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Li and Na-ion diffusion and intercalation characteristics in vertically aligned TiS$_2$ nanowall network grown using atomic layer deposition

Farheen N Sayed$^{1,4}$, M B Sreedhara$^{2,5}$, Amit Soni$^1$, Usha Bhat$^1$, Ranjan Datta$^6$, Aninda J Bhattacharyya$^{3,6}$ and C N R Rao$^{7,8}$

$^1$ Solid State and Structural Chemistry Unit, Indian Institute of Science, Bengaluru-560012, India
$^2$ School of Advanced Materials (SAMat) and Sheikh Saqr Laboratory, Jawaharlal Nehru Centre for Advanced Scientific Research, Jakkur PO, Bengaluru 560064, India
$^3$ FNS and MBS have contributed equally to this work.
$^4$ Presently at University of Cambridge, United Kingdom.
$^5$ Presently at Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot, Israel.
$^6$ Authors to whom any correspondence should be addressed.
E-mail: anindajb@iisc.ac.in and cnrrao@jncasr.ac.in

Keywords: Li/Na ion diffusion, intercalation chemistry, TiS$_2$, atomic layer deposition (ALD), rechargeable batteries

Abstract
We present here the study of diffusion and intercalation mechanisms of Li-ion and Na-ion in titanium disulfide (TiS$_2$) films grown by atomic layer deposition (ALD). The layered TiS$_2$ has been explored here due to the interesting differences between the intercalation mechanisms of Li$^+$ and Na$^+$. The ALD grown TiS$_2$ films further facilitate the study as this method provides compact and dense films with no polymer binder and carbon additives. The diffusion and intercalation processes are observed to depend on the ionic size and character of the solid electrolyte interphase. The increased capacity obtained for the present ALD synthesized samples is attributed to the enhanced anchoring ability of the TiS$_2$ films, which comprises of an extended nanowall network. The charge transfer resistance ($R_{ct}$) obtained from impedance data correlate well with the lithiation steps observed in the galvanostatic discharge-charge studies. At potentials where lithiation takes place, $R_{ct}$ value is observed to drop. This direct correlation is however, not observed between the $R_{ct}$ and sodiation potential. The diffusion coefficients, calculated using GITT and impedance methods, are observed to be independent of the type of Li-salts. However, the variation of diffusion coefficients with the lithiation/sodiation voltages are different. This is attributed to the combined differences in the ionic radii and phase formation.

Intercalation-de-intercalation in to TiS$_2$ coated with alumina is also studied here. Coating with alumina results in a stable SEI. However, coating leads to higher $R_{ct}$, lower $D_{Li^+}$ and poor capacity retention as a function of cycle number.

1. Introduction

Intercalating host materials based on carbon (e.g. graphite), transition metal layered oxides and dichalcogenides have been widely used as electrodes in alkali-ion rechargeable batteries especially the Li-ion batteries [1–3]. Many of the intercalation materials whether oxides or sulfides, consist of a close-packed anion sublattice comprising of an array of octahedral and tetrahedral interstitial sites for occupation by the transition metal ions. On intercalation, the possibility of occupation of either an octahedral or a tetrahedra site by an alkali-ion is governed by the alkali-ion size and factors related to the intrinsic host crystal structure viz. space availability at the intercalation site, chemical characteristics of the site, and mechanical stability of the lattice following intercalation [4]. In addition to these matters, the inherent crystal structure of the host provides a complex diffusion barrier landscape which imposes a strong concentration dependent alkali-ion diffusion behavior. For cathode intercalation materials such as LiCoO$_2$ and LiNi$_{1/3}$Mn$_{1/3}$Co$_{1/3}$O the lithiation plateau is a signature of the transition from Li-deficient to Li-rich phase and may involve order-disorder transitions, two phase reaction and structural phase transitions [5]. In case of layered anode TiS$_2$ electrochemical intercalation of Li$^{+}$-ion
proceeds via the formation of a homogenous solid solution. The intercalation of Li and other alkali ions, as Na, Mg, Ca and K, in TiS$_2$ can be strongly affected by the concentration and extent of ordering of these alkali ions in layer [6–9].

