

Promising VO₂(B)/rGO Heterojunction Cathode for Building

High-Capacity and Long-Lifespan Ca-Ion Batteries

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Calciumion batteries (CIBs) are an appealing energy storage technology owing to the low redox potential of Ca²⁺/Ca and the abundant Ca reserves in the earth's crust. However, suitable cathode materials with high capacity and long lifespan are scarce. Herein, VO₂(B)/reduced graphene oxide (rGO) heterojunction formed by interfacial V-O-C bonds is constructed and first reported as a cathode material for CIBs, which exhibits an ultrahigh discharge capacity of 319.2 mAh g⁻¹ and exceptional long lifespan (3000 cycles at 500 mA g⁻¹ with capacity retention of 85%). In addition, VO₂(B)/rGO heterojunction also shows an outstanding rate capability at 50 °C (127.1 mAh g^{-1} at 1000 mA g^{-1}). The remarkable electrochemical performance is attributed to the big tunnel structures of VO₂(B) and the role of rGO in enhancing electronic conductivity. Density functional theory calculations reveal a feasible Ca2+ diffusion path at the interface. Furthermore, a reversible single-phase insertion/extraction reaction is revealed by in situ X-ray diffraction, ex situ Raman, and ex situ X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. This work demonstrates that VO2 (B)/rGO holds great potential for building high-capacity and long-lifespan CIBs.

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DOI: 10.1002/adfm.202314761

1. Introduction

Lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) currently dominate the commercial battery market, powering a wide range of devices from electric vehicles to portable electronics. Nevertheless, LIBs show safety concerns stemming from potential Li-dendrite and flammability of organic electrolytes, and face constraints due to the limited reserves of lithium resources. Furthermore, the technological advancements in LIBs almost reached their theoretical limits,[1] thereby emphasizing the significance of exploring alternative electrochemical energy storage systems. A number of multivalent-ion batteries, for instance, Ca-ion, Zn-ion, Mg-ion, and Al-ion batteries, have been properly proposed and methodically explored as multiple electron transfer occurs with one multivalent charge carrier migration.[2] In the group of all these multivalent-ion batteries, Ca-ion batteries (CIBs) draw wide attention because of the low redox potential of Ca2+/Ca (-2.87 V vs SHE) and the low charge density of Ca2+ (0.49 e $\mbox{Å}^{-3}$ vs 1.18 e $\mbox{Å}^{-3}$ for \mbox{Zn}^{2+} , and

1.28 e Å $^{-3}$ for Mg $^{2+}$), [$^{\frac{1}{3}}$] rendering CIBs to potentially have higher working voltage and rate capabilities. Additionally, CIBs are not likely to form dendrites during electrochemical processes. [4] These merits make CIBs the most promising next-generation energy storage system for a wide range of applications with high safety, low-cost, high-energy density, and exceptional rate performance.

To date, there have been significant achievements in electrolytes that enable highly reversible calcium plating/stripping^[5] and low charge transfer barriers betwixt electrode and electrolyte.^[6] For instance, Zhao-Karger and co-workers^[7] reported Ca[B(hfip)₄]₂ based electrolytes that demonstrated reversible Ca deposition at ambient temperature, which accelerated the application of CIBs. However, there hasn't been much advancement in the hunt for cathode materials that permit reversible Ca²⁺ insertion/extraction. Based on chemical compositions, the reported cathode materials for CIBs can be categorized into four groups: oxide compounds, chalcogenide compounds, Prussian blue analogs, and polyanions.^[3b] Various materials, such as Ti₂O(PO₄)₂(H₂O),^[8] Mg_xV₂O₅·nH₂O,^[9] V₂O₅·0.63H₂O,^[10] Zr·NH₄V₄O₁₀,^[11] and β -Ag_{0.33}V₂O₅,^[12] are afflicted by unsatisfied electrochemical performances, especially

