# Hybridisation of mixed transition metal oxide with graphene as advanced electrode material for symmetric supercapacitor application

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## Abstract

Nowadays, imminent deficiency of fossil fuels and rising environmental concerns have triggered the immense research enthusiasm for the development of green and renewable energy sources. Lately, supercapacitors are emerging as one of the competent energy storage devices owing to their excellent capacitive properties, long term cycling stability as well as remarkable power density. In this sense, the promising family of mixed transition metal oxides (MTMO) possesses felicitous as active electrode materials for supercapacitor due to their multiple oxidation states and ions, leading to superior specific capacitance. Moreover, many researchers are dedicated in hybridising the MTMO with graphene nanosheets as advanced electrode materials due to the peculiar properties of graphene, which ameliorate the electrical conductivity and enlarge the specific surface area of the nanocomposite for Faradaic redox reaction. The current thesis emphasis on the latest evolution of MTMO and the integration of MTMO with graphene nanosheets as active electrode materials, with a comprehensive study of their synthetic approaches. In addition, the energy storage mechanism of distinct types of supercapacitor and the critical factors affecting the electrochemical activities of transition metal oxide-based materials are also delineated.

Based on the literature review, solvothermal technique was acknowledged as one of the effective synthetic routes for MTMO/graphene nanocomposites, which impress by its versatility in controlling the morphology and growth mechanism (nucleation and diffusion process) of the reactants. Additionally, solvothermal method is also a simple and cost effective process with high scalability potential. In chapter 4, graphene/nickel vanadate (Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>) nanocomposites were successfully

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synthesised through the solvothermal method. The nanocomposites integrate separately the advantages of graphene sheet and pseudocapacitive nature of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, leading to outstanding electrochemical performance than the pristine Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>. Optimisation on the weight ratios between the graphene and Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> were conducted to determine the perfect synergistic effect between the highly conductive graphene sheet and the pseudocapacitive Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>. Among the graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites, G-4NVO as promising electrode material performed an eminent specific capacitance of 368 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at a current density of 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and energy density of 51 Wh/kg at a power density of 920 W/kg. An excellent cycling stability with 92 % capacitance retention and coulombic efficiency of nearly 100 % were achieved after 3000 charge-discharge cycles at 1Ag<sup>-1</sup>.

A series of graphene/cobalt vanadate ( $Co_3V_2O_8$ ) nanomaterials with multiple weight ratios were prepared and their respective physical and electrochemical performances were evaluated in chapter 5. The nanocomposite with weight ratio of 1:4 (G-4CVO) exhibited the highest specific capacitance of 275.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. A specific capacitance of 216 Fg<sup>-1</sup> was obtained at high current density of 1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. The electrode material maintained 81 % of its charge storage capability after 3000 cycles, signifying its outstanding cycling stability. Additionally, G-4CVO delivered remarkable energy and power densities, signifying its potential as advanced electrode material for supercapacitor application.

In chapter 6, the energy storage capability of the electrode material can be improved by combining graphene with zinc vanadate  $(Zn_3V_2O_8)$  to form the "sheet on sheet" architecture. For comparison, different weight ratios were applied to prepare the nanocomposites by using the solvothermal method. The synergistic effect between graphene and Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> resulted in enhanced capacitive performance. Among the nanocomposites, G-3ZVO delineated a specific capacitance of 313.6 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. Besides, 80 % of the initial capacitance was retained as the current density increased to 1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, suggesting its good rate capability. G-3ZVO achieved a specific capacitance of 246.8 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (86 % retention) after experiencing 3000 repeated galvanostatic charge-discharge cycles, confirming its exceptional cycling stability. Furthermore, this symmetrical supercapacitor exhibited a maximum energy density of 43.55 Wh/kg.

A distinctive, nanobelts like manganese vanadate ( $MnV_2O_6$ ) decorated on graphene nanaosheets was developed via the solvothermal method as electrode material for symmetric supercapacitor (Chapter 7). The effect of weight ratio (graphene: $MnV_2O_6$ ) on the structural and electrochemical performances was also determined to study the detail synergistic effect between graphene and  $MnV_2O_6$ . G-8MVO revealed the maximum specific capacitance of 348 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at the current density of 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. A capacitance retention of 88 % was achieved after 3000 cycles, suggesting its excellent cycling stability. In addition, G-8MVO obtained a maximum energy density of 48.33 Wh/kg at a power density of 880.6 W/kg, highlighting the potential of this material to bridge the gap between the battery and supercapacitor.

In chapter 8, graphene/aluminium vanadate  $(AIV_3O_9)$  nanocomposites were developed through the deposition of 3D lion's mane like  $AIV_3O_9$  microspheres on graphene sheets. Different physical and electrochemical properties were obtained by varying the weight ratios between graphene and  $AIV_3O_9$ . Notably, nanocomposite with the weight ratio 1:5 (G-5AIV) showed a specific capacitance of 268.8 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. A specific capacitance of 192 Fg<sup>-1</sup> was obtained as the current density increased to 1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, suggesting its remarkable rate capability. Besides, a capacitance retention of 82 % was achieved together with a coulombic efficiency of nearly 100 % after 3000 repeated charge-discharge cycles, confirming its excellent cycling stability and good reversibility. The remarkable energy and power densities of G-5AIV suggest that it has a great potential in hybrid supercapacitor application.

In short, five desired graphene/MTMO nanocomposites were successfully synthesised in this work and their physical, chemical and electrochemical properties were analysed comprehensively. Besides, the effect of weight ratio between graphene and MTMO was well determined to study the best synergistic effect between both nanomaterials for advanced supercapacitor performance. Thus, it proves that all the research objectives in this PhD study have been achieved accordingly.

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# **Publication List**

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- W.H. Low, P.S. Khiew, S.S. Lim, C.W. Siong, C.H. Chia, E.R. Ezeigwe, Facile synthesis of graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite as a high performance electrode material for symmetric supercapacitor, Journal of Alloys and Compounds, 784 (2019) 847-858.
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# Nomenclature

A list of symbols is provided with a short description and unit.

Symbol	Description and Unit
$C_s$	Specific capacitance (Fg <sup>-1</sup> )
η	Coulombic Efficiency (%)
Ι	Discharge current (A)
$\Delta t$	Discharge time (s)
$\Delta V$	potential window (V)
m	Mass of the electrode material (g)
tc	Charge time (s)
t <sub>D</sub>	Discharge time (s)
Ε	Energy density (Whkg <sup>-1</sup> )
Р	Power density (kWkg <sup>-1</sup> )

Abbreviation	Description
AACVD	Aerosol assisted chemical vapour deposition
AC	Activated carbon
1D	One dimensional
2D	Two dimensional
3D	Three dimensional
CF	Carbon fabric
CNT	Carbon nanotubes
CV	Cyclic voltammetry
D.I	Deionised water
EDL	Electrical double layer

EDLC	Electrical double layer capacitor
EDX	Energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy
EELS	Electron energy loss spectroscopy
EG	Ethylene glycol
EIS	Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy
ESR	Equivalent series resistance
ESS	Energy storage system
FESEM	Field emission scanning electron microscopy
GCD	Galvanostatic charge discharge
G-AlV	Graphene-aluminium vanadate nanocomposites
G-CVO	Graphene-cobalt vanadate nanocomposites
G-MTMO	Graphene-mixed transition metal oxide
G-MVO	Graphene-manganese vanadate nanocomposites
G-NVO	Graphene-nickel vanadate nanocomposites
G-ZVO	Graphene-zinc vanadate nanocomposites
HOPG	Highly pyrolytic graphite flakes
HRTEM	High resolution transmission electron microscopy
IR	Internal resistance
LIB	Lithium ion battery
LIBs	Lithium ion batteries
LRTEM	Low resolution transmission electron microscopy
MOF	Metal organic framework
MOF-C	Metal organic framework combustion techniques
МТМО	Mixed transition metal oxide
MTMOs	Mixed transition metal oxides
NCO-rGO	NiCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> -reduced graphene oxide
NVO	Pure nickel vanadate
OER	Oxygen evolution reaction
OMEP	Ordered macro-porous electrode plate

R <sub>ct</sub>	Charge transfer resistance	
R <sub>esr</sub>	Equivalent series resistance	
Rs	Solution resistance	
rGO	Reduced graphene oxide	
rNHGO	Reduced nanohole graphene oxide	
SEM	Scanning electron microscopy	
SWCNT	Single wall carbon nanotubes	
TEM	Transmission electron microscopy	
ТМО	Transition metal oxide	
W	Warburg Impedance	
XPS	X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy	
XRD	X-ray diffraction	

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

#### 1.1 Background

With the rapid development of modern economies, the demands on non-renewable energy resources such as crude oil, coal, diesel and etcetera increase tremendously, leading to energy crisis and the occurrence of greenhouse effect[1, 2]. Thus, development of robust, environmental benign, cost effective and renewable energy has drawn considerable research enthusiasm as next generation energy resources to tackle these urgent environmental issues [2, 3]. Myriad of energy storage appliances such as solar and wind energies, biofuel, conventional capacitors, lithium ion batteries and supercapacitors were developed and widely employed in high technology industries [3, 4]. Among these energy storage devices, supercapacitors, also known as ultracapacitors or electrochemical capacitors, are the most soughtafter candidate for energy storage owing to its unique electrochemical performances such as high power density, excellent coulombic efficiency and fast chargedischarge rate as compared to lithium ion batteries, dielectric capacitor, fuel cells and others[5]. Besides, the superior cycling stability or long cycle life exhibited by a supercapacitor also embellished the efficiency of energy utilisation[3]. Nevertheless, the unsatisfactory energy density has restricted its practical applications[6]. Typically, energy density is substantially dependent on the specific capacitance value and the working potential range of the devices[7]. Therefore, determination of the most effective approach to improve the energy density of a supercapacitor while preserving its exceptional power density has become a major concern for the researchers in order to realise its practical application.

The energy and power densities of various energy storage system (ESS) such as commercial capacitors, supercapacitors, batteries and fuel cells are demonstrated in Figure 1.1[8].



Figure 1.1: Ragone plot for various energy storage system. Reprinted with permission from ref.[8]. Copyright 2011, Materials Research Society.

Based on Figure 1.1, it is worth noting that none of the single energy source has fulfilled both power and energy density regions at the same time. The specific power of conventional capacitor is the highest as compared to other ESS but at the same time with the lowest specific energy. Furthermore, it can be observed that supercapacitors and batteries bridge the gap between the conventional capacitor and the fuel cells, revealing their ideal energy storage capabilities. The comparison between the supercapacitor and battery in terms of energy storage mechanism, charge storage determinants, energy density (Wh/kg), power density (W/kg), charge time, discharge time, cycle life, construction configuration, existence of internal potential (IR) and coulombic efficiency (%) is depicted in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Comparison between Supercapacitor and Battery[9].

Features	Supercapacitor,a	Battery,b
Energy Storage Mechanism	Physical	Chemical
Charge Storage	e Microstructure and	Active mas and
Determinants	electrolyte	thermodynamics
Energy Density	1 to 10 Wh/kg	20-100 Wh/kg
Power Density	500 to 10,000 W/kg	<1000 W/kg
Power Limitation	Electrolyte	Depending on reaction
	conductivity	kinetic and mass
		transport
Charge Time	Seconds to minutes	1-5 hours
Discharge Time	Seconds to minutes	1 to 3 hours
Cycle Life	More than 500,000,	Less than 2000,
	(Ease in charge	(irreversible redox
	input and output)	reaction and phase
		change)
Cycle Life Limitation	Due to the	Physically stable
	occurrence of side	Chemically reversible
	reactions	
Configuration	Bipolar	Bipolar
Internal Potential (IR)	Due to high area	Due to the active
	platform and	material and the
	electrolyte	electrolyte.
Note: The data mentioned	in the column of a and	d b were referred to the

electrical double layer capacitors (EDLC) and lithium ion batteries (LIB) respectively.

From Figure 1.1 and Table 1.1, it is remarkable that supercapacitor possesses a higher energy density than the conventional capacitor, as well as higher power density than the lithium ion battery (LIB). Typically, a supercapacitor comprises of

two electrodes on each side of the cell, which are separated by a separator as delineated in Figure 1.2.



Figure 1.2: A schematic diagram of symmetric supercapacitor. Reprinted with permission from ref.[9]. Copyright 2016, Elsevier.

Both electrodes are similar for symmetric supercapacitor but different for the asymmetric supercapacitor. Besides, paper or polymer is employed as the separator for supercapacitor due to their inherent properties such as good ionic conductivity, high electrical resistivity, excellent ion permeability and fine thickness to ease the ionic charge transportation and hence augmenting the electrochemical performance[10]. Generally, the charge storage systems of supercapacitor are classified into two categories, namely electrical double layer capacitor (EDLC) and pseudocapacitor. As for the EDLC, the carbonaceous materials like activated carbon, single wall carbon nanotube (SWCNT), graphene, reduced graphene oxide (rGO) and etcetera are employed as the electrode where the electrical energy is stored by nanoscopic ion adsorption at the electrode/electrolyte interface. Contrarily, the pseudocapacitive materials like transition metal oxides and

conducting polymer are utilised as the electrode for pseudocapacitor where the charge storage mechanism involves the fast Faradaic redox reaction[11]. The nature of the electrode material is crucial for the capacitive performance of the supercapacitor. Typically, pseudocapacitor possesses larger specific capacitance and higher energy density than EDLC due to the multiple oxidation states of transition metal oxides which allow rapid redox reaction for the enhancement of capacitance[12-15]. Among the pseudocapacitive materials, transition metal oxides (TMO) are sought-after as electrode material for pseudocapacitor. This is mainly attributed to the unique properties of TMO, including changeable valence which offers ideal pseudocapacitance, allows the intercalation of ions and electrons into the lattice of the metallic compounds and their inherent high stability[16-20]. Among the TMO, ruthenium oxide (RuO<sub>2</sub>) has been extensively researched as it exhibits high specific capacitance (up to 1580 Fg<sup>-1</sup>) and good electrical conductivity, and hence serves as one of the most promising candidates for supercapacitor applications[21]. Nevertheless, the acute toxicity, high cost and rareness of ruthenium elements have impeded its wide range applications[3-5]. Apart from RuO<sub>2</sub>, other metal oxides like NiO, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, MnO<sub>2</sub> and V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were widely investigated and proved to be naturally abundant, lucrative and also environmentally benign[22]. However, their practical applications were hampered by their relatively low specific capacitances. Thus, recent advances have acclaimed mixed transition metal oxides (MTMOs) as the most promising and low-cost candidates for supercapacitor applications as MTMO can advocate diverse redox reactions owing to the coexistence of two distinct metal species in a single crystal structure. Besides, the synergistic effect between the sole metal oxide in MTMO

can enlarge the working potential window and develop more electroactive sites which lead to prominent specific capacitance as compared to single component metal oxide[4, 23, 24]. However, MTMO generally suffer from poor conductivity, inferior cycling stability and occurrence of aggregation during the continuous charge-discharge process[18].

Nanoscale hybridisation or effective combination of EDLC with pseudocapacitors was found to be the most appealing approach to ameliorate the electrochemical performance of MTMO, which is well-acknowledged as hybrid capacitors. Hybrid capacitors combine the intrinsic properties of both EDLC and pseudocapacitance. The hybridisation of MTMO with carbonaceous material, especially graphene develops synergistic effect, leading to improved electrical conductivity and enhanced ions and electron diffusion kinetics at the electrode/electrolyte interface as well as the interior of the electrodes. Furthermore, the introduction of graphene provides more electroactive sites for sufficient Faradaic redox reaction and accommodates the volume expansion during the continuous charge-discharge process[25, 26]. Other than that, the capacitive performances of supercapacitors highly rely on the properties of the electrode material such as morphology[27-30], porosity[31-33], specific surface area[14, 18, 34-37] and process parameters like calcination temperature[38, 39] and mass loading[40-42].

To date, numerous synthetic approaches have been developed to synthesise MTMO nanomaterial, such as hydrothermal/solvothermal, microwave assisted method, electrodeposition method, co-precipitation method, sono-chemical method and others[4, 43]. Recently, hydrothermal/solvothermal synthesis route has been extensively studied and regarded as the one of the most direct, facile and green

approaches to fabricate the mixed transition metal oxides. Among various MTMO, the fascinating nature of vanadium based metal oxides in improving the capacitive performance has made it a competent electroactive material for supercapacitor in recent years. Vanadium is the element located in the VB position on the periodic table and associated with the 3d sub family with the valence electron configuration of  $3d^34s^2$ . This indicates that the outermost layer of vanadium consists of five valence electrons which involve in bonding. Besides, it also reveals the multivalent behaviours of vanadium based metal oxides like +5, +4, +3 and +2, resulted in eminent electrochemical activity[44, 45].

There have been many studies on the employment of MTMO as the electrode material for supercapacitor. In addition, the availability of graphene/MTMO has attracted enormous research enthusiasm from the researchers recently. However, the study of the integration of MTMO with graphene is rather scarce. Besides, reduced graphene oxide sheets have been synthesised mostly from the Modified Hummers method followed by chemical reduction process, which entail the adoption of harsh acids, highly reactive oxidizing agents and reducing agents. These additives doesn't merely impose detrimental effect to the environment, but also deteriorate the quality of the graphene. For this reason, the liquid phase exfoliation of highly pyrolytic graphite flakes using ethanol as the eco-green solvent is employed to synthesise graphene required for this research.

## **1.2 Problem statement**

Nowadays, the integration of the advantages of both EDLC and pseudocapacitor has attracted enormous research attention in supercapacitor. Despite the EDLC electrode materials, especially graphene offers large specific surface area and increase the electrical conductivity, its poor specific capacitance and energy density has limited its practical application. Contrarily, mixed transition metal oxide based electrode materials are applied in the pseudocapacitor, which resulted in high specific capacitance and energy density. However, the poor power density, electrical conductivity and cycling stability have hindered its commercialisation. The inferior cycling stability of pseudocapacitive materials is attributed to the poor adaptation of volume expansion and extraction during the continuous charge discharge process, resulting in the rapid degradation of the pseudocapacitive electrode.

In order to overcome these obstacles, hybridisation of EDLC materials (graphene) with pseudocapacitive materials (mixed transition metal oxide) in the hybrid supercapacitor is an effective way since it offers large specific surface area, good electrical conductivity, excellent cycling stability, high specific capacitance and etcetera.

## 1.3 Aim and Objectives

Motivated by the aforementioned benefits of the nanoarchitecture and graphene composite, this research will emphasise on the facile and eco-green synthesis of novel graphene/MTMO nanocomposites as innovative electrode materials for high performance symmetric supercapacitors. The particular research activities in this project aim to:

- To synthesise a series of novel graphene/MTMO nanocomposites (graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, graphene/Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> and graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub>) with controllable morphology.
- To determine the inherent physical, chemical and electrochemical properties of the as-synthesised graphene/MTMO nanocomposites.
- To investigate the effect of graphene and the optimum weight ratio between the graphene and MTMO for the best synergistic effect between the both nanomaterials with excellent supercapacitive performance.
- To compare the energy density and power density of the as-synthesised electrode materials with some other research findings.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

Chapter 2 covers the morphological and electrochemical properties of novel MTMO like cobaltites, molybdate, vanadate, tungstate and etcetera. The current design, synthesis and applications of MTMO as well as the hybridisation of MTMO with graphene as the electrode material for supercapacitor were systematically reviewed. Besides, the impact of morphology, electrical conductivity and process parameters on the capacitive performance were also discussed.

## 2.1 Type of Supercapacitor

### 2.1.1 Electrical double layer capacitor (EDLC)

As similar to conventional capacitor, the charge storage mechanism of electrical double layer capacitor (EDLC) is non-faradic or based on the theory of electrical double layer, where the charge can be accumulated by reversible adsorption of electrolyte ions at the electrode/electrolyte interface electrostatically[46-48]. Three models have been developed to further demonstrate the working mechanism of electrical double layer (EDL) which are Helmholtz model, the Gouy-Chapman model and the Stern model as unveiled in Figure 2.1[49].



Figure 2.1: Models of electrical double layer, (a) Helmholtz model, (b) Gouy-Chapman model and (c) Stern model. Adapted with permission from ref.[49]. Copyright 2009, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

In the Helmholtz model, two layers of opposite charges are formed at the electrode/electrolyte interface where the positive charge at the solid electronic conductor is balanced by the opposite anion through the double layer distance, d. This is the simplest model to demonstrate the behaviour of EDL and it was further modified by Gouy-Chapman. In the Gouy-Chapman model, diffusion layer was taken into consideration, which comprised of the continuous dispersion of both cations and anions in the electrolyte solution forced by thermal motion. The ions in the electrolyte solution have the tendency to diffuse into the liquid phase region and the thickness of the diffusion layer was governed by the kinetic energy of the electrolyte ions[9, 49-51]. Nevertheless, the overestimation of electrical double layer capacitance is the shortcoming of this model[49]. Lastly, Stern combined both the Helmholtz model and Gouy-Chapman model to particularly acknowledge the development of two areas of ion distribution, namely internal Stern layer and external diffusion layer, which correspond to the Helmholtz layer and Gouy-Chapman layer respectively. In addition, ions are strongly adsorbed by the electrode

in the Stern layer. Albeit these models illustrated ample description of the EDL on a flat surface, the elaboration on the real charge transfer mechanism in the supercapacitor is scarce. Figure 2.2 reveals the schematic diagram of EDLC[5].



Figure 2.2: Schematic diagram of EDLC. Adapted with permission from ref.[5]. Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

When the voltage is applied, electrons will move from the positive electrode to the negative electrode through an external circuit, resulting in the accumulation of charge on the electrode surfaces. Cations are accumulated on the surface of negative electrode and vice versa for anions. Upon discharge, the electrons transported from negative to positive electrode. As EDLC is non-Faradaic, no occurrence of charge transfers across the boundary between electrode and electrolyte.

Apart from the working mechanism, active material with superior electrical conductivity and high specific surface area is the fundamental point to attain high specific capacitance in EDLC since the quantity of charge being stored is highly dependent on the specific surface area of the electrode materials[52]. Among all the carbonaceous material, graphene as a nanosheet of sp2 bonded carbon atoms with one atom thick in a honeycomb crystal structure has drawn much attention

from the research society recently[26]. This is mainly due to its intriguing physical and chemical properties such as high theoretical surface area, superior electrical conductivity, good electrochemical stability, high flexibility and outstanding mechanical tenacity[18, 25]. Figure 2.3 delineates the honeycomb lattice of graphene sheet[53].



Figure 2.3: Schematic diagram of the honeycomb lattice of graphene. Adapted with permission from ref.[53]. Copyright 2017, Elsevier.

In particular, the presence of graphene will increase the electrical conductivity, encourage the diffusion of electrolyte ions, and hence improve the charge storage effect[42].

#### 2.1.2 Pseudocapacitor

With regard to pseudocapacitors, it is originated from the fast and reversible redox reactions at or near the electrode surface as well as the penetration of adsorbed electrolyte ions through the double layer[5, 9]. The occurrence of Faradaic redox reactions leads to the increment on specific capacitance and the energy density of the supercapacitor as compared to EDLC[54]. Besides, for pseudocapacitance, the electrode potential coupled with the adsorbed active species is a constant logarithmic function of the extent of sorption. Thus, the charge storage in a
pseudocapacitor is directly proportional to the charging potential window and the charge storage is initiated by the electrons and ions transportation instead of the accumulation of ions in electrochemical double layer capacitor (EDLC)[55, 56]. Nevertheless, the specific power that pseudocapacitor exhibited is generally lower than that of EDLC, which can be elucidated by the sluggish Faradaic processes[57]. Figure 2.4 demonstrates the schematic illustration of a pseudocapacitor[5].



Figure 2.4: Schematic illustration of a pseudocapacitor. Adapted with permission from ref.[5]. Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

When voltage is applied, the anions in the electrolyte will involve in the Faradaic reversible redox reactions and move towards the opposite direction to the cations. Nickel cobaltite (NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) is a simple example of mixed transition metal oxide that possess pseudocapacitive nature from the Faradaic redox reactions and the pertinent charge storage mechanism is revealed in Figure 2.5[58].



Figure 2.5: A schematic diagram of charge storage mechanism of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. Adapted with permission from ref.[58]. Copyright 2014, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

Based on Figure 2.5, the charge storage mechanism of  $NiCo_2O_4$  comprised the insertion and desertion of charges on the surface and in the bulk of solid electrode in an alkaline solution, which correspond to the following reactions[58]:

$$NiCO_2O_4 + OH^- + H_2O \leftrightarrow NiOOH + 2CoOOH + e^-$$

$$(2.1)$$

$$CoOOH + OH^- \leftrightarrow CoO_2 + H_2O + e^- \tag{2.2}$$

Upon the charge-discharge process, the fast and reversible redox reaction happened, resulting in the valence states change of  $\text{Co}^{3+}$  to  $\text{Co}^{4+}$  as well as the  $\text{Ni}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Ni}^{3+}$  on the surface of electrode material.

Apart from that, different charge storage mechanisms can be noted from the pseudocapacitive electrode such as under-potential deposition, reversible electrochemical doping-dedoping in conducting polymer and intercalation pseudocapacitance[59]. Herein, the intercalation pseudocapacitance is discussed and its schematic diagram is depicted in Figure 2.6.



Figure 2.6: Schematic diagram of charge storage mechanism of intercalation pseudocapacitance. Reproduced with permission from ref.[59]. Copyright 2016, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

Intercalation pseudocapacitance is a new type of charge storage mechanism, which rely on the intercalation and de-intercalation of cations such as  $Na^+$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $Li^+$  and  $H^+$  in the bulk of active materials. However, it is not restricted by the distribution of cations in the crystalline active materials.

# 2.1.3 Hybrid supercapacitor

In order to exploit the full advantage of EDLC and pseudocapacitor, hybrid supercapacitor was developed which combined both the charge storage mechanisms. Typically, a hybrid capacitor comprises of two types of electrodes, one of them is capacitor type (non-Faradaic-as power origin) and another electrode is battery type (Faradaic-as an energy source) [60, 61]. The integration of these types of electrodes allows the hybrid supercapacitor to store charge electrostatically and Faradaically, leading to the achievement of high energy and power densities without scarifying its cycling stability. Generally, carbonaceous materials and mixed transition metal oxides (MTMO) are employed as the electrode material for hybrid supercapacitor.

Among the carbonaceous materials, hybridisation of graphene with MTMO as electrode material has been widely investigated, where graphene serves as a supporting matrix and material mediator (encapsulate) with respect to the electrode architecture viewpoint as illustrated in Figure 2.7[62-64].



Figure 2.7: Different structural models of graphene nanocomposite. Reprinted with permission from ref.[64] Copyright 2015, Nature Publishing Group.

As the supported matrix in nanocomposite, the incorporated graphene sheets not only behave like a scaffold with enlarged specific surface area for nanoscale active material deposition, but also act as an electronic conductive network to promote the intercalation/de-intercalation processes. Besides, the intimate contact of graphene sheets with the MTMO active material allowed the rapid electron transfer, leading to the occurrence of fast reversible redox reactions and hence enhanced the capacitive performance of a supercapacitor[65-70]. On the other hand, graphene as a media mediator plays a pivotal role in encapsulating the nanoscale active materials, which enhance the specific capacitance, rate capability, mechanical stability and electrochemical stability. These remarkable electrochemical performances can be ascribed to the nano-architectural design of the nanocomposite and the synergistic effect between the graphene sheets and MTMO nanomaterial. Firstly, the integration of graphene sheets in the nanobyhrid enlarged the specific surface area of the nanocomposite, which shorten the ion diffusion pathway and create more electroactive sites for the occurrence of redox reaction as compared to that without graphene. Meanwhile, the formation of the interspaces between the graphene sheets (shell) and the MTMO (core) can serve as the electrolyte ions reservoir, which allow rapid ion diffusion and hence ameliorating the rate capability of the electrode material. In addition, graphene sheets as the shell for the nanohybrid will improve the electrical conductivity, accelerate the rate of charge transfer and contribute to the extra electrical double layer capacitance[62].

Despite the unique intrinsic properties of graphene, the contribution of MTMO in the formation of hybrid supercapacitor is also significant. This is because sole graphene suffers from low specific capacitance when employed in supercapacitor and tends to agglomerate or even restacking irreversibly, leading to the formation of graphite through the van der Waals force upon drying[18]. Thus, the even distribution of MTMO on the graphene sheets effectively impedes the graphene from restacking as depicted in Figure 2.8 and hence provide synergistic advantages to be utilised as the active electrode material for hybrid supercapacitor applications[18].



Figure 2.8: Graphene/MTMO nanocomposite with high specific surface area and non-restacking. Adapted with permission from ref.[63]. Copyright 2015, The Royal Society of Chemistry Publishing Group.

