

Hydrogenated TiO₂ Branches Coated Mn₃O₄ Nanorods as an Advanced Anode Material for Lithium Ion Batteries

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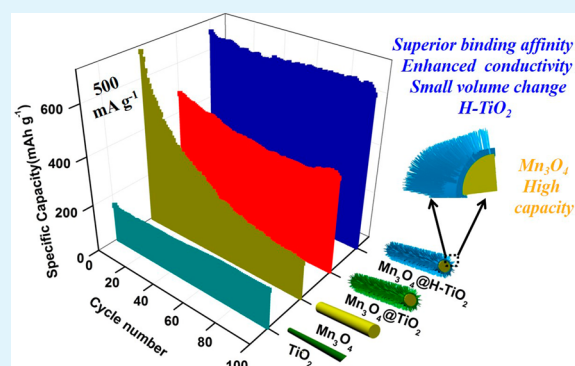
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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Rational design and delicate control on the component, structure, and surface of electrodes in lithium ion batteries are highly important to their performances in practical applications. Compared with various components and structures for electrodes, the choices for their surface are quite limited. The most widespread surface for numerous electrodes, a carbon shell, has its own issues, which stimulates the desire to find another alternative surface. Here, hydrogenated TiO₂ is exemplified as an appealing surface for advanced anodes by the growth of ultrathin hydrogenated TiO₂ branches on Mn₃O₄ nanorods. High theoretical capacity of Mn₃O₄ is well matched with low volume variation (~4%), enhanced electrical conductivity, good cycling stability, and rate capability of hydrogenated TiO₂, as demonstrated in their electrochemical performances. The proof-of-concept reveals the promising potential of hydrogenated TiO₂ as a next-generation material for the surface in high-performance hybrid electrodes.

KEYWORDS: hybrid materials, nanostructures, oxygen vacancies, electrochemical properties, batteries



INTRODUCTION

Advanced lithium ion batteries (LIBs), as an important link in the chain of sustainable energy applications, have permeated the fields of portable electronics, electric vehicles, and stationary grid storages.^{1,2} Although conventional graphite anode has achieved great successes in LIBs, its low capacity (~372 mAh g⁻¹ or ~600 mAh cm⁻³) cannot meet the growing demands of these fields in high energy density and high power density. Thus, the alloy-type anodes, that is, silicon, tin, and their composites, and the conversion-type anodes, basically transitional metal oxides, have been briskly advanced due to their high capacities.³⁻⁵ However, using these materials as anodes also has severe challenges, such as enormous volume change, poor electrical conductivity, large electrode polarization, and unstable solid-electrolyte interphase (SEI). Most of these issues could be mitigated by the fabrication of active materials into various nanostructures coated by a carbon shell. Nanostructures relax the lattice stress/strain and shorten the diffusion distance of lithium. The carbon shell provides a highway for electron transportation and offers a matrix to sustain a stable SEI film upon cycling. Both of them have been demonstrated to be crucial to the electrode performance.

However, there are still a couple of concerns about the carbon shell, such as its layered structures being easily intercalated by solvent molecules, weak binding affinity to active materials, and poor thermal stability.⁶⁻⁹ Therefore, it is

necessary to seek an alternative to carbon as the surface. After an extensive survey on different surface coatings such as In₂O₃, Fe₂O₃, and MnO₂,¹⁰⁻¹⁶ TiO₂ stands out from the others due to its small volume change (only ~4%), excellent cycling stability and rate capability, robust crystal structure to electrolyte, and good thermal stability.^{17,18} These features are important for good stability of electrodes in structure and interface.

However, TiO₂ has a poor electrical conductivity (~1 × 10⁻¹² S/m).¹⁹ This fact would greatly retard the transportation of electrons and increase the electrode polarization, leading to capacity degradation.¹⁹ Recently, this issue is mitigated by hydrogenation treatment of TiO₂,^{20,21} which could effectively increase the electrical conductivity of TiO₂ by several orders. So, hydrogenated TiO₂, denoted as H-TiO₂, is developed as an advanced anode for LIBs.²²⁻²⁶ But the reversible capacities of H-TiO₂ alone is still limited. Thus, the growth of H-TiO₂ on high-capacity anodes, like transitional metal oxides as a stable surface, offers a myriad of opportunities to achieve the good cyclability and high capability simultaneously, which has not been reported before to our knowledge. Most importantly, if successful, it opens a door to high-performance electrodes in LIBs.