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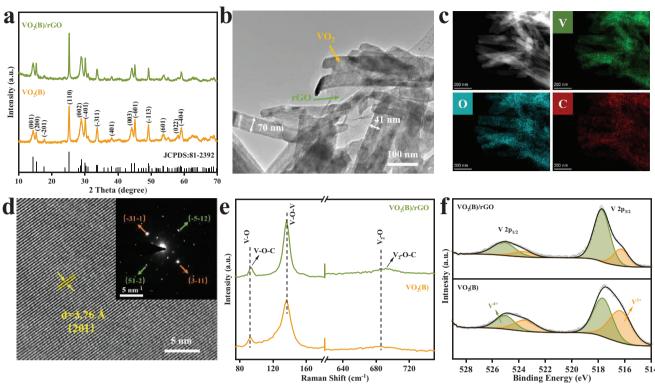


Figure 1. Structure and characterization of $VO_2(B)/rGO$. a) XRD patterns of $VO_2(B)/rGO$; b) TEM image and c) HAADF image and corresponding elemental maps; d) HRTEM image and the inset is SAED pattern; e) Raman spectrum of $VO_2(B)$ and $VO_2(B)/rGO$; f) High-resolution XPS spectra of $VO_2(B)$ and $VO_2(B)/rGO$.

specific capacity and/or impoverished cycling performance. For example, Pyo and co-workers^[8] reported Ti₂O(PO₄)₂(H₂O) as a cathode material for CIBs, which shows a long cycling life of 1500 cycles. Unfortunately, the comparatively stunted capacity of 38.5 mAh g⁻¹ placed restrictions on the application of this material. Hong et al.^[12] reported β -Ag_{0.33}V₂O₅, which displays a high specific capacity of 179 mAh g⁻¹ but suffers from a poor cycling life of less than 50 cycles. Thereafter, cathode alternatives with both excellent specific capacity and outstanding lifespan are highly desired for CIBs.

VO₂ exhibits different types of crystal structures, such as VO₂ (M), VO₂ (R), VO₂ (T), VO₂ (A), VO₂ (B), and VO₂ (C), etc.^[13] Considering its large tunnel structures (8.2 $Å^2$ along the *b*-axis, 5 Å² along the *c*-axis, and 3.4 Å² along the *a*-axis), $^{[14]}$ metastable monoclinic VO₂(B), which shows high capacity in Zn-ion batterie (about 300 mAh g^{-1} at 100 mA g^{-1}),[15] may be a reliable cathode material for Ca²⁺ storage. Theoretically, VO₂(B) can offer a high capacity of 323 mAh $\,\mathrm{g}^{-1}$ stemming from an alterable valence state. Meanwhile, the shear-type structure of VO₂(B) can effectively mitigate the space deformation brought about by charge ions during the insertion/extraction process. Besides, although the electrochemical performances of VO₂(B) in many alkali metal batteries have been extensively investigated, [15,16] those in CIBs are still unclear. However, VO2(B) is afflicted by the inherent defect of low electronic conductivity,[17] thereby impeding its application in energy storage. In general, the poor conductivity of electrode materials can be improved through electronic structure modulation, which typically employs three ways: doping, inducing defects, and constructing heterostructures.^[18] In these ways, heterostructures typically facilitate the segregation of electrons and holes in both materials, leading to elevated electronic mobility compared to pure materials.^[19] Thus, it is expected that the VO₂(B)/reduced graphene oxide (rGO) heterojunction holds significant promise as cathode materials for achieving high capacity and long lifespan in CIBs.

Herein, VO₂(B)/rGO heterojunction formed by interfacial V—O—C bonds was prepared and reported as an outstanding cathode material for CIBs. VO₂(B)/rGO exhibits an ultrahigh discharge capacity of 319.2 mAh g $^{-1}$ and an exceptionally long lifespan (3000 times at 500 mA g $^{-1}$ with a capacity retention of 85%), which is superior to most reported cathode materials for CIBs. In addition, VO₂(B)/rGO also shows outstanding rate capability at 50 °C (127.1 mAh g $^{-1}$ at 1000 mA g $^{-1}$), which exhibits a wide temperature working range. Density functional theory (DFT) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were performed to explore the role of rGO. The Ca $^{2+}$ storage mechanism and structural evolution of VO₂(B)/rGO were fully investigated by in situ X-ray diffraction (XRD), ex situ Raman, and ex situ X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS).

