



Synthesis of CoSe₂/Mxene composites using as high-performance anode materials for lithium-ion batteries

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Abstract

Currently, the energy densities of commercial lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) are getting closer and closer to their fundamental limit, and novel anode materials are urgent to be explored to meet the increasing requirements. CoSe₂ has a high theoretical specific capacity of 494.4 mAh g⁻¹ and is expected to be a viable anode material for high-power LIBs. However, its actual specific capacity degrades rapidly during the cycling process, while the MXene Ti₃C₂T_x possesses excellent cycle stability but low specific capacity (about 110 mAh g⁻¹). In this study, novel CoSe₂/Ti₃C₂T_x composites with high specific capacity and good stability were successfully prepared by growing CoSe₂ particles in situ on Ti₃C₂T_x via hydrothermal method. The results showed that after 1000 charge–discharge cycles at a current density of 0.3 A g⁻¹, CoSe₂/Ti₃C₂T_x (with a molar ratio of 1:2) composite still has a high reversible capacity of 210.8 mAh g⁻¹. Excellent rate capability and electrochemical kinetic behavior are also achieved. This study indicates that CoSe₂/Ti₃C₂T_x composites have a promising application prospect in LIBs as an anode material.

Keywords CoSe₂ · Ti₃C₂T_x · Mxene · Anode material · Lithium-ion battery

1 Introduction

Today, with the exhaustion of fossil energy represented by petroleum and the increasing serious environmental pollution, there is an urgent demand for sustainable renewable energies [1–7]. Moreover, the advances in technology also require smaller and lighter devices with high power [8] such as supercapacitors (SC) and lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) [9–13]. LIBs play important roles in electronic devices because of their high energy density, long cycle life, and environmental friendliness. But the performances of LIBs such as theoretical capacity, charge–discharge voltage, and cycle stability are affected by the inherent characteristics of electrode materials dramatically [3, 14, 15]. At present, some materials including carbon-based materials [16], silicon-based materials [17], niobium-based materials

(Mo₃Nb₁₄O₄₄ and V₃Nb₁₇O₅₀) [18, 19], and vanadium-based materials (Na₂Ca(VO₃)₄ and VPO₅) [20, 21] are popularly used as anode materials for LIBs. Graphite, the commonly used commercial anode material, only has a theoretical capacity of 372 mAh g⁻¹ [22, 23]. Therefore, seeking novel anode materials with higher specific capacity, higher charge–discharge rate, and cycle stability is necessary to meet future market demands [24].

Transition metal selenides are attracting more and more attentions because of their conversion reaction mechanism [25–29] and relatively high storage capacity of lithium. Among them, CoSe₂ has been paid special attention due to the rich content of Co and its low price, high specific capacity, and safety [30–33]. However, CoSe₂ suffers from a large volume change during the charge–discharge process that leads to the rapid decay of specific capacity and poor cycle stability. Therefore, researchers developed several strategies to overcome the poor cycle stability problem of Co_xSe_y by preparing Co_xSe_y microspheres or nanosheets, or coating Co_xSe_y with carbon material and introducing carbon base [34–41]. However, their cycle stabilities are still not satisfactory.

It is reported that the design of multilayer templates for anode materials could provide more active sites, which is conducive to the higher specific capacity [42, 43]. Therefore, two-dimensional (2D) materials have been widely explored

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and used in many fields [44–49]. MXenes, discovered in 2011 [50], are a relatively new member of 2D material family, including a class of transition metal carbonitrides. The 2D layer-structured MXenes are of great interest and are considered as the most promising energy storage material because of their unique physical and chemical properties, such as metal conductivity, hydrophilic surface, large and adjustable layer spacing, and excellent mechanical properties [51–53]. MXenes have a general formula $M_{n+1}X_nT_x$, where M is transition metal (e.g. Ti, Mo, V, Nb, and Ta), X represents C or N, and T is surface functional group (e.g. OH, F, Cl, or O) that are formed by violent reactions of transition metals with water or fluoride ions [54–56]. Up to now, more than 40 MXenes have been synthesized successfully [57], which are applied in the fields of energy storage [58], electromagnetic shielding [59, 60], catalysis [61], and sensors [62]. Among them, $Ti_3C_2T_x$ is one of the most studied MXene, exhibiting excellent cycle stability and higher theoretical lithium ion storage capacity (up to 447.8 mAh g^{-1}) [63–66].

Therefore, novel $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composite with high specific capacity and excellent cycle stability can be expected if the advantages of both $CoSe_2$ and $Ti_3C_2T_x$ are combined. In this study, $Ti_3C_2T_x$ was firstly prepared by hydrofluoric acid corrosion method, and then $CoSe_2$ particles were grown on $Ti_3C_2T_x$ via hydrothermal method. $Ti_3C_2T_x$, as a buffer layer of volume change, could effectively alleviate the volume change and aggregation of $CoSe_2$ particles by the formation of strong Ti-Se-Co bonds. Meanwhile, $Ti_3C_2T_x$ could provide more relevant electronic channels in the composite. The fabricated $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composites were found to possess excellent electrochemical performances.

