

Biomass-derived hard carbon microtubes with tunable apertures for high-performance sodium-ion batteries

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Received: 10 August 2022 / Revised: 22 September 2022 / Accepted: 6 October 2022

ABSTRACT

Sodium-ion batteries (SIBs) are considered the most up-and-coming complements for large-scale energy storage devices due to the abundance and cheap sodium. However, due to the bigger radius, it is still a great challenge to develop anode materials with suitable space for the intercalation of sodium ions. Herein, we present hard carbon microtubes (HCTs) with tunable apertures derived from low-cost natural kapok fibers via a carbonization process for SIBs. The resulted HCTs feature with smaller surface area and shorter Na⁺ diffusion path benefitting from their unique micro-nano structure. Most importantly, the wall thickness of HCTs could be regulated and controlled by the carbonization temperature. At a high temperature of 1,600 °C, the carbonized HCTs possess the smallest wall thickness, which reduces the diffusion barrier of Na⁺ and enhances the reversibility Na⁺ storage. As a result, the 1600HCTs deliver a high initial Coulombic efficiency of 90%, good cycling stability (89.4% of capacity retention over 100 cycles at 100 mA·g⁻¹), and excellent rate capacity. This work not only charts a new path for preparing hard carbon materials with adequate ion channels and novel tubular micro-nano structures but also unravels the mechanism of hard carbon materials for sodium storage.

KEYWORDS

hard carbon, kapok fibers, sodium-ion batteries (SIBs), reversible capacity, long cycle life

1 Introduction

Developing energy storage technology is one of the key technologies to realizing the efficient utilization of renewable energy, since the massive green-house gas emissions have become a global challenge. Sodium-ion batteries (SIBs) have been credited as a promising alternative for large-scale applications owing to the abundance and cheapness of sodium resources. However, due to the bigger radius of sodium, conventional graphite is not applicable to SIBs. Therefore, the development of anode materials with low-cost and high-performance features has been a key step for the improved performance of SIBs [1–7]. The research of anode materials mainly focuses on carbon materials, oxides, sulfides, phosphides, organic compounds, and alloy materials [8–23], including graphene sheets, hard carbon, SnO₂, MoS₂, NiP₃, Na_xCoO₂, Na₂C₈H₄O₄, and Si-Sb alloy [24–31]. Among them, hard carbon with randomly oriented graphitic layers has been widely implemented as the most promising anode material [32].

Nevertheless, it is still confronted with low reversible capacity and initial coulombic efficiency in the early works [33–36]. Recent studies have significantly improved the reversible ability and cyclic stability of this kind of material [37–40]. However, there are still some problems, such as poor cyclic stability and inferior rate performance, which impede its industrialization application in practical SIBs. Nano-sized hard carbons have good electrochemical properties on account of the sufficient contact between the electrolyte and electrode interface and short diffusion path of Na⁺ ion [41, 42]. However, serious side reactions could be occurred as a result of the large surface area, leading to a low Coulombic efficiency. Meanwhile, the micro-sized hard carbon material with a low surface area tends to increase high initial Coulombic efficiency, but the cycle stability and rate performance are poor due to the longer diffusion path of Na⁺ ion [8]. To combine the advantages of nano- and micro-scale materials, an effective strategy of the micro-nano structure was proposed [43, 44].

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Herein, we demonstrate to use renewable biomass of kapok fibers as a precursor for preparing hard carbon with a micro-nano structure by a pyrolysis method at 1,200 °C (1200HCTs), 1,400 °C (1400HCTs), and 1,600 °C (1600HCTs), which have been suggested as the most suitable carbonizing temperatures [9, 45–48]. The results show that the carbonized products have a great enhancement in initial Coulombic efficiency, reversible capacity, and excellent rate capability. Most importantly, the as-prepared HCTs exhibit tunable apertures, which provides a good opportunity to obtain sufficient passageways for Na⁺ shuttle.

2 Results and discussion

To elucidate the microstructure of the hard carbon materials, X-ray diffraction (XRD) was employed (Fig. 1(a)). All XRD patterns show two broad diffraction peaks at 24° and 43°. The peak centered at $2\theta \approx 24^\circ$ is observed for all samples which correspond to (002) planes of expanded graphite [49]. The peak patterns of HCTs had no obvious change with the increase of carbonization temperature, indicating the nature of hard carbon. The (002) peak position shifts to a higher angle with increasing heat-treatment temperature, indicating the local structural development to a short-range ordering and the decrease of d_{002} (Table S1 in the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM)).