2. Results and Discussion

The diffraction peaks of $VO_2(B)$ and $VO_2(B)/rGO$ (Figure 1a) are fully consistent with the monoclinic phase (JCPDS NO. 81-2392), which implies great crystallinity and impurities free. The $VO_2(B)$ crystallizes into monoclinic crystalline phase with a space

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group C 2/m (No. 12), and a = 12.3 Å, b = 3.69 Å, c = 6.4 Å, and $\beta = 106.1^{\circ}$. [13] As shown in Figure S1 (Supporting Information), [VO₆] octahedra links together by sharing corners and edges to form a large tunnel structure (8.2 \times 8.2 Å²), which is conducive to ion storage and diffusion. Both TEM (Figure 1b) and SEM images (Figure S3, Supporting Information) indicate that VO₂(B) exhibits homogeneous nanobelt morphology with a length of 1.15 μm and an average width of 40–70 nm. The rGO flakes and VO₂(B) nanobelts entangle together tightly, building a strong electronic contact. The elemental mapping (Figure 1c) shows the uniform distribution of O, V, and C. The d distance between two adjacent lattices of VO₂(B)/rGO was measured by high-resolution TEM and the lattice spacing is 3.76 Å, belonging to the (201) plane of VO₂(B) (Figure 1d). The SAED pattern of VO₂(B)/rGO exhibits trenchant and symmetric diffraction spots that contribute to excellent crystallinity. The most prominent Raman peak, observed at 136 cm⁻¹ (Figure S4, Supporting Information), corresponds to the bending vibrations of the V—O—V bond. The peak at 988 cm⁻¹ is the result of the stretching vibrations of V=O bonds. [20] Since corner-sharing oxygens are shared by two pyramids, the peak at 683 cm⁻¹ belongs to V₂—O stretching.^[21] In Figure S4 (Supporting Information) inset, the peak at 1320 cm⁻¹ reflects the disorder degree of the C atomic crystal defect, whereas the peak at 1580 cm⁻¹ reflects the bond stretching of sp² carbons, [22] indicating the successful formation of VO₂(B)/rGO composite. The Raman spectrum in Figure 1e reveals that the peaks belonging to V—O and V2—O shift to higher wavenumbers in VO₂(B)/rGO. This shift suggests the change in the electron state of bridging oxygen, implying the formation of the V-O-C bond and V2-O-C bond.[23] Pair distribution function (PDF) profiles (Figure \$5a,b, Supporting Information) show that the peak at 1.93 Å, corresponding to V—O bonds, [24] shifts to the right after integration with GO, which indicates the elongation of V—O bonds due to the formation of V-O-C bonds. Moreover, an enhancement at the 1.6 Å peak is observed, which is attributed to the presence of C-O bonds. In the electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectrum, the g-value of VO₂(B)/rGO is largely magnified compared to that of VO2(B), indicating a change in the spin state of vanadium's lone electron as a consequence of heterogeneous bonding (Figure S5c, Supporting Information). The altered position of the G-band indicates that the formation of heterogeneous bonds leads to electron or hole doping in GO (Figure S5d, Supporting Information). [25] Besides, it is worth noting that the I_D/I_C value of $VO_2(B)/rGO$ is 1.45, which indicates that GO has been reduced to rGO. XPS spectrum of VO₂(B) displays peaks at 517.7 and 516.3 eV, derived from V⁴⁺ and V³⁺, respectively, with a ratio of 52% to 48% (Figure 1f). The existence of V3+ is due to the excessive amount of reducing agent added during the material synthesis process. After compounded with GO, the ratio of V⁴⁺ to V³⁺ becomes 76% to 24%, which indicates the vanadium in VO2(B) was oxidized while GO received electrons and was reduced to rGO during ultrasonication. There are three peaks in the XPS spectrum of C that correspond to O-C=O, C-O-C, and C-C, respectively (Figure S6, Supporting Information). In comparison to GO, the fractional percentage of O-C=O/C-O-C bonds in VO₂(B)/rGO was reduced, which provides further evidence that GO has been effectively reduced to rGO. Brunauer-EmmettTeller (BET) and Barret-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) measurements (Figure S7, Supporting Information) indi-

cate that VO₂(B) has a specific surface area of 25.67 m² g⁻¹, while VO₂(B)/rGO exhibits a specific surface area of 24.14 m² g⁻¹. The mesopore size distribution of VO₂(B) is centered at 2.27 nm, while that of VO₂(B)/rGO is 2.46 nm. Pores larger than 10 nm are formed due to the stacking of nanobelts. To determine the proportion of carbon in the VO₂(B)/rGO composite, CHNS(O) Elemental Analysis was employed. The results, as shown in Table S1 (Supporting Information), revealed a carbon content of 2.6% in VO₂(B)/rGO, which is close to the 2.9% mass of GO added during the material synthesis process. In summary, the above discussions imply that the VO₂(B)/rGO heterojunction with hybrid-valence vanadium and interfacial V—O—C bonds is successfully obtained.