# 2.2 Synthetic strategies for MTMO

# 2.2.1 Hydrothermal/Solvothermal synthesis

Hydrothermal or solvothermal synthetic route is recognised as a facile one pot synthesis and solution-based approach to prepare MTMO[71, 72]. In addition, this technique enables easy manipulation and involves only simple experimental equipment like a hot air oven and autoclave [73]. In fact, the synthetic strategies of hydrothermal and solvothermal are analogous, where aqueous solution and organic solution are adopted in the process, respectively [4]. This method offers good crystallinity and shape selectivity for the metal oxide based materials[74]. Furthermore, hydrothermal/solvothermal process involves heterogeneous chemical reaction in a closed system (autoclaves), where the precursors of metal oxides are configured as the mixture of reaction substances in a sealed Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave. Meanwhile, solvent is adopted to dissolve and recrystallise the materials above ambient temperature (>100 °C) to achieve the saturation pressure condition where internal pressure will build up autogenously[75, 76]. In addition to reaction temperature, the morphology and property of the final product are also

significantly influenced by other process parameters, including the amount of dissolved salts, reaction time and the occupied spaces of the closed system[77]. Other than that, a wide range of TMO and MTMO with exceptional oxidation states and low temperature phases can be synthesised by solvothermal approach[78]. Solvothermal approach also offers some advantages such as exclusion of toxic or hazardous catalyst, mild reaction conditions, high product purity, and the formation of highly monodispersed particles with controllable size and morphology[5]. By tuning the reaction temperature, pH and concentration of the solution, MTMO with different dimensional morphologies like 1D, 2D and 3D together with large specific surface area and porous structure can be acquired[15, 25, 32, 33, 36, 77, 79, 80]. For instance, Kumar et al. [32] fabricated 3D porous urchin-shaped  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  hollow nanospheres electrode via a template free hydrothermal method with  $NH_4(OH)$  as the alkaline medium. The as-synthesised electrode possessed promising specific capacity of 402.8 Cg<sup>-1</sup> at a current density of 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup> with enhanced rate capability and cycling stability (88 % retention) after 1000 cycles. Nevertheless, the morphology of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> altered from hollow nanospheres to nanoparticles when NaOH was employed in lieu of NH<sub>4</sub>(OH), revealing the significant impact of solution pH on the morphology of the final product. The detailed growth mechanism of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanospheres and nanoparticles synthesised by the hydrothermal approach under different alkaline media is demonstrated in Figure 2.9.



Figure 2.9: Synthesis and growing mechanism of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanospheres and nanoparticles by hydrothermal method under different alkaline media. Reprinted with permission from ref.[32]. Copyright 2016, The Royal Society of Chemistry Publishing Group.

It was reported that the specific capacity of  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  diminished from 402.8 Cg<sup>-1</sup> to 326.8 Cg<sup>-1</sup> at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup> when the morphology of  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  evolved from nanospheres to nanoparticles. Besides, the  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanoparticles manifested inferior cycling stability with capacity retention of merely 32 % after 1000 cycles. These results evidently revealed that the morphology, capacitive performance and cycling stability of the final product were susceptible to pH change. Furthermore, hydrothermal synthesis of one dimensional NiMoO<sub>4</sub> nanowires radially on carbon cloth was presented by Wang et al.[81] as demonstrated in Figure 2.10.



Figure 2.10: Schematic diagram of the synthetic route of  $NiMoO_4$  nanowire supported on carbon cloth by a hydrothermal method. Adapted with permission from ref. [81]. Copyright 2014, Nano Energy Publishing Group.

This electrode material exhibited high specific capacitance of 1587  $\text{Fg}^{-1}$  at a current density of 5 mAcm<sup>-2</sup> and capacity retention of 76.9 % after 4000 cycles.

Contrarily, the solvothermal technique involves the use of organic solvent like ethanol and ethylene glycol [58]. Figure 2.11 depicted the anchoring of 2D NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheets on reduced graphene oxide (rGO) by solvothermal method with the use of ethylene glycol (EG) as solvent, followed by calcination process [33].



Figure 2.11: Synthesis mechanism of ultrathin mesoporous NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO nanocomposite. Reprinted with permission from ref.[33]. Copyright 2015, The Royal Society of Chemistry Publishing Group.

As electrode material for supercapacitor, NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO nanocomposite delivered an excellent specific capacitance of 870 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 2 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and 600 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at a current density of 20 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. Besides, 90% of the initial capacitance was retained after 5000 continuous charge-discharge cycles, revealing its outstanding cycling stability. This remarkable electrochemical performance can be elucidated by the present of rGO, which not only improved the electrical conductivity of the nanocomposite but also served as a buffer matrix to accommodate the large volume expansion during the continuous charge-discharge process[25, 82].

### 2.2.2 Microwave assisted technique

The microwave assisted approach is a simple and fast synthetic method for the fabrication of micro and nano-sized composite materials. This can be assigned to the exceptional versatility exhibited by microwave, where the reaction time can be shortened substantially from days and hours to minutes or seconds as compared to the conventional heating methods [4, 5]. Particularly, microwave assisted technique has the functionality of controlled heating, benefiting the growth of nanomaterial since the synthesis process is immensely depending on the reaction temperature[77]. Besides, this technique can suppress side reaction and accelerate the kinetics of crystallisation process, resulting in the development of high purity nanoarchitecture material and large production yield [83]. Recently, microwave-assisted technique has been widely utilised in the industry and academia for the one-pot synthesis of myriad metal oxide and bimetallic oxide nanostructured materials[84-89]. For instance, reduced graphene oxide (rGO)/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocomposite was developed by Saraf, Natarajan and Mobin[89] as the electrode material for supercapacitor applications via microwave assisted technique. The corresponding synthetic route is demonstrated in Figure 2.12.



Figure 2.12: Synthetic route of rGO/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocomposite by microwave-assisted approach. Adapted with permission from ref.[89]. Copyright 2017, The Royal Society of Chemistry Publishing Group.

It manifested a specific capacitance of 577.5  $\text{Fg}^{-1}$  at a current density of 2  $\text{Ag}^{-1}$  and 437.5  $\text{Fg}^{-1}$  at 10  $\text{Ag}^{-1}$ , revealing its high specific capacitance and eminent rate capability. The authors ascribed its superior electrochemical performance to the positive synergistic effects between rGO platelets and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles, in which Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles were encapsulated by the rGO. The intimate contact between rGO platelets and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles defectively inhibited the agglomeration of nanoparticles, leading to enhanced electrochemical performance and improved structural integrity of the electrode material[90]. Besides, the crinkles on the corrugated rGO nanosheets impeded the restacking of nanosheets and reduced the ions and electrons diffusion pathway, further enhanced the electrochemical output [91, 92]. In addition, the interconnecting 3D network structure between rGO and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles also strengthened the thermal stability of the nanocomposite [89].

Nevertheless, it is challenging to control the phases and the morphology of the MTMO in microwave assisted approach[4]. One of the strategies to enhance its morphological control is by integrating with solvothermal/hydrothermal process, where a shorter reaction time and better morphological control can be achieved [4, 5, 77]. Besides, nanoparticles with narrow size range and high purity can be synthesised through this microwave-hydrothermal coupled technique.

# 2.2.3 Sol-gel technique

Generally, sol-gel technique is a tedious process comprising of chemical and physical processes, which correlated with hydrolysis, polymerisation, gelation, condensation, drying and densification methods[5]. The term of sol-gel is derived from the fact that agglomeration of micro particles/molecules takes place in a solution to form sol under the well-controlled environment and the as-synthesised sol eventually channels with each other to form a comprehensive chain (gel)[73]. The sol-gel technique can be concisely summarised to be the transformation of a precursor solution into an inorganic solid through the chemical synthetic route[4]. Besides, the synthetic route of MTMO in the sol-gel process can be classified into two types, namely colloidal and polymeric methods. The variations between them stem from the adoption of precursors, where water and alcohol apply to the colloidal and polymeric routes, respectively[73]. The sol-gel process has attracted considerable interests in the synthesis of MTMO due to its easy manipulation and low cost. In addition, a product with high homogeneity and purity can be obtained via this technique[77]. Sol-gel technique can be divided into four stages[58], which include (i) preparation of precursor solutions, (ii) development of intermediates as sol, (iii) transformation from sol to gel and followed by (iv) thermal annealing treatment. Here, the morphological and electrochemical performances of the assynthesised MTMO are significantly influenced by these parameters such as types of surfactant and solvent employed, reaction temperature and time[4].

To date, there have been a number of reports about the synthesis of MTMO through sol-gel technique for supercapacitor application[93-98]. For instance, in 2012, Liu and co-workers[97] reported the mesoporous NiO/NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> composite fabricated by sol-gel process (Figure 2.13), demonstrating a superior specific capacitance of 1717 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, excellent rate capability and cycling stability with the specific capacitance retention of 94.9 % after 1000 charge-discharge cycles.



Figure 2.13: Sol-gel synthetic route of mesoporous NiO/NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> composite. Reprinted with permission from ref.Liu, Kong, Lu, Li, Luo and Kang [97]. Copyright 2012, American Chemical Society.

Interestingly, the specific capacitance of the composite was higher as compared to the individual NiO, NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, suggesting the synergistic effect among the metal oxides on enhancing the electrochemical performance. Firstly, the formation of composite ameliorated the electrical conductivity and hence increased charge transfer rate. Secondly, the mesoporous within structure the NiO/NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> composite offered larger specific surface area with more electroactive sites available for the occurrence of redox reaction, and hence improving the pseudocapacitance of the electrode material[99, 100]. Nonetheless, the practical application of sol-gel process in the large scale production of MTMO is still very challenging, which is mainly due to the extensive adoption of organic solvents and reagents in the process[4].

### **2.2.4 Electrodeposition technique**

Electrodeposition is a one-step facile approach employed in the synthesis of MTMO as electrode material for supercapacitor application, in which the working principle of electrodeposition relies on the electrochemical redox reactions and the deposition of metal on the electrode when the electric current flows through the metal salt solution[4, 77]. This process has been extensively applied in the formation of MTMO[101-105]. The selection of anion, pH of metal solution and deposition potential are crucial factors which should be deliberated during the deposition process of MTMO on electrode. The mechanism of electrodeposition process comprised of three stages[101, 106]: (i) formation of precursor solution, (ii) coelectrodeposition of nanoparticles, and lastly (iii) thermal decomposition.

Here, the synthesis of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> via electrodeposition has been widely acknowledged as the electroreduction of nickel nitrate (NiNO<sub>3</sub>) and cobalt nitrate (CoNO<sub>3</sub>) mixed solution. During the process, co-electrodeposition of nickel and cobalt hydroxides occurred and followed by a thermal treatment to convert the subcarbonate into MTMO. As an example, Du et al.[101] electrodeposited the NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheet arrays (10 nm) on the flexible carbon fabric (CF) as the promising electrode material for supercapacitors. As demonstrated in Figure 2.14, the presence of air spaces or interparticle pores between the nanosheet arrays increased the electroactive sites for redox reaction and facilitated the electrolyte ions diffusion by shortening the diffusion pathway. Thus, an eminent specific capacitance of 2658 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at current density of 2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, excellent cycling stability and rate capability were acquired.



Figure 2.14: The schematic diagram of as-synthesised NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheet arrays embedded on flexible CF. Reprinted with permission from ref.[101]. Copyright 2013, American Chemical Society.

Besides, mesoporous NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> coated on ultrafine nickel wire was fabricated by Wang et al.[103] via the facile electrodeposition of Ni-Co-Zn alloy, de-alloying and oxidation processes (Figure 2.15).



Figure 2.15: Synthetic process of porous NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> anchoring on the ultrafine nickel wire by electrodeposition and de-alloying processes, the morphology and cycling stability of the as-synthesised mesoporous NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> on ultrathin nickel wire. Reprinted with permission from ref.[103].Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

The as-prepared composite possessed a remarkable specific capacitance of 315.4  $Cg^{-1}$  at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and 65.3 % of capacitance was retained as the current density increased from 1 to 20 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, revealing its excellent rate capability. In addition, 94.8 % of the initial specific capacitance was well preserved even after 20,000 continuous charge-discharge cycle, manifesting its outstanding cycling stability. The author ascribed the enhanced electrochemical performance to the mesoporous structure and high specific surface area of the composite, which enabled effective occurrence of Faradaic redox reactions. Besides, the improved electrical conductivity also led to the rapid electron transfer[107-109]. The enhanced cycling stability could be assigned to its binder free and exceptional architecture of nickel wire, where the active material (NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) with spinel structure was directly anchored on the surface of nickel wire substrate, which minimised the resistance and increased the cycle life of the particular electrode[103].

Albeit electrodeposition is advantageous for the synthesis of MTMO with uniform morphology, the scalability of electrodeposition process is still a dominant factor that hinders its practical application[4, 5, 77].

## 2.2.5 Chemical precipitation method

Chemical precipitation is another simple and common strategy in the large-scale synthesis of micro/nanoscale material like MTMO for catalysis process and energy storage system. Chemical precipitation takes place only when the concentration of single solid exceeds the equilibrium solubility of the host solid, leading to the formation of a new phase namely supersaturation[5]. This can be attributed to the rapid quenching or ions implantation. Besides, high process temperature in the system promotes the diffusion of particle which leads to the aggregation into precipitates[73]. In addition, introduction of insoluble element into the solution during the chemical reaction increases the density of the solution, which may also result in the development of precipitates. Contrarily, the precipitation process is accelerated with the adoption of soluble element, where the solution becomes supersaturated. Or else, no nucleation would occur[5]. As similar to hydrothermal/solvothermal technique, chemical precipitation also involves precursors and precipitates, while the rate of reaction occurs rapidly in the process (typically within several minutes). For chemical precipitation, metal cations such as  $Ni(NO_3)_2$ ,  $Zn(NO_3)_2$  and etc. are generally considered as the soluble salts and the precipitates are formed after drying. Once dried, the precipitates will undergo calcination treatment to decompose into final products and the calcination temperature used is usually lower than that of the ceramic method[5]. Up to date, a great deal of work was done on fabricating the MTMO for supercapacitor

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applications using this approach [110-114]. For instance, a mesoporous  $Ni_{0.3}Co_{2.7}O_4$  electrode with hierarchical structure was developed by Wu et al[112] at different calcination temperatures (400-500°C) as illustrated in Figure 2.16.



Figure 2.16: SEM images of  $Ni_{0.2}Co_{2.7}O_4$  at different calcination temperatures: a-b) 400 °C, c-d) 450 °C and d-e) 550 °C and electrochemical performance of  $Ni_{0.3}Co_{2.7}O_4$ . Reprinted with permission from ref.[112]. Copyright 2013, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

The as-synthesised Ni<sub>0.2</sub>Co<sub>2.7</sub>O<sub>4</sub> offered high specific capacitance of 960, 834 and 713 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (current density of 0.625 Ag<sup>-1</sup>) at calcination temperature of 400, 450 and 550 °C respectively. Among these samples, the sample calcined at low temperature (400 °C) exhibited the highest specific capacitance, which can be attributed to the formation of abundant meso-pores and micro-pores in the range of 5-100 nm. The mesoporous structure of the Ni<sub>0.2</sub>Co<sub>2.7</sub>O<sub>4</sub> enhanced the electrochemical performance by providing more electroactive surface for the occurrence of redox reaction as well as benefiting the penetration of electrolyte ions. Besides, Barmi and Sundaram[113] reported the synthesis of cobalt molybdate nanospheres via chemical precipitation with the employment of surfactant (Pluronic F127), as revealed in Figure 2.17.



Figure 2.17: Synthetic route of CoMoO4 with the presence of F127 as surfactant. Adapted with permission from ref.[113]. Copyright 2016, The Royal Society of Chemistry Publishing Group.

The as-prepared nanospheres exhibited a high specific capacitance of 69  $\text{Fg}^{-1}$  at current density of 1  $\text{Ag}^{-1}$  when utilized as the positive electrode for asymmetric supercapacitor with activated carbon as negative electrode. Furthermore, an outstanding cycling stability could be observed, where 80 % of the initial capacitance was retained after 2000 charge-discharge cycles. The capacitance fading can be ascribed to the reduced electron conductive carbon coating on the surface, resulting in the increased ion diffusion resistance during the cycling test.

Despite this method possesses many merits in the synthesis of MTMO, the difficulties in controlling the morphology of the as-synthesised MTMO is still an obstacle that hinders its practical application.

### 2.2.6 Metal organic framework (MOF)

Recently, metal organic framework (MOF) has aroused tremendous interest as templates or precursors for the synthesis of MTMO with porous structures for supercapacitor applications[115, 116]. According to the research conducted by Yaghi and Li in 1990s, the working mechanism in the metal organic framework is through anchoring the inorganic metallic ions onto the organic linkers through the strong covalent bonds[117]. The metallic cations serve as the electroactive sites for redox reaction whereas the open crystal framework promotes the reversible insertion and de-insertion of the electrolyte ions[118]. Besides, nanocomposite with one (1D), two (2D) and three dimensions (3D) can be developed with MOF, depending on the organic and inorganic units. Furthermore, the pore sizes of the MOF nanocomposites can be tailored to ameliorate the electrochemical performance as supercapacitor electrode. By direct annealing treatment, the MOF nanomaterials will decompose into their corresponding metal oxides as revealed in Figure 2.18[115]. Meanwhile, appropriate manipulation of calcination temperature and time leads to the formation of MOF derived pure metal oxide with desired composition, pore size distribution and surface area[119, 120].



Figure 2.18: Schematic diagram on the synthesis of porous metal oxide nanoarchitechture with enormous surface area from MOF. Adapted with permission from ref.[115]. Copyright 2017, American Chemical Society.

On the other hand, porous transition metal oxide nanocomposite can be produced by direct thermal annealing of binary MOF composite in air under high temperature condition or via the two-step annealing process, where nitrogen and air are introduced in the first and second stages of the process, respectively (Figure 2.19).



Figure 2.19: Algorithm for the fabrication of porous metal oxide nanohybrid for supercapacitor application. Reprinted with permission from ref.[115]. Copyright 2017, American Chemical Society.

To date, a variety of transition metal oxides and MTMO have been synthesised by the MOF precursors such as NiO, ZnO, TiO<sub>2</sub>, Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, CuCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and others[115, 121-126]. Cao and his co-researchers[126] reported the rational design of MOF derived hollow NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> arrays on flexible carbon cloth (NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-CC) as electrode for supercapacitor application, as demonstrated in Figure 2.20.



Figure 2.20: Schematic illustrations of the MOF derived hollow NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> arrays on carbon cloth (NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-CC). Ni-Co LDH represented the Ni-Co layered double hydroxide. Reprinted with permission from ref.[126]. Copyright 2017, Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co.

The as-obtained NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-CC possessed enormous specific surface area (11.6 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>) as compared to the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-CC (8.4 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>), suggesting the significant impacts of porous structures on promoting the specific surface area. Besides, NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-CC exhibited a specific capacitance of 1055.3 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at small current density of 2.5 mAcm<sup>-2</sup> and retained as 483.3 Fg<sup>-1</sup> when the current density was increased from 2.5 to 60 mAcm<sup>-2</sup>, manifesting its excellent energy storage ability and superior rate capability. The eminent specific capacitance and rate capability could be attributed to the inherent porous and hollow nanostructures of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-CC, which provided more electroactive sites and facilitated the diffusion of electrolyte ions into the electrode material by shortening the ion diffusion pathway.

Albeit the MOF-derived MTMO possessed remarkable specific capacitance, poor electrical conductivity and inferior cycling stability have hampered its practical applications as supercapacitor electrodes.

# 2.2.7 Summary of the synthetic approach

The summary of the working mechanism and the technical practices in the fabrication of MTMO-based electrodes is manifested in this section. Here, six classes of synthesis methods namely hydrothermal/solvothermal, microwave

assisted, sol-gel method, electrodeposition, chemical precipitation and metal organic framework(MOF) were reviewed and summarised comprehensively.

The hydrothermal/solvothermal approach can alter the morphology of the nanocomposite by tuning the reaction temperature, pH and the concentration of the auxiliaries. Contrarily, myriad conductive matrix such as nickel foam and carbon textiles can be incorporated with the MTMO in electrodeposition approach, which provides intriguing synergistic effect by adjusting the process parameters like pH and concentration of the solution. As for sol-gel process, chemical and physical processes correlated with the hydrolysis, polymerisation, gelation, condensation, drying and densification methods are involved. Besides, the working mechanism of electrodeposition in the synthesis of MTMO relies substantially on the electrochemical redox reactions and deposition of metal on the electrode when the electric current flows through the metal salt solution. Furthermore, chemical precipitation allows the fabrication of MTMO with mild reaction conditions. Lastly, nanocomposite in one (1D), two (2D) and three dimensions (3D) with large specific surface area and porous structure can be prepared from MOF, depending on the organic and inorganic units within the crystal framework. A comparison on these synthetic methods is developed and delineated in Table 2.1.

Synthetic Technique	Pros	Cons
Hydro/Solvothermal	- High purity materials	-Involved relatively high
	can be produced.	temperature and
	- Possible for large-scale synthesis.	pressure.
	- Facile method (Free of	
	toxic chemical).	

Table 2.1: Comparison of advantages and disadvantages of different synthetic approaches of MTMO.

	- Monodispersed				
	nanoparticles with				
	manageable morphology				
	can be acquired.				
Microwave assisted	-Possible for large-scale	-Challenging in			
	synthesis	morphological and			
	-Speeding up the rate of	structural control.			
	reaction and hence				
	reduce the reaction				
	duration.				
Sol-gel	-Low reaction	-Not feasible in			
	temperature	fabricating film with			
	-High purity materials	porous structure.			
	can be produced.				
	-Possible for large-scale				
	synthesis				
Electrodeposition	-Producing composite	-Challenging for large-			
	with consistent	scale synthesis			
	morphology				
Chemical precipitation	-Possible for large-scale	-Difficult in controlling			
	synthesis.	the morphological and			
	-Simple route with mild	structural behaviours of			
	reaction temperature.	the nanoparticles.			
Metal Organic	-Nanocomposite with	- Challenging to produce			
Framework (MOF)	1D, 2D and 3D can be	electrode with enhanced			
	synthesised.	electrochemical			
	-High porosity and large	performance.			
	specific surface area of				
	the nanocomposite.				

# **2.3** Critical factors that affecting the electrochemical performance of transition metal oxide-based materials

Generally, the supercapacitive performances of transition metal oxide-based electrode materials are governed by some factors such as morphological structure, loading mass of active material, electrical conductivity and thermal annealing effect[2, 127]. In this section, the influences of the aforementioned parameters on the electrochemical activities were discussed in details.

### 2.3.1 Morphological structure

According to the findings of Feng et al.[2], the specific capacitance of an electrode material is substantially affected by its morphology, size, specific surface area and pore size distribution. It is sufficiently evident that morphology has high impact on the specific surface area of the electrode material. As an example, the porosity and specific surface area of the electrode materials are interrelated. This can be elucidated by the pore sizes and pore volume generated as well as the pore size distribution for a given overall specific surface area of the active material. However, the specific surface area is not in a linear relationship with measured specific capacitance as only a small portion of electrode material is involved in the Faradaic redox reaction or electrochemically penetrated by the electrolyte ions. Therefore, it can be concluded that the availability of the electroactive sites and accessibility to electrolyte ions are the crucial parameters determining the capacitive performance of an electrode material.

## 2.3.2 Mass loading of the metal oxide

In general, an electrode material with remarkable capacitive performance and high mass loading are necessary for practical supercapacitor applications as it exhibits high energy and power densities. However, it has been reported by some researchers that overloading of metal oxide leads to the agglomeration and aggregation which in turn deteriorates the capacitive performance of the electrode [24, 25, 28, 36, 40-42, 128-130]. In particular, overloading of metal oxide results in poor electrical conductivity and offers limited electroactive sites for Faradaic

redox reaction, hence leading to inferior electrochemical outputs[2]. For instance, Ezeigwe and co-workers[28] developed the NiMoO<sub>4</sub> nanorods decorated on graphene sheet via facile solvothermal technique. In the extension of this work, different weight ratios of graphene to NiMoO<sub>4</sub> (1:1, 1:4, 1:8 and 1:16) were prepared to further evaluate the synergistic effect between the nanocomposites. The NiMoO<sub>4</sub> nanorods were uniformly anchored on the surface of graphene sheet as the weight ratio of graphene to NiMoO<sub>4</sub> was 1:8. Contrarily, agglomeration of nanorods could be observed when the weight ratio of graphene to NiMoO<sub>4</sub> increased from 1:8 to 1:16, suggesting that weight ratio of 1:8 was the critical point for these nanocomposites.

## **2.3.3 Electrical conductivity**

Apart from mass loading, electrical conductivity is another concern for TMO based material to be virtually utilised in supercapacitor. Typically, the resistance associated with the electron conduction is dominant for a material with poor conductivity especially in the condition of high charge-discharge rate. Specifically, the charge-discharge process is confined in the finite volume near the current collector and the specific capacitance will diminish tremendously[131]. This will hinder the practical applications of the TMO based material as functional electrode.

# 2.3.4 Thermal annealing effect

Calcination is an essential process employed to improve the crystallinity of the nanomaterial as well as to induce the formation of mixed transition metal oxide nanocomposite. Nevertheless, calcination of MTMO based materials at high temperature may lead to the agglomeration of the active composite which adversely affects its structural and electrochemical properties, and similar findings were also reported by other researchers[38, 87, 112, 132, 133]. As an example, Xu and coauthors[38] designed an ultrathin NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanobelt deposited on graphene sheet via hydrothermal method. Here, the optimal calcination temperature was determined by evaluating the pseudocapacitive properties of bare spinel NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> at different calcination temperatures (250, 300, 250, 400 °C for 2 hrs). The authors claimed that calcination temperature of 250 °C was the optimal temperature for the heat treatment of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanobelt. Under this temperature, mesoporous and interconnected NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanobelts were formed which contributed to larger specific surface area for redox reaction. In contrast, bare spinel NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> prepared at 300°C and onwards suffered from structural agglomeration and hence exhibited unsatisfactory electrochemical outputs.

### 2.4 Supercapacitor electrode materials

## 2.4.1 Mixed Transition Metal Oxide (MTMO) based supercapacitor

Evolution during the past decade, tremendous increment in energy demands compels the researchers to work on the environmentally benign and renewable energy storage system like supercapacitor. Currently, researchers are engrossed in mixed transition metal oxides as electrode materials owing to their intriguing electrochemical properties as compared to single transition metal oxides. As for MTMO, the synergistic effect between the multiple metal compositions and low activation energy for electron transportation lead to higher specific capacitance and electrical conductivity as compared to that of single TMO[134]. In this section, the synthesis and contribution of multifarious MTMOs as supercapacitor electrode were extensively reviewed and classified according to their principal metallic groups in chemical compositions.

### 2.4.1.1 Metal Cobaltites

Spinel metal cobaltites ( $M_xCo_{3-x}O_4$ ; where M = Ni, Zn, Cu, Mn, Fe, etc.) with isoarchitectural nature to that of  $Co_3O_4$  are considered as one of the most competitive electrode materials for practical supercapacitor application owing to its superior capacitive performance, cycling stability and rate capability[4]. Among these reported spinel metal cobaltites, nickel cobaltite (NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) with the structural formula of  $Co_{1-x}^{2+}Co_x^{3+}[Co^{3+}Ni_x^{2+}Ni_{1-x}^{3+}]O_4$ ; where 0 < x < 1 has gained enormous research interests by virtue of its unique advantages which include low cost, natural abundance, non-toxic and offers exceptional electrochemical activities. In particular, the cations foregoing the brackets ( $Co_{1-x}^{2+}Co_x^{3+}$ ) are considered to be allocated in the tetrahedral lattice sites whereas the cations remaining in the brackets ( $Co^{3+}Ni_x^{2+}Ni_{1-x}^{3+}$ ) are allocated in the octahedral lattice sites[106, 135]. Concisely, the lattice configuration of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with the spinel mineral generic formula of AB<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is depicted in Figure 2.21[136], where O atoms are allocated in the cubic close-packed architecture, Co and Ni cations occupied the tetrahedral and octahedral lattice sites.



Figure 2.21: Spinel lattice structure of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. Reprinted with permission from ref.[136]. Copyright 2015, Scientific Reports.

Generally, the  $NiCo_2O_4$  electrode is operated under a voltage window of 0 to 0.55 V in an alkaline electrolyte and the Faradaic redox reactions involved are expressed as follows [58]:

$$NiCO_2O_4 + OH^- + H_2O \leftrightarrow NiOOH + 2CoOOH + e^-$$
(2.3)

$$CoOOH + OH^- \leftrightarrow CoO_2 + H_2O + e^- \tag{2.4}$$

Most researchers discovered that NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> possesses several morphological architectures, such as nanoplatelets, nanoparticles, nanorods, nanosheets, microspheres and etcetera [137-146]. Each morphology exhibits different supercapacitive performances. For instance, Yan et al.[137] synthesised the NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheets and nanowires through electrodeposition and hydrothermal methods, respectively. Once the nanostructures were successfully formed, the authors modified the oxygen vacancies of these nanostructures by reducing them with different concentrations of NaBH<sub>4</sub>. The detailed synthesis routes of these nanostructures and their corresponding oxygen vacancies are delineated in Figure 2.22. Additionally, the morphological structures of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheets and after chemical reduction are also discussed.



Figure 2.22: Top) Synthetic routes illustration of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheets and nanowires as well as their corresponding oxygen vacancies. Bottom) SEM images of (a and b) NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheets before and after chemical reduction, (c and d) NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanowires before and after chemical reduction. Adapted with permission from ref.[137]. Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

Both the reduced NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheets and nanowires exhibited higher specific capacitance (1590 and 1280 Fg<sup>-1</sup>) at current density of 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup> as compared to sole NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheets and nanowires (898 and 600 Fg<sup>-1</sup>), indicating that oxygen

vacancies on the surface of active material promoted the OH<sup>-</sup> ions adsorption capability and also advocated the rapid reversible redox reactions. Besides, the capacitance retention of the as-reduced NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheets and nanowires were 79.12 and 85.56 % after 10000 and 5000 cycles, respectively, implying its superior cycling stability. This result suggested that the presence of oxygen vacancies provided more electroactive sites and eased the ions and electron transfer.

