

## PAPER



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# Synergistic effects of microwave irradiation and CeF<sub>3</sub> surface coating of lithium titanate for stable, high-capacity, and high-rate lithium-ion batteries

Aderemi B. Haruna,<sup>a</sup> Seromo Podile,<sup>a</sup> Itumeleng Seotsanyana-Mokhosi,<sup>a</sup> Thapelo Mofokeng,<sup>a</sup> Alexander Roberts,<sup>b</sup> Jennifer Johnstone-Hack,<sup>c</sup> Paul Shearing<sup>def</sup> and Kenneth I. Ozoemena<sup>id</sup>\*<sup>a</sup>

The low theoretical specific capacity and rapid capacity degradation, especially during long cycling, have been the key challenges to the practical application of lithium titanate (Li<sub>4</sub>Ti<sub>5</sub>O<sub>12</sub>) as an anode material for stable, high-energy and high-power density lithium-ion batteries (LIBs). This study reports a novel strategy of the synergy of surface lattice plane engineering by microwave irradiation and CeF<sub>3</sub> surface coating to synthesize a high-specific-capacity, high-rate and durable LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw anode material for LIBs. The innovative anode material shows outstanding specific capacity, rate capability and long-term cycle stability. It is of interest to note that the LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw anode material has a specific capacity of 191.1 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> at 175 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (1C), which is greater than the theoretical specific capacity of LTO (175 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>). Furthermore, LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw has specific capacities of 168.3 and 119.9 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> at 875 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (5C) and 1750 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (10C), respectively. Remarkably, it shows a specific capacity of 166.5 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> after 1000 cycles at 5C and a capacity retention of 98.9%. This notable electrochemical performance of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw is attributed to the synergy of surface lattice plane engineering by microwave irradiation and CeF<sub>3</sub> surface coating that transformed the surface lattice plane (111) of LTO to (220) and (310) in LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw, resulting in high surface area which significantly improved mass transport. Therefore, the unique structure of the LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw anode material is a key development for achieving safe, durable, high-energy and high-power lithium-ion batteries, with potential applications in large-scale energy storage.

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## 1. Introduction

Spinel lithium titanate, Li<sub>4</sub>Ti<sub>5</sub>O<sub>12</sub> (LTO), has been considered the preferred alternative to the current state-of-the-art graphite anode material for lithium-ion batteries (LIBs). This is because of its great advantages, which include its flat high working voltage (~1.55 V *versus* Li/Li<sup>+</sup>), which is above the reduction potential of most organic electrolytes. Therefore, the formation of a solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) and lithium dendrites can

be suppressed, enhancing the safety of lithium-ion batteries.<sup>1,2</sup> Furthermore, LTO shows negligible volume change (zero strain) during lithium insertion and extraction, which leads to excellent cyclability and safety.<sup>3</sup> Unfortunately, LTO has not been widely used in practical applications because it has a low theoretical capacity (175 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>),<sup>3</sup> poor capacity at high C-rates because of its inherent low electronic conductivity and poor Li<sup>+</sup> diffusion coefficient,<sup>4–6</sup> and capacity degradation during long cycling charge–discharge process.<sup>7</sup> There have been several strategies reported to mitigate these drawbacks,<sup>6,8–13</sup> and of these strategies, the introduction of Ti<sup>3+</sup> is the most reported.<sup>14–26</sup> The LTO (Ti<sup>4+</sup>) has poor electronic conductivity because of its empty 3d electronic orbital (3d<sup>0</sup>) and poor ionic conductivity because of its small ionic size. The partial reduction of Ti<sup>4+</sup> to Ti<sup>3+</sup> to form Ti<sup>3+</sup>–O–Ti<sup>4+</sup> pairs in LTO has been reported to enhance the electron conductivity of LTO *via* the Ti<sup>3+</sup> having electronic configuration [Ar]3d<sup>1</sup>.<sup>16,17,22</sup> However, Aurbach *et al.*<sup>27</sup> reported that Ti<sup>4+</sup> is the most stable oxidation state of Ti. Ti<sup>4+</sup> is very stable because of its completely filled 3p orbital, while Ti<sup>3+</sup> is less stable because it has one

<sup>a</sup> Molecular Sciences Institute, School of Chemistry, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg 2050, South Africa. E-mail: Kenneth.ozoemena@wits.ac.za

<sup>b</sup> Centre for E-Mobility and Clean Growth, Coventry University, Coventry CV1 2TL, UK

<sup>c</sup> School of Chemical, Materials and Biological Engineering, Sir Robert Hadfield Building, The University of Sheffield, Mappin Street, Sheffield S1 3JD, UK

<sup>d</sup> Department of Engineering Science, University of Oxford, Parks Road, Oxford OX1 3PJ, UK

<sup>e</sup> Electrochemical Innovation Lab, Department of Chemical Engineering, University College London, London WC1E 7JE, UK

<sup>f</sup> The ZERO Institute, University of Oxford, Oxford OX2 0ES, UK

electron in its 3d orbital ( $3d^1$ ). Therefore, this research work used simple microwave irradiation and  $\text{CeF}_3$  surface modification to strategically modify the commercial LTO to retain its more stable  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  without the introduction of the conventional conductive  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$ . The uniqueness of this study is the synergistic modification strategy that retained the  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  and still enhanced the specific capacity and capacity retention of the modified microwave-coated sample.

In this work,  $\text{CeF}_3$  was used to surface-modify LTO because of its high ionic conductivity and structural stability.<sup>28</sup>  $\text{CeF}_3$  surface-modified LTO has a better stability in  $\text{LiPF}_6$  electrolyte compared to metal oxides that have lattice oxygen that can produce water which reacts with the  $\text{LiPF}_6$  salt to produce HF that leads to side reactions.  $\text{CeF}_3$  was first used to surface-modify LTO (to obtain a product denoted as LTO- $\text{CeF}_3$ ) and subsequently subjected to microwave irradiation (to obtain a product denoted as LTO- $\text{CeF}_3$ -mw). Both processes were aimed at strategically maintaining the  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  and introducing substitutional (point) defects into the commercial LTO.

This study showed that the strategy introduced led to significant surface lattice plane transformation and point defects. The LTO- $\text{CeF}_3$ -mw exhibited larger  $d$ -spacing than its counterparts investigated in this work. Such lattice expansion is advantageous for smooth  $\text{Li}^+$  diffusion and thus improves the ionic conductivity. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that microwave irradiation and  $\text{CeF}_3$  have been used to fine-tune the physico-chemical properties of the LTO anode for

improved electrochemical performance (in terms of cycling stability, increased specific capacity, and high rate capability).

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1 Synthesis of LTO- $\text{CeF}_3$ , LTO-m and LTO- $\text{CeF}_3$ -m

Ammonium fluoride  $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$  and cerium nitrate hexahydrate  $\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  were each dissolved in distilled water. Thereafter, LTO powder (Shandong Gelon LIB Co., Ltd China) was submerged and stirred inside the cerium nitrate hexahydrate solution. The ammonium fluoride solution was steadily added to the resulting LTO and cerium nitrate hexahydrate solution. After a constant stir at  $80^\circ\text{C}$  for 5 h, the resulting powder was filtered using a centrifuge. The filtered powder was then calcinated at  $400^\circ\text{C}$  for 5 h in an argon atmosphere. This synthesis method is illustrated in Fig. 1a. The ammonium fluoride and cerium nitrate hexahydrate made a stoichiometric molar ratio of  $\text{Ce}^{3+}/\text{F}^- = 1/3$ , with the amount of  $\text{CeF}_3$  corresponding to  $\sim 2$  wt% of the LTO powders (based on previous reports of wt% coat of 1 and 2).<sup>28-30</sup> To synthesize microwaved materials, the LTO-p and  $\text{CeF}_3$ -coated LTO were subjected to microwave radiation at 600 watts for 20 min<sup>31</sup> as shown in Fig. 1b.