The Ca²⁺ storage behavior of the two samples was studied in 0.3 M Ca(TFSI)₂/G4 (tetraethylene glycol dimethyl ether) with activated carbon cloth (ACC) as anode (Figure 2a). Compared to pure VO₂(B), which has a discharge capacity of 157.2 mAh g⁻¹ (Figure 2b), VO₂(B)/rGO has a markedly increased discharge capacity of 319.2 mAh g⁻¹. The addition of rGO is responsible for the noticeably increased capacity. The ex situ XPS analysis of C (Figure S9, Supporting Information) reveals the emergence of a new peak corresponding to pi → pi* shake-up satellites during discharging. This observation indicates that the pi electrons of rGO change significantly, which means rGO undergoes electrochemical reactions during the charging and discharging process.[23] It is worth noting that the capacity contributed by rGO is extremely limited, [26] which is negligible compared to the capacity of 379.9 mAh g⁻¹. The role of rGO will be extensively examined in the following sections. At various current densities (Figure 2c), VO₂(B)/rGO displays great rate capacities of 319.2, 262.2, 210.2, 168, 112.4, and 72.4 mAh g⁻¹, respectively. By contrast, VO₂(B) shows a much lower discharge capacity of 157.2, 136, 100.3, 76.3, 50.2, and 35.9 mAh g⁻¹ at various conditions. In addition, when returned to 20 mA g⁻¹, VO₂(B)/rGO still maintains a capacity of 329.5 mAh g⁻¹, indicating excellent reversibility. Moreover, the VO₂(B)/rGO heterojunction exhibits enhanced capacities of 216 mAh g⁻¹ at 100 mA g⁻¹ (Figure 2d) and 136.2 mAh g⁻¹ at 500 mA g⁻¹ (Figure S10, Supporting Information). The capacity retention after 700 cycles at 100 mA g⁻¹ and 3000 cycles at 500 mA g⁻¹ is 83% and 85%, respectively, indicating the outstanding cycling reversibility of VO₂(B)/rGO. Besides, the Coulombic efficiency of VO₂(B)/rGO (98.76%, Figure 2d) is higher than that of VO₂(B) (96.53%). Furthermore, the electrochemical performance of the VO₂(B)/rGO electrode at 50 °C was tested, as batteries may need to work under high-temperature conditions in practical applications. As shown in Figure S11 (Supporting Information), VO₂(B)/rGO heterojunction can still deliver a discharge capacity of 127.1 mAh g⁻¹ at 1000 mA g⁻¹, indicating the excellent rate capacity of VO₂(B)/rGO. Besides, VO₂(B)/rGO shows an exceptionally long lifespan of 3000 cycles at 1000 mA g⁻¹ with a capacity retention of 85% (Figure 2e). The above results suggest that the VO₂(B)/rGO electrode can deliver a higher specific capacity and better rate performance than VO₂(B). In order to further prove the application potential VO₂(B)/rGO heterojunction as the electrode for CIBs, the full CIBs with Ca_xVO₂ as the anode (with pre-embedded Ca²⁺) and polyaniline (PANI) as the cathode were assembled. The structure and characterization of as-prepared PANI are shown in Figure S12 (Supporting Information). The initial discharge capacity

