

Short communication

## CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites as anodes for Li-ion batteries

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### Abstract

Ultrafine powders of nanocrystalline CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/10 wt.% SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites are prepared by a urea–nitrate combustion method. Phase pure and highly crystalline CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (tetragonal structure) and CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> (cubic structure) are obtained after sintering at 1100 °C. The average particle size is 10–20 and 20–30 nm, respectively. Both the nanoferrite anodes have an excellent specific capacity of greater than 800 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> versus Li metal. It is concluded that SnO<sub>2</sub> doping improves the coulombic efficiency of copper ferrite anodes from 65 to 99.5% via an enhanced structural stability.

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**Keywords:** Copper ferrite; Nanocomposites; Lithium-ion batteries; Specific capacity; Coulombic efficiency

### 1. Introduction

In recent years, a great deal of attention has been given to the development of energy devices for portable electronic applications. In particular, a tremendous amount of research is being conducted on lithium-ion battery technology to meet the varied requirements of consumer markets. Despite commercialization of Li-ion batteries, carbonaceous negative electrodes (anodes), which are known for their high capacity values, suffer from large irreversible capacity losses. As a result, there is an urgent need to identify suitable alternative materials to carbon/graphite. This has opened up new avenues for the deployment of transition metal oxides [1–3], metal–metal alloys [4–6], transition metal vanadates [7], ATCO anodes [8,9], metalloids [10], lithium metal oxides, such as LiMSnO<sub>4</sub> [11], phosphates [12], and niobates [13]. More recently, spinel-type ferrite anodes, viz. CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [14,15], NiFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [16,17], ZnFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [18], and CaFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [19] have gained in importance due to their high specific capacities and facile synthesis.

To date, there have been no reports on the possibility of employing CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites as anode materials for Li-ion batteries. It is well known that SnO<sub>2</sub> displays excellent reversible properties when used as an anode, and can store twice the amount of Li<sup>+</sup> ions compared with graphite. Consequently, various forms of SnO<sub>2</sub> have been reported as lithium battery anodes [20–23]. The study reported here attempts to enhance the electrochemical activity of native CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> through the incorporation of SnO<sub>2</sub>.

In this respect, nanocrystalline CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites have been synthesized by means of a urea–nitrate combustion method. The investigation identifies the advantages of deployment of nanocomposite electrodes and the effect of SnO<sub>2</sub> dopant in reducing the Li<sup>+</sup> ion diffusion path lengths so as to enhance the diffusion kinetics and impart improved charge–discharge characteristics.

### 2. Experimental

#### 2.1. Synthesis

Nanocrystalline CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> powders were prepared by means of a urea–nitrate combustion

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method. The synthesis procedure and thermodynamical calculations of the parent  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  have been reported elsewhere [24]. The synthesis of composite ferrite ( $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$ ) powder was performed as follows. Stoichiometric quantities of  $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ , and  $\text{CO}(\text{NH}_2)_2$  were dissolved in 100 ml of distilled water. The mixed nitrate–urea solution was heated at  $110^\circ\text{C}$ , with continuous stirring. After the evaporation of excess of water, a highly viscous gel, known as the precursor, was obtained. The gel was ignited at  $300^\circ\text{C}$  to remove the undesirable gaseous products, and form the desired product as a foamy powder. Finally, the powder was sintered at different temperatures, e.g., 800, 1000, and  $1100^\circ\text{C}$ , for 5 h to obtain ultrafine powders of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  nanocomposites.

## 2.2. Characterization

The phase purity and crystallinity of the ferrite materials were identified by powder X-ray diffraction analysis with an X-ray diffractometer (Rigaku Dmax/2C, Japan with Cu  $K\alpha$  radiation;  $\alpha = 1.5405 \text{ \AA}$ ). Surface morphology and particle size were analyzed by means of scanning electron microscopy (SEM; JEOL S-3000 Model) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM; JEOL-JEM 100SX microscope at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV), respectively. The specimens for TEM investigations were prepared by placing a drop of each sample suspension on a carbon-coated copper grid (400 mesh, Electron Microscopy Sciences) and allowing this to dry in air under ambient conditions.