Received: February 9, 2015

Accepted: April 30, 2015

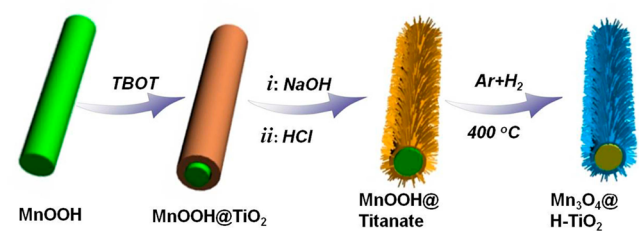
Published: April 30, 2015

Here, hydrogenated TiO₂ branches coated Mn₃O₄ nanorods (Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂) are synthesized as an example to test this concept. In this composite, Mn₃O₄ as a typical transitional metal oxide offers a high theoretical capacity but suffers from severe volume change (~75.4%)²⁷ and poor electrical conductivity. These issues could be effectively addressed by the growth of H-TiO₂ on its surface because the small volume change and the superior electrical conductivity of H-TiO₂ would improve the SEI stability and the diffusion kinetics simultaneously. Plus, with the good thermal stability and high binding affinity of H-TiO₂ to transitional metal oxides, there is a complete match between Mn₃O₄ and H-TiO₂, which makes them an ideal model to demonstrate the potential of H-TiO₂ as a next-generation material after carbon for high-performance anodes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Scheme 1 briefly summarizes the synthesis process for Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂. First, MnOOH nanorods were prepared by

Scheme 1. Synthesis Process of Mn₃O₄ Nanorods Coated by Hydrogenated TiO₂ Branches (Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂)



a reported hydrothermal reaction,²⁸ which was confirmed by the XRD pattern in Figure S1a (Supporting Information). Then, SEM and TEM images reveal their narrow size distribution and smooth surface, as indicated in Figure 1a,b. Due to an abundance of hydroxyl groups on the surface, these nanorods show a good dispersity in ethanol, which facilitates the uniform growth of TiO₂ in the next step. The growth of TiO₂ on MnOOH was achieved by a slow hydrolysis of tetrabutyl titanate (TBOT) at a low temperature. As shown in Figure 1c,d, the resultant product keeps the rod-like morphology. Meanwhile, there is a significant increase in diameter from ~80 nm of MnOOH nanorods to ~120 nm of MnOOH@TiO₂ nanorods, indicating the successful coating of TiO₂. The result is also directly validated by the contrast difference in TEM images, which also allows us to estimate the shell thickness of TiO₂ as ~20 nm. Unfortunately, the uniform and continuous shell of TiO₂ is amorphous (Figure S1b, Supporting Information) due to the low reaction temperature.²⁹

The thick, solid shell of TiO₂ goes against the quick transportation of lithium ions and electrons. Thus, the core-shell nanorods of MnOOH@TiO₂ were treated by NaOH and HCl in turn. Surprisingly, this treatment converted the thick, smooth shell to ultrathin branches on the surface (Figure 1e,f). This huge change could be regarded as the consequence of the following reactions. The first one is the reaction of TiO₂ and NaOH, which produces ultrathin Na₂Ti_nO_{2n+1} branches.^{30,31} Then, Na⁺ in Na₂Ti_nO_{2n+1} is replaced by H⁺ in HCl, generating H₂Ti_nO_{2n+1} for the subsequent annealing to TiO₂.^{30,31} Because of the good protection of TiO₂, MnOOH nanorods at the core

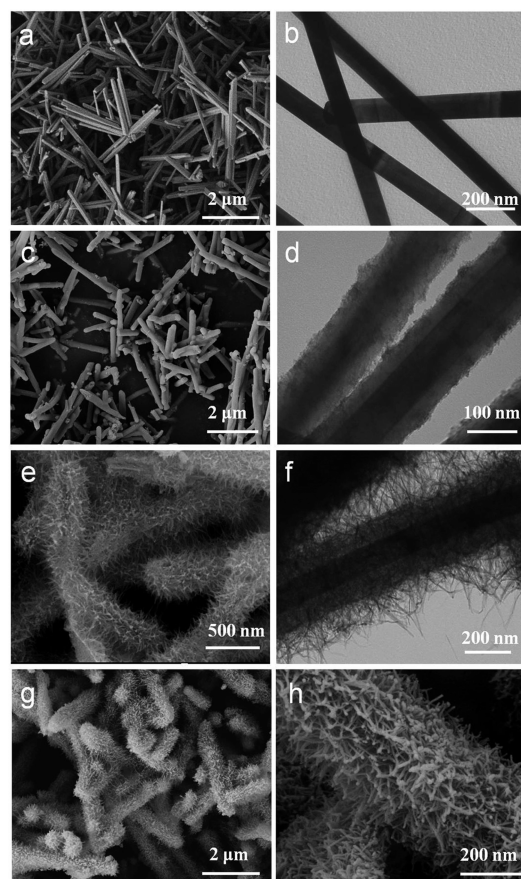


Figure 1. SEM and TEM images of (a and b) MnOOH nanorods, (c and d) MnOOH@TiO₂ nanorods, (e and f) MnOOH@Titanate nanorods, and (g and h) Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ nanorods.

survive from the treatments, as supported by Figure S1c (Supporting Information). The hierarchical surface structure enables the specific surface area increase from 20.4 m² g⁻¹ of MnOOH@TiO₂ to 151.8 m² g⁻¹ of MnOOH@titanate (Figure S2, Supporting Information). The calcination of MnOOH@titanate nanorods at 400 °C under a reducing atmosphere (Ar/H₂), would result in the formation of Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂. As stated in Figure S1d (Supporting Information), Mn₃O₄ and H-TiO₂ in Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ are in a tetragonal phase (JCPDS card no. 24-0734) and an anatase phase (JCPDS card no. 21-1272), respectively. SEM images indicate that Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ well inherit the unique structure from Mn₃O₄@titanate nanorods, as presented by Figure 1g,h. The molar ratio of Mn₃O₄ to H-TiO₂ obtained from EDS spectra (Figure S3, Supporting Information) is approximately about 0.7:1, close to the result from ICP-AES technique. If the calcination temperature is set at 500 °C, Mn₃O₄ would react with TiO₂, leading to impurities like MnTiO₃ and hollow structures in the product (Figure S4, Supporting Information).

