

**Research Article**

# Fabrication and Analysis of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> Ceramics for Advanced Energy Storage Applications

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As the demand for high-performance energy storage systems surges, dielectric materials have emerged as frontrunners due to their exceptional power density. Yet, their relatively low energy density has long been a bottleneck for practical deployment. This study breaks new ground by addressing this limitation, focusing on the enhancement of Barium Titanate-based ceramics for energy storage through the strategic incorporation of Niobium Oxide (Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>). By investigating the effects of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> on 0.98BT-0.02BMC ceramics, we unlock unprecedented improvements in both dielectric and energy storage properties. X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis reveals the stability of a single perovskite phase across all compositions, paving the way for reliable performance. Most strikingly, the x = 4 composition delivers a groundbreaking dielectric constant (~2200) alongside a remarkable energy density of 1.40 J/cm<sup>3</sup> and a recoverable energy density of 1.10 J/cm<sup>3</sup>, achieving an efficiency of 78.8%. These extraordinary results propel the material to the forefront of next-generation energy storage technologies, making it a powerhouse for high-demand applications such as power pulse systems. With its unparalleled combination of high energy density, exceptional efficiency, and long-term stability, this material holds the promise to redefine energy storage solutions, setting new benchmarks in both performance and reliability.

**Keywords:** Dielectric materials, Barium Titanate-Niobium Oxide, Energy storage application.

## 1. Introduction

Materials science explores how the properties of solid materials are shaped by their composition and structure, providing insights into their behavior and potential applications [1]. Energy is essential for all forms of life and for performing any meaningful work in the universe. Without energy, life cannot exist [2]. Recognizing the critical role of energy, scientists are dedicated to discovering new resources and improving the capacity and efficiency of existing energy sources [3]. Currently, scientists around the world are working

to improve and expand the capacity for renewable energy production. According to literature, by 2019, the global renewable energy production capacity reached 2536 GW, with contributions from breeze energy 622 GW, sun energy 585 GW, bioenergy 125 GW, geothermic energy 14 GW, and ocean energy 500 MW [4]. Renewable energy, despite its growing importance, is not consistently available, which creates a significant challenge in ensuring a reliable and continuous supply [5].

To address this issue, there is an increasing demand for energy storage systems [6]. These systems are primarily classified into two categories: long-term and short-term, based on the duration for which energy is stored [7]. This classification helps meet the varying needs of different applications, providing effective solutions to manage the intermittent nature of renewable energy sources [8]. Among the various long-term energy storage systems, batteries stand out as one of the most intriguing and promising solutions [9]. The market offers two main types of batteries, one is primary and the other is secondary. Primary batteries, which are non-rechargeable, are known for being lightweight and affordable. The more common kinds of primary batteries include zinc-carbon, alkaline, mercury oxide, lithium (Li), silver oxide, and zinc-air batteries [10, 11]. Secondary batteries, which can be recharged and hold a significant amount of energy, offer a more sustainable solution for energy storage. Among the most popular types are lithium-ion (Li-ion), nickel-metal hydride (NiMH), nickel-cadmium (NiCd), and lead-acid batteries, each contributing to advancements in energy storage technology [12, 13].

Batteries generally offer a high energy storage density, ranging from 10 Wh/kg to 300 Wh/kg [14]. However, the movement of charged particles within the battery tends to be slow, which limits its power density to around 500 W/kg [15]. Capacitors are typically utilized for short-term energy storage due to their ability to deliver rapid bursts of power. These devices can be classified into polar and non-polar types, as well as fixed and variable configurations, depending on their design and application. While capacitors excel in providing very high-power densities, ranging from  $10^1$  to  $10^8$  W/kg, their energy storage density is comparatively low. Most capacitors store less than 30 Wh/kg of energy, making them ideal for applications where quick energy release is required, but not for long-duration energy storage [16]. A dielectric material is an electrical insulator that experiences polarization when exposed to an external electric field. This polarization occurs as the material's molecular dipoles align with the field, influencing its electrical properties [17]. High energy density (HED)

capacitors, particularly those based on dielectric materials, are essential for a range of applications, including military technologies like electric armor, medical devices such as X-ray machines, and power storage modules. This has led to extensive research in both academic and industrial sectors focused on creating smaller, lighter, and more affordable HED capacitors [18]. High energy density capacitors must exhibit rapid charge-discharge response, excellent temperature stability, high breakdown strength, and high-power density. For certain specialized applications, these capacitors are also required to operate at temperatures of up to 250°C.