Furthermore,  $NiCo_2O_4$  nanoparticles with a diamond-shaped hexahedral porous sheet structures was successfully developed by Li and co-authors[138] via facile hydrothermal method (varying the contents of urea and ammonium fluoride) followed by calcination process as shown in Figure 2.23.





Figure 2.23: (a) Schematic illustrations of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-I and II nanoparticles synthesis. (b,c,d) SEM images of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-I nanoparticles. (e,f,g) SEM images of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-II nanoparticles. (h and i) Cycling test of both NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-I and II nanoparticles. Reproduced with permission from ref. [138].Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

The SEM images showed the NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-I and II nanoparticles which were spun by nanosheets with size ranges of 3 to 4.5  $\mu$ m and 2 to 3.5  $\mu$ m, respectively. Moreover, the specific capacitance of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-I and II nanoparticles electrode materials were

690.75 and 1710.9  $\text{Fg}^{-1}$  at current density of 1 mAcm<sup>-2</sup> in 6M KOH aqueous electrolyte, unveiling the eminent charge storage capability of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-II nanoparticles. This could be elucidated by the wider contact area between NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-I II nanoparticles with the electrolyte as compared to NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-I, which assured effective redox reactions and hence improved the specific capacitance. Nevertheless, it could be realised that 96.4 and 73.56 % of initial capacitance were retained after 5000 cycles for NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-I and NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-II, suggesting the excellent cycling stability of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-I. This could be due to the greater dissolution of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-II nanoparticles into the electrolyte upon the cycling test.

Other than NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, zinc cobaltites[147-154] (ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) and copper cobaltites[155-163] (CuCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) have been perceived as the potential electrode materials for supercapacitor application as well. The pertinent electrochemical characteristics of these materials are depicted in Table 2.2.

Morphology	Synthetic approach	Specific capacitance (Fg <sup>-1</sup> )	Current density (Ag <sup>-1</sup> )	Cycling stability	Ref
Mn-doped ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> nanoparticles	Hydrothermal	707.4	0.5	-	[147]
Urchin-like ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> microspheres on nickel foam	Hydrothermal	1143	1.25	77 % (6000 cycles)	[148]
2D porous ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> thin sheets	Hydrothermal	3.07 Fcm <sup>-2</sup>	1.04 mAcm <sup>-2</sup>	97.6 % (5000 cycles)	[149]
ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> microflowers and microsheets on Ni foam	Hydrothermal	2256 Fg <sup>-1</sup> (microflowers)	2 mAcm <sup>-2</sup>	90 % (2000 cycles)	[150]

Table 2.2: ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and CuCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with different synthetic routes and their electrochemical properties.

3D porous ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Electrodeposit	4.6 Fcm <sup>-2</sup>	2 mAcm <sup>-2</sup>	70 %	[151]
sheet array coated	ion			(2200	
with Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub>				cycles)	
3D hierarchical	Hydrothermal	440	1	155.6 %	[152]
peony-like ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>				(after	
				3000	
				cycles)	
Mesoporous	Hydrothermal	835.26	1	73.28 %	[153]
ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> nanosheets				(1000	
				cycles)	
Porous ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Self-template	542.5	1	95.5 %	[154]
microspheres	solvothermal			(2000	
				cycles)	
Mesoporous	Nanocasting	1210	2	93.5 %	[155]
CuCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> nanowires	from silica			(4250	
	template			cycles)	
CuCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Solution	338	1	96 %	[156]
nanoparticles	combustion			(5000	
				cycles)	
3D flower-like	Hydrothermal	771	100 mVs <sup>-1</sup>	130 %	[157]
CuCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /NF				(3000	
				cycles)	
CuCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> nanobelts	Hydrothermal	809	0.667	127 %	[158]
				(1800	
				cycles)	
CuCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Hydrothermal	796	2	94.7 %	[159]
nanograsses				(5000	
				cycles)	
Nanotrees with	Hydrothermal	2219	1	95.3 %	[160]
CuCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> trunks				(10000	
and NiO branches	TT 1 .1 1	000.0	<b>a b</b> -2	cycles)	[1 (1]
Hierarchical	Hydrothermal	888.9	2 mAcm <sup>2</sup>	101.//	[161]
$CuCo_2O_4 @ CuCo_2O_4$				% (2000	
nanowires arrays	<b>TT</b> - 1 (1 1	765		cycles)	[1(0]
	Hydrothermal	/65 mAng <sup>1</sup>	2	95 % (2000	[162]
nanoparticles				(2000	
	Dimetal	1700	2	cycles)	[1(2]
CuC02O4 nollow	Bimetai-	1700	2	93./% (5000	[103]
spheres	organic from arrest			(3000	
	Iramework			cycles)	

Taking  $ZnCo_2O_4$  as an illustration, Shang et al.[152] designed a novel selfassembled 3D hierarchical peony-like  $ZnCo_2O_4$  electroactive materials by facile hydrothermal technique. The hierarchical peony-like  $ZnCo_2O_4$  nanoarchitecture is composed of interlinking nanosheets with thickness of ~30 nm, which reinforced the structural tenacity and generated crevices for rapid ions transportation within the redox phases. The relevant redox reactions are formulated as follows:

$$Co_2O_4^{2-} + OH^- + 2H_2O \leftrightarrow 2CoOOH + e^-$$
 (2.5)

$$CoOOH + OH^- \leftrightarrow CoO_2 + H_2O + e^- \tag{2.6}$$

Furthermore, this novel nanostructure exhibited a remarkable specific capacitance (440 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>), reasonable rate capability (67.7 % when the current density altered from 1 to 20 Ag<sup>-1</sup>) and excellent capacitance retention (155.6 %) after 3000 cycles, suggesting its potential to be used as electrode material for practical supercapacitor application. The superior electrochemical activities of peony-like ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> could be ascribed to several rationales: i) the appearance of pores and crevices provided rapid ions diffusion pathway and offered multiple electroactive sites for Faradaic reaction. ii) Peony-like ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> possessed enormous nanosheets, which provided high specific surface area and strengthened the mechanical stability of the nanomaterial by accommodating the architectural strain during the cycling test.

#### 2.4.1.2 Metal Molybdates

Lately, metal molybdates (MMoO<sub>4</sub>; where M=Ni, Co, Zn, etc.) have attracted diverse research interests as one of the potential candidates for supercapacitor application[164]. This is because of its low cost, abundance and prominent electrochemical performances. Among the various metal molybdates such as NiMoO<sub>4</sub>, CoMoO<sub>4</sub>, ZnMoO<sub>4</sub>, FeMoO<sub>4</sub>, MnMoO<sub>4</sub>, SnMoO<sub>4</sub> and etc, nickel molybdate (NiMoO<sub>4</sub>) plays a vital role in supercapacitor application. Typically, NiMoO<sub>4</sub> comprises two stable phases namely  $\alpha$ -NiMoO<sub>4</sub> and  $\beta$ -NiMoO<sub>4</sub>, which can

be distinguished by their crystal lattice configurations. For  $\alpha$ -NiMoO<sub>4</sub>, the molybdate ions are allocated in the octahedral lattice sites under ambient temperature whereas for  $\beta$ -NiMoO<sub>4</sub>, the molybdate ions are organised in the tetrahedral lattice sites at high temperature. Meanwhile, the monoclinic architecture of α-NiMoO<sub>4</sub> composed of NiO<sub>6</sub> and MoO<sub>6</sub> octahedral operating groups which form via the cross linking networks [165]. NiMoO<sub>4</sub> can offer various oxidation states which contribute to effective redox reactivity. Similarly, NiMoO<sub>4</sub> can be fabricated into multifarious architectures like nanoparticles, nanocrystals, shell-like structures, nanorods, nanoplatelets, urchin-like flowers and nanospheres[164-173]. Regrettably, the evolution of NiMoO<sub>4</sub> based nanomaterials was hindered by short cycle life and insufficient capacity, which resulted from tremendous volume variation and dense structure [166]. Hence, formation of porous structural NiMoO<sub>4</sub> seems to be a promising solution to rectify this conundrum. As an illustration, a porous worm-like NiMoO<sub>4</sub> anchored on the electrospun carbon nanofibers (NiMoO<sub>4</sub>/ECNF) was successfully fabricated by Tian et al.[166]. The morphology and electrochemical activities of this nanocomposite are revealed in Figure 2.24.



Figure 2.24: (a-b) SEM images of crystalline worm-like NiMoO<sub>4</sub>-ECNF nanocomposite. (c) Specific capacitance of NiMoO<sub>4</sub>/ECNF nanocomposite at different current densities. (d) Cycling test of NiMoO<sub>4</sub>/ECNF nanocomposite. Reproduced with permission from ref.[166]. Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

By virtue of its unique architecture, the as-synthesised electrode exhibited a high specific capacitance of 1088.5 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, outstanding rate capability of 860.3 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 20 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and reasonable cycling stability (73.9 % retained after 5000 cycles). These advanced capacitive performances could be elucidated by the larger specific surface area endowed by porous worm-like morphology, which diminished the ions diffusion pathway. Besides, the reinforced cycling stability was ascribed to the robust integrated electrode, which rendered adequate air spaces between the wormlike NiMoO<sub>4</sub> and hence resisted the volume expansion during the continuous charge discharge process. A 3D porous NiMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoflakes arrays directly deposited on Ni foam was reported by Adhikary et al. [167], which possessed an ultrahigh specific capacitance of 2004 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. Additionally, the low equivalent series resistance of 0.62  $\Omega$  and good capacitance retention of 80% after 1000 cycles were acquired. The enhanced electrochemical properties could be explicated as follows: i) homogenous distribution of the NiMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoflakes on Ni foam. ii) synergistic effect between the Ni and Mo elements. iii) porous architecture of the nanocomposite.

Besides, the evolution of molybdenum with cobalt[174-180] and zinc[181, 182] based oxides materials have aroused tremendous research interest lately due to their low cost, environmentally friendly and good capacitive performance[4]. Generally, CoMoO<sub>4</sub> with high cell parameters of (a=10.21 Å, b=9.268 Å, c=7.022 Å) and stable electrochemical properties is highly preferable. As an example, Li et al.[174] synthesised a core-shell CoMoO<sub>4</sub>@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocomposite decorated on a 3D ordered macro-porous electrode plate (OMEP) as the active electrode through the multi-steps hydrothermal approach as demonstrated in Figure 2.25.


Figure 2.25: Top) Formation mechanism of the CoMoO<sub>4</sub>@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/OMEP nanocomposite synthesised. Bottom) (a-b) SEM images of CoMoO<sub>4</sub>@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/OMEP nanocomposites and (c) its corresponding cycling stability test. Reproduced with permission from ref.[174]. Copyright 2017, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

The formation mechanism of this  $CoMoO_4@Co_3O_4/OMEP$  nanocomposite was as follows: i)  $CoMoO_4$  was anchored onto the radically OMEP via hydrothermal self –assembly to generate the 3D hierarchical  $CoMoO_4/OMEP$  nanoarchitecture. ii) the as-synthesised  $CoMoO_4/OMEP$  nanoarchitecture co-operated with nanocomposite layer of  $Co_3O_4$  to form  $CoMoO_4@Co_3O_4/OMEP$  multi-dimensional nanocomposite. This peculiar core-shell nanoarchitecture offered enormous electroactive sites for effective redox reactions[175]. As for electrochemical analyses, the redox reactions of CoMoO<sub>4</sub> involved in KOH electrolyte are expressed as follows:

$$3[Co(0H)_3] \leftrightarrow Co_3O_4 + 4H_2O + OH^- + 2e^-$$
(2.7)

$$Co_3O_4 + H_2O + OH^- \leftrightarrow 3CoOOHH_2O \tag{2.8}$$

$$Co00H + OH^- \leftrightarrow CoO_2 + H_2O + e^- \tag{2.9}$$

It is noteworthy that the CoMoO<sub>4</sub>@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoarchitectures were uniformly distributed on the sidewall of macro-porous OMEP, resulting in more ions diffusion channels for effective space utilisation of the electrode material. The authors claimed that this nanocomposite possessed a high specific capacitance of 1168 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at current density of 4 mAcm<sup>-2</sup> and excellent cycling stability (81.4% capacitance retention) after 5000 cycles. The capacitance fading could be ascribed to the deformation and reconstruction of the active material, which was originated from the redox reactions of CoMoO<sub>4</sub> and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. The advancements in specific capacitance and cycling stability were due to the unique 3D ordered porous structure, which enlarged the solid liquid interfacial area, accelerated the ions diffusion, prohibited the agglomeration or aggregation of the nanomaterials and allowed effective utilisation of the active electrode materials.

#### 2.4.1.3 Metal Vanadates

As an appealing mixed transition metal oxide, metal vanadate stands out from the other MTMO owing to its promising electrochemical results and intriguing properties such as broad operating potential window resulted from multiple oxidation states of vanadium elements, naturally abundant and lucrative[3]. The electrochemical behaviours of these metal vanadates are exclusively dependent on

the synthetic methods and the morphologies developed. Up to date, considerable findings have been performed on evaluating the potential of metal vanadate as energy storage devices (supercapacitor and lithium-ion battery) such as  $Ni_3V_2O_8[6, 30, 32, 79, 183, 184]$ ,  $Zn_3V_2O_8[185-188]$ ,  $Co_3V_2O_8[6, 189-192]$ ,  $AIV_3O_9[193-195]$ ,  $MoV_2O_8[39, 128]$  and etc. For instance, Vishnukumar et al.[79] reported the synthesis of NiO / Ni\_3V\_2O\_8 nanocomposite via facile solvothermal process for high performance supercapacitor applications and its morphological and electrochemical properties are delineated in Figure 2.26.



Figure 2.26: a) SEM image, b) galvanostatic charge discharge at 1Ag<sup>-1</sup>, c) cycling test of NiO/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanorods. Reprinted with permission from ref.[79]. Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

The authors studied the effect of reaction time (10, 14 and 18 hrs) on the electrochemical performances and noted that the nanocomposite synthesised within 10 hrs exhibited remarkable pseudocapacitive value of 653 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at current density of 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and 96 % of initial capacitance was well preserved after 1000 cycles. Besides, the symmetrical charge-discharge curves upon cycling test was observed from Figure 26c, suggested its superior coulombic efficiency. The prominent capacitive activities of NiO/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> with the reaction time of 10 hrs was due to the nanorods structural organisation with homogenous distribution, whereas for other

products (14 and 18 hrs), non-homogenous distribution and agglomeration occurred and hence attenuated their capacitive storage.

Other than that, a 3D porous  $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanoroses was fabricated by Zhang and his co-workers[190] via solvothermal method. Figure 2.27 delineates the possible formation mechanism of 3D porous  $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanoroses and its corresponding structural and electrochemical outputs.



Figure 2.27: Top) Schematic diagram of  $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanoroses. Bottom) (a-b) SEM images, (c) cycling stability test of 3D porous  $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanoroses. Adapted with permission from ref.[190]. Copyright 2017, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

The detailed formation mechanism could be expressed as follows: i) nucleation of  $Co^{2+}$  and  $VO_3^{-}$  ions surrounded the methanol bubbles. ii) aggregation and further growth into diverse nanoflakes. iii) further aggregation of nanoflakes into

nanoplates. iv) assembly of nanoplates into 3D nanoroses as the reaction time prolonged.

From Figure 2.27, the 3D porous nanoroses was successfully designed with the size ranging from 383 to 589 nm and the average size was approximately 474 nm. Besides, the 3D porous Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoroses possessed a high specific capacitance of 371.3 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and 85.4% of the specific capacitance was retained when the current density increased from 1 to 10 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, revealing its good charge storage capability and superior rate capability. Moreover, the 3D porous nanoroses electrode displayed impressive cycling performance with a capacitance retention of 89.6 % after 10000 continuous charge discharge cycles. Reasonable energy and power densities were manifested by the 3D porous nanoroses electrode. These fascinating electrochemical performances could be assigned to the porous nanoroses structures of Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, which facilitated the migration of electrolyte ions to the bulk of electrode material. Moreover, the occurrence of reversible redox reactions of  $Co^{2+}$  and  $Co^{3+}$  dominated the pseudocapacitance. Lastly, the large specific surface area of 3D mesoporous nanoroses (112.97 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>) and well-defined pore structure allowed intimate contact between the electroactive sites and electrolyte, which is beneficial for pronounced redox reactions. Microwave-assisted synthesis of novel Zn<sub>3</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>.2H<sub>2</sub>O and Zn<sub>2</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> nanoarchitectures was conducted by Li and his group[185]. The relevant synthetic process is illustrated in Figure 2.28.



Figure 2.28: Synthetic process of  $Zn_3(OH)_2V_2O_7.2H_2O$  and  $Zn_2V_2O_7$  active materials. Reprinted with permission from ref.[185]. Copyright 2017, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

Here, glycine served as the surfactant and  $Zn_2V_2O_7$  was obtained after the calcination process. The related redox reaction mechanisms are expressed as follows:

$$Zn_{3}(OH)_{2}V_{2}O_{7}.2H_{2}O + xK^{+} + xe^{-} \leftrightarrow K_{x}Zn_{3}(OH)_{2}V_{2}O_{7} + 2H_{2}O$$
(2.10)

$$Zn_2V_2O_7 + xK^+ + xe^- \leftrightarrow K_xZn_2V_2O_7 \tag{2.11}$$

The as-fabricated electrode material  $(Zn_2V_2O_7)$  delivered an excellent capacitance of 427.7 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 1 mAcm<sup>-2</sup> as compared to  $Zn_3(OH)_2V_2O_7.2H_2O$  (207.8 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 1 mAcm<sup>-2</sup>). Besides, 83.71 % of its initial capacitance was retained after 1000 cycles, suggesting its appealing cycling performance. This result could be explicated by the formation of nanowire-shaped  $Zn_2V_2O_7$  assembled by interconnected elliptical nanoparticles, which enhanced the diffusion of electrolyte to the active sites upon cycling.

#### 2.4.1.4 Metal Tungstate

In present, many researchers are devoted to evaluate and determine the feasibility of metal tungstate as electrode materials for supercapacitors as it is cost effective, less toxic, abundant in nature and possesses low operating potential together with high capacitive performance[196]. Particularly, the high electrical conductivity of tungsten material makes it a promising candidate for supercapacitor applications. As reported in some literatures, nickel tungstate (NiWO<sub>4</sub>) has electrical conductivity in the order of 10<sup>-7</sup> to 10<sup>-2</sup> Scm<sup>-1</sup>, which is higher than that of the pristine Ni, NiO as well as metal molybdate[197]. Moreover, metal tungstates as an independent entity like NiWO<sub>4</sub>, CoWO<sub>4</sub>, ZnWO<sub>4</sub>, MnWO<sub>4</sub> and FeWO<sub>4</sub> perform outstanding electrochemical activities, which can be ascribed to the synergistic effect between the distinct metallic substances[196]. However, metal tungstate also encompasses several limitations like severe volume expansion during the continuous charge-discharge process which leads to inferior rate capability and cycling stability. The aforementioned problem can be rectified by customising the metal tungstate into nanostructural form such as nanoparticles, nanoflakes, nanowires and etcetera[196-207]. For instance, He et al.[197] synthesised the NiWO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles and CoWO<sub>4</sub> nanoshuttles on nickel foam by facile one-pot hydrothermal route as depicted in Figure 2.29.



Figure 2.29: Top) Schematic illustrating the formation of NiWO<sub>4</sub> and CoWO<sub>4</sub> on Ni foam. Bottom) (a-b) SEM images of NiWO<sub>4</sub>@Ni foam, (c-d) SEM images of CoWO<sub>4</sub>@Ni foam. (e) A comparison of specific capacitance for NiWO<sub>4</sub>@Ni foam and CoWO<sub>4</sub>@Ni foam as a function of current density. Reprinted with permission from ref.[197]. Copyright 2015, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

Here, nickel foam was employed as the current collector due to its macro-porous structures that offered large specific surface area, shortened the ions diffusion pathway and provided exceptional electrical conductivity[197]. The as-synthesised NiWO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles and CoWO<sub>4</sub> nanoshuttles on nickel foams revealed a specific capacitance of 797.8 and 764.4 Fg<sup>-1</sup> respectively at current density of 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. Besides, only 55.6 % and 50.6 % of the initial capacitances were preserved as the current density increased from 1 to 20 Ag<sup>-1</sup> for NiWO<sub>4</sub>@Ni foam nanoparticles and CoWO<sub>4</sub>@Ni foam nanoshuttles respectively. The capacitance fading could be assigned to the severe potential drop and ineffective contribution of active materials in the redox reaction as the current density increased. Furthermore, the cycling test was performed via the CV analysis in between 0 to 0.6 V for 6000 cycles. Interestingly, the specific capacitances acquired were 2.06 and 2.81 times higher than their initial capacitance after 6000 cycles for NiWO<sub>4</sub>@Ni foam nanoparticles and CoWO<sub>4</sub>@Ni foam nanoshuttles, respectively revealing the superior cycling stability of both materials. Moreover, a small decrement on the specific capacitance was observed between 3000 and 4500 cycles, which could be elucidated by: i) increase in surface wettability of electrode material by the electrolyte upon cycling and ii) dissolution of some nanoparticles into the electrolyte solution which caused the activation of interior nanoparticles.

An electrospun 3D porous ZnWO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles was fabricated by Yang and coworkers[208] and its corresponding nanostructures and capacitive activities are unveiled in Figure 2.30.



Figure 2.30: (a-d) Representative SEM images of 3D porous ZnWO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles in different magnifications. (e) specific capacitance of 3D ZnWO<sub>4</sub> electrode at various current densities. (f) Cycling test of 3D ZnWO<sub>4</sub>. Reproduced with permission from ref.[208]. Copyright 2016, Elsevier.

Interestingly, the electrode material demonstrated eminent specific capacitance of  $2590 \text{ Fg}^{-1}$  at the current density of 2 Ag<sup>-1</sup> under the working potential range of 0.3 to 0.55 V, whereas the specific capacitance was 1089.8 Fg<sup>-1</sup> when the potential window was varied from 0 to 0.55 V. Besides, it is noteworthy that 74.8 % of specific capacitance was retained as the current density altered from 2 to 100 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, suggesting its extraordinary rate capability. In addition, an increase in specific capacitance was observed after 10000 cycles (from 818.2 to 1252.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 10 Ag<sup>-1</sup>), as a result of improved reaction activities upon cycling.

#### 2.4.1.5 Others MTMOs

In addition to the aforementioned MTMO, metal ferrite (MFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) [209-215] and metal manganites (MMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) have also been investigated as the electrode material for supercapacitor. Spinel ferrites are potential electrode materials as they are naturally abundant, lucrative, highly stable and eco-friendly [215]. For instance, Sagu et al.[215] reported the synthesis of nanstructured cobalt ferrite (CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) thin films through aerosol-assisted chemical vapour deposition approach (AACVD) for applications in supercapacitors. The as-synthesised electrode material showed excellent capacitive performance and rate capability with areal capacitance of 540  $\mu$ Fcm<sup>-2</sup> and 500  $\mu$ Fcm<sup>-2</sup> at current densities of 40 and 120  $\mu$ Acm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively. Besides, it is interesting to note that the coulombic efficiency increased with the current density, where the coulombic efficiencies were 69 % and 79 % as the current density was raised from 40 to 120  $\mu$ Acm<sup>-2</sup>. This phenomenon could be explicated by the sluggish kinetics of oxygen evolution reaction (OER). Hence, it is profitable to construct a supercapacitor with excellent rate capability in order to avoid the OER side reactions. Furthermore, good cycling performance was observed for CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> electrode with a capacitance fading of only 20 % after 7000 continuous charge-discharge cycles. The capacitance fading was most likely due to the electrolyte decomposition by OER upon cycling.

Metal manganites (MMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) are regarded as one of the potential candidates for supercapacitor electrode fabrication as they possess multiple oxidation states which offer sufficient accessible spots for rapid redox reaction. In view of all the metal manganites, NiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with spinel structure is perceived as the practicable and prospective electrode material by virtue of its remarkable electrochemical properties such as high specific capacitance and excellent energy and power density[216-221]. For example, Bhagwan and his groups[221] studied the electrochemical features of spinel NiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanofibers with align, mesoporous and high aspect ratio. They reported that reasonable specific capacitance of 410 Fg<sup>-1</sup> was obtained at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup> but decreased to 275 Fg<sup>-1</sup> as the current density was raised from 1 to 5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, indicating its acceptable capacitive performance and good rate capability. Moreover, 95 % of its initial capacitance was preserved after 5000 cycles at 5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, revealing the excellent cycling stability of the spinel NiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanofibers. The diffusion coefficient of the active material was calculated to be approximately  $4.84 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^2\text{s}^1$ . Higher diffusion coefficient of the electrode material leads to rapid migration of electrolyte ions to the surface of the bulk electrode and hence ameliorating the electrochemical activities.

Albeit mixed transition metal oxides offer impressive theoretical capacitance associated with the redox reaction, they still suffer from low electrical conductivity, poor rate performance and inferior cycling stability as well as non-effective utilisation of the active material during the electrochemical reaction as compared to the hybrid electrode materials (combination of MTMO with carbonaceous material). Therefore, the following section reviewed comprehensively the morphological and electrochemical properties of the hybrid materials as supercapacitor electrodes, which synergistically exploited the EDLC and Faradaic characteristics of the active material for advanced charge storage performance.

# **2.4.2 Graphene-Mixed Transition Metal Oxides (G-MTMO) based supercapacitor**

The capability to harness the energy is imperative for human civilisation especially in the field of portable electronic appliances since their demands are increasing tremendously [62]. Thus, hybridisation of carbonaceous materials with diverse mixed transition metal oxides (G-MTMO) is revealed as a functional and effective strategy to ameliorate the electrochemical performances of supercapacitors. Despite activated carbon (AC) exhibits large specific area, its poor electrical conductivity has limited its practical application for supercapacitor. For carbon nanotubes (CNT), it possesses larger specific surface area and better electrical conductivity than that of activated carbon. Nevertheless, its high contact resistance with the current collector and cost-ineffectiveness has hindered its practical employment[222]. As compared to other carbonaceous materials like AC and CNT, graphene has received massive attentions from the researchers recently[26].

Graphene is recognised as one of the wonderful elements in the field of science and technology. Graphene as the hexagonal crystalline monolayer of graphite is one of the essential crystalline allotropes of carbon atoms with a C-C bonds distance of 0.142 nm[223]. It can be applied in a wide range of applications such as thin film transistors, supercapacitors, high sensitivity chemical sensors, anti-corrosion coating and others. Among the allotropes of carbon atoms, graphene is the only allotrope where each carbon atom is tightly bounded to its neighbouring atoms by an inimitable electrostatic force. As delineated in Figure 2.31, each carbon atom in graphene is sp<sup>2</sup> hybridised and it has 3 bonds bonded with different neighbouring C atoms. The sp<sup>2</sup> hybridisation consists of s,  $p_x$  and  $p_y$  orbitals. In the hexagonal

lattice of graphene, three different carbon atoms covalently bonded to each carbon atom and results in one free electron. The free electron is held by the  $p_z$  orbital[224].



Figure 2.31: a to c) Schematic diagram of the fundamental bonding of graphene and d) SEM image of pure graphene sheet. Reproduced with permission from ref.[224]. Copyright 2020, Elsevier.

The properties of graphene significantly rely on the number of layers and the defects of the graphene layers. Graphene consists of some intriguing physical and chemical properties such as large theoretical surface area (~2630 m<sup>2</sup>/g), excellent thermal (~5 × 10<sup>3</sup> Wm<sup>-1</sup>K<sup>-1</sup>) and electrical conductivity (~10<sup>4</sup>  $\Omega^{-1}$ cm<sup>-1</sup>), good electrochemical stability, high flexibility and good structural tenacity[18, 25]. The hybridisation of graphene sheet with nanoscale MTMO enlarges the accessible specific surface of the active materials. Meanwhile, the synergistic effect and intimate contact between the two phases promote the electrons and ions diffusion process. Secondly, various synthetic approaches integrated with 2D graphene sheets lead to facile and controllable formation of nanocomposite with distinct nanostructures towards targeted functionalisation like supercapacitors. Thirdly, the free-standing 2D graphene nanosheets consist of 2D edge plane sites which accelerate the ions adsorption process and thereby enhancing the specific energy and specific power of graphene-MTMO nanocomposite[62, 225]. In this section, the synthesis and contribution of various graphene-MTMO (G-MTMO) nanocomposites as supercapacitor electrode were extensively studied and organised according to their predominant metallic groups in chemical composition. In particularly, distinctive results and elucidations were given for certain advanced G-MTMO nanocomposites.

#### 2.4.2.1 Graphene-Metal Cobaltites

Recently, the integration of graphene with metal cobaltite as nanocomposites has drawn tremendous research enthusiasm owing to its improved physical and electrochemical properties as compared to sole metal cobaltites. Table 2.3 summarises state-of-the-art in graphene-metal cobaltite nanocomposites [25, 26, 130, 226-237] as working electrode for supercapacitor system.