The kapok fibers have a diameter of 15 to 30 μm and a wall thickness of 0.9–1 μm (Fig. S1 in the ESM). During the pyrolysis process, kapok fibers undergo aromatization and polycondensation reactions and eventually form short graphite layers. The morphology of the carbonized kapok fiber has remained where the diameter and the wall thickness from scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images are 5–10 μm and 100–300 nm, respectively (Fig. 1(b) and Fig. S2 in the ESM). The wall thickness decreases gradually with the increase of carbonization temperature. At carbon temperatures of 1,200, 1,400, and 1,600 °C, the wall thickness is 243, 200, and 187 nm, respectively (Figs. 1(d)–1(f)). Compared with bulk counterparts, the micron tube structure is able to facilitate the diffusion of liquid electrolyte while the nanostructure can shorten the solid-state diffusion length of Na⁺. As shown in high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) and the inserted selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern (Fig. S3 in the ESM), the 1600HCTs display non-graphitized structure. A diffraction ring is observed in the SAED pattern. The specific surface area and pore size of three HCTs are detected by the nitrogen adsorption/desorption method (Fig. 1(c) and Fig. S4 in the ESM).

The specific surface area of the HCTs gradually decreases with increasing carbonization temperature (Fig. S4 in the ESM). It should better reduce the solid electrolyte interface (SEI) formation and improve the initial Coulombic efficiency [46]. In addition, the pore size increases with the increase in carbonization temperature (Fig. 1(c)), which is mainly caused by the thinning of pore wall with the increased temperature.

The thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) curves are shown in Fig. S5 in the ESM. From 20 to 124 °C, the weight of the kapok fiber decreases slightly (~ 15%), which is mainly due to the evaporation of water. Then, the weight dropped sharply (~ 83%) from 124 to 528 °C, indicating that the main reaction occurred at this stage. Finally, it remains the ~ 10% weight of the original material and has no change as the temperature increases to ~ 1,200 °C, suggesting that there are not any more chemical reactions in this region. The TGA result shows that the carbonization mainly occurs in the temperature ranges of 124–528 °C. It has demonstrated that the high temperature is beneficial to obtain the porous carbon structure with high specific area [50, 51]. Figure S6 in the ESM shows the Raman spectra of samples and all the carbonized samples exhibit two peaks corresponding to the D band at 1,327 cm⁻¹ and G band at 1,587 cm⁻¹. The relative intensity ratios (I_D/I_G) increase with carbonization temperature [51, 52]. The I_D/I_G value increased from 1.03 to 1.1 (Fig. S6(b) and Table S1 in the ESM), indicating that the structural defects of hard carbon micro-nano tubes increased due to the increase in carbonization temperature [53]. Figure S7 and Table S2 in the ESM show the energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) results of the element species and distribution of 1600HCTs. Compared with other biomass-derived carbons, the HCTs have high carbon purity.

The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra of the kapok fiber and the derived HCTs are shown in Figs. 2(a)–2(e). These materials are composed of the C and O elements (Fig. 2(a)). The C 1s peaks are deconvoluted into two peaks belonging to C=C/C–C (284.71 eV) and C–O (286.17 eV) groups [54]. With the increase of carbonization temperature, XPS results indicate the component of C–O bonds decreases while the component of C=C/C–C bonds increases (Figs. 2(b)–2(e)). Figure 2(f) shows the C K-edge near-edge X-ray absorption fine structure (NEXAFS) spectral region for the kapok fiber derived HCTs with thermal activation at 1,200, 1,400, and 1,600 °C, respectively. The C K-edge spectrum measured at 1,200 °C shows the features at 285.9, 288.1, 289.2, 291.1, 292.2, and 293.4 eV. As increasing the temperature of thermal treatment, all features in the spectrum increase in