2 Experimental

2.1 Material synthesis

Firstly, 2 g of Ti_3AlC_2 (98%, Shanghai Macklin Biochemical Co., Ltd.) was slowly added to 20 ml of 40% HF acid solution, which was stirred at room temperature for 24 h. After centrifugation of the above solution at 5000 rpm for 10 min, the supernatant was poured out. Deionized water was added

to the precipitation left in the centrifuge tube, which was shaken by hand to mix the precipitation and deionized water evenly, followed by centrifugation for several times to remove the HF solution. Then, the liquid was pumped, filtered, and vacuum dried to get $Ti_3C_2T_x$ powder. After that, suitable amount of $Ti_3C_2T_x$ powder, $Co(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (98.5%, Xilong Scientific Co., Ltd.), Se powder (analytically pure, Tianjin Kemiou Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd.) were mixed in an ethanol aqueous solution and stirred for 1 h. The molar ratios of $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ were designed to be 1:2.5, 1:2, 1:1.5, and the resulted $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composites were denoted by sample CT1, CT2, and CT3, respectively. The solution was then poured into a hydrothermal autoclave that was held at $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 16 h. After being cooled to room temperature naturally, the solution was taken out, filtered with suction, and vacuum dried for 2 h. The $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composites were finally prepared. Figure 1 illustrates the typical preparation process of $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composite.

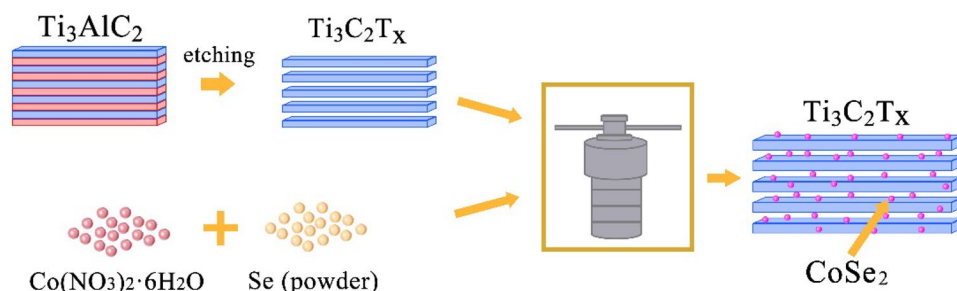
2.2 Material characterization

The raw materials used and prepared composites were characterized by X-ray powder diffractometer (XRD, D8-Advance, Germany), scanning electron microscopy (SEM, S4800, Japan), Brunauer-Emmet-Teller method (BET, ASAP 2460, USA), transmission electron microscopy (TEM, FEI Talos F200X, USA) equipped with energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDS), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Thermo Escalab 250Xi, USA).

2.3 Half-cell measurement

The electrochemical properties of $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composites (CT1–CT3) were tested by assembling them into 2016 coin cells. Firstly, 80 wt% $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composite (acting as active material), 10 wt% conductive carbon black, and 10 wt% polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF, adhesive) were mixed. N-Methylpyrrolidone (NMP) was then added and stirred for 12 h to form a slurry. The slurry was coated onto a copper foil, which was dried in a vacuum drying oven at $120 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 12 h. After that, the copper foil loaded with active material was cut into

Fig. 1 The sketch diagram for the typical preparation process of $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composite



circular electrodes with a diameter of 10 mm. Argon (99.99%)-filled glove box ($O_2 < 0.1$ ppm, $H_2O < 0.1$ ppm) was employed to assemble the coin cells. Lithium sheets were used as reference electrodes, and polyethylene/polypropylene film (PE/PP, Celgard 2325) was applied as the separator. A commercial electrolyte with 1 M $LiPF_6$ dissolved in a mixture of ethyl carbonate, diethyl carbonate, and dimethyl carbonate (1:1:1 by volume) was used. Constant current charge–discharge test was performed on a battery performance tester (Neware CT-4000, China). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were conducted by an electrochemical workstation (Zahner Zronach, Germany). All electrochemical tests were performed at a constant temperature of 25 °C.

3 Results and discussion

Figure 2 shows the XRD patterns of the raw material of Ti_3AlC_2 powder, synthesized $Ti_3C_2T_x$ powder, and $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composite (CT2). It can be seen that after etching,

(104) diffraction peak of Ti_3AlC_2 phase (JCPDS # 52–0875) disappears, indicating that Ti_3AlC_2 phase is successfully changed into $Ti_3C_2T_x$ phase [67, 68]. Moreover, the (002) peak shifts from 9.7 to 7.1°, hinting that the layer spacing increases in $Ti_3C_2T_x$ phase. From the XRD patterns of CT2, it can be seen that $CoSe_2$ phase (JCPDS # 53–0449) appears obviously in addition to the original $Ti_3C_2T_x$ phase, which reveals the formation of $CoSe_2/Ti_3C_2T_x$ composite.

Figure 3 demonstrates the SEM images of $Ti_3C_2T_x$, CT1, CT2, and CT3. It can be seen that $Ti_3C_2T_x$ exhibits an accordion-like structure (Fig. 3a), indicating that the Al layer in Ti_3AlC_2 has been removed. Figure 3b–d illustrate that $CoSe_2$ particles are successfully grown on the surface of $Ti_3C_2T_x$ after hydrothermal reaction. But only in CT2 there are an appropriate amount of $CoSe_2$ particles in the $Ti_3C_2T_x$ substrate (Fig. 3c), while few $CoSe_2$ particles are formed in CT1 (Fig. 3b) and too much $CoSe_2$ particles with an accumulation nature are formed in CT3 (Fig. 3d).

