



In-situ phase transition to form porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers with high stability for Li⁺/Na⁺ storage

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ABSTRACT Porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers with a large specific surface area of 400.2 m² g⁻¹ were successfully synthesized with hot HNO₃ oxidizing MoO₂@C nanofibers without obvious damage to carbon shells. As anodes for lithium ion batteries (LIBs), the porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers electrodes show a reversible capacity of 302.9 mA h g⁻¹ at 2 A g⁻¹ after 500 cycles. As anodes for sodium ion batteries (SIBs), they also can deliver a good rate capacity and hold 108.9 mA h g⁻¹ at 2 A g⁻¹ after 500 cycles, even can have 91 mA h g⁻¹ at 5 A g⁻¹ after 1200 cycles. The excellent electrochemical performances of the porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers are attributed to the unique structure which not only can maintain the structure stability but also provide enough active sites for Li⁺/Na⁺. At the same time, the tunnel structure of h-MoO₃ can lead to separate electron-hole and offer a great deal of special positions for cation (Li⁺/Na⁺) insertion/extraction. The present method may be helpful for the synthesis of transition metal oxides (TMOs)-carbon composites with high valence metal atoms in the field of batteries and catalysts.

Keywords: electrospinning, *in-situ* phase transition, lithium ion battery, sodium ion battery, core shell nanofibers

INTRODUCTION

Lithium ion batteries (LIBs) have received wide attention in the commercial market of portable electronic devices [1,2], energy storage systems [3–4], and electric vehicles [5–6] due to their excellent characteristics, such as long cycling life, high energy density, and no memory effect [7–9]. However, with the rapid development of science and technology, the researches of higher capacity and longer cycling performance of LIBs have become urgent. On the other hand, sodium ion batteries (SIBs) have recently received wide publicity as an energy storage system due to

more natural abundance of Na reserves [10,11]. The theoretical capacity of the traditional commercial graphite anode is only 372 mA h g⁻¹ for LIBs [12,13], even lower for SIBs [14,15], limiting the application of high efficiency energy demand with high stability both for LIBs and SIBs. Thus, it has been drawing wide attention to develop new anode materials, which not only have relatively high capacity but also maintain good cycling stability.

In recent years, transition metal oxides (TMOs) in optics [16,17], magnetism [18,19], catalysis [20,21] and electronic fields [22,23] show superior performance, and the nano-sized TMOs have been used as anode materials for LIBs, and considered as promising candidates to solve the above mentioned problems [24–28]. Compared to graphite anodes, they have high theoretical capacity, such as MoO₃ (1,117 mA h g⁻¹) [29,30], including the well-known thermodynamically stable normal phase α-MoO₃ [31,32], and metastable phase h-MoO₃ [33,34]. As reported, metastable structures often demonstrate new or enhanced properties compared to their thermodynamically stable forms. For example, the tunnel structure of h-MoO₃ can lead to separate electron hole and offer a great deal of special positions for the cation (Li⁺/Na⁺) insertion/extraction [35]. And the electrical conductivity of h-MoO₃ is better than that of the stable phase α-MoO₃ [36]. However, h-MoO₃ still faces the risk of volume expansion, leading to poor kinetics and capacity decrease during the charge/discharge process [37].

So the urgent issue is how to enhance the stability of the structure. Carbon composite structures have been widely studied, such as core shell structure [38–40], which is considered as an effective structure to solve the above problems. For instance, Xia *et al.* [41] synthesized MoO₃/C nano-composites with a capacity of about 500 mA h g⁻¹ at

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the 100th cycle at a current density of 0.1 A g⁻¹ for LIBs. Pan's group [42] have prepared MoO₃/reduced graphene oxide delivering a capacity of about 208 mA h g⁻¹ at 0.05 A g⁻¹ after 50 cycles for SIBs. Hence, the shell, such as carbon or graphene, is the key factor to improve the stability and electroconductivity of the structure, which further affects the performance of the batteries. More importantly, according to previous studies [43–45], the existence of porous structure can improve the electrochemical performance of carbon materials, boosting the electron transfer at the electrode/electrolyte interface and reducing the structural collapse caused by the volume change. Herein, porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers have been successfully synthesized with hot HNO₃ oxidizing MoO₂@C nanofibers, which are prepared by a single electrospinning. On the one hand, MoO₃ has a higher theoretical specific capacity than MoO₂. On the other hand, some of MoO₂ nanoparticles in the nanofibers are dissolved by hot HNO₃, and the rest coated by carbon undergo *in-situ* phase transition and then are oxidized to form porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers. So the porous nanofiber structures not only provide free space for volume expansion, but also facilitate the migration of Li⁺/Na⁺. At the same time, the surface modification (-OH, C=O, C-NO₂, -NH₂) by hot HNO₃ on the surface of the porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers can further enhance the cyclic stability. As anodes for LIBs and SIBs, the porous h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrode shows excellent performance. This strategy provides a new route to synthesize core shell nanomaterials, which are both for LIBs and SIBs.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Synthesis of MoO₂@C nanofibers

The mixture of ammonium molybdate tetrahydrate (AMM, (NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·4H₂O, 99%) and polyvinyl alcohol (PVA, [C₂H₄O]_n, M_w=80,000, 1 g) were dissolved in deionized water (10 g) at 60°C with continuous stirring for 8 h, which formed a mixed solution of a viscous gel. The distance between the tip of the spinneret and the collector was adjusted to 16 cm. The voltage and the speed were 17 kV and 0.4 mL h⁻¹, respectively. The as-prepared precursors in vacuum were dried at 80°C overnight, and then heated at 650°C for 2 h at a rate of 1°C min⁻¹ in Ar to obtain MoO₂@C nanofibers. The pure MoO₃ was obtained by annealing AMM at 650°C for 2 h in air.