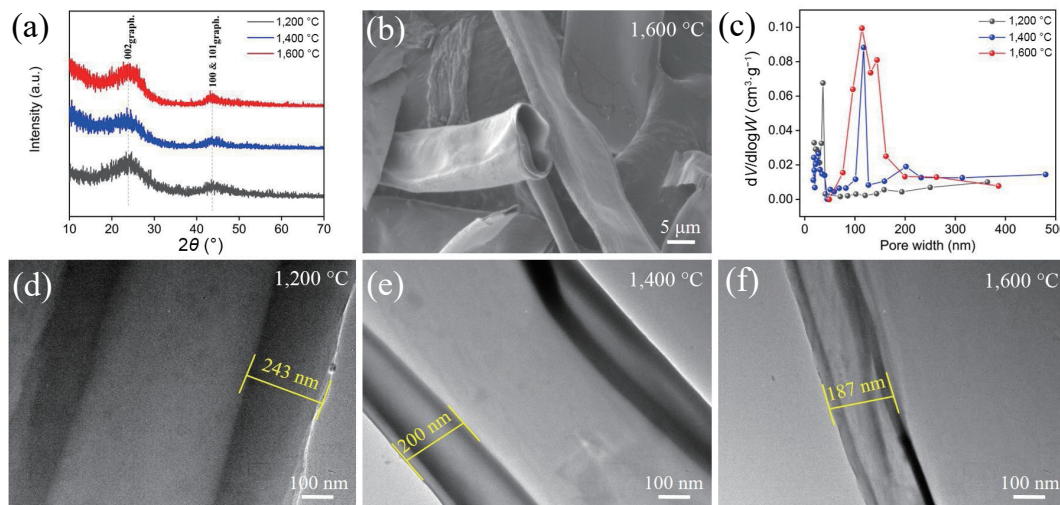


Figure 1 (a) The XRD patterns of HCTs under different carbonization temperatures. (b) SEM image of 1600HCTs after carbonization. (c) The pore size distribution under different carbonization temperatures. TEM images of (d) 1200HCTs, (e) 1400HCTs, and (f) 1600HCTs after carbonization.

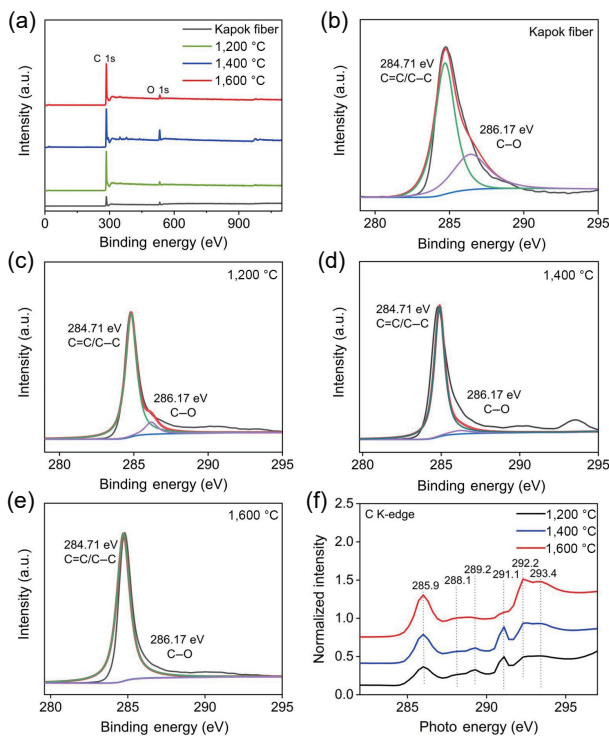


Figure 2 (a)–(e) The XPS survey spectra related C 1s spectra for the kapok fiber and the kapok fiber carbonized at different temperatures. (f) C K-edge NEXAFS of kapok fiber after heating to 1,200, 1,400, and 1,600 °C.

intensity except for those at 288.1, 289.2, and 291.1 eV, where the intensity significantly decreases. The shoulder at 288.1 eV disappears after the heat treatment at 1,400 °C. The features at 289.2 and 291.1 eV gradually decrease in the range 1,400–1,600 °C. The features at 288.1, 289.2, and 291.1 eV are ascribed to oxygenated functionalities on the nanotubes and these functionalities decompose upon the heat treatment [55, 56]. That the features at 285.9 and 292.2 eV increase in intensity can be attributed to the increase of overall crystallinity and the decrease of defects at the elevated temperature.

The electrochemical performance of prepared samples assembled in half coin cells was evaluated by galvanostatic discharge–charge experiments. The electrochemical performance of 1600HCTs was carried out in different electrolytes as shown in Fig. S8 in the ESM. The electrode in the NaClO_4 electrolyte shows a higher initial Coulombic efficiency and reversible capacity, compared to those in the NaPF_6 electrolyte. Therefore, we choose NaClO_4 electrolyte for further electrochemical tests. As shown in Fig. 3(a), these HCTs samples exhibited a similar sodium storage behavior attributed to the low specific surface areas [32, 46]. The charge–discharge profiles exhibit two distinct parts: slope areas above 0.1 V and a plateau region around 0–0.1 V, indicating two different sodium storage mechanisms, which is also verified by the cyclic voltammetry (CV) results (Fig. S9 in the ESM). It can be seen from TEM images (Figs. 1(d)–1(f)) that the wall thickness decreases with the increase of carbonization temperature, and the pore size increase, which is conducive to the increased reversible capacity due to the fast ion migration in bigger pore (Fig. 3(b)). As can be seen from Fig. 3(c), these carbonization samples show a high initial Coulombic efficiency of around 80% as a result of the low specific surface areas [32]. The reversible capacity of 1600HCTs is $299.7 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ at $0.1 \text{ A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, much better than those of the 1400HCTs ($257 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) and 1200HCTs ($217.9 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$). The 1600HCTs have a higher capacity, which may be caused by the lower specific surface area and more closing pores obtained at the high pyrolysis temperature [57]. Due to the unique hollow micro-

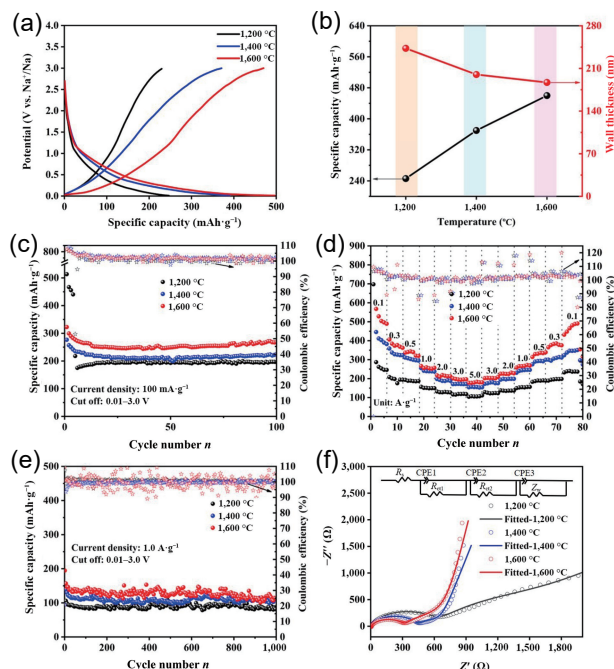


Figure 3 (a) Galvanostatic charge–discharge profiles of HCTs at $100 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$. (b) Graph of carbonization temperature versus reversible capacity and wall thickness. (c) Cyclic performance of HCTs at $100 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$. (d) Rate capability of HCTs at various currents. (e) Cyclic performance of HCTs at $1 \text{ A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$. (f) Nyquist plots and fitted plots of HCTs electrodes.

nano structure, the electrolyte infiltration is better and the diffusion distance of sodium ion is shorter, and the HCTs possess excellent rate capability (Fig. 3(d)). The 1600HCTs deliver a superior rate performance with respect to specific capacities of 358, 272, and $213 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ at current rates of 0.5, 1, and $2 \text{ A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, respectively. Compared with previously reported hard carbon materials, 1600HCTs showed excellent sodium storage, cycling stability, and capacity retention ratio (Table S3 and Fig. S10 in the ESM). 1600HCTs as the biomass-based hard carbon materials exhibit good capacity retention at the anode of SIBs. Figure 3(e) shows the cycling performance of HCTs. After 1,000 cycles, the reversible specific capacity of the 1600HCTs is $109 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ at the current density of $1 \text{ A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, which is attributed to the stable micro-nano structure. After long-term cycling, the structure of 1600HCTs does not change significantly (Fig. S11 in the ESM), indicating the stability of micro-nano structure. Figure 3(f) shows the Nyquist plots of the 1200HCTs, 1400HCTs, and 1600HCTs electrodes that performed 200 charge–discharge cycles at $100 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$. Both Nyquist plots consist of two regions, which are sloping lines at the low-frequencies and semicircles at the high-frequencies. The charge-transfer resistance (412Ω) of the 1600HCTs electrode is lower than those of the 1400HCTs (430Ω) and 1200HCTs (580Ω) electrodes (Fig. 3(f)), indicating that the high carbonization temperature can significantly improve charge transfer in the electrochemical reaction, and thus achieve excellent sodium storage, cycle stability, and rate performance.

To further reveal the relationship between the samples carbonized at different temperatures and the corresponding rate capabilities, we have employed galvanostatic intermittent titration technique (GITT) to calculate the apparent diffusion coefficient of Na ions in HCTs electrodes by charge/discharge for 1 min time and standing for 30 min at a constant current of $100 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4 and Fig. S12 in the ESM). In the whole process of charge and discharge, the program is repeatedly applied to the battery. According to GITT results, the diffusion coefficient of Na^+ (D_{Na^+} , $\text{cm}^2\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) was calculated based on the following equation

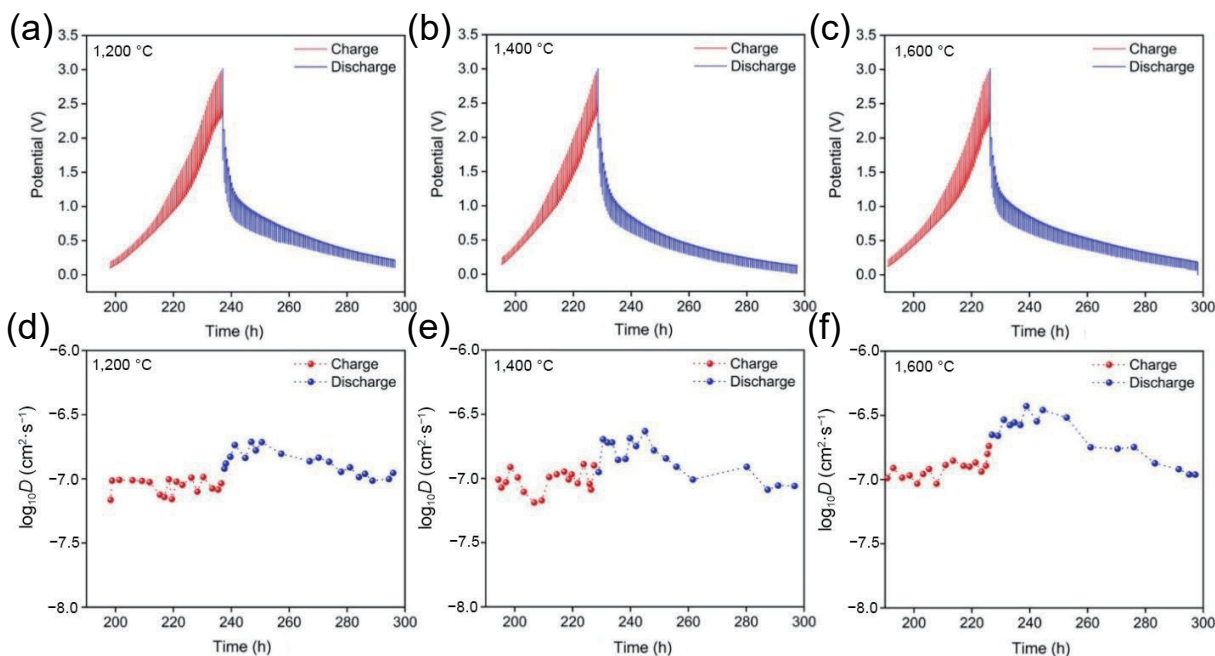


Figure 4 GITT curves and calculation of corresponding Na^+ diffusion coefficient of $\text{Na}||\text{HCTs}$ cell.

$$D_{\text{Na}^+} = \frac{4}{\pi\tau} \left(\frac{m_{\text{B}} V_{\text{M}}}{M_{\text{B}} S} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\Delta E_{\text{S}}}{\Delta E_{\text{T}}} \right)^2$$

where τ represents the duration of the current pulse, m_{B} corresponds to the mass of the active material, M_{B} and V_{M} are related to the molar mass and molar volume, and S is the active surface area of the HCT electrodes. ΔE_{S} is the open-circuit voltage difference measured at the end of two successive relaxation cycles, and ΔE_{T} is the voltage change (V) during the constant current pulse. Both of ΔE_{S} and ΔE_{T} can be obtained from the GITT curves (Fig. S12 in the ESM). As shown in Figs. 4(d)–4(f), the Na^+ diffusivity coefficients of all three samples are between 10^{-7} and $10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. For the 1600HCTs, the diffusivity coefficient is great than those of 1400HCTs and 1200HCTs, indicating the superior ion diffusion which ensures the high-rate performance of 1600HCTs when used as anode materials for SIBs.