Figure 4 shows the N_2 adsorption/desorption isotherms of CT1–CT3. The BET-specific areas of CT1–CT3 are calculated to be 19.13, 23.04, and 29.15 $m^2 g^{-1}$, respectively. It can be seen that the specific surface area increases with the

Fig. 2 XRD patterns of Ti_3AlC_2 , $Ti_3C_2T_x$, and CT2

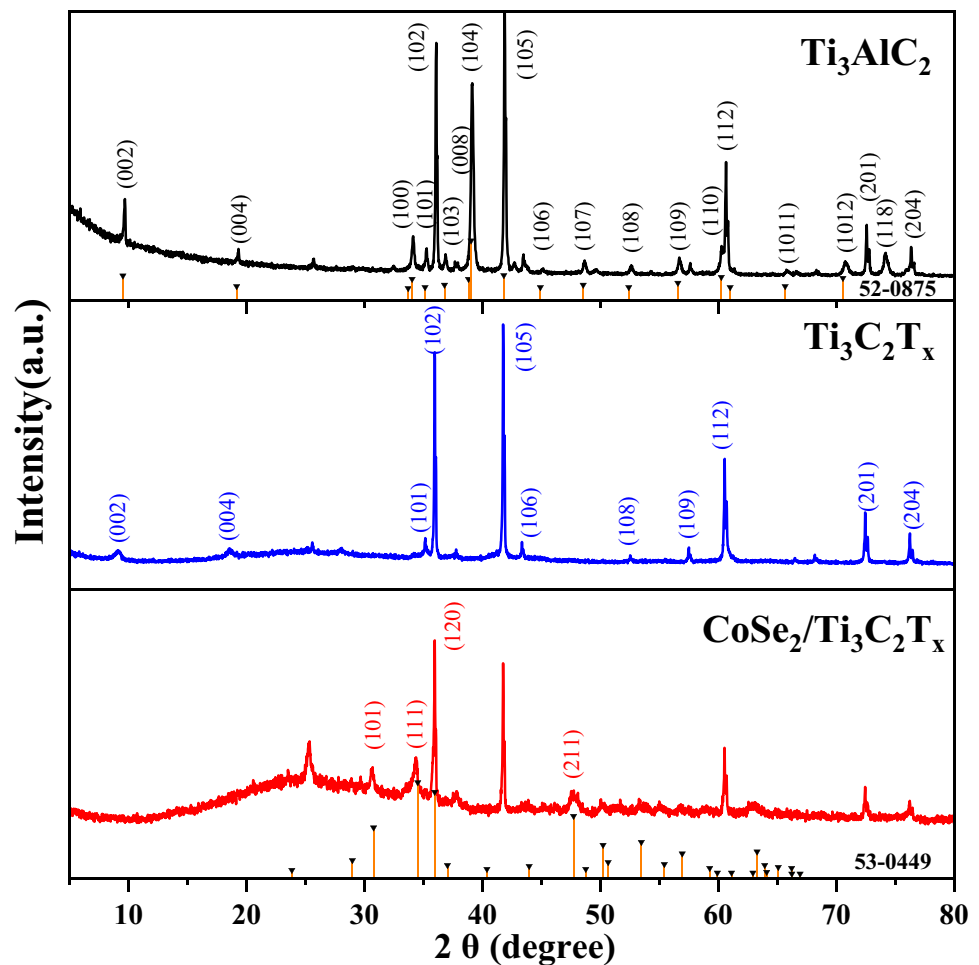
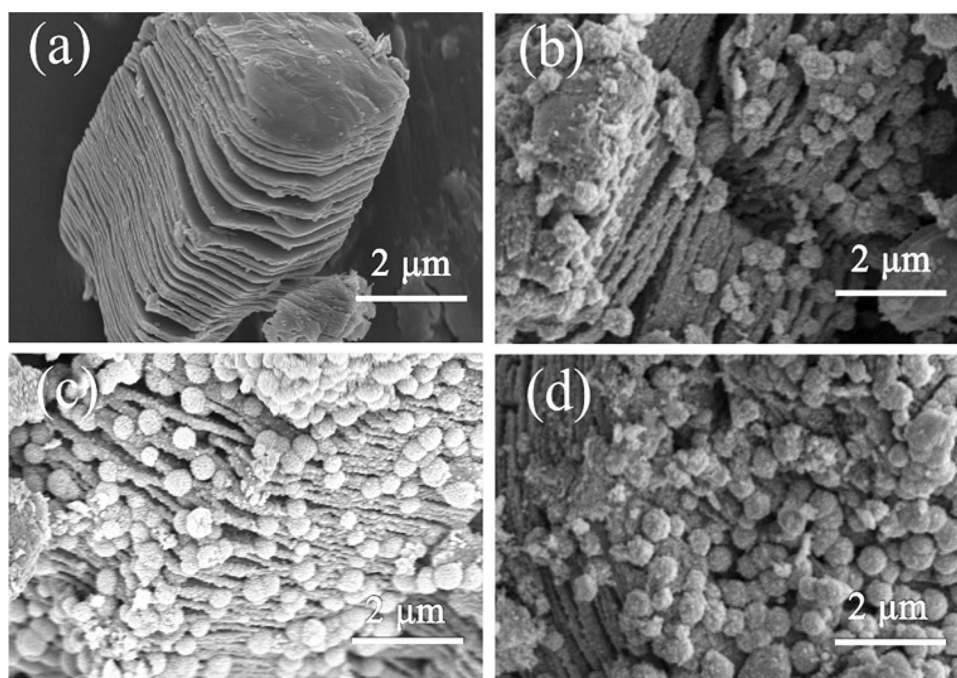


Fig. 3 SEM images of samples **a** $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, **b** CT1, **c** CT2, and **d** CT3



rise of CoSe_2 content added. Large specific surface area of the $\text{CoSe}_2/\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ composite is believed to favor the provision of more active sites that facilitates the storage of lithium ions [69, 70].