TiS$_2$ crystallizes in a hexagonal close packed (hcp) structure similar to that of CdI$_2$. In TiS$_2$, half of the octahedral sites are filled with Ti$^{4+}$ which in turn is surrounded by six sulfide anions in an octahedral environment. The layers of TiS$_2$ thus formed, consist of covalent Ti–S bonds and individual layers of TiS$_2$ are bound together by van der Waals forces [10]. Since the pioneering work by Whittingham [11] and it’s demonstration as an electrode in rechargeable batteries [12], considerable focus has been on the study of the ion diffusion mechanism of different alkali-ions in TiS$_2$. It has been proposed that diffusion in TiS$_2$ (3D) crystal structure is often mediated by vacancy clusters such as di-vacancies due to it’s lower migration barrier for Li$^+$-ions compared to that for isolated vacancies [5]. Moving from Li$^+$-ion, transfer barriers for Na$^+$/K$^+$-ions in TiS$_2$ are significantly higher mainly due to their larger steric radius of (Na$^+$-ion \( \approx 1.86 \text{ Å} \); K$^+$-ion \( \approx 2.31 \text{ Å} \)) as compared to Li$^+$-ion \( \approx 1.52 \text{ Å} \). The intercalation and hence, structural chemistry of other alkali ions (Na$^+$, K$^+$) and alkaline ions (Mg$^+$) are more complex as these ions can occupy either octahedral and trigonal prismatic sites [6, 13, 14]. For any metal-ion intercalation in a layered structure, as the transfer of electrons from the intercalated ion to the host TiS$_2$ lattice occurs, the relatively weaker van der Waals forces are replaced by stronger coulombic interactions among the layers. For the investigation of alkali metal intercalation, thin films provide better scope than the conventional thicker electrode cast on a current collector with binder and conducting carbon. TiS$_2$ thin films has been grown using various methods like Activated Reactive Evaporation process, Chemical Vapour Deposition (CVD) and Pulsed Laser Deposition (PLD) [15–18]. In this work, to study the transport and storage properties of TiS$_2$ thin films were grown using atomic layer deposition (ALD). ALD is employed here as it provides great opportunities to systematically control the materials microstructure leading to high quality thin films tailored for task specific applications [19, 20].

We present here the study of Li$^+$ and Na$^+$-diffusion characteristics in TiS$_2$ and alumina coated TiS$_2$ electrode grown via ALD method. The ALD method allows highly uniform and direct deposition of a TiS$_2$ film on to the current collector. This nullifies the usage and influence of polymer binder and carbon additive which typically arises from the conventional solution-based casting procedures. Galvanometric intermittent titration (GITT) and ac-impedance methods have been employed to compare the distinctive diffusion mechanisms of Li$^+$-ions and Na$^+$-ions in bare as well as alumina coated TiS$_2$ and it’s eventual impact on the intercalation process in the samples.

2. Experimental

2.1. Deposition of TiS$_2$ thin films using atomic layer deposition

TiS$_2$ thin films having nanowall network morphology are grown by atomic layer deposition on single crystalline c-sapphire (001), and stainless steel using a flow type Benec TFS 200 ALD reactor (Finland Oy). Titanium tetrachloride (TiCl$_4$, 99.9%, Alfa Aesar) and hydrogen sulfide (H$_2$S, Bhuruka gases, 97.5%) are employed as Ti and S precursors respectively. Highly pure nitrogen, N$_2$ (Chemix, 99.9995) is used as a process and purging gas throughout the deposition. The reactor and chamber of the ALD system are evacuated to a minimum pressure of 1 and 10 mbar before starting the deposition. The reactor and chamber are heated to 300 °C and allowed to stay for 30 min to stabilize the temperature. TiCl$_4$ precursor is kept in a liquid bubbler and maintained at 20 °C. The precursor is allowed to enter the reactor by it’s own vapor pressure without any booster step. The TiS$_2$ film is deposited by consecutive pulsing of TiCl$_4$ and H$_2$S. The chamber pressure is almost constant during the deposition whereas variation in the reactor pressure between 1 and 10 mbar before starting the deposition. The reactor and chamber are heated to 300 °C and allowed to stay for 30 min to stabilize the temperature. TiCl$_4$ precursor is kept in a liquid bubbler and maintained at 20 °C. The reactor and chamber of the ALD system are evacuated to a minimum pressure of 1 and 10 mbar before starting the deposition. The reactor and chamber are heated to 300 °C and allowed to stay for 30 min to stabilize the temperature. TiCl$_4$ precursor is kept in a liquid bubbler and maintained at 20 °C. The pressure is kept constant during the deposition whereas variation in the reactor pressure between 1 and 10 mbar is observed during pulsing and purging of the precursor. To ascertain self-terminating nature of ALD process and ALD temperature window, the depositions are carried out at different reactor temperatures and pulse and purge times. The temperature window for the ALD growth is tested between 150 and 300 °C. The films appear to grow more uniformly at 300 °C without any residual chlorine. The pulse and purge times for TiCl$_4$ are respectively 400 ms and 3 s, whereas the pulse and purge times for H$_2$S are respectively 1 s and 3 s. The complete one cycle sequence of ALD for TiS$_2$ growth is pulse TiCl$_4$ (200 ms)/purge (3 s)/pulse H$_2$S (1 s)/purge (3 s). The deposition is carried out for 500, 1000, 1500 and 2000 cycles at 300 °C. The films are cooled down slowly to room temperature in vacuum under continuous flow of N$_2$. The as-obtained films appear to be black in color and used as it is for detailed characterization without any further temperature treatment.