Figure 2a shows a typical TEM image of Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂. The significant contrast in the image could be attributed to the difference between H-TiO₂ and Mn₃O₄ in electron scattering. Compared to H-TiO₂, Mn₃O₄ has a high electron density then an enhanced electron scattering, thus corresponding to the dark nanorod at the center. The light shell related to ultrathin branches is assigned to H-TiO₂. This distribution is also confirmed by elemental mapping and HRTEM images. As shown in Figure 2b, Mn basically locates at the center and Ti

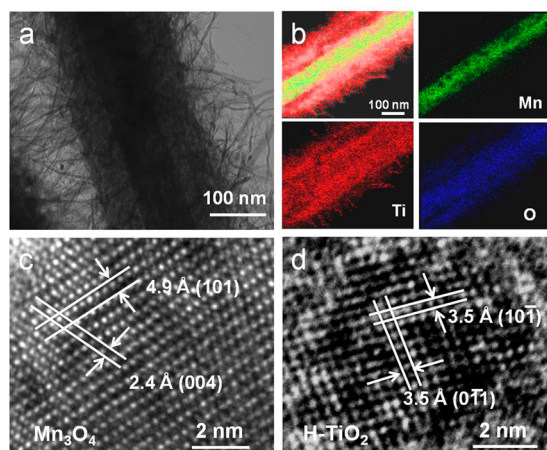


Figure 2. (a) TEM image, (b) elemental mapping, and (c and d) HRTEM images of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$.

distributes throughout the surface of the composite. Moreover, the pattern of Ti presents the characteristic of ultrathin branches particularly at the edge of the structure, suggesting the strong correlation between H-TiO_2 and ultrathin branches. HRTEM images on the branches and at the center exhibit clear lattice fringes with their spacings belonging to anatase TiO_2 ³² or tetragonal Mn_3O_4 (Figure 2c,d). These results are consistent with the Mn_3O_4 nanorods coated by ultrathin H-TiO_2 branches.

If the annealing step for $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ was conducted not in Ar/H_2 but in Ar , the same hybrid structure of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$ could be fabricated and then used as a reference to illustrate the hydrogenation effect. As shown in Figure S5 (Supporting Information), the XRD pattern, SEM and TEM images of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$ are the same as those of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$. The results indicate the negligible influence of hydrogenation treatment on crystal structure and morphology of the product, which is consistent with many reports on TiO_{2-x} or H-TiO_2 .^{20–24}

However, the hydrogenation treatment alters the chemical status of elements in the product. XPS spectra of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$ are compared to get the insights. Figure 3a shows the survey spectra of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$. Both of them are quite similar, suggesting the signals of Mn, Ti and O in the products. Thus, high-resolution spectra on Mn 2p, Ti 2p, and O 1s are measured to give a close-up check. As shown in Figure 3b, the Mn 2p spectra of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$ are identical, indicating the same bonding environment of Mn in them. This result could be associated with the good surface passivation of TiO_2 to Mn_3O_4 from the influence of different annealing atmospheres. Different from the case of Mn 2p, the spectra of Ti 2p from $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ (the top of Figure 3c) exhibit a negative shift in comparison with that of Ti 2p from $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$, suggesting a reduced status of Ti in $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$. This result is supported by the subtraction of the Ti 2p spectrum of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ from that of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$ (the bottom of Figure 3c). The two peaks at 463.4 and 457.7 eV are in good agreement with the characteristic peaks of Ti 2p_{1/2} and Ti 2p_{3/2} of Ti^{3+} .^{20,21,33–36} To ensure the electrical neutrality of the entire product, there must be oxygen vacancies in H-TiO_2 . The two peaks of Ti 2p centered at 464.9 and 458.7 eV is in line with the reported Ti 2p_{1/2} and Ti 2p_{3/2} of Ti^{4+} .^{20,21,33–36} Figure 3d shows the spectra of O 1s from

$\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$. Both of them exhibit a strong peak at 529.6 eV, which is related to lattice oxygen in Mn_3O_4 and TiO_2 .^{36,37} The weak shoulder at the high binding energy has been reported to be from Ti-OH .³⁴ The area ratio of oxygen from the two sources increases from $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$ to $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$, indicating more $-\text{OH}$ groups on the surface due to hydrogenation treatment.