## 2.3. Electrode fabrication

The negative (anode) electrode was prepared by coating a mixed slurry of synthesized ferrite powder (80 wt.%), VGCF (6 wt.%), SPM (6 wt.%), and PTFE binder (8 wt.%) over a copper foil of  $10 \mu\text{m}$  in thickness. The powders were mixed thoroughly in the appropriate ratios and made in to a slurry by using NMP as solvent. The electrodes were hot rolled, punched into dimensions of 5 in.  $\times$  3 in., and stored in the dry room for at least 24 h prior to cell fabrication. The electrodes were evaluated against lithium foil of thickness  $120 \mu\text{m}$  in an electrolyte of 1:1 (v/v) ethyl carbonate:diethyl carbonate dissolved in 1 M  $\text{LiPF}_6$ . A polypropylene separator (Asahi) of  $20 \mu\text{m}$  thickness with 40% porosity was used. The fabricated pouch cells were aged in a dry room for 1 day and were then subjected to charge–discharge cycling [12].

## 3. Results and discussions

### 3.1. Structural analysis

The X-ray diffraction patterns recorded for  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/10 \text{ wt.} \% \text{ SnO}_2$  samples heat-treated at 300, 800, 1000, and  $1100^\circ\text{C}$  are presented in Figs. 1 and 2. It is evident from XRD observations that a temperature of  $300^\circ\text{C}$  is insuf-

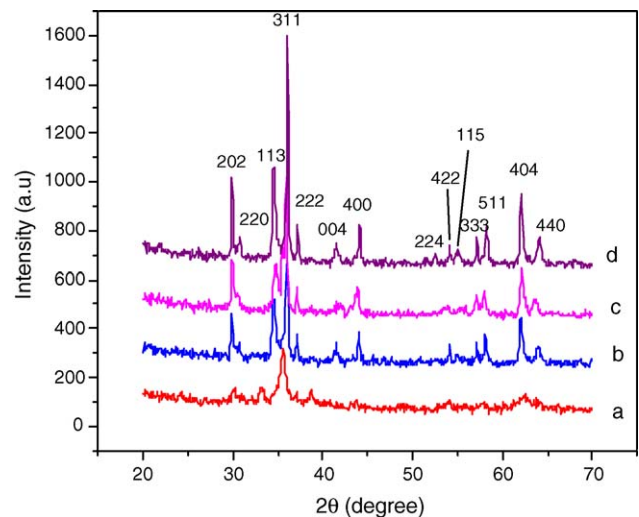


Fig. 1. XRD pattern of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  sintered at (a)  $300^\circ\text{C}$ , (b)  $800^\circ\text{C}$ , (c)  $1000^\circ\text{C}$ , and (d)  $1100^\circ\text{C}$ .

ficient for the formation of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$ . Rather, a minimum of  $800^\circ\text{C}$  is essential to obtain  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  with a tetragonal structure and  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  with a cubic structure. Although crystallization of the products is well initiated at  $800^\circ\text{C}$ , improved crystallinity is expected at higher temperatures. This is because even at  $800^\circ\text{C}$ , the intensity of the individual peaks is not optimum and is an indication of incomplete crystallinity (Figs. 1 and 2). Therefore, the powders were further sintered at higher temperatures, such as 1000 and  $1100^\circ\text{C}$ . As expected, the product obtained after sintering at  $1100^\circ\text{C}$  exhibits sharp and well-defined Bragg peaks with preferred intensity. Thus, the urea–nitrate combustion method can yield fine powders of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  with a high degree of phase purity and crystallinity at high sintering temperatures. The absence of undesirable peaks ensures the phase purity of both the ferrite samples.