### 2.2 Physical characterizations

Bruker D2 phaser is used to determine the XRD of the materials, and the instrument was operated using  $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$  radiation at 30 kV

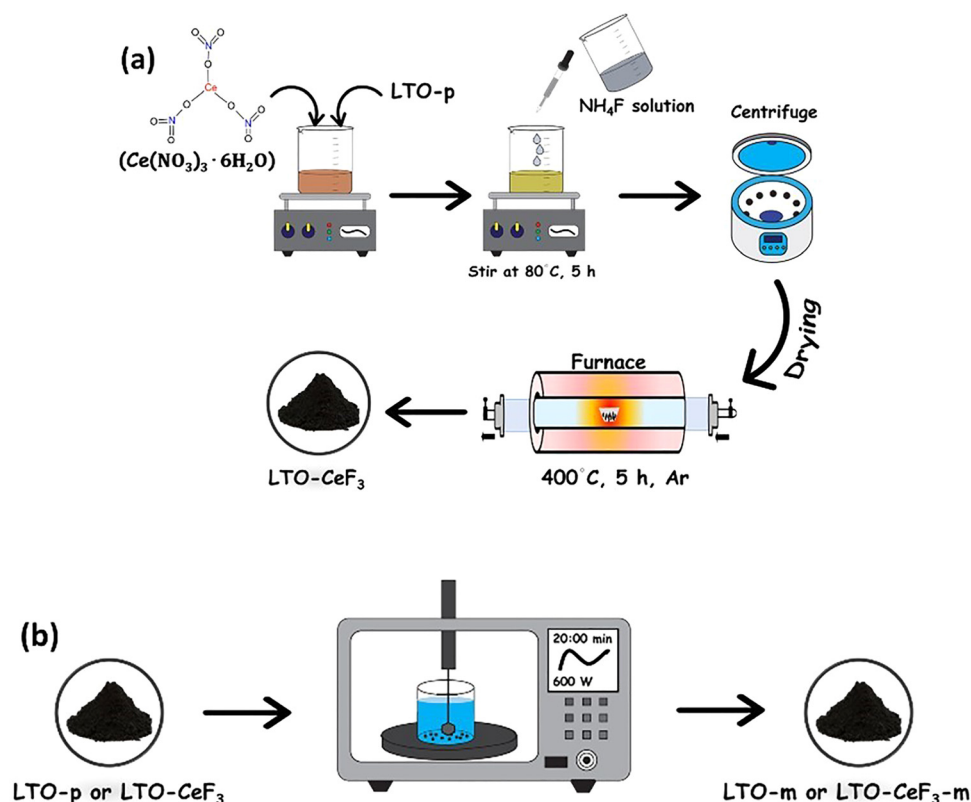
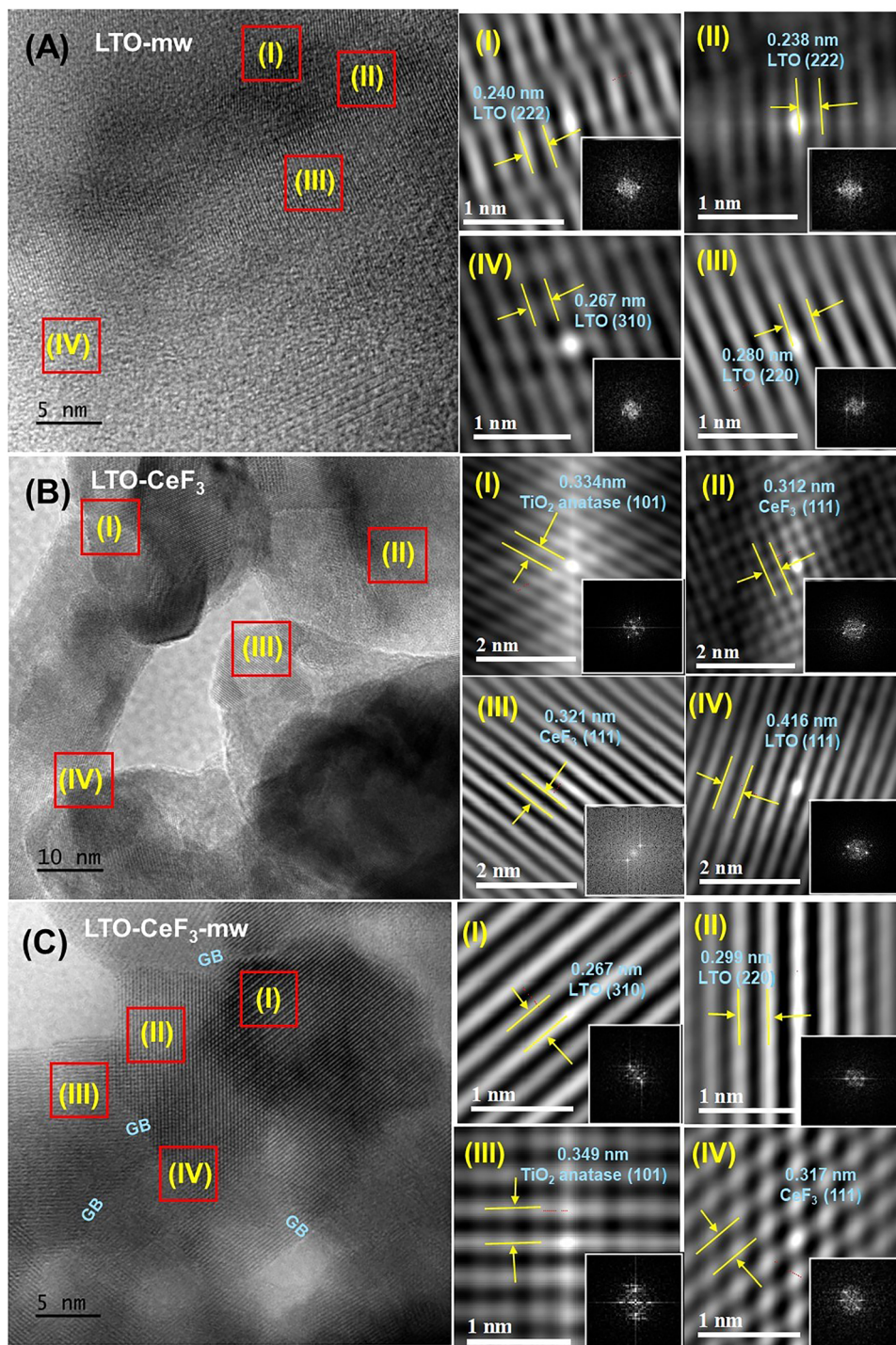


Fig. 1 Schematic of synthesis methods of (a) LTO- $\text{CeF}_3$  and (b) LTO-mw and LTO- $\text{CeF}_3$ -mw.





**Fig. 3** HRTEM image of (A) LTO–mw, region (I): LTO (222) and SAED image of lattice plane, region (II): LTO (222) and SAED image of lattice plane, region (III): LTO (220) and SAED image of lattice plane and region (IV): LTO (310) and SAED image of lattice plane, (B) region (I):  $\text{TiO}_2$  anatase (101) and SAED image of lattice plane, region (II):  $\text{CeF}_3$  (111) and SAED image of lattice plane, region (III):  $\text{CeF}_3$  (111) and SAED image of lattice plane and region (IV): LTO (111) and SAED image of lattice plane, (C) region (I): LTO (310) and SAED image of lattice plane, region (II): LTO (220) and SAED image of lattice plane, region (III):  $\text{TiO}_2$  anatase (101) and SAED image of lattice plane and region (IV):  $\text{CeF}_3$  (111) and SAED image of lattice plane.

Surface coating and doping have been common strategies for defect engineering in electrode materials such as LTO to improve their structure and surface properties for enhanced electrochemical performances. In this research work, the  $\text{CeF}_3$

surface modification is used to introduce cation and anion lattice defects (Ce and F, respectively) into the LTO lattice structure. These lattice defects in the coated samples LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$  and LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw are revealed in the HRTEM and XPS

**Table 1** Lattice fringe spacings of the lattice planes of LTO, LTO–mw, LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw

Lattice plane	LTO (111)	LTO (111)	LTO (220)	LTO (222)	LTO (222)	LTO (310)	CeF <sub>3</sub> (111)	CeF <sub>3</sub> (111)	TiO <sub>2</sub>
LTO-p (nm)	0.486	0.493							
LTO–mw (nm)			0.280	0.240	0.238	0.267			
LTO–CeF <sub>3</sub> (nm)	0.416						0.312	0.321	0.334
LTO–CeF <sub>3</sub> –mw (nm)			0.299			0.267	0.317		0.349

analysis results below. The CeF<sub>3</sub>-coated electrode samples are expected to give faster Li<sup>+</sup> kinetics in electrochemistry.

