Strategy on enhancing ionic conductivity of biocompatible hydroxypropylmethylcellulose/polyethylene glycol polymer blend electrolyte with TiO₂ nanofillers and LiNO₃ ionic salt

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Abstract

A biocompatible and biodegradable polymer in the fabrication of solid polymer electrolytes for high energy density rechargeable batteries is gaining interest owing to their safety, compatibility and flexibility. In this study, a polymer electrolyte based on hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC)/polyethylene glycol (PEG) biopolymers, incorporating TiO₂ nanofillers and LiNO₃ as a lithium source, was fabricated using the solution casting method. Mixed-phase TiO₂ nanofillers were synthesized via hydrolysis of titanium tetraisopropoxide. The crystal structure, phase morphology, and electrochemical impedance spectra of the films and nanofillers were investigated. X-ray diffraction analysis confirmed the amorphous nature of the polymer electrolyte and crystalline nature of nanofiller. In addition, it was noted that the amorphous phase of the polymer blend remained unaltered despite the incorporation of TiO₂ and LiNO₃. Thermogravimetric analysis and differential thermal analysis confirmed that the pure blend exhibited a melting point of around 60°C and complete degradation of around 340°C, while the blend electrolyte with additives demonstrated thermal stability with a broad melting point. The blend containing 5 wt.% TiO₂ fillers and 10 wt.% LiNO₃ ionic salt exhibited the highest ionic conductivity of 0.213 mS cm⁻¹ at room temperature. The polymer blend electrolyte displayed a narrow electrochemical stability window of 2.85 V, with the highest cationic transfer number of 0.323. The temperature-dependent ionic conductivity of the prepared polymer blend electrolyte followed Arrhenius behaviour, with an activation energy of 0.1 eV. The study examined and reported the effect of aging on the interfacial resistance of polymer blend electrolyte. The mechanical properties of the optimized HPMC/PEG/TiO₂/LiNO₃ polymer blend electrolyte were investigated and reported. Thus, this research elucidated the role of nanofillers and ionic salt in enhancing the performance of biocompatible polymer electrolytes.

Keywords

Impedance spectra; Arrhenius behaviour; cationic transference number; electrochemical stability; tensile strength
**Introduction**

The world's growing population and economic demands have led to a significant rise in global energy consumption. To meet the current energy needs of the world, it is imperative to engage in the mass production of energy [1]. However, relying solely on non-renewable sources like nuclear power plants, coal, and fossil fuels, as well as renewable resources like solar, wind, and hydroelectric power, is insufficient to fulfill the energy requirements of today. Moreover, the extraction of energy from non-renewable sources has contributed to the alarming global threats of global warming and pollution [2]. The effective resolution for these concerns lies in efficiently harnessing energy from sustainable and eco-friendly sources. The primary obstacle in maximizing energy extraction from environmentally friendly sources is the storage of the harnessed energy [3]. From the perspective of energy storage, new-generation energy storage devices with maximum energy density are investigated.

New generation supercapacitors and batteries with higher power and energy density gained much interest. In case of rechargeable batteries, the overall performance is not solely dependent on electrodes but also on the electrolytes within the cell. These electrolytes play a crucial role in achieving higher battery energy density [4]. The electrolytes can be in the form of liquid, gel, or solid, with liquid electrolytes offering certain advantages such as good wettability with electrodes, ionic conductivity, and reduced dendrite formation [5]. However, they are more susceptible to vulnerabilities and suffer significant drawbacks due to safety concerns, environmental issues, and limited energy density than solid electrolytes [6]. On the other hand, gel electrolytes composed of liquid components and polymer matrix have emerged as a promising alternative to liquid electrolytes, offering good heat resistance, higher ionic conductivity, and a stable electrode-electrolyte interface. The gel polymer electrolytes also offer electrode protection and control of the thermal runaway [7]. Nonetheless, the mechanical integrity of the cell remains a major drawback for gel electrolytes. Additionally, the presence of liquid fails to suppress dendrite formation [8]. In order to attain favourable mechanical cell integrity and interfacial properties, the solid polymer composite appears to be a viable option. Typically, solid polymer electrolytes (SPE) composed of polymer chains and a polymer matrix include polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF), polyethylene oxide (PEO), polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) and several polymer blends like PEO-methylcellulose (MC), PVDF-hexafluoropropylene (HFP), etc. [10]. Among numerous polymer blends like PEO-carboxyl methyl cellulose (CMC), PVA-sodium alginate (SA) and PEO-polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP) [11], the blending of crystalline polymer with amorphous one gains tremendous interest. PEO and PVDF-co-hexafluoropropylene (HFP) polymer matrix with active nanofillers have been widely studied as electrolytes. The enhanced ionic conductivity observed in PVDF-HFP is attributed to the reduction in crystallinity of PVDF with the addition of amorphous HFP, while the blending of PEO with methylcellulose(MC)/polyvinyl chloride (PVC) yields better ionic conductivity and good mechanical properties [12,13]. The dielectric oxide ceramics embedded in polymers make solid electrolytes appear as potential candidates due to their affordability and demonstrated ability to offer increased power density, flexibility, and improved ionic conductivity. Furthermore, including active oxide fillers in the polymer composite improves ionic conductivity and increases the ion transference number and wider electrochemical stability window [14]. The ionic conductivity, along with the electrochemical window...
and thermal stability, can further be increased by the addition of ionic liquids along with oxide fillers, which have to be optimized. The increase in ionic conductivity can be attributed to the dissociation of ions resulting from Lewis acid-base interactions between the anions of ionic species and the surface groups of polymer chains containing nanofillers [15]. Most widely studied passive inorganic oxide fillers include TiO₂, ZnO, MgO, Al₂O₃, CeO₂, BaTiO₃ and SiO₂, while the active fillers based on Li includeLi₂La₂Zr₂O₁₂ (LLZO), Li₆₋ₓLaₓZr₁ₓTa₀.₆O₁₂ (LLZTO) and Li₀.₂₉La₀.₅₇TiO₃ (LLTO) [9,15]. For active fillers, higher interfacial resistance, poor compatibility with electrodes, and comparatively higher dendrite formation limit their commercialization [16]. Additionally, these passive fillers reduce the crystallization of the polymer matrix, simultaneously enhancing the channels for ion migration [9].

A water-soluble semi-synthetic hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) is a nonionic cellulose amorphous polymer with a molecular formula (C₅₆H₁₀₈O₃₀), derived from polysaccharide units of plant cells through etherification of cellulose in which the hydroxyl groups are replaced by hydroxy propyl and methyl groups [17]. The presence of functional groups made HPMC thermo-sensitive with water retention capabilities. Biodegradable and biocompatible HPMC found applications in moderate coatings, tablet binders, drug delivery, adhesives, agriculture and cosmetics [18]. A synthetic non-immunogenic polyether (PEO), which is based on molecular weight and called also polyethylene glycol (PEG), is a semi-crystalline polymer. Moreover, PEG is a linear water-soluble polymer with molecular formula HO(CH₂CH₂O)nH, and it is widely used in many biomedical, pharmaceutical, and industrial applications. PEG is also broadly used in tissue engineering and drug delivery systems due to its biocompatibility. PEG offers good film flexibility, tensile strength and barrier properties in addition to phase partitioning [19].

An extensive study has already been conducted on inorganic passive TiO₂ fillers in polymer matrix due to their good thermal stability and chemical inertness properties [15,20]. The nano TiO₂ has gained tremendous interest due to its non-toxicity, chemical inertness and optical energy band gap [21]. Also, TiO₂ has excellent mechanical, thermal and chemical properties and favours the formation of minute crystallites, thus reducing the crystallization of polymer, consequently providing new pathways for the migration of ions and charge carriers through the polymer ceramic interface [22]. Further, few surveys have reported that just the shapes of nanomaterial in the polymer blend/host polymer matrix enhance ionic conductivity. The nanomaterial with rod/wire structure exhibits excellent electrochemical properties over the spherical-shaped nanomaterial [23]. Moreover, some studies have also reported that modification of the surface of TiO₂ rods, or oxygen-induced structural modification, exhibits a good interfacial interface and enhanced ionic conductivity [16]. The defect-induced 1D nano TiO₂ micro rods developed by Luo et al. reported that the addition of TiO₂ micro rods into the PEO matrix not only reduces the crystalline phase but also improves the interfacial region with electrodes [16]. Li et al. reported that TiO₂ forming large surface area nanowires and length-diameter ratio doped with Ti²⁺ ions in PEO polymer exhibit enhanced Li-ion conductivity of the order 10 mS cm⁻¹ [23]. Furthermore, an excellent electrochemical stability window of 5.5 V at 60 °C, and a higher Li transport number of 0.36 was achieved. The addition of TiO₂ into PVDF-co-HFP reduces the porosity of the electrolyte while enhancing the ionic conductivity and interfacial stability, as reported by Ramaiah et al. [24].

Rechargeable Li-ion batteries have gained the interest of worldwide researchers due to the standard lithium reduction potential of -3.04 V (vs. SHE) and outstanding reversible electrochemical efficiency with theoretical specific capacity of 3860 mAh g⁻¹, long life, and easy intercalation of smaller Li ions compared to other ions [25]. As Li-ion source is not abundant, its reactivity with the environment and high risk of short circuits due to dendrite formation encourages researchers to find a new

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alternative with the same efficiency and performance [10]. In this perspective, sodium and magnesium ion batteries emerge as possible alternatives to Li-ion batteries. Nevertheless, the movement of Na and Mg ions is slow due to their sluggish behaviour and larger ionic size. Additionally, the energy density of these batteries is comparatively lower than that of Li-ion batteries [26].

Herein, we report the synthesis of nano TiO$_2$ particles via hydrolysis of titanium tetra-isopropoxide. To the best of our knowledge, the biocompatible hybrid nano ceramic polymer composite made of polymer blend HPMC/PEG with the addition of LiNO$_3$ salt and TiO$_2$ filler has not been previously reported. The effect of TiO$_2$ and LiNO$_3$ applied as filler and ionic salt on structural, electrical and mechanical properties of HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolyte has been systematically investigated. The ionic conductivity, the interaction of the polymer with filler, cationic transfer number, electrochemical stability window, and mechanical tensile strength of the optimized HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolyte have been evaluated and reported.

**Experimental**

**Chemicals**

Titanium tetra-isopropoxide (Assay 98 %, Spectrochem, India), nitric acid (HNO$_3$, AR, SD-Fine Chem, India), hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC, methoxy content: 28 to 30 %, hydroxy content: 7 to 12 %, SD-dine chem, India), polyethylene glycol 6000 (PEG, 98 %, Spectrochem, India), lithium nitrate (AR grade, 98 %, Loba Chemie Pvt. Ltd, India) were used in the present study without any further purification. Distilled water is used as a solvent throughout the experiment.

**Synthesis of TiO$_2$**

TiO$_2$ nanoparticles were synthesized by controlled hydrolysis of titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP). A 50 ml of TTIP was taken in a dry beaker, and another 50 ml of double distilled water was slowly added dropwise to the TTIP solution under continuous stirring. pH was adjusted using 1:1 HNO$_3$, which was added slowly while continuously monitoring the pH. Upon adding distilled water, the white precipitate of titanium hydroxide was formed and vacuum filtered using Whatman filter paper, which was washed several times with distilled water [27]. The filtrate was dried at 100 °C for 15 hours in a hot air oven. The obtained powder was finely grounded using an agate mortar and placed in a muffle furnace at 300 °C for 3 hours in the air to remove any residual content [27]. The calcined TiO$_2$ powder was characterized and used as a nano-filler in polymer electrolytes.

**Fabrication of HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolytes**

The circular polymer film of 100 mm diameter was prepared by the standard solution casting technique. Initially, the blends of HPMC(100-x)/PEG(x), (x = 25 to 60 wt.%)were prepared by dissolving stoichiometric weights of HPMC and PEG 6000 polymers in distilled water. The colloidal solution was then stirred for around 400 rpm at room temperature for 16 hours to obtain a homogeneous mixture. The HPMC/PEG mixed solution was then sonicated at 15 kHz for 10 min to get the uniform electrolyte slurry. Finally, the slurry was cast onto plastic Petri dishes and dried in a hot air oven for 24 hours at 50 °C. The polymer films of around 50-100 μm thickness were obtained for different compositions of HPMC/PEG. Further, the films were stored in a zip lock cover under a vacuum and subjected to electrochemical studies.

Nano TiO$_2$ particles were introduced into the polymer blend by taking HPMC/PEG/(y)TiO$_2$ (y =1, 2, 5, 10 wt.%), stirred at 500 rpm for 18 h, and solution casted as mentioned above. After optimizing HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$ films, a white colour, HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ (polymer composite) films of
thickness 120-175 μm were made by the addition of LiNO₃ salt up to 15 wt.%, keeping 5 wt.% of titanium oxide constants. The schematic representation of a polymer composite containing TiO₂ and LiNO₃ and the interaction of polymer chains with nanofillers and Li ions is shown in Figure 1.

**Figure 1. Schematic representation of polymer composite containing TiO₂ and LiNO₃ with hydrogen bonding**

**Characterization techniques**

The phase and structural properties of nano TiO₂ and polymer blend electrolyte were investigated by Powder X-ray diffraction technique using Rigaku SmartLabSE(Japan) X-ray diffractometer with Cu-Ka radiation, in the range 2θ from 15 to 75°, with a step size of 0.01°. The presence of functional groups, interaction of filler with polymer chains and characteristic bands corresponding to the polymer backbone were confirmed by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (Thermo Scientific Nicolet 6700 FT-IR Spectrometer) sweeps in the range 4000 to 400 cm⁻¹. The stability, phase transition, and decomposition of polymer blend electrolytes as a function of temperature were studied by TGA/DTA (Thermal Analysis System, Hitachi High-Tech Science Corporation, Japan). The impedance response of the polymer blend electrolytes was assessed by a Hioki IM3570 Impedance analyser, sweeping the measurement between 4 MHz to 4 Hz with a perturbation potential of 10 mV. The polymer blend electrolyte with a diameter of 1.45 cm was sandwiched between two stainless steel blocking electrodes. The temperature-dependent conductivity measurements were carried out from room temperature to 40 °C using DPI 1100 dry temperature calibrator and Hioki Impedance analyser. The linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) (between 0 and 5 V at a scan rate 10 mV s⁻¹) and chronoamperometry (polarization potential of 10 mV for 25 minutes) tests were carried out on polymer blend electrolytes by sandwiching the film in Swagelok stainless steel electrodes and recorded by OrigaFlex (OGF⁺500) instrument at room temperature. The mechanical properties of polymer blend electrolytes were evaluated according to ASTM - D882 standard test by Universal Testing Machine (DAK system Inc, 7200-1KN) with a speed of 1 mm min⁻¹.

**Results and discussion**

**Powder X-ray diffraction**

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of nano TiO₂ and polymer blend electrolytes are illustrated in Figure 2. The slightly broadened XRD peaks of TiO₂ nanoparticles confirm the presence of a mixed
anatase-brookite phase. Multiple sharp diffraction peaks are observed at 2θ values of 25.35, 37.95 and 48.15°, corresponding to the (101), (103), and (200) planes of the anatase phase, respectively. These peaks closely match the JCPDS file no.-00-001-0562, confirming the tetragonal phase of the TiO$_2$ particles within the I41/amd space group. Notably, characteristic peaks at 31.1 and 54.61° correspond to the orthorhombic brookite phase of TiO$_2$, attributed to the (211) and (131) planes, respectively, which is consistent with JCPDS file no.-00-002-0514. The absence of other characteristic peaks within 2θ range of 20 to 60° confirms the purity of the TiO$_2$ nanoparticles. These observations align with those reported by Mahata et al. [28]. However, the most intense peak of the brookite phase, around 54.61° is lower compared to their study and the most intense peak was observed at 27.68°.

![Figure 2. X-ray diffraction patterns of TiO$_2$, HPMC+PEG, HPMC+PEG+TiO$_2$ and HPMC+PEG+TiO$_2$+LiNO$_3$ polymer blends](image)

In the mixed phases of TiO$_2$, the weight fraction of the brookite phase is calculated using Eq.(1) by considering the integrated intensities of both anatase and brookite phases [29]:

$$W_b = \frac{K_A I_b}{K_A I_A + K_B I_B}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $I_A$ and $I_B$ are the integrated intensities of the anatase and brookite phases, respectively. The correction coefficients $K_A$ and $K_B$ are as mentioned elsewhere [29]. The total weight fraction of the brookite phase in the mixed phase was found to be 41.6%. Additionally, the crystallite size of TiO$_2$ is determined from the obtained diffraction peaks using Debye Scherrer’s equation (Eq.(2)), by considering the most intense peaks of the anatase and brookite phases separately, as mentioned elsewhere [30].

$$D = \frac{k \lambda}{\beta \cos \theta}$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

In Eq. (2), $D$, $\lambda$ and $\beta$ stand for crystallite size, the wavelength of Cu-K$\alpha$ radiation (0.15406 nm) and full width at half maximum of the peak, respectively.

The tetragonal phase of anatase TiO$_2$ has an average crystallite size of 4.94 nm with edge lengths of 0.378 and 0.956 nm, attributed $a$, $b$ and $c$ axes, respectively. Whereas the orthorhombic structure of the brookite phase has a crystallite size of 5.15 nm with edge lengths 0.908, 0.553 and 0.518 nm along $a$, $b$ and $c$ axes, respectively. The characteristic broad hump observed in XRD pattern around 20° for bare polymer blend electrolyte and polymer electrolyte containing ionic salt and nanofillers...
points toward the amorphous nature of polymer electrolyte. Further, it is noteworthy that the amorphous nature of the polymer blend electrolyte is retained with the addition of TiO$_2$ (5 wt.%) nanofiller and LiNO$_3$ (10 wt.%) ionic salt. This confirms that added TiO$_2$ fillers facilitate ionic conduction paths rather than inducing crystallization in the HPMC/PEG polymer electrolyte. Moreover, a minor peak shift is observed upon the addition of nanofillers, possibly due to induced strain in the polymer blend electrolyte.

**FTIR analysis**

The FTIR spectra analysis enables the determination of vibrational energies associated with distinct functional groups in polymer chains and the interactions between nanofillers and polymer matrix. In this study, the FTIR spectra of the HPMC/PEG polymer blend loaded with TiO$_2$ and LiNO$_3$, as shown in Figure 3, were examined.

![Figure 3. FTIR spectra of HPMC+PEG, HPMC+PEG+TiO$_2$ and HPMC+PEG+TiO$_2$+LiNO$_3$ polymer blends](image)

The symmetric stretching vibrations of the O-H molecule, found in both HPMC and PEG, were observed within the range of 3400 to 3600 cm$^{-1}$. Additionally, symmetric stretching vibrations of -CH groups in the polymer chain backbone were detected around 2880 to 2930 cm$^{-1}$. The band around 1450 cm$^{-1}$ was attributed to the C-H group bending vibrations of both HPMC and PEG polymers [31]. Furthermore, stretching vibrations of C-O and C-O-C groups were identified at 1280 and 947 cm$^{-1}$, respectively, in HPMC polymer chains [32]. The band around 1650 cm$^{-1}$, indicative of carbonyl groups, was also identified by Bianchi et al. [33]. The presence of carbonyl groups could be attributed to the synthesis of HPMC polymer via esterification. Moreover, a small, negligible band at 1750 cm$^{-1}$ in pure HPMC/PEG blends became prominent upon the addition of TiO$_2$, corresponding to the C=O stretching vibration due to carbonyl groups in HPMC [34]. The characteristic band corresponding to the Ti-O-Ti bending mode was observed at 569.99 cm$^{-1}$ [35]. The introduction of nanofillers and salt into the pure HPMC/PEG polymer blend led to noticeable shifts in these bands due to various kinds of interaction with the polymer chain. A successful fabrication of the complex HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolyte was confirmed through the shifting and disappearance of several vibrational characteristic peaks, as summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1. FTIR characteristic bands of polymer blend electrolytes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>Polymer blend electrolyte characteristics bands, cm$^{-1}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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TGA/DTA analysis

The thermal transitions of the polymer electrolyte were analysed through differential thermal analysis (DTA). Figure 4a illustrates DTA thermograms of pure HPMC/PEG and HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolytes. The thermogram reveals that the pure HPMC/PEG polymer blend undergoes melting with an endothermic peak at approximately 60 °C. Further temperature elevation induces phase separation and subsequent polymer backbone breakage, leading to the evaporation of polymer contents. The most prominent exothermic peak around 340 °C indicates rapid vaporization of fragmented polymer molecules. The incorporation of TiO$_2$ and LiNO$_3$ into the polymer blend alters its properties, as evidenced by a broader melting peak, possibly due to the partial bonding of TiO$_2$ with the polymer chains. Additionally, the broader exothermic peak around 340 °C for polymer blend electrolyte containing filler and salt suggests slower thermal degradation of the polymer chain backbone. Thermo-gravimetric analysis (TGA) of the prepared HPMC/PEG and HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ electrolytes was conducted within the temperature range from room temperature to 500 °C to evaluate thermal stability. The resulting TGA curve in Figure 4b indicates that the polymer blend electrolyte undergoes irreversible decomposition from 3.59 to 0.012 mg. Initial weight loss in the range of 25 to 250 °C may be attributed to the water content vaporization and polymer matrix melting. However, rapid weight loss occurs in the temperature range of 320 to 380 °C, indicating thermal stability up to 250 °C, beyond which the polymer backbone breaks down into volatile compounds. Above 350 °C, almost 95 % weight loss is observed as broken polymer chains and molecules completely evaporate. With the addition of TiO$_2$ and LiNO$_3$, the polymer becomes highly thermally stable with a weight loss of approximately 15 % at 500 °C. Furthermore, the observed initial weight loss of the composite in the range of 50 to 200 °C may be attributed to solvent and volatile molecule melting and evaporation. A slight weight loss observed in the temperature range of 200 to 280 °C may result from strong bonds between the polymer electrolyte and nanofillers, enhancing thermal stability. Continued temperature increase leads to thermal degradation of the polymer content.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>O-H stretching</th>
<th>C-H stretching</th>
<th>C=O stretching</th>
<th>C-H bending</th>
<th>C-O-C stretching</th>
<th>Ti-O-Ti bending</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HPMC+PEG</td>
<td>3456.11</td>
<td>2896.50</td>
<td>1646.58</td>
<td>1467.58</td>
<td>1280, 947</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPMC+PEG+TiO$_2$</td>
<td>3459.03</td>
<td>2881.38</td>
<td>1646.33</td>
<td>1455.33</td>
<td>1286, 947</td>
<td>569.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPMC+PEG+TiO$_2$+LiNO$_3$</td>
<td>3406</td>
<td>2923.35</td>
<td>1650.56</td>
<td>1461.81</td>
<td>1284, 945</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Figure 4.** (a) DTA and (b) TGA curves of HPMC/PEG and HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolytes.
consistent with existing literature [22]. However, the obtained results confirm the pronounced effect of TiO$_2$ and LiNO$_3$ on the thermal stability of the polymer blend electrolyte.

**Impedance spectra analysis**

In energy storage systems, ionic conductivity plays a pivotal role in determining their efficiency. Polymer electrolytes of higher ionic conductivity are likely to achieve optimal efficiency. An investigation of the effect of varying concentrations of TiO$_2$ in flexible polymer electrolyte films on the ionic conductivity was conducted through impedance spectroscopy analysis.

The Nyquist plots in Figure 5a correspond to the optimization of weight percentages of HPMC and PEG in the HPMC/PEG polymer blend electrolyte. For all polymer blends, semicircle responses at higher to mid-frequency ranges and some spikes at the lowest frequencies suggest a dominance of the bulk polymer blend electrolyte impedance over interfacial electrolyte/electrode response.

![Nyquist plots](image)

**Figure 5.** Nyquist plots of (a) HPMC/PEG, (b) HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$, (c) HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$, (d) enlarged view of HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ at higher frequencies

Semicircle diameters are determined by the bulk ionic resistance ($R_b$) values, which are relatively high, from about 1.5 MΩ for the HPMC(70)/PEG (30) polymer blend electrolyte. The notable reduction in semicircle diameters down to about 0.125 MΩ was observed with increasing PEG concentration within the HPMC polymer matrix up to 60 wt.%. This reduction may be due to improved chain mobility at optimized weight percentages, where PEG acts as a plasticizer [36]. Additionally, blending polymers induced controlled phase separation, creating additional grain boundaries conducive to ion mobility.
within the host polymer matrix [37]. It was observed that the HPMC(40)/PEG(60) showed the lowest $R_b$ value. At the same time, it has lower mechanical strength and is highly brittle, with noticeable phase separation. In contrast, the HPMC(45)/PEG(55) blend exhibited better mechanical strength and flexibility. Therefore, HPMC(45)/PEG(55) was chosen as the optimized pure polymer blend electrolyte. Additionally, TiO$_2$ was added as a nanofiller to the HPMC(45)/PEG(55) blend.

The Nyquist plots for HPMC(45)/PEG(55-y)/TiO$_2$(y), (y = 1, 2, 5 and 10 wt.%) polymer blend electrolytes at room temperature are shown in Figure 5b. These impedance plots exhibit depressed semicircles due to the bulk ionic resistance of polymer electrolytes, followed by Warburg impedance, seen as a ~45° slope line in the lower frequency region. The appearance of Warburg impedance indicates the presence of ionic diffusion in the electrolyte toward blocking electrodes [38]. The decreasing trend of $R_b$ with the addition of TiO$_2$ fillers from about 0.2 MΩ at 1 wt.% TiO$_2$ to less than 10 kΩ at 5 wt.% TiO$_2$ (Figure 5b) is attributed to improved chain mobility. However, further increase in TiO$_2$ above 5 wt.% exhibited a contrary effect on $R_b$. Additionally, the presence of a slope line in the low-frequency range of the Nyquist plot indicates ion diffusion through grain boundaries formed by the composite [38]. Hence 5 wt.% TiO$_2$ loaded HPMC/PEG was chosen as an optimized polymer blend electrolyte.

Finally, lithium nitrate (LiNO$_3$) ionic salt was incorporated into the optimized HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$ polymer blend electrolyte in varying weight percentages, ranging from 0.5 to 15 wt.%, as illustrated in Figures 5c and 5d and outlined in Table 2. Observations revealed that at 0.5 and 1 wt.% of LiNO$_3$, $R_b$ value remained high, at about 77.4 and 67.6 kΩ, respectively. At 2 wt.% of LiNO$_3$, $R_b$ values decreased, while impedance spectra comprised two semicircles (Figure 5c). The diameter of the first semicircle can be ascribed to $R_b$ while the other, to a contribution of impedance attributed to the electrode-electrolyte interface, where some interfacial charge transfer resistance is followed by Warburg diffusion impedance. As LiNO$_3$ concentration further increased up to 10 wt.%, both $R_b$ and charge transfer resistances decreased, leading to a noticeable reduction in the diameters of both semicircles (Figure 5d). This reduction, resulting from the increased number of ionic charges generated by added LiNO$_3$ ionic salt, indicates a dominance of ionic diffusion and implies that most ions are effective charge carriers [39]. Upon further increasing of LiNO$_3$ concentration above 10 wt.%, a semicircle re-appeared in the mid-frequency region, possibly due to alterations in the polymer electrolyte owing to ionic agglomeration, ionic collision and hence the formation of double layer capacitance, which results in the increase of charge transfer resistance [40].

**Optimization of polymer blend composite electrolyte through ionic conductivity evaluation**

The ionic conductivity ($\sigma$) of the polymer blend electrolytes was calculated using Eq. (3)

$$\sigma = \frac{d}{R_bA}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $d$ and $A$ represent the thickness and area of the polymer electrolyte, respectively. The bulk resistance $R_b$ values were measured from Nyquist plots as intercepts on the $Z'\text{-axis}$.

For the HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$ polymer electrolyte of thickness in the range of 60-85 µm, an increase of TiO$_2$ concentration up to 5 wt.% resulted in an enhancement of the ionic conductivity of films that was found to increase from 0.0283 µS cm$^{-1}$ (at 1 wt.% TiO$_2$) to 1.02 µS cm$^{-1}$ (at 5 wt.% of TiO$_2$). This increase can be attributed to the formation of more mobile chains within the polymer electrolyte. Additionally, the Lewis acid-base inherent characteristics exhibited by TiO$_2$ and polymer chains could increase the amorphous phase of polymer blend electrolyte, providing a potential tunnel for ion migration [12]. Further increase of TiO$_2$ content reduces ionic conductivity to 0.624 µS cm$^{-1}$. The reduction of ionic conductivity is possibly due to aggregation of nanofillers impeding ionic conductivity by blocking...
interfacial pathways along with reduced salt disassociation and chain mobility [22]. Hence, 5 wt.%TiO$_2$ would be the optimal concentration in HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$ polymer blend electrolyte that shows better performance. Following the optimization of the TiO$_2$, we incorporated the ionic salt LiNO$_3$ by adjusting the weight percentages of PEG and HPMC, as outlined in Table 2.

### Table 2. Optimization of HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolyte

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample code</th>
<th>Polymer blend content, wt.%</th>
<th>$R_b$ / Ω</th>
<th>$\sigma$ / μS cm$^{-1}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HPTL 1</td>
<td>HPMC 45, PEG 49.5, TiO$_2$ 5, LiNO$_3$ 0.5</td>
<td>77400</td>
<td>0.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPTL 2</td>
<td>HPMC 45, PEG 49.0, TiO$_2$ 5, LiNO$_3$ 1</td>
<td>67600</td>
<td>1.65</td>
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<tr>
<td>HPTL 3</td>
<td>HPMC 45, PEG 48.0, TiO$_2$ 5, LiNO$_3$ 2</td>
<td>8360</td>
<td>5.25</td>
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<tr>
<td>HPTL 4</td>
<td>HPMC 42.5, PEG 47.5, TiO$_2$ 5, LiNO$_3$ 5</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>12.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>HPTL 5</td>
<td>HPMC 42.5, PEG 45.0, TiO$_2$ 5, LiNO$_3$ 7.5</td>
<td>69.02</td>
<td>80.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>HPTL 6</td>
<td>HPMC 42.5, PEG 42.5, TiO$_2$ 5, LiNO$_3$ 10</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>213</td>
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<tr>
<td>HPTL 7</td>
<td>HPMC 40.0, PEG 40.0, TiO$_2$ 5, LiNO$_3$ 15</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>6.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the concentration of LiNO$_3$ increased from 0.5 to 10 wt.%, the ionic conductivity of the electrolyte films (with thicknesses ranging from 120 to 150 µm) improved significantly, ranging from 0.921 μS cm$^{-1}$ to 0.213 mS cm$^{-1}$. This observation suggests that the addition of Li salts increases the concentration of ions serving as charge carriers within the polymer matrix, thereby enhancing ionic conductivity. Meanwhile, TiO$_2$ facilitates ion migration by reducing the crystallinity of the polymer [41]. Furthermore, the polymer blend electrolyte acts as a solid solvent containing hydroxyl (-OH) groups, where oxygen is partially negative, and hydrogen is partially positive. The partially positive hydrogen ions interact and form hydrogen bonds with the negatively charged NO$_3^-$ ions of LiNO$_3$, promoting the dissociation of LiNO$_3$ salt and facilitating the release of more Li$^+$ ions. Nevertheless, the electrostatic attraction between Li$^+$ and NO$_3^-$ ions may be diminished as a result of hydrogen bond formation. Additionally, the surface charge of TiO$_2$ competes with Li ions in forming complexes with polymer chains, thereby altering the structure and promoting the creation of more ionic conduction pathways [42]. This behaviour was also observed by Sasikumar et al. [22] in their study. It is worth mentioning that the polymer composite with 15 wt.% of LiNO$_3$ exhibits high hygroscopicity and adhesive surface in nature, while the ionic conductivity of the film reduces to 6.47 μS cm$^{-1}$ (Table 2). Table 3 summarizes optimization results based on ionic conductivity obtained for HPMC/PEG, HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$ and HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolytes.

### Table 3. Estimated bulk resistance and ionic conductivity for optimized wt.% of polymer blend electrolytes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Optimized polymer blend electrolyte content, wt.%</th>
<th>Bulk resistance, Ω</th>
<th>$\sigma$ / μS cm$^{-1}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HPMC/PEG</td>
<td>HPMC 45, PEG 55, TiO$_2$ 0, LiNO$_3$ 0</td>
<td>2.87×10$^5$</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$</td>
<td>HPMC 45, PEG 50, TiO$_2$ 5, LiNO$_3$ 0</td>
<td>3.99×10$^5$</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$</td>
<td>HPMC 42.5, PEG 42.5, TiO$_2$ 5, LiNO$_3$ 10</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Jonscher’s power law

The relationship between AC conductivity and the types of involved charge carriers, including electrons, ions and defects, can be related by Jonscher power law given by Eq. (4)

$$\sigma_{AC} = \sigma_{DC} + A\omega^s$$  \(4\)

where $\omega$ is the hopping frequency, $A$ is the pre-exponential factor, and $s$ denotes the interaction of charge carriers during the hopping process. Also, both AC and DC conductivities are related by the...
type of charge carriers involved in conduction. Eq. (4) was used to fit the alternating current conductivity \( \sigma_{ac} / S \ cm^2 \) as a function of the logarithm of frequency (\( \log \omega \)), as demonstrated for the optimized HPMC/PEG, HPMC/PEG/TiO\(_2\), and HPMC/PEG/TiO\(_2\)/LiNO\(_3\) polymer blend electrolytes in Figure 6(a-c). Table 4 summarizes the estimated parameter values from the Jonscher power law fitting.

In the case of the pure HPMC/PEG blend (Figure 6a, Table 4), the AC conductivity remains relatively constant in the lower and mid-frequency range but exhibits an increase at higher frequencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample code</th>
<th>( \sigma_{ac} / \mu \Omega \ cm^{-1} )</th>
<th>( A )</th>
<th>( s )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(HPMC+PEG)</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>1.99 \times 10^{-10}</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(HPMC+PEG+TiO(_2))</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>9.93\times 10^{-9}</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(HPMC+PEG+TiO(_2)+LiNO(_3))</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>3.85\times 10^{-8}</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6. Jonscher power law fitting for (a) HPMC/PEG, (b) HPMC/PEG/TiO\(_2\), and (c) HPMC/PEG/TiO\(_2\)/LiNO\(_3\) polymer blend electrolytes

The increased conductivity at higher frequencies is due to two main factors: firstly, to the protonation and deprotonation of polar functional groups (such as -OH and -O- groups) along with enhanced segmental motion, and secondly, the hopping of ions between sites, a phenomenon observed in the Grotthuss mechanism [43]. However, the pre-factor \( A \), which corresponds to the frequency-dependent conductivity, is found to be 1.99\times 10^{-10}, two orders of magnitude lower than DC conductivity. This suggests that the DC conductivity predominates. The parameter \( s \) is 0.58, which is less than 1, indicating multiple ion relaxation processes [38].
Upon introduction of TiO$_2$ into the polymer electrolyte (Figure 6b, Table 4), the pre-factor $A$ increases by an order of magnitude while the value of $s$ decreases. This indicates either a slightly slower backward motion of the charge carriers with respect to frequency or a change in the site relaxation time. Nevertheless, the DC conductivity increases, but the order of magnitude of DC conductivity remains the same [38]. With the addition of LiNO$_3$ (Figure 6c, Table 4), the AC conductivity starts to increase in the mid-frequency range. The DC conductivity experiences a substantial enhancement, reaching 1.38 $\mu$S cm$^{-1}$, representing a two-order-of-magnitude increase. The pre-factor $A$ also increased to $3.85 \times 10^8$, suggesting the frequency-dependent relationship of conductivity. Additionally, the parameter $s$ attains a value of 0.844, approaching unity, which signifies a pronounced dependence of AC conductivity on frequency. At higher frequencies, the increase in conductivity corresponds to enhanced mobility of Li ions within the polymer matrix. Furthermore, the Jonscher power law fitting confirms that the increased conductivity is indeed a consequence of a greater number of ions present [38].

**Effect of aging on the optimized HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolyte**

Impedance analysis was conducted to observe the behaviour of the optimized HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolyte over time (1 to 6 days) (Figure 7). The results suggested that the resistance of the optimized polymer blend electrolyte containing 10 wt.% of LiNO$_3$ salt was mainly determined by the interfacial resistance. Figure 7 illustrates that the polymer blend electrolyte experienced notable changes in resistance with aging. Initially, on day 1, the interfacial resistance at the low-frequency intercept in Figure 7 was 84.8 $\Omega$. By day 3, this resistance decreased to 38.2 $\Omega$ and then increased significantly to 82.0 $\Omega$ by day 5, after which it stabilized. These results suggest that the polymer electrolytes could exhibit improved interfacial stability after an optimal storage period, thereby enhancing performance. The reduction in resistance may be attributed to moisture absorption, possibly facilitated by the ability of nano TiO$_2$ to effectively retain the solvent through capillary action, allowing the polymer chain to undergo a relaxation process and creating more flexible pathways for ions [42].