Morphology	Synthetic	Specific	Current	Cycling	Ref
	approach	capacitance (Fg <sup>-</sup>	density	stability	
		1)	(Ag <sup>-1</sup> )		
Fe-Co oxides	Aerosol	325	0.1	80 %	[130]
nanoparticles/Crumpled	spray			(2000	
graphene	pyrolysis			cycles)	
3D Free-standing	Freeze	563	2	95 %	[226]
NiCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @graphene	casting			(5000	
foam	method			cycles)	
NiCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /3D graphene	Hydrothermal	2300	1	94.3 %	[227]
				(5000	
				cycles)	
Graphene wrapped	Hydrothermal	1813	2	95.2 %	[228]
CuCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> hollow				(6000	
spheres				cycles)	
rGO wrapped porous	Hydrothermal	1185	2	98 %	[25]
NiCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> composite				(10000	
				cycles)	
NiCo2O4 nanobundles-	Hydrothermal	1278	1	95 %	[229]
rGO				(1000	
				cycles)	
NiCo2O4 hexagonal	Hydrothermal	947.4	0.5	97.9 %	[26]
nanoplates/rGO				(3000	
				cycles)	

Table 2.3: Summary of graphene-metal cobaltites nanocomposites.

NiC02O4	Solution	1186.3	0.5	97 %	[230]
nanosheets/rGO	based method			(100	
				cycles)	
ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> -rGO	Hydrothermal	3222	1	94 %	[231]
				(5000	
				cycles)	
Mesoporous ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> -	NF template	2009	10	100 %	[232]
rGO			mAcm <sup>-2</sup>	(2000	
				cycles)	
Mesoporous ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Hydrothermal	1116.6	$2mVs^{-1}$	93.4 %	[233]
nanowires on rGO				(5000	
sponges				cycles)	
3D ZnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Hydrothermal	1613	1	97.3 %	[234]
nanoflakes@rGO				(5000	
				cycles)	
Honeycomb-like	Pyrolysis	1810	1	87 %	[235]
NiCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub> on				(5000	
3D N-doped graphene-				cycles)	
CNT sponge					
1D NiCo2O4 nanorods	Hydrothermal	1292	0.5	145 %	[236]
on graphene				(2000	
				cycles)	
Spinel NiCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Hydrothermal	1248	2 mAcm <sup>-2</sup>	90 %	[237]
nanowires on rGO				(2000	
				cycles)	

Rajagopalan and his group[25] fabricated a reduced graphene oxide (rGO) wrapped porous NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocomposite (NCO-rGO) through hydrothermal process with ammonium hydroxide as pH regulator. The formation mechanism and its corresponding morphologies and electrochemical outputs are unveiled in Figure 2.32. Additionally, the effect of rGO content on the electrochemical performances was also evaluated comprehensively.



Figure 2.32: a) Schematic diagram of the synthesis procedure for the NCO-rGO hexagonal nanocomposite. (b and c) SEM images of pristine NCO and NCO-rGO nanocomposite respectively. d) Specific capacitance versus weight of rGO. e) Cycling performance of different NCO-rGO nanocomposite at 2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. Reproduced with permission from ref.[25]. Copyright 2017, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

Figure 2.32a illustrates the mechanism on the coordination of metal cation with the functional groups of graphene oxide as well as the transformation of these metallic cations to cluster-like metal hydroxides via altering the pH of solution. Specific capacitances of 980 and 1185 Fg<sup>-1</sup> were reported for sole NCO and NCO-rGO nanocomposite, respectively. The discrepancy could be assigned to the development of well-interconnected networks of rGO, which allowed intimate contact between the surface of active material with electrolyte ions during the inter/de-intercalation process. Besides, the presence of rGO minimised the ions migration pathway and eased the diffusion process of electrolyte ions to the redox centres. In addition, the agglomeration of nickel cobaltite particles was hindered by rGO which assured effective reversible redox reactions at the electrode/electrolyte interface. As for cycling stability test, around 98% of initial capacitance was retained for NCO-30rGO nanocomposite, which is higher than that of pristine NCO

(90 %) over 10000 cycles. The improved cycling stability could be ascribed to the peculiar nanoarchiteture of NCO-30rGO, where the rGO not only improved the electrical conductivity but also served as a buffer matrix to adapt the volume expansion or variation during the continuous charge-discharge process. Furthermore, distinct electrochemical properties could be acquired by altering the rGO content in the NCO-rGO nanocomposites. It was observed that specific capacitance of NCO-rGO nanocomposites increased as rGO content was raised up to 30 %. Above the 30% critical point, capacitance fading occurred as a result of reduction on the active material composition (NCO). This led to the reduction of density of the active NCO which is prominent for energy storage.

Apart from NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, zinc cobaltite incorporated with rGO (ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO) with intertwined sheets grown onto nickel foam was conducted by Gao et al.[231] through a facile hydrothermal deposition process followed by calcination treatment as shown in Figure 2.33.



Figure 2.33: a) Schematic illustration on the preparation of ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO nanocomposite. (b-c) SEM images of pristine ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO nanocomposite respectively. d) Cycling test of sole ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO. Reprinted with permission from ref.[231]. Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

The corresponding Faradaic redox reactions of ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO nanocomposite could be expressed as follow:

$$Co_2O_4^{2-} + H_2O \leftrightarrow 2CoOOH + 2OH^-$$
 (2.12)

$$CoOOH + H_2O + e^- \leftrightarrow Co(OH)_2 + OH^-$$

$$(2.13)$$

Impressively, a specific capacitance of 3222 Fg<sup>-1</sup> was achieved by ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO electrode material at current density of 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. As the current density increased from 1 to 20 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, a specific capacitance of 860 Fg<sup>-1</sup> was retained, suggesting its superior rate capability. In contrast, pristine ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> electrode material manifested a specific capacitance of 1208 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, revealing its inferior capacitive performance. The high specific capacitance of ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO nanocomposite could be elucidated by the integration of high specific surface area graphene nanosheet with the hierarchical macroporous architecture of ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, which allowed more electroactive sites available for rapid redox reactions and hence improving the charge storage capability. Furthermore, 35 % capacitance deterioration over 5000 successive charge-discharge cycles was recorded for ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO electrode material as compared to sole ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (62% capacitance retention), implying the satisfactory cyclic stability of ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO nanocomposite. In the same study, an asymmetric supercapacitor with ZnCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-rGO nanocomposite as positive electrode and activated carbon as negative electrode was fabricated using 2M KOH as the electrolyte. The as-synthesised asymmetric supercapacitor delivered an energy density of 49.1 Whkg<sup>-1</sup> at power density of 400 Wkg<sup>-1</sup>.

#### 2.4.2.2 Graphene-Metal Molybdates

In addition to graphene/metal cobaltite, graphene/metal molybdate has also attracted considerable attention for supercapacitor application recently. Among various graphene/metal molybdate based electrode materials such as G-NiMoO<sub>4</sub>[238-247], G-CoMoO<sub>4</sub>[80, 248-253], G-ZnMoO<sub>4</sub>[254-256] and etc[257-259]., graphene/cobalt molybdate (G-CoMoO<sub>4</sub>) was identified as a potential candidate for charge storage system owing to its advanced electrochemical properties, good mechanical stability and electronic conductivity. As an example, flower like nanoflake CoMoO4-rGO nanocomposites grown on Ni foam was reported by Jinlong and co-workers[248]. The nanoflakes like CoMoO<sub>4</sub>-rGO nanohybrid exhibited an outstanding specific capacitance of 856.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at current density of 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. In addition, only 5.5 % of the total capacitance decayed after 2000 continuous intercalation/de-intercalation process as compared to that of single CoMoO<sub>4</sub> (10.8 %). The authors reported that the nanocomposite had larger specific surface area and average pore diameter than that of the pristine CoMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, suggesting the enhancement of surface area through integration with graphene sheets. The eminent electrochemical properties could be attributed to the following rationales: i) The flower-like nanoarchitecture encouraged the ions (OH<sup>-</sup>) and electrons transportation which accelerated the rate of reaction. ii) The graphene networks offered adequate electroactive spaces, which enabled effective utilisation of the graphene/CoMoO<sub>4</sub> nanocomposite electrode material. iii) graphene served as a cushion to absorb or reduce the structural stress or volume variation during the continuous charge-discharge process and thus prevented the structural deformation.

Other than CoMoO<sub>4</sub>, the combination of NiMoO<sub>4</sub> with graphene for application in hybrid capacitor was performed by Jinlong et al.[239], where the NiMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles and quantum dots were homogeneously distributed on the surface of the reduced nanohole graphene oxide (rNHGO). As for comparison, the NiMoO<sub>4</sub>@reduced graphene oxide (rGO) was also synthesised and its corresponding electrochemical performances was determined. Figure 2.34 delineates the morphological structures and the electrochemical activities of NiMoO<sub>4</sub>@rGO and NiMoO<sub>4</sub>@rNHGO.



Figure 2.34: (a-b) TEM images of NiMoO4@rGO and NiMoO4@rNHGO respectively. c) The specific capacitance of two electrodes at various current densities. d) Cycling test of the two electrodes. Reprinted with permission from ref.[239]. Copyright 2017, Elsevier.

The specific surface area of NiMoO<sub>4</sub>@rNHGO nanocomposite (166.9  $m^2g^{-1}$ ) was higher than that of NiMoO<sub>4</sub>@rGO (117.6  $m^2g^{-1}$ ). In fact, electrode material in nanoscale dimension offers larger specific surface area with abundant electroactive sites for Faradaic redox reaction. Furthermore, NiMoO4@rNHGO nanocomposite exhibited exceptional specific capacitance (2327.3 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>) and excellent cycling stability (93 % retention after 5000 cycles) when compared to NiMoO4@rGO (1801.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup> and 89.1 % capacitance retention after 5000 cycles). The remarkable electrochemical outputs of NiMoO4@rNHGO could be attributed to several factors: Firstly, the direct growth of NiMoO4 nanoparticles and quantum dots on the rNHGO allowed intimate contact between the active material and the current collector, resulting in effective ions diffusion. Moreover, the larger specific surface area of NiMoO4@rNHGO could offer more electroactive spaces for the reversible redox reaction which prolonged the cycle life and reinforced the structural tenacity. Lastly, the synergistic effect between the quantum dots, NiMoO4 nanoparticles and rNHGO reduced the electrolyte ions diffusion route to the bulk of electrode during the charge-discharge process.

#### 2.4.2.3 Graphene-Metal Vanadates

In comparison to the traditional Faradaic bimetallic vanadates, the incorporation of bimetallic vanadates with graphene demonstrates better electrochemical activities by virtue of the synergistic effect between the graphene nanosheet (EDLC) and metal vanadates (pseudocapacitance). Hence, many researchers are devoted to evaluate and determine the feasibility of graphene-metal vanadate nanocomposites as the electrode material for supercapacitors, where the studied materials include graphene-cobalt vanadate (G-Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>), graphene-nickel vanadate (G-Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>), graphene-bismuth vanadate (G-BiVO<sub>4</sub>) and etcetera[29, 42, 260-265]. However, the number of literature reported on these nanocomposites as electrode for supercapacitor applications is rather scarce as compared to other nanocomposites.

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For example, Kumar and coworkers[29] decorated Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanosheets arrays on aminated rGO through tandem hydrothermal and freeze drying process. The peculiar sheet-like nanoarchitecture of nickel vanadate/reduced graphene oxide nanocomposite (NiV@rGO) and the synergistic effect between rGO and Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanosheets rendered the electrode with higher specific capacitance (170 Cg<sup>-1</sup>) when compared to the bare rGO (63 Cg<sup>-1</sup>) at current density of 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. In particular, the high specific capacitance of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>/rGO nanocomposite was assigned to the presence of rGO sheets that impeded the agglomeration of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanosheets and hence provided more active sites for better ionic diffusion. The nanocomposite showed remarkable cycling performance with a capacitance retention of 97.2 % after 1400 cycles at 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. Besides, lower charge transfer resistance was observed for NiV@rGO as the integration of rGO increased the electrical conductivity of the nanocomposite and thus leading to lower charge diffusion resistivity. The pertinent morphological and electrochemical characterisations of NiV@rGO active electrode material are depicted in Figure 2.35.



Figure 2.35: (a-b) The SEM images of NiV@rGO nanocomposite. (c) The cycling test at 0.5 Ag-1. (d) EIS plot of NiV@rGO and bare rGO. Reprinted with permission from ref.[29]. Copyright 2017, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

The integration of bismuth vanadate with reduced graphene oxide (BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO) was conducted by Dutta et al.[260] through facile hydrothermal technique at 200°C for 90 minutes (B-90). In an extension of this work, the reaction time was varied (30 min, 60 min, 90 min and 120 min) in the synthesis of BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanocomposite to evaluate the impact of reaction time on the capacitive performance. The morphologies of the optimised BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO along with its corresponding supercapacitive activities are demonstrated in Figure 2.36.



Figure 2.36: (a-b) SEM images of pristine BiVO<sub>4</sub> and BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanocomposite respectively. (c) Cycling stability graph of BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanocomposite. (d) Ragone plot for BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanohybrid as compared to other reported metal oxides. Reprinted with permission from ref.[260]. Copyright 2018, The Royal Society of Chemistry.

The SEM analysis indicated that the thin rGO nanosheets were well decorated by the BiVO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles at 200 °C for 90 minutes. As the reaction time increased to 120 minutes, the aggregation of BiVO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles into larger particles with irregular sizes was observed. The reversible redox reaction of BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO electrode material was assigned to the redox pairs of V(4)/V(5) and the reaction mechanism is expressed as follows:

$$BiVO_p + qM^+ + qe^- \leftrightarrow V_{2p-q}O_pM_q^{q+}$$
(2.14)

where M is the electrolyte ions. The authors claimed that excellent specific capacitance of 400 Fg<sup>-1</sup> was achieved by BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanocomposite when compared to sole BiVO<sub>4</sub> (149 Fg<sup>-1</sup>) at the scan rate of 5 mVs<sup>-1</sup>. Moreover, only 2 % of capacitance attenuated after 1000 cycles for BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanocomposite, revealing its good cycling stability. Furthermore, a maximum specific energy of 35.37 Whkg<sup>-1</sup> was observed for the BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanocomposite electrode. In this case, the unique electrochemical properties of BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanocomposite could be elucidated by: i) incorporation of rGO increased the electrical conductivity and thus accelerated the ionic transportation. ii) optimum reaction time (90 min) for the synthesis of BiVO<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanocomposite which effectively prohibited the agglomeration of nanomaterials.

#### 2.4.3.4 Graphene-Metal Tungstates

Besides, the integration of metal tungstate with graphene as electrode material is also a research hotspot recently owing to its appealing supercapacitive performances. The incorporation of graphene with nickel tungstate (G-NiWO<sub>4</sub>) and cobalt tungstate (G-CoWO<sub>4</sub>) along with their pertinent capacitive outputs were reported by the researchers[14, 41, 266]. For instance, Xu and co-workers[41] proposed a controllable synthetic strategy which decorates nickel tungstate nanoparticles uniformly on reduced graphene oxide nanosheets to form firmly coupled nanohybrid. The NiWO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles on the surface of rGO sheet behaved like spacers which prohibited the graphene sheet from restacking. Moreover, overlapping of each rGO sheet could lead to the formation of 3D network which facilitated the diffusion of electrolyte ions and hence accelerated the Faradaic reversible reaction. The nanohybrid delivered a high capacitance of 1031.3 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, excellent capacitive stability (99.24 % after 5000 cycles) and reasonable rate capability (72.1 % retained at 8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>). The outstanding capacitive performances could be explicated as follows: i) graphene as a highly conductive matrix hindered the agglomeration of NiWO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles and ameliorated the electrical conductivity of the nanocomposite. ii) multiple oxidation states and synergistic effect between the NiWO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles and rGO sheets accelerated the diffusion of electrolyte ions to the bulk of electrode. iii) graphene adapted to the swelling or expansion of the active material efficiently upon cycling. In the extension of this work, the authors also reported that the specific capacitance increased as the graphene content was raised from 10 to 20 mL while diminished with further increment afterwards. This could be due to the severe aggregation between rGO and NiWO<sub>4</sub> which attenuated the specific capacitance.

In another similar work, Naderi et al.[266] constructed a nanocomposite of cobalt tungstate anchored on the surface of nitrogen doped reduced graphene oxide (CoWO<sub>4</sub>@NRGO) via in-situ sonochemical process for high performance supercapacitors. The CoWO<sub>4</sub>@NRGO nanohybrid exhibited a high specific capacitance of 597 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at scan rate of 5 mVs<sup>-1</sup>, excellent cycling stability with 97.1 % initial capacitance retention after 4000 cycles and high energy density of 67.9 Whkg<sup>-1</sup> at power density of 500 Wkg<sup>-1</sup>, demonstrating its impressive capacitive performance. The attractive electrochemical properties could be ascribed to the

synergistic effect between the pseudocapacitance of CoWO<sub>4</sub> and EDLC of NRGO sheets as well as the uniform distribution of CoWO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles on the NRGO, which resulted in more accessible sites for Faradaic redox reaction.

#### 2.4.3.5 Others Graphene/MTMO

In addition to the MTMO discussed above, the incorporation of metal ferrites [267-272] and metal manganites[273-276] with graphene sheets have also been widely studied for supercapacitor applications. For instance, Liu and co-authors[267] prepared the CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/graphene via facile hydrothermal process by employing the steel rolling sludge as the iron precursors. Here, the steel rolling sludge was considered as a recycled, environmentally benign and lucrative precursor. The authors suggested that the integration of graphene into CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles hampered the agglomeration of CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles. The CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO nanocomposite showed excellent Faradaic redox reactions with high specific capacity of 166.5 Cg<sup>-1</sup> and 127.0 Cg<sup>-1</sup> at current density of 0.5 and 10 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. In this work, the concept of "specific capacity" was practiced instead of "specific capacitance", owing to the battery type electrode material species of CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. The capacity deterioration as the current density increased from 0.5 to 10 Ag<sup>-1</sup> could be assigned to the non-effective utilisation of the active electrode material at high current density as a result of rapid ionic diffusion process. Furthermore, the electrode material delivered a reasonable cycling stability with capacity retention of 79.3% after 5000 continuous charge-discharge cycles. The loss of specific capacity was due to the dissolution of some active materials into the electrolyte solution upon cycling. As for metal manganites, NiMnO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles decorated on the reduced graphene oxide was developed by Kakvand et al.[273] via

facile electrostatic co-precipitation method. The as-prepared nanocomposite demonstrated a high specific capacitance of 285 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, excellent cycle life with 93.5 % and 87 % capacitance retention after 1000 and 4000 cycles, respectively. The nanocomposite demonstrated an acceptable energy density of 27.3 Whkg<sup>-1</sup> in symmetric supercapacitor. The remarkable capacitive activities could be ascribed to the following factors: i) rGO increased the specific surface area of the nanocomposite and maximised the contact between NiMnO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles and rGO sheets. ii) the substantial contribution of the EDLC mechanism which was originated from the rGO of the nanocomposite. iii) homogeneous distribution of NiMnO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles on the rGO surface which reinforced the mechanical strength of material and hindered the agglomeration and volume expansion during cycling.

In short, the state-of-the-art examples clearly revealed the synergistic effect between MTMO and graphene materials. Hence, incorporation of graphene with MTMO is an appealing approach to promote the capacitive performance and overcome the limitation (low electrical conductivity) of single MTMO for high performance supercapacitor application.

# **Chapter 3: Experimental Materials and Characterisation methods**

#### 3.1 Materials

Pristine high pyrolytic grahite flakes (with 99 % carbon purity) were purchased from Bay Carbon, USA. Nickel(II) nitrate hexahydrate ((Ni(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>.6H<sub>2</sub>O) was purchased from Merck. Zinc chloride (ZnCl<sub>2</sub>), Cobalt chloride hexahydrate (CoCl<sub>2</sub>.6H<sub>2</sub>O), Aluminium chloride hexahydrate (AlCl<sub>3</sub>.6H<sub>2</sub>O), Manganese nitrate trihydrate (Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>.3H<sub>2</sub>O) and Lithium hydroxide (LiOH) were purchased from R&M chemicals. Sodium orthovanadate (Na<sub>3</sub>VO<sub>4</sub>) and Ammonium metavanadate (NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub>) were purchased from Acros Organics. Carbon black and ethanol were purchased from Alfa Aesar and QReC with the purity of 99 and 96 %, respectively. Hydrochloric acid was procured from Fisher Scientific, USA. Besides, potassium hydroxide (KOH), N-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone (NMP) and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Deionised water (D.I) from Millipore system was used throughout the whole experiment. All other chemicals were at least of analytical grade and used without further purification.

#### **3.2 Synthesis of graphene**

Graphene was synthesised through the previous reported liquid phase exfoliation technique[277]. In general, 50 mg of high pyrolytic graphite flakes was dispersed in 100 mL solution of deionized water and ethanol with the volume ratio of 3:2 under ultrasonication (frequency-30 kHz) for 4 hours at the room temperature to obtain a darkish black colour solution. Lastly, the solution was centrifuged and dried overnight at 70 °C.

#### **3.3 Material characterisation**

The crystallite structures of the as-synthesised nanocomposites were analysed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Philip PANanalytical X'pert X-ray diffractometer with Cu K<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> radiation ( $\lambda$ = 1.54060 Å) that operated at 33mA and 45kV in the range of 10 to 80° together with the step size of 0.02°. Raman spectra were examined on a Renishaw inVia Raman spectrometer with the wavelength of the incident diode laser of 514nm. The morphology, microstructure and elemental composition of the samples were characterised by the field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM-FEI Quanta-400) equipped with an EDX analyser and further confirmed via the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high resolution transmission electron microscopy (XPS) measurements were conducted on a Thermo Scientific Analyser using Al K<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> X-ray radiation as the constant analyser.

#### **3.3.1 X-ray diffraction spectroscopy (XRD)**

X-ray diffraction spectroscopy (XRD) is a simple and effective analytical instruments which adopt to analyse the crystallographic structural information of the sample in a wide range and deliver the detail about the unit cell dimensions. The working mechanism of XRD is simplify as follows: i) Emission of x-ray beams with particular wavelength toward the inspected specimen. ii) Once the x-ray beams impinge on the sample, the x-ray beams will be scattered in all direction and interact with the atoms of the sample before being reflected. iii) The diffracted x-rays beam with distinct intensities will be assembled by a detector and being further processed to develop the specific spectrum[278].

#### **3.3.2 Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM)**

Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) is a 3D high-resolution morphological imaging instrument employed to determine the morphology of the inspected specimen in micro or nano range. The operating mechanism of FESEM comprised of directing a tiny electron beam scanning over the surface of the specimen, where the emitted electron beam was generated by the electrons gun with two wires connected to higher voltage sources of 15 to 30 KVA. Meanwhile, the emitted beam is emphasised on the inspected sample via the electro-magnetic lenses. Once the electron beam bombards the specimen surface, backscattered or secondary electrons detected will be captured by the detector allocated above the specimen and the assembled signals will be processed to synchronize images of particular sample.

#### **3.3.3 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)**

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) is another impressive imaging instruments, which capable of providing the in-depth physical properties of the asdetermined sample in 2D nano and atomic ranges. The TEM imaging approaches include low resolution TEM (LRTEM), high resolution TEM (HRTEM), elemental distribution mapping and electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) and etc. The working mechanism of TEM can be elucidated as follow: i) Directing the electrons generated by the field emission beam into the sample. ii) Transmission of these electrons beam through the specimen and assembled on the detector. iii) The assembled electrons will be transformed to electrical signal and further processed to display high resolution images of morphological structure as well as lattice spacing at the atomic level.

#### **3.3.4 Raman spectroscopy**

Raman spectroscopy is a spectroscopic technique employed to study the chemical composition of the inspected specimen according to the vibrational modes. In this system, the analysis is relied on the emission of monochromatic light onto the sample at a desired frequency and evaluate the magnitude of the scattered light. In particular, the laser light contacts with phonons or other elements appeared in the system, leading to the shifting of the energy of laser photons and hence provides the details about the phonon conditions in the system.

#### **3.3.5 Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy**

Energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy (EDS) is a qualitative instruments utilised to determine the elementary composition of the sample comprehensively. Typically, it coupled with the FESEM or TEM and the elementary investigation can be conducted together with the imaging. The chemical composition of the sample is determined based on the binding energy of the emitted x-rays.

#### 3.3.6 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) is a powerful surface-sensitive instrument used to analyse the chemical composition and the oxidation states of the sample. XPS study is conducted by introducing the Al-k $\alpha$  x-rays to the sample surface, causing the photoelectrons to be emitted from the sample surface. Typically, the analysis can be divided into two parts, namely wide scan full survey study and narrow scan elemental survey study. All the valuable information of chemical composition and valence states are determined based on the binding energies provided.

#### **3.4 Electrochemical measurements**

The electrochemical behaviour of the as-prepared nanocomposites was characterised by the cyclic voltammetry (CV), galvanostatic charge discharge (GCD) and the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) on the Metrohm Autolab electrochemical workstation (PGSTAT302F). All the electrochemical characterisations were performed in a symmetrical two electrodes system with the employment of 2M KOH as the electrolyte. The working electrodes were prepared by incorporating the active materials (nanocomposite) with the carbon black as the conducting agent and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) as the binder with a weight percentage of 70, 20 and 10 % respectively in the presence of N-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone (NMP). The obtained slurry was then coated on the aluminium foil and dried in the oven.

#### 3.4.1 Cyclic voltammetry (CV)

Cyclic voltammetry (CV) is a powerful and impressive potentiodynamic electrochemical approach which is based on sweeping the voltage of the working electrode between the upper and lower limits at a constant scan rate to determine the reduction and oxidation reactions of the molecular species. In particular, the potential of the working electrode will increase at a fixed scan rate until it reaches the set upper potential and begin to reduce at the same scan rate until it reaches the targeted lower potential. The resulting voltage change between the working and counter electrodes during the process of potential sweep will compel the electrons to migrate to and fro between the electrodes, leading to the generation of electrical current in the external circuit. These resulting current, potential and duration are interpreted to provide pertinent details about the electrode material such as redox peaks, reversibility, specific capacitance, mechanical strength and etc.

## 3.4.2 Galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD)

Galvanostatic charge-discharge is another electrochemical evaluation technique utilised to determine the capacitive performance of an electrode material. The working mechanism of GCD is based on the intercalation and de-intercalation of the working electrode at a particular current density. Here, the quantity of charges transferred are remain constant. Distinct current density applied in the GCD test will result in different potential and duration which being collected and analysed to offer beneficial information about the capacitive performance of the particular material. The specific capacitance of an electrode material can be calculated as followed:

$$C_s = 4 \left[ I \times \frac{\Delta t}{(\Delta V \times m)} \right] \tag{3.1}$$

Where  $C_s$  denotes the specific capacitance(Fg<sup>-1</sup>), *I* is the discharge current (A),  $\Delta t$  and  $\Delta V$  represent the discharge time (s) and potential window (V), *m* is the mass of the electrode material (g) and 4 is the constant multiplier to convert two electrodes into single electrode.

The coulombic efficiency can be calculated by using equation 3.2:

$$\eta = \frac{t_D}{t_C} \times 100\% \tag{3.2}$$

where  $t_C$  and  $t_D$  represents the charge and discharge time (s), respectively.

The energy density and power density can also be calculated as follows:

Energy density (Whkg<sup>-1</sup>) = 
$$\frac{C_s V^2}{(2 \times 3.6)}$$
 (3.3)

Power density(Wkg<sup>-1</sup>) = 
$$\frac{(E \times 3600)}{(\Delta t)}$$
 (3.4)

where  $C_s$  is the specific capacitance (Fg<sup>-1</sup>), V is the potential window (V), E is the energy density (Whkg<sup>-1</sup>) and  $\Delta t$  is the discharge time(s).

#### 3.4.3 Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS)

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy is an analytical technique used to measures the equivalent series resistance (ESR) and the charge-transfer resistance between the electrode and the electrolyte. This test involved the exploitation of Faraday's Law to characterise the chemical process in the electrical manner. The measurement is accomplished by measuring the impedance over a wide range of frequencies and the response of electrochemical systems is nonlinear. Typically, the complex response of the electrochemical process is revealed in Nyquist format with a semicircle in the high frequency region and a linear line in the low frequency region. The radius of the semicircle represents the charge-transfer resistance  $(R_{ct})$ which is resulted from the Faradaic redox reaction of electrode material and the double layer capacitance on the interface between electrode and electrolyte. Meanwhile, the linear line in the low frequency region denotes the Warburg Impedance(W), which gives an insight into the kinetics of ions diffusion process. Besides, the x-intercept in the Nyquist plot is the solution resistance  $(R_s)$ , which combines the ionic resistance of electrolyte, intrinsic resistance of electrode material and contact resistance at the electrode/electrolyte interface.

