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In situ TEM observation of the electrochemical lithiation of N-doped anatase TiO₂ nanotubes as anodes for lithium-ion batteries†

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Due to their high specific capacity and negligible volume expansion during cycling, anatase titanium dioxide (a-TiO₂) nanotubes have been considered as a prime candidate for anodes in lithium-ion batteries. However, their rate capability for electrochemical cycling is limited by the low electronic conductivity of a-TiO₂ nanotubes. Here, we show that a desirable amount of nitrogen doping can significantly enhance the electronic conductivity in a-TiO₂ nanotubes, resulting in improvements in both the capacity stability and the rate capability at fast charge–discharge rates. Electron energy loss spectroscopy revealed a high doping concentration of nitrogen (~5%) by substituting for oxygen ions in a-TiO₂ nanotubes. The lithiation mechanism of N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes was further investigated using *in situ* transmission electron microscopy, where a three-step lithiation mechanism was revealed. Lithium ions initially intercalate into the a-TiO₂ lattice structure. Further insertion of lithium ions triggers a phase transformation from a-TiO₂ to orthorhombic Li_{0.5}TiO₂ and finally to polycrystalline tetragonal LiTiO₂. Our results reveal that nitrogen doping significantly facilitates lithiation in TiO₂ through enhanced electronic conductivity, while the structural and chemical evolutions during the lithiation process remain similar to those of undoped TiO₂.

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Introduction

Lithium-ion batteries are one of the most promising energy storage systems for next-generation portable electronic devices and electric vehicles due to their high energy density and power density and long cycle life.^{1,2} However, numerous challenges for commercial lithium-ion batteries, such as safety and rate capability, still remain. One of the prime limitations originates from the low discharge potential (below 1 V vs. Li⁺/Li⁰) of carbon-based anodes, which results in electrolyte decomposition and gas evolution during cell cycling. The electrolyte decomposition and gas evolution cause numerous safety problems when batteries overheat.^{3,4} Also, the formation of insoluble Li-containing passivating layers on the surface of carbon-based

anodes, referred to as the solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) layer, is a major issue during electrochemical cycling of lithium-ion batteries.³ As a result, industries and researchers continuously search for ideal anode materials for lithium-ion batteries with higher specific capacities, faster kinetics, and superior safety for lithium storage than the currently used graphite anodes.^{5–7}

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is one of the candidates to replace carbon-based anodes in lithium-ion batteries, thanks to its high specific capacities (around 200–300 mA h g^{−1}) and improved safety performance (high discharge plateau potential around 1.5–1.8 V versus lithium) due to the suppression of SEI formation.^{8–11} However, electrodes based on TiO₂ suffer from poor electronic conductivity and low Li⁺ diffusivity, limiting their rate performance for application in high power appliances. Chemical doping has been previously found as a facile and effective way to improve the rate performance of TiO₂.^{12,13} Wang *et al.* have shown that the conductivity of TiO₂ can be enhanced by 2 orders of magnitude by doping with Nb.¹² Tin-doped TiO₂ nanotubes deliver much better rate performance compared to undoped TiO₂ nanotubes. This outstanding rate capability was proposed to be related to the enhanced lithium diffusivity.¹³ As such, nitrogen doping is also an effective strategy for improving the rate performance of TiO₂.^{14,15} A discharge capacity of 45 mA h g^{−1} has been obtained at the 15C rate for N-doped TiO₂, which was 80% higher than that of pure TiO₂.¹⁴ The electronic

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conductivity of TiO₂ was also improved by N doping, which substantially improves the rate capability of TiO₂.¹⁵

Another strategy to improve the rate performance of TiO₂ is to decrease the particle size through the design of nanostructured materials which can facilitate Li⁺ diffusion by shortening the Li⁺ insertion/extraction pathway.^{16–18} For example, Armstrong *et al.* demonstrated that TiO₂ nanowires possess a better rate capability when compared to bulk TiO₂.¹⁶ Similarly, TiO₂ nanosheets were demonstrated to provide a shorter diffusion distance for Li⁺ and are beneficial for the rate performance of the electrode.¹⁷ In particular, TiO₂ nanotubes have been widely explored as anodes for lithium-ion batteries due to the significantly shortened Li⁺ diffusion length and an enhanced tolerance to potential volume expansion during cycling.^{19,20} TiO₂ nanotubes exhibit excellent high rate performances and their capacity retention at the 10C rate is 74%, compared to that at a rate of 0.5C.¹⁹ TiO₂ nanotube arrays also present good cycling behavior, with capacities between 150 and 230 mA h g⁻¹ and a small drop in capacity up to 200 cycles.²⁰