Synthesis of porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers

The MoO₂@C nanofibers (0.1 g) were added to the mixed solution of deionized water (60 ml) and concentrated ni-

tric acid (5 mL, about 14.4 mol L⁻¹) at 80°C for 20 h. Finally h-MoO₃@C nanofibers were obtained by centrifugation several times, and then dried at 60°C.

Characterization

The samples were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD Cu K α irradiation, λ =1.5418 Å), scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S4800), transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL-2010), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET), Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR, AVTA-TAR, 370), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).

Electrochemical measurements

The electrochemical performance was tested using CR2025-type coin cells. The active materials (70 wt.%), conductivity agent carbon black (15 wt.%) and binder sodium carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC, 15 wt.%) were mixed in deionized water and absolute alcohol mixture by stirring at a constant speed for 8 h, and a homogeneous slurry was obtained, which acted as the electrode materials. The mixed slurry was then spread onto a copper foil and dried at 80°C in a vacuum oven for 12 h. The electrolyte contained a solution of 1 mol L⁻¹ LiPF₆ in diethyl carbonate/ethylene carbonate/dimethyl carbonate (1:1:1, in wt./wt.). These cells were assembled in an argon filled glove-box (O₂ and H₂O levels less than 0.05 ppm). The charge/discharge capacities were calculated based on the composite active materials (h-MoO₃@C nanofibers or MoO₂@C nanofibers). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves were tested using Chen Hua CHI 660E electrochemical station. The charge discharge measurements were carried out on an Arbin BT2000 system with the potential window of 0–3 V.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The synthesis of porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers is briefly outlined in the schematic diagram, as shown in Fig. 1a. First of all, AMM/PVA precursor was prepared by electrospinning. After annealing at 650°C in Ar, the MoO₂@C nanofibers were synthesized. Then after the hot HNO₃ treatment, some of MoO₂ nanoparticles in the nanofibers were dissolved and others coated by carbon were oxidized by *in-situ* phase transition, forming a porous structure of MoO₃@C nanofibers. At the same time, some oxygen-containing functional groups were modified on the surface of the MoO₃@C nanofibers. The crystal structures of MoO₂ and h-MoO₃ are provided, as shown in Fig. 1b, which more vividly elaborates the transition from MoO₂ to

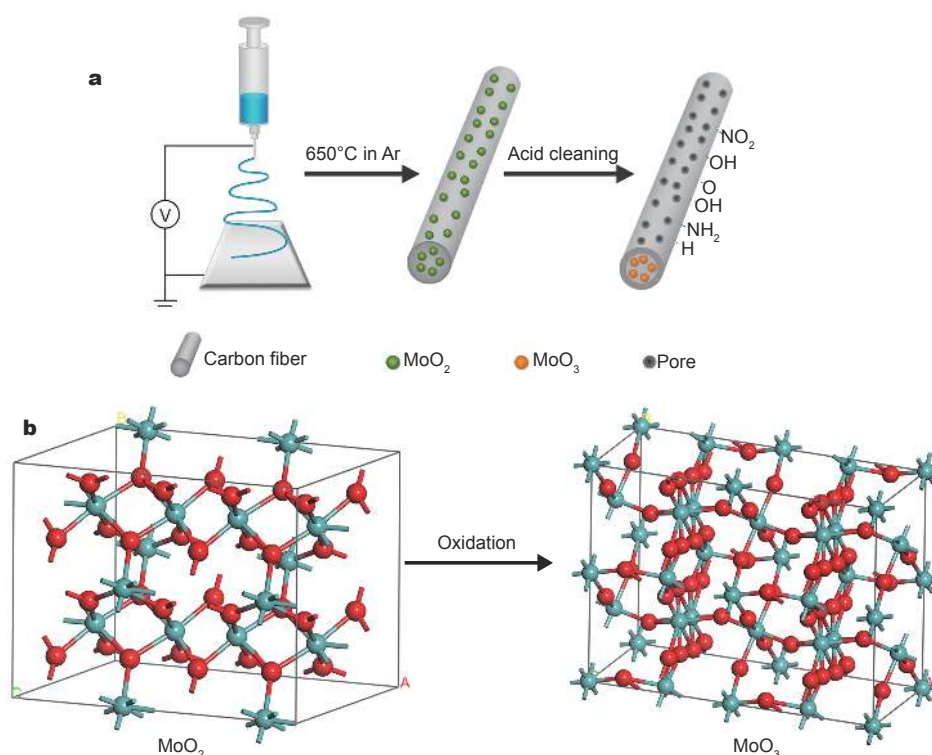


Figure 1 (a) Schematic illustration shows the synthetic route for preparing porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers; (b) the transition of crystal structure from MoO₂ to MoO₃ through hot HNO₃ oxidation.

h-MoO₃.