Furthermore, it is interesting to note that the LTO lattice plane (111) in the LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> sample has a decreased lattice spacing of 0.416 nm compared to 0.486 nm in the LTO-p lattice plane (111) (Table 1). The observed SAED images indicate that anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> and CeF<sub>3</sub> have a mono-crystalline nature. Fig. 3C indicates that LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw has LTO lattice planes (310) in region (I) and (220) in region (II) having lattice fringe spacings of 0.267 and 0.299 nm, respectively, while region (III) has the TiO<sub>2</sub> anatase lattice plane (101) with lattice fringe spacings of 0.349 nm and region (IV) has the CeF<sub>3</sub> lattice plane (111) with lattice fringe spacing of 0.317 nm. The SAED images of the regions on this sample are single crystalline. It can be concluded that the coated sample LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and microwave-irradiated coated sample LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw have a dual-phase LTO–TiO<sub>2</sub> composite. LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw also shows grain boundary (GB).

Table 1 shows that LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw has lattice fringe spacing of 0.299 nm for lattice plane LTO (220) which is greater than that of LTO–mw: 0.280 nm. Furthermore, LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw has larger lattice fringe spacing of 0.317 and 0.349 nm, respectively, for lattice planes CeF<sub>3</sub> (111) and TiO<sub>2</sub> (101) than that of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>: CeF<sub>3</sub> (111) and TiO<sub>2</sub> (101) that has 0.312 and 0.334 nm, respectively. These lattice expansions of surface lattice planes LTO (220), CeF<sub>3</sub> (111) and TiO<sub>2</sub> are present because of the synergy between microwave irradiation and CeF<sub>3</sub> surface modification of the LTO-p.<sup>37</sup> These improved properties of the microwave-irradiated coated sample LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw are because of the presence of the point defects that have better microwave irradiation absorption and thus resulted in higher heating rate and temperature than the stoichiometry Ti<sub>5</sub> of LTO–mw in the same microwave irradiation operation parameters.<sup>38</sup>

Fig. 4A shows Raman spectra of the four samples. All the materials contain Raman vibration modes at 236, 343, 429, 678, and 770 cm<sup>-1</sup> which conform with the A<sub>1g</sub> + E<sub>g</sub> + 3F<sub>2g</sub> mode of the spinel LTO structure.<sup>39</sup> The vibration bands at 678 and 770 cm<sup>-1</sup> resulted from the Ti–O stretch vibration of TiO<sub>6</sub> octahedra. The bands at 343 and 429 cm<sup>-1</sup> are linked to the Li–O stretch vibration of LiO<sub>4</sub> or LiO<sub>6</sub> tetrahedral, and the 236 cm<sup>-1</sup> band originates from O–Ti–O.<sup>40,41</sup> It is interesting to note that relative to the pristine sample (LTO-p), both the Ti–O and O–Ti–O vibration bands in LTO–mw, LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw did not show any shift. This shows that there is no change in the oxidation state of the Ti in the modified samples (all the samples have the oxidation state of Ti as +4, and there is no partial reduction of the Ti<sup>4+</sup> to Ti<sup>3+</sup>). Furthermore, it is pertinent to note that the coated samples (LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw) show an additional vibration peak at 143 cm<sup>-1</sup>,

which is attributed to anatase TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>42</sup> Raman spectra show that the coated samples LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw have both anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> and spinel Li<sub>4</sub>Ti<sub>5</sub>O<sub>12</sub> vibration peaks, which confirm that LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw are dual-phase spinel Li<sub>4</sub>Ti<sub>5</sub>O<sub>12</sub>–TiO<sub>2</sub> composites. This is consistent with the HRTEM results.

XPS surface composition analysis (Fig. 4B) shows that all the samples have two characteristic peaks at ≈458.0 and 463.8 eV which relate to the binding energy of Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and Ti 2p<sub>1/2</sub> of Ti<sup>4+</sup> in LTO.<sup>43</sup> It is intriguing to see that there is no obvious change in the Ti 2p spectra in the modified samples, and this provides evidence that there was no formation of Ti<sup>3+</sup>. Furthermore, it is of interest to note that the spin–orbit splitting, *i.e.*, the change in energy between the Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and Ti 2p<sub>1/2</sub> peaks ( $\Delta E_{\text{Ti}2\text{p}} = E_{2\text{p}_{1/2}} - E_{2\text{p}_{3/2}}$ ) is 5.8 eV, which shows that Ti oxidation state is +4 (Ti<sup>4+</sup>). These findings correlate with the Raman results. Fig. 4C shows the Ce 3d peaks of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw in the range of 870 to 920 eV which confirms the presence of Ce in the CeF<sub>3</sub> surface-modified samples.

Crystallographic structures of the materials were evaluated using X-ray powder diffraction, as shown in Fig. 4E. All the diffraction peaks of the materials can be indexed to (111), (311), (400), (331), (333), (440), (531) and (533) of standard cubic spinel Li<sub>4</sub>Ti<sub>5</sub>O<sub>12</sub> (JCPDS Card No. 49-0207) with the *Fd3m* space group.<sup>44,45</sup> No additional reflection peaks are observed, indicating the absence of impurities and diffraction peaks associated with CeF<sub>3</sub> in the coated samples (LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–m) are not detected, which may be due to relatively low CeF<sub>3</sub> content (~2 wt%).<sup>46</sup> Also, this indicates that the microwave irradiation and CeF<sub>3</sub> surface modification do not change the spinel structure of the LTO. However, the lattice plane (111) is the most intense peak in the samples' diffraction patterns, which signifies that all four samples have normal spinel structures. The expanded (111) peak region (Fig. 4F) shows some interesting findings that should be emphasized. First, in the LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>, the peak (111) shifted to the higher 2 $\theta$  degree position relative to that of the LTO-p. This indicates that there is lattice contraction in the coated sample LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>. This is consistent with the results of the HRTEM which show that there is a decrease in lattice spacing from 0.486 nm in LTO (111) of LTO-p to 0.416 nm in that of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>. It is interesting to note that the lattice contracted instead of expanding, despite the introduction of Ce<sup>3+</sup>, which has a larger ionic radius of 1.07 Å than that of Ti<sup>4+</sup> (0.605 Å). The lattice contraction in LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> may have occurred because the bond strength of Ce–O is greater than that of Ti–O in the octahedral site, and the Ce–O has higher octahedral site preference energies (OPE) than Ti–O which results in a decrease in the bond length.<sup>47,48</sup>