2.2. Deposition of Al$_2$O$_3$ on TiS$_2$ thin film

A thin layer of Al$_2$O$_3$ of 5–6 nm is deposited using thermal ALD process by employing trimethylaluminum (TMA) and water as Al and O precursor respectively. An optimised recipe of Al$_2$O$_3$ with the growth rate of
0.12 nm per cycle is employed for this purpose. The reactor temperature is maintained at 200 °C during the growth and is repeated for 50 ALD cycles.

2.3. Structural characterization of TiS₂ thin films

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the as-deposited films on c-sapphire (0001) are recorded with a Panalytical Empyrean diffractometer (Cu Kα radiation; λ = 1.5404 Å). Thickness and surface morphology of the films are studied using field emission scanning electron microscope (Nova NanoSEM 600 FESEM) equipped with an energy dispersive x-ray (EDX). Raman spectra are recorded using a Jobin Yvon LabRam HR spectrometer in backscattering geometry using a 514 nm Ar laser. X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) are obtained using an Omicron nanotechnology spectrometer with Mg-Kα x-ray source. Estimation of cross-section of samples from transmission electron microscopy is prepared in two steps. Initially, sample is thinned down to a few micrometers by mechanical polishing and then perforation is done using ion milling using Argon (Ar) gas. This perforation provides a thin layer (few nm thickness), which is electronically transparent for transmission electron microscopy. Polishing is done carefully so that the weak van der Waals layers of TiS₂ do not delaminate from the substrate. Cross-sectional high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images are obtained from double aberration corrected FEI TITAN 80–300 kV microscope at 300 kV.

2.4. Electrochemical characterization

All the electrochemical measurements are performed in a coin cell configuration of TiS₂ electrode deposited on stainless steel spacer disk. The pure metals (Li and Na) are used as both reference and counter electrodes separated by electrolyte-soaked quartz separator. The three electrolytes used in present study are prepared by dissolving 1 M salts of LiPF₆, LiClO₄ and NaClO₄ in equimolar (1:1) ethyl carbonate and dimethyl carbonate solutions. The cyclic voltammogram (CV) are recorded in a potential window 0.5–3.0 V with 0.01 mV s⁻¹ on CH instrument (CH403). Galvanostatic charge discharge cycling is also performed using Arbin Instrument. Electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) are recorded in the frequency range of 0.01 Hz to 1 MHz with amplitude of 0.001 V on a CH instrument.

2.5. Diffusion coefficient from GITT method

The coin cells are pre-stabilized by running it through four successive discharge-charge cycles. The procedure for GITT is adopted [21] and has been suitably modified for layered and 3D materials’ diffusion studies [22–24]. For GITT study, the cell following stabilization is discharged (from 3.0 V) for 30 min at constant current and then allowed to be under open circuit condition for 2 h, followed by again discharging for 30 min and 2 h of rest time till it reaches the minimum of potential window i.e. 0.5 V. The equation for estimating the diffusion coefficient is as follows:

\[ D_{Li} = \frac{4}{\pi \tau} \left( \frac{m V_M}{M S} \right)^2 \left( \frac{\Delta E_a}{\Delta E_i} \right)^2, \tau \ll 1^2 / D_A \]

where, m is the mass of the active electrode material, V_M and M are the molar volume and molar mass of TiS₂ respectively, S is the electrode-electrolyte geometrical contact area, \( \tau \) is the constant current pulse time, and \( \Delta E_a \) and \( \Delta E_i \) are respectively the changes in the equilibrium potential and potential during hold time.

2.6. Diffusion coefficient from Warburg impedance

The method, first proposed by Ho et al [25], has been utilized widely in the recent years with the aim of monitoring the diffusion coefficient at each stage of lithiation/sodiation [26]. The equation for Warburg impedance and relation for estimation of the diffusion coefficient are as follow:

\[ -Z_{Im} = \frac{\delta \omega^{-1/2}}{\delta} = \frac{V_m}{\pi F A m (2D)^{1/2}} \left( \frac{d E_{oc}}{dx} \right), \omega \gg D / R^2 \]