Many synthetic methods have been explored to produce TiO₂ nanotubes, namely the chemical template synthesis,²¹ the alkaline thermal method,²² and different electrochemical approaches.^{23,24} Electrochemical techniques are some of the most controllable and inexpensive methods to produce TiO₂ nanotube arrays. For instance, we have shown that TiO₂ nanotubes can be synthesized through a technique based on electrochemical anodization, which produced TiO₂ nanotubes with an average length of ~1.5 μm and controllable thicknesses between 80 and 150 nm.²⁵ These nanotube arrays were demonstrated as effective anodes for lithium-ion batteries. In this work, we integrate both N-doping and a nanotube architecture to demonstrate a further enhanced capacity and stability at fast charge–discharge rates in anatase TiO₂ (a-TiO₂). Various TiO₂ nanotubes ranging from 20 to 100 nm in diameter and up to several micrometers in length were synthesized. In addition, a high concentration of nitrogen doping was successfully achieved by annealing the a-TiO₂ nanotubes under flowing ammonia gas.

Although intense research efforts, including that of both *in situ* spectroscopy and powder X-ray/neutron diffraction on lithium insertion into pristine TiO₂, have been reported,^{26,27} the influence of N-doping in a-TiO₂ nanotubes still remains an open question. In particular, the lithiation mechanism, including chemical, structural, and electronic evolutions, has not been well understood for N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes. *In situ* methods based on spectroscopy, scanning probe microscopy (SPM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), neutron diffraction, and X-ray diffraction (XRD) have provided useful information regarding the structural evolution of different electrode materials during the operation of a battery. However, these methods normally have limited spatial resolution. Recently, *in situ* transmission electron microscopy (TEM) techniques have been explored for monitoring different electrochemical reactions of nanostructures in a variety of novel lithium battery electrode materials since *in situ* TEM techniques have superior spatial resolution, which allows for direct observation of dynamic processes occurring in anode materials.^{28,29}

Herein, we report our successful design and synthesis of N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes and their electrochemical performance in lithium half-cells. Unlike the previous report,³⁰ the designed N-doped a-TiO₂ exhibits excellent rate performance (discharge capacity is around 100 mA h g⁻¹ at 10C rate) without carbon based composites such as graphene nanosheets. Furthermore, *in situ* TEM studies elucidate the electrochemical lithiation mechanism of N-doped TiO₂ nanotubes, and electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) was conducted to better ascertain the changes in chemical and electronic properties. This study not only shows that a-TiO₂ nanotubes with a high concentration of substitutional nitrogen exhibit excellent electrochemical performance as an anode material for lithium-ion batteries, but also elucidates the comprehensive structural and phase transformations of TiO₂ upon lithiation of N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes.

Experimental

Materials, synthesis of a-TiO₂ nanotubes, and characterization

Titanium foils (99.5%, Alfa Aesar), with a thickness of 0.25 mm, were cut to 1 cm × 5 cm and cleaned for 5 min in deionized water, 5 min in ethanol, and 5 min in acetone by ultrasonication. Then, each substrate was dried under a constant flow of air. A two-electrode electrochemical cell with a platinum cathode was used to anodize Ti foils in an electrolyte solution containing 0.1 M NH₄F (99%, J.T. Baker Inc.), 90 mL of ethylene glycol (99+%, Alfa Aesar), and 10 mL of deionized water. The temperature of the electrolyte solution was maintained at 15 °C using a chiller. The electrochemical anodization of Ti foils was carried out using a Keithley 2612 source meter (Keithley Instruments). Anodized titanium nanotube arrays were post-annealed at 300–350 °C for 30 min while flowing a 4% H₂ in Ar gas mixture followed by annealing at 550 °C for 30 min while flowing ammonia (NH₃) gas to achieve N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes. Initial TEM analysis was carried out using a Hitachi HF-3300 TEM/STEM with an energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometer at 300 kV to confirm the sample homogeneity and morphology.