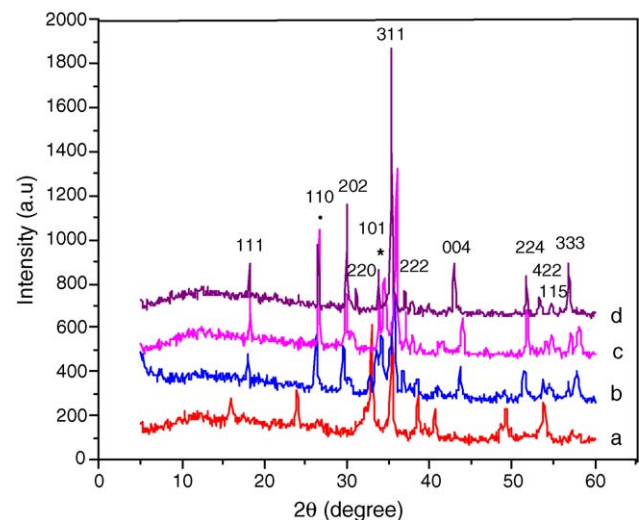


Fig. 2. XRD pattern of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  sintered at (a)  $300^\circ\text{C}$ , (b)  $800^\circ\text{C}$ , (c)  $1000^\circ\text{C}$ , (d)  $1100^\circ\text{C}$ . (\*)  $\text{SnO}_2$ .

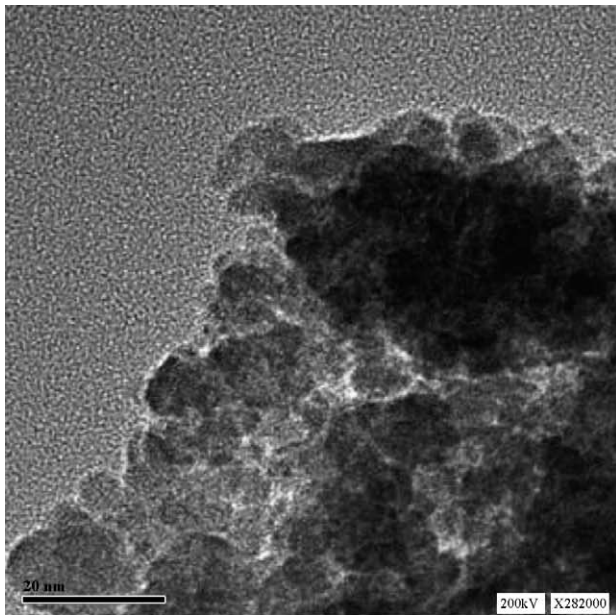
The XRD peaks of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  were indexed, respectively, for tetragonal and cubic lattice patterns. Perfect matching with the standard values was obtained in both cases. Comparison of the lattice constant values of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  [ $a = 8.274 \text{ \AA}$ ;  $c = 8.4814 \text{ \AA}$ ] and  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  [ $a = 8.4082 \text{ \AA}$ ;  $c = 8.3744 \text{ \AA}$ ] synthesised at  $1100^\circ\text{C}$  shows that  $\text{SnO}_2$  doping enhances lattice constants. This, in turn, is an indication that  $\text{SnO}_2$  has been incorporated into the crystal lattice of the parent  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  compound. In addition, the XRD pattern of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  contains peaks that are due to  $\text{SnO}_2$  along with the peaks for  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$ , and thus further

confirms that doping of  $\text{SnO}_2$  into the  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  matrix has taken place.