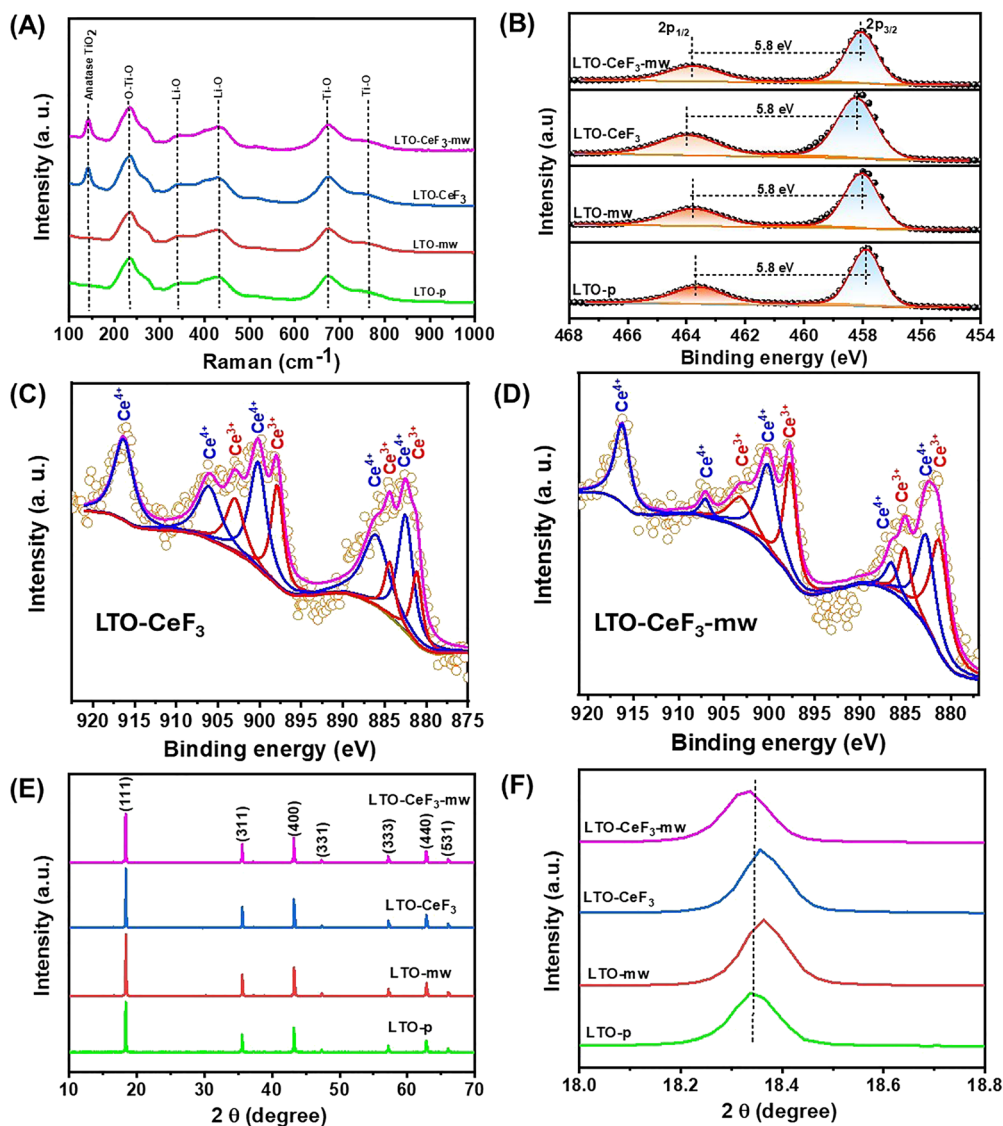


Fig. 4 (A) Raman spectra of LTO-p, LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw; (B) XPS, Ti 2p of LTO-p, LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw; (C) XPS, Ce 3d of LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>; (D) XPS, Ce 3d of LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw; (E) XRD patterns of the LTO-p, LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw; (F) XRD patterns of the lattice plane (111) of LTO-p, LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw.

Second, in LTO-mw, the peak (111) shifted to the higher  $2\theta$  degree position relative to that of the LTO-p. Again, this indicates that there is lattice contraction in the microwave-irradiated sample LTO-mw. The shift to the higher angle may have resulted from the microwave irradiation-induced lattice distortion, as shown in the HRTEM image (Fig. 3A, region I). Nozariasbmarz *et al.*<sup>49</sup> proposed that the fast heating and high electric field of microwave irradiation can distort the atoms from their lattice sites and thus cause lattice strain<sup>28</sup> which resulted in the shift to the higher  $2\theta$  degree position. The lattice contraction is corroborated by the HRTEM lattice  $d$ -spacing.

Third, in LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw, the peak (111) shifted to the lower  $2\theta$  degree position relative to the LTO-p. This indicates that there is lattice expansion in the LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw. It is interesting to note that unlike the microwave sample (LTO-mw) and non-microwave-irradiated coated sample (LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>) that show

lattice contraction, the microwave-irradiated coated sample (LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw) shows lattice expansion. The lattice expansion of the microwave-irradiated coated sample is caused by the synergetic effect of the presence of point defects and electromagnetic irradiation. Though the coated sample LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> has point defects but experienced lattice contraction, this may be because of the absence of microwave irradiation. Furthermore, the microwave sample LTO-mw also experienced lattice contraction because of the absence of the point defects. Hence, the lattice expansion occurs when there is a combined use of point defects and microwave irradiation. Yu *et al.*<sup>50</sup> reported that point defects are better microwave absorbers. Thus, it can be proposed that the point defects in LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw sample enabled better microwave absorption and thus caused its lattice expansion relative to the lattice contraction in LTO-mw that has no point defects. It may therefore be concluded that the

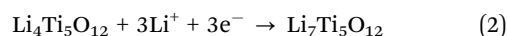
lattice expansion in the LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw sample resulted from the microwave irradiation *via* the point defects. Hence, it is expected that LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw electrode material will have the smoothest Li<sup>+</sup> diffusion. These results are also in agreement with the calculated lattice constants of the four samples using the Bragg's law ( $n\lambda = 2d \sin \theta$ ). Table S1 shows the calculated lattice constants of the LTO samples using the 2 $\theta$  degree position of the most intense peak (111). The calculated lattice constants for LTO-p, LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw are 8.3699, 8.3609, 8.3635 and 8.3762 Å, respectively. These results are comparable with the literature reports.<sup>51,52</sup> The lattice constants of the LTO-mw (8.3609 Å) and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> (8.3635 Å) are less than that of the LTO-p (8.3699 Å), which confirms the lattice contraction as evidenced in Fig. 4F by the shift of the LTO-mw and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> peaks (111) to the higher 2 $\theta$  degree position relative to that of LTO-p. The lattice constant of the LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw (8.3762 Å) is more than that of the LTO-p (8.3699 Å), which confirms the lattice expansion as evidenced in Fig. 4F by the shift of the LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw peak (111) to the lower 2 $\theta$  degree position relative to that of LTO-p.

The adsorption isotherms (Fig. S3) of all the samples show a type III profile. The BET parameters for the LTO samples are presented in Table S2. Nitrogen gas adsorption results reveal that the surface area of LTO-p, LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw are 4.18, 2.29, 3.89 and 5.28 (m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>), respectively. The microwave-irradiated coated sample LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw has the largest BET surface area compared with the surface-coated

LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> sample and microwave-irradiated sample LTO-mw. LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw has a higher surface area than LTO-mw because the LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw sample has defects that enhanced the absorption of microwave irradiation, allowing it to absorb more energy (heat), which resulted in smaller particle sizes and, hence, a higher surface area than the other 3 samples. Consequently, the LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw electrode has the largest surface area and it is expected to have more Li<sup>+</sup> insertion sites and effective electrolyte contact for faster Li<sup>+</sup> kinetics.

### 3.1 Electrochemical measurements

**3.1.1 Cyclic voltammetry (CV).** Fig. 5A shows the CV curves of the LTO-p, LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw electrodes at 0.1 mV s<sup>-1</sup> scan rate between the voltage window of 1.0 and 2.5 V (*vs.* Li/Li<sup>+</sup>). The redox peaks around 1.55 V and 1.6 V in the CV curves of all the samples are the Li<sup>+</sup> intercalation/deintercalation in the spinel LTO (eqn (2)).