where, \( \omega \) is the angular frequency, \( \delta \) is the Warburg pre-factor, \( V_m \) is the molar volume of lithiated material, \( (d E_{oc} / dx) \) is the gradient of the coulometric titration curve, which is obtained from a plot of the open-circuit potential versus the composition ‘x’ at each charged state, \( m \) is the amount of active material in the electrode, \( z \) is the charge number of the electroactive species, here 1 for both Li⁺ and Na⁺-ion.
network morphology of the TiS$_2$ stainless steel using thermal ALD process by pulsing TiCl$_4$ and H$_2$S precursors. The ALD temperature regime and other process parameters are optimized to achieve self-limiting surface saturation reaction with large area uniform films. Due to a network-type of morphology, it is difficult to precisely determine the thickness of the film. To avoid back etching reactions resulting from by-products, the purge time is kept long enough. We observe uniform growth with the same morphology at 300 °C even with a higher pulse duration of TiCl$_4$ and H$_2$S without any chlorine contamination. The crystalline films on c-sapphire are obtained at a reactor temperature of 300 °C. All other depositions for further studies are carried out at 300 °C, with pulsing and purging times of 2 s and 4 s for TiCl$_4$ and H$_2$S respectively.

The phase diagram of Ti-S includes many stoichiometric ratios, the stable form being TiS$_2$. Under certain conditions, TiS$_2$ may convert to TiS via an intermediate phase, Ti$_3$S$_4$. Among these phases, the TiS$_2$ structure is the favored phases from the point of view of intercalation [27]. Excess of titanium can cause pinning of the sulfide layers which will reduce the diffusion of the alkali ions and at the same time occupy some of the sites where the Li$^+$ ion would otherwise reside [11]. The TiS$_2$ films are analyzed using x-ray diffraction without any post temperature treatment. Figure 1(a) shows x-ray diffraction pattern of TiS$_2$ film grown at 300 °C for 2000 cycles. The reflections reveal lines corresponding to TiS$_2$ and c-sapphire substrate. The films are crystalline in nature and reflections can be indexed to (001) of TiS$_2$ ($2\theta = 15.6^\circ$) along with (006) of c-sapphire ($2\theta = 41.8^\circ$). The appearance of (00l) reflections in the diffraction pattern suggests that ordered growth of TiS$_2$ on c-sapphire. The appearance of broader and weaker reflections of TiS$_2$ indicate that there may be also amorphous regions present in the film along with the crystalline regimes which can be attributed to the lower deposition temperature. Additionally, the thickness of the films is in the nanometers range and vertical network morphology might also affect the intensity and width of the reflections. From XRD studies, the crystal geometry relation between the substrate and film is found to be (0001) TiS$_2$//(0001) Al$_2$O$_3$ (c-sapphire). The crystallinity on c-sapphire may arise due to the same hexagonal crystal geometry with less lattice mismatch. The films grown on substrates such as Si(100), stainless steel and quartz are amorphous. Hence, the characterization here after is preferably done on c-sapphire. We investigated the optical properties of TiS$_2$ films of various thickness under ambient conditions using Raman spectroscopy (laser excitation wavelength 514 nm). The Raman spectra in figure 1(b) show significant phonon scattering signals at 235 cm$^{-1}$ due to the in-plane E$_{1g}$ mode and 336 cm$^{-1}$ the out-of-plane A$_{1g}$ optical phonon modes of TiS$_2$. Prominent A$_{1g}$ mode suggests that a strong covalent bond exists between the intra-layer atoms and van der Waals force between the layers [28]. The x-ray photoelectron spectrum shows characteristic signal due to Ti(2p) and S(2p) corresponding to TiS$_2$ bonding (figure S1). The atomic composition calculated from the XP spectra is found to be Ti$_{0.32}$S$_{0.68}$ and the composition is almost similar irrespective of the underlying substrate.

Surface morphology of TiS$_2$ films are studied by FE-SEM. Figures 2(a–d) show the in-plane view images of TiS$_2$ film grown for 2000 ALD cycles on the c-sapphire substrate. The FE-SEM images reveal clearly the nanowall network morphology of the TiS$_2$ films. Images acquired at high-resolution reveal that each individual nanowall structure comprise of several van der Waal layers of TiS$_2$. The 2D sheets grow vertically and combine with the edges of adjoining nanosheets making an expansive nanowall network. The growth of the individual nanowall is regular and uniform throughout and the thickness of the each nanowall is nearly the same in the network.

The network shows the presence of pores or voids in between the nanowalls. The network morphology is similar irrespective of the underlying substrates (figure S2). The minor differences such as wider wall thickness and different pore sizes may be due to slight variations in the growth rate and differences in surface roughness.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Phase and morphology

TiS$_2$ thin films having nanowall network morphology are grown on various substrates including c-sapphire and stainless steel using thermal ALD process by pulsing TiCl$_4$ and H$_2$S precursors. The ALD temperature regime and other process parameters are optimized to achieve self-limiting surface saturation reaction with large area uniform films. Due to a network-type of morphology, it is difficult to precisely determine the thickness of the film. To avoid back etching reactions resulting from by-products, the purge time is kept long enough. We observe uniform growth with the same morphology at 300 °C even with a higher pulse duration of TiCl$_4$ and H$_2$S without any chlorine contamination. The crystalline films on c-sapphire are obtained at a reactor temperature of 300 °C. All other depositions for further studies are carried out at 300 °C, with pulsing and purging times of 2 s and 4 s for TiCl$_4$ and H$_2$S respectively.