The micro morphologies of the as-synthesized products were analyzed by SEM. The image of the MoO₂@C nanofibers after annealing at 650°C with a rate of 1°C min⁻¹ in Ar is shown in Fig. 2a, which clearly reveals the core shell structures. The XRD diffractions can be readily indexed to MoO₂, which shows that the AMM is absolutely converted to MoO₂, as shown in Fig. 2c. The content of MoO₂ in the MoO₂@C nanofibers is 63% in Fig. S1 (Supplementary information) by TGA. After acid treatment, the XRD of the product is shown in Fig. 2d, and all the identified peaks can be indexed to h-MoO₃ (JCPDS No. 21-569), which is due to the oxidation of MoO₂, but the content of MoO₃ becomes only 26.24 % in Fig. S1, the reason for which is that some of the MoO₂ nanoparticles were dissolved in HNO₃ solution and the rest underwent phase transition and then were oxidized to form h-MoO₃@C nanofibers. So in Fig. 2b, the core shell structure still exists and the surface of nanofibers becomes slightly rough with lots of pores. At the same time more SEM images of MoO₂@C and h-MoO₃@C nanofibers are shown in Fig. S2. The reasons for the formation of core shell structure were explained in our previous reports [46,47].

In order to further distinguish the micro structures of

the MoO₂@C and h-MoO₃@C nanofibers, TEM was characterized. In Fig. S3, the image of the MoO₂@C nanofibers clearly indicates that MoO₂ nanoparticles are coated by carbon. After acid treatment, the TEM image of the h-MoO₃@C nanofibers is shown in Fig. 3a with a porous structure. Fig. 3b confirms the presence of crystalline h-MoO₃ coated by carbon with a characteristic plane of (410). The N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of the h-MoO₃@C nanofibers exhibit type-IV isotherm associated with a surface area of 400.2 m² g⁻¹. The inset in Fig. 3c shows that the pore-size of nanofibers is micropores and mesopores. The porous nanostructure would provide more favorable transportation route, while the high surface area affords more adsorption sites for Li⁺/Na⁺, serving as reservoirs for Li⁺/Na⁺ storage and channels for easy permeation of electrolyte [47]. At the same time, the oxygen-containing functional groups are also characterized by FTIR shown in Fig. 2d. With hot HNO₃ treatment, the surface of the h-MoO₃@C nanofibers are modified with oxygen-containing functional groups (-OH, -C=O), which can form stable solid electrolyte interface (SEI) films, further enhancing the cyclic stability [48].

In Fig. 4a, the porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers were composed solely of C, O, N and Mo. The corresponding O

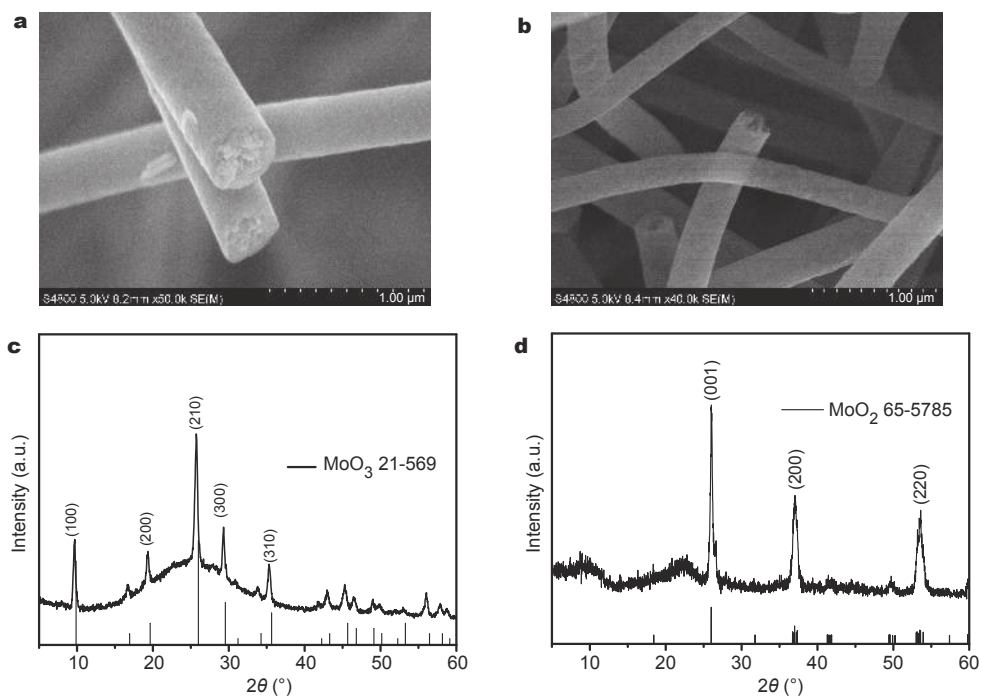


Figure 2 (a, b) SEM images of the as-synthesized MoO₂@C and h-MoO₃@C nanofibers, respectively; (c, d) XRD of the MoO₂@C and h-MoO₃@C nanofibers, respectively.

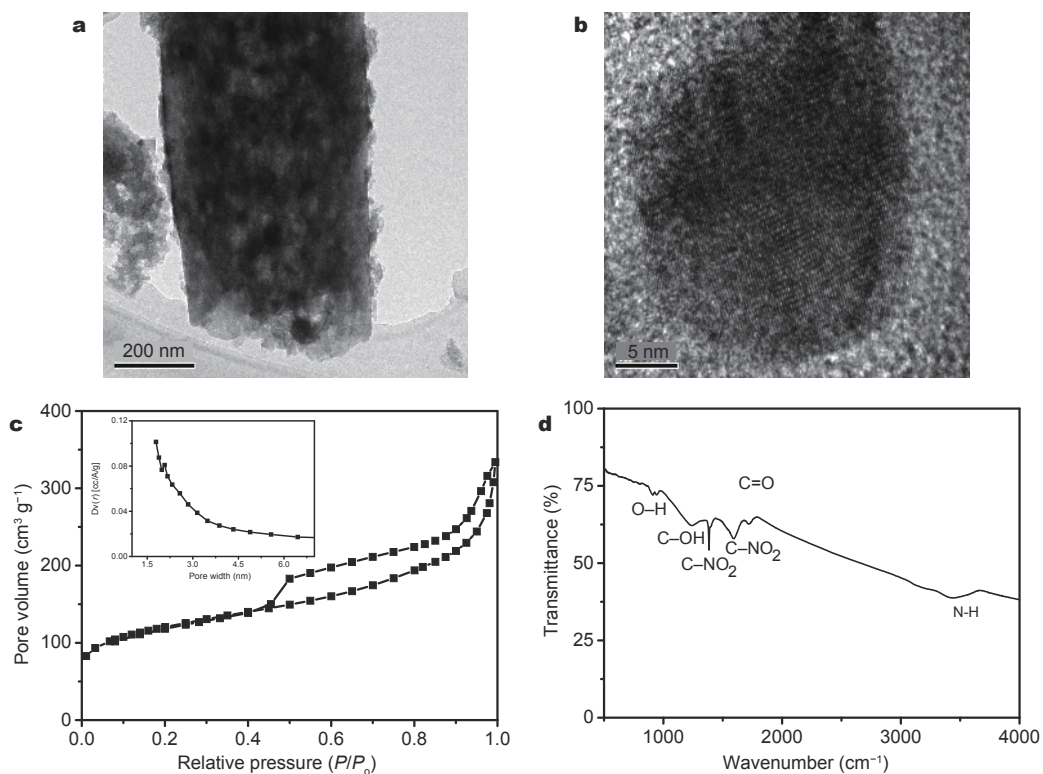


Figure 3 (a, b) TEM images of the h-MoO₃@C nanofibers; (c) nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms of the h-MoO₃@C nanofibers (the inset is the pore-size distribution); (d) FTIR spectrum of the h-MoO₃@C nanofibers.

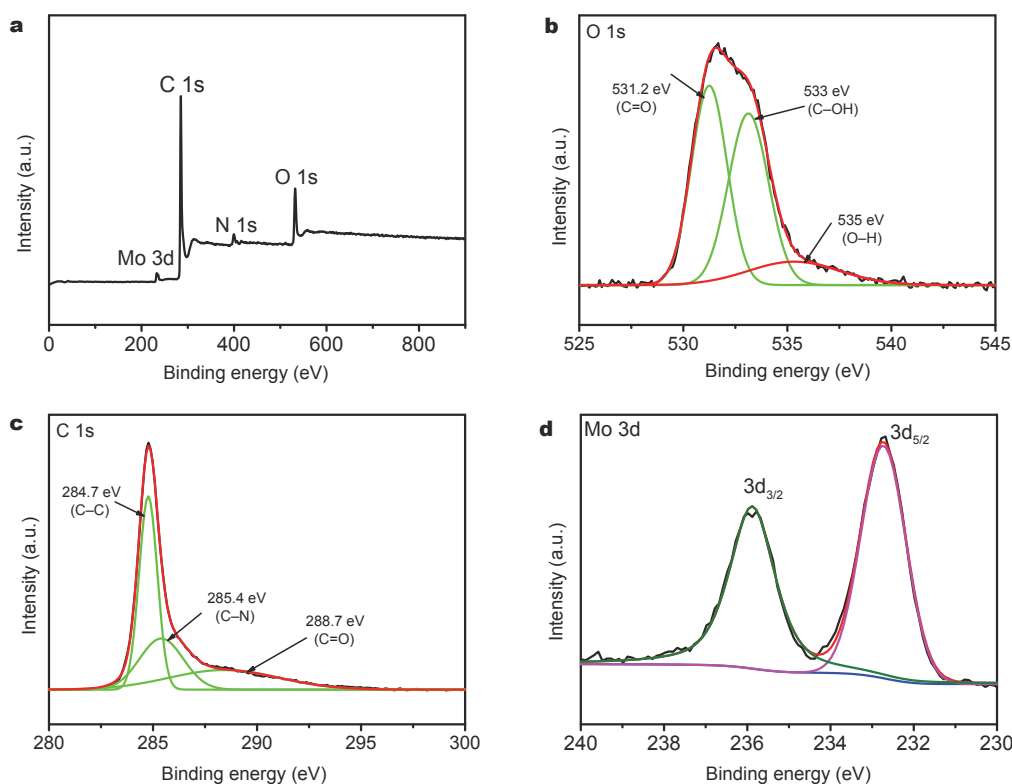


Figure 4 Low-resolution XPS spectrum (a), high-resolution XPS spectra of (b) C 1s, (c) O 1s, and (d) Mo 3d of the h-MoO₃@C nanofibers.

1s spectra (Fig. 4b) exhibits signals corresponding to C=O and C–OH at ≈ 531.2 and 533 eV, respectively. The peak at 535 eV is a fingerprint of OH groups. The result well proved that oxygen-containing functional groups are modified on the surface of nanofibers in line with the FTIR result. Furthermore, the high-resolution C 1s spectra (Fig. 4c) exhibits a main peak corresponding to C–C at 284.7 eV, along with a single one for C–N at 285.4 eV, and a further weaker band associated with C=O at 288.7 eV. Fig. 4d shows the two peaks at 235.8 and 232.7 eV are attributed to the binding energies of the $3d_{3/2}$ and the $3d_{5/2}$ orbital electrons of Mo⁶⁺ [29], respectively, indicating that there is no existence of Mo⁴⁺.

The samples during charge/discharge process are tested by CV over the voltage range of 0 – 3.0 V at the scanning rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ for LIBs, as shown in Fig. 5a. The peak at 2.02 V is only observed in the first discharge cycle, which comes from a solid SEI layer and the decomposition of the electrolyte [49–51]. In the subsequent CV steps, the main oxidation/reduction pair is $1.2/1.46$ V, associating with the reaction of MoO₃ [52,53]. The peaks (0.42 V) may be from Li_xMo alloys, which is due to the Li⁺ insertion/extraction with different site energies for different nanostructures

and composites [53]. The broad peak at 2.5 V should be due to the desertion of Li⁺ from crystalline Li_xMoO₃ [29]. The oxidation peaks near 0 V are attributed to the carbon, which is more obvious and shows the electrode possesses good electrochemical performance in the process of charge/discharge [46].

Fig. 5b shows the charge/discharge curves for the h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrode at the current density of 0.1 A g⁻¹ over the voltage range of 0 – 3.0 V. It was observed in the first cycle that the charge and discharge capacity of the h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrode can reach 878.1 and $1,595.3$ mA h g⁻¹, respectively, which may be caused by activation. And the Coulombic efficiency is estimated as 55% , which is caused by the formation of SEI and the decomposition of the electrolyte [54,55]. In the next cycles, the Coulombic efficiency of the electrode could reach 99% .

As illustrated in Fig. 5c, the rate performances were tested at the current densities of 0.1 , 0.3 , 0.5 , 1 and 2 A g⁻¹. The corresponding initial discharge capacities are 946.6 , 751.7 , 592.4 , 512.2 and 271.2 mA h g⁻¹, respectively. Moreover, when the current density is back to 0.1 A g⁻¹, the discharge capacity goes back to 900 mA h g⁻¹, which is almost equal to the initial capacity and demonstrates that