The redox peaks of the coated electrode materials LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw are narrower (Fig. 5B) and have higher current responses than those of the uncoated electrode materials LTO-p and LTO-mw (Fig. 5A). These narrower redox peaks indicate the fast kinetics and remarkable efficiency of the insertion/extraction process of Li<sup>+</sup> in the spinel lattice, which may be attributed to the presence of point defects in these two

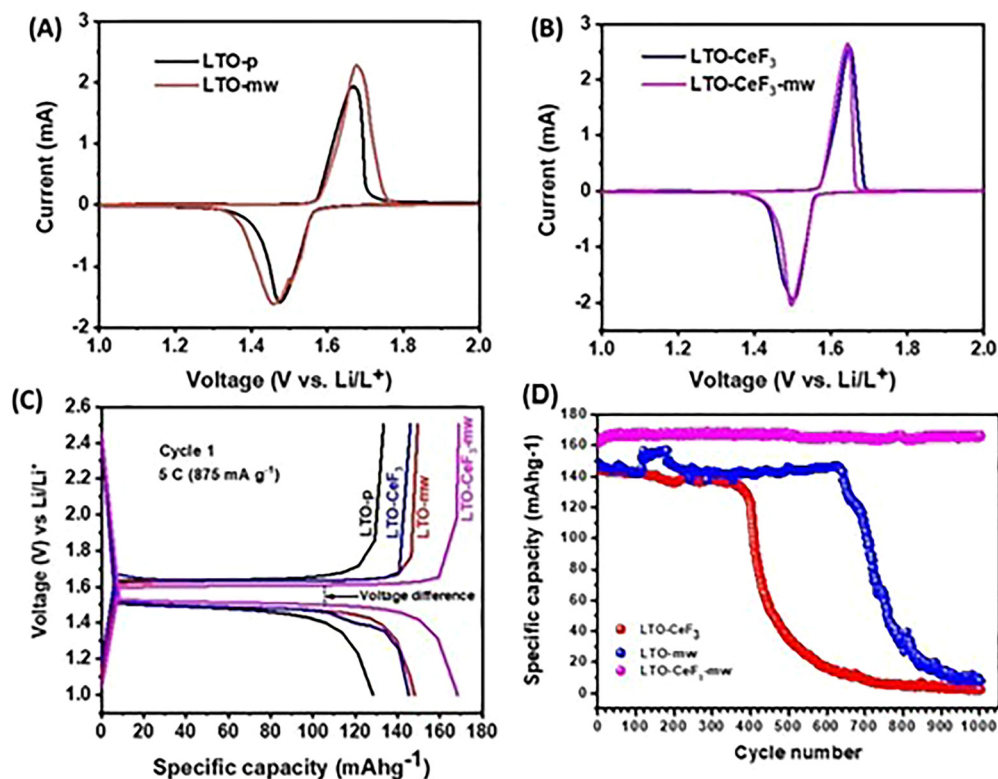


Fig. 5 (A) CV at 0.1 mV s<sup>-1</sup> of (A) LTO-p and LTO-mw, (B) LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw, (C) GCD cycle 1 of LTO-p, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>, LTO-mw, and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw (D) specific capacity vs. cycle number at 5C of LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>, LTO-mw and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw.

samples. Furthermore, the CV for the coated samples did not show additional redox peaks around 1.70/2.05 V for the Li<sup>+</sup> insertion/extraction within the anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> lattices, unlike some previous reports.<sup>4,53,54</sup> This suggests a very weak electrochemical activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> because of the low amount of TiO<sub>2</sub> in these coated LTO samples.

Table 2 shows (i) the peak-to-peak separation voltage ( $E_{pp}/V$ ), which indicates the electron transfer kinetics electrode materials; (ii) the peak heights of the anodic ( $I_{pa}/mA$ ) and cathodic ( $I_{pc}/mA$ ) curves, which confirm the mass transport and redox dynamics, and (iii) the ratio of the peak current ( $I_{pa}/I_{pc}$ ), which shows the reversibility. The coated electrode materials LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw have the lowest  $E_{pp}$  of 0.15 V compared with the uncoated materials LTO (0.20 V) and LTO–m (0.22 V). This means that the CeF<sub>3</sub> coating improves the electron transfer kinetics of LTO compared to uncoated LTO materials. This electrochemical improvement may be attributed to the presence of point defects in these two samples. These results show that microwave irradiation does not affect the electron transfer kinetics of the materials. Furthermore, the point defects improve the mass transport in the coated materials as shown by the higher current response of the coated materials. However, the microwave-irradiated coated (LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw) electrode has the highest values of  $I_{pa}$  and  $I_{pc}$  (mass transport) because of the synergic effect of the CeF<sub>3</sub> coating and microwave irradiation that led to better CeF<sub>3</sub> surface coat, as established by HRTEM above (Fig. 2D). Despite this, the  $I_{pa}/I_{pc}$  ratio suggests that neither the microwave treatment nor the point defects significantly affect the reversibility of the redox processes (*i.e.*, Coulombic efficiency). Nevertheless, the LTO–mw shows a larger/broader profile which signifies larger Li<sup>+</sup> storage. Furthermore, the CV is used to quantify the surface capacitance of (220) and (310) planes by the empirical power-law relationship between peak current and scan rate in the cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of the LTO–p, LTO–mw, LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw at 0.1, 0.3, 0.5 and 1.0 mV s<sup>−1</sup> (Fig. S5). Therefore, using power-law equation:

$$i = av^b \quad (3)$$

eqn (3) can be written in the logarithmic form:

$$\text{Log } i = b \log v + \log a \quad (4)$$

where  $i$  is the peak current,  $v$  is the scan rate,  $b$  and  $a$  are the slope and intercept, respectively. Generally, the value of  $b$  is normally between 0.5 and 1. When the value of  $b$  is close to 1, it suggests capacitive contribution, that is, the mechanism is *via* surface charge storage (non-faradaic). This surface charge storage mechanism involves the accumulation of charge at the electrode–electrolyte interface. When the value of  $b$  is close to 0.5, it suggests that the mechanism is *via* diffusion control

(faradaic process). That is, the current is limited by the kinetics of the redox process. The plots of  $\log(i)$  vs.  $\log(v)$  for the four samples are shown in Fig. S6. Fig. S6 and Table S3 show that the value of  $b$  for all the samples is approximately 0.5. The  $b$  value indicates that the charge storage mechanism for all the four samples is faradaic. However, the faradaic charge storage mechanism can further be classified as diffusion-controlled or non-diffusion-controlled (pseudocapacitive). The pseudocapacitive mechanism relates to the surface capacitive non-faradaic (capacitive contribution).<sup>55</sup> Therefore, to calculate the quantitative capacitive contribution, the power-law eqn (3) may be classified into Faraday current (diffusion-controlled) and surface capacitive non-Faraday (non-diffusion-controlled) currents and the total current at a fixed voltage is

$$i(V) = k_1v + k_2v^{1/2} \quad (5)$$

where  $i$  = total current response at a fixed voltage  $V$  and is calculated as the sum of the non-diffusion-controlled ( $k_1v$ ) and the diffusion-controlled ( $k_2v^{1/2}$ ) currents.

Rearranging eqn (5)

$$i(V)/v^{1/2} = k_1v^{1/2} + k_2 \quad (6)$$

Hence, the values of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  may be used to separate the fraction of the current result from diffusion-controlled and non-diffusion-controlled, respectively, at fixed voltages. Therefore, Fig. S7 shows that the CV at 0.1 mV m<sup>−2</sup> of LTO–mw has 35% surface capacitance (non-diffusion-controlled), while LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw has 28%. It may thus be proposed that the surface capacitance of the surface lattice planes (220) and (310) of the LTO–mw (35%) is greater than that of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw (28%).

**3.1.2 Galvanostatic charge–discharge (GCD).** One of the key challenges of LTO as an anode material for LIBs is the poor capacity at a high rate that limits its large-scale applications in energy storage. Therefore, this study commenced its investigation by carrying out the GCD measurement on the four anode materials at a high rate of 875 mA g<sup>−1</sup> (5C) between a voltage window of 1.0 and 2.5 V (vs. Li/Li<sup>+</sup>). Fig. 5C shows the discharge–charge voltage profiles for the first cycle at a current density of 5C for the four samples. All four samples show a flat discharge plateau at around 1.55 V, which is the characteristic of the extraction of Li<sup>+</sup> from the spinel LTO. This is consistent with the CV result. The first cycle discharge capacity at 5C of the LTO–p, LTO–mw, LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw anodes are 128.3, 148.1, 145.4 and 168.3 mAh g<sup>−1</sup>, respectively. The higher specific capacity of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> (145.4 mAh g<sup>−1</sup>) than that of LTO–p (128.3 mAh g<sup>−1</sup>) can be suggested to relate to the presence of the point defects in its lattice structure. This is because the TiO<sub>2</sub> redox peaks/plateau around 1.70/2.05 V are absent in the cyclic voltammogram and GCD profile; hence, TiO<sub>2</sub> is not responsible for the increased capacity, but the point defects. This finding differs from previous reports where the presence of TiO<sub>2</sub> caused the increased capacity.<sup>4,56</sup> Thus, it can be concluded that the defects in the coated sample LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> caused the enhanced conductivity compared to the defect-free

Table 2 CV redox reaction parameters for the samples

Electrode	$E_{pa}/V$	$E_{pc}/V$	$\Delta E/V$	$I_{pa}/mA$	$I_{pc}/mA$	$I_{pa}/I_{pc}$
LTO–p	1.67	1.47	0.20	1.91	1.57	1.22
LTO–mw	1.68	1.46	0.22	2.28	1.58	1.44
LTO–CeF <sub>3</sub>	1.65	1.50	0.15	2.53	1.94	1.30
LTO–CeF <sub>3</sub> –mw	1.65	1.50	0.15	2.59	1.98	1.31

pristine sample LTO-p. These findings, and the non-obvious presence of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in the XRD patterns, show that the amount of  $\text{TiO}_2$  may be very small to cause obvious effects on the electrochemical properties of the coated samples. The higher specific capacity of LTO-mw ( $148.1 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ) may be related to the microwave irradiation's introduction of new lattice planes LTO (220), (222) and (310) into its lattice structure. It may be suggested that microwave irradiation tuned the lattice plane (111) in LTO-p to (220), (222) and (310) in the LTO-mw. It is common knowledge that the electrode materials' surface properties have a significant effect on their electrochemical performance. Therefore, the surface lattice plane (220), (222) and (310) in LTO-mw exposed larger number of surface sites that allow more  $\text{Li}^+$  storage (as shown by the larger CV peak area in Fig. 5A) that led to the higher specific capacity of  $148.1 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  at 5C. The LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw anode material has the highest specific capacity of  $168.3 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  and the smallest voltage difference between the charge and discharge profiles which suggests weak polarization as shown in Fig. 5C. These findings are consistent with the CV results. Furthermore, electrochemical analysis is thus focused on the modified sample (LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw) materials, since the pristine sample (LTO) has the lowest performance in terms of specific capacity.

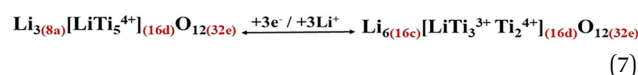
Therefore, the long cyclic stability performance of LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw electrode materials was carried out at  $875 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (5C) for 1000 cycles (Fig. 5D). The percentage capacity retention, which is used to assess the cyclic stability, can be calculated from *n*th cycle (final cycle) discharge capacity divided by the initial discharge capacity multiply by 100. LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw delivers the highest initial specific capacity of  $168 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  and has a high capacity retention of 98.9% ( $166.1 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$ ) after 1000 cycles. While LTO-mw and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> cells have initial capacities of  $148.1$  and  $145.4 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  and capacity retentions of 5.2% ( $7.7 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$ ) and 1.8% ( $2.6 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$ ), respectively, after 1000 cycles. The LTO-mw electrode exhibits poor capacity retention due to its exposed, uncoated surface, which is susceptible to electrolyte attack. The LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> shows lower specific capacity and poor capacity retention because it has only the surface lattice plane (111). Wei<sup>57</sup> emphasized the significance of surface orientation to the electrochemical performance of spinel electrode materials and reported similar poor electrochemical performance for the exposed crystal plane (111). The LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw has the highest capacity retention of 98.9% because of its higher surface area and increased lattice spacing. It is very important to note this remarkable property of LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw in exhibiting significantly low capacity fading during the long-term charge-discharge cycles. Also, Fig. S4 shows that the LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw electrode has an outstanding Coulombic efficiency of  $\sim 100\%$ . In addition, the LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw electrode has an outstanding Coulombic efficiency of  $\sim 100\%$  for both the 1st and the 1000th cycles. In contrast, LTO-mw has Coulombic efficiency of  $\sim 101\%$  for the 1st and 113% for the 1000th cycle, and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> has  $\sim 100\%$  Coulombic efficiency for the 1st cycle and 93% for the 1000th cycle. These remarkable performances of LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw electrode material could be attributed to the lattice expansion,

large surface that has more active sites for  $\text{Li}^+$  storage and enhanced the effective electrolyte contact for faster  $\text{Li}^+$  kinetics.

Fig. 6A shows the capacity-rate performances of the LTO-mw, LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw cells at different current densities of  $87.5 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (0.5C),  $175 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (1C),  $525 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (3C),  $1750 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (10C) and  $87.5 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (0.5C). The two microwave-irradiated samples show the highest discharge capacities from 0.5C to 10C. This performance could be attributed to the presence of the newly tuned surface lattice planes LTO (220) and (330) introduced by microwave irradiation. The microwave-irradiated non-coated sample LTO-mw has a specific capacity of  $196.6$ ,  $192.5$  and  $120.9 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  at  $87.5 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (0.5C),  $175 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (1C),  $1750 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (10C), respectively, and the microwave-irradiated coated sample LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw has specific capacities of  $195.2$ ,  $191.1$  and  $119.9 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ , respectively. This slightly improved performance of LTO-mw, despite its lower BET surface area, may be related to it having more exposed surface lattice planes (220), (222) and (310) than the sample LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw that has only (220) and (310). The surface lattice plane is distinctly different from the BET surface area. The surface lattice plane relates to the geometrical arrangement of atoms in the crystal structure, and their orientation is identified by Miller indices. The orientation is of great importance as it affects the crystal's properties such as surface reactivity. While the BET surface area is the total accessible area and is usually measured by the amount of nitrogen gas physically absorbed at a specific temperature and pressure. At the high charge-rate (C-rate) of  $1750 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (10C), the LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>, LTO-mw and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw have specific capacities of  $99.9$ ,  $120.9$  and  $119.9 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ , respectively. The uncoated microwave-irradiated sample LTO-mw has a higher specific capacity ( $120.9 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ) than the coated sample LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> ( $99.9 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ). This confirms that the CeF<sub>3</sub> surface modification ( $\text{TiO}_2$  and point defects) is not the cause of the increase in specific capacities of the LTO-mw and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw electrode materials, but because of the tuned surface lattice planes (220), (222) and (310). This finding suggests that the LTO surface lattice planes (220), (222) and (310) are more electrochemically active sites than the lattice plane (111).

It is of interest to note that Fig. 6A shows that the microwave-irradiated samples LTO-mw, and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw have high specific capacities of  $192.5$  and  $191.1 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  at 1C which are greater than the theoretical specific capacity of LTO ( $175 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ) in the voltage window of 2.5 to 1.0 V.

These higher values, greater than the theoretical specific capacity of  $175 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  at 1C for LTO specific capacity, are consistent with previous reports, but most of these reports are in the voltage window of 2.5 to 0.01 V<sup>58,59</sup> or have dual-phase  $\text{Li}_4\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{12}$ - $\text{TiO}_2$  composites.<sup>4,56</sup>



Conventionally, it is thought that the specific capacity of LTO is limited by the number of octahedral sites (16d) that can accommodate Li (*i.e.*  $C_{\text{th}} \approx 175 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ; eqn (7)).

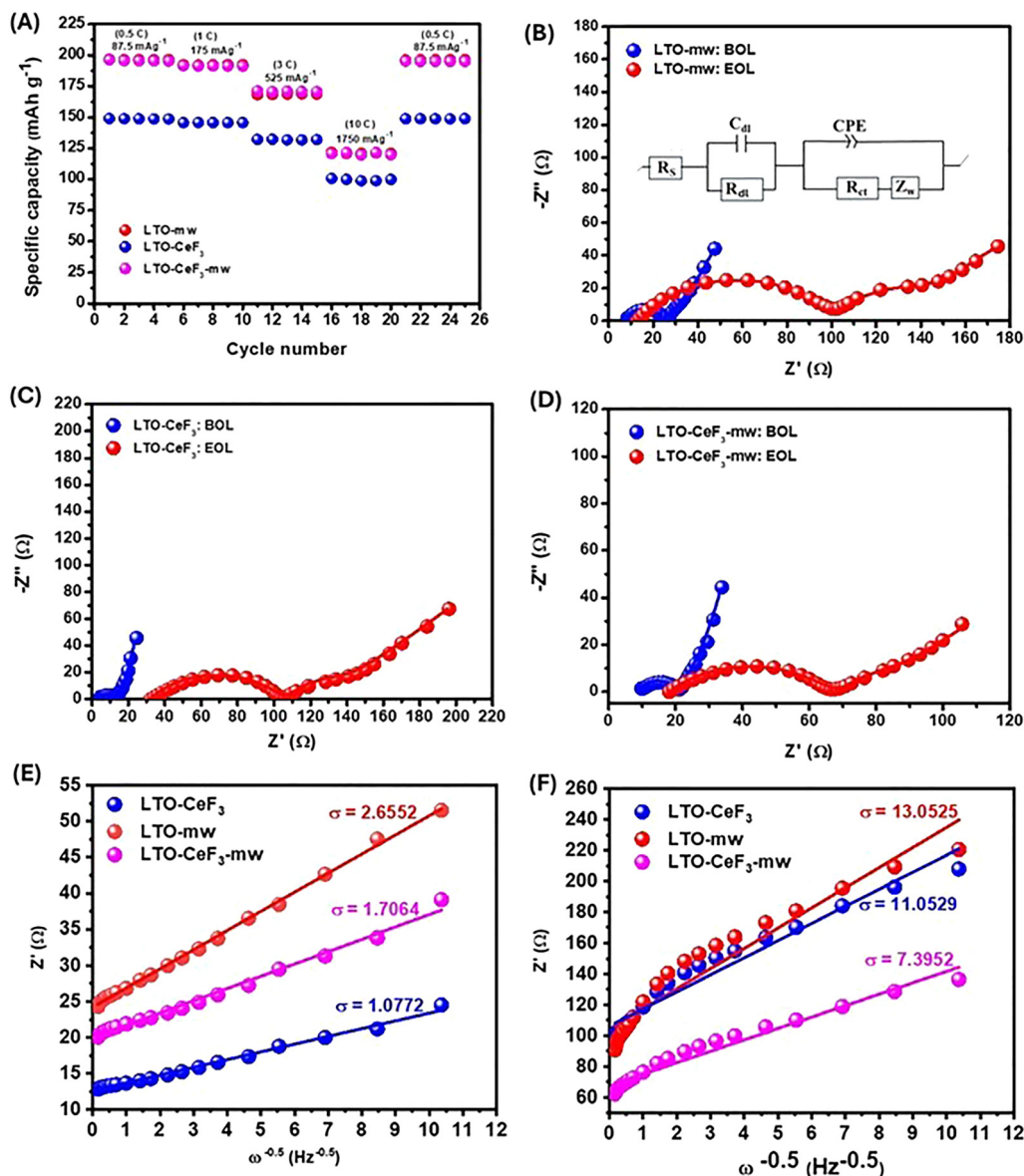
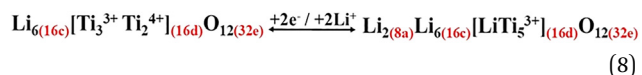


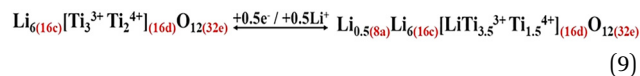
Fig. 6 (A) Rate capability of LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>, LTO-mw, and LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw; electrochemical equivalent impedance before cycling and after 1000 cycles of (B) LTO-mw (inset is the electrochemical equivalent circuit used for the samples), (C) LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub> and (D) LTO-CeF<sub>3</sub>-mw. (E) Plot of Z' vs.  $\omega^{-1/2}$  BOL and (F) plot of Z' vs.  $\omega^{-1/2}$  EOL.

However, it has been recognized that the tetrahedral sites (8a) can accommodate extra Li (considering that 16c is fully occupied) from the available number of tetravalent Ti (the 2 moles of Ti<sup>4+</sup> in the octahedral site (16d) in eqn (3)) (*i.e.*,  $C_{th} \approx 292 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ; eqn (8)).



But it should perhaps not be surprising that the tetrahedral sites (8a) may simply accommodate just an extra 0.5 mole of Li instead of 2 moles of Li from the available 2 moles of Ti<sup>4+</sup> as observed in our study: microwave treatment (*i.e.*,  $C_{th} \approx$

$204 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ; eqn (9)).



This study is different in that the voltage window used for all the electrochemical measurements is 2.5 to 1.0 V and the LTO-mw anode material that has the highest capacity of  $192.5 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  at  $175 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (1C) does not have the dual phase. It is important to note that though LTO-mw has the highest specific capacity at 1C, Fig. 6A and Table 2 show that the conventional limiting factors (Li<sup>+</sup> diffusion, Li<sup>+</sup> transport and electron transport) are not applicable nor responsible for the high capacity. This is because the LTO-mw has the highest CV peak-to-peak separation voltage ( $E_{pp}/V$ ), which signifies the

highest polarization effect that translates to low kinetics. Amazingly, this is the electrode material that has the highest specific capacity of all the samples and has a specific capacity higher than the theoretical specific capacity. Consequently, this outstanding performance may be related to the LTO–mw having large  $\text{Li}^+$  storage as shown in the CV profile area. This agrees with the LTO–mw's CV analysis above and Fig. S7 that show its surface capacitance has a non-faradaic (non-diffusion) process of 35% which is greater than that of the LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw (28%). This confirms that the surface capacitance of the non-diffusion process' specific capacity share of LTO–mw is greater than that of LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw. This may suggest the reason why the LTO–mw has the highest specific capacity of  $192.5 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  at  $175 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (1C) relative to the other samples. Cunha *et al.*<sup>60</sup> have attributed similar higher specific capacity than the theoretical capacity within the voltage window of 2.5 to 1.0 V to a surface-related phenomenon, where the surface of the spinel LTO having different surface lattice planes played a significant role in the  $\text{Li}^+$  storage properties. That is, the higher specific capacity than the theoretical capacity of LTO within the voltage window of 2.5 to 1.0 V is due to significant surface contributions in  $\text{Li}^+$  storage. Hence, this higher discharge capacity of LTO–mw can be suggested to be because of the surface lattice planes (220), (222) and (310) having significant contributions in lithium storage.

On the other hand, it is also pertinent to point out that the LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw sample has a specific capacity of  $191.1 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  at  $175 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (1C) within the voltage window of 2.5 to 1.0 V. This is higher than the theoretical specific capacity. Even though the Raman and HRTEM show the presence of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in the LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw, it can be suggested that the  $\text{TiO}_2$  is not responsible for the higher specific capacity, as evident by the absence of the CV redox peaks and GCD voltage plateau at 1.70 V/2.08 V that are synonymous with  $\text{TiO}_2$  contribution to specific capacity.<sup>4</sup> This also confirms that the higher discharge capacity may have resulted from  $\text{Li}^+$  storage at the surface lattice planes (220) and (310). It is impressive to emphasize that all three samples recover to their initial discharge capacities when the rate returns to  $87.5 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (0.5C). This shows the good reversibility of the modified LTO samples. Furthermore, the performance characteristics (rate capability and cycling performance) of the LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw anode material surpass most of the summarized reports categorized as “high performance” by Kazemi *et al.*<sup>61</sup>

**3.1.3 Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS).** Fig. 6(B)–(D) shows the Nyquist plots of LTO–mw, LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$  and LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw samples before and after cycling. Before cycling, all the materials have one high- to medium-frequency semicircle and one low-frequency sloped line. After cycling, two partially overlapped and depressed semicircles are observed in the high- to medium-frequency regions for LTO–mw, and LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ . The EIS parameters are made up of the solution resistance ( $R_s$ ) attributed to the electrolyte's ohmic resistance and the charge-transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ) at the intermediate frequency regions corresponding to the redox processes, which highlight the exchange of  $\text{Li}^+$  ions at the surface of the electrode.

The  $C_{dl}$  indicates the double-layer capacitances, and Warburg impedance ( $Z_w$ ) offers insights on the impedance of  $\text{Li}^+$  ion diffusion in bulk electrode materials. The  $R_{dl}$  signifies the high-frequency resistance due to the double layer, while the constant phase element (CPE) is the interfacial capacitance.<sup>62</sup> Table S4 shows values for the EIS parameters before cycling: beginning-of-life (BOL), while Table S5 shows the parameters after 1000 cycles: end-of-life (EOL). Table S4 shows that the LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$  has the lowest  $R_{ct}$  ( $7.07 \Omega$ ) while LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw has a higher  $R_{ct}$  ( $9.38 \Omega$ ) and LTO–mw has the highest  $R_{ct}$  ( $15.15 \Omega$ ). The LTO–mw has the highest charge transfer resistance, which agrees with the CV ( $E_{pp}/V$ ) that signifies the highest polarization effect (low kinetics). However, the LTO–mw electrode material has the highest specific capacity at 1C. Therefore, the EIS confirms that the specific capacity of the microwave irradiated electrode–LTO–mw does not relate to the kinetics, but to the surface plane orientation's contribution to large  $\text{Li}^+$  storage as shown in the CV profile area (Fig. S5 and the surface capacitance non-diffusion process (Fig. S7A and B)). The same reason accounts for why the coated microwave-irradiated electrode LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw has a higher specific capacity than the non-microwave-irradiated electrode LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ . It may therefore be attributed to the surface lattice plane phenomenon caused by microwave irradiation, as against the conventional enhanced specific capacity that resulted from enhanced kinetics. The same explanation goes for the  $Z_w$  values 2.79, 4.25 and  $6.88 \Omega$ , respectively, for LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ , LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw and LTO–mw before GCD (BOL). Table S5 shows the EOL EIS parameters of the three battery chemistries. The results show that LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw has less impedance relative to LTO–mw and LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ . The microwave sample LTO–mw has the highest values of 24.28, 91.1 and  $26.65 \Omega$  for  $R_{SEI}$ ,  $R_{ct}$  and  $Z_w$ , respectively, while the coated microwave sample LTO– $\text{CeF}_3$ –mw has the lowest values of 6.68, 53.39 and  $17.72 \Omega$ , respectively. To further investigate the electrochemical performance of these three samples, the  $\text{Li}^+$  diffusion kinetics of the electrodes were calculated from eqn (10).

$$D_{\text{Li}^+} = \frac{2(RT)^2}{(An^2F^2C_{\text{Li}^+})} \quad (10)$$

where  $D_{\text{Li}^+}$  is the  $\text{Li}^+$  diffusion coefficient (rate of  $\text{Li}^+$  transport),  $R$  is the gas constant,  $T$  is the absolute temperature,  $A$  is the surface area of the electrode,  $n$  is the number of electrons per molecule during oxidation,  $F$  is the Faraday's constant,  $C_{\text{Li}^+}$  is  $\text{Li}^+$  concentration and  $\sigma$  is the Warburg factor. The Warburg factor,  $\sigma$ , is the slope of the plot of  $Z'$  vs.  $\omega^{-1/2}$  shown in Fig. 6E and F and in the eqn (11).

$$Z' = R_s + R_{ct} + \sigma\omega^{-1/2} \quad (11)$$

where  $Z'$  is the impedance obtained from the lower frequency regions plots of Fig. 6B–D, and  $\omega$  is the angular frequency. Fig. 6E and F show a linear relationship and the values of the slopes ( $\sigma$ ) which are presented in Tables S4 and S5. The  $D_{\text{Li}^+}$  is a measure of how fast  $\text{Li}^+$  diffuses and is thus calculated by substituting  $\sigma$  in eqn (11), and the calculated  $D_{\text{Li}^+}$  values are presented in Tables S4 and S5. Table S4 (EIS-BOL) results show

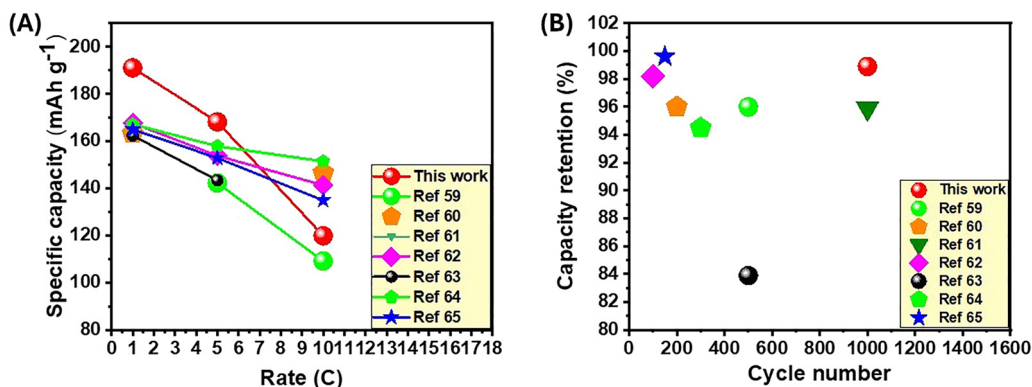


Fig. 7 (A) Comparison of rate capacities of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw anode material in this work with LTO anode materials previously reported. (B) Comparison of capacity retention at 875 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (5C) of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw anode material in this work with LTO anode materials previously reported.

that LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> has the highest diffusion coefficient of  $4.2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  followed by LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw ( $1.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and LTO–mw has least ( $6.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). These results are also in agreement with those of the CV. The Li<sup>+</sup> diffusion coefficient results also confirm that the enhanced specific capacity of the microwave sample (LTO–mw) is not a function of the Li<sup>+</sup> kinetics. It may therefore be proposed that the enhanced specific capacity of the LTO–mw electrode is because of the change in the surface lattice plane. However, Table S5 (EIS–EOL) results show that LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw has the highest diffusion coefficient of  $8.8 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  followed by LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub> ( $4.0 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and LTO–mw has least ( $6.9 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). The Li<sup>+</sup> diffusion coefficient result of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw confirms that the enhanced electrochemical performances of the coated microwave-irradiated sample are not only a function of the Li<sup>+</sup> kinetics caused by CeF<sub>3</sub>-coated surface but are also functions of the introduced surface lattice planes, lattice expansion, and increased BET surface area caused by the synergy between the coated surface and microwave irradiation.

Fig. 7A shows the comparison of rate capacities of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw anode material in this work with LTO anode materials previously reported, while Fig. 7B shows the comparison of capacity retention at 875 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (5C) of LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw anode material in this work with LTO anode materials.<sup>63–69</sup> The compared parameters show that relative to these previous studies, the electrochemical performance of microwave-coated sample, LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw, is remarkable.

## 4. Conclusion

This research work strategically used microwave irradiation and CeF<sub>3</sub> surface coating to synthesize the LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw anode material for LIBs that has an outstanding specific capacity of 191.1 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> at 175 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (1C) which is greater than the theoretical specific capacity of LTO (175 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>). Furthermore, the LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw electrode has long-term cycling stability with high-capacity retention of 98.9% after 1000 cycles, high-rate of specific capacity of 119.9 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> at 10C and reversible capacity. These top-notch electrochemical performances of the LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw can be attributed to the

tuned surface lattice planes (220) and (310) from (111), expanded lattice spacing and high surface area. The findings of this study are of great importance to the advancement towards high-energy, high-power and long-life LIBs for electric vehicles' large-scale energy storage.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

## Data availability

The data supporting this article have been included as part of the supplementary information (SI). The supplementary information includes additional data supporting this study. Fig. S1 presents SEM–EDS elemental mapping of all four samples: (A) LTO–p, (B) LTO–mw, (C) LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>, and (D) LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw. Fig. S2 shows HRTEM micrographs of LTO–p. Table S1 exhibits the lattice constants of the four samples. Fig. S3 provides N<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption isotherms, while Table S2 lists the corresponding BET surface area and porosity parameters. Fig. S4 displays galvanostatic charge–discharge profiles for cycle 1 and cycle 1000 at 5C for (A) LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>, (B) LTO–mw, and (C) LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw. Fig. S5 presents cyclic voltammograms recorded at scan rates of 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, and 1.0 mV s<sup>-1</sup> for all samples, and Fig. S6 shows the corresponding log (peak current) versus log (scan rate) plots. Table S3 reports the calculated *b*-values at different scan rates. Fig. S7 compares the capacitive and diffusion-controlled contribution fractions for (A, B) LTO–mw and (C, D) LTO–CeF<sub>3</sub>–mw. Tables S4 and S5 show the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) fitting parameters before cycling (BOL) and after 1000 cycles (EOL), respectively. See DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1039/d5ya00303b>.

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