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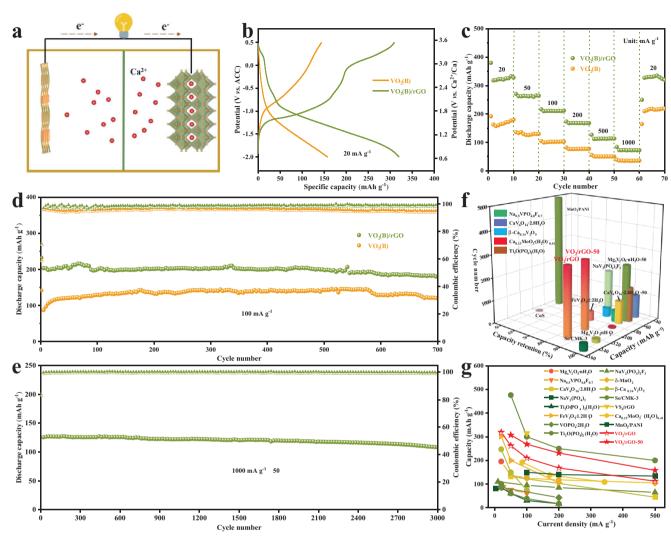


Figure 2. Calcium storage performance of $VO_2(B)/rGO$. a) Schematic of a rechargeable CIBs with $VO_2(B)$ as cathode and ACC as anode; b) The galvanostatic charge/discharge profiles of $VO_2(B)$ and $VO_2(B)/rGO$ at 20 mA g^{-1} ; c) Rate capabilities of $VO_2(B)$ and $VO_2(B)/rGO$; d) Cycling performance of $VO_2(B)$ and $VO_2(B)/rGO$ at 100 mA g^{-1} ; e) Cycling performance of $VO_2(B)/rGO$ at 1000 mA $VO_2(B)/rGO$ and the reported materials for CIBs in organic electrolytes.

of the full cell is 50.92 mAh g⁻¹ at 20 mA g⁻¹, and it shows good reversibility, maintaining a capacity of 42.99 mAh g⁻¹ after 50 cycles at 50 °C (Figure S14, Supporting Information). In addition, the comparison of the Ca²⁺ storage performance between VO₂(B)/rGO and previously reported cathode materials for CIBs, such as Mg_xV₂O₅·nH₂O, NaV₂(PO₄)₂F₃, Na_{0.5}VPO_{4.8}F_{0.7}, CaV₆O₁₆·2.8H₂O, δ -MnO₂, β -Ca_{0.14}V₂O₅, NaV₂(PO₄)₃[^{3a,9,27]} are shown in Figure 2f,g. As is shown in the graph, VO₂(B)/rGO is much superior to most of the reported cathode materials for CIBs both in capacity and lifespan.

Multi-scan rate cyclic voltammetry (CV) is used to discuss the reaction kinetics of the $VO_2(B)/rGO$ heterojunction electrode (**Figure 3a**). With the increase in scan rate, there are obvious CV peak shifts. The peak shifts can be analyzed according to Equation 1: $^{[28]}$

$$i = av^b (1)$$

where ν is the scan rate, i is the peak current. When b=0.5, diffusion dominates charge storage. When b=1, it indicates capacitive controlled charge storage. The fitted b values of peak 1 and peak 2 are 0.77 and 0.83, respectively (Figure 3b), suggesting that the kinetics of Ca²⁺ storage in VO₂(B)/rGO nanobelts is jointly controlled by diffusion and capacitance. To evaluate the proportion of diffusion-controlling and capacitive-controlling, the calculation was conducted according to Equation 2:[29]

$$i = k_1 \nu + k_2 \nu^{1/2} \tag{2}$$

The capacitive-controlling contribution ratio increases from 44% to 71% (Figure 3c). [30] EIS was used to explore the reason of improved electrochemical performance of VO₂(B)/rGO heterojunction. After fitting and calculation (Figure 3d), the $R_{\rm ct}$ (charge transfer impedance) of VO₂(B)/rGO (15.83 Ω) is smaller than that of the VO₂(B) (28.71 Ω), proving that the rGO conductive network improves the electronic conductivity. The resistivity