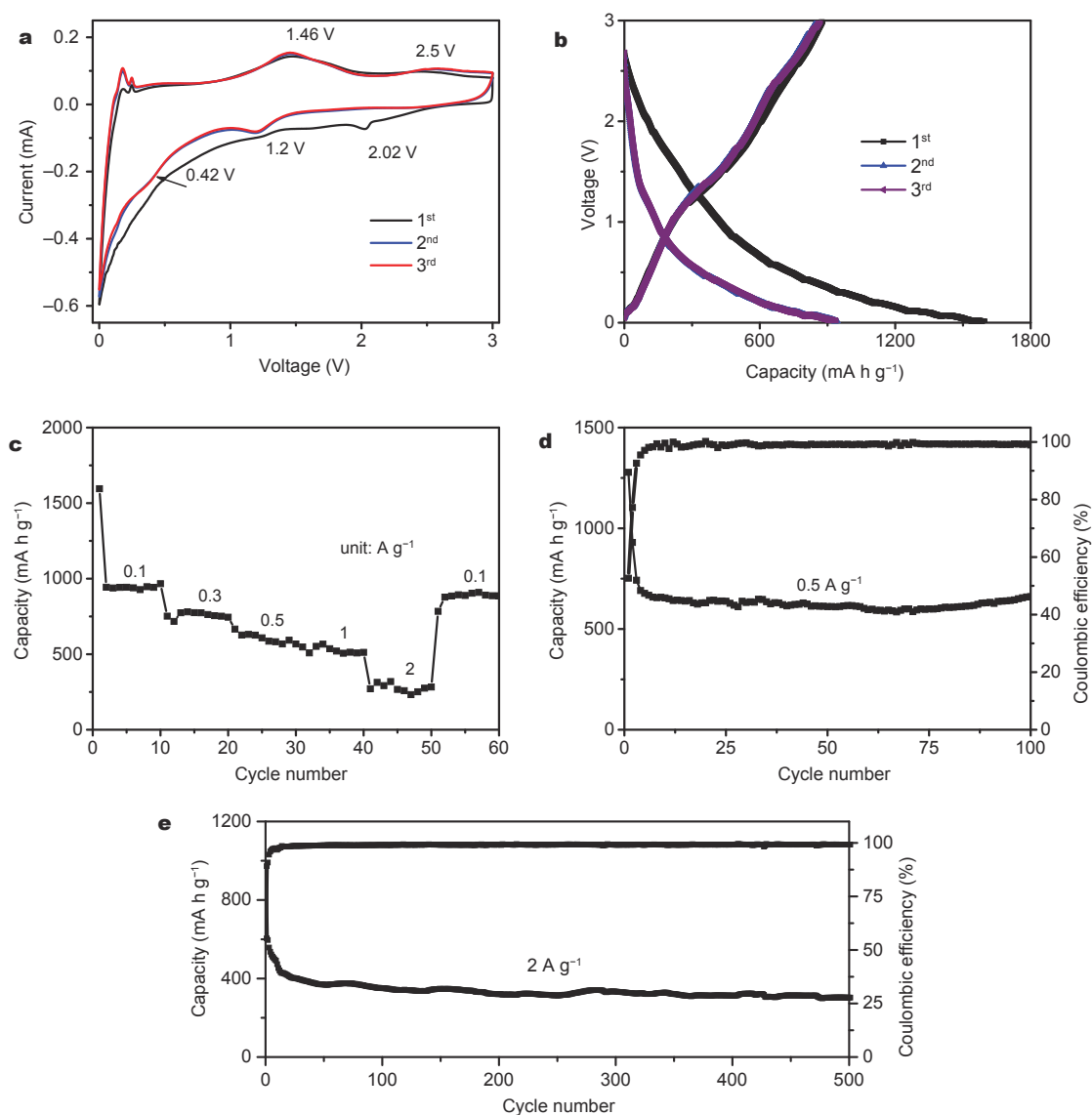


Figure 5 Electrochemical performances for Li^+ storage: (a) CV curves; (b) charge/discharge curves; (c) rate performances of the $\text{h-MoO}_3/\text{C}$ nanofiber electrode; (d, e) cycling performances of $\text{h-MoO}_3/\text{C}$ nanofiber electrode at 0.5 and 2 A g^{-1} , respectively.

the $\text{h-MoO}_3/\text{C}$ nanofiber electrode has a good rate performance.

Cycle performance is an important index to evaluate the performance of LIBs. Fig. 5d shows the cycling performances of $\text{h-MoO}_3/\text{C}$ nanofibers at 0.5 A g^{-1} . The MoO_2/C nanofiber electrode only has 389.9 mA h g^{-1} at the 100th cycle. Compared to MoO_2/C nanofiber electrodes, after 100 cycles at the current density of 0.5 A g^{-1} , the specific capacity of $\text{h-MoO}_3/\text{C}$ nanofiber electrode still can obtain 660.9 mA h g^{-1} . To test the stability of $\text{h-MoO}_3/\text{C}$ nanofiber electrode, the current density of 2 A g^{-1} is carried out, as shown in Fig. 5e. After 500 cycles,

the electrodes still can maintain 302.9 mA h g^{-1} , remaining structure of the nanofiber from SEM images after cycling in Fig. S4. The properties are not higher than most of publication about MoO_3/C for LIBs. A possible reason may be that the MoO_3 ratio in the composites is relatively low due to the limitations of electrospinning [56]. On the other hand, the main objective of this study is to *in-situ* transfer MoO_2 to h-MoO_3 , resulting in the synthesis of $\text{h-MoO}_3/\text{C}$ nanofiber with improved electrochemical performance. So it is necessary to calculate the theoretical capacity of the composites, judging the quality of the electrochemical performance. The theoretical capacity of

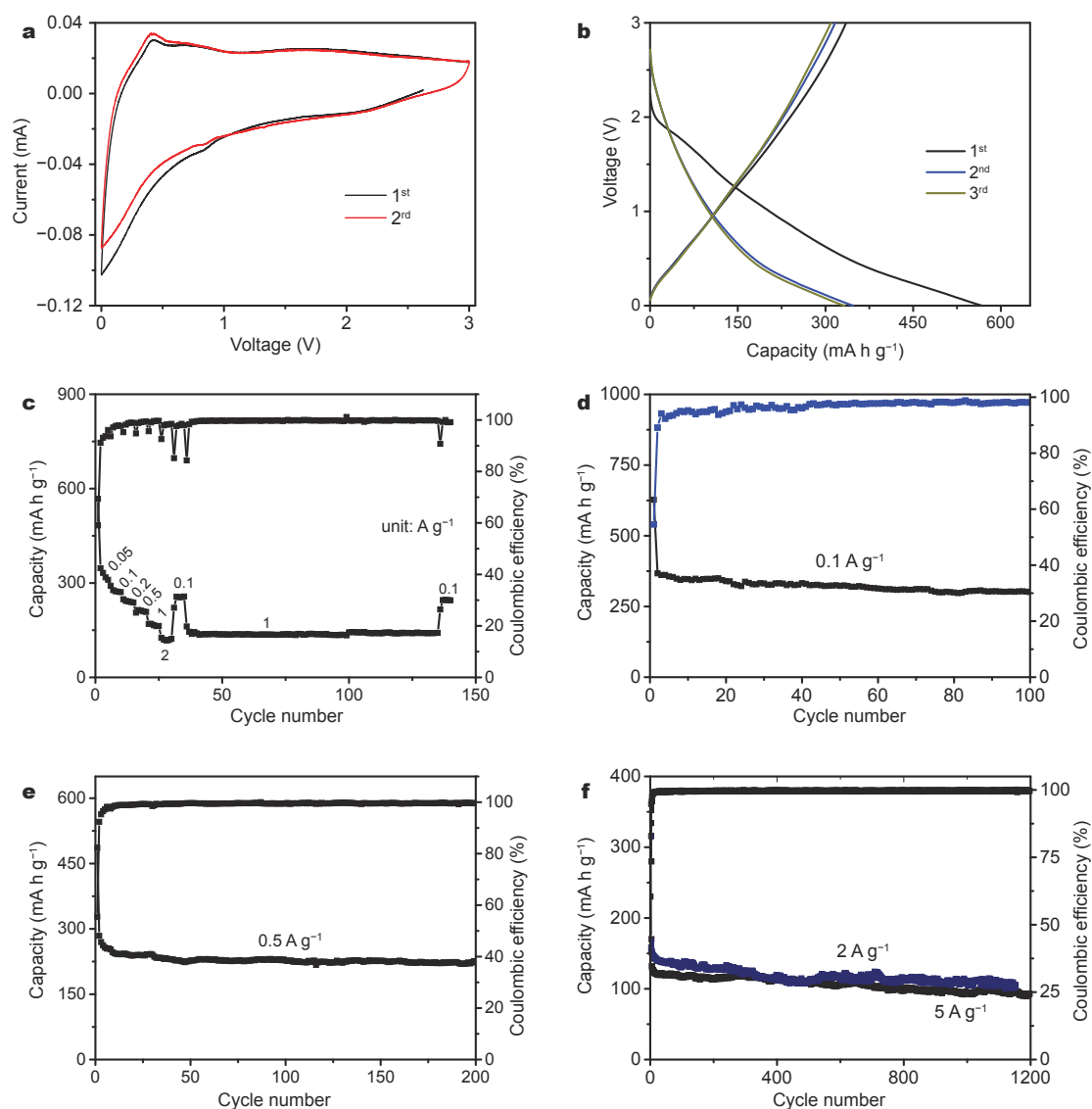


Figure 6 Electrochemical performances for Na^+ storage. (a) CVs; (b) charge/discharge curves; (c) rate performance of the $\text{h-MoO}_3\text{/C}$ nanofiber electrode; cycling performance of $\text{MoO}_2\text{/C}$ (d), $\text{h-MoO}_3\text{/C}$ (e, f) nanofiber electrode at 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2 and 5 A g^{-1} , respectively.

$\text{h-MoO}_3\text{/C}$ nanofiber is 567 mA h g^{-1} , which is calculated in the Supporting information. With the result, the capacities at 0.1 A g^{-1} , even at 0.5 A g^{-1} are higher than the theoretical capacity of $\text{h-MoO}_3\text{/C}$ nanofiber hybrid. Certainly, the electrochemical performances of $\text{MoO}_2\text{/C}$ nanofiber and pure MoO_3 at 0.5 A g^{-1} are provided in Figs S5, S6, respectively, which are both lower than that of the $\text{h-MoO}_3\text{/C}$ nanofibers. There are several reasons for the reversible capacity. One is the reversible formation of Li_2O and Mo at nanoscale, according to the following reaction: $\text{MoO}_3 + 6\text{Li}^+ + 6\text{e}^- \leftrightarrow 3\text{Li}_2\text{O} + \text{Mo}$. It has been proved that the small size effect of Mo nanoparticles can greatly in-

crease the electrochemical reactivity and make the conversion between Li^+ and Li_2O reversible [57–58]. So nano- Mo metal can probably make extra Li_2O reversibly convert to Li^+ . Another is the porous nanofiber structure, providing enough active sites for Li^+ . So it is possible that the specific capacity was higher than theoretical capacity.