Dielectric materials must be carefully selected to meet these stringent requirements. Here is an overview of the materials that are considered promising or commonly used for high energy density capacitor's applications [19]. Ceramic dielectrics are preferred over polymer dielectrics for energy storage applications due to their high dielectric constants, low energy loss, quick charge-discharge response, and ability to withstand higher operating temperatures for extended periods [20]. In ceramics, a trade-off often exists between dielectric constant and breakdown strength. Glass ceramics are created by embedding nano-crystallites in a glass matrix and heating them at particular temperatures. The crystalline phase within the glass ceramics can result in a dielectric constant that exceeds the permittivity of the original glass matrix. The BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> sample, processed under optimal conditions, demonstrates a dielectric constant ranging from 650 to 850 at a frequency of 1 kHz, along with a low tangent loss of approximately 0.02 over a temperature range of 25-150°C, highlighting its promising potential for energy storage applications [21]. These remarkable properties make it an excellent candidate for further research and development in advanced dielectric materials for high-performance energy storage systems [8, 22].

## **2. Materials and methods**

The solid-state reaction route is an effective technique for manufacturing ceramics, involving key steps such as selecting and mixing raw materials, heating at high temperatures to

initiate chemical reactions, and forming a homogeneous ceramic phase. Subsequent processes like grinding, sintering, and shaping ensure the final material possesses desirable properties, including mechanical strength, thermal stability, and electrical performance.

### 2.1. Raw materials and characterization techniques

In this study, the appropriate raw materials for preparing  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_3$  doped  $0.96\text{BaTiO}_3\text{0.04Bi}(\text{Mg}_{0.5}\text{Ce}_{0.5})\text{O}_3$  ceramics were selected based on literature recommendations. Highly pure raw materials, including  $\text{MgO}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{BaCO}_3$ ,  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3$ , and  $\text{CeO}_2$ , were carefully weighed in stoichiometric ratios and mixed together. The chemicals used  $\text{MgO}$  (>99%),  $\text{TiO}_2$  (>99%),  $\text{BaCO}_3$  (>99.5%),  $\text{BaCO}_3$  (>99.5%),  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_3$  (>99.9%), and  $\text{CeO}_2$  (>99.5%) were sourced from Sigma-Aldrich. For crystal structure and phase analysis, X-ray diffraction (XRD) was conducted using a JDX 3532 Jeol XRD system, while scanning electron microscopy (SEM) on a Hitachi SU5000 was employed to examine the grain size and nature of the synthesized materials. The dielectric constant and tangent loss of the samples were measured across a frequency range of 1 kHz to 1 MHz and a temperature range of 30°C to 500°C using a computer-interfaced L.C.R meter (E4980A, Agilent, U.S.A).

### 2.2. Stoichiometric ratios and solutions

A significant portion after selecting the raw materials is ensuring precise stoichiometric ratios, as even slight deviations can significantly impact the desired outcome. Isopropanol is utilized as a binder, and zirconia balls are employed as grinding media to achieve the appropriate particle size. The mixture is then dried in an oven at 95°C for 24 hours to yield uniform powders [23]. The following stage involves blending the raw materials using a ball milling machine, a critical process that influences the dielectric characteristics of the solid solution. In this research, to prepare  $0.96\text{BaTiO}_3\text{0.04Bi}(\text{Mg}_{0.5}\text{Ce}_{0.5})\text{O}_3$ , the compounds  $\text{MgO}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{BaCO}_3$ ,  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3$ , and  $\text{CeO}_2$  were precisely measured and combined in the correct stoichiometric proportions [24].