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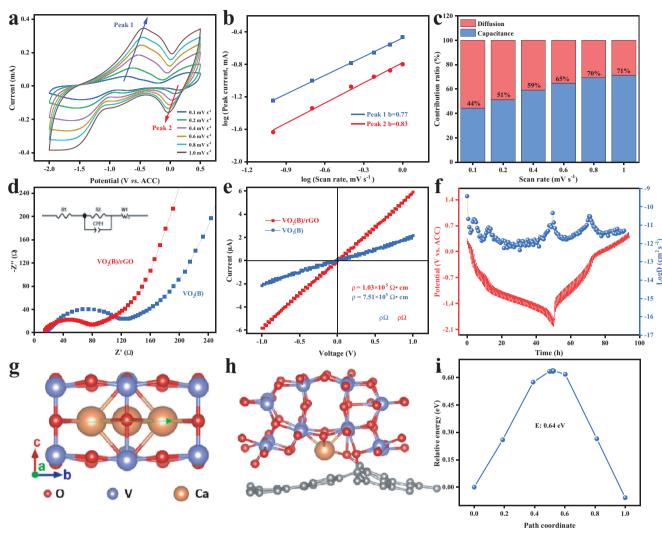


Figure 3. Reaction kinetics analysis of $VO_2(B)/rGO$. a) The CV curves of $VO_2(B)/rGO$ at different scan rates; b) Log(i) versus log(v) plots of two redox peaks in CV curves; c) Percentage of the diffusion and capacitance contribution at different scan rates; d) EIS spectrum of $VO_2(B)$ and $VO_2(B)/rGO$ electrode, and inset is the equivalent circuit; e) Current–voltage (*I*–*V*) curves of $VO_2(B)$ and $VO_2(B)/rGO$; f) GITT curve of $VO_2(B)/rGO$ electrode and diffusivity coefficient during charge and discharge; g) Diffusion path profiles of Ca^{2+} along the *b* direction in $VO_2(B)$; h) Diffusion path and i) corresponding diffusion energy barrier profiles of Ca^{2+} along *a* direction at the interface of $VO_2(B)/rGO$.

can also be calculated by Equation 3 according to the *I–V* curves (Figure 3e).

$$\rho = RA/d \tag{3}$$

where *A* is the measured square, *d* is the thickness and *R* is the resistance. According to Equation 3, the resistivity of VO₂(B) and VO₂(B)/rGO was 7.51×10^5 and 1.03×10^5 Ω cm, further confirming that rGO improves the electronic conductivity. The Ca²⁺ diffusion coefficients (D^{GITT}) can be obtained based on Equation $4:[^{31}]$

$$D^{\text{GITT}} = \frac{4}{\pi \tau} \left(\frac{m_{\text{B}} V_{\text{M}}}{M_{\text{B}} S} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\Delta E_{\text{s}}}{\Delta E_{\tau}} \right)^2 \tag{4}$$

The average D^{GITT} of Ca^{2+} in $VO_2(B)/rGO$ is 7.51×10^{-12} cm² s⁻¹ (Figure 3f). DFT calculations suggest that Ca^{2+} can occupy the C-site (Figure 3g, Figure S15, Supporting Information) in the tunnel structure of $VO_2(B)$ with an insertion energy of -6.1 eV. Additionally, the diffusion energy barrier, obtained via climbing image nudged elastic band, of Ca^{2+} along the *b*-axis is 1.68 eV (Figure S16, Supporting Information), indicating the intrinsic slow diffusion kinetics in $VO_2(B)$. After compounding with rGO, the diffusion energy barrier at the $VO_2(B)$ and rGO interface is merely 0.64 eV (Figure 3h,i, Figure S17, Supporting Information). The much lower energy barrier indicates a more feasible Ca^{2+} diffusion path in the interface. In summary, based on the above analysis, it can be concluded that the addition of rGO effectively enhances the electronic conductivity of the electrodes.

In order to investigate the Ca^{2+} storage mechanism and structural evolution of $VO_2(B)/rGO$, ex situ XRD, in situ XRD, ex situ