The appearance of Ti^{3+} in H-TiO_2 is supposed to induce a pronounced EPR signal, due to its unpaired electron. However, it is difficult to distinguish the signals of Ti^{3+} and Mn^{2+} , because both of them have unpaired electrons and show broad signals overlapping with each other. In spite of this, there are indeed significant differences between the EPR spectra of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ (Figure S6, Supporting Information). The reliability of our protocol for Ti^{3+} could be demonstrated by a control experiment, in which MnOOH was removed from the protocol and only TiO_2 was formed in the product. As shown in Figure 3e, hydrogenated TiO_2 (H-TiO_2) gives an intense signal, compared to TiO_2 annealed in air. The g factor about 2.004 is close to the typical value of Ti^{3+} in literature,^{38–40} indicating the formation of Ti^{3+} induced by the hydrogenation treatment via our protocol. In the Raman spectra (Figure 3f), The Raman characteristic of Mn_3O_4 at 660.2 cm^{-1} is well kept for both $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$, suggesting the negligible effect of the hydrogenation treatment on Mn_3O_4 .³⁶ But the Raman signals of TiO_2 after hydrogenation slightly shift to low frequencies, compared to those treated in Ar . The result is in good agreement with the reported oxygen-deficient TiO_2 .^{20,21}

The appearances of Ti^{3+} along with oxygen vacancies in ultrathin branches induced by hydrogenation treatment, lead to the obvious enhancement of electrochemical properties, although they are tiny changes. Figure 4a shows cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ for the first several cycles. There are four peaks for the first cathodic sweep of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ that could be assigned to the insertion of lithium into H-TiO_2 for orthorhombic Li_xTiO_2 ($\sim 1.72\text{ V}$), the reducing reactions of Mn^{3+} to Mn^{2+} and Mn^{2+} to metallic Mn (~ 1.40 and $\sim 0.15\text{ V}$), and the formation of solid-electrolyte interphase (SEI) film ($\sim 0.89\text{ V}$).^{41–44} The first anodic sweep gives only three broad peaks at 1.31, 1.70, and 2.06 V. The peak at 1.31 V could be associated with the oxidation of metallic Mn to Mn^{2+} (Figure S7a, Supporting Information). The broad and weak peak at 1.70 V might originate from the partly reversible dissolution of SEI layer.⁴⁴ The peak at 2.06 V is probably due to the extraction of Li^+ from Li_xTiO_2 . Compared with the case of TiO_2 (Figure S7b, Supporting Information), there is a negative shift for this peak, reflecting the intimate interaction between Mn_3O_4 nanorods and TiO_2 branches. It should be pointed out that such a shift could reduce the electrode polarization and improve the charge-transfer kinetics, enhancing the cycling stability and rate capability of electrode materials. The similar interaction was also observed in our previous work on $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$.¹² During the following cathodic sweeps, the reducing reaction of Mn^{2+} to Mn moves to 0.33 V, due to the structure rearrangement. The insertion of lithium into H-TiO_2 is still located at 1.76 V. The anodic sweeps basically overlap with the first, indicating the same electrochemical reaction and good reversibility.

Figure 4b shows the first discharge/charge profiles of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{H-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@\text{TiO}_2$ in the voltage range of 0.01–3 V at a current density of 500 mA g^{-1} . Both of them exhibit similar discharge/charge behaviors, such as close voltage

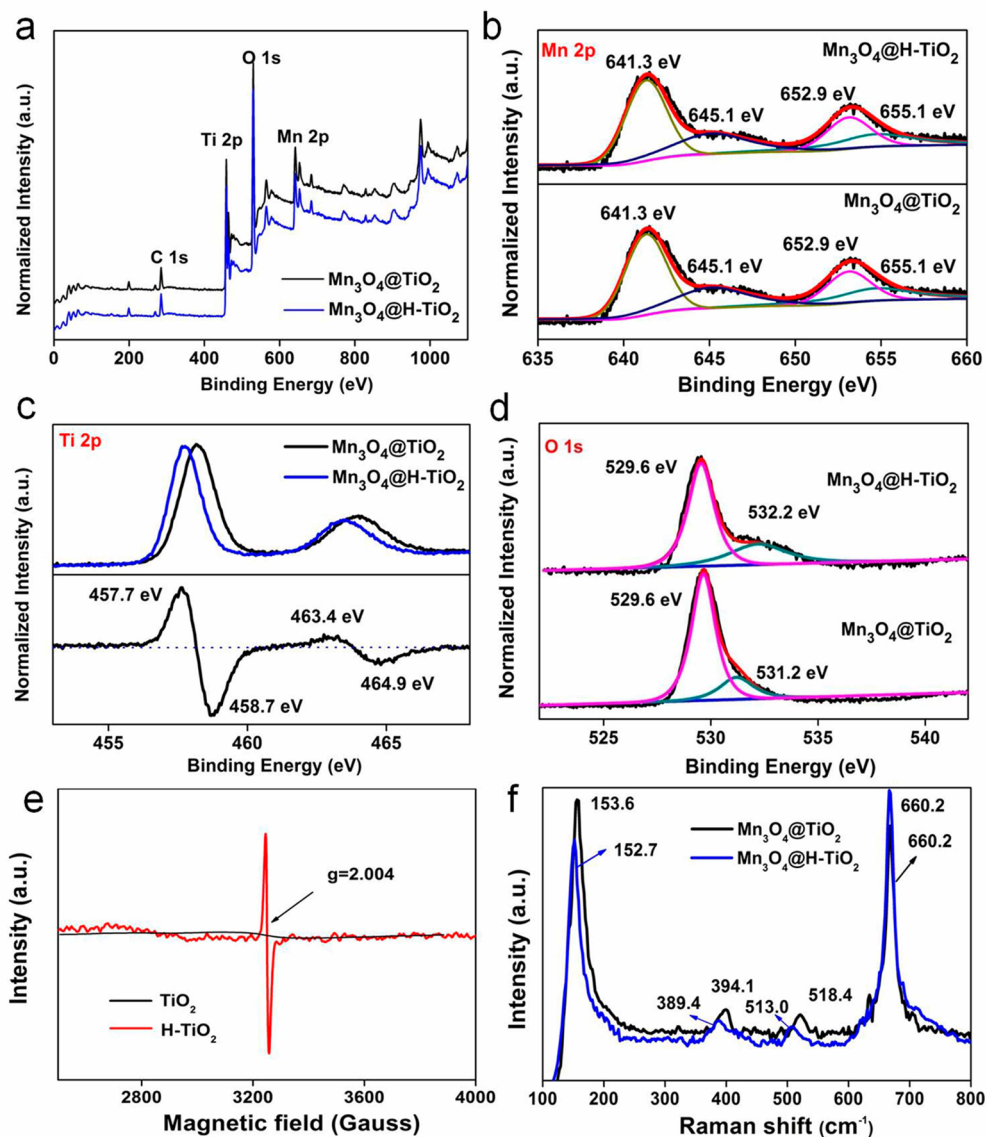


Figure 3. (a) Survey spectra and (b–d) high-resolution spectra on Mn 2p, Ti 2p and O 1s of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@H-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@TiO}_2$. The difference spectrum of Ti 2p between $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@H-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@TiO}_2$ is shown at the bottom of panel c. (e) EPR spectra of TiO_2 and H-TiO_2 prepared by the same protocols for TiO_2 in $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@TiO}_2$ and H-TiO_2 in $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@H-TiO}_2$. (f) Raman spectra of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@H-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@TiO}_2$ at room temperature.

plateaus, similar specific capacity, and so on. But the Coulombic efficiency of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@H-TiO}_2$ for the first cycle (71.2%), is much higher than that of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@TiO}_2$ (58.4%), although they have a similar shape, size, and structure. The high Coulombic efficiency of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@H-TiO}_2$ originates from an enhanced charge capacity of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@H-TiO}_2$, which could be associated with the surface passivation of hydroxyl groups and improved charge-transfer kinetics similar to the carbon shell,⁴⁵ due to the hydrogenation treatment for H-TiO_2 .

Figure 4c shows the cycling performances of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@H-TiO}_2$, $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@TiO}_2$, TiO_2 , and Mn_3O_4 in the range of 0.01–3 V at a current density of 500 mA g^{-1} . Although Mn_3O_4 nanorods (Figure S8, Supporting Information) deliver a specific capacity of 1392 mAh g^{-1} for the first discharge, the capacity quickly falls down to 165 mAh g^{-1} after 100 cycles, suggesting a terrible capacity retention. Compared to the case of Mn_3O_4 nanorods, the specific capacity of TiO_2 nanorods (Figure S8, Supporting Information) only drops for the first several cycles

and levels off at 155 mAh g^{-1} until 100 cycles. In view of their low first-discharge capacity (~ 330 mAh g^{-1}), TiO_2 show a better capacity retention than Mn_3O_4 nanorods. The combination of the good capacity retention of TiO_2 with the high theoretical capacity of Mn_3O_4 in $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@TiO}_2$ nanorods realizes the enhancements in both capacity retention and specific capacity. As shown in Figure 4c, the specific capacity of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@TiO}_2$ nanorods is promoted to 393 mAh g^{-1} after 100 cycles, much better than those of Mn_3O_4 and TiO_2 nanorods alone. The specific capacity could be further pushed to 615 mAh g^{-1} by $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4\text{@H-TiO}_2$, which is close to the theoretical capacity based on the mass percentage of components (734.7 mAh $\text{g}^{-1} = 934$ mAh $\text{g}^{-1} \times 66.73$ wt % (Mn_3O_4) + 335 mAh $\text{g}^{-1} \times 33.27$ wt % (H-TiO_2)). This capacity increase could be assigned to the improved charge-transfer kinetics due to oxygen vacancies in H-TiO_2 . The similar conclusion has been well documented for H-TiO_2 or TiO_{2-x} alone as an advanced anode material for LIBs.^{22–24} But, to our knowledge, this is the first