The phase diagram of Ti-S includes many stoichiometric ratios, the stable form being TiS$_2$. Under certain conditions, TiS$_2$ may convert to TiS via an intermediate phase, Ti$_3$S$_4$. Among these phases, the TiS$_2$ structure is the favored phases from the point of view of intercalation [27]. Excess of titanium can cause pinning of the sulfide layers which will reduce the diffusion of the alkali ions and at the same time occupy some of the sites where the Li$^+$ ion would otherwise reside [11]. The TiS$_2$ films are analyzed using x-ray diffraction without any post temperature treatment. Figure 1(a) shows x-ray diffraction pattern of TiS$_2$ film grown at 300 °C for 2000 cycles. The reflections reveal lines corresponding to TiS$_2$ and c-sapphire substrate. The films are crystalline in nature and reflections can be indexed to (001) of TiS$_2$ ($2\theta = 15.6^\circ$) along with (006) of c-sapphire ($2\theta = 41.8^\circ$). The appearance of (00l) reflections in the diffraction pattern suggests that ordered growth of TiS$_2$ on c-sapphire. The appearance of broader and weaker reflections of TiS$_2$ indicate that there may be also amorphous regions present in the film along with the crystalline regimes which can be attributed to the lower deposition temperature. Additionally, the thickness of the films is in the nanometers range and vertical network morphology might also affect the intensity and width of the reflections. From XRD studies, the crystal geometry relation between the substrate and film is found to be (0001) TiS$_2$//(0001) Al$_2$O$_3$ (c-sapphire). The crystallinity on c-sapphire may arise due to the same hexagonal crystal geometry with less lattice mismatch. The films grown on substrates such as Si(100), stainless steel and quartz are amorphous. Hence, the characterization here after is preferably done on c-sapphire. We investigated the optical properties of TiS$_2$ films of various thickness under ambient conditions using Raman spectroscopy (laser excitation wavelength 514 nm). The Raman spectra in figure 1(b) show significant phonon scattering signals at 235 cm$^{-1}$ due to the in-plane E$_{1g}$ mode and 336 cm$^{-1}$ the out-of-plane A$_{1g}$ optical phonon modes of TiS$_2$. Prominent A$_{1g}$ mode suggests that a strong covalent bond exists between the intra-layer atoms and van der Waals force between the layers [28]. The x-ray photoelectron spectrum shows characteristic signal due to Ti(2p) and S(2p) corresponding to TiS$_2$ bonding (figure S1). The atomic composition calculated from the XP spectra is found to be Ti$_{0.32}$S$_{0.68}$ and the composition is almost similar irrespective of the underlying substrate.

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between the c-sapphire and stainless steel substrates. The stainless steel is polycrystalline and rougher compared to the single crystalline c-sapphire.

Cross-section TEM is used to comprehend the crystalline growth pattern of the TiS$_2$ films on the c-sapphire substrate. Prior to TEM characterization, the films are mechanically polished for acquiring higher quality images. Low magnification TEM image in figure 3(a) confirms the layered growth of TiS$_2$ film on c-sapphire. At many places, film is observed to grow away from the film-substrate interface, creating a network-like structure of varying thickness 5 to 20 nm which can be seen in figure 3(b). High-resolution transmission electron microscope (HRTEM) images show that the TiS$_2$ is polycrystalline or amorphous on the substrate, approximately up to 5 to 10 nm and then the van der Waals layers are formed above that (figure 3(c)). The number of layers vary from place to place, approximately 10 to 15 layers with the interlayer distance of 5.7 Å. Figure 3(d) corresponds to the fast Fourier transform (FFT) of substrate, interface and layers together. The epitaxial relationship is $\langle 0001 \rangle$ TiS$_2$ $\parallel$ $\langle 0001 \rangle$ Al$_2$O$_3$ and $\langle 10\bar{1}0 \rangle$ Al$_2$O$_3$ $\parallel$ $\langle 10\bar{1}0 \rangle$ TiS$_2$. In figure S3(a), we clearly see vertical growth of TiS$_2$ network away from the substrate interface which is consisted with FESEM studies. Figure S3(b) shows polycrystalline regions of TiS$_2$ from the substrate surface. Figure S4 depicts the FFTs patterns generated from the different regions of figure S3(b).
3.2. Li\(^{+}\) and Na\(^{+}\) intercalation-deintercalation in TiS\(_2\)

Figure 4 depicts the cyclic voltammograms with regard to Li-ion and Na-ion intercalation and deintercalation in TiS\(_2\). The voltammograms show signatures corresponding to the formation of a full range of solid solutions of LixTiS\(_2\) (0 < x < 1) due to the lithiation and delithiation. The potential window of (0.5–3.0) V is selected to avoid the conversion reaction: LiTiS\(_2\) + 3Li\(^{+}\) + 3e\(^{-}\) → 2Li\(_2\)S + Ti which is supposed to be dominant process at voltages lower than 0.5 V\(^{[29]}\). Figure 4(a) for LiPF\(_6\) in EC:DMC depicts a complex and multi-step lithiation process are observed. Four prominent lithiation peaks at 2.01, 1.41, 1.20 and 0.73 V are observed, whereas only two de-lithiation peaks are observed at 1.85 and 2.53 V.

However, a different Li-ion intercalation behavior is observed with LiClO\(_4\) salt (figure 4(b)). Two distinct lithiation peaks at 1.30 and 0.69 V and de-lithiation peaks at 1.88 and 0.95 V are observed in the 1st cycle. In the
subsequent cycles, the intensity of the lithiation peaks decreases to a greater extent than the delithiation peaks. The magnitude of peak current however, in the two Li-salts are nearly the same. For Na$^+$-ion intercalation, employing NaClO$_4$ in 1:1 EC:DMC the cathodic peaks are observed to be same as in case of LiPF$_6$ in EC:DMC. Here, the high voltage peak at 2.07 V appear from the second cycle onwards (figure 4(c)).

The corresponding anodic peak at 2.27 V is clearly visible from the First cycle itself. The intercalation mechanism of Li$^+$ and Na$^+$-ions, irrespective of salt and solvent selection, is attributed to the relatively weakly binding interlayer forces as well as the amenability of the Ti$^{4+}$ centers to reduce to Ti$^{3+}$. Published reports of Na$^+$-ion intercalation in to TiS$_2$ suggests the appearance of two prominent peaks positioned at 2.07 and 1.35 V. Consistency of the observations reported here with published reports suggests the formation of two different phases upon Na$^+$-ion insertion: NaxTiS$_2$, (where $x = 0 < x < 0.4$) and Na$_y$TiS$_2$ ($y = 0.4 < y < 0.8$) [11]. The Na$^+$-ion intercalation also involves prismatic co-ordination which eventually results into two distinct regions assigned to Na$^+$ -ion intercalation.

Interestingly the subsequent cycles show stable behaviour with no trace of the 0.84 V sodiation peak. The magnitude of peak current however, in the two Li-salts are nearly the same. For Na$^+$-ion intercalation, employing NaClO$_4$ in 1:1 EC:DMC the cathodic peaks are observed to be same as in case of LiPF$_6$ in EC:DMC. Here, the high voltage peak at 2.07 V appear from the second cycle onwards (figure 4(c)).

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Interestingly the subsequent cycles show stable behaviour with no trace of the 0.84 V sodiation peak. Formation of a homogenous solid solution with intercalating ions is typically reflected via the observation of a smooth sloping voltage plateau in the discharge/charge profile. In present study, sloping voltage plateau is observed with the Li$^+$ and Na$^+$-ion intercalation/de-intercalation phenomenon in TiS$_2$, figure 5(a–d). In the first cycle additionally, a small flat plateau region is observed. In non-layered materials, this has been assigned to 1st order phase transition. However, in present case of layered TiS$_2$, where formation of solid solutions is predominant [7], the presence of plateau region around 0.7 V in discharge step is due to the formation of a stable solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) at the electrode surface, which remains intact in the subsequent cycles. The plateau is observed to be more prominent in the first cycle for the alumina coated TiS$_2$ sample with the LiPF$_6$ based electrolyte (figure 5(d)). This suggests that SEI formation is more feasible in the presence of alumina coating. Additionally it allows breathing space in the intrinsic structure following the intercalation of ions. Also, huge irreversible capacity ($\approx 375$ mAh g$^{-1}$) is obtained in alumina coated sample in first discharge step. With regard to the Na$^+$-ion

![Figure 5](image-url)

**Figure 5.** Galvanostatic discharge-charge profiles for TiS$_2$ with (a) 1 M LiPF$_6$ versus Li metal, (b) 1 M LiClO$_4$ versus Li metal, (c) 1 M NaClO$_4$ versus Na metal and (d) alumina-coated TiS$_2$ with LiPF$_6$ versus Li metal with 100 mA g$^{-1}$ current density in potential range of (0.5–3.0) V starting with cathodic scan first.
intercalation, irreversible loss in capacity is much less compared to the Li\(^+\) counterparts. This suggests that the presumed SEI formation for a Na\(^+\)-ion-based system is less compared to that for Li\(^+\)-ion based system.

For all the above, the 1st cycle specific capacity obtained are much higher than the reported values. In our earlier studies on MoS\(_2\) samples prepared by the same ALD technique, capacity higher than the theoretical values were reported [29]. This was attributed to the activation of more number of surface adsorption sites which results in a higher degree reversible intercalation with the alkali-ion leading to higher charge-energy storage. In the present study, we have also restricted the lower potential limit to 0.5 V so as to completely eliminate the contributions from conversion reaction of electrode. With LiPF\(_6\) based electrolyte (figure 5(a)), the first cycle charge capacity is more suggesting increased oxidation of electrolyte at the TiS\(_2\) surface and hence SEI formation at the TiS\(_2\) electrode will be feasible. For LiClO\(_4\) based electrolyte, the first cycle discharge capacity is the highest. However, a higher irreversible capacity loss is observed which can be assigned to the higher salt decomposition and probably a thicker SEI.

The discharge - charge cycling behavior at different current values has also been performed. It is observed that the efficiency of discharge—charge cycles at slower current rate is less as compared to the high current rate values (figure 5S). The cells, however, could not be run at higher current values due to the fact that the thin films employed here have very less active materials, in micrograms range. On decreasing back to the initial lower current values, the capacity values measured earlier could be retracted back.

Following the studies related to the intercalation-deintercalation of Li\(^+\) and Na\(^+\)-ions in TiS\(_2\) host lattice, we now turn our attention to the study of intercalation mechanism and diffusion kinetics in TiS\(_2\). As discussed in the introduction, two methods have been adopted to calculate the diffusion coefficient of Li\(^+\) and Na\(^+\)-ions in TiS\(_2\). These are detailed in the subsequent section.

3.3. Determination of the Li/Na ion diffusion coefficient by GITT method

The TiS\(_2\) electrode in coin cell configuration is first equilibrated by carrying out four cycles of discharge and charge as shown in figure 6. The \(D_{Li^+}\) values calculated from GITT method for TiS\(_2\) in LiPF\(_6\) based electrolyte is \(2.14 \times 10^{-13}\) cm\(^2\) s\(^{-1}\). Changing over from LiPF\(_6\) to LiClO\(_4\), the \(D_{Li^+}\) remains the same strongly suggesting that the same electrochemical intercalation behavior of Li\(^+\) even in the presence of different anions. In the case of the Na-salt, the \(D_{Na^+}\) is estimated to be \(2.01 \times 10^{-13}\) cm\(^2\) s\(^{-1}\), which is almost same as \(D_{Li^+}\). However, the alumina coated sample show a drastic decrease in \(D_{Li^+}\), equal to \(0.354 \times 10^{-13}\) cm\(^2\) s\(^{-1}\). The alumina coating may contribute towards the stability in the charge and discharge states by forming stable SEI however, prevents further diffusion of the ions. The origin of this barrier results in extended SEI formation as observed in First discharge cycle in figure 5(d).

As witnessed by \textit{insitu} and \textit{exsitu} characterization techniques lithium intercalation is further complicated by ordering of lithium ion causing nonuniform lattice expansion in subsequent intercalation process [30]. Hence, we move towards the EIS method where diffusion behavior can be monitored at different intercalation-deintercalation potentials and will provide better insight.

3.4. Determination of the Li/Na ion diffusion coefficient by the EIS method using Warburg impedance

Electrochemical impedance spectra are recorded at different states of charge for TiS\(_2\) in 1 M LiPF\(_6\) based electrolyte is shown in figure 7(a). Prior to the recording of the impedance data, the samples are equilibrated at its open circuit potential value for 4 h. The charge transfer resistance (\(R_{ct}\)) calculated from the impedance data makes an interesting comparison with the lithiation plateau obtained in figure 5(a) (also in inset of figure 7(b)). On approaching the first lithiation plateau (=1.45 V), \(R_{ct}\) values drops to lower than that calculated at OCP. The \(R_{ct}\) value increases further with decrease in voltage till the next lithiation process at 0.81 V and drops again and with slight increase at the terminating cathodic potential (=0.5 V). It can be proposed that on approaching the
lithiation potential, the impedance decreases suggesting higher ability of the host to accept Li\(^+\) ions. This also infers the spontaneous nature of lithiation in TiS\(_2\). Chemical lithiation is very facile for TiS\(_2\) suggesting very small or no change in the stabilization energy of the non-lithiated and lithiated states leading to the solid solution formation. The impedance data shows a second semicircle in the low frequency regime for few of the equilibrated lithiation potentials (2.03, 0.88, 0.76 and 0.50 V). This suggests the simultaneous presence of lithiated and unlithiated phases leading to the formation of solid solution in successive potential steps. The range of EIS spectra in the lower frequency range where the lithiation is assumed to be diffusion controlled is used for the calculation of the diffusion coefficient. The Warburg impedance \(Z_W\) in the low frequency diffusion-controlled region is plotted as in figure 7(c) as a function of \(\omega^{-1/2}\) at different state of charges (SOCs). The slope value is used to calculate the diffusion coefficient by employing the equation as described in experimental section.