Electrochemical performance

Two-electrode electrochemical test cells were assembled in an Ar-filled glovebox using a-TiO₂ nanotubes on titanium foil as the working electrode and metallic lithium foil as the counter/reference electrode. The nanotubes on the opposite side of the titanium foil were removed to ensure good contact between the electrode and the current collector. All electrochemical tests were conducted with an electrolyte solution consisting of 1 M LiPF₆ in ethylene carbonate (EC)/dimethyl carbonate (DMC) (1 : 1 by volume) without the use of binders or conductive carbon. The active mass of the nanotubes was estimated by collecting the a-TiO₂ from one side of the titanium foil and assuming a symmetric mass distribution during the synthesis of a-TiO₂. Battery cells consisting of a-TiO₂ were charged/discharged galvanostatically at room temperature under different rates at potentials ranging between 1 V and 2.5 V using an Arbin Instruments potentiostat/galvanostat multichannel

system. Impedance spectra were recorded in the frequency range 10^5 –0.1 Hz with a signal amplitude of 10 mV using a VersaSTAT 4 Potentiostat (Princeton Applied Research) attached to an internal frequency response analyzer.

In situ TEM setup

In situ TEM characterization was carried out on an aberration-corrected FEI Titan 80/300 microscope equipped with a Gatan Quantum ER EELS spectrometer. EELS spectra were acquired with a collection semi-angle of 50 mrad, and each spectrum presented in this paper is the sum of 40 spectra. For the case of the present work, to minimize the effect of the electron beam on the sample, the beam was blocked during the charging process. During the imaging, the electron dose to the a-TiO₂ nanotubes was minimized by spreading the electron beam over large areas. Therefore, the electron beam modification of the general microstructure presented in the paper is at a minimum.

All *in situ* TEM experiments utilized a specialized holder (Nanofactory Instruments) that allowed for the creation of a nanoscale electrochemical cell inside the TEM.³¹ The holder features two metallic probes that can be moved *via* piezo control. One side of the electrochemical cell consists of a tungsten probe where lithium metal is dispersed on the tip. The lithium metal is coated with a thin layer of lithium oxide after being intentionally exposed to air for several seconds. The other side of the TEM holder contains a gold probe, where a copper grid with a collection of N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes was attached. To begin the *in situ* TEM experiment, the lithium metal electrode was positioned so that it came into contact with the a-TiO₂ nanotubes. The oxide layer on the surface of the lithium metal prevents direct chemical reactions and acts as a solid electrolyte layer through which lithium ions can pass. The TiO₂ electrode was set at 2.5 V *versus* the lithium electrode to simulate true electrochemical processes in an electrochemical cell that include a-TiO₂ nanotubes at the anode. The applied overpotential is larger than the electrochemical window (1–2 V) of a conventional TiO₂–Li half-cell, which enables Li⁺ diffusion through the Li₂O layer. Once Li⁺ ions reach the a-TiO₂ nanotubes, the electrochemical reaction does not directly depend on the battery setup. In other words, the voltage applied to the nanotubes in this setup equals the applied potential (2.5 V) minus the potential drop in the Li₂O electrolyte

and the IR drop due to contact resistance. This makes the lithiation behavior observed in this work comparable to the macroscopic performance of the battery.

Results and discussion

Fig. 1a shows a representative TEM image of N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes. As shown in this image, nitrogen doping appears to have little effect on the morphology of a-TiO₂ nanotubes. The N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes have a typical inner diameter of about 80–90 nm with a wall thickness of about 20 nm and were up to several micrometers in length. Furthermore, EELS reveals uniform N-doping throughout the a-TiO₂ nanotubes. Fig. 1b shows a typical nitrogen K-edge of a-TiO₂ nanotubes after nitrogen doping. The concentration of nitrogen in a-TiO₂ was further quantified to be ~7 atomic % by comparing the edge integrations of the nitrogen K-edge and the titanium L-edge, representing the highest reported nitrogen content for N-doped TiO₂. Furthermore, the change in oxygen content of the N-doped nanotubes was estimated by using EELS quantification to compare the elemental ratios in N-doped and undoped TiO₂ samples, as shown in Fig. S1.† It was revealed that the oxygen content decreased by around 10 atomic % after nitrogen doping, indicating partial substitution of oxygen with nitrogen.

The typical charge/discharge curves of the a-TiO₂ nanotubes with and without nitrogen doping are shown in Fig. 2a. The capacity increased from 150 to 200 mA h g⁻¹ (corresponding to an increase of 0.15 moles of Li during lithiation per mole of TiO₂) after nitrogen doping at the same charge/discharge rate (0.1C). To further investigate the electrochemical properties of the pure and N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotube electrodes, the rate capability was tested for each of these materials (Fig. 2b). It can be seen that the capacity of the pure a-TiO₂ nanotubes decreased from 150 to 25 mA h g⁻¹ when the charge/discharge rate increased from 0.1C to 10C. For N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes, the capacity only decreased from 200 mA h g⁻¹ to 100 mA h g⁻¹ under the same conditions. The anatase structure of pure TiO₂ is maintained in the nitrogen-doped nanotubes due to the low doping levels. Overall, the electrochemical performance of N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes has been significantly improved when compared with that of pure a-TiO₂ tubes. The enhanced

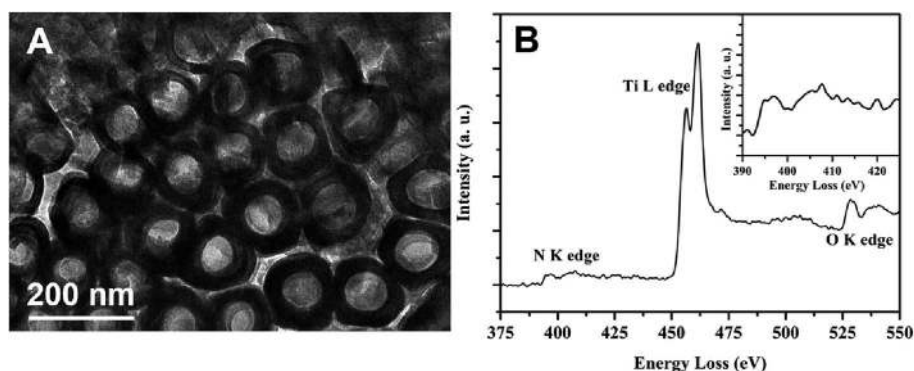


Fig. 1 (A) TEM image of N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes. (B) EELS spectrum of N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes with the nitrogen K-edge as the inset.

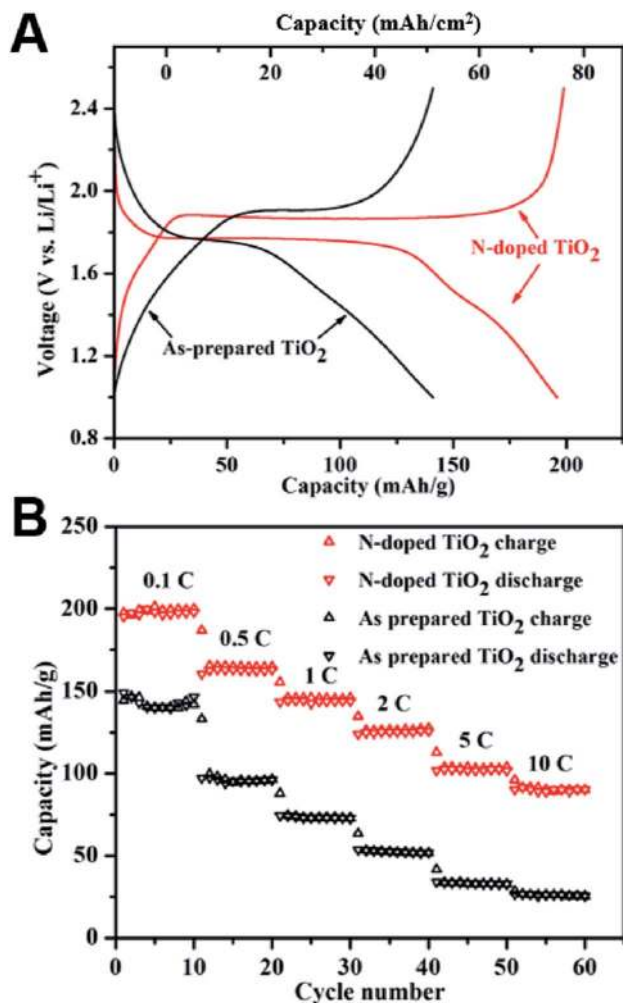


Fig. 2 (A) Room temperature charge/discharge curves at C/10 for a-TiO₂ nanotubes with and without nitrogen-doping. (B) Cycling and rate performance of a-TiO₂ nanotubes with and without nitrogen-doping. All electrochemical measurements were completed in a coin cell configuration.