### 2.3. Calcinations, Grinding and Pellets Formation

The precursor mixtures were subjected to ball milling for 24 hours, utilizing  $\text{ZrO}_2$  balls as grinding media and

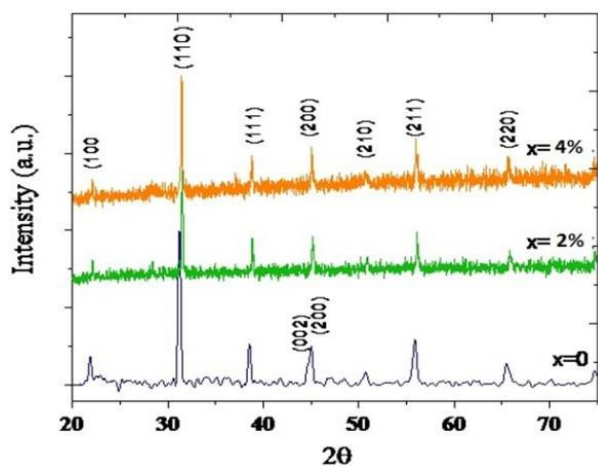
isopropanol as a lubricant to facilitate the formation of fine, homogeneous slurries with optimal flow properties. Following this, the slurries were transferred to a furnace for subsequent thermal processing. In the present study, the milled powders were first dried at 95°C to remove excess moisture, followed by calcination at 850°C for 2 hours to induce phase transformation and promote solid-state reactions. After the  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_3$  doped  $0.96\text{BaTiO}_3\text{0.04Bi}(\text{Mg}_{0.5}\text{Ce}_{0.5})\text{O}_3$  powder underwent a second round of milling under identical conditions, with isopropanol as a lubricant and zirconia balls as grinding media. The powders were again dried at 95°C for 24 hours to achieve a uniform consistency. Subsequently, the powder was crushed and mixed with aqueous polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) as a binder to enhance the palletization process. The well-calcined powders, comprising  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_3$  ( $X = 2, 4\%$ ) and  $0.96\text{BaTiO}_3\text{0.04Bi}(\text{Mg}_{0.5}\text{Ce}_{0.5})\text{O}_3$ , were compacted into cylindrical pellets with dimensions of 1mm in height and 12mm in diameter using a hydraulic press at 100 MPa. Finally, the pellets were subjected to a thermal treatment at 600°C for 2 hours to effectively remove the PVA binder and facilitate the sintering process.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Phase Examination

Figure 1 displays the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the  $0.96\text{BaTiO}_3\text{0.04Bi}(\text{Mg}_{0.5}\text{Ce}_{0.5})\text{O}_3 + x \text{ wt}\% \text{ Nb}_2\text{O}_3$  ( $x = 0, 2, 4$ ) samples. For the  $x = 0$  composition, a single perovskite phase is observed, with the high-resolution XRD pattern around  $2\theta = 45^\circ$  showing peak splitting between the (002) and (200) reflections.

This splitting corresponds to card # 70-4760 and indicates a tetragonal structure, which is consistent with previous reports for  $\text{BaTiO}_3$ -based ceramics. As the  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_3$  content increases to 2 wt% and beyond, the split peaks merge, suggesting the formation of a pseudo-cubic phase. Notably, no secondary phases were identified in any of the compositions analyzed in this study.



**Figure 1.** XRD patterns of (0.98BT– 0.02BMC+xwt%Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, x=0, 2, 4) ceramics.

### 3.2. Microstructure examination

The SEM images of the etched surfaces of 0.96BaTiO<sub>3</sub>0.04Bi(Mg<sub>0.5</sub>Ce<sub>0.5</sub>)O<sub>3</sub> + x wt% Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (x = 2, 4) ceramics show clear micro-structural differences in figure 2 (a, b, and c), respectively. The x=2 composition exhibits a porous microstructure, indicating incomplete sintering, which may reduce charge storage capacity and efficiency due to the high porosity that can hinder electron movement. On the other hand, the x = 4 composition has a denser microstructure, improving the material's dielectric properties, mechanical strength, and thermal stability. The larger grain size (greater than 1 μm) in x = 2 composition could create more grain boundary sites that reduce dielectric strength, while the smaller grain size (less than 1 μm) in x = 4 composition, enhances the material's ability to handle higher electric fields and improves energy storage capability.

### 3.3. Measurement of dielectric properties

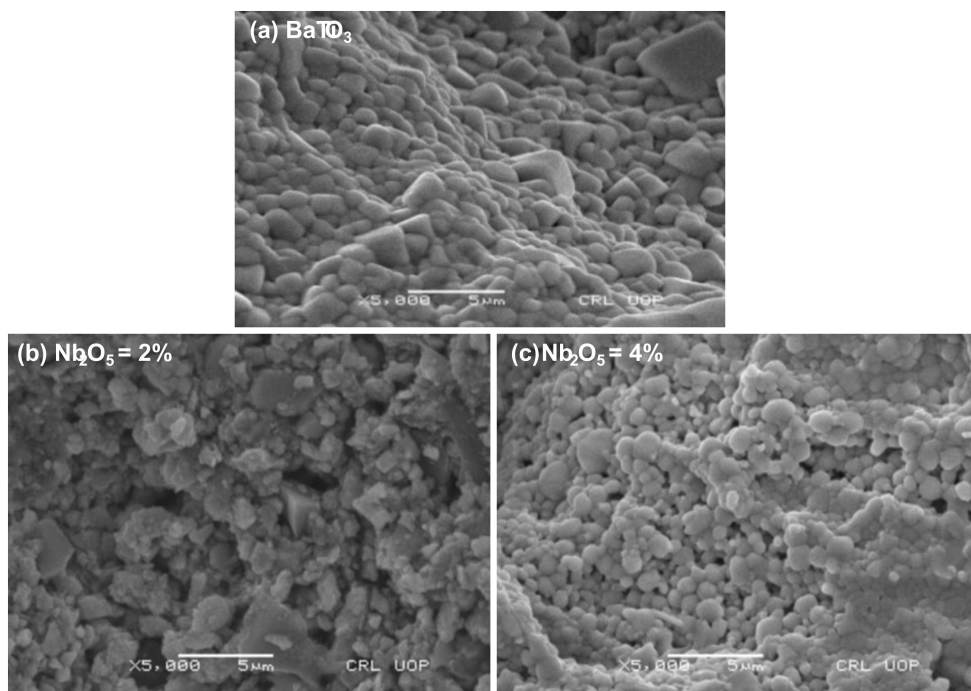
The understudy compositions' dielectric characteristics are computed using a vector network analyzer. The following formula can be used to calculate the temperature factor  $T_f$  value over the temperature range of  $T_0$  to  $T$  in °C.

$$T_f = \frac{f_1 - f_2}{f_1(T - T_0)}$$

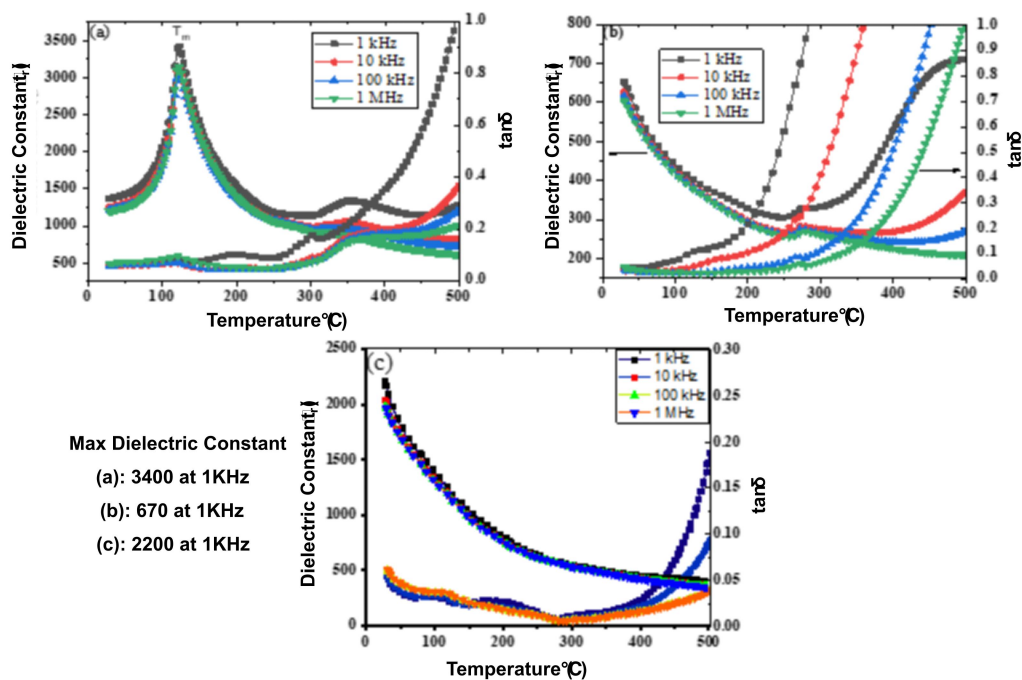
Here,  $T_f$  represents the time frequency, while  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  denote the frequencies at temperatures  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , respectively. Figure 3(a-c) illustrates the variation in dielectric constant ( $\epsilon_r$ ) and tangent loss ( $\tan \delta$ ) for (0.98BT– 0.02BMC + x wt% Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> x = 0, 2, 4) samples over a temperature range of 25–500°C at frequencies of 1 kHz, 10 kHz, 100 kHz, and 1 MHz. In Figure (a), the Curie temperature ( $T_c$ ) for the x = 0 composition is clearly marked by a sharp transition at approximately 125°C, signifying the shift from the ferroelectric to the paraelectric phase [25]. For x = 0 at 1 kHz, the dielectric constant reaches its maximum value ( $\epsilon_r$ -max) of 3400, indicating the transition from the ferroelectric to the paraelectric phase as shown in figure 3(b).