Saikumar et al. [22] reported that TiO$_2$-doped HSPE polymer composite film undergoes a significant variation in interfacial resistance, which rises from 154 to 758 $\Omega$ and reduces and stabilizes at 490 $\Omega$ after 10 days and claims that TiO$_2$-HSPE has better interfacial stability. A study by Zhai et al. [42] on polymer composite made of TiO$_2$ and PVDF-HFP in addition to the ionic liquid reported that interfacial resistance of the sample NCPE-0 increased from 250 to 850 $\Omega$ after 12 days and reached a steady value of 900 $\Omega$, whereas their sample NCPE-2 reaches a steady value of 400 $\Omega$ after 8 days.

The temperature-dependent Nyquist plots of optimized HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolyte as a function of temperature are shown in Figure 8. The temperature-dependent ionic conductivity studies were carried out on the optimized polymer blend electrolyte on day 7 (after stabilization).
The ionic conductivity increases from 0.099 to 0.119 mS cm\(^{-1}\) as temperature rises from room temperature (26 °C) to 40 °C. The Nyquist plots at room temperature, 27.5 and 30 °C have two semicircles. The mid-frequency semicircle indicated charge transfer resistance likely due to ionic agglomeration, while the high-frequency semicircle corresponds to the bulk of the solid electrolyte (on day 7) [6]. Interestingly, above 35 °C, the slope line corresponding to ionic diffusion dominates, while the interfacial resistance of the polymer electrolyte is also reduced. This confirmed that distributed nano TiO\(_2\) in the polymer matrix will enhance the conductivity by creating voids and defects in the polymer matrix, thus preventing the crystallization of the polymer matrix. In addition, the polymer blend undergoes a thermal expansion above 30 °C, improving the motion of polymer chains and favouring the mobility of ionic charge carriers [42]. However, no significant improvement in ionic conductivity was observed above 37.5 °C.

The Arrhenius equation (5) corresponds to the temperature-dependent hopping mechanism of ions in polymer blend electrolytes. The Arrhenius plot of ln $\sigma$ vs. 1000 $T^{-1}$ for optimized polymer blend electrolytes follows a linear relationship as depicted in Figure 9, confirming the Arrhenius behaviour. The plot reveals that optimized quantities show stronger temperature dependence.

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}}$$

(5)
In Eq. (5), $\sigma_0$ is the pre-exponential factor, $E_a$ is the activation energy, $k$ is the Boltzmann constant and $T$ is the absolute temperature. By linear fitting the above equation, the estimated value of activation energy $E_a$ is 0.1 eV. Quite close comparable values were reported by Trevisanello et al. [40] for Li|PEO, LLZO|PEO and lithium aluminium titanium phosphate (LATP)|PEO electrolytes. The work of Wang et al. [44] on pure lithium aluminium germanium phosphate (LAGP) and PEO/LAGP/LiTFSI composite materials reported an activation energy of 0.32 and 0.99 eV, respectively. Additionally, they reported that ice-templated LAGP/PEO attains 1.11 mS cm$^{-1}$ at 60 °C and corresponding activation energy of 0.45 eV. Similarly, Ahmed et al. [45] reported that 70 % of LiSn$_2$(PO$_4$)$_3$ (LSP powder) in PEO/LiClO$_4$ composite has an activation energy of 0.34 eV in the temperature range 27 to 60 °C which is impressively less than pure LSP powder whereas the conductivity is maximum of 0.118 mS cm$^{-1}$ at 60 °C. Zhai et al. [42] reported that activation energy in PVDF-HFP polymer composite containing TiO$_2$ and ionic liquid decreases with an increase in TiO$_2$ concentration. Mei et al. [46] reported the activation energy as high as 1.67 to 1.77 eV for LLZTO added PEO-based polymer composite material. They also noted that the crystalline phase of the polymer electrolyte necessitates higher activation energy due to the increased energy required for ion migration compared to the amorphous phase.

\[ \ln(\sigma) = -\frac{E_a}{RT} + \ln(\sigma_0) \]

**Figure 9.** Arrhenius plot of ln $\sigma$ vs. 1000 $T^{-1}$ of optimized HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolyte

The total conductivity of the composite is influenced by both cation and anion movement, as well as electronic conduction. The transference number of cations within an electrolyte significantly impacts recyclability and overall battery performance. Cation transport can be estimated using the Bruce-Vincent equation (6):

\[ t_c = \frac{I_{ss}(\Delta V-I_0R_0)}{I_0(\Delta V-I_{ss}R_{ss})} \]

where $I_0$, $I_{ss}$, $R_0$ and $R_{ss}$ represent the initial current, steady-state saturation current, and interfacial resistance before and after polarization, respectively. The initial and steady-state currents were determined using potentiostatic polarization, where current is measured over time at the constant potential of 10 mV, with the polymer electrolyte sandwiched between two non-blocking stainless steel electrodes. The potentiostatic polarization curve at 10 mV DC bias for 1500 seconds and Nyquist plots before and after polarization are depicted in Figure 10a and b, respectively.
Initially, the polarization current of 2.61 nA decreases over time, reaching a steady value of 0.58 nA after 650 s. The initial maximum current indicates the movement of all ionic species within the host polymer matrix, suggesting the contribution of both Li cations and nitrate anions as charge carriers, resulting in higher currents. The current exponentially decreases with time, reaching a steady state where only cationic species are involved in conductivity. The Nyquist plot after potentiostatic polarization shows higher interfacial resistance, indicating the formation of an anionic layer at the interface that may impede cation movement. Calculations reveal that the highest transference number for the optimized polymer blend composition is 0.323, a considerable value for battery fabrication, closely resembling polymer electrolytes with liquid plasticizers [47]. Previous study by Deivanayagam et al. [47] reported a transference number ($t_+$) value of 0.23 for highly cyclable polymer electrolytes for Mg batteries. Hu et al. [48] reported Li-ion transference numbers of 0.51 and 0.3 for Li/Al-SE/Li and Li/SE/Li cells, respectively, with enhanced ionic conductivity and dendrite suppression through the incorporation of alumina.