# Chapter 4: Design and fabrication of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> as advanced electrode material for symmetric supercapacitor

### 4.1 Introduction

In recent years, supercapacitors have attracted tremendous attention as the next generation energy storage devices owing to its eminent power density, exceptional cycle life, high coulombic efficiency and fast charge-discharge rate[279, 280]. Supercapacitors are widely utilised in portable electronic appliances, military devices, hybrid electric vehicles and other electric networks[281]. Nevertheless, the unsatisfactory energy density has restricted its further applications as compared to lithium ion batteries (LIBs)[6]. Typically, energy density is substantially depending on the specific capacitance and potential window of the devices[7]. Hence, more researches are engrossed in the evolution of supercapacitors with not only prominent power density, exceptional cycle life but also enhanced energy density. Generally, supercapacitors are classified into two types, namely electrical double layer capacitor (EDLC) and pseudocapacitor. As for EDLC, carbonaceous materials like activated carbon, single wall carbon nanotube (SWCNT), graphene etc. are adopted as the electrode where the electrical energy is stored by assembling a double layer between the electrode and electrolyte through the electrostatic interaction[4]. Contrarily, the pseudocapacitive materials which include transition metal oxides and conducting polymer are utilised as the electrode for pseudocapacitor with the fast Faradaic redox reaction being the charge storage mechanism[11]. It is sufficiently evidenced by the fact that electrode materials are pivotal for the electrochemical performance of the supercapacitor. Typically,
pseudocapacitor possesses larger specific capacitance than the EDLC owing to the multiple oxidation states of transition metal oxides, which enable the fast redox reaction and hence improve the specific capacitance[12-14, 282].

Among myriad transition metal oxides, critical advances have acclaimed mixed transition metal oxide (MTMO) as a promising and lucrative candidate for supercapacitor. The coexistence of two distinct metal species in a single crystal structure of MTMO can advocate diverse redox reactions, contributing to remarkable specific capacitance as compared to single component metal oxide[23, 24, 283, 284]. Lately, nickel vanadate (Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>) is one of the most sought- after electroactive materials for supercapacitor owing to its peculiar crystal structure  $(A_3B_2O_8)$ , in which A and B are the transition metal elements with low and high oxidation states (pentavalent metal ion), respectively. This will lead to advanced electrochemical activity as compared to pure nickel oxide and vanadium oxide. According to the study of Liu et al., the pseudocapacitance is greatly influenced by the nickel element in lieu of the vanadium[6]. The vanadium with unique pentavalent properties is the only element that can serve as the B metal ion to form the  $A_3B_2O_8$  type mixed transition metal oxide[6, 285]. Besides, Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> with the Kagome staircase-like crystalline structure manifests excellent magnetic properties and superior catalytic performance[286-288]. In addition, nickel vanadate offers many other merits such as natural abundance, cost effective and environmental friendly. Up to date, considerable findings have been accomplished on the determination of the electrochemical performance of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> for supercapacitor and lithium ion battery applications. For instance, Liu et al. reported the synthesis of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoflakes by chemical co-precipitation method and it exhibited a good specific capacitance of 1181 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (three electrode system) at a current density of 0.625 Ag<sup>-1</sup>[6]. Besides, Soundharrajan et al. presented the production of bitter gourds shaped like Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> by metal organic framework combustion techniques (MOF-C) for lithium ion battery application and the specific capacitance obtained was 531 mAhg<sup>-1</sup> at a current density of 5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>[30]. Other than that, Vishnukumar et al. synthesized the Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>@NiO nanorods by solvothermal method and the specific capacitance acquired was 653 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (three electrode system) at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>[79]. Furthermore, Zhang et al. presented the synthesis of nickel vanadate and nickel oxide nanohybrid on nickel foam by hydrothermal method and it exhibited a specific capacitance of 1540 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 8 Ag<sup>-1</sup> in three electrode system[289]. However, nickel vanadate (Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>) also suffers from low electrical conductivity and poor cycling stability, which limits its practical applications[6, 289].

In order to conquer this conundrum, one of the most promising strategies is to hybridise the  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  with carbonaceous material, which augment the electrical conductivity and accelerate the kinetic of ions and electrons migration to the electrode/electrolyte surface as well as the interior of the electrodes[25, 26]. Besides, the incorporation of carbonaceous materials provides abundant electroactive sites for effective Faradaic redox reaction and offsets the volume variation during the continuous charge-discharge process. Among the carbonaceous materials, graphene as a sheet of sp<sup>2</sup> bonded carbon atoms with one atom thick in a honeycomb crystal structure has gained much research enthusiasms recently[26]. This is mainly attributed to its unique physical and chemical properties such as high theoretical surface area, eminent electrical conductivity, remarkable electrochemical stability, high flexibility and good structural tenacity[18, 25]. In particular, the graphene enhances the pseudocapacitive effect by increasing the electrical conductivity and facilitating the diffusion of electrolyte ions.[42]. Nonetheless, pristine graphene suffers from low specific capacitance when employed in supercapacitor. Meanwhile, graphene tends to agglomerate or restack irreversibly, leading to the formation of graphite through the van der Waals force upon drying[18]. In order to rectify these problems, many works on the integration of mixed transition metal oxides (MTMOs) with graphene have been reported. For instance, Thiagarajan et al. reported the fabrication of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>/graphene oxide nanocomposite by coprecipitation method and the specific capacitance obtained was 547 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 5 mVs<sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup>[285]. In addition, Kumar et al. revealed the hydrothermal synthesis of  $Ni_3V_2O_8$ nanosheet arrays on laminated reduced graphene oxide sheet and it exhibited a specific capacitance of 170 Cg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>[29]. The uniform distribution of MTMO on the reduced graphene oxide hinders the graphene from restacking and hence provides synergistic advantages[18]. However, according to the reported literatures, the common practice to synthesise reduced graphene oxide was through modified Hummers method followed by a chemical reduction process. This method is not eco-friendly, noxious to the researchers and also deteriorates the quality of graphene[290]. This is mainly attributed to the adoption of hazardous chemicals in the process, such as sulphuric acid, hydrazine and potassium permanganate, which normally are strong oxidising / reducing agents[291].

Motivated by the aforementioned benefits of nanostructure and graphene composite, a facile solvothermal approach was proposed to fabricate graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite. The graphene was synthesised through a top down approach by direct liquid phase exfoliation of highly pyrolytic graphite flakes (HOPG) in an optimum ratio of ethanol and water under ultrasonication, as reported in our previous works[24, 36, 129, 277]. In particular, this method involves the use of ethanol as the exfoliating solvent, which is feasible, safe, green and cost- effective. The well-exfoliated graphene was then integrated with the Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> precursors to form graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite through solvothermal technique followed by a thermal annealing process. Additionally, graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites with different weight ratios were synthesised to determine the synergistic effect between graphene and Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>. Meanwhile, the surface morphology, crystalline structure and electrochemical performance of the nanocomposites were evaluated comprehensively.

### **4.2 Experimental methods**

# 4.2.1 Synthesis of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite

The Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>/graphene nanohybrid was synthesised via solvothermal approach. The as-synthesised graphene was dispersed in 40 mL deionized water and ethanol mixture with the volume ratio of 3:2 under ultrasonication for 30 minutes. Subsequently, 3.38 mmol of Ni(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> and 2.24 mmol of Na<sub>3</sub>VO<sub>4</sub> were dissolved in 40 mL deionized water to form the Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> precursor. After that, the welldispersed graphene solution was added to the Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> solution under mild stirring at room temperature to ensure homogeneity. Then, the solution was transferred into a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave and heated at 120 °C for 3 hours in a furnace. The reaction involved is as follows (Equation 4.1)[32]:

$$3\mathrm{Ni}(\mathrm{NO}_3)_2 + 2\mathrm{Na}_3\mathrm{VO}_4 \leftrightarrow \mathrm{Ni}_3\mathrm{V}_2\mathrm{O}_8 + 6\mathrm{Na}\mathrm{NO}_3 \tag{4.1}$$

Once the reaction completed, the resultant precipitate was collected and washed with absolute ethanol and deionised water thoroughly. Finally, the sample was dried in an oven at 60 °C overnight and calcined at 400 °C for 2 hours to obtain the graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite. Pristine Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoparticle was synthesised in the analogous manner without the addition of graphene. The synthetic process of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>/graphene nanocomposite is depicted in Figure 4.1.



Figure 4.1: Schematic illustration on the synthetic route of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite.

To elucidate the effect of weight ratio of graphene to  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  on the morphology and electrochemical performance of the nanocomposite, different graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanohybrids were synthesised by varying the amount of  $Ni_3V_2O_8$ precursors under the same reaction condition. The detailed formulation of  $Ni_3V_2O_8$ precursor was depicted in Table 4.1.

Sample	Weight of	Weight of	Weight of	Graphene:Ni <sub>3</sub> V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub>
Code	graphene (g)	$Ni(NO_3)_2(g)$	$Na_3VO_4(g)$	(Weight ratio)
G-NVO	0.2	0.492	0.206	1:1
G-2NVO	0.2	0.984	0.412	1:2
G-4NVO	0.2	1.968	0.824	1:4
G-8NVO	0.2	3.936	1.648	1:8

Table 4.1: Weight Ratio of graphene to  $Ni_3V_2O_8$ .

# 4.3 Results and discussion

### 4.3.1 Structural characterisation

The crystallographic phases of graphene/Ni $_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites, pristine Ni $_3V_2O_8$  and exfoliated graphene were examined by XRD analysis and illustrated in Figure 4.2.



Figure 4.2: XRD patterns of pristine graphene, Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites.

As observed from Figure 4.2, the diffraction peaks of the graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanohybrids at 2 theta values of  $35.8^{\circ}$ ,  $44.0^{\circ}$  and  $63.3^{\circ}$  were well indexed to the

(122), (042) and (442) reflections of orthorhombic Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> phases (JCPDS card no. 74-1484) together with the crystal lattice parameters of a=8.24 Å, b= 11.38 Å and c=5.91 Å. Besides, two diffraction peaks at 2 Theta values of 26.8 and 54.9° of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites are in accordance with those reported (002) and (004) of graphene phases, revealing the existence of graphene in the nanocomposites[24]. No additional peaks in the XRD patterns of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites indicate the high purity of the samples. In addition, it is noticeable that the intensity of the orthorhombic Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> phases in the diffraction peaks of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites increased with the mass loading of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> reactants, which tally with the findings reported in the literatures[24, 28].

Raman spectroscopy is an effective and non-destructive analytical technique in determining the chemical composition of the carbonaceous material owing to its high vibrational intensities[37, 80, 292]. Figure 4.3 depicts the Raman spectra of pristine graphene and graphene-Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite (G-4NVO).



Figure 4.3: Raman spectra of pristine graphene and G-4NVO nanocomposite.

Typically, the Raman maximum at 1360, 1582 and 2726 cm<sup>-1</sup> are correlated to the D, G and 2D bands of the graphene sample respectively. The appearance of G band is attributed to the first order scattering of  $E_{2g}$  phonons of the  $C_{sp}^2$  atoms, whereas the formation of D and 2D bands are originated from the breathing mode of K-point phonons of A<sub>1g</sub> symmetry (disorder)[28, 80, 129, 261, 293]. In addition, the D band also corresponds to the development of new edges (defects) during the liquid phase exfoliation of graphite to graphene sheet [24, 294, 295]. Besides, the bands at 358 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 820 cm<sup>-1</sup> of G-4NVO are congruent with the pristine Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> while the bands at 1570 and 2726 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicate the presence of graphene in the G-4NVO nanocomposite[195]. In particular, the peaks at 358 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 820 cm<sup>-1</sup> are assigned to the bending vibrations of V-O-V bonds and symmetric stretching mode of V-O bonds respectively [29, 195, 296]. It is worth noting that the D band of graphene vanished in the Raman spectrum of G-4NVO nanocomposite. This phenomenon can be well explicated by the fourfold increase in mass loading of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> precursors as compared to graphene in G-4NVO nanocomposite, leading to prominent  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  peaks. Other than that, it is apparently observed in Figure 4.3 that the G band of G-4NVO nanocomposite down shifted slightly as compared to that of pristine graphene, suggesting the strong interaction between Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and graphene[80]. The Raman results clearly revealed the successful formation of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite (G-4NVO), which tally with the XRD results.

Figure 4.4 illustrated the size, surface morphology and microstructure of pristine graphene, Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoparticles and graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanohybrids (G-NVO, G-2NVO, G-4NVO and G-8NVO).



Figure 4.4: FE-SEM images of: (a) pristine graphene sheet, (b)  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanoparticles, (c) G-NVO, (d) G-2NVO, (e) G-4NVO and (f) G-8NVO nanocomposites.

Both the graphene sheet (Figure 4.4a) and distinct  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanoparticles (Figure 4.4b) could be observed in Figures 4.4 (c to f), suggesting that fine  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanoparticles were successfully anchored on the surface of the graphene sheet. Here, the graphene sheet served as a substrate while the  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanoparticles embedded on graphene sheet act as spacer which hinder the restacking of the graphene sheets[41, 189]. Besides, the presence of graphene augmented the electrical conductivity of the graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites and shortened the electrolyte ion diffusion pathway, which led to a fast surface reversible reaction[41].

The respective sheetlike and nanoparticle structural characteristics of graphene and  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  were perfectly preserved in the nanocomposite, revealing the robust structure of the graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite[6, 189]. Other than that, it can be perceived from Figures 4.4 (c to d) that the surface decoration for samples G-NVO and G-2NVO was not uniform, whereas for G-4NVO (Figure 4.4e), the  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanoparticles were fully embedded on the surface of the graphene sheet. The morphological disparity was due to the variation in mass loading of the  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  precursors. When the weight ratio of graphene to  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  precursors were 1:1 and 1:2 in samples G-NVO and G-2NVO respectively, the quantity of nanoparticles was inadequate to cover the whole graphene sheet. As the weight ratio was increased to 1:4 (G-4NVO), appreciable amounts of precursors were available and sufficient for perfect surface coverage of the whole graphene sheet. Nonetheless, agglomerations of nanoparticles could be observed in Figure 4.4f when the weight ratio was increased further to 1:8 in sample G-8NVO. All the SEM results obtained were in accordance with the findings reported in the literatures [24, 279].

Besides, the morphology of the graphene/Ni $_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite (G-4NVO) was further examined by TEM and high resolution TEM (HRTEM) and the results are revealed in Figure 4.5.



Figure 4.5: (a) TEM, (b) HRTEM images of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite (G-4NVO).

As delineated in Figure 4.5a,  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanoparticles were homogeneously dispersed and well decorated on the surface of the graphene sheet. This nanostructure can shorten the electrons and ion diffusion pathway, accommodate the volume variation upon the continuous charge-discharge process and provide adequate electroactive sites between the electrode and electrolyte, leading to advanced electrochemical performance[18]. Moreover, the clear lattice fringes with interplanar spacing of 0.25 nm was noticed from Figure 4.5b, which corresponds to the (122) plane of orthorhombic nickel vanadate and this is consistent with the XRD results[32, 197]. The random orientation of lattice fringes in Figure 4.5b confirmed the polycrystalline nature of the as-synthesised graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite (G-4NVO).

The energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) spectrum of G-4NVO is demonstrated in Figure 4.6, where the microanalysis validated that merely Ni, V, O, C elements were presented in the as-prepared graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite and this is in accordance with the XRD test.



Figure 4.6: EDS spectrum of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite (G-4NVO).

Table 4.2: Atomic ratio of C, O, Ni, V elements in G-4NVO nanocomposite.

Element	Weight(%)	Atomic(%)
С	80.47	87.45
0	13.71	11.19
V	2.10	0.54
Ni	3.71	0.83
Totals	100	

Besides, the atomic ratio of Ni:V was approximately 1.54:1 as unveiled in Table 4.2, which corresponds to the stoichiometric ratio of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>. No other peaks were observed in Figure 4.6, further confirming the formation of high purity graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanohybrid. The element mapping analysis of Ni, V, O, C from G-4NVO nanocomposite was depicted in Figures 4.7, which proved the even distribution of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoparticles on the surface of graphene sheet and this result is congruent with the SEM analysis (Figure 4.4e).



Figure 4.7: C, O, V and Ni elemental mapping analysis of G-4NVO nanocomposite.

### **4.3.2 Electrochemical Performance**

In order to evaluate the energy storage ability of the nanocomposites, the asfabricated electrodes were analysed using CV, galvanostatic charge-discharge and EIS measurements in 2M KOH electrolyte. Figure 4.8a delineates the cyclic voltammetry profiles of NVO, G-NVO, G-2NVO, G-4NVO and G-8NVO nanocomposite electrodes at a scan rate of 50 mVs<sup>-1</sup> and potential ranging from -1 to 1 V.



Figure 4.8: Cyclic voltammograms curves of (a)  $Ni_3V_2O_8$ , G-NVO, G-2NVO, G-4NVO and G-8NVO nanocomposites b) G-4NVO at different scan rates (25, 50, 100 mVs<sup>-1</sup>).

Here, the principal objective of employing the positive and negative potential bias mode is to demonstrate the symmetrical nature of the electrodes in the two electrode system[197]. It is remarkable that the CV curves of the graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites exhibited a pair of redox peaks, signifying the pseodocapacitive nature of the electrode materials, which is further substantiated by the non-ideal rectangular shape[42, 297]. The anodic and cathodic peaks were found to be located at 0.3 and -0.3 V respectively (Figure 4.8a), which could be ascribed to the reversible reaction of Ni<sup>2+</sup>/Ni<sup>3+</sup> and mediation of the hydroxide ion (OH<sup>-</sup>) in the alkaline electrolyte[32, 298]. The pertinent Faradaic redox reaction is expressed as follows:

$$Ni^{2+} \leftrightarrow Ni^{3+} + \overline{e}$$
 (4.2)

However, the redox peaks were not prominent in the CV profile of pristine  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  (NVO). Therefore, it can be speculated that the incorporation of graphene into  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  will promote the fast electron diffusion and hence contribute to the strong redox feature of  $Ni^{2+}/Ni^{3+}[25, 299]$ . Besides, the as-prepared graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  based electrodes revealed larger integrated area and specific current as compared to

the sole Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, leading to the augmented capacitive performance. This can be ascribed to the synergistic effects between the double layer capacitance and pseudocapacitance of the nanocomposites[24, 300], where graphene not only provides enormous surface area, improves the electrical conductivity and structural tenacity of the nanocomposite, but also ensures the effective redox reactions at the electrode-electrolyte interface[33]. Additionally, unambiguous difference in the integrated area between the graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites can be observed (G-4NVO>G-2NVO>G-8NVO>G-NVO>NVO), suggesting that the specific capacitance of the electrode was significantly influenced by the amount of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> anchored on the graphene sheet. Moreover, homogenous distribution of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoparticles on the surface of graphene sheet in G-4NVO ensured fully utilisation of nickel vanadate in the redox reaction and hence ameliorated the charge storage performance[18].

Figure 4.8b manifests the cyclic voltammograms of G-4NVO at different scan rates (25, 50, 100 mVs<sup>-1</sup>). The variation in the shape of CV curves was not noticeable, implying the high electrochemical reactivity of the active material[301]. Other than that, the increased in the peak current with the scan rate indicated the rapid kinetics of interfacial Faradaic redox reaction and fast electrons and ions transportation [189, 302]. Furthermore, the anodic and cathodic peaks shifted towards positive and negative manner, respectively as the scan rate increased. This is mainly attributed to the reversible reaction and the enhanced electrical polarisation, where the limited ion diffusion during the reaction leads to unsatisfactory electronic neutralisation [33, 303].

To further investigate the electrochemical performance of the electrode materials, the galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) measurement was performed at a constant current density of  $0.5 \text{ Ag}^{-1}$  and a potential window of 0 to 1 V. The results are depicted in Figure 4.9a.



Figure 4.9: Charge-discharge curve of (a) Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, G-NVO, G-2NVO, G-4NVO and G-8NVO nanocomposites. b) G-4NVO at different current densities.

Here, non-linearity of charge-discharge profiles were observed, which originated from the pseudocapacitive nature of  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  with the occurrence of Faradaic redox reactions at the electrode/electrolyte interface[25, 304, 305], and this is in accordance with the CV results. Besides, the charge-discharge curves of the electrode materials were nearly symmetrical, revealing its superior electrochemical reversibility[284]. Nevertheless, the internal resistance drop (IR drop) appeared in the CD curves of all electrode materials, which could be attributed to the current of bulk electrode[18]. From Figure 4.9a, G-4NVO demonstrated the longest discharge time among all the samples, implying its eminent charge storage capability since the longer the discharge time, the higher the specific capacitance. The specific capacitances of all the electrode materials were calculated from the gradient of the CD curves by using equation 3.1[298, 306, 307].

The calculated specific capacitances of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, G-NVO, G-2NVO, G-4NVO and G-8NVO nanocomposites were 188, 236, 322, 368 and 276 Fg<sup>-1</sup> respectively at a current density of 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. It is interesting to note that the specific capacitance increased as the mass loading of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> precursors was increased to 1:4, whereas further increased beyond 1:4 resulted in the declined specific capacitance owing to the occurrence of agglomeration, which is substantiated by the SEM result. The capacitive performance of the electrode is comparable to those reported in literatures[29, 285].

Figure 4.9b delineates the charge-discharge curves of G-4NVO nanocomposite at current densities of 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 1.0 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and a potential window of 0 to 1 V. Likewise, all the charge -discharge curves were nearly symmetrical at different current densities, suggesting the superior reversibility of the electrode material. Moreover, the specific capacitances of G-4NVO at different current densities were calculated from the slope of the GCD curves (Figure 4.9b) using equation 3.1 and the results are depicted in Figure 4.10.



Figure 4.10: Specific capacitance (Fg<sup>-1</sup>) of G-4NVO at different current densities.

Based on Figure 4.10, the specific capacitance of G-4NVO attenuated as the current density increased. This phenomenon could be ascribed to the slow diffusion of electrolyte ions (OH<sup>-</sup>) through the electrode and insufficient time for complete electrochemical reaction at high current density. This led to limited active sites available for charge storage and thus deteriorated the specific capacitance[18, 25, 298, 308]. The calculated specific capacitances of G-4NVO were 368, 341, 325, 314 and 296 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8 and 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, manifesting its good rate capability as an appealing electrode material for supercapacitor.

Furthermore, the cycling stability and coulombic efficiency ( $\eta$ ) of the G-4NVO nanocomposite were demonstrated in Figure 4.11.



Figure 4.11: Cycling stability test and Coulombic efficiency of G-4NVO nanocomposite up to 3000 cycles.

The long term cycling test of the assembled symmetric hybrid supercapacitor was performed at a current density of  $1 \text{ Ag}^{-1}$  within a potential window of 0 to 1 V up to 3000 cycles. It can be observed that the specific capacitance decreased gradually in the first 1500 cycles and became stable up to 3000 cycles. This is due to the degradation of the active electrode material and poor interfacial contact between the electrode and the electrolyte upon the charge-discharge process[24, 234, 309,

310]. Eventually, 92 % of initial specific capacitance was retained after 3000 cycles, delineating the excellent cycling stability of G-4NVO nanocomposite. This could be assigned to its peculiar nanostructure where the incorporation of graphene not only ameliorated the conductivity of the nanocomposite, but also served as a buffering matrix to accommodate the large volume expansion during the continuous charge-discharge process[25, 59].

Furthermore, the coulombic efficiency,  $\eta$  of the G-4NVO electrode material after the cycling test was calculated by using equation 3.2. Based on Figure 4.11, the initial coulombic efficiency of G-4NVO nanocomposite was 95 % and it increased gradually upon cycling. Finally, the coulombic efficiency achieved nearly 100 % after the continuous charge-discharge process (3000 cycles), further signifying the high reversibility of the electrochemical reaction.

Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy analysis (Nyquist plot) was performed to study the interfacial behaviour of the supercapacitor and to determine the parameter influencing the performance of an active electrode material[18, 25]. The Nyquist plot of pristine  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  and graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites was illustrated in Figure 4.12.



Figure 4.12: Nyquist plot of pristine Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, G-NVO, G-2NVO, G-4NVO and G-8NVO nanocomposites.

The Nyquist plot can be divided into two regions: a semicircle in the high frequency region and a linear line in the low frequency region. The radius of the semicircle represents the charge-transfer resistance ( $R_{cl}$ ) which is resulted from the Faradaic redox reaction of electrode material and the double layer capacitance on the interface between electrode and electrolyte. Meanwhile, the linear line in the low frequency region denotes the Warburg Impedance (W), which gives an insight into the kinetics of ion diffusion process. Besides, the x-intercept in the Nyquist plot is the solution resistance, which combines the ionic resistance of the electrolyte, intrinsic resistance of electrode material and contact resistance at the electrode/electrolyte interface[244, 311]. As unveiled in Figure 4.12, the Nyquist plot of pristine Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites based electrodes demonstrated a semicircle region and a linear line. The R<sub>ct</sub> values calculated from the semicircle were found to be 3.640, 3.407, 2.801, 2.634 and 2.948  $\Omega$  for sole Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, G-NVO, G-2NVO, G-4NVO and G-8NVO, respectively. It is noticeable

that G-4NVO had the lowest charge transfer resistance as compared to pure  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  (NVO) and other graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites. The lower  $R_{ct}$  values were mainly attributed to the presence of graphene, which improved the electrical conductivity of the graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites and these results are congruent with the CV and GCD analysis[18]. Moreover, the straight line of graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites in the low frequency region were more vertical than the pure  $Ni_3V_2O_8$ , implying that the integration of graphene allowed the effective accessibility of the OH<sup>-</sup> ions to the surface or in the bulk of the electrode material and shortened the ions and electrons migration pathway[18].

To further evaluate the electrochemical performance of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites, a Ragone plot of energy and power densities was demonstrated in Figure 4.13. The energy and power densities were calculated from the CD curves at 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup> using equations 3.3 and 3.4[25].



Figure 4.13: Ragone plot (Comparison of G-4NVO nanocomposite with other selected electrode materials).

Generally, a promising supercapacitor should have high energy and power densities at high charge-discharge rate[25]. Impressively, G-4NVO electrode possessed an energy density of 51 Wh/kg at a power density of 920 W/kg, which outperformed other graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> electrodes and multifarious reported metal oxides[312-316].

In short, the excellent electrochemical performance of the as-prepared electrode could be ascribed to the following factors: i) The uniform distribution of Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoparticles on graphene could effectively impede the restacking of graphene sheet, which ensured fully utilisation of the electroactive component (Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>) and provided abundant electroactive sites for interaction with OH<sup>-</sup> ions[80]. ii) The intimate contact between the graphene sheet and Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoparticles improved the electrical conductivity of the nanocomposites and hence resulted in rapid electron transfer and high specific capacitance [25, 38]. iii) The exfoliated structure of graphene sheet synthesised by the facile and green approach could be well preserved, which in turn contributed to the advanced electrochemical performance[24]. iv) Integration of graphene sheet with Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoparticles enlarged the specific surface area of the nanocomposites and curtailed the electrons and ions migration pathway [242]. v) The synergistic effect between the  $Ni_3V_2O_8$ nanoparticles and graphene sheet ameliorated the stability and durability of the nanocomposites for electrochemical applications since the presence of graphene can accommodate the volume variation during the continuous charge discharge process[41].

### 4.4 Summary

In summary, pristine  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  and graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites have been successfully synthesised through a facile and green solvothermal technique, followed by a calcination process. The experimental results revealed that the structural and electrochemical properties varied significantly with the weight ratio of graphene to  $Ni_3V_2O_8$ . When the graphene to  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  ratio was 1:4 (G-4NVO),  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanoparticles were evenly decorated on the graphene sheet, contributing to barrier free contact and enhanced electrochemical performance. Besides, the G-4NVO electrode material manifested the highest specific capacitance of 368 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at a current density of 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup> among all the nanocomposites. Moreover, G-4NVO possessed excellent cycling stability with 92 % capacitance retention and coulombic efficiency of nearly 100 % after 3000 charge-discharge cycles at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. The eminent electrochemical performance of graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite suggests it as a promising electrode material for supercapacitors and other energy storage devices.

# Chapter 5: A facile synthesis of graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites and their enhanced charge storage performance in electrochemical capacitors

## 5.1 Introduction

Mixed transition metal oxides (MTMO) like metal molybdate, metal cobaltite, metal tungstate, metal vanadate and etcetera have been developed as the Faradaic electrode since their diverse oxidation states allow reversible redox reaction. Cobalt vanadate is recognised as one of the potential electroactive materials due to its low toxicity, cost-effectiveness and remarkable charge storage activity as a result of the integration of Co<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (significant contribution to specific capacitance) and multiple polymorphism of  $V_2O_5[252, 317]$ . So far, limited studies have been attempted to configure it into an active electrode material for supercapacitors. As an example, Liu and his co-workers[6] synthesised the Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoparticles via the hydrothermal approach which delivered a value of 505 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (three electrode system) specific capacitance at 0.625 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. In addition, Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> 3D porous nanoroses were fabricated by Zhang et.al[190] through the solvothermal method. The 3D porous nanoroses displayed a specific capacitance of 371.3 Fg<sup>-1</sup> when the electrode is analysed under a current density of 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup> in three electrode configuration. However, Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> suffers from low specific capacitance, short shelf life and inferior rate capability due to the serious volume variation during cycling analysis, which hinders its practical application [42, 318]. As a result, integration of Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> with carbonaceous material appears as one of the promising solutions to rectify this conundrum in which the electrical conductivity of the nanohybrid could be significantly improved.

Particularly, graphene is a potential matrix for the deposition of MTMO owing to its inimitable properties which comprise good electrochemical stability, huge specific surface area, high structural tenacity, excellent electrical conductivity and superior mechanical properties[318-320]. Nevertheless, the restacking or aggregation of pure graphene sheet unavoidably enhances the ion diffusion resistances which contributes to the poor capacitive performance. In this context, integration of graphene with MTMO is perceived as a promising solution to this problem, for instance, the MTMO serves as a spacer which can inhibit the aggregation of the graphene sheet.