With the incorporation of 2% Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, the Curie temperature is shifted below room temperature shown in figure 3(b), and the maximum dielectric constants ( $\epsilon_r$ -max) are measured as 670 for x = 2 and 2200 for x = 4 at 1 kHz.

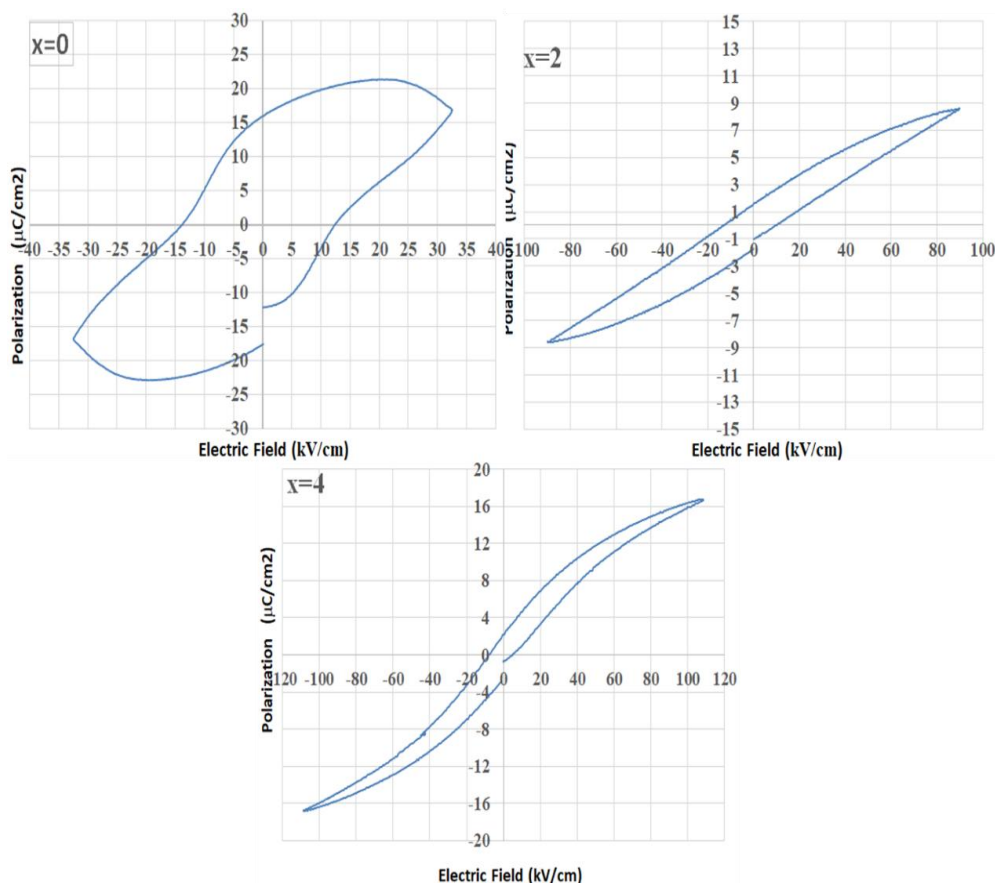
The lower dielectric constant observed for the x = 2 composition can primarily be attributed to its porous microstructure, which results in a lower density compared to the x = 4 composition. The porous nature of the material can lead to a decrease in the overall polarization response, thus reducing the dielectric constant. Additionally, the addition of 2% Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> shifts the Curie temperature below room temperature (as shown in Figure 3(b)), which also contributes to the observed changes in dielectric behavior. Regarding the reduction in dielectric constant for x = 2, it is important to note that the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> component itself has an inherently lower dielectric constant compared to the base material (x = 0). This addition, while reducing the dielectric constant, also brings other beneficial effects, such as a decrease in tangent loss, indicating an improvement in energy storage efficiency. While the porous microstructure in x = 2 can indeed be a limiting factor for its energy storage performance, it is worth noting that Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> incorporation leads to a reduction in tangent loss, as seen in Figure 3(c).