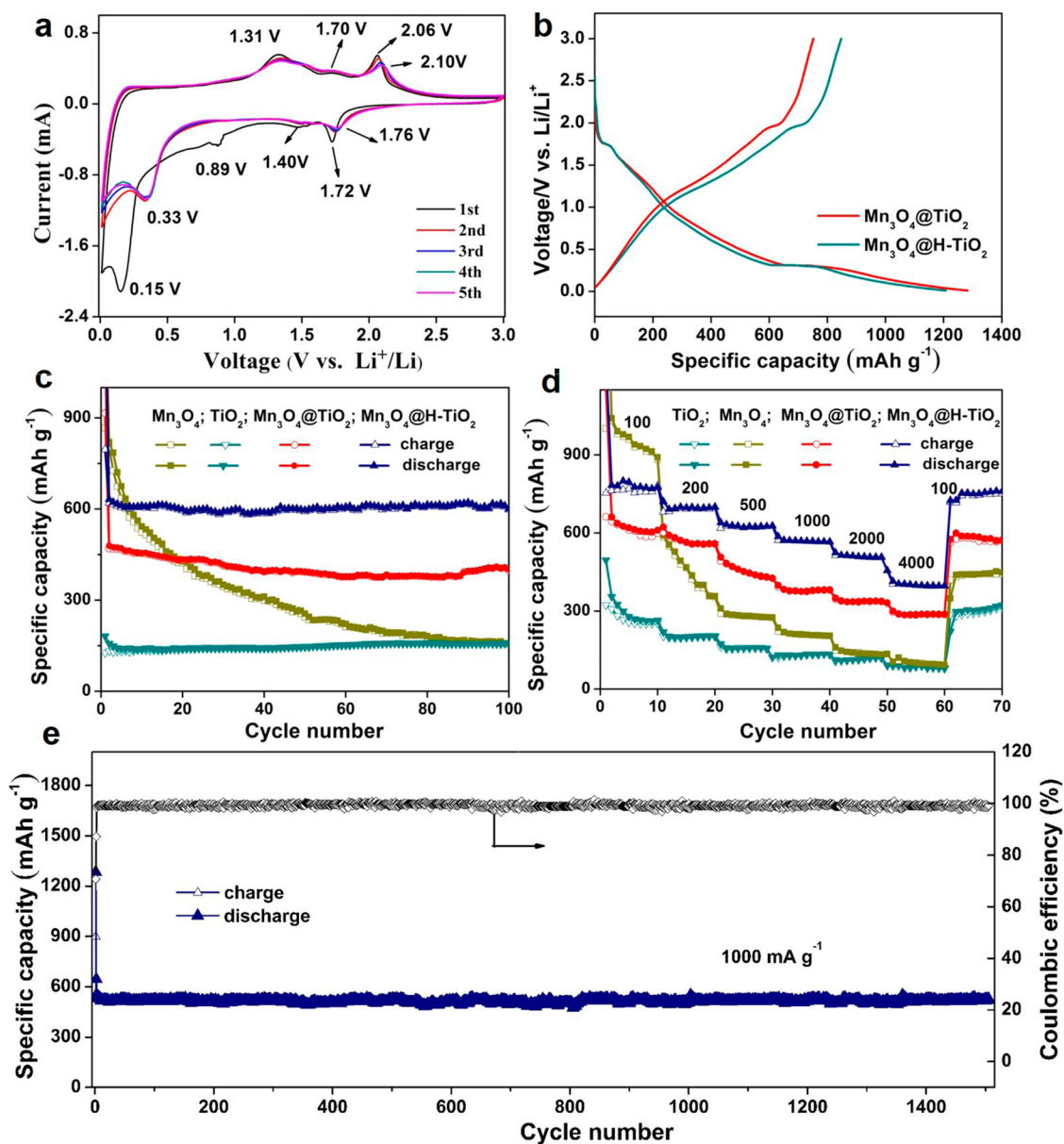


Figure 4. (a) Cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@H\text{-TiO}_2$ at a scanning rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} . (b) Discharge–charge curves of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@H\text{-TiO}_2$, (c) cycling performances, and (d) rate performances of the electrodes based on Mn_3O_4 , TiO_2 , $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@TiO_2$, and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@H\text{-TiO}_2$. (e) Cycling performance of the electrodes based on $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@H\text{-TiO}_2$ at 1000 mA g^{-1} up to 2000 cycles.

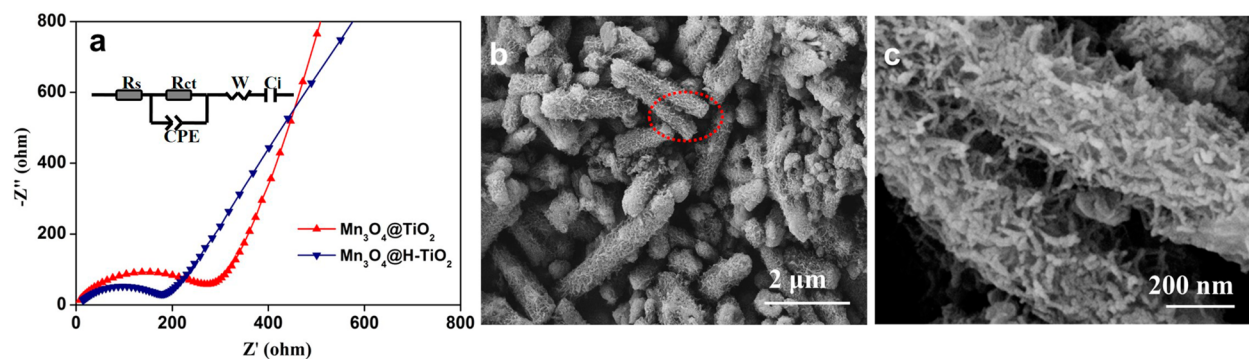


Figure 5. (a) Nyquist plots for the electrodes based on $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@TiO_2$ and $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@H\text{-TiO}_2$ at delithiated state; (inset) equivalent circuit. (b and c) SEM images of $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4@H\text{-TiO}_2$ after 100 cycles at 1 A g^{-1} .

time it has been used to achieve a good capacity retention and a high specific capacity simultaneously for hybrid nanostructures.

The upgrade of electrochemical properties by H-TiO₂, is also reflected in rate performances, which is supported by the similar comparison between Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂, Mn₃O₄@TiO₂, Mn₃O₄ and TiO₂. As described in Figure 4d, Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ exhibits the reversible capacities of 760, 690, 620, 570, 525, and 431 mAh g⁻¹ at the current densities of 100, 200, 500, 1000, 2000, and 4000 mA g⁻¹, much better than those of Mn₃O₄@TiO₂, TiO₂, and Mn₃O₄, particularly at high current densities. As the current density comes back to 100 mA g⁻¹, the specific capacity returns to 750 mAh g⁻¹, indicating a good electrochemical stability. These results are also better than Mn₃O₄ nanoparticles on reduced graphene oxide (RGO) sheets (~390 mAh g⁻¹ at 1600 mA g⁻¹),⁴⁶ Mn₃O₄ nanoparticles on multiwalled carbon nanotubes (~387 mAh g⁻¹ at 1000 mA g⁻¹).⁴⁷ Even compared with other transitional metal oxides,^{48,49} the rate capability of Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ is still impressive. In addition, the specific capacity of Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ nanorods stays at 560 mAh g⁻¹ even after 2000 cycles at 1 A g⁻¹, as shown in Figure 4e. This excellent cycling stability is highly desirable for the potential application of anode materials. To the best of our knowledge, this is the longest cycle life for Mn₃O₄ or the related hybrids. Most of the works on Mn₃O₄ anodes only reported its short-term cyclability (≤150 cycles) at a low current density (≤200 mA g⁻¹; Table S1, Supporting Information).^{43,46,47,50–58} Moreover, the capacity in our case could be further elevated by reducing the ratio of H-TiO₂ in the nanocomposite.

The enhanced performance via H-TiO₂ in Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ is supported by electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS). As shown in Figure 5a, the spectra consist of one depressed semicircle in the high frequency region connected to a slope in the low frequency region. The depressed semicircle reflects the ohmic resistance (*R_s*) and the charge-transfer resistance (*R_{ct}*) at the interface. The slope is related to the lithium diffusion inside electrode, which is usually evaluated by Warburg resistance (*Z_w*). CPE in the equivalent circuit is constant phase element, and *C_i* is the intercalation capacitance. Compared to Mn₃O₄@TiO₂, Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ exhibits the smaller *R_{ct}*, reflecting its better charge-transfer kinetics. The superior charge-transfer kinetics of Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ is also supported by the comparison with TiO₂ and Mn₃O₄ (Figure S9, Supporting Information). The same conclusion could be realized by direct-current resistance (Figure S9 Supporting Information). Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ manifests a lower direct-current resistance than TiO₂, Mn₃O₄, and Mn₃O₄@TiO₂, no matter its state of charge/discharge. As shown in Figure 5b,c, Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ basically preserves its rod-like shape and unique branches on the surface after 100 cycles at 1 A g⁻¹, indicating the good stability of Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ during the repeated lithiation/delithiation.

The excellent cycling stability and rate capability of Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ are associated with their unique structure, rational surface design, and successful formation of oxygen vacancies. First, from a structure viewpoint, ultrathin branches on the nanorods greatly increase the contact between electrode and electrolyte, reduce the overpotentials of lithium insertion/extraction, and improve the reaction kinetics. Meanwhile, the nanoscale size of these building blocks effectively shortens the lithium diffusion pathway and benefits the release of the strain/stress caused by lithium insertion/extraction. Second, from an interface viewpoint, TiO₂ as an anode exhibit an excellent

cycling stability and a small volume change (~4%), both of which are highly desirable for those high-capacity anodes with a huge volume change and bad cycling stability. Using TiO₂ as an interface between these anodes and electrolyte could realize the stable interface between electrode and electrolyte and sustain the electrode structure upon cycling. Third, the formation of oxygen vacancies in H-TiO₂ remarkably promotes the electrical conductivity and lowers charge-transfer resistance and direct-current resistances of the entire hybrid, all of which enhance the diffusion kinetics and improve the electrochemical properties. The synergistic effect of these results enables Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ to be a promising anode for advanced LIBs. Most importantly, this concept offers a novel and reliable route to improve the electrochemical properties of many known anodes.