charge/discharge properties in N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes are related to the electronic properties due to nitrogen doping. To understand the effects of nitrogen doping on the electronic properties, electrochemical impedance spectra were recorded for pure a-TiO₂ nanotube and N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotube electrodes. Fig. S2† shows the Nyquist plots of TiO₂ nanotube arrays at the open-circuit potential as well as the corresponding equivalent circuit to fit the plots. R_s is the electrolyte resistance while R_{sei} and R_{ct} correspond to the resistances of the solid electrolyte interface (SEI) and the charge transfer resistance, respectively. The R_s , R_{sei} and R_{ct} values for pure a-TiO₂ nanotubes are 21.9, 3.7 and 45.4 Ω cm², respectively. The ohmic resistances of R_s , R_{sei} and R_{ct} decrease to 8.4, 3.2, and 36.3 Ω cm² for N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes, respectively. It should be noted that no additives such as binders or carbon black were used in the fabrication of the coin cells for battery testing, which indicates that the total ohmic resistance of the coin cell is determined by the conductivity of the nanotube layers. This result

shows that nitrogen doping is an effective way to improve the electrical conductivity of a-TiO₂. Oxygen vacancies are introduced into a-TiO₂ nanotubes due to nitrogen doping to maintain charge neutrality. Oxygen defects or vacancies can act as electron acceptors in the material, which can also be responsible for the observed improvement in electrical conductivity.³²

In situ TEM was then applied to further understand the detailed morphological changes and structural transformations upon lithiation in N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes. Fig. 3a and b show the bright-field TEM images of an individual N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotube before and after complete lithiation, respectively. The pristine N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes have an inner diameter of about 85 nm and the wall thickness of the marked nanotube is about 21 nm. After lithiation, the inner diameter of the tube increased to 89 nm and the thickness of the wall increased to 23 nm, which corresponds to ~6% expansion in the radial direction after lithiation of the a-TiO₂ nanotube. In the previous *in situ* TEM study of pure TiO₂ nanotubes, the inner diameter of the nanotube remained unchanged (see Fig. S3†) because of the limited electronic conductivity of pure TiO₂ without nitrogen doping.³³ Furthermore, an overpotential as high as 4 V was applied to initiate the lithiation process in the previous work. All of these phenomena may be a consequence of the different electrical conductivities in doped and undoped TiO₂ nanotubes. Although it is difficult to directly measure the elongation of each nanotube with the current *in situ* setup, the overall volume expansion for the N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotube can be estimated based on the geometry. The overall volume expansion is dependent on the ratios of S_f/S_i and l_f/l_i , where S is the area of the circular base of the tube and l is the length of the tube. In Fig. 3, the ratio of S_f/S_i of the nanotube is only 0.0036. Therefore, the overall volume expansion for the a-TiO₂ tube is within 3%, which is consistent with recent *ex situ* studies.^{34,35}

HRTEM images of the a-TiO₂ nanotubes before and after lithiation are displayed in Fig. 3c and d. The pristine N-doped TiO₂ nanotube has a pure anatase phase. After lithiation, a thin layer is formed on the outside surface of the a-TiO₂ nanotube measuring about 10 nm, which is marked by the black dashed lines. A close examination of the lithiated a-TiO₂ nanotubes indicates that the surface layer is composed of polycrystalline Li₂O. The upper left inset of Fig. 3d shows the FFT from the surface region with (111) and (220) indexed planes, which correspond to the Li₂O phase. In our studies, we did not see clear evidence of the formation of the Li₂O layer inside the nanotube. This result is not difficult to understand: the formation of this Li₂O layer is likely attributed to lithium ions reacting with residual oxidic groups on the surface of the a-TiO₂ nanotubes.³⁶ During *in situ* TEM experiments, the solid electrolyte is the component that directly contacts with nanotube outer surface only. The chance for the inner surface to create a layer of oxide requests the Li ions to travel to the inner surface under certain local potentials. Once Li ions diffuse throughout the outside surface of the nanotubes, intercalation reactions occur, resulting in a smaller accumulation of free Li ions on the inner surface of the nanotubes. In comparison, the formation of an oxide layer on the outer surface is much easier because (1) the direct contact between the N-doped TiO₂ outer surface and solid electrolyte lowers surface layer

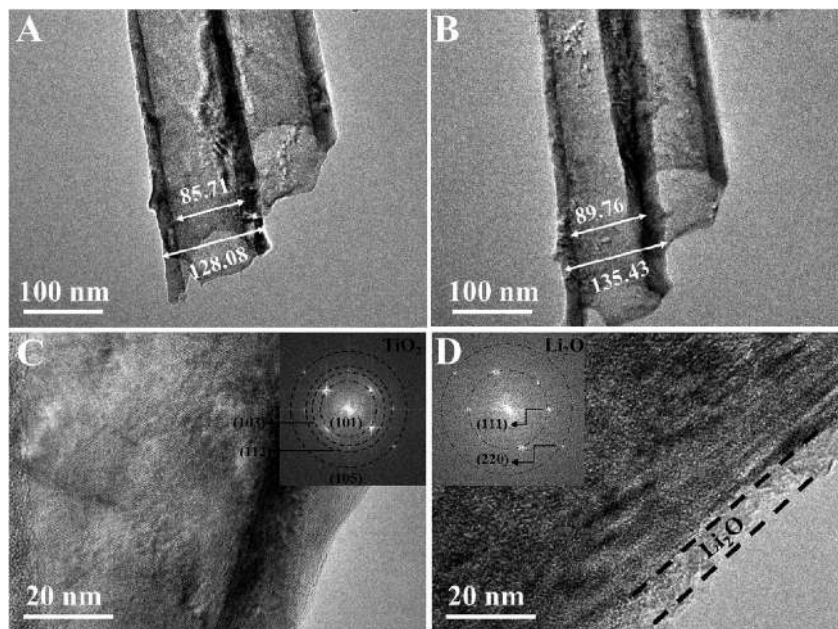


Fig. 3 Bright-field TEM images of an individual N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotube (A) before lithiation and (B) after complete lithiation displaying clear volume expansion. HRTEM images of an individual N-doped TiO₂ nanotube (C) before lithiation and (D) after lithiation showing the formation of a Li₂O layer. The insets are the corresponding FFT patterns from the a-TiO₂ nanotube surface region.

formation potential, and (2) a partial Li₂O layer on the Li metal tip can potentially migrate to the outer surface of the nanotubes. Therefore, we believe that the formation of a Li₂O layer on the inner surface of the nanotubes is limited.

To further reveal transformations in the N-doped anatase TiO₂ microstructure during lithiation, *in situ* TEM images of an individual a-TiO₂ nanotube were collected at different time points during the lithiation process (Fig. 4). The inset of Fig. 4a shows

the FFT from the bulk region where the pattern can be indexed to a mixture of anatase TiO₂ (*I*₄₁/*amd*) and orthorhombic Li_{0.5}TiO₂ (*Imma*). This observation illustrates the first phase transition where anatase TiO₂ and orthorhombic Li_{0.5}TiO₂ coexist. This observation also demonstrates the possibility of Li⁺ intercalation into a-TiO₂ at the very beginning of the lithiation process. The presence of Li_{0.5}TiO₂ occurs at the main plateau around 1.75 V in the typical charge/discharge curve. The original a-TiO₂ phase

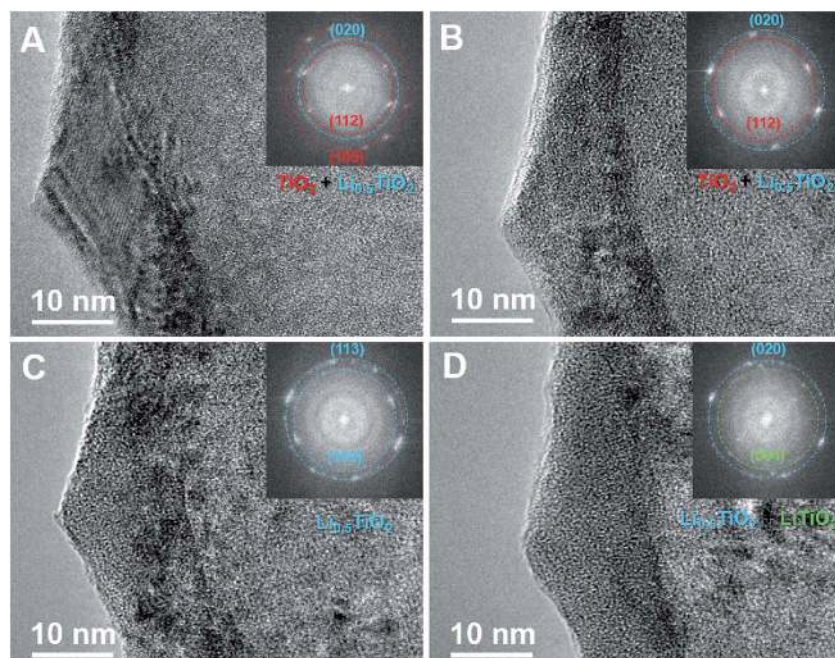


Fig. 4 (A–D) TEM images taken during *in situ* lithiation of an individual N-doped TiO₂ nanotube. The insets correspond to FFT patterns from the bulk region of the a-TiO₂ nanotube.

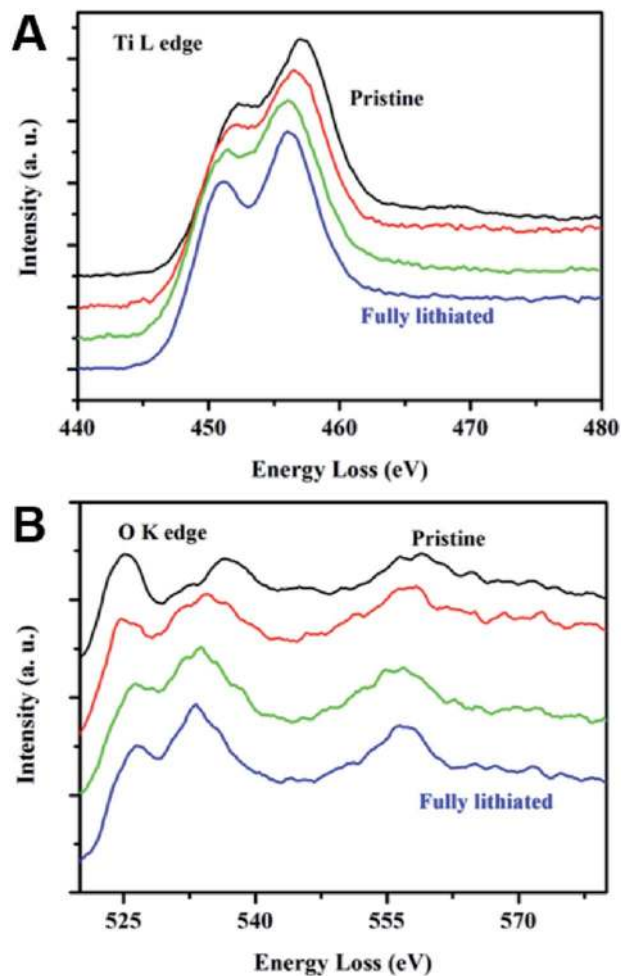


Fig. 5 (A) Titanium L-edge and (B) oxygen K-edge of N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes at different stages during the lithiation process.

gradually transforms to the orthorhombic Li_{0.5}TiO₂ phase until all of the material becomes Li_{0.5}TiO₂ (Fig. 4b and c) towards the end of the constant voltage plateau. After this first transition, lithium is further inserted into Li_{0.5}TiO₂, causing the structure to evolve from orthorhombic Li_{0.5}TiO₂ to tetragonal LiTiO₂ (*I4₁/amd*) as shown in Fig. 4d. This second transition corresponds to the dip in the charge/discharge curve at around 1.4 V *versus* Li/Li⁺. Compared with the pristine a-TiO₂, the LiTiO₂ phase is polycrystalline with Li⁺ fully occupying the octahedral sites. Due to the better electrical conductivity of N-doped TiO₂ nanotubes, Li ions can intercalate deep into the interior structure of the nanotubes, which makes the lithiation process more complete. As a result, all three phases, including anatase TiO₂ (*I4₁/amd*), orthorhombic Li_{0.5}TiO₂ (*Imma*), and tetragonal LiTiO₂ (*I4₁/amd*), were well captured in our study. These two phase transitions are also consistent with a previous study by Lafont *et al.*²⁶ In their work, TiO₂ nanoparticles were used to investigate the lithiation mechanism through *in situ* XRD and XAS. Additionally, different TiO₂ microstructures, such as nanowires and nanosheets, were also demonstrated to be beneficial for the rate performance of the TiO₂ electrode with a similar lithiation process observed in our study.^{16,17}

EELS was conducted on the N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotube at different lithiation steps to investigate chemical changes during lithiation. Fig. 5a shows the EELS of the titanium L-edge in the nanotube before and after lithiation. The main feature of the titanium L-edge is splitting into 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} levels, which is a result of the transition from 2p_{3/2} to 3d_{3/2} and 3d_{5/2} and from 2p_{1/2} to 3d_{3/2}, respectively. The energy loss position of this peak is sensitive to the valence of titanium. After lithiation, the positions of these two energy levels shift to a lower energy region, indicating that the valence of Ti⁴⁺ reduces to Ti³⁺, which is consistent with the observation of the structural transformations from the original a-TiO₂ phase to the tetragonal LiTiO₂ phase in Fig. 4. It should be noted that not all Ti⁴⁺ cations are reduced to Ti³⁺ and some orthorhombic Li_{0.5}TiO₂ phase still exists in the fully lithiated state of the N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotube based on the observations in Fig. 4d.

Additional evidence of the chemical changes in a-TiO₂ is provided by the oxygen K-edge spectra obtained at different time points during *in situ* lithiation (Fig. 5b). The oxygen K-edge is due to the transition of 1s electrons to the unoccupied 2p orbitals, which are hybridized with titanium 3d orbitals. The splitting of the oxygen K-edge corresponds to the splitting of titanium 3d orbitals (t_{2g} orbitals at a lower energy level and e_g orbitals at a higher energy level) due to the crystal field of the a-TiO₂ structure. After lithiation, the ratio of the first peak to the second peak decreases, which may result from a smaller number of unoccupied t_{2g} orbitals in the neighboring titanium ions. The increasing amount of electrons in t_{2g} orbitals results in the reduction of Ti⁴⁺ to Ti³⁺. Another notable feature in the oxygen K-edge spectra during lithiation is the decrease in separation between the two peaks. Previous studies have shown that the separation between the two peaks on the oxygen K-edges is highly dependent on the valence change in the titanium ions.³⁷ The observed decrease in the separation between these two peaks indicates the valence reduction of titanium to accommodate Li⁺ intercalation. These EELS results are therefore in good agreement with the intercalation mechanism of Li⁺ into N-doped a-TiO₂ revealed by our HRTEM and FFT analysis (Fig. 4).

Conclusions

N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes have overall improved electrochemical performance compared to bulk TiO₂ when employed as an anode material for lithium-ion batteries. When the charge-discharge rate increased from 0.1C to 10C, the capacity only decreased from 200 to 100 mA h g⁻¹ for N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes. This dramatic improvement is attributed to the optimization of the material in terms of both the structure and the morphology, which can advance the commercial use of TiO₂ anode materials. *In situ* TEM combined with EELS reveals detailed morphological changes and phase transformations during the lithiation process for N-doped a-TiO₂ nanotubes. The pristine a-TiO₂ phase undergoes two phase transitions upon lithiation: anatase TiO₂ (*I4₁/amd*) to orthorhombic Li_{0.5}TiO₂ (*Imma*) and then Li_{0.5}TiO₂ (*Imma*) to tetragonal LiTiO₂ (*I4₁/amd*). These *in situ* TEM observations reveal that morphological changes and phase transformations allow for a-TiO₂ nanotube

anodes to have overall enhanced electrochemical performance in lithium-ion batteries.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

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