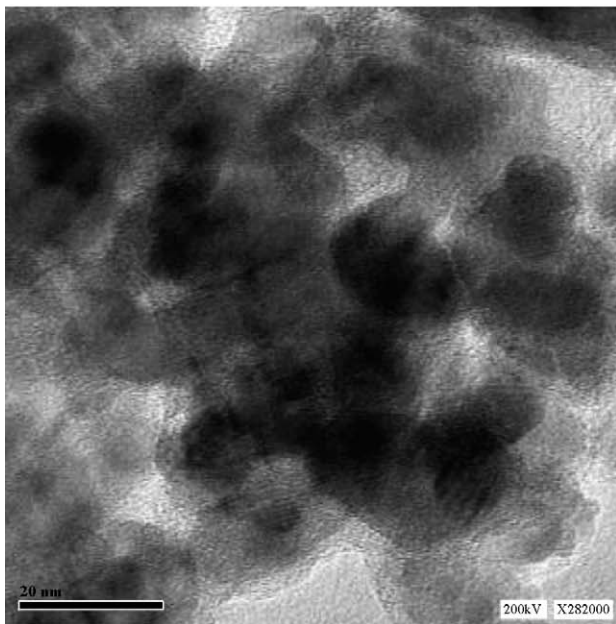
### 3.2. Particle size and morphology

The presence of nanosized particles of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  has been confirmed through TEM analysis. The nanocrystalline nature of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  with a particle size of approximately 10–20 nm and of  $\text{SnO}_2$  coated  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  with 20–30 nm are evident in Fig. 3(a and b), respectively.

Scanning electron micrographs recorded for  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  sintered at  $1100^\circ\text{C}$  are given in Fig. 4(a and b), respectively. The presence of uniformly distributed spherical grains of independent nature with definite grain boundaries is a desirable morphological characteristic for battery electrodes [25]. Despite the high calcination temperature used in the synthesis, no obvious agglomeration is observed and is an indication of the size confinement of the individual particles.

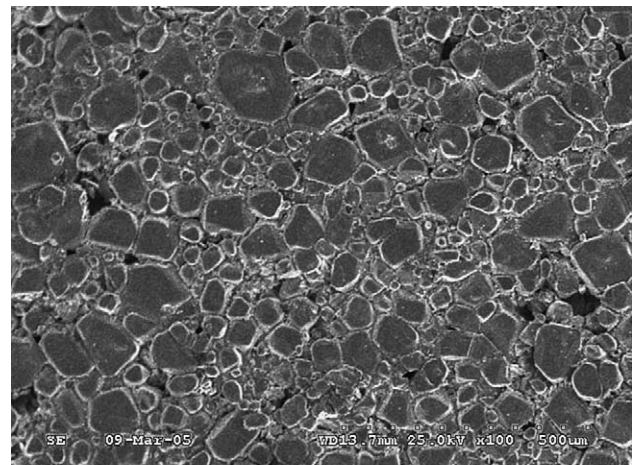


(a)

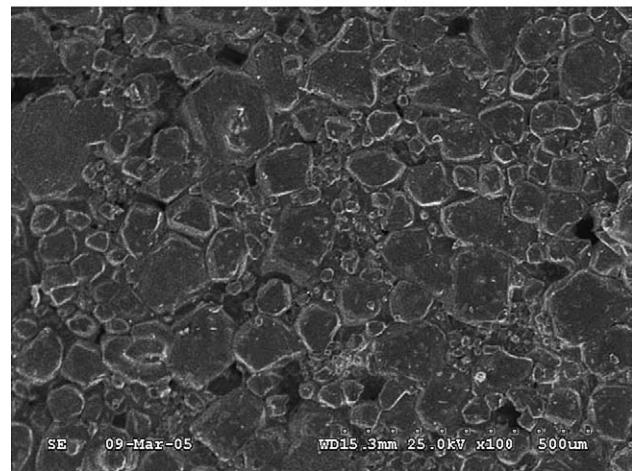


(b)

Fig. 3. TEM images of (a)  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and (b)  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  powders.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 4. SEM images of (a)  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and (b)  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/10 \text{ wt.} \% \text{ SnO}_2$  powders.