**Figure 2.** Scanning electron microscope image of: (a) BaTiO<sub>3</sub>, (b) 0.98BT–0.02BMC+xwt%Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (x=2), (c) 0.98BT–0.02BMC+xwt% Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (x=4) samples.



**Figure 3.** The variation of  $\epsilon_r$  of (0.98BT– 0.02BMC+ xwt% Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> x=0, 2, 4) samples as a function of temperature at different frequencies (a) x=0, (b) x=2 and (c) x=4.



**Figure 4.** Polarization against Electric field Hysteresis loops of (0.98BT–0.02BMC+xwt% Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> x=0, 2, 4) samples as a function of electric field.

**Table 1.** Polarizations, and energy storage characteristics of (0.98BT–0.02BMC+ xwt%Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> x=0, 2, 4) samples.

Composition (x)	[P <sub>max</sub> ]	[P <sub>r</sub> ]	[P <sub>max</sub> –P <sub>r</sub> ]	[W <sub>ch</sub> ]	[W <sub>r</sub> ]	[η %]
0	16.85	15.92	0.9	0.50	0.13	28
2	8.59	1.55	7.04	0.95	0.60	71
4	16.62	2.21	14.41	1.43	1.10	78

This reduction indicates enhanced efficiency, which offsets some of the potential drawbacks caused by the porosity. Moreover, the material with x = 4 (with higher Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> content) exhibits superior energy storage properties, including a maximal dielectric constant of ~2200, highlighting the potential for optimization in future studies. Further work could explore strategies to address the porous microstructure of x = 2 by adjusting the synthesis parameters or introducing additives

to improve the material's density and structural integrity, thereby enhancing its overall performance for energy storage applications.

### 3.4. Analysis of P-E Loop

For the (0.98BT–0.02BMC+xwt% Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> x = 0, 2, 4) samples, Figure 4 displays the polarization versus electric field (P-E) hysteresis loops. With the P-E loops measured at 10 Hz for each 0.3 mm thick ceramic pellet, significant differences in the

critical or breakdown electric fields  $E_b$  and maximum polarization  $P_{max}$  are seen across the samples. Energy-storage metrics including charge energy density  $W_{ch}$ , recoverable or discharge energy density  $W_r$ , and efficiency ( $\eta$ ) are calculated using each sample's P-E hysteresis loop. Furthermore, the normal grain size and density of each sample are connected to its break-down voltage.

The P-E hysteresis loop for each composition is recorded at its respective breakdown voltage.

As shown in Figure 4, the  $x=0$  composition displays a broad P-E loop, featuring a maximum polarization value of 16.92 C/cm<sup>2</sup>, and a significant remnant polarization of 15.85 C/cm<sup>2</sup>. For  $x=2$  composition, the P-E hysteresis loop narrows, exhibiting a maximum polarization ( $P_{max}$ ) of 8.59 C/cm<sup>2</sup> and a considerably reduced Remnant polarization of 1.55 C/cm<sup>2</sup> at a break-down electric field of 9 kV/cm. In a similar trend, for  $x=4$ , the material exhibits a remarkable maximum polarization of 16.82 C/cm<sup>2</sup>, accompanied by a remnant polarization of 2.21 C/cm<sup>2</sup> at break-down electric field of 107 kV/cm. Thus, the higher  $P_{max}-P_r$  value in the  $x=4$  composition significantly contributes to enhanced energy storage and recovery, making it an ideal candidate for high-density and efficient energy storage applications. The combination of elevated maximum polarization, reduced remnant polarization and a large  $P_{max}-P_r$  value in this composition offers promising potential for improving both charge and discharge energy densities.

#### Analysis of energy density (ADA)

The P-E hysteresis loop is used to determine the energy storage parameters for each sample, including charge energy density  $W_{ch}$ , discharge energy density  $W_r$ , and efficiency ( $\eta$ ).

$$W_{ch} = \int_0^{P_{max}} E dP \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

$$W_r = \int_{P_r}^{P_{max}} E dP \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

The efficiency of the capacitor can be calculated using the following equation (Eq 3).

$$\eta = \frac{W_{rec}}{W_s} \times 100 \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

In this study, the  $x=4$  composition achieved an impressive charge energy density ( $W_{ch}$ ) of 1.40 J/cm<sup>3</sup>, a recoverable energy density ( $W_{rec}$ ) of 1.10 J/cm<sup>3</sup>, and a remarkable efficiency ( $\eta$ ) of 78.8%. These enhanced energy storage parameters can be attributed to the superior  $P_{max}$  and larger  $P_{max}-P_r$  differences, which set  $x=4$  apart from the other compositions. With an efficiency of 78%,  $x=4$  demonstrates its potential as a high-performance material for energy storage applications. The energy storage characteristics are summarized in Table 1. The energy storage parameters, including maximum polarization, charge energy density ( $W_{ch}$ ), recoverable energy density ( $W_r$ ), and efficiency, exhibit distinct differences across the samples. For  $x=0$ , the maximum polarization reached 16.85 C/cm<sup>2</sup>, but its recoverable energy remained low, resulting in an efficiency of just 28%. In contrast, for  $x=4$ , although the maximum polarization slightly decreased to 16.62 C/cm<sup>2</sup>, both the recoverable energy and efficiency saw a significant boost, with recoverable energy increasing to 1.10 J/cm<sup>3</sup> and efficiency rising to an impressive value of 78%.

#### 5. Conclusion

The synthesis of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> powders was magnificently carried out using the solid-state route. XRD analysis confirmed the absence of any reaction products other than Nb and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>. The BaTiO<sub>3</sub> phase was cubic at room temperature and for compositions with 2% Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and above, the merging of split peaks indicated the formation of a pseudo-cubic phase. The SEM images indicate that the  $x=2\%$  composition possesses a porous microstructure with grains larger than 1 nm, while the  $x=4\%$  composition displays a more compact structure and a finer average grain size of less than 1 nm. The heat treatment significantly improved the dielectric properties of the composite powder. With the increase in Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> concentration, there was a notable rise in the dielectric permittivity, while the dielectric loss showed a modest increase. The findings of this study demonstrate that incorporating Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> significantly enhances the material's dielectric and energy storage properties, with a high dielectric constant of 2200 at 4%, along with an

energy density of 1.40 J/cm<sup>3</sup>, a recoverable energy density of 1.10 J/cm<sup>3</sup>, and an efficiency of 78.8%. These exceptional properties indicate potential of the optimal composition (x=4) for energy storage applications.

#### **Authors contribution**

Abdur Rehman Qureshi and Muhammad Jamshed conceptualized the study, supervised the research, and contributed to the design of the methodology and manuscript revisions. Zama Jan, Arif Ullah, Uzair Khan, Aftab Majeed and Naimat Ullah Khan participated in data collection, data analysis, and drafting the manuscript. All authors reviewed and approved the final version of the manuscript. Muhammad Jamshed served as corresponding author and ensured the overall quality and completion of the work.

#### **Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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#### **Data Availability statement**

The data presented in this study are available on request from the corresponding authors.

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