In order to further study the structural characteristics of $\text{CoSe}_2/\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ composite, TEM characterization was carried out on sample CT2 and the results are shown in Fig. 5. CoSe_2 particles grown evenly on the surface of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ substrate can also be observed (Fig. 5a), and the average size of CoSe_2 particles is about 240 nm (Fig. 5b). As shown in the corresponding high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image (Fig. 5c), the lattice spacing between two neighboring fringes is estimated to be 0.928 nm, which corresponds to the (002) planes of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$. The lattice spacing between two neighboring fringes of a CoSe_2 particle are measured to be 0.190, 0.249, and 0.259 nm, which correspond to the (211), (120), and (111) planes of CoSe_2 , respectively (Fig. 5d). The elemental mapping images shown in Fig. 5e–i demonstrate the uniform distribution of C, Ti, Co, and Se elements, further revealing the successful preparation of $\text{CoSe}_2/\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ composite.

The interaction between CoSe_2 particles and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ was studied by XPS. Figure 6a shows the Ti 2p spectra of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ (top) and CT2 (bottom). The peak at 455.1 eV corresponds to Ti–C bond. In addition, two peaks are observed at 455.8 and 457.2 eV, which can be attributed to Ti^{2+} and Ti^{3+} , respectively [71, 72]. Ti^{4+} also appears at 458.9 eV due to the surface oxidation of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ during the preparation process [73]. The Co 2p spectra of CoSe_2 (top) and CT2 (bottom) are illustrated in Fig. 6b. The two peaks located at 778.6 eV and 781.1 eV can be ascribed to Co^{3+} and

Co^{2+} , respectively [74]. Figure 6c shows the Se 3d spectra of CoSe_2 (top) and CT2 (bottom), and the peak at 54.9 eV is attributed to Se^{2-} . In Fig. 6a, the Ti^{2+} and Ti^{3+} peaks of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ almost disappear after the formation of $\text{CoSe}_2/\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ composite, and the signal of Ti^{4+} peak is greatly enhanced. While the Co^{2+} peak of $\text{CoSe}_2/\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ composite gets stronger in comparison with that of CoSe_2 (Fig. 6b). The valency of Se does not change significantly (Fig. 6c). Moreover, it can be found from Fig. 6a, b that electron transfer occurs between Ti and Co, Ti is connected with Se then with Co, and finally Ti–Se–Co bonds are formed.

Figure 7a–c demonstrate the first four cycle CV curves of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, CoSe_2 , and CT2 at 0.2 mV s^{-1} , respectively. An irreversible reduction peak appears in the first cycle, which can be attributed to the generation of SEI layer. However, this peak disappears in the subsequent cycles, hinting that a stable SEI layer is already formed after the first cycle. The curves of the second, third, and fourth cycles almost overlap (Fig. 7a). The reduction peak at $\sim 1.134 \text{ V}$ may be due to the chemical reaction between $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ and Li^+ , while the oxidation peak at $\sim 0.876 \text{ V}$ can be ascribed to the generation of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{Li}_x$. In the first CV cycle of CoSe_2 (Fig. 7b), the reduction peaks at about ~ 0.506 and $\sim 1.138 \text{ V}$ probably refer to the conversion of CoSe_2 to Co metal and Li_2Se , respectively. In addition, strong oxidation peaks at ~ 2.103 and $\sim 1.126 \text{ V}$ appear due to the formation of CoSe_2 by the reaction between Co and Li_2Se . The lithium storage mechanism of CoSe_2 can be described by a two-stage reversible reaction: $\text{CoSe}_2 + \text{Li}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{Li}_x\text{CoSe}_2$ and $\text{Li}_x\text{CoSe}_2 + \text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{Co} + \text{Li}_2\text{Se}$ [75]. Moreover, compared with those in the first circle, the two reaction peaks