CONCLUSION

Mn₃O₄ nanorods coated by hydrogenated TiO₂ branches are successfully synthesized by a multistep process, involving a hydrothermal reaction for MnOOH nanorods, low-temperature hydrolysis for the growth of a TiO₂ shell on MnOOH, alkaline and acid treatments to generate ultrathin branches on MnOOH, and moderate annealing in Ar/H₂ for Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂. This unique hybrid nanostructure combines high theoretical capacity of Mn₃O₄ with stable electrochemical properties, small volume change, and relatively good electrical conductivity of H-TiO₂, realizing the complementary components of the hybrid. As expected, Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂ exhibits significant enhancements in cycling stability and rate capability, compared with Mn₃O₄, TiO₂, and Mn₃O₄@TiO₂. After 2000 cycles at a rate of 1 A g⁻¹, they could still maintain 560 mAh g⁻¹. The superior performance could be attributed to proper selection of chemical components in hybrid and effective controls on size and structure of hybrid. These results pave the way for the extensive application of hydrogenated TiO₂ as an alternative to carbon in high-performance anodes in lithium ion batteries.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Synthesis of MnOOH. MnOOH nanorods were synthesized on the basis of our previous report.²⁵ Briefly, 0.1 g of KMnO₄ and 2 mL of polyethylene glycol were added into 40 mL of deionized water. After stirring for 30 min, the solution was heated to 160 °C for 5 h in a sealed Teflon-lined autoclave with a capacity of 50 mL. The final product was collected by filtration and washed with deionized water and ethanol three times.

Syntheses of Mn₃O₄@TiO₂ and Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂. A typical synthesis was illustrated by Scheme 1. First, 0.15 g of the as-obtained MnOOH nanorods was dispersed in 200 mL of ethanol first. Then, 0.9 mL of 28 wt % ammonia was dropped into the solution. The solution was sonicated for 30 min to ensure the good dispersity of MnOOH during the next reaction. After that, 2 mL of TBOT was added as a precursor for the growth of TiO₂ on MnOOH. The solution was heated to 45 °C for 24 h to accelerate the hydrolysis of TBOT. The resultant product, MnOOH@TiO₂ nanorods, was collected and washed with deionized water. Afterward, the synthesized MnOOH@TiO₂ nanorods (0.05g) were treated by 20 mL of 2 M NaOH at 45 °C for 16 h and then 50 mL of 0.1 M HCl at room temperature for 20 min. The TiO₂ shell was converted into titanate. Due to the good protection by titanate, MnOOH nanorods were well kept after these reactions. Annealing the MnOOH@Titanate nanorods in Ar or Ar/H₂ (5% H₂ and 95% Ar) at 400 °C for 2 h produced the nanorods of Mn₃O₄@TiO₂ or Mn₃O₄@H-TiO₂.

Sample Characterization. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a Bruker D8 advanced X-ray diffractometer, using Cu K α radiation with $\lambda = 1.5418$ Å. Transmission electron microscopy

(TEM) images and field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) images were achieved from a transmission electron microscope (JEOL JEM 1011) and a field-emission scanning electron microscope (SUPRA 55). HRTEM images were acquired on an analytic transmission electron microscope (JEOL-2100F). An inductive coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometer (IRIS Inrtrepid II XSP) was used to analyze the chemical composition. Nitrogen sorption isotherms were examined on a Micromeritics ASAP-2020HD88 instrument. Raman spectra were obtained from a NEXUS 670 Micro-Raman Spectrometer. X-ray photoelectron spectrometry (XPS) spectra were measured on X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (ESCALAB 250) by referencing the C 1s peak to 284.6 eV. The electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra were acquired on a JEOL JES FA200 EPR spectrometer (77 K).

Electrochemical Measurements. The working electrode was made by 70 wt % active material, 20 wt % conductive carbon black and 10 wt % sodium salt of carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC). The powders were dispersed in several droplets of deionized water and milled for 30 min, producing a black slurry. The slurry was then spread on a copper foil using a stainless steel blade with a wet film thickness of 200 μm and dried overnight under vacuum at 60 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. The typical loading of the active material was in the range of 1–2 mg cm^{-2} . The foil was roll-pressed and punched into discs with a diameter of 12 mm. After that, the discs were assembled in an argon-filled glovebox (Mikrouna, Super 1220/750/900) with Li foil as the counter/reference electrode, a Celgard 2400 membrane as the separator, and 1 M LiPF_6 in a mixture of ethylene carbonate (EC), diethyl carbonate (DEC) and dimethyl carbonate (DMC; 1:1:1, v/v/v) as the electrolyte. Galvanostatic charge–discharge cycles were conducted on Land-CT2001A battery cyclers (Wuhan, China). Cyclic voltammograms (CV) profiles were obtained on a LK2005A electrochemical workstation (Tianjin China) in a range of 0.01–3 V at a scanning rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} . Direct current (dc) resistance was measured at every 5% variation of depth of discharge (DOD) or state of charge (DOC) of the electrode. Electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) were acquired from an AUTOLAB PGSTAT204 electrochemical workstation over the frequency range of 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Additional experimental data as described in text. The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsami.5b01208.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the 973 Project of China (No. 2011CB935901), the National Nature Science Foundation of China (No. 91022033, 51172076, and 21471090), Shandong Provincial Natural Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholar (JQ201205), Independent Innovation Foundations of Shandong University (2012ZD007), and new faculty start-up funding in Shandong University. We also thank Prof. Yang Liu from State Key Lab of Crystal Materials.

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