Based on the above considerations, this chapter presents the graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils nanocomposites produced by using solvothermal method and then was utilised as the main active electrode material for symmetric supercapacitor. To the extent of our knowledge, this is the first work reported the utilisation of graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanohybrid as an electrode material for advanced supercapacitor system. Furthermore, the inference of mass loading of Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> on the electrochemical performance of nanocomposite was investigated by preparing different mass ratios of graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanomaterials.

### **5.2 Experimental section**

### 5.2.1 Fabrication of graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils nanocomposites

To fabricate the graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites, solvothermal technique was applied and the entire procedure is delineated in Figure 5.1.



Figure 5.1: Formation process of graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils nanocomposites.

Firstly, NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub> (0.02 mol) was dissolved into a 170 mL deionised water at 80 °C under vigorous stirring to obtain a transparent light green colour solution. Then, a reddish brown solution was obtained after mixing LiOH (0.02mol) and CoCl<sub>2</sub>.6H<sub>2</sub>O (0.004 mol) with the solution. In the next step, the graphene suspension was slowly added to the aforementioned mixed solution and kept agitating for half an hour to reach homogeneity. The resulting mixture was then transferred into a 200 ml Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave and heated at 200 °C for 16 hours. After that, the as-synthesised precipitates were collected, cleaned thoroughly with ethanol-water solution, dried at 80 °C in the hot air oven for 6 hours and annealed at 500 °C for 4 hours to obtain the graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils nanomaterial. Pure Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> was fabricated in the same experimental pathway without graphene. For comparison, variation in quantity of graphene in the nanocomposites was conducted to investigate the impact of mass ratio on the structural and energy storage capability of the nanocomposites. The detailed graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite formulation was manifested in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Mass ratio of graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils nanocomposites.

Sample	Mass of graphene	Mass of Co <sub>3</sub> V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	Graphene:Co <sub>3</sub> V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub> (Mass
Code	<b>(g)</b>	<b>(g)</b>	ratio)
G-CVO	0.350	0.350	1:1
G-2CVO	0.175	0.350	1:2
G-4CVO	0.090	0.350	1:4
G-6CVO	0.060	0.350	1:6

### 5.3 Results and discussion

# 5.3.1 Phase and Morphological Study

In order to provide an insight on the crystallographic data and phase composition of the as-prepared samples, XRD analysis was performed. Figure 5.2 demonstrates the XRD spectra of graphene,  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils and graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanohybrids.



Figure 5.2: XRD patterns of graphene,  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils and graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites, (b) Raman spectra of the graphene and G-4CVO nanocomposite.

The graphene nanosheet exhibited two broad peaks at 26.8° and 54.9°, which correspond to the (002) and (004) crystal planes of graphene and this is in accordance with our previous reports[28, 263]. From the diffraction spectrum of graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites, the distinctive peaks (except two typical peaks originated from graphene) of the cubic crystal structure of Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> (JCPDS No. 16-0675) were located at 30.0°, 35.6°, 43.7°, 57.8° and 63.2°, where these peaks could be assigned to the (220), (311), (400), (511) and (440) reflection planes, respectively[262, 321]. In addition, the samples are highly crystalline as indicated by the sharp diffraction peaks, reflecting its stable crystallographic structures. The highly stable structures might enhance the electrochemical stability by alleviating the volume variation during the continuous intercalation-deintercalation process[322]. These results reveal the graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> hybrid nanomaterials comprised of cubic Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils and graphene nanosheets were successfully synthesised.

Raman spectroscopy has also been applied to determine the degree of graphitisation and bonding modalities between the elements of pristine graphene and G-4CVO nanomaterial (Figure 5.3).



Figure 5.3: Raman spectra of the graphene and G-4CVO nanocomposite.

From the Raman analysis of G-4CVO, the prominent bands of graphene, namely D, G and 2D bands are located at 1360, 1582 and 2726 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The G band corresponds to the in-plane bond stretching motion of C sp<sup>2</sup> atoms, while D and 2D bands represent the disorder or defective graphitic structure[250, 322]. Besides, two peaks at around 335 and 810 cm<sup>-1</sup> are observed, which can be correlated to the Raman spectra of  $Co_3V_2O_8[323]$ . The bands at 335 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 810 cm<sup>-1</sup> are correlated with the asymmetric stretching vibration of V-O bonds, respectively[262, 263, 322]. These results further affirm the successful synthesis of graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites. In addition, a redshift of G band can be noticed in the Raman spectra of G-4CVO, implying the intimate interaction between graphene and  $Co_3V_2O_8[80]$ .

In order to determine the surface morphological structure of graphene, sole  $Co_3V_2O_8$  and graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites, FESEM was conducted and the outcomes are portrayed in Figure 5.4.



Figure 5.4: FESEM micrographs of (a) graphene, (b) pure  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils, (c) G-CVO, (d) G-2CVO, (e) G-4CVO and (f) G-6CVO.

From Figure 5.4b, it can be noticed that  $Co_3V_2O_8$  possess an exterior geometry of short pencil-like structure with hexagonal prism and these  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils have a consistent microscale size distribution of approximately 3 µm in length and 5 µm in height[262, 321]. Besides, both the graphene sheet (Figure 5.4a) and 3D skeletal configuration of  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils (Figure 5.4b) are discernible in Figure 5.4(c to f), implying the successful decoration of  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils onto the surface of graphene to form hybrid nanocomposites. Such novel nanoarchitectures could effectively sustain the volume variation within the lattice of active materials during the inter/de-intercalation cycles due to their improved structural strength and tenacity[324]. In addition to enlarging the effective surface area of the nanostructure, the graphene nanomaterial also serves as a conductive scaffold to facilitate the ions and charges migration [27, 325]. The morphological disparities of the graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites with a variation of mass loadings are indicated in Figure 5.4 (c to f). In contrast to G-CVO and G-2CVO, G-4CVO manifested an evenly distribution of  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils on the surface of graphene as a result of sufficient quantity of  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils available to perfectly cover the whole surface of graphene and this configuration is believed to contribute significantly towards the enhancement of electrochemical activity. However, excessive mass loading of precursors in G-6CVO (Figure 5.4f) resulted in structural agglomeration, which inevitably reduce the homogeneity and active sites of the nanocomposite, leading to inferior capacitive performance.

Furthermore, TEM was conducted to further determine the morphology of the G-4CVO (Figure 5.5).



Figure 5.5: TEM image of G-4CVO nanocomposite.

It is noteworthy that graphene sheets do not stack together and high density of  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils can be observed on the graphene surface, which is congruent with the SEM results (Figure 5.4e). In addition, the EDS analysis of the as-prepared G-4CVO nanocomposite has been conducted and the results are depicted in Figure 5.6a.



Figure 5.6: (a) EDS of G-4CVO nanocomposite, (b) Elemental mapping analysis of V, Co, O, and C in G-4CVO nanocomposite.

The peaks in the EDS spectrum can be ascribed to the C, Co, V and O elements, validating their contribution in the as-synthesised nanocomposite (G-4CVO). No other peaks were observed in the EDS analysis, further verifying the purity of the nanomaterial. Meanwhile, the EDS mapping analysis of G-4CVO (Figure 5.6b)

shows the even scattering of the Co, V, O and C elements, which further advocates the homogenous dispersion of  $Co_3V_2O_8$  on the graphene surface.

Table 5.2: Atomic ratios of C, O, V and Co elements in G-4CVO nanocomposite.

Element	Weight (%)	Atomic (%)
С	24.64	47.64
0	20.27	29.43
V	19.83	9.04
Со	35.25	13.89
Total	100	

The atomic ratio of Co:V in Table 5.2 was approximately 1.54:1, which coincides with the stoichiometric ratio of  $Co_3V_2O_8$ .

The XPS spectrum of G-4CVO is delineated in Figure 5.7 to give an insight on the chemical composition and the oxidation states of graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  sample.



Figure 5.7: XPS spectra of G-4CVO: (a) Full survey spectra, (b) Co 2p, (c) V 2p, (d) O 1s and (e) C 1s.

Four distinctive peaks assigning to the C 1s, O 1s, Co 2p and V 2p are evident from the wide-scan XPS survey spectrum of G-4CVO (Figure 5.7a), testifying the presence of these elements in G-4CVO nanocomposites. From Figure 5.7b, a doublet centred at 780 and 795 eV can be assigned to the spin orbit coupling levels of Co  $2p_{3/2}$  and Co  $2p_{1/2}$ , respectively and accompanied by two prominent satellite peaks at 786.5 and 802.5 eV. Figure 5.7b further confirms the presence of 2 oxidation states of cobalt element:  $Co^{2+}(779.4 \text{ and } 795.8 \text{ eV})$  and  $Co^{3+}(782.8 \text{ and } 799.5 \text{ eV})[25, 192, 262, 326]$ . As for V element (Figure 5.7c), the peaks at *ca*. 515.6 and 523 eV can be assigned to the V  $2p_{3/2}$  and V  $2p_{1/2}$  of V<sup>5+</sup> states[190, 262]. Figure 5.7d depicts the O1s orbital spectrum, where the 2 resolved peaks at 529 and 531.7 eV can be described by the metal-oxygen bonds (Co-O and V-O bonding) and the adsorbed oxygen, respectively[25, 185, 186, 265]. In addition, the high resolution C 1s spectrum (Figure 5.7e) can be de-convoluted into 3 fittings peaks: 284.8, 285 eV (C=C/C-C carbon species) and 282.8 eV (carbidic Co-C bonds) [25, 327, 328].

## 5.3.2 Electrochemical measurement

The charge storage performances of the nanocomposites were assessed by performing the cyclic voltammetry analysis (CV), galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) tests. The CV curves of the pristine  $Co_3V_2O_8$  and graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites in the potential ranging from -1 to 1V with the scanning rate of 5 mVs<sup>-1</sup> are delineated in Figure 5.8a.



Figure 5.8: CV analysis of (a) pure  $Co_3V_2O_8$ , G-CVO, G-2CVO, G-4CVO and G-6CVO nanocomposites at scan rate of 50 mVs<sup>-1</sup>. (b) G-4CVO at scan rates of 25, 50 and 100 mVs<sup>-1</sup>.

It is worth noting that two pairs of didymous anodic and cathodic peaks are visible in each voltammogram, implying the electrode materials are strongly pseudocapacitive in nature[34, 190]. Notably, the redox reactions of  $\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{3+}$  with the OH<sup>-</sup> ions is reversible and hence contributed to these didymous redox peaks and its corresponding Faradaic electrochemical reactions are described in Equations (5.1) to (5.4)[34, 329]:

$$\mathcal{C}o^{2+} \leftrightarrow \mathcal{C}o^{3+} + e^{-} \tag{5.1}$$

$$Co^{2+} + 2OH^- \to Co(OH)_2 \tag{5.2}$$

$$Co(OH)_2 + OH^- \leftrightarrow CoOOH + H_2O + e^-$$
(5.3)

$$CoOOH + OH^- \leftrightarrow CoO_2 + H_2O + e^- \tag{5.4}$$

Besides, the curves of the anode and cathode are almost symmetrical, reflecting its superior reversibility and close-to-ideal capacitive behaviour. The enhanced charge storage ability of the graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites is reflected by their larger integrated area of the CV loop as compared to that of the pure Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> electrode. This can be elucidated by the positive interaction between graphene and Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils which resulted in rapid ions and electrons transportation[326]. Moreover, the presence of graphene provides an abundant exposed surface area for ions adsorption, leading to effective Faradaic redox reaction[330, 331]. From Figure 5.8a, the integrated area under of the CV curves of nanocomposites was ranked in the following order: G-4CVO>G-2CVO>G-6CVO>G-CVO, suggesting that the amount of Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> anchoring on the surface of graphene nanomaterial has a substantial effect on the capacitive performance of the electrode material [265].
Figure 5.8b manifests the CV curves of G-4CVO obtained at various scan rates (25, 50 and 100 mVs<sup>-1</sup>). The outstanding rate capability and rapid electrochemical response of G-4CVO was indicated by the unaltered CV curves at a wide range of potential sweep rates[332, 333]. Additionally, the increased peak current at higher scan rate indicates a steerable ion transportation process with rapid interfacial kinetics[34, 326]. It is noticeable from Figure 5.8b that the increment in the scan rate resulted in the shifting of redox peaks. For instance, the anodic peak is shifted to a more positive direction while the cathodic peak moved to more negative potential. This phenomenon can be ascribed to the limited ions diffusion to attain electronic neutralisation during the reversible reaction at high scan rate[334].

In addition, the charge storage abilities of the as-prepared electrode materials were accessed by conducting galvanostatic charge-discharge analysis (GCD). Figure 5.9a illustrates the galvanostatic charge-discharge profiles of the nanocomposites obtained at the following conditions: working potential is ranging from 0 to 1 V at  $0.8 \text{ Ag}^{-1}$ .



Figure 5.9: GCD profiles of (a) pristine Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, G-CVO, G-2CVO, G-4CVO and G-6CVO nanocomposites at 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, (b) G-4CVO at 0.8, 0.9, 1, 1.1 and 1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>.

From Figure 5.9a, the good capacitive activity and excellent reversibility of the electrode materials can be advocated by the nearly symmetrical charge-discharge curves[326]. The non-linearity of these curves could be attributed to the pseudocapacitive nature of Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils and the occurrence of Faradaic redox reactions, which tally with the CV profiles[263]. It is noteworthy that G-4CVO possessed the longest discharge time as compared to pure Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and other nanocomposites, revealing its excellent charge storage performance. As for all the electrode materials, their specific capacitances were computed by equation 3.1. The specific capacitance of G-4CVO was about 275.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, which outperformed the pure Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> (128 Fg<sup>-1</sup>), G-CVO (179.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup>), G-2CVO (230.4  $Fg^{-1}$ ) and G-6CVO (204.8  $Fg^{-1}$ ). This can be attributed to the inimitable nanoarchitecture of the nanocomposite and the effective hybridisation of ample Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils onto the surface of graphene sheets. Nonetheless, overloading of Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils in G-6CVO results in the deterioration on the specific capacitance. This can be ascribed to the agglomeration of the nanocomposite, leading to the loss of exposure active sites[265, 331].

Figure 5.9b demonstrates the charge-discharge profiles of G-4CVO at different current densities of 0.8, 0.9, 1, 1.1 and 1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. From Figure 5.9b, the shortened discharge time at higher current density can be elucidated based on the ions transfer resistance and diffusion time. At high current density, the larger ions transfer resistance and limited diffusion time hinder the diffusion process of electrolyte ions from the surface of electrode material to its interior[334]. Besides, the specific capacitances of G-4CVO were calculated at different current densities and the outcomes are shown in Figure 5.10.



Figure 5.10: Specific capacitances of G-4CVO at current densities of 0.8, 0.9, 1, 1.1 and 1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>.

The calculated specific capacitances of G-4CVO at various current densities were as follows: 275.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>), 259.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (0.9 Ag<sup>-1</sup>), 240 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>), 220 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (1.1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>) and 216 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>). In addition, a capacitance retention of 78 % was achieved even when a high current density of 1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup> is used, indicating its good rate capability. This is owing to the positive interaction between graphene and  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils, large specific surface area and well preserved nanostructures[326, 332]. Furthermore, the cycling stability of the G-4CVO electrode was determined over 3000 cycles at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and the result is portrayed in Figure 5.11.



Figure 5.11: Cycling analysis (Blue) and Faraday efficiency (Pink) of G-4CVO electrode obtained after 3000 charge-discharge cycles.

After 3000 cycles of continuous GCD process, the specific capacitance of G-4CVO nanocomposite declined from 240 to 194.4 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (81% retention of its initial capacitance), implying its eminent electrochemical cycling stability. This exceptional cycle-ability is believed due to the strong interaction between the graphene sheet and Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils and the presence of Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> micro-pencils impede the graphene from restacking during the cycling analysis[332]. In addition, the graphene nanosheets (buffering scaffold) in G-4CVO nanocomposite alleviated the volume changes of the active material (expansion and contraction) during the continuous cyclic analysis, leading to eminent cycling stability [333]. Besides, the coulombic efficiency ( $\eta$ ) of the optimised electrode material (G-4CVO) over the charge discharge cycles was computed by equation 3.2 and the corresponding results are delineated in Figure 5.11. A coulombic efficiency of 98 %

was obtained after 3000 cycles, further confirming its good electrochemical reversibility[333].

EIS test was conducted to further evaluate the electrochemical properties of the asprepared electrode materials and the corresponding Nyquist plots of pure  $Co_3V_2O_8$ and graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites are plotted in Figure 5.12.



Figure 5.12: Nyquist plots of pristine  $Co_3V_2O_8$  and graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites in the symmetrical two-electrode system.

As seen from Figure 5.12, all the plots present a quasi-semicircle (denoted as charge transfer resistance,  $R_{ct}$ ) and oblique line (Warburg impedance) at high and low frequency regions, respectively. At high frequency region, the interception with the real x-axis is regarded as the solution resistance ( $R_s$ ), which is a combination of internal resistances of the electrode material, namely the electrolyte resistance as well as the contact resistance at the interfaces of electrode/electrolyte [311, 326]. Here, the  $R_s$  values ranging from 0.8 to 1.1  $\Omega$  were delivered by all the electrode materials, suggesting their low internal resistances and high conductivity of the electrolyte[42, 130]. Besides, the  $R_{ct}$  values of pure Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and

graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites were obtained in the following order: G-4CVO  $(1.25 \Omega) <$  G-2CVO  $(1.73 \Omega) <$  G-6CVO  $(2.11 \Omega) <$  G-CVO  $(2.38 \Omega) <$  CVO  $(4.22 \Omega)$ . As compared to the pure Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and other samples, the steeper the line of G-4CVO in the low frequency region is closer to the ideal behaviour of the supercapacitor, indicating its rapid kinetics of diffusion. Other than improving the electrical conductivity of the electrode material, the integration of graphene with Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> also shortens the charge transfer pathway, which in turn contributed to the lowest R<sub>ct</sub> value and enhanced electrochemical performance of G-4CVO[18].

The feasibility of the electrode materials for practical supercapacitor application can be evaluated based on two important criteria, namely the associated energy and power densities. A Ragone plot illustrating these two important characteristics of pure  $Co_3V_2O_8$  and graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites is depicted in Figure 5.13.



Figure 5.13: Ragone plot of pristine Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites.

It can be observed from Figure 5.13 that G-4CVO electrode outperformed pure  $Co_3V_2O_8$ , other combinations of graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites and

symmetric/asymmetric based supercapacitor reported in other studies[335-339], as indicated by its relatively high energy and power densities of 38.2 Wh/kg and 1420 W/kg, respectively. This suggests the capability of graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite based supercapacitor as a credible energy storage device.

There are several factors contributing to the superior energy storage ability of graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanomaterials: (i) The intimate contact between the graphene sheet and  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils guarantees an excellent electrical conductivity and shorten the ion diffusion pathway substantially, which beneficial for ions and charges transfer and acceleration of Faradaic redox reaction[340, 341]. (ii) The role of graphene sheet as a buffering matrix in alleviating the volume variation during the intercalation-deintercalation process[340]. (iii) The structure of the liquid phase exfoliated graphene nanosheets can be well preserved, leading to advanced supercapacitive performance[24]. (iv) Homogenous dispersion of  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micropencils on the surface of graphene sheets offers large accessible specific surface area for electrolyte ions, assuring the effective utilisation of the active materials[342].

#### 5.4 Summary

In summary,  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils were successfully decorated on the graphene nanosheets via solvothermal technique followed by annealing process. The FESEM and TEM analysis confirm the exfoliation of graphene sheet and it is uniformly coated with  $Co_3V_2O_8$  micro-pencils. Benefiting from the unique microstructure of  $Co_3V_2O_8$  and strong interactive effect between  $Co_3V_2O_8$  and graphene, the optimised graphene/ $Co_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite (G-4CVO) is holding a great potential as an effective electrode material for advanced supercapacitor system, as affirmed by its remarkable specific capacitance of 275.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at a current density of 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. Furthermore, the electrode material maintained 81 % of its charge storage capability after 3000 cycles, signifying its outstanding cycling stability. Additionally, G-4CVO delivered impressive energy and power densities (38.2 Wh/kg at 1420 W/kg). These eminent electrochemical properties suggested that graphene/Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite (electrode material) is promising for future supercapacitor applications.

# Chapter 6: Facile synthesis of graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites as a high performance electrode material for symmetric supercapacitor

# 6.1 Introduction

Zinc vanadate has been extensively investigated for their optical, photocatalytic and energy storage applications in lithium ion batteries. Nevertheless, only a few attempts have been made to utilise zinc vanadate for supercapacitor applications. For instance, Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoplatelets were successfully synthesised by Vijayakumar and his co-workers[23] via hydrothermal methods, which exhibited a maximum specific capacitance of 302 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (three electrode system) at a scan rate of 5mVs<sup>-1</sup>. Besides, Li et al. [185] fabricated the nanostructured Zn<sub>2</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> through microwaveassisted approach and it delivered a specific capacitance of 427.7Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 1 mAcm<sup>-2</sup> in three electrode configuration. Similar to other MTMOs, zinc vanadate also suffers from rapid capacitance fading at high current densities and inferior cycling stability. This can be explicated by the existence of large volume expansion originated from the deficient conversion  $(ZnO + 2Li^+ + 2e^- \leftrightarrow Zn + Li_2O)$ , alloying-dealloying reaction  $(Zn + xLi + xe^{-} \leftrightarrow Li_xZn)$ , sluggish ions diffusion as well as poor electrical conductivity of the electrode materials [343]. Hence, integration of zinc vanadate with carbonaceous material like graphene has emerged as a promising strategy to conquer the obstacles and develop an advanced performance supercapacitor electrode which couples the advantages of both EDLC and pseudocapacitors to attain excellent cycling stability, high energy and power densities. Graphene as a 2D allotrope of carbon with superior electrical conductivity, huge specific surface area, broad working voltage window, good chemical and thermal stabilities is recognised as an excellent conductive scaffold in the nanocomposite[28, 344, 345]. Nonetheless, the capacitances are substantially restrained by the agglomeration of graphene nanosheets. Thus, loading of MTMO onto the surface of graphene will impede the aggregation of graphene sheets, leading to enhanced electrochemical performance[52, 346].

Despite the capacitive activity of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  has been investigated, the hybridisation of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  with graphene as the active electrode material for supercapacitor applications has not been studied and published previously. Thus, we made an effort to develop the graphene/ $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites and determine their appropriateness for supercapacitor application based on their electrochemical properties. In this chapter, a facile solvothermal synthesis of graphene/ $Zn_3V_2O_8$ nanocomposites were reported. To further evaluate the synergistic effect between graphene sheet and  $Zn_3V_2O_8$ , different weight ratios of graphene/ $Zn_3V_2O_8$ nanomaterials were prepared and analysed comprehensively to optimise their electrochemical properties.

#### **6.2 Experimental methods**

#### 6.2.1 Synthesis of 2D Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> hexagonal nanosheets on graphene

The assembly of 2D  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal nanosheets on graphene was demonstrated in Figure 6.1.



Figure 6.1: Schematic illustration of the assembly of graphene-2D  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal nanosheets via solvothermal approach.

Here, a high reaction temperature of  $160^{\circ}$ C was adopted in the process to ensure complete formation of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal nanosheets since it is an endothermic process. Contrarily, reaction under low temperature will result in fragmented nanosheets[188].

The direct anchoring of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal nanosheets on the graphene sheet was assembled through one-pot solvothermal method followed by a calcination treatment. Firstly, 0.2 g of the as-produced graphene was dispersed in a 40 mL solution of ethanol and water with the volume ratio of 2:3 for 30 min. The yellow precursor solution was acquired by mixing 6 mmol of  $ZnCl_2$  and 4 mmol of NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub> into 40 mL of deionised water. After that, the well-dispersed graphene solution was mixed with the precursor solution under vigorous stirring to ensure homogeneity. Then, ethanolamine was added to adjust the pH of the entire solution to about 10. The final solution was transferred into a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave to enable a solvothermal process at 160 °C for 12 hours. The autoclave was allowed to cool to room temperature and the resulted precipitate was then collected and washed thoroughly with ethanol and water by centrifugation. Finally, the sample was dried in an oven at 80 °C overnight and calcined at 500 °C in air for 1 hour to obtain the graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite. The bare  $Zn_3V_2O_8$ hexagonal nanosheets were synthesised in the similar manner as above without the integration of graphene.

For comparison purpose, different weight ratios of graphene to  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  precursor were synthesised to determine the effects of weight ratio on the structural and electrochemical properties of the nanocomposite. The products were denoted as G-ZVO, G-1.5ZVO, G-3ZVO and G-6ZVO and the details of the  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  precursor solution were manifested in Table 6.1.

Name of	Weight of	Weight of	Weight of	Graphene-
composite	graphene (g)	$ZnCl_{2}(g)$	$NH_4VO_3(g)$	$Zn_3V_2O_8$
				(Weight ratio)
G-ZVO	0.2	0.409	0.234	1:1
G-1.5ZVO	0.2	0.613	0.351	1:1.5
G-3ZVO	0.2	1.227	0.702	1:3
G-6ZVO	0.2	2.453	1.404	1:6

Table 6.1: Different weight ratios of graphene to Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>.

# 6.3 Results and Discussions

#### **6.3.1 Structural Analysis**

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was performed to give an insight into the crystallinity and phase purity of the pristine  $Zn_3V_2O_8$ , graphene sheet and graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites with different weight ratios. The results are shown in Figure 6.2.



Figure 6.2: XRD patterns of pristine Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, graphene and graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> with different weight ratios.

As depicted in Figure 6.2, the XRD patterns of graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites were appointed to the standard orthorhombic crystal structure of Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> (JCPDS No. 034-0378)[23, 343]. Five characteristic peaks were observed at around 30°, 34.9°, 44.3°, 56.7° and 62.3°, which could be assigned to the (131), (122), (042), (162) and (442) planes of orthorhombic Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>, respectively, with (122) plane as the mother peak[187]. Furthermore, two diffraction peaks at 2 theta values of 26.8° and 54.9° of graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites were coinciding with those reported (002) and (004) of graphene phases, revealing the successful hybridisation of graphene sheet with Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>[263]. In addition, the well-resolved diffraction lines together with the sharp diffraction peaks implied that the graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites were highly crystalline in nature. The absence of other peaks confirmed the high purity of the products. The structural analysis of graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite (G-3ZVO) and sole graphene was further conducted by Raman spectroscopy as demonstrated in Figure 6.3.



Figure 6.3: Raman spectra of graphene and graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite (G-3ZVO).

In general, graphene exhibited three vibrational peaks at 1360, 1582 and 2726 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which can be ascribed to the G (vibration of sp2-bonded carbon atoms in a 2D hexagonal lattice), D and 2D (disorder and defects in the hexagonal lattice) bands, respectively[38, 242]. Besides, four prominent peaks are discernible in the Raman spectrum of G-3ZVO nanocomposite, where the peaks at 318 and 845 cm<sup>-1</sup> are corresponded to the  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  bands while the peaks at 1575 and 2726 cm<sup>-1</sup> are attributed to the presence of graphene, further confirming the co-existence of graphene and  $Zn_3V_2O_8$ . In particular, the peak at 318 cm<sup>-1</sup> is assigned to the bending vibrations of V-O-V bonds, whereas the peaks at 845 cm<sup>-1</sup> is corresponded to the

symmetric stretching mode of V-O bonds[29, 263]. The disappearance of D band in the G-3ZVO nanocomposite is due to the higher mass loading of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  which supressed the characteristic peaks of graphene[263]. In addition, the intensive interaction between graphene and  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  led to the Raman shift of the G band in the spectrum of G-3ZVO[80].

The morphology, size and microstructure of the as-synthesised graphene sheet, pure  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  and graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites were examined by FESEM and the outcomes are delineated in Figure 6.4.



Figure 6.4: FE-SEM images of: (a) graphene sheet, (b) pure  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal nanosheets, (c) G-ZVO, (d) G-1.5ZVO, (e) G-3ZVO and (f) G-6ZVO nanocomposites.

Both the graphene sheet (Figure 6.4a) and pristine  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal nanosheets(Figure 6.4b) could be observed in Figures 6.4 (c to f), suggesting that the  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal nanosheets were successfully deposited on the surface of graphene sheet with good interface compatibility. This novel graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$ 

nanoarchitecture is expected to possess high flexibility and strong structural tenacity, which can efficiently accommodate the volume variation during the continuous charge-discharge process[276]. In contrast to other samples (G-ZVO, G-1.5ZVO and G-6ZVO), Figure 6.4e (G-3ZVO) demonstrates that the  $Zn_3V_2O_8$ hexagonal nanosheets were evenly distributed on the surface of graphene sheets. This can be elucidated by the adequate amount of precursors available to completely cover the entire surface of graphene sheets. Here, the role of Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanosheets as spacers can hamper the graphene sheets from restacking. Meanwhile, graphene with a large specific surface area can also prohibit the agglomeration of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$ nanosheets. These "sheet on sheet" nanostructures were intertwined with each other to form a loose structure as well as a three dimensional network architecture. These structures offer more electroactive sites for Faradaic redox reaction and shorten the migration path, and hence resulted in advanced electrochemical ions performance[41, 243]. Contrarily, excess amount of precursors decorated on the graphene sheet as shown in Figure 6.4f (G-6ZVO) will inevitably reduce the homogeneity and distribution density of the Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> hexagonal nanosheets on graphene, leading to poor supercapacitive performance.