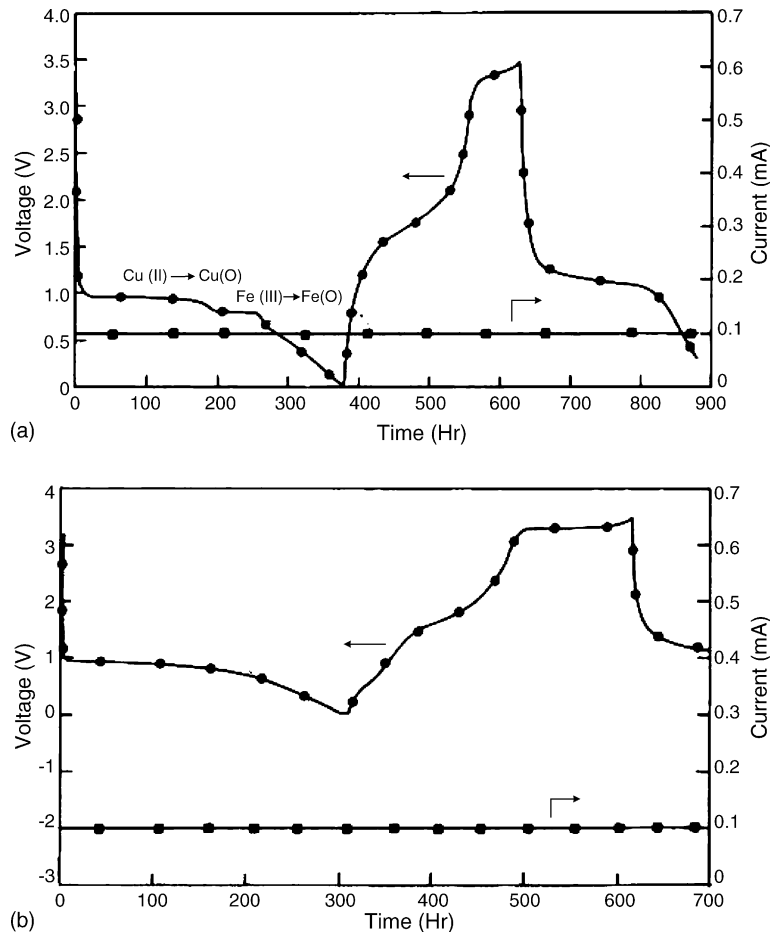
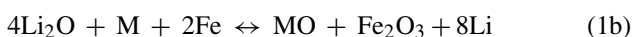


Fig. 5. Charge–discharge profiles exhibited by (a)  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and (b)  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  anodes.

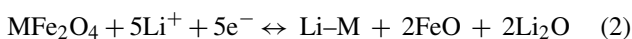
### 3.3. Charge–discharge behaviour

Charge–discharge profiles recorded for combustion-synthesized  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{SnO}_2$ -doped  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  anodes at a current density of  $0.1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  over the voltage region  $3.5\text{--}0.1 \text{ V}$  are presented in Fig. 5(a and b), respectively. The appearance of two potential plateaux around  $0.9$  and  $0.75 \text{ V}$  can be attributed to the corresponding reduction of  $\text{Cu(II)}$  to  $\text{Cu(0)}$  and  $\text{Fe(III)}$  to  $\text{Fe(0)}$  [15]. These findings are similar to those reported for  $\text{CoFe}_2\text{O}_4$  anodes. Generally, two types of mechanisms are advanced for the decomposition of  $\text{MFe}_2\text{O}_4$  anodes, namely:

displacive redox mechanism



alloy-forming mechanism



The present set of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  anodes are believed to follow the displacive redox mechanism. This is because the observed high specific capacity value

of  $\sim 800 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  can be correlated with the comparatively higher  $\text{Li}^+$  uptake ( $\sim 8 \text{ Li}^+$  per formula unit) and higher thermodynamic feasibility of the displacive redox mechanism. On the other hand, whereas the alloy-forming mechanism (Eq. (2)) would normally lead to an irreversible capacity loss, this is not observed with the present set of anodes. For example, it is quite evident from Fig. 5(a and b) that the second discharge capacity value is much closer to the initial one, particularly in the case of  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{SnO}_2$ . Therefore, it is clear that  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and the  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4/10 \text{ wt.}\% \text{ SnO}_2$  anodes follow the displacive redox mechanism, similar to that of transition metal oxide anodes [14–19]. The appearance of a slightly enhanced potential plateau around  $1.2 \text{ V}$  on the second cycle (Fig. 5(a and b)) of both of the ferrite anodes corresponds to the poorly crystalline/amorphous nature of the reduced products [18] obtained from Eq. (1). This provides further evidence that the chosen  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{SnO}_2$ -doped  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$  anodes follow the displacive redox mechanism.

The high specific capacity values exhibited by both the ferrite anodes ( $>800 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ) may be attributed to the electrochemically driven size confinement of the nanoelectrodes employed in the present study. Nanosize particle

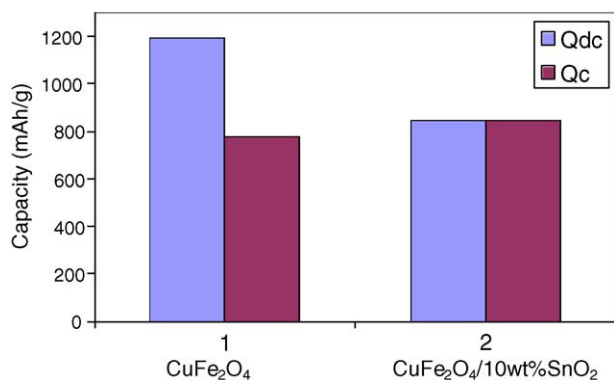


Fig. 6. Variation of discharge capacity ( $Q_{dc}$ ) and charge capacity ( $Q_c$ ) exhibited by (a) CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and (b) CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> anodes.

characteristics of electrodes have been found to be effective in reducing the diffusion distance of lithium ions and in enhancing the diffusion kinetics [26]. As a result, the nano CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> anode and CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites have delivered an improved specific capacity of 1193 and 849 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. These values are almost three times higher than that of a carbon anode (372 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>).

The SnO<sub>2</sub> (10 wt.%) -doped CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> anode exhibits an excellent charging capacity of 845 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> against a discharge capacity of 849 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>, which is equivalent to a coulombic efficiency of 99.5% (Fig. 6). By contrast, the undoped CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> anode delivers a charging capacity only of 779 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> against 1193 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> of initial discharge capacity, as evident from Fig. 6. Therefore, the coulombic efficiency of the CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> anode is only 65%. Hence, a remarkable improvement in the capacity retention behaviour (Fig. 7) of copper ferrite has been made possible through SnO<sub>2</sub> doping. The dopant SnO<sub>2</sub> plays a vital role in enhancing the contact between the active material, binder, and the current-collector of the electrodes and thereby imparts better structural integrity and minimizes volume changes.

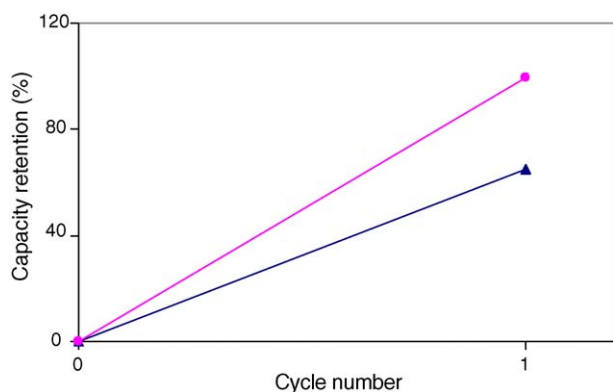


Fig. 7. Comparison of capacity retention of (▲) CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and (●) CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites.

## 4. Conclusions

Nano CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites have been made by means of a urea–nitrate combustion method. The homogeneity and crystallinity of the synthesized powders are examined by X-ray diffraction analysis and the particle size (10–30 nm) by TEM analysis. On discharge at 0.1 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, the CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> anode exhibits a capacity of 1193 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> and the CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite a capacity of 849 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>. The coulombic efficiency of copper ferrite anodes is improved from 65 to 99.5% through SnO<sub>2</sub> doping. The present work is the very first of its kind to demonstrate the electrochemical behaviour of CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> composites and the exploitation of SnO<sub>2</sub> doping for enhancing the capacity retention of in lithium batteries.

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