3 Conclusions

In conclusion, we use renewable kapok fibers as precursors to fabricate hard carbon materials with tunable apertures and micro-nano structure via one-step pyrolysis. The as-prepared 1600HCTs as the anode of SIBs have a superior electrochemical performance with large initial Coulombic efficiency, high reversible capacity, and good rate performance. The micro structured hard carbon material with a low surface area is responsible for the high initial Coulombic efficiency. On the other hand, the nano-sized tube wall can enhance the electrolyte infiltration and shorten the diffusion distance of Na^+ ions. The unique hierarchical micro-nano structure improves the sodium storage and rate performance of the 1600HCTs. These results provide a facile strategy for preparing hard carbons from biomass materials and guidance for the improved performance of the anode of SIBs by regulating the pore structure of carbon materials.

4 Experimental section

4.1 Preparation of the hard carbon micro-nano tube

Kapok fibers were washed several times by deionized water, and vacuum dried at $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 24 h. Then the dried kapok fiber was transferred to a tube furnace for pyrolysis under Ar gas

atmosphere. After that, the furnace was heated from 25 to 1200, 1400, and $1600 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ at a rate of $5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ and kept at 1200, 1400, and $1600 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 4 h, respectively. Finally, after cooling naturally, the corresponding obtained samples were marked as 1200HCTs, 1400HCTs, and 1600HCTs.

4.2 Characterization

The morphology of samples was obtained by SEM (Hitachi S-4800, Japan) and TEM (JEOL-JEM-2100Plus, Japan). The structure was characterized by XRD with $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 1.54178 \text{ \AA}$) and Raman spectra. The XPS spectra were performed by PHI-5400. The TGA was measured from 25 to $1,200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in N_2 gas atmosphere at a rate of $10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$. The nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms were characterized by ASAP 2020 instrument. The C K-edge was measured at the beamline BL12B of the Hefei Synchrotron Radiation Equipment.

4.3 Electrochemical measurements

All the electrochemical tests were evaluated with half cells. The working electrode was prepared by mixing with active material, acetylene black, and polyvinylidene fluoride (weight ratio 7:2:1) onto copper foil. It was pre-dried in a $70 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ oven and then vacuum dried at $100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 24 h. The loading active material of the electrode was $\sim 1 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$. Sodium metal was used as the counter electrode. The electrolyte was a solution of 1 M NaClO_4 in ethylene carbonate/dimethyl carbonate (1:1 in volume). Glass fibers were used as the separator. All batteries were assembled in an argon-filled glovebox where the water and oxygen content were less than 0.1 ppm. The discharge/charge and CV tests were characterized by an electrochemical workstation in a voltage range of 0.01–3 V. The electrochemical impedance spectra were carried out by frequency range of 0.1–105 Hz at $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The GITT curves were charged and discharged for 1 min at a specific current of $100 \text{ mA} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$, then relaxed for 30 min to reach the quasi-equilibrium potential.

Acknowledgements

This work was financially supported by the Natural Science Research Project for Universities in Anhui Province (No. KJ2021ZD0006), the Natural Science Foundation of Anhui

Province (No. 2208085MB21), the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities of China (No. PA2022GDSK0056), the University Synergy Innovation Program of Anhui Province (Nos. GXXT-2020-073 and GXXT-2020-074), the National Key R&D Program of China (No. 2020YFA0406103), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos. 21725102, 91961106, 91963108, and 22175165), and Singapore National Research Foundation under NRF RF Award No. Tier 1 2017-T1-001-075. We are very grateful to Professor Zheng Liu from Nanyang Technological University for his support.

Electronic Supplementary Material: Supplementary material (additional SEM images, HRTEM images, adsorption–desorption curves, TGA curve, CV curves, Raman spectra, and other data) is available in the online version of this article at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12274-022-5154-0>.

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