The coulombic titration curve of potential versus \(x\) (Ti\(_{1-x}\)S\(_2\), \(x = 0\) to 1.0) is used to calculate the value of \(dE_{oc}/dx\) and for example is found to be 0.82 for LiPF\(_6\) based electrolyte. The diffusion coefficient (D\(_{Li^+}\)) calculated from this method lies in the range 9.50 \(\times\) 10\(^{-16}\) to 1.45 \(\times\) 10\(^{-12}\) cm\(^2\) s\(^{-1}\) with the potential changing from 3.01 to 0.5 V. By similar calculation Na\(^+\) intercalation in TiS\(_2\) (with NaClO\(_4\) in EC:DMC electrolyte) yielded a diffusion coefficient (D\(_{Na^+}\)) range of 7.30 \(\times\) 10\(^{-17}\) to 3.93 \(\times\) 10\(^{-13}\) cm\(^2\) s\(^{-1}\) in the voltage range from 1.91 to 0.56 V (corresponding plots are given in figure S6).

It is to be noted that at \(\approx 1.5\) V potential, where the \(R_c\) value is minimum for Li\(^+\) ion in LiPF\(_6\) based electrolyte, the calculated D\(_{Li^+}\) is highest, strongly suggesting the correlation of internal impedance with feasibility of Li\(^+\) -ion diffusion in the layered structure. For Na\(^+\) -ion diffusion however, D\(_{Na^+}\) versus sodiation potential do not follow the same trend as the \(R_c\) versus sodiation potential. As highlighted in the literature,
structure and chemical composition of layered materials significantly affect the alkali metal-ion transport and intercalation behavior. It has been observed that heavier alkali metals prefer either an octahedral or trigonal prismatic lattice site unlike Li⁺ which preferably occupy octahedral sites [6, 31]. In the case of Na⁺-ion intercalation, sodiation in a controlled manner occurs only in alternate layers of TiS₂. Otherwise, random sodiation will lead to a two phase region [14]. At lower Na⁺-ion concentrations trigonal prismatic lattice site is preferred whereas at higher Na⁺-ion concentration (and with decreasing sodiation potential) the more stable octahedral sites are occupied. In present study, both Rct and DNa⁺ values deduced from the impedance plot for alumina coated TiS₂ also suggest the increased impedance as the Na⁺-ion concentration trigonal prismatic lattice site is

On the other hand, the DNa⁺ values for LiPF₆ and NaClO₄, and in alumina coated TiS₂ with for Li⁺-ion diffusion throughout the lithiated state of TiS₂. The TiS₂ coated with Li⁺-ion diffusion coefﬁcient values are different from the measured by Cottrell equation [32] (DLi⁺ = 0.4 to 4.0 × 10⁻⁹ and DNa⁺ = 0.3 to 3.2 × 10⁻⁹ cm² s⁻¹) in which the separation of chemical and charge diffusion coefﬁcient is not feasible. However, observed trend in diffusion coefﬁcient in present study is strongly alkali ion diffusion dependent.

4. Conclusion

In the present study we have used thin ﬁlm TiS₂ electrode to investigate alkali ion (Li⁺ and Na⁺) intercalation/de-intercalation behavior. The ﬁlms grown by an optimized ALD fabrication process on a suitable substrate are without any binder and carbon additives. Intercalation of Li⁺ and Na⁺-ion are observed to be different which are clearly evident from the cyclic voltammetry measurements. The diffusion coefﬁcient, calculated by GITT, is found to be same for Li⁺ and Na⁺-ion in the TiS₂ structure. The impedance analysis at different discharge potentials reveal a strong dependence on the intercalating ion, Li⁺ or Na⁺-ion and a correlation between Rct values with discharge potential has been established. The diffusion coefﬁcients calculated from Warburg impedance is maximum for Li⁺-ion diffusion throughout the lithiated state of TiS₂. The TiS₂ coated with alumina results in a stable SEI formation. However, the Li⁺-ion diffusion coefﬁcient is signiﬁcantly lower leading to lower 1st cycle speciﬁc capacity and large irreversible capacity loss.
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ORCID iDs

Farheen N Sayed https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5700-5959
M B Sreedhara https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4925-4346
Ranjan Datta https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8553-3724
Aninda J Bhattacharyya https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0736-0004
C N R Rao https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4088-0615

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