To better understand the microstructure of the graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite (G-3ZVO), TEM and high resolution TEM (HRTEM) were conducted and the results are portrayed in Figure 6.5.



Figure 6.5: (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM images of G-3ZVO nanocomposite.

It is noticeable in Figure 6.5a that the  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal nanosheets were fully anchored on the basal planes and edges of the graphene sheets, which is tallied with the SEM analysis (Figure 6.4e). In addition, the low contrast between the graphene sheet and the carbon of the carbon-copper grids implies that an ultrathin layer of the graphene sheet was acquired through the decoration of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanosheets. The HRTEM image in Figure 6.5b reveals the high crystallinity of G-3ZVO nanocomposite together with the lattice spacing of 0.292 nm, which corresponds to the (040) plane of the  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  crystal[188].

The energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) analysis was performed to identify the elemental compositions of the graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites, and the results are revealed in Figure 6.6a.



Figure 6.6: (a) EDX pattern of graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite (G-3ZVO), (b) Elemental mapping analysis of C, Zn, V, and O in G-3ZVO nanocomposite.

The EDX result proved that the G-3ZVO is composed of merely C, O, Zn and V elements, which is congruent with the XRD and XPS results. As no other peaks were detectable in Figure 6.6a, the formation of high purity graphene/ $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanomaterial is further verified. At the same time, the EDX mapping analysis in Figure 6.6b validates the distributions and intensities of Zn, V, O, C elements within the nanocomposite. The negligible elemental isolation of four elements also confirms the homogenous distribution of these elements throughout the whole nanocomposite.

Furthermore, the informative results such as elemental composition and valence states of the graphene/ $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite (G-3ZVO) were characterised by XPS (Figure 6.7).



Figure 6.7: XPS spectra of: (a) Full survey spectrum, (b) Zn 2p, (c) V 2p and (d) O 1s.

The full survey spectrum in Figure 6.7a further affirms that the as-synthesised G-3ZVO comprises Zn, V, O and C elements with the presence of Zn 2p, V 2p, O 1s and C 1s states, respectively, which are in agreement with the EDX result. Figure 6.7b depicts the high resolution Zn 2p spectrum, where the peaks at binding energies of 1020.3 and 1043.2 eV can be assigned to Zn  $2p_{3/2}$  and Zn  $2p_{1/2}$ , respectively[23, 186]. The high resolution V2p XPS spectrum in Figure 6.7c shows two apparent signals at *ca*. 516.1 eV and 523.4 eV, which correspond to the V  $2p_{3/2}$  and V  $2p_{1/2}$  of V<sup>5+</sup> state[343]. Figure 6.7d manifests the high resolution O1s XPS spectrum and the spectrum was deconvoluted into two components, namely O1 and O2 with the binding energies of 529 and 530.2 eV, respectively. O1 is attributed to the metal-oxygen bond, such as V-O bonding in the G-3ZVO whereas O2 is related to the adsorbed-oxygen[23, 186].

## 6.3.2 Electrochemical Characterisation

In order to evaluate the energy storage competency of the nanohybrids, the asfabricated electrodes were investigated by CV, GCD and EIS measurements in a 2M aqueous KOH electrolyte. Figure 6.8a shows the cyclic voltammograms of pure  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  and graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite electrodes at a scan rate of 50  $mVs^{-1}$  and voltage ranging from -1 to 1 V.



Figure 6.8: Cyclic voltammograms of (a)  $Zn_3V_2O_8$ , G-ZVO, G-1.5ZVO, G-3ZVO and G-6ZVO nanocomposites at a scan rate of 50 mVs<sup>-1</sup>. (b) G-3ZVO at the scan rates of 25, 50 and 100 mVs<sup>-1</sup>.

It is noteworthy in all the CV curves that well-defined redox peaks were visible during the positive and negative sweep, suggesting the strong pseudocapacitive nature of the electrode materials[23]. The two pairs of redox peaks observed for all the electrodes could be ascribed to the reversible electron transfer process of Zn /  $Zn^{2+}$  and  $V^{3+}/V^{5+}$  redox couples as well as the intercalation and de-intercalation of K<sup>+</sup> ion from the electrolyte into zinc oxide[23, 188]. In addition, the reversibility of the redox reactions was advocated by the symmetrical anodic and cathodic peaks[347]. As anticipated, the integrated area of the CV loop was enlarged by the incorporation of Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> with graphene as compared to bare Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> electrode, reflecting that the charge storage capability of graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposite was enhanced[275]. This phenomenon is likely attributed to the synergistic effect of the hybrid nanocomposite (EDLC coupled with pseudocapacitance) where the presence of graphene increases the specific surface area of the nanocomposites and thus promotes the diffusion of electrolyte ions and exposes more active sites to the electrolyte[348]. It is noticeable that the integrated area of the CV curve for each nanocomposite was substantially different, indicating that the quantity of Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> embedded on the graphene sheet has a significant influence on the electrochemical properties of the respective electrode material[24, 263].

Figure 6.8b manifests the cyclic voltammetry profiles of G-3ZVO at different scan rates of 25, 50 and 100 mVs<sup>-1</sup>. The shapes of the CV curves were not deformed even at high scan rates, suggesting the advanced ionic and electronic diffusion, excellent reversibility and good rate capability of the graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$ nanohybrid (G-3ZVO)[28, 349]. Besides, the enhancement in the peak current as the scan rate increases indicates that the kinetics of the interfacial Faradaic redox reactions and the rate of charge transfer were rapid enough even at high scan rate[29, 41, 242]. As the scan rate increases, the internal resistance of the electrode material caused the potential of oxidation and reduction peaks shifted towards more positive and negative directions, respectively[41, 231].

The specific capacitances of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  and graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites were evaluated by chronopotentiometry with the potential window varied from 0 to 1.0 V and at a constant current density of 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup> in 2M KOH aqueous electrolyte. The results are delineated in Figure 6.9.



Figure 6.9: Galvanostatic charge-discharge profiles of (a) G-ZVO, G-1.5ZVO, G-3ZVO and G-6ZVO nanohybrids and pristine ZVO at a current density of 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. (b) G-3ZVO nanocomposite at various current densities.

The non-linearity of the charge-discharge curves was attributed to the Faradaic redox reactions of  $Zn / Zn^{2+}$  and  $V^{3+} / V^{5+}$  redox couples collated with the OH<sup>-</sup> ions and this coincides with the CV results. Besides, the nearly symmetrical charging and discharging curves signify the excellent reversibility of the electrode materials[24, 263]. It can be inferred from Figure 6.9a that G-3ZVO possessed the longest discharge time, suggesting its eminent capacitive performance.

The specific capacitances of all the samples were computed using equation 3.1. A superior specific capacitance of 313.6 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup> was delivered by G-3ZVO electrode, which is much higher than those of the pristine  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  (179.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup>), G-

ZVO (211.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup>), G-1.5ZVO (275.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup>) and G-6ZVO (256 Fg<sup>-1</sup>) nanocomposites. These findings highlight the significant contribution of graphene and optimum weight ratio between graphene and  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanomaterials to the capacitive performance, where the presence of graphene and the homogenous distribution of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal sheets on the surface of graphene render more electroactive sites for effective redox reactions, leading to enhanced charge storage capability[41, 231].

In order to determine the rate capability of G-3ZVO electrode material, the chargedischarge curves at various current densities were conducted and the results are shown in Figure 6.9b. Here, it can be noticed that the discharge time declined with the current density by virtue of insufficient access time for the electrolyte ions to penetrate into the bulk electrode at high current density[41, 318]. The specific capacitances of G-3ZVO at different current densities are demonstrated in Figure 6.10.



Figure 6.10: Specific capacitances (Fg<sup>-1</sup>) of G-3ZVO at the current densities of 0.8, 0.9, 1, 1.1, 1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>.

The specific capacitance of G-3ZVO declined as the current density increased, with the values of 313.6 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, 302.4 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, 288 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, 272.8 Fg<sup>-1</sup> and 249.6 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at the current densities of 0.8, 0.9, 1, 1.1 and 1.2 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The G-3ZVO electrode was able to retain nearly 80% of its specific capacitance even at high current density, revealing its outstanding rate capability. The deterioration of specific capacitance at high current density can be attributed to: (i) incremental potential difference (ii) sluggish migration of electrolyte ions into the interior of active material[238, 249].

Long term cycling stability is another critical evaluation criterion in practical application of supercapacitors. The cycling test for G-3ZVO nanocomposite was conducted for 3000 cycles at a constant current density of 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and the results are depicted in Figure 6.11.



Figure 6.11: Cycling performance and Coulombic efficiency (%) of G-3ZVO electrode material over 3000 cycles.

As delineated in Figure 6.11, a gradual deterioration on the specific capacitance was observed for the first 1800 cycles and became steadily until it reached 3000 cycles. The specific capacitance of the G-3ZVO nanohybrid electrode was about 246.8 Fg<sup>-1</sup> after 3000 successive charge-discharge process (86 % capacitance retention), revealing its prominent long term stability. The decay in specific capacitance could be due to the poor interfacial contact between the electrode and electrolyte during the cycling process[309, 310]. Additionally, the gradual degradation of the G-3ZVO nanocomposite electrode and the inevitable pulverisation of the active electrode under continuous volume distortion during the intercalation-deintercalation process can also lead to the capacitance fading[41, 231].

Besides, the coulombic efficiency ( $\eta$ ) of G-3ZVO electrode material over the cycle analysis was calculated from the galvanostatic charge-discharge profiles by using equation 3.2 and the results are presented in Figure 6.11. The initial coulombic efficiency of the electrode material was about 95 % and it increased gradually up to 98 % after 3000 cycles. This result further signifies the excellent reversibility of the G-3ZVO electrode material.

Figure 6.12 illustrates the outcomes of the EIS analysis of pristine  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  and graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites, which were carried out in 2M KOH aqueous electrolyte.



Figure 6.12: EIS curves of pristine  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  and graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites using a symmetric two-electrodes system.

Here, the Nyquist plots of all the electrode materials reveal a semicircle in the high frequency region representing the charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ) and an inclined line in the low frequency region denoting the Warburg impedance[26, 275]. The  $R_{ct}$  is originated from the Faradaic redox reactions within the electrode material and the double layer capacitance on the surface of the electrode material. The interception of the Nyquist plot with the real x-axis gives the solution resistance ( $R_s$ ) which encompasses the intrinsic resistance of active material, electrolyte resistance and the contact resistance of the active material/current collector interface[41, 231]. The solution resistances ( $R_s$ ) of all the electrode materials were obtained in the range of 1 to 1.5  $\Omega$ , implying the low internal resistance of the electrode materials and good conductivity of the electrolyte[42, 130]. In addition, the G-3ZVO (1.93  $\Omega$ ) has the lowest charge transfer resistance, which outperformed other samples such as pure  $Zn_3V_2O_8(5.15 \Omega)$ , G-ZVO (3.94  $\Omega$ ), G-1.5ZVO (2.15  $\Omega$ ) and G-6ZVO (2.44  $\Omega$ ) nanocomposites. These results further advocate that the integration of graphene could substantially ameliorate the electrical conductivity of the

nanocomposite and hence enhanced electrochemical performance[25, 263]. In the low frequency region, G-3ZVO demonstrated a steeper line as compared to the pure  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  and other graphene/ $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites, suggesting its excellent diffusion kinetics. This can be attributed to the hybridisation of graphene with  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  where the presence of graphene sheets allows rapid diffusion of electrolyte ions by shortening the ion transportation pathway[25].

Moreover, energy and power densities are two crucial factors to be considered in the practical applications of a supercapacitor, where an advanced supercapacitor should possess high energy and power densities contemporaneously. Thus, a Ragone plot demonstrating the relation between the energy and power densities is illuminated in Figure 6.13 to compare the overall performance of graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites with the previously reported literature values. The energy and power densities were computed from the charge-discharge profiles using equations (3.3) and (3.4).



Figure 6.13: Ragone plot of sole Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and graphene-Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanocomposites.

It was found that G-3ZVO delivered a remarkable energy density of 43.55 Wh/kg at a power density of 1438.5 W/kg, which surpassed the rest of the graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposites,  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  virgin material and other previously reported symmetric or asymmetric supercapacitor[350-354]. This could be easily explicated by the superior specific capacitance and lower charge transfer resistance of G-3ZVO nanocomposite.

The above analyses unveiled the successful anchoring of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  2D hexagonal nanosheets on graphene sheet to form a "sheet on sheet" like nanoarchitecture, which offers better electrochemical performance than the pristine  $Zn_3V_2O_8$ . The improved electrochemical performance can be ascribed to several factors: (i) the synergistic effect between  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanosheets and highly conductive graphene sheets results in the formation of 3D network architecture which offers larger specific surface area and shortens the ion diffusion pathway for effective reversible redox reactions[41, 243, 248, 261]. (ii) Graphene not only enhances the electrical conductivity and structural integrity, but also serves as a buffer matrix for effective strain accommodation during the continuous charge-discharge process[41, 261]. (iii) The exfoliated structure of graphene sheet synthesised by this facile and green approach could be well preserved, which in turn contributed to the advanced electrochemical performance[24, 263]. (iv) The uniform dispersion of  $Zn_3V_2O_8$ nanosheets retains the 3D structure of the nanocomposite by impeding the graphene sheets from restacking, leading to excellent electrochemical activities[228, 263].

# 6.4 Summary

In this work,  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  hexagonal nanosheets embedded in the graphene networks were successfully synthesised through a facile and green solvothermal approach, followed by a thermal treatment. Benefiting from the interconnected "sheet on sheet" like nanostructure and the synergistic effect between  $Zn_3V_2O_8$  and graphene, the optimised electrode material (G-3ZVO) exhibited an outstanding specific capacitance of 313.6 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and preserved 86% of the initial capacitance after 3000 continuous charge-discharge cycles. Besides, an impressive energy density of 43.55 Wh/kg at a power density of 1438.5 W/kg was obtained by G-3ZVO. Its excellent electrochemical performance will undoubtedly induce the graphene- $Zn_3V_2O_8$  nanocomposite as an appealing candidate for advanced future energy storage applications.

# Chapter 7: One dimensional MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanobelts on graphene as outstanding electrode material for high energy density symmetric supercapacitor

# 7.1 Introduction

Manganese vanadate ( $MnV_2O_6$ ) with nanobelt shaped (1D) and unique brannerite structure could be considered as a potential electrode material in supercapacitor since it has good capacitive performance, peculiar electron properties and narrow band gap. In addition, manganese is a cost-effective, naturally abundant and environmentally friendly metal. However, a severe volume variation might happen during the continuous inter/deintercalation process, resulting in inferior cycling stability[355, 356].

For hybrid supercapacitor application, incorporation of manganese vanadate with carbonaceous material like activated carbon, carbon nanotubes, graphite flakes and graphene is necessary to alleviate the conundrum, as aforementioned effectively[357, 358]. Compared to other carbonaceous material, graphene is outperformed as it has large specific surface area, good flexibility, good conductivity and ready for functionalisation. The pros of graphene/manganese vanadate nanoarchitecture include: (i) Intimate contact of these two phases allow the synergistic effects between them, and hence enhance the overall capacitive performance. (ii) Graphene acts as a buffering matrix to accommodate the volume expansion during the continuous charge-discharge process. (iii) The electrical connectivity of single electroactive species can be improved effectively, and hence shorten the ions and electrons diffusion path[359, 360].

Many attempts have been made to study the electrochemical performance of graphene/metal vanadates in supercapacitor application. For instance, Patil and his group synthesised the fern-like rGO/BiVO<sub>4</sub> hybrid nanostructure for symmetric supercapacitor and it demonstrated a specific capacitance of 151 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.15 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>[42]. Besides, Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> nanoparticles deposited on graphene oxide was successfully developed by K. Thiagarajan and it was found to possess a specific capacitance of 547 Fg<sup>-1</sup> (three electrode system) at a scan rate of 5mVs<sup>-1</sup>[285]. However, the incorporation of the MnV2O6 nanobelt with graphene as potential electrode material for supercapacitor is still not being studied till date, which probably attributed to the rare synthesis process. This inspired the author to develop a simple fabrication method to synthesise these MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>/graphene nanocomposites and evaluate its potential application in symmetric supercapacitor.

Herein, we report a hybrid electrode comprised of  $MnV_2O_6$  nanobelt and graphene nanosheets, which derived from the facile solvothermal approach. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first paper reporting the application of  $MnV_2O_6$ /graphene nanocomposites as the active electrode material for supercapacitor. Moreover, different weight ratios of  $MnV_2O_6$ /graphene nanocomposites were fabricated to further optimise their energy storage properties.

### 7.2 Experimental

#### 7.2.1 Synthesis of graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanocomposites

As for graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites, solvothermal approach was applied where 0.75 mmol of  $Mn(NO_3)_2$  and 1.5 mmol of  $NH_4VO_3$  were dissolved separately into two beakers (each with 20 mL of deionised water). Notably, the deionised water was heated to 80 °C before the dissolution of NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub>. Then, the NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub> solution was added dropwise into the Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> solution and allow for mixing. After that, the as-prepared graphene dispersion (20 mL) was added into the mixture and mixed for 30 minutes to achieve homogeneity. The resulting mixture was then transferred into the Teflon lined stainless steel hydrothermal reactor and heated at 200 °C for 6 hours. After cooled to room temperature, the resulting precipitate was collected via centrifugation and washed with ethanol and deionised water to the neutral condition. The products were then dried at 80 °C overnight and allowed for analysis. A pure MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> sample was synthesised by the method as aforementioned without the presence of graphene nanomaterial.

A variation of samples with different of proportions (mass ratio), which are denoted as G-MVO, G-4MVO, G-8MVO and G-12MVO, were prepared respectively and the details are stated in Table 7.1. Here, the mass of graphene was set to 0.2 g.

Nanocomposites	Mn(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (mmol)	NH <sub>4</sub> VO <sub>3</sub> (mmol)
G-MVO	0.75	1.50
G-4MVO	3.00	6.00
G-8MVO	6.00	12.00
G-12MVO	9.00	18.00

# 7.3 Results and Discussions

#### 7.3.1 Characterisation of MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> and graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanohybrids

The formation mechanism of graphene- $MnV_2O_6$  nanobelts nanocomposite is depicted in Figure 7.1 and the related chemical reaction can be described as follow[361]:

$$2VO_3^- + Mn^{2+} \to MnV_2O_6 \tag{7.1}$$



Figure 7.1: Schematic illustration on the growth mechanism of MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanobelts on graphene.

The replacement reaction process is conducted hydrothermally without any surfactants. Firstly, the positive metal ions ( $V^{5+}$  and  $Mn^{2+}$ ) were adsorbed onto the surface of graphene sheet due to the electrostatic interactions[362]. Meanwhile, dimeric polyvanadate ions ( $V_2O_5$ ) were formed after heating the NH4VO<sub>3</sub> in the hydrothermal process. The  $V_2O_5$  precursor was reacted with H<sub>2</sub>O to form the HVO<sub>3</sub>, which subsequently interacted with Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> to form the layered like MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanostructures. The MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanostructures were gradually exfoliated to form the sheet-like MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> under hydrothermal condition. Lastly, the sheet-like MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> encountered the "splitting" process to relieve strong stress and depress the energy, which hence resulted in graphene-MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanosbelts nanocomposite[363-365].

The phase and crystal structure of graphene, pure  $MnV_2O_6$  and graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites were analysed by XRD, as delineated in Figure 7.2.



Figure 7.2: XRD patterns of pristine graphene, MnV2O6 and graphene/MnV2O6 nanocomposites.

The XRD spectra of nanocomposites show two high intensity peaks at  $2\Theta$ =26.8° and 54.9°, which correspond to (002) and (004) planes of graphene. This confirms the presence of graphene in the nanocomposites[265]. Besides, the typical reflection peaks of MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> was presented in the XRD patterns of all graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanocomposites, which can be well indexed to monoclinic structure of MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> (JCPDS Card No: 35-0139)[355, 365]. No other characteristic peaks can be observed from the XRD curves of nanocomposites, confirming the purity of the samples. The sharp diffraction peaks of the nanocomposites indicated that the products are highly crystalline in nature, which might improve the electrochemical stability during the continuous charge-discharge process[322].

The insight on the morphologies of the graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites were examined by the FESEM, as shown in Figure 7.3.



Figure 7.3: FESEM images of (a) Pristine graphene, (b) Pristine MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>, (c) G-MVO, (d) G-4MVO, (e) G-8MVO and (f) G-12MVO.

Figure 7.3b depicts a micrograph of the pure MnV2O6 sample, where a large quantity of nanobelts with the thickness of 30-40 nm and a length of 300-400 nm could be observed. Figures 7.3c-f reveal the microstructures of G-MVO, G-4MVO, G-8MVO and G-12MVO nanocomposites, respectively, where MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanobelts were successfully loaded on the graphene sheet. The deposition process is believed owed to the strong electrostatic interaction between the MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> and the graphene sheet[247]. As the composite proportion increased, the aspect ratio of MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> decorated on graphene change accordingly[366]. In figure 7.3e, the MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanobelts were distributed homogeneously on the surface of graphene with intimate interfacial contact. This improves the synergistic effect between electrode and electrolyte[267]. Besides, depositing the transition metal oxide nanomaterials with
graphene can prevent the graphene sheets from restacking, resulting in the enhancement of active surface area which beneficial for energy storage. Additionally, this nanoarchitecture can shorten the ion transportation pathway and allowed more electrolyte ions access into the inner realm of the electrode, and hence favouring the electrochemical performance[367, 368].

The TEM image as presented in figure 7.4a further reveal that the nanobelts were well deposited on the surface of graphene, and this is in agreement with the SEM results.



Figure 7.4: (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM images of G-8MVO.

To determine the crystallinity of the aligned nanobelts and provide more information on the atomic structure of the nanocomposite, HRTEM analysis was conducted and the result is shown in Figure 7.4b. The clear atomic lattice fringe of the G-8MVO nanocomposite can be observed, suggesting the highly crystalline nature of the nanomaterial[369]. The lattice spacing of 0.325 nm can be measured from the lattice fringe, which correspond well to the (110) planes of the monoclinic MnV2O6 nanobelts and this is consistent with the tropism of (110) planes in XRD spectra (Figure 7.2)[356, 369].

EDS measurement was also employed to determine the purity and the chemical composition of the G-8MVO nanocomposite (Figure 7.5a).



Figure 7.5: (a) EDS scanning of G-8MVO and (b) its corresponding elemental mapping analysis.

It is noteworthy that only Mn, V, O and C elements can be observed from the EDS spectrum with no addition peak, confirm the purity of the nanocomposite. Furthermore, the EDS mapping result (Figure 7.5b) reveals a uniform dispersion of  $MnV_2O_6$  nanobelts in the graphene-MnV\_2O\_6 nanocomposite.

The G-8MVO nanocomposite was further analysed by X-ray photoemission spectroscopy to identify the elemental species of the nanocomposite.



Figure 7.6: (a) Full survey spectra of graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites and (b-e) high resolution XPS spectra of C1s, O1s, V2p and Mn2p respectively.

The full survey spectrum (Figure 7.6a) shows the photoemission signature of Mn, V, O and C without any impurities. The deconvoluted spectral region of C1s, Mn2p, V2p and O1s of G-8MVO nanocomposite were portrayed in Figures 7.6b-e and each binding energy spectrum was standardised to the C1s core level by using the Gaussian fitting technique. In Figure 7.6b, the pronounced peaks at 284.8 and 286.1

eV are corresponding to the C=C/C-C while the peak at 283.9 eV can be due to the carbon-metal interaction[264, 282, 370]. The O1s spectra (Figure 7.6c) reveals two components at 531.9 eV and 529.8 eV, which are attributed to the adsorption of water on the surface or in the graphene-MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanocomposite and the oxygen bonded to Mn and V (Mn-O-V), respectively[364, 370]. In Figure 7.6d, the V2p spectrum of the G-8MVO nanocomposite reveals two peaks at 516.8 eV and 524.2 eV, which is the characteristics of V<sup>5+</sup> in V 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and V 2p<sub>1/2</sub>, respectively. In the deconvoluted spectra of Mn2p (Figure 7.6e), two asymmetrical peaks separated by nearly 11.1 eV can be assigned to Mn 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and Mn 2p<sub>1/2</sub> orbitals. The Mn 2p<sub>3/2</sub> orbital was deconvoluted into two components located at 640.4 and 642.2 eV, which attributed to Mn<sup>2+</sup>. Similarly, two deconvoluted peaks were observed at 651.6 and 653.3 eV for Mn 2p<sub>1/2</sub> orbital. Meanwhile, a shake-up satellite peak can be observed at 646.4 eV, which are also ascribed to manganese (II)[364, 371]. The XPS results further confirm the successful synthesis of graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanocomposite.

Raman spectroscopy was further applied to explore the molecular structure of the as-prepared nanocomposites. The Raman spectra of pure graphene and G-8MVO nanocomposite are depicted in Figure 7.7, which clearly identifies the Raman scattering of graphene and the vibration modes metal-oxide bonds.



Figure 7.7: Raman spectra of pristine graphene and graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanocomposite (G-8MVO).

The peaks at around 150-450 cm<sup>-1</sup> could be assigned to the bending mode of V-O and the asymmetric stretching mode of V-O-Mn, while the peaks at 800-950 cm<sup>-1</sup> could be due to the symmetric stretching vibration of V-O bonds[264, 372, 373]. The characteristic D (disorder band or a ring breathing mode from sp<sup>2</sup> carbon), G (in-plane vibration mode of sp<sup>2</sup> hybridised carbon atom) and 2D (second order of D band) bands at 1360, 1573 and 2700 cm<sup>-1</sup> implied the presence of graphene in the as-prepared nanocomposites[245, 374]. A slightly shifted G bands observed in the Raman spectrum of G-8MVO represents the charge transfer between graphene and MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>, suggesting the intimate contact and interaction between them[80].

# 7.3.2 Electrochemical properties of $MnV_2O_6$ and graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$ nanohybrids

The electrochemical behaviour of  $MnV_2O_6$  and graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites was determined by performing cyclic voltammetry (CV), galvanostatic chargedischarge (GCD) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) in a symmetrical two electrode configuration. Figure 7.8a shows the CV profiles of  $MnV_2O_6$  and graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites within a voltage ranging from -1 to 1 at a scan rate of 50 mVs<sup>-1</sup>.



Figure 7.8: Cyclic voltammetry profiles of (a) pure MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> and graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanocomposites, (b) G-8MVO at different scan rates and galvanostatic charge discharge of (c) pure MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> and graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanocomposites, (d) G-8MVO at different current densities.

These  $MnV_2O_6$  and graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  electrodes present a classical pseudocapacitive nature, which is evidenced from the non-rectangular shapes. Two pairs of redox peaks (0.25 V, 0.85 V, -0.25 V, -0.85 V) can be noticed for graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites, corresponding to the charge transfer kinetics of Mn/Mn(II) and V(IV)/V(V)[355, 364]. Besides, the CV curvature of G-8MVO shows the largest integrated area, revealing prompt redox kinetics processes and higher specific capacitance of this electrode compared to  $MnV_2O_6$  and other graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites. The enhanced energy storage capacity of G-

8MVO could be originated from the synergistic effect of the graphene network and MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> as the embodiment of graphene nanosheets increase the specific surface area and provide abundant electroactive sites, which eventually promotes the electrolyte access and exposure of electroactive sites to the electrolyte. Moreover, graphene as a conducting matrix shorten the ions and electrons diffusion path and reduces the internal resistance [265, 375]. Furthermore, the shape of CV curves (G-8MVO) was maintained even at high scan rates (Figure 7.8b), further confirming its excellent rate capability and electrochemical reversibility. The anodic and cathodic peaks are found shifted towards positive and negative direction with increasing scan rate, which resulted from internal resistance. Extensive reports have been published regarding the observance of this shifting phenomena. In addition, the increase in peak current density can be observed when elevating the scan rate from 25 to 100 mVs<sup>-1</sup>, which might be owing to the effect of scan rate on the migration of electrolyte ions and their diffusion to the interior of electrode[14, 42]. At low scan rate, a thick diffusion layer forms at the electrode surface and it inhibited the flux of electrolyte ions into the electrode, resulted in low peak current. In contrast, no diffusion layer is allowed to grow on the electrode surface at high scan rate, which ameliorated the flux of electrolyte ions into the electrode and hence leading to increase peak current[376].

To determine the potential of  $MnV_2O_6$  and graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites electrodes for supercapacitor, these nanomaterials were further analysed through the GCD method. By referring to the GCD profile of the as-prepared nanomaterials, the specific capacitance of the electrode can be calculated by using equation 3.1[264]: Ultimately, the superior specific capacitance of the nanohybrid can be evaluated based on the GCD analysis of each nanohybrid electrode (Figure 7.8c). The nonlinear curves were observed for all the nanohybrids, further revealing that specific capacitance derives from the Faradaic redox reaction (pseudocapacitive in nature) and these results are in line with the CV analysis (Figure 7.8a).

Table 7.2: Specific capacitance of the nanocomposites at 0.5Ag<sup>-1</sup>.

( <b>Fg</b> <sup>-1</sup> )

G-8MVO with an optimised weight ratio of 1:8 exhibited the highest specific capacitance than the virgin  $MnV_2O_6$  and other graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  combinations (Table 7.2). A significant increment of specific capacitance was perceived for G-8MVO after incorporation of graphene, as described by the longest discharge curve density of the GCD profile of G-8MVO compared to other as-prepared nanocomposites. It is well known that the weight ratio of graphene to mixed transition metal oxide plays a critical role in determining the charge storage properties. The better specific capacitance of G-8MVO could be due to the adequate deposition of  $MnV_2O_6$  on the graphene surface, which allows the effective utilisation of the electrode material and enhanced the electrochemical features. Besides, the conductive network of graphene intensifies the electrical conductivity and shortens the ion's diffusion path throughout the hybrid electrode material and

hence promotes the penetration of electrolytic ions into the inner cavity of the electrode. Nevertheless, beyond the optimum weight ratio of graphene to  $MnV_2O_6$ , the  $MnV_2O_6$  will agglomerate on the surface of graphene rather than distributed evenly. This will obstruct the ions migration route and increase the ions diffusion resistance, which hinder the penetration of electrolyte ions to the cavity of the electrode[377]. Thus, the specific capacitance was increased initially as the weight ratio is increased from 1 to 8, but decreased drastically with an abrupt increase in the weight ratio. Furthermore, the G-8MVO exhibited specific capacitance as high as 348 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, 331.2 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, 313.6 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, 294.4 Fg<sup>-1</sup> and 272 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8 and 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Figure 7.8d). For G-8MVO electrode, 78.2 % of the primary capacitance was retained at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, revealing its excellent rate capability. This can be attributed to the outstanding electrical conductivity and the synergistic effects between graphene and MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>. Moreover, the sluggish rate of diffusion of OH<sup>-</sup> ions into the bulk of electrode with increasing current density might be the reason that lead to the decrement of specific capacitance[376, 378].

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) is also conducted to determine the peculiar electrochemical mechanism and resistive properties of the as-synthesised nanocomposites in the frequency ranging from 0.01 Hz to 100 kHz.



Figure 7.9: (a) Nyquist plots of pure  $MnV_2O_6$  and graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites, (b) Cycling stability and coulombic efficiency of G-8MVO and (c) Ragone plot of the as-synthesised nanocomposites.

In the Nyquist plot (Figure 7.9a), the interception of the semicircle end with the real impedance axis is referred as the solution resistance ( $R_s$ ), which is associated to: (i) ionic resistance of the electrolyte, (ii) inherent resistance of the electrode and (iii) contact resistance between the current collector and the active material. The radius of the semicircle is denoted as the charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ) of the electrode and the electrode interface. The slope of the line at low frequency region is recognised as the Warburg Impedance (W)[376, 377]. It is noteworthy that the gradient of the Warburg impedance line of G-8MVO nanocomposite was higher than the other samples, which can be elucidated by its fast ions and electrons diffusion process. The  $R_{ct}$  values were observed to be 1.73  $\Omega$ , 2.17  $\Omega$ , 2.71  $\Omega$ , 3.55  $\Omega$  and 6.59  $\Omega$  for G-8MVO, G-4MVO, G-12MVO, G-MVO and MVO, respectively. G-8MVO is found to possess the lowest  $R_{ct}$  values among these

samples, suggesting its best potential for electrochemical reactions. This can be attributed to the graphene network and the  $MnV_2O_6$ , which intensifies the electrochemical performance with exclusive redox reaction kinetics. Moreover, the  $R_s$  values of the nanocomposites were found to be ranging from 0.75 to 1  $\Omega$ , further confirming the excellent electrical conductivity of the electrodes with the presence of graphene.

Cycling lifespan is another beneficial feature to study the electrochemical behaviour of the graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanocomposite. The cycling stability test was carried out at the constant current density of 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup> for 3000 cycles. As presented in Figure 7.9b, G-8MVO nanocomposite delivered enhanced durability. Particularly, 88 % of the capacitance was still retained even after 3000 cycles. The exceptional robustness of G-8MVO nanocomposite can be explicated by the integration of graphene scaffold, which inhibits the aggregation of nanostructures effectively and prevent the structural deterioration during the repeating charge-discharge process[378]. Notably, a remarkable columbic efficiency of nearly 100 % was achieved for G-8MVO nanomaterial after 3000 cycles, revealing the excellent reversibility of the electrode material. This result is calculated from equation (3.2)[264].

Since the practical performance of a supercapacitor can be evaluated by determining the sustainability of its high energy density at high power density, Ragone plots was generated (Figure 7.9c) and the related energy density and power density were calculated through equations (3.3) and (3.4)[264]. Evidently, the maximum energy density of 48.3 Wh/kg at a power density of 880.6 W/kg was achieved for G-8MVO electrode in the optimum potential window of 1 V, which

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was much higher than the other combination of graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposites and some reported literature values[352, 379-382].

The excellent specific capacitance with satisfactory cycling stability and rate capability of G-8MVO nanocomposite can be ascribed to the following factors: (i) The hierarchical structure of MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanobelts favours the electron transport, which is crucial for high power energy storage. (ii) The presence of graphene increases the specific surface area between the active material and the electrolyte as compared to virgin MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>, resulting in effective redox reaction. (iii) Integration of graphene increases the electrical conductivity and boosts the electron mobility of the nanocomposite. (iv) During the hydrothermal reaction, the decoration of MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanobelts on the graphene surface weakens the  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interaction between the graphene sheet and this will inhibit the agglomeration between the graphene sheet to the electrolyte. (v) The inter-component synergistic effect and appropriate Mn/V ratio can reduce the electron diffusion resistance and allow more participation of active atoms in the electrochemical reactions at high current density, and hence ameliorating the rate capability.

#### 7.4 Summary

In summary, manganese vanadate nanobelts on graphene were synthesised via a solvothermal process. The  $MnV_2O_6$  nanobelts were homogenously dispersed on the surface of graphene without any severe agglomeration at appropriate graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  ratio (1:8). Benefiting from the hierarchical nano-architecture of the graphene/ $MnV_2O_6$  nanocomposite, the synthesised G-8MVO nanocomposite delivered promising capacitive and cycling performance as the electrode material

for supercapacitor. A maximum specific capacitance of  $348 \text{ Fg}^{-1}$  was achieved for G-8MVO electrode at the current density of 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>. A capacitance retention of 88 % was achieved after 3000 cycles at 1 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, suggesting its excellent specific capacitance and cycling stability. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first paper reporting on the synthesis technique and the supercapacitive property of graphene/MnV<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub> nanohybrid. The promising cycling stability along with excellent energy density and power density make the G-8MVO nanocomposite as a promising candidate for supercapacitor application.

# Chapter 8: Three-dimensional lion's mane like AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> deposited on graphene surface for supercapacitors with a promising electrochemical performance

#### 8.1 Introduction

Recently, metal vanadate has evoked a broad interest in the field of energy storage. This is because vanadium is a multivalent metallic element which comprises multiple oxidation states, such as +5, +4 and +3, and hence enhances the charge storage ability [3]. Various metallic vanadates, such as Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> [263, 285], BiVO<sub>4</sub> [318, 348] and Co<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> [190] were extensively exploited for supercapacitor application. However, only a few studies have been reported on the application of AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub>, which could have desirable electrochemical properties as an active electrode for the energy storage application. For example, a comparison between Al-inserted vanadium pentoxide (V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) and pristine V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> as the cathode material for lithium ion batteries was reported by Cheah *et al.* [383]. Their findings suggested that the charge storage ability could be improved with the presence of Al.

As inspired by the aforementioned findings, it can be hypothesised that the integration of graphene with  $AIV_3O_9$  may deliver outstanding electrochemical activities in a supercapacitor. Herein, one-pot solvothermal technique was applied in the fabrication of graphene/ $AIV_3O_9$  microsphere nanocomposites. To the best of our knowledge, the author believed that this is the first study reported on the synthesis of graphene/ $AIV_3O_9$  nanocomposites and their corresponding electrochemical performances as novel active electrode materials for the symmetric supercapacitor application. The objectives of this study are summarised as follows: (i) characterising the as-prepared graphene/ $AIV_3O_9$  nanocomposites through

multiple characterisation techniques; (ii) analysing the electrochemical performance of the as-synthesised graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites; (iii) examining the synergistic effect of electrochemical storage between graphene and AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> by varying their weight ratios.

#### **8.2 Experimental methods**

#### 8.2.1 Graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> microspheres nanocomposites

In brief, 1.8 mmol of NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub> was dissolved into 80 mL DI water at 80 °C. A 40 mL graphene dispersion was then added into the solution and mixed for 10 minutes. Subsequently, HCl (1M) was added slowly into the mixture to adjust the pH to about 3. 3.6 mmol of AlCl<sub>3</sub> was added into the mixture under continuous magnetic stirring. The resulting mixture was then poured into the 150 mL of a Teflon-lined stainless steel hydrothermal reactor and kept at 160 °C for 6 hours. After that, the precipitate was collected, washed through centrifugation and dried at 80 °C for 6 hours. Finally, the dried product was annealed in air at 450 °C for 2 hours to obtained the crystalline graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites. Pure AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> was prepared with the same method without addition of graphene.

Additionally, nanocomposites with different weight ratios of graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> were also prepared to study the synergistic effect between graphene and AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> as mentioned in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: List of graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites with different weight ratio.

Nanocomposites	Graphene (g)	AlCl <sub>3</sub> .6H <sub>2</sub> O (g)	<b>NH4VO3 (g)</b>
G-AlV	0.200	0.211	0.869
G-3AlV	0.200	0.632	2.607
G-5AlV	0.200	1.053	4.346
G-7AlV	0.200	1.474	6.084

#### 8.3 Results and discussions

#### 8.3.1 Material Characterisation

Figure 8.1 demonstrates the detailed morphological structures of the as-prepared graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites.



Figure 8.1: FESEM of: a) graphene, b) sole AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> and (c to f) graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites at different weight ratios (G-AlV, G-3AlV, G-5AlV and G-7AlV).

As shown in Figure 8.1a, the pristine graphene sheets are well exfoliated. The wrinkles observed over the graphene surface are attributed to the pleated graphene sheets. It is worth mentioning that the sole  $AIV_3O_9$  presents 3D hierarchical

microspheres with the lion's mane like structure. The diameters of these microspheres are within the range of 3 to 7  $\mu$ m, where the building blocks for these microspheres are nanoflakes. Both the graphene and AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> are observed in the morphological structure of the graphene-AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites (Figures 8.1c to f), indicating that the AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> microspheres were successfully decorated on the graphene surface. These unique nanoarchitectures were expected to improve the electrical conductivity and the charge storage ability of the sole AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> by enhancing the electrolyte and the ion transmission process [384, 385].

The weight ratios between graphene and AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> and their influences on the morphological structure were also investigated in this study and the results are illustrated in Figures 8.1c to f. Notably, the lion's mane like AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> microspheres are evenly decorated on the graphene surface in G-5AlV (Figure 8.1e) as the amount of AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> was just appropriate for covering the graphene sheet. This is beneficial for the effective Faradaic redox reaction as the surface ratio of Faradaic AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> was fully utilised and hence resulted in an exceptional capacitive performance [265, 386]. Nonetheless, the AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> microspheres tended to agglomerate with each other as the weight ratio of graphene and AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> was increased to 1:7. This highly dense structure may impede the electrical conductivity and the active sites of the nanocomposites, and hence resulting in sluggish ion and electron penetration process which limited their capacitive performance [231].

The morphological structure of G-5AlV was further characterised by TEM (Figure 8.2a) and HRTEM (Figure 8.2b).



Figure 8.2: a) TEM image of G-5AlV, b) HRTEM image of G-5AlV nanocomposite.

From the TEM micrograph, it is evident that the  $AIV_3O_9$  microspheres with a lion's mane like structure were deposited on the graphene sheet and these micropsheres were assembled by the nanoflakes. The lattice spacing in the G-5AlV nanocomposites from Figure 8.2b was found to be 0.54 nm and 0.73 nm, which could be ascribed to the (102) and (002) planes of  $AIV_3O_9$ , respectively.

The presence of cobalt (Co), vanadium (V), oxygen (O) and carbon (C) in the EDX spectrum of G-5AlV (Figure 8.3a) confirms the high compositional purity of the nanocomposite and the successful deposition of lion's mane like  $AlV_3O_9$  microspheres on graphene sheets.



Figure 8.3: a) EDX scanning of G-5AlV nanocomposite from SEM images and b) elemental mapping analysis of C, O, Al, V elements.

Their corresponding elemental mappings in Figure 8.3b further indicate the homogenous distribution of  $AIV_3O_9$  microspheres on the graphene surface, which is in agreement with the SEM result in Figure 8.1e.

To study the valence oxidation states of the elements in G-5AlV nanocomposite, XPS analysis was conducted and the corresponding results are presented in Figure 8.4.



Figure 8.4: a) XPS full analysis spectrum of G-5AlV nanocomposite, b) Core-level survey spectra of C1s, O1s, V2p and Al2p orbits.

Figure 8.4a delineates the full XPS survey spectrum of G-5AlV, where the existence of carbon, aluminium, vanadium and oxygen elements are again validated. The C1s spectrum in Figure 8.4b demonstrates 3 peaks, whereas the predominant peaks at 284.8 and 286 eV denote the C=C and C-C bondings, respectively, and the relatively low intensity peak at 283.5 eV represents the C-Al interaction [265]. Two

peaks could be resolved from the O1s spectrum in which the peak located at 532.5 eV could be attributed to the adsorbed oxygen species, while the peak at 530.6 eV associates to the lattice metal-oxygen interaction such as the Al-O and V-O bonds [231]. The Al 2p spectrum in Figure 8.4c encompasses two resolved peaks at 74.3 and 74.8 eV. The first peak could be assigned to the Al  $2p_{3/2}$  while the latter one could be attributed to Al  $2p_{1/2}$ . The V2p spectrum reveals two de-convoluted peaks at 517.7 and 524.9 eV, which could be attributed to the V  $2p_{3/2}$  and V  $2p_{1/2}$  of vanadium with the oxidation state of +5, respectively [194].

Figure 8.5 illustrates the Raman spectra of the pure graphene and the graphene- $AIV_3O_9$  nanocomposite.



Figure 8.5: Raman survey spectra of graphene and G-5AlV.

The graphene sheet could be classified into 3 bands, namely G, D and 2D along with their respective protruding peaks at the Raman shifts of 1582, 1360 and 2726 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The D and 2D bands relate to the disorganised vibration of C-C in the sp<sup>3</sup>

lattice structure while the G band is attributed to the first order scattering of sp<sup>2</sup> carbon atoms ( $E_{2g}$  phonons) [387-390]. The other three distinct peaks could be observed in the regions of 500-550 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 700-750 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 950-1000 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The peak in the region of 500-550 cm<sup>-1</sup> could be assigned to the (Al-O-V) asymmetric stretching vibration. Furthermore, the peak at 600-750 cm<sup>-1</sup> is related to the anti-stretching vibration of the V-O bonds while the peak at 950-1000 cm<sup>-1</sup> is correlated to the stretching of terminal V=O in the vanadate species with the tetrahedral coordination [391, 392].

Figure 8.6 depicts the XRD patterns of graphene, AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> and graphene-AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites.



Figure 8.6: XRD of graphene, pure AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> and graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites (G-AlV, G-3AlV, G-5AlV and G-7AlV).

Two strong maxima at 26.8° and 54.9° could be observed from the XRD spectra of graphene, which are attributed to the (002) and (004) graphene planes, respectively

[263, 265]. Besides, the sharp diffraction peaks of AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> could be observed after calcining the nanocomposites at 450°C for 2 hours, implying the high crystallinity of the product and this result reveals the monoclinic phase of the crystalline AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> (JCPDS-49-0694)[193, 194]. Notably, all the diffraction peaks of graphene and AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> are present in the reflection patterns of the graphene-AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites without indications of other impurity phases. This suggests the high purity of the as-synthesised nanocomposites and that the incorporation of graphene did not interfere with the monoclinic lattices of AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub>.

#### 8.3.2 Electrochemical characterisation

To evaluate the electrochemical potential of the nanocomposites, CV analysis was conducted at the constant scan rate of 50 mVs<sup>-1</sup> and the corresponding profile is shown in Figure 8.7a.



Figure 8.7: CV profiles of a) sole  $AIV_3O_9$  and graphene/ $AIV_3O_9$  nanocomposites at the scan rate of 50 mV/s, b) G-5AIV at different scan rates and GCD profiles of c) pure  $AIV_3O_9$  and graphene/ $AIV_3O_9$  nanocomposites at 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, d) G-5AIV at different current densities.

Apparently, G-5AIV nanocomposite possessed the largest enclosed area with the highest current density, suggesting its superior energy storage capacity [393]. This could be attributed to the favourable framework formed by the intimate connection between the graphene sheet and the well-distributed AIV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> microspheres [342]. At the potentials ranging from -0.3 to 0.3 V, a pair of oxidation and reduction peaks correlated to the X-O/X-O-OH redox reactions (X=Al, V) suggests the contribution of a pseudocapacitance [394]. The CV curves of the G-5AIV nanomaterial at different scan rates are delineated in Figure 8.7b, in which a slight shift of the redox peaks could be noticed. This phenomenon could be explicated by the polarisation of the electrode material [381]. Despite the scan rate was increased, the almost

invariable shape and symmetrical redox peaks of the CV curves reveal its low resistivity, relatively fast redox reactions and good reversibility [381, 394].

Figure 8.7c illustrates the voltage as a function of time for all the electrodes at the current density of 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup> within the voltage range from 0 to 1 V. It is worth noting that the charge discharge profiles are nearly symmetrical, indicating the high reversibility nature of the electrode materials [231, 385]. Besides, the non-linear shape of the GCD curves is resulted from the charge transfer process and the adsorption/desorption at the interface between the electrode and the electrolyte. This confirms the hybridisation of the electrical double layer capacitance with the pseudocapacitance properties, and this finding is congruent with the redox peaks in the CV profiles [388]. As shown in Figure 8.7c, G-5AlV delivered the longest discharge time and the smallest IR drop, demonstrating its superior specific capacitance and smaller internal resistance. The equation 3.1 was used to calculate the specific capacitance of the electrode materials. The as-prepared nanocomposites possessed different values of specific capacitance at the constant current density of 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup>, with the values of 140.8 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, 185.6 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, 208 Fg<sup>-1</sup>, 268.8 F $\cdot$ g<sup>-1</sup> and 236.8 Fg<sup>-1</sup> for AIV, G-AIV, G-3AIV, G-5AIV and G-7AIV nanocomposites, respectively. Notably, G-5AlV exhibited the highest specific capacitance. This exceptional charge storage ability emphasises the prominent contribution of graphene which provides a larger number of redox sites for the efficacious redox reactions and thus improves the electrical conductivity at the optimal mass ratio of graphene-AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> [265].

To further examine the rate capability of the nanocomposite, the GCD analysis of G-5AIV at different current densities was performed and the results are presented

in Figure 8.7d. Gradual reduction of the discharge time could be observed as the current density increased, suggesting the lack of the diffusion time for the electrolyte ions to access to the bulk at a high current density condition [265]. The specific capacitances of G-5AIV at different current densities were further analysed and the corresponding result is illustrated in Figure 8.8a.



Figure 8.8: a) Specific capacitance of G-5AlV at different current densities, b) EIS plots of pure AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> and graphene/AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites, c) Cycling stability and coulombic efficiency of G-5AlV and d) Ragone plot of the as-synthesised nanocomposites.

A descending trend of specific capacitance is noticeable as the current density increased, with the specific capacitance of 268.8, 244.8, 224, 206.6 and 192  $Fg^{-1}$  at 0.8, 0.9, 1, 1.1 and 1.2  $Ag^{-1}$ , respectively. A capacitance retention of 72 % was achieved in the high current density situation, revealing the relatively good rate

capability of the G-5AlV nanocomposite. It is believed that the reduction of specific capacitance was originated from the ineffective interaction between the electrode and the electrolyte ions [385]. EIS analysis was carried out in the range of 0.01 Hz to 100 kHz to determine the charge transportation process and the ions diffusion behaviour of the nanocomposites, and the corresponding spectra are shown in Figure 8.8b. Typically, a semicircle at the mid-high frequency region denotes the resistance of charge transfer between the electrodes whereas the low frequency straight line represents the diffusion of electrolyte to the bulk electrode. From Figure 8.8b, it can be seen that G-5AlV demonstrates the lowest R<sub>ct</sub> followed by G-7AIV, G-3AIV, G-AIV and the pure AIV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub>. This could be ascribed to the intimate interfacial connection between the graphene sheet and the  $AIV_3O_9$  microspheres in the G-5AlV sample. These results can also be corroborated with the complete utilisation of the active electrode material as a result of evenly distribution of AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> on the graphene [265, 333, 395]. In addition, the horizontal intercept point of the EIS curves represents the equivalent series resistance  $(R_{esr})$  which is the combination of the resistances of the internal contact, the electrode, the electrolyte and the collector. The obtained  $R_{esr}$  of G-5AlV is approximately 0.85  $\Omega$ , implying its good ionic and electrical conductivity, and rapid kinetics of charge transfer during the Faradaic reaction at the electrode/electrolyte interface. Moreover, the rapid ions and electrons diffusion kinetics was evidenced by the steeper linear line of G-5AlV in the low frequency region [42, 388].

Cycling stability is another significant parameter assessing the applicability of the supercapacitor electrode. The charge storage ability as a function of the cycle number at a constant current density of  $1 \text{ Ag}^{-1}$  was determined and illustrated in

Figure 8.8c. Astonishingly, the specific capacitance of G-5AlV was decayed from 224  $Fg^{-1}$  to 184  $Fg^{-1}$  after 3000 cycles (this means a capacitance retention of 82 % of the initial), where this minor decline could be ascribed to the gradual deactivation of the G-5AlV electrode material.

Besides, an exceptional coulombic efficiency ( $\eta$ ) of nearly 100 % was obtained for G-5AlV after 3000 cycles, which could be determined by adopting equation 3.2. In overall, the superior coulombic efficiency and cyclic stability of the G-5AlV nanocomposite could be attributed to: (i) the synergistic effect between the graphene and the hierarchical AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> microsphere, in which the graphene serves as a buffering scaffold to remit the volume change during the repeating inter/de-intercalation process of OH<sup>-</sup> ions in the electrochemical reactions [388, 396]. (ii) The role of graphene as a skeleton of the nanocomposite which can effectively retain the structural stability upon the long term cycling analysis [333].

The specific energy (*E*) and the specific power (*P*) are two significant parameters determining the practicability of the supercapacitor. A Ragone plot of *E* as a function of *P* of the graphene-AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> nanocomposites is depicted in Figure 8.8d. Here, the G-5AlV electrode material achieved the maximum energy density of 37.33 Wh/kg at the power density of 1249.07 W/kg, which are higher than those of several reported electrode materials[397-401].

The excellent charge storage ability of G-5AIV could be explicated based on its special features: (i) the homogenous distribution of 3D lion's mane like  $AIV_3O_9$  microspheres on the graphene contributed to the full utilisation of the electrode material and hence resulted in an effective Faradaic reaction [388]; (ii) graphene as

the backbone of the nanocomposite could improve the electrolyte ion transmission during the reversible redox reaction as a result of its good chemical stability and superior electrical conductivity [331].

#### 8.4 Summary

A proper amount of AlV<sub>3</sub>O<sub>9</sub> anchored on the graphene material is a crucial parameter for determining the charge storage properties of the electrode. With this consideration, G-5AlV is a promising electrode material due to its evenly distributed nanoarchitecture, good electrical conductivity, large specific surface area and advanced charge storage ability. G-5AlV delivered a superior specific capacitance of 268.80 Fg<sup>-1</sup> at 0.8 Ag<sup>-1</sup> and maintained 72 % of the initial capacitance (192 Fg<sup>-1</sup>) as the current density increased, implying its relatively good rate capability. Besides, a capacitance retention of 82 % was achieved together with a coulombic efficiency of nearly 100 % after 3000 repeated charge-discharge cycles, confirming its excellent cycling stability and good reversibility. In addition, the remarkable energy and power densities of G-5AlV suggest that it has a great potential for practical utilisation in supercapacitor.

### **Chapter 9: Conclusion and future prospective**

#### 9.1 Conclusions

A series of mixed transition metal oxide/graphene nanocomposites, with its peculiar architectures like nanoparticles, micro-pencils, nano flakes, nanobelts and microspheres embedded in graphene sheet have been successfully synthesised, characterised and assessed as electrode material for the symmetric supercapacitor application.

Based on the results obtained, the enhancement of the physical, chemical and electrochemical properties of nanocomposites with the integration graphene is clearly evidenced. Furthermore, a summary of the electrochemical performance of the optimal ratio of graphene/MTMO nanocomposites is delineated in Table 9.1.

	G-4NVO	G-4CVO	G-3ZVO	G-8MVO	G-5AlV
Specific	368.0	275.2	313.6	348.0	268.8
capacitance					
( <b>Fg</b> <sup>-1</sup> )					
Capacitance	92 %	81 %	86 %	88 %	82 %
retention (after					
3000 cycles)					
Coulombic	99 %	98 %	98 %	99 %	99 %
efficiency					
<b>Energy density</b>	51.00	38.20	43.55	48.33	37.33
(Wh/kg)					

Table 9.1: A comparison of the electrochemical performance of the optimal electrode materials.

By comparing the electrochemical performance between the five optimised electrode materials (G-4NVO, G-4CVO, G-3ZVO, G-8MVO and G-5AIV), it is noteworthy that graphene/Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> with the weight ratio 1:4 (G-4NVO) provides the largest specific capacitance of 368 Fg<sup>-1</sup>. Additionally, a capacitance retention of 92 % and coulombic efficiency of 99 % were also achieved after 3000 continuous

intercalation/deintercalation process. This is because the smaller particle size of the  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  nanoparticles on graphene provides more electroactive sites available for faradaic redox reaction. Besides, it also facilitated the ions and electrons diffusion process by shortening the diffusion pathway, and hence led to the superior electrochemical performance. The excellent cycling stability can be attributed to the synergistic effect between graphene and  $Ni_3V_2O_8$  where graphene can act as a buffering matrix to resist the volume expansion effectively during the cycling process. Moreover, G-4NVO demonstrated high coulombic efficiency, suggesting the superior reversibility of the electrode material.

Based on the works in this thesis, all the research objectives have been achieved and the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Mixed transition metal oxide (MTMO) and graphene/mixed transition metal oxide nanocomposites with controllable morphological structures were successfully prepared by facile solvothermal technique.
- The incorporation of graphene onto mixed transition metal oxide with an optimum weight ratio provide best synergistic effect, which greatly enhanced the physical (specific surface area, electrical conductivity, structural tenacity and etc.) and electrochemical properties (specific capacitance, cycling stability and etc.) of the nanocomposites.
- The enhancement of electrochemical performances can be ascribed to the synergistic effect between graphene and MTMO where the deposition of MTMO on graphene effectively inhibits the agglomeration of graphene sheets, facilitating the ions and electrons diffusion and hence improve the specific capacitance. Besides, the hybridisation of graphene into MTMO

enhances the electrical conductivity of the nanocomposites, which allow rapid ion diffusion and low charge transfer resistance. Graphene can also act as a buffering matrix to accommodate the volume variation during the cycling test, resulting in excellent cycling stability of the nanocomposites. Moreover, homogenous distribution of MTMO on the graphene surface allows the effective utilisation of the electrode material and enhanced the electrochemical features.

 Among the optimised electrodes, G-4NVO possessed the excellent supercapacitive performance since it has the highest energy density, specific capacitance, cycling stability and coulombic efficiency. G-4NVO also delivered a comparable energy density and power density as compared to other research findings, which undoubtedly induce it as an appealing candidate for advanced future energy storage applications.

#### 9.2 Recommendations

As for supercapacitor, electrode materials play a pivotal role in determining its physical and electrochemical performance. Novel mixed transition metal oxide/graphene nanocomposites with appealing structures and excellent energy storage ability will still attract the research attentions in the couple of years owing to its high flexibility, good structural strength and impressive electrochemical performances. In this section, some recommendations on future research activities and perspectives on the development of supercapacitor are deliberated.

Motivated by the aforementioned results, a simplified prototype device of high performance electrode materials based on the graphene/ $Ni_3V_2O_8$  developed by a

facile solvothermal process can be assembled and evaluated in future study. Other mixed transition metal oxide such as tungsten, ruthenium, silver and etc. and its integration with graphene are also expected to be designed and evaluated in the future. Other than transition metal oxide, the hybridisation of graphene with another element series such as lanthanide, alkaline metal and metalloids can be recognised as one of the new research directions in exploring the novel and effective electrode material. Besides, discovering a new approach to incorporate graphene with transition metal oxide and other elements to form a robust nanostructure is still the frontier of the research.

Other than electrode materials, selection on electrolyte (aqueous, organic, ionic liquid) also serves as a factor determining the supercapacitor performance, including specific capacitance, cycling stability, power density and most importantly safety. Designing an efficient electrolyte is still one of the challenges in this field. Thus, more research works should be carried out in future regarding the development of efficient electrolyte and the understanding of the electrode-electrolyte interactions.

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