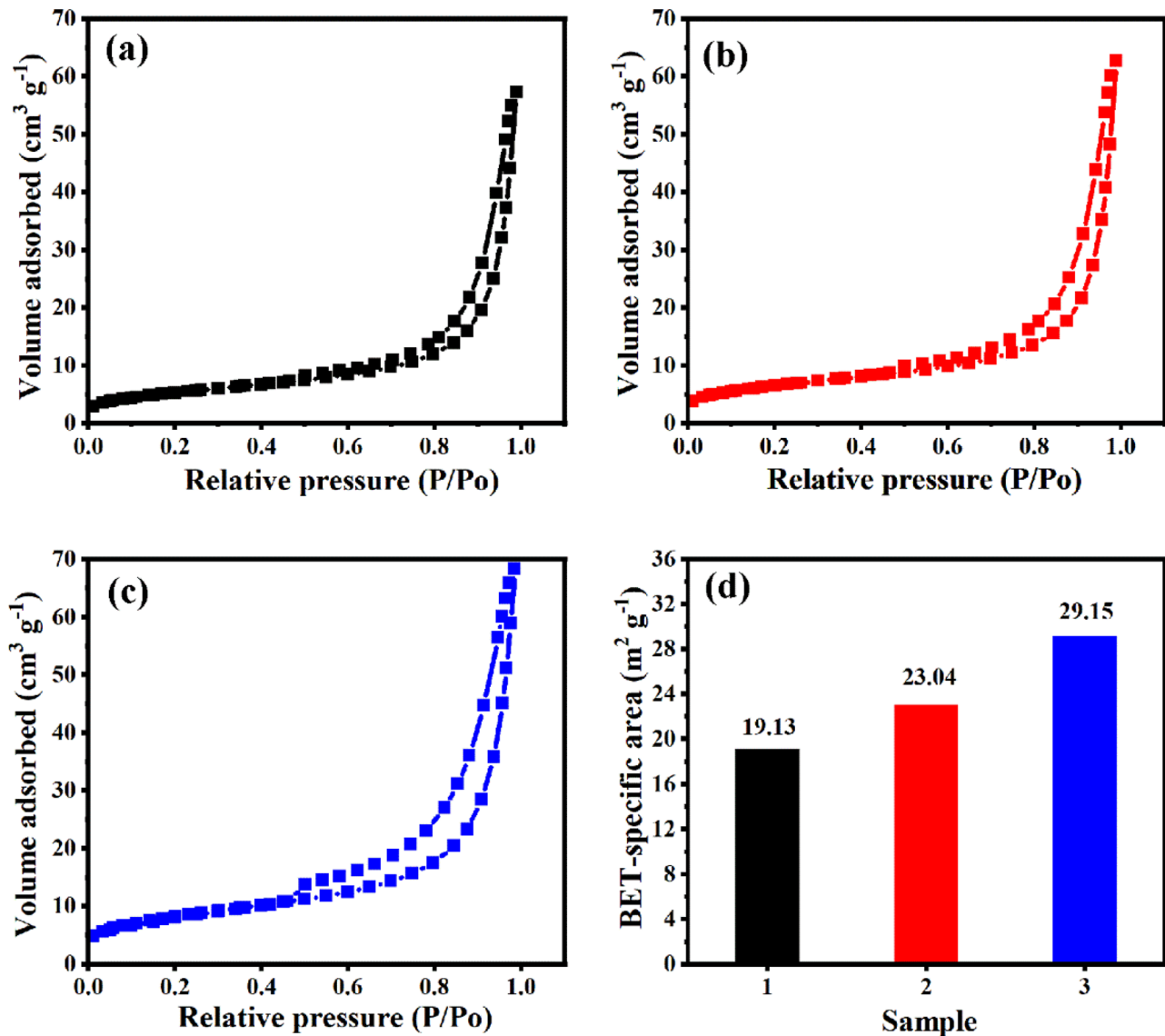


Fig. 4 Nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms of **a** CT1, **b** CT2, and **c** CT3. The BET-specific areas of **d** CT1-CT3

at ~ 0.506 and ~ 1.138 V in the second cycle shift to ~ 0.653 and ~ 1.394 V, respectively, which may be caused by the formation of SEI layer, decomposition of electrolyte, and microstructure change.

The electric potentials of the reduction peak and oxidation peak in the third and fourth cycles are similar to those in the second cycle, but the response current decreases significantly, hinting a poor reversibility of CoSe_2 during the lithium-delithium process caused by the large volume change and comminution effect of CoSe_2 electrode. The CV curve of CT2 is an approximate combination of CoSe_2 and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ CV curve, indicating an improvement of the reversibility in comparison with that of CoSe_2 , as is shown in Fig. 7c. And the curves in the second, third, and fourth cycles of CT2 almost overlap because $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ buffers the

volume expansion of CoSe_2 particles and the formation of Ti-Se-Co bond could prevent CoSe_2 from dissolving into the electrolyte.

Figure 7d illustrates the CV curves of CT2 at scanning rates of 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, and 1.0 mV s^{-1} . It can be observed that the redox potential difference does not change significantly with the increase of scanning rate, revealing an excellent rate capability and small electrode polarization of CT2. Figure 7e–g show the charge–discharge curves of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, CoSe_2 , and CT2 in the first three cycles at 0.1 A g^{-1} , respectively, indicating the lower Coulombic efficiencies of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ (52.39%), CoSe_2 (55.03%), and CT2 (69.24%) that are caused by the irreversible redox reactions.

Figure 8a demonstrates the rate performance of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, CoSe_2 , and CT2-made electrodes at current densities of

0.03, 0.06, 0.15, 0.3, and 0.6 A g⁻¹ after 10 cycles. When the current density returns from 0.6 A g⁻¹ to the initial 0.03 A g⁻¹, the specific capacities of Ti₃C₂T_x and CT2 nearly do not decay, revealing their good reversibilities. But the specific capacity of CoSe₂ increases, indicating that CoSe₂ electrode underwent more activation than other samples. In addition, it can be seen that as the current density increases, the specific capacities of all samples decrease gradually. That is because at high rates, a large number of electrolyte

ions will be adsorbed on the interface between electrode and electrolyte, resulting in a rapid decrease of the concentration of electrolyte ions and thereby enhancing the concentration polarization, but the polarization voltage does not contribute

Fig. 5 Low-magnification (a) and high-magnification (b) TEM images of CT2. HRTEM images of the part of Ti₃C₂T_x (c) and part of a CoSe₂ particle (d). The corresponding elemental mapping images (e–i)

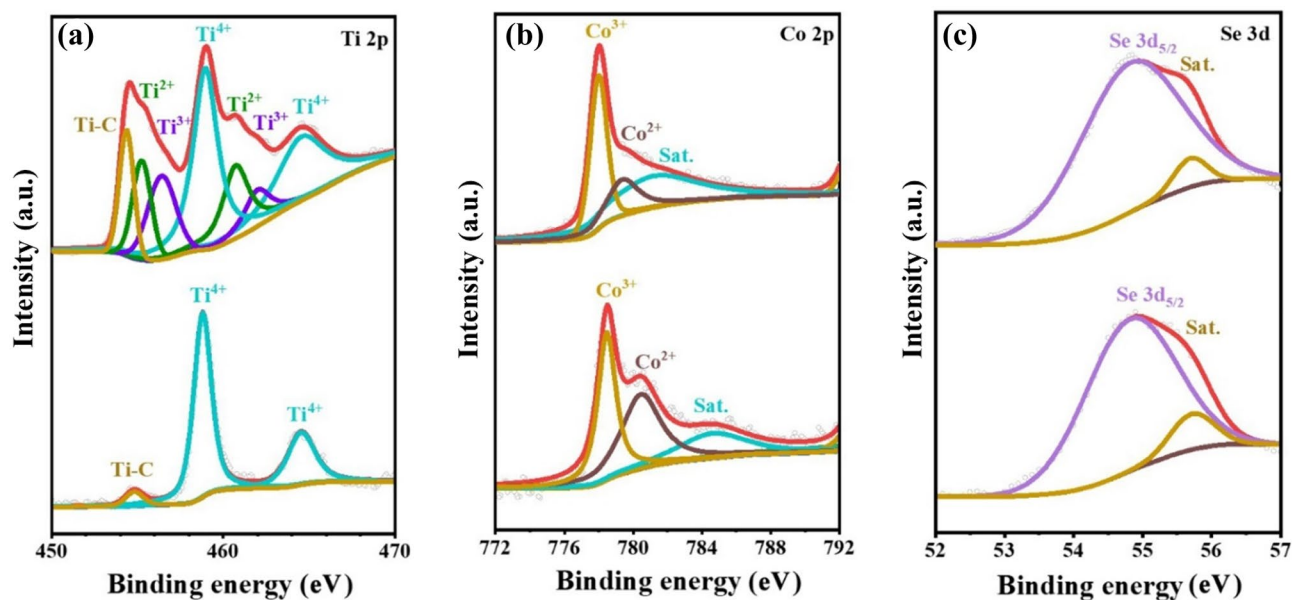
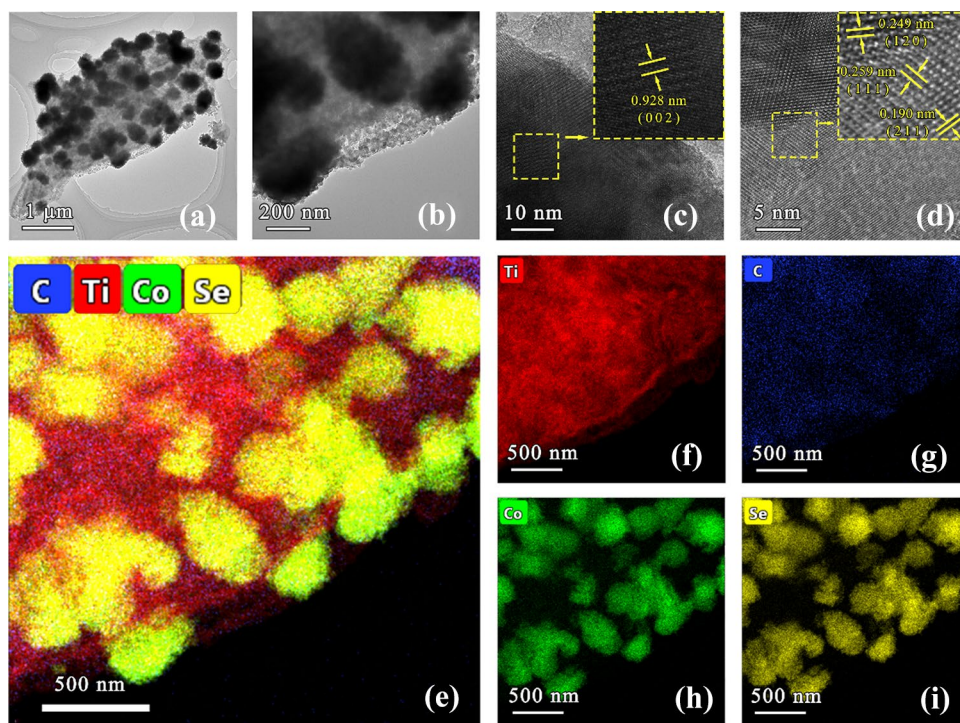


Fig. 6 XPS spectra of a Ti 2p, b Co 2p, and c Se 3d in Ti₃C₂T_x and CT2

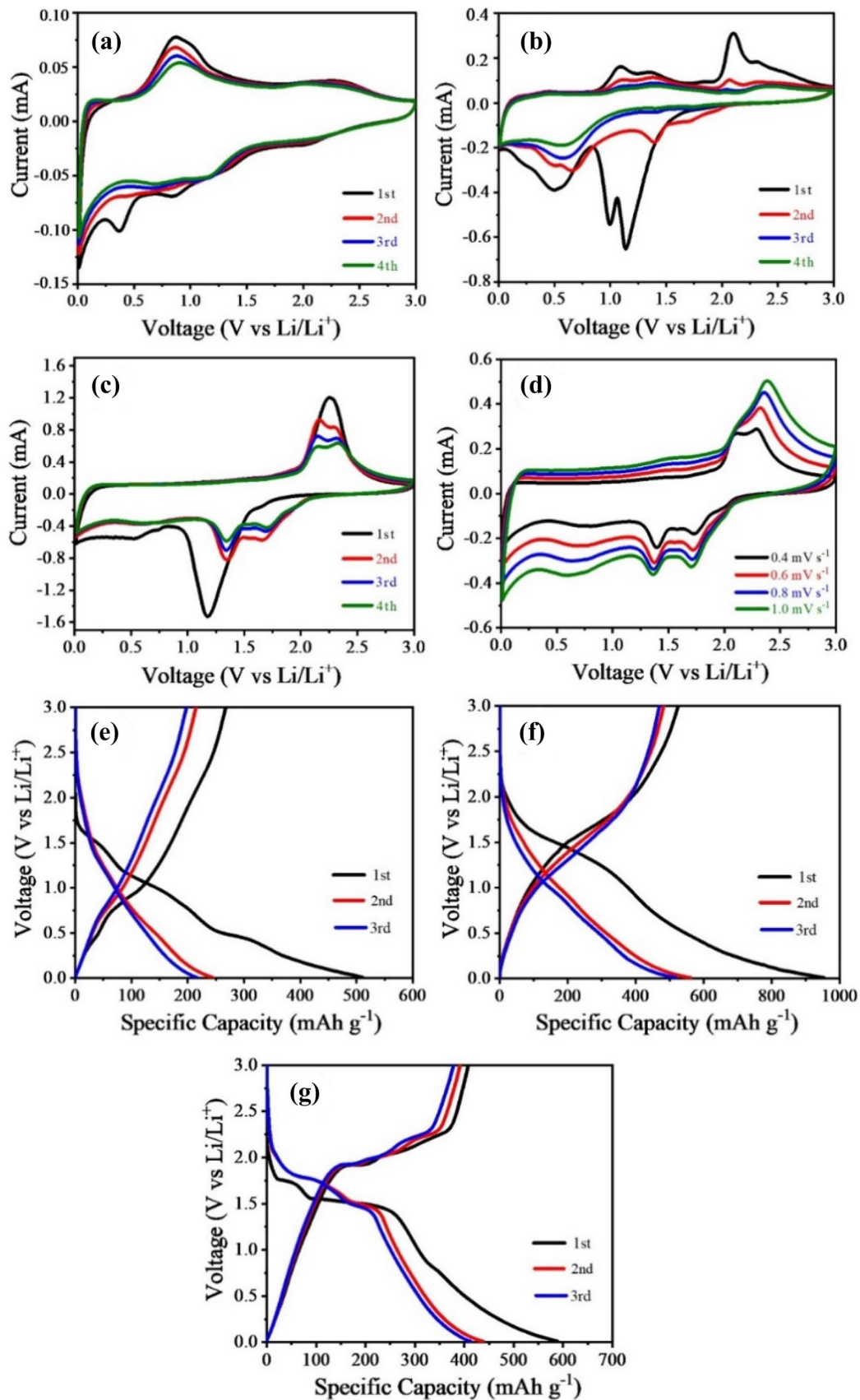
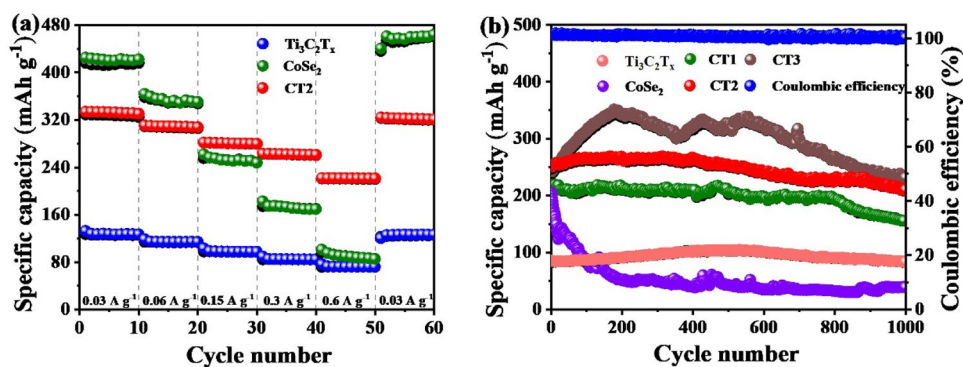


Fig. 8 **a** Rate performance of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, CoSe_2 , and CT2. **b** Cycling stability of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, CoSe_2 , CT1, CT2, and CT3 at 0.3 A g^{-1} for 1000 cycles and the Coulombic efficiency of CT2



any specific capacity. The rate performance of CoSe_2 is poor, while $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ exhibits excellent rate performance. Thus, by combining $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ with CoSe_2 , the $\text{CoSe}_2/\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ composite (CT2) displays high electronic conductivity and excellent performance at high current density. Moreover, CT2 has the best rate performance because of its smaller polarization during redox process. The specific capacities of CT2 at current densities of 0.03, 0.06, 0.15, 0.3, and 0.6 A g^{-1} are 331.95, 310.90, 280.47, 262.22, and 220.79 mAh g^{-1} , respectively.

Figure 8b shows the cyclic stability of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, CoSe_2 , CT1, CT2, and CT3 after 1000 cycles at a current density of 0.3 A g^{-1} . It can be seen obviously that the cyclic stabilities of CT1–CT3 are higher than those of CoSe_2 but lower than that of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$. And after 1000 cycles, the specific capacities of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, CoSe_2 , CT1, CT2, and CT3 are 84.06, 39.09, 156.10, 210.80, and 232.01 mAh g^{-1} , respectively. These results indicate that $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ can only load a certain amount of CoSe_2 particles, and excessive CoSe_2 particles will aggregate and undergo large volume change and comminution effect during the charge–discharge process, which may result in the formation of new surfaces and reactivation and finally the enhancement of specific capacity. However, CoSe_2 may dissolve into the electrolyte later, causing

a significant reduction of specific capacity. In addition, the excellent lithium storage performances of CT1–CT3 can be attributed to the stable layered structure of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ which provides additional active sites and improves the electronic conductivity. The formation of Ti–Se–Co bonds between $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ and CoSe_2 particles also helps to alleviate the volume change of CoSe_2 during the cycling process.

Figure 9 shows the microscopic topography of CT2 after 1000 cycles at a current density of 0.3 A g^{-1} . It can be seen that the sample as a whole still keeps a lamellar structure, indicating a good structural stability of the composite. In addition, the CoSe_2 particle number seems to decrease, which may be caused by the dissolution of CoSe_2 particles during the cycling process.

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) reveals the electrochemical behavior of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, CoSe_2 , and CT2 samples, as is illustrated in Fig. 10. A typical EIS curve consists of a straight line representing the low-frequency region of the interfacial charge transfer impedance and a semicircular line representing the mid-frequency region of the lithium diffusion impedance [68]. Impedance data are

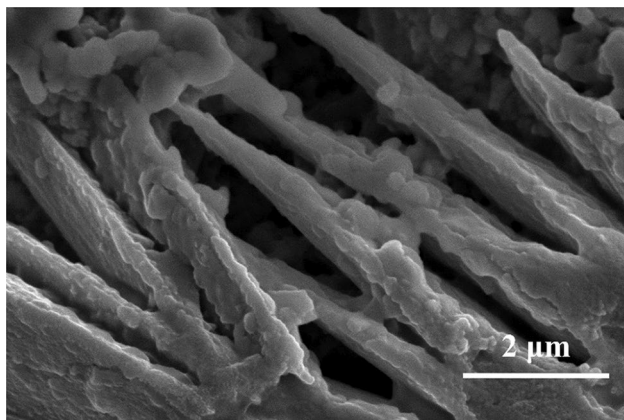


Fig. 9 SEM images of CT2 after 1000 cycles

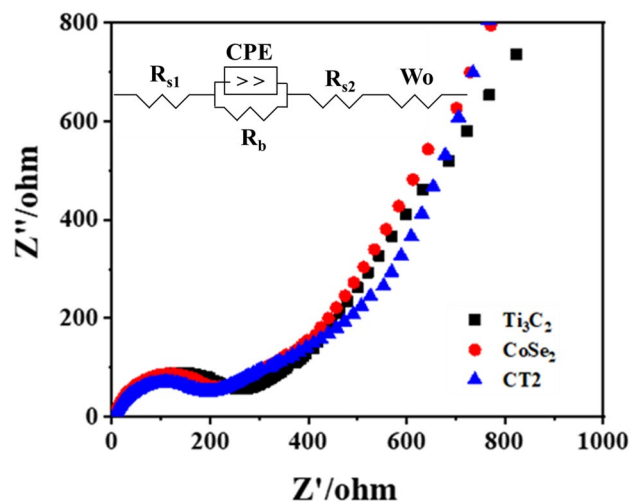


Fig. 10 Nyquist plots of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, CoSe_2 , and CT2

Table 1 The comparison of electrochemical properties between the CT2 and those related materials reported

Materials	Specific capacity (mAh g ⁻¹)	Current density (A g ⁻¹)	Cycle number	References
CoSe/NC	310.11	0.1	500	[34]
CoSe@PCP	675	0.2	100	[35]
CoSe/Co@NC	640	1	500	[36]
CoSe ₂ nanoparticles	143	0.25	300	[37]
CoSe ₂ @N-PGC/CNTs	492	0.2	100	[38]
CoSe/C-NS nanocubes	1494	0.2	300	[39]
Co _{0.85} Se microspheres	170	0.2	50	[40]
Co _{0.85} Se nanosheets	516	0.2	50	[40]
Co _{0.85} Se@C/Ti ₃ C ₂ T _x	700	0.1	270	[41]
MA-Ti ₃ C ₂	200	0.1	150	[77]
Ti ₃ C ₂ @TiO ₂	154	2	1500	[78]
CoSe ₂ /Ti ₃ C ₂ T _x	210.80	0.3	1000	this work

described by an equivalent circuit fit in the inset. The circuit consists of electrolyte resistance (Rs1), charge transfer resistance (Rs2), constant phase element (CPE), and Warburg impedance (Zw) [76]. Obviously, the semicircle diameter of CT2 is smaller than those of CoSe₂ and Ti₃C₂T_x; therefore, CT2 can provide more active sites and reduce its resistance, which benefit the electron transfer.

The electrochemical properties of CT2 are compared with those of other Ti₃C₂T_x- and Co_xSe_y-based anodes reported, as are listed in Table 1. It can be seen that CT2 possesses higher specific capacity than several Ti₃C₂T_x-based anodes and higher stability than several Co_xSe_y anodes. It is believed that the reactive anode material of CoSe₂ mainly contributes to the higher specific capacity of CT2, and the layered structure of CT2 also favors the improvement of specific capacity. On the other hand, the formation of Ti-Se-Co bonds between Ti₃C₂T_x and CoSe₂ leads to a better structural stability. Therefore, the excellent cyclical stability of Ti₃C₂T_x and high specific capacity of CoSe₂ enable CT2 to exhibit excellent electrochemical performances.

4 Conclusions

In summary, novel CoSe₂/Ti₃C₂T_x composites are successfully prepared with high specific capacity and excellent cycling stability. After 1000 cycles at 0.3 A g⁻¹, a high specific capacity of 210.80 mAh g⁻¹ is achieved. The introduction of Ti₃C₂T_x is believed to ease the volume expansion of CoSe₂ during charge–discharge cycles, resulting in the improvement of cycling stability. Moreover, the excellent electronic conductivity of Ti₃C₂T_x favors the electrochemical behavior of CoSe₂/Ti₃C₂T_x composites. Therefore, CoSe₂/Ti₃C₂T_x composites with high specific capacity and excellent cycling stability are achieved, which may find promising applications in LIBs as anode materials.

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Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare no competing interests.

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