A new strategy for Li-based batteries with increased energy density, a wide electrochemical window, and excellent ionic conductivity has gained tremendous interest. To ensure the safety and cycling performance of batteries, an electrolyte with higher electrochemical and thermal stability is preferred. To assess the electrochemical potential window of the polymer electrolyte, linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) was conducted by sandwiching the polymer electrolyte between stainless-steel electrodes, with a scan rate of 1.0 mV s$^{-1}$ at room temperature across the range of 0 to 5V as depicted in Figure 11.
The observed increase in anodic current with potential corresponds to the degradation and decomposition of the polymer matrix and, hence, the contribution from anions present in the matrix [22,49]. However, an anodic peak is observed at 3.5 V, indicating an oxidation reaction of the polymer. The results show that the optimized polymer electrolyte has a relatively narrow chemical stability window of 2.85 V, determined by the intercept of the rapid current change curve on the voltage axis at zero current. These findings highlight the safe use of optimized polymer electrolytes in batteries with low-voltage cathode materials, ideally operating below 2.8 V.

**Mechanical properties of optimized polymer blend electrolytes**

Ensuring the safety and reliability of polymer electrolytes is crucial in Li-ion batteries. The strong mechanical integrity of solid-state electrolytes in batteries directly correlates with safety and reliability. The mechanical reliability is based on tensile strength, owing to the subsidiary properties in comparison with ionic conductivity and growth of Li dendrite through polymer films. While the ionic conductivity of polymer films improves with enhanced flexibility, introducing organic plasticizers can compromise the mechanical integrity of these films. Consequently, achieving a balance between flexibility and mechanical strength becomes imperative to suppress dendrite growth effectively. Strategies such as incorporating nanofillers and reinforcement agents improve mechanical strength and suppress dendrite proliferation. A polymer electrolyte with good flexibility and mechanical strength is desired for the practical implementation in batteries [50].

The mechanical properties were evaluated using stress vs. strain curve for HPMC/PEG, HMC/PEG/TiO₂ and HPMC/PEG/TiO₂/LiNO₃ polymer blend electrolytes, as demonstrated in Figure 12. Evaluated mechanical properties of optimized HPMC/PEG, HPMC/PEG/TiO₂ and HPMC/PEG/TiO₂/LiNO₃ polymer blend electrolytes are summarized in Table 5.

**Table 5. Mechanical properties of optimized polymer blend electrolytes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Tensile strength, MPa</th>
<th>Elongation at break, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HPMC/PEG</td>
<td>0.470</td>
<td>0.493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPMC/PEG/TiO₂</td>
<td>2.838</td>
<td>1.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPMC/PEG/TiO₂/LiNO₃</td>
<td>5.700</td>
<td>6.021</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 12. Tensile strengths of optimized HPMC/PEG, HPMC/PEG/TiO₂ and HPMC/PEG/TiO₂/LiNO₃ polymer blend electrolytes](http://dx.doi.org/10.5599/jese.2324)
Ionic conductivity of biocompatible glycol polymer blend electrolyte

Pure polymer blend HPMC/PEG exhibits a tensile strength of 0.470 MPa, whereas the introduction of 5 wt.% TiO$_2$ yields a notable increase to 2.83 MPa. Further tensile strength increased to 5.7 MPa by incorporating 10 wt.% LiNO$_3$. This improvement in tensile strength can be attributed to the interaction between nanofillers and polymer chains, imparting a reinforcing effect. The enhanced mechanical strength of polymer electrolytes is due to the uniform dispersion of nanofillers and the strong adhesion effect between nanofiller and polymer matrix. However, the introduction of inorganic filler into the polymer matrix may reduce flexibility due to the creation of defects and voids. Sasikumar et al. [22] reported the maximum mechanical strength of 9.3 MPa for 10 wt.% of TiO$_2$-NCF polymer electrolyte with ionic conductivity in the range of mS cm$^{-1}$. Song et al. [51] studied a gel polymer electrolyte for Li-ion batteries and reported a maximum mechanical strength of 4.07 MPa with good ionic conductivity of 6.22 mS cm$^{-1}$. It can be stated at the end that the optimized HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer electrolyte contains 5 wt.% TiO$_2$ with 10 wt.% LiNO$_3$ exhibits both good ionic conductivity and mechanical strength, making it a promising material for battery fabrication.

Conclusion

A flexible HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolytes were fabricated by the solution casting method. XRD analysis confirmed that the addition of nano TiO$_2$ has no effect on the amorphous nature of the polymer film. FTIR analysis confirms the functional groups and their interactions within the polymer electrolyte. The observed shifts in the FTIR spectra bands are due to the interactions between TiO$_2$, the polymer chains, and LiNO$_3$. The thermal stability and phase transition of the flexible polymer blend electrolyte were evaluated by TGA/DTA analysis and found that enhanced thermal stability around 340 $^\circ$C and a broader melting point. Nyquist plots indicated that the optimized HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ (5 wt.% TiO$_2$ and 10 wt.% LiNO$_3$) polymer blend electrolyte exhibited a maximum ionic conductivity of 0.213 mS cm$^{-1}$ at room temperature. This enhanced conductivity suggests that the nanofillers facilitate additional pathways for ion migration. The temperature-dependent ionic conductivity followed linear Arrhenius behaviour, with a fitted activation energy of 0.1 eV. Jonscher power law fitting showed that the pure HPMC/PEG blend primarily contributed to DC conductivity, while the HPMC/PEG/TiO$_2$/LiNO$_3$ polymer blend electrolyte had a higher contribution from the frequency-dependent parameter A and s of the Arrhenius equation. The optimized polymer blend electrolyte, placed between stainless steel electrodes and polarized at 10 mV for 25 minutes, achieved a maximum Li ion transference number of 0.323. Linear sweep voltammetry, conducted at a scan rate of 1.0 mV s$^{-1}$ up to 5 V, revealed an electrochemical stability window of 2.85 V, with an oxidation peak at 3.5 V. The tensile strength of the polymer blend electrolytes improved with the addition of the nanofiller due to its reinforcing effect, reaching 5.70 MPa for the optimized polymer blend. Future research work will be focused on optimizing the composition through software-assisted experimental designs, incorporating ionic liquid, co-fillers, and introducing microporous structural defects.

Authorship contribution statement: Mohan S: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Data acquisition and analysis, visualization, original draft writing and editing. Rajashekar F Bhajantri: Conceptualization, Project administration, Supervision, Funding acquisition, formal analysis, review and editing.

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Submission declaration: The authors declare that the manuscript is our original work and all the authors contributed significantly. Further, this work is not previously published and not under consideration elsewhere.
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