It is interesting that the Na^+ storage performance of the porous $\text{h-MoO}_3\text{/C}$ nanofiber electrode is also excellent, especially the stability. Fig. 6a shows the CVs of the $\text{h-MoO}_3\text{/C}$ nanofiber electrode at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} from 0 to 3.0 V. The oxidation/reduction peaks are 0.4/0 V, associating with the reaction of carbon. The peak

of MoO₃ reaction is not obvious. The similar phenomenon is also reported [42,59].

The galvanostatic voltage profile of the h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrode was investigated at current density of 0.05 A g⁻¹ over the voltage range of 0–3 V. As shown in Fig. 6b, the initial discharge and charge specific capacity of h-MoO₃@C electrodes is 567.2/335.2 mA h g⁻¹, respectively. The large capacity losses are attributed mainly to the excessive surface reactions on the SEI films [60].

The rate performances of the h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrodes at 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, and 2 A g⁻¹ are shown in Fig. 6c. They deliver initial reversible capacity of 567.6, 291.2, 248.4, 205.7, 169.9 and 125.7 mA h g⁻¹, still remaining at 141.5 mA h g⁻¹ after 100 cycles at 1 A g⁻¹. This result proves that the h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrode shows a good rate capability. To study the stability of the h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrode, the cycling performances were tested. In Fig. 6d, after 100 cycles, the MoO₂@C nanofiber electrode shows poor stability and capacity retention at the current density of 0.1 A g⁻¹. Compared to the MoO₂@C nanofibers, the porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers structures not only provide free space for volume expansion, but also facilitate the migration of Na⁺. As expected, the h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrode can maintain 300.9 mA h g⁻¹ at the current density of 0.1 A g⁻¹ after 100 cycles, when increased to 0.5, 1 and 2 A g⁻¹, respectively, the capacities can still hold 223.1, 153.8 and 108.9 mA h g⁻¹ at the 200th, 500th and 1000th cycle, respectively (Fig. 6e, f). After pre-cycling at 0.1 A g⁻¹, the higher current density (5 A g⁻¹) is carried out in Fig. 6f, showing excellent stability with 91 mA h g⁻¹ at 1200th cycle. The electrochemical performances of MoO₂@C nanofibers and pure MoO₃ at 0.1 A g⁻¹ are also provided in Figs S7, S8, showing the unsatisfactory stability and performances. On the contrary, the porous h-MoO₃@C nanofiber can obtain better stability, even higher than relevant publication of MoO₃ for SIBs [42,57,61], the reasons for the performance of the porous h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrode for SIBs are summarized as follow: the rich porous structures could not only provide more electrochemical active sites and boost the lithiation/delithiation kinetics, but also facilitate the migration of Na⁺; the oxygen-containing functional groups on surface form stable chemically bonded SEI films, further enhancing the cyclic stability [47].

CONCLUSION

In summary, we synthesized porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers by nitric acid oxidizing MoO₂@C for LIBs and SIBs. The carbon shell can not only maintain the stability of the

structure, but also enhance the conductivity. Moreover, the core shell porous structures provide a large specific surface area of 400.2 m² g⁻¹, which further facilitates structural stability. As the anode materials for Li⁺/Na⁺ storage, the porous h-MoO₃@C nanofiber electrodes exhibit excellent rate and cycle performances. Therefore, we developed the nitric acid oxidation method to synthesize porous h-MoO₃@C nanofibers, which were of improved properties as compared to MoO₂@C both in LIBs and SIBs.

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Author contributions Chen Z and Zhang M designed the project. Chen Z performed the main experiments. Liu Y participated in the article work. Zhang H, Ding S and Wang T helped with the experiments and analyzed the data. Chen Z and Zhang M wrote the manuscript, and all the authors revised the manuscript.

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原位液相转变制备多孔h-MoO₃@C纳米线用于锂/钠离子储存

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摘要 基于金属氧化物存储机制, MoO₃比MoO₂具有更高的理论容量. 本文通过热的硝酸氧化MoO₂@C纳米线成功制备出具有400.2 m² g⁻¹高比表面积的多孔h-MoO₃@C纳米纤维, 且碳壁没有明显破坏. 作为锂离子电池的负极, 与MoO₂@C纳米线相比多孔h-MoO₃@C纳米纤维电极表现出更好的性能, 其中在2 A g⁻¹的电流密度下500循环后展现出302.9 mA h g⁻¹的可逆容量. 作为钠离子电池的负极, h-MoO₃@C电极同样具有很好的倍率性能. 在2 A g⁻¹的电流密度下500循环后仍具有108.9 mA h g⁻¹的容量, 并且在2 A g⁻¹的电流密度下1200循环后还能保持91 mA h g⁻¹的容量. 由于碳壁可以维持结构的完整性且可提高导电性; 同时h-MoO₃的隧道结构可作为分离电子孔并为Li⁺/Na⁺嵌入脱出提供更多的特有位置, 使得该复合纳米线作为电极材料表现出更好的性能. 本工作为合成具有高价的过渡金属氧化物/碳复合材料在电池和催化剂领域的运用提供了依据.