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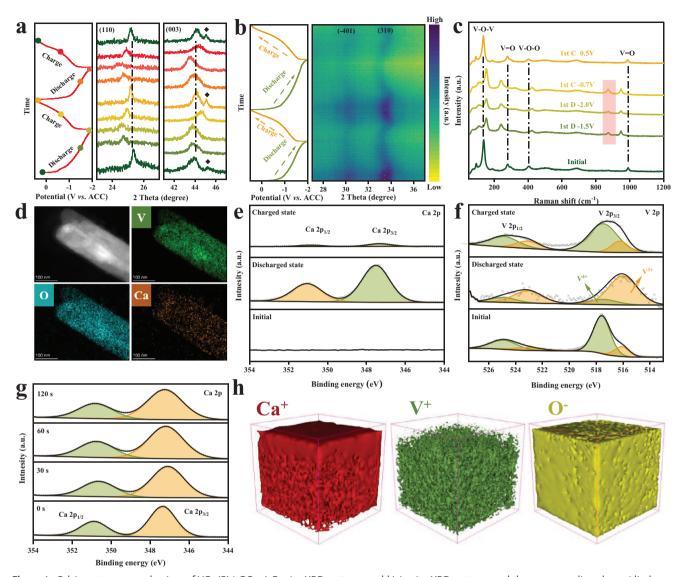


Figure 4. Calcium storage mechanism of $VO_2(B)/rGO$. a) Ex situ XRD patterns and b) in situ XRD patterns and the corresponding charge/discharge profiles; c) Ex situ Raman patterns of $VO_2(B)/rGO$ electrode; d) HAADF image and corresponding elemental maps for the fully discharged $VO_2(B)/rGO$; Ex situ XPS spectra of e) Ca 2p and f) V 2p for $VO_2(B)/rGO$ at different states; g) XPS etching analysis of Ca 2p; h) TOF-SIMS 3D rendering models of Ca⁺, V⁺, and O⁻ with sputter time of 600s.

Raman, and ex situ XPS were performed. Upon discharging to -2 V, the XRD peaks at 25.3°, 43.9° and 33.6° corresponding to the (110), (003) and (310) crystal plane had shifted to lower angles, suggesting that Ca^{2+} is gradually intercalated into the tunnel structures of $VO_2(B)$ and thus expands the unit cell (**Figure 4a**,b). In contrast, when charged to 0.5 V, these peaks shift reversibly to the initial locations, demonstrating the good structural reversibility. Significantly, it is noteworthy that the patterns at the charged state exhibit more pronounced characteristics compared to those at the discharged state (Figure 4a), which is caused by the temporary irregular lattice structure induced by the insertion of Ca^{2+} . Based on XRD Rietveld refinement, the corresponding lattice constant evolution of $VO_2(B)/rGO$ is shown in Figure S19 (Supporting Information). During the discharge process, both *b*-value and volume increase, with a maximum volume expan-

sion of 0.6%. However, *a*-value, *c*-value, and β decrease. During charging, as Ca²⁺ are extracted, cell parameters shrink as a whole. Both in situ XRD and ex situ XRD indicate that the Ca²⁺ storage mechanism of VO₂(B)/rGO is a single-phase solid-solution reaction. Figure 4c shows the ex situ Raman spectra of the VO₂(B)/rGO electrode at the first cycle. During the discharge process, two Raman peaks at 270 and 1013 cm⁻¹ shift to lower wavenumbers, and shift reversely back to the original positions during the Ca²⁺ extraction process. The low-wavenumber peaks at 163 cm⁻¹ and 400 cm⁻¹ show the opposite periodic shift to the above two peaks.^[33] A new peak in 876 cm⁻¹ appears, which is probably derived from the formation of stretching vibration of O—Ca in VO₂(B)/rGO during the charge—discharge process.^[34] The HAADF images and elemental maps (Figure 4d) imply the insertion of Ca²⁺, which is consistent with the result

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of energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (Figure S20, Supporting Information), wide XPS spectrum (Figure S21, Supporting Information), and inductively coupled plasma (Table S4, Supporting Information). Since Ca²⁺ has an 8.99% atomic ratio in the discharged state (Table S4, Supporting Information), 0.364 mol Ca²⁺ can be inserted into 1.0 mol VO₂(B)/rGO, giving a specific capacity of 235.28 mAh g⁻¹. In order to obtain the valance information of the host element during the electrochemical process, ex situ XPS was conducted. In contrast to the initial situation, the peak of Ca 2p emerges and has high intensity at fully discharged states, further demonstrating that Ca²⁺ were inserted into VO₂(B)/rGO (Figure 4e). At the charged state, the content of Ca becomes reduced but does not disappear, which means that residual Ca^{2+} exist in the $VO_2(B)/rGO$. Most of the V^{4+} is reduced to V³⁺ after discharