatively low charge/discharge current density and in nanostructured TiO₂ fabricated by means of hydrothermal growth [16,17]. As an anode, TiO₂ suffers from its poor electronic conductivity, and thus is impossible to use large charge/discharge current densities. Besides creating novel nanostructures to further reduce lithium-ion and electron transportation path, efforts have been devoted to improving the electrical conductivity of anatase TiO₂, which is a more straightforward way to improve the intercalation capacities at high charge/discharge rate [18-20]. For example, carbon or silver was introduced into TiO₂ network by doping or admixed to form nanocomposites; appreciably enhanced intercalation properties have been reported [21,22]. To date, doping and creating point defects like Ti³⁺ ions accompanied with O²⁻ vacancies on TiO₂ surfaces are effective ways to improve the conductivity of TiO₂ electrodes. Ti³⁺ groups were often created by means of ion sputtering [23], electron beam bombardment [24], or thermal annealing in reducing gas [25]. In addition to the enhancement of electronic conductivity, the point defects on the surface have been reported to promote phase transitions [26]; Ti³⁺ defects could possibly facilitate the lithium ion intercalation and result in a much higher reversible intercalation capacity. In our recent experiments, we have found that annealing TiO₂ nanotube arrays in reducing gas environment, i.e. CO gas flow, could create both Ti-C species and Ti³⁺ point defects in TiO₂ [27]. It has been demonstrated that TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in nitrogen could deliver a stable capacity of $\sim 160 \,\text{mAh}\,\text{g}^{-1}$ at a large charge/discharge current density of 320 mAg^{-1} [28]. This performance compared with

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^{0013-4686/\$ –} see front matter s 2009 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.electacta.2009.06.090

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Fig. 1. SEM images of (a) as grown amorphous titania nanotube arrays and (b) anatase TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in CO at 400 °C for 3 h.

amorphous TiO₂ nanotube arrays without annealing was attributed to the enhanced surface charge-transfer conductivity which eased the negative effects induced by large charge/discharge current densities, e.g. electron accumulation and polarization. In this paper, we report the influences of point defects on the lithium ion intercalation properties of CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays as compared to those of N₂ annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays. The much improved lithium ion intercalation properties were attributed to the easy phase transition promoted by the surface defects, i.e. Ti–C, Ti³⁺ and O^{2-} vacancies, which could serve as nucleation centers. In addition, the rate performance was also improved due to the enhanced electrical conductivity.

2. Experimental

Titania nanotube arrays were synthesized by anodic oxidation method according to literature [29]. In brief, titanium foil (99.94%) of 0.5 mm in thickness was chemically etched in 30% HCl solution at approximately 80 °C for about 20 min. After rinsing thoroughly with DI water, the clean titanium foil was anodized in the electrolyte of 0.1 M KF and 1.0 M NaHSO₄ with a platinum foil as counter electrode at a constant potential of 20 V at room temperature for 1 h. The as-grown titania nanotube arrays were calcined at 400 °C for 3 h in respective dry gas flow of N₂ and CO. Then scanning electron microscopy (SEM, JEOL JSM7000) and X-ray diffraction (XRD, Philips 1820 X-ray diffractometer) were carried out to characterize the morphology and crystallization state. The carbon-doping and Ti³⁺ defect concentration were measured by means of X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, SSL-300 system).

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) study was carried out by a Salon 1260 impedance/gain-phase analyzer with a platinum foil as counter electrode and 1 M LiClO₄ in propylene carbonate as electrolyte. The range of the frequency was from 100 kHz to 0.05 Hz. Lithium ion intercalation properties of TiO₂ nanotube arrays were investigated using a standard three-electrode system, with 1 M LiClO₄ in propylene carbonate as the electrolyte, a Pt mesh as the counter electrode, and Ag/AgCl as the reference electrode. Cyclic voltammetric (CV) tests were conducted between -0.2 V and -2.2 V with a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹; chronopotentiometric (CP) tests were carried out in the voltage range from -0.6 V to -2.1 V with different current densities of 100 mA g⁻¹, 320 mA g⁻¹, 1 A g⁻¹, 3 A g⁻¹ and 10 A g⁻¹. Both the CVs and CPs were done by using an electrochemical analyzer (CH Instruments, Model 605B).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Morphology and crystallinity of TiO₂ nanotube arrays

Fig. 1 compared the typical SEM images of (a) as-grown titania nanotube arrays and (b) arrays annealed in CO at 400 °C for 3 h. After annealing in CO, the nanotube wall thickness increased from 10 nm to 17 nm and the inner diameter reduced from 100 nm to 85 nm; the nanotube length also experienced shrinkage around 10%, reduced from \sim 1.2 μ m to \sim 1.1 μ m. N₂ annealed nanotube arrays possessed the same morphological change as the CO annealed ones based on SEM observation. Such morphological similarity was further confirmed by the nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms, by showing the same pore size, pore volume and specific surface area. XRD study of the crystallization state of TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in both N₂ and CO revealed that anatase phase was the only detected phase, which agreed well with our earlier work [6,27]. XPS study of the nanotube arrays annealed in CO gas confirmed carbon doping onto TiO2 surface in the form of minor amount of Ti-C and the formation of Ti³⁺ point defects [27] and will be further discussed later.

3.2. Electrochemical behavior of TiO₂ nanotube arrays

The electrochemical impedance spectra of CO and N₂ annealed nanotube arrays presented in the form of Nyquist plots were shown in Fig. 2 and it could be found that both plots possessed partially overlapped semicircles at the high-to-medium frequency range and a straight line at low frequencies. The inset in Fig. 2 depicted the ideal impedance curve of lithium ion intercalation from the electrolyte into the electrodes, which could be divided into three parts with two intercepts on the Z' axis. Part I, which was the Z' axis part left of the impedance curve, represented the bulk resistance of the electrode; the semicircle of part II corresponded to the charge-transfer process of lithium ions from the electrolyte into the electrode and the charge-transfer resistance value could be estimated from the difference between the left intercept and right intercept with the Z' axis [30], and part III was an inclined straight line representing the diffusion process of lithium ion inside the electrode [20]. After fitting and calculation on the experimentally obtained curves, we found that N₂ annealed arrays possessed an electrode resistance of 66 Ω and a charge-transfer resistance of 38 Ω while CO annealed arrays possessed an electrode resistance of 60 Ω and a reduced charge-transfer resistance around 26Ω , indicating a D. Liu et al. / Electrochimica Acta 54 (2009) 6816-6820



Fig. 2. Electrochemical impedance spectra presented as Nyquist plots of titania nanotube arrays annealed in N₂ and CO at 400 °C for 3 h and measured in 1 M LiClO₄ in propylene carbonate with testing frequencies from 100 kHz to 0.05 Hz. The inset depicted the ideal impedance curve representing the lithium ion intercalation process into electrodes.



Fig. 3. Cyclic voltammetry curves in the first cycle of titania nanotube arrays annealed in N₂ and CO at 400 °C for 3 h and measured in 1 M LiClO₄ in propylene carbonate with a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹ in a voltage range between -2.2 V and -0.2 V.

higher charge-transfer rate of Li⁺ in the electrode. This improved charge-transfer conductivity of CO annealed TiO_2 arrays could be attributed to the presence of surface Ti-C species and Ti^{3+} groups with oxygen vacancies which enhanced the surface conductivity of the electrode.

Fig. 3 showed the first cyclic voltammograms of TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in N₂ gas and CO gas tested under the identical conditions with a scan rate of $5 \,\text{mV}\,\text{s}^{-1}$. Both cyclic voltammograms exhibited noticeable cathodic and anodic peaks. For the N₂ annealed arrays, one cathodic peak centered at -1.95 V was identified and the corresponding anodic peak at -1.45 V was observed. This set of cathodic and anodic peaks was ascribed to lithium ion intercalation and de-intercalation and has been considered as the characteristic peaks of anatase TiO_2 in the literature [31]. CO annealed arrays exhibited an anodic peak at -1.45 V, but the cathodic peak position was shifted to a little higher voltage ~ -1.9 V, which was closer to the anodic peak. This reduction of the difference in peak voltages indicated better reversibility of redox reaction of lithium ion intercalation and de-intercalation in CO annealed titania nanotube arrays as reported in literature [29,32]. In addition, the sweeping area of the CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays was much greater than that of the N₂ annealed arrays, suggesting the larger lithium ion storage capabilities under the same intercalation and de-intercalation conditions.



Fig. 4. Chronopotentiometric discharge/charge curves in the first cycle at a current density of 320 mAg^{-1} of TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in N₂ and CO at 400 °C for 3 h.

Fig. 4 depicted the first chronopotentiometric (CP) lithium ion intercalation and de-intercalation curves of the N2 and CO annealed TiO_2 nanotube arrays tested with a current density of 320 mAg^{-1} . The discharge curve of the N2 annealed arrays possessed a plateau in the voltage range between -1.8 V and -1.9 V, agreeing well with the position of the cathodic peak in Fig. 3. At this voltage range, large amounts of lithium ions were intercalated into anatase TiO2 structure, resulting in a phase transition from TiO₂ to lithiated titania $Li_x TiO_2$ (x = 0.5). Approximately half of the total discharge capacity of 164 mAh g⁻¹ was delivered by this plateau. The corresponding charge plateau was observed at a voltage range from -1.6V to -1.5 V, indicating the reverse phase transition from lithiated titania Li_xTiO_2 (x = 0.5) back to anatase TiO₂. The discharge (164 mAh g⁻¹) and charge (162 mAh g⁻¹) capacities were almost identical, revealing its good reversibility. For the CO annealed arrays, the discharge plateau appeared at a little lower voltage range between -1.9 V and -2.0V and the plateau was much more noticeable, delivering 140 mAh g^{-1} of the total 223 mAh g⁻¹ capacity. The charge plateau was in good symmetry to the discharge plateau by delivering 140 mAh g^{-1} out of 218 mAh g^{-1} of the charge capacity in the voltage range of -1.6 V to -1.5 V. Curves of both arrays exhibited good reversibility by returning very close to their starting points after completing a cycle of discharge and charge. But the discharge/charge plateau size of the CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays was far larger than that in the N₂ annealed arrays, suggesting an easier process of phase transition between TiO₂ and a more lithiated titania $\text{Li}_x \text{TiO}_2$ (x = 0.65) phase which might be due to the existence of surface defects as the nucleation centers as will be discussed in detail later.

The cyclic stability of the N₂ and CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays for lithium ion intercalation was measured by means of chronopotentiometric (CP) tests for 50 continuous discharge/charge cycles with a current density of 320 mA g⁻¹ and the results were presented in Fig. 5. Both arrays exhibited excellent cycle stability over long-term cycles. The N₂ annealed arrays started with a capacity of 164 mAh g⁻¹, retaining a capacity of 160 mAh g⁻¹ at the 10th cycle and 145 mAh g⁻¹ at the 50th cycle, with a capacity loss rate of ~0.2% per cycle. The CO annealed arrays had an initial capacity of 223 mAh g⁻¹, retaining 210 mAh g⁻¹ after 10 cycles. After 50 cycles, the remaining capacity was as high as 179 mAh g⁻¹, with a capacity loss rate of ~0.9% per cycle. The little higher capacity degradation rate of CO annealed arrays was reasonable considering the more lithium-ion intercalated, which might result in



Fig. 5. The Li ion intercalation discharge capacity of TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in N₂ and CO at 400 °C for 3 h as a function of cyclic numbers. The measurements were carried out in a potential window between -0.6 V and -2.1 V vs. Ag/AgCl as a reference electrode at a current density of 320 mAg⁻¹.



Fig. 6. The initial discharge capacities of TiO_2 nanotube arrays annealed in N_2 and CO at 400 °C for 3 h as a function of applied discharge current densities. The measurements were carried out in a potential window between -0.6 V and -2.1 V vs. Ag/AgCl as a reference electrode.

more strain leading to possible local microstructure disintegration, though more experiments are required to verify this hypothesis. However, even after 50 cycles, the lithium ion intercalation capacity of the CO annealed TiO_2 nanotube arrays was still higher than the initial capacity of the N₂ annealed arrays.

Fig. 6 summarized and compared the relationship between the discharge current density and corresponding intercalation capacity of the TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in N₂ and CO, respectively. The lithium ion intercalation capacity of the N₂ annealed nanotube arrays was found to be more sensitively dependent on the current density; the intercalation capacity reduced rapidly with the increased current density. At a current density of 100 mA g⁻¹, the capacity of the N₂ annealed TiO₂ nanotube array was as high as 245 mAh g⁻¹. However, when the current density was tripled to 320 mA g⁻¹, the capacity decreased to 164 mAh g⁻¹, losing one third of its discharge capacity. At a current density of 1 A g⁻¹, the capacity was further reduced to a value of 127 mAh g⁻¹. Comparatively,

the CO annealed TiO_2 nanotube arrays demonstrated less sensitive intercalation capacity. For example, an intercalation capacity of 261 mAh g⁻¹ decreased to 223 mAh g⁻¹, less than 20% reduction, when the current density increased from 100 mA g⁻¹ to 320 mA g⁻¹. It is clear from Fig. 6 that the CO annealed TiO_2 nanotube arrays possessed much higher intercalation capacities, approximately double of that of N₂ annealed TiO_2 nanotube arrays at high current densities, i.e. possessing a capacity of 101 mAh g⁻¹ at 10 A g⁻¹.

Although the exact mechanism of much enhanced lithium ion intercalation properties in CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays as compared to that of N₂ annealed samples is a subject of further study, some possible explanations are discussed below. Electrochemical intercalation comprises of three simultaneous and sequential processes: (1) redox reaction at the interface between the intercalation host and the electrolyte, (2) nucleation and growth of new phase starting at the interface and (3) charge and mass transfer. Appropriately fabricated nanostructures favor all three processes and, thus, offer much enhanced intercalation properties. However, nanostructure would not be able to explain the significantly different intercalation properties of TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in CO and N₂, respectively. The increase of discharge current density accelerates the lithium ion intercalation reaction rate at the interface between the solid electrode and the liquid electrolyte. When the reaction rate exceeds charge and/or mass transport properties of the solid electrode, charge accumulation and local (or surface) polarization would occur, which in turn hinders further intercalation reaction and leads to a low intercalation capacity [33]. Appropriately designed and fabricated nanostructured electrodes have demonstrated much enhanced intercalation capacities, due to much reduced transport distance [34]. Obviously, improved charge and mass transfer property would significantly enhance the intercalation capacity by eliminating or reducing the local polarization. In the present study, the impedance analyses revealed that the charge-transfer conductivity of the CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays was approximately 30% higher than that of the N2 annealed samples. This improved electrical conductivity of the CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays could facilitate charge transport accompanying rapid intercalation reactions at the interface, allowing large intercalation capacities under high current densities. What should also be pointed out here is that, both N₂ and CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays possessed a much better rate performance than pristine amorphous arrays reported earlier [28].

The presence of defects may also contribute to the improved intercalation capacity of the CO annealed TiO_2 nanotube arrays, as has been reported in other intercalation oxide electrodes such as V₂O₅ [35,36]. In the titania system, both intercalation and de-intercalation processes involve phase transition between tetragonal TiO₂ and orthorhombic Li_xTiO₂ through the following reaction:

$xLi^+ + xe^- + TiO_2 = Li_xTiO_2$

Phase transition occurs through nucleation at the interface and subsequent growth from the interface towards the interior. The presence of defects on the surface of TiO_2 nanotubes could serve as nucleation sites so as to promote the phase transition and the defects in bulk may also favor the propagation or growth of the new phase. Wagemaker et al. reported that easier phase transition could be achieved by reducing host particle size to nanometer size [37]. As a matter of fact, defects have been reported to promote the phase transition of TiO_2 by providing low energy mass transport routes during the phase transition process [38–41]. In the present study, N₂ annealed TiO_2 nanotube arrays retained pure anatase phase after the annealing temperature was increased to 500 °C, however, transition from anatase to rutile phase was detected in the XRD pattern (Fig. 7a) of the CO annealed TiO_2 arrays at 500 °C. XPS analyses

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(a) A(101) Intensity (a.u) A(200) R(110) A(004) A(105) A(211) A(204) A(116) R(111) R(210) 20 30 40 50 60 70 2Θ (degree) (Ti2p_{3/2}) Ti (b) Intensity (a.u) Ti2p_{1/2} Ti^{3†} TiC 475 470 465 460 455 450 Binding Energy (eV)

Fig. 7. (a) XRD pattern of TiO₂ nanotube arrays annealed in CO gas at 500 $^\circ$ C for 3 h with rutile phase detected and (b) Ti2p XPS spectra of the same array with carbon doped Ti-C species and Ti³⁺ state available.

of Ti2p spectrum of CO annealed arrays was shown in Fig. 7b. In addition to two characteristic Ti^{4+} peaks of $\text{Ti}2p_{1/2}$ at ${\sim}465\,\text{eV},$ and Ti2p_{3/2} at \sim 459 eV, there were two extra peaks at 456.8 eV and 454.9 eV found in the spectrum. According to literature [42–44], those two peaks could be assigned to Ti^{3+} at ~456.8 eV and Ti-Cat 454.9 eV. The presence of Ti–C and Ti³⁺ with oxygen vacancies was believed to play a critical role in facilitating the phase transition from anatase to rutile. During the lithium ion intercalation and de-intercalation processes, these defects could also promote the phase transition between TiO₂ and Li_xTiO₂, resulting in excellent intercalation capacities in the CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays.

4. Conclusions

TiO₂ nanotube arrays fabricated by anodic oxidation and annealed in CO at 400°C for 3h exhibited excellent lithium ion intercalation properties with an initial discharge capacity of 223 mAh g⁻¹ at a current density of 320 mA g⁻¹, and 101 mAh g⁻¹ at an extremely large current density of 10 A g^{-1} . CO annealed TiO₂ nanotube arrays have been found to significantly outperform the N₂ annealed nanotube arrays annealed under otherwise the same conditions in terms of lithium ion intercalation. Such enhancement in both lithium ion intercalation capacity and rate capability was attributed to the presence of point defects of Ti-C species, Ti³⁺ groups and oxygen vacancies as a result of CO annealing, which were believed to have enhanced the charge-transfer properties of the electrodes and facilitated the phase transition during lithium ion intercalation/de-intercalation.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by National Science Foundation (DMI-0455994 and DMR-0605159), Air Force Office of Scientific Research (AFOSR-MURI, FA9550-06-1-0326) and Pohang University of Science and Technology, Korea. D.W.L. would like to acknowledge the graduate fellowship (UIF) from the University of Washington Center for Nanotechnology (CNT). Y.H.Z. would like to acknowledge the fellowship from the Chinese Scholarship Council. B.B.G. would like to acknowledge the NSF-IGERT fellowship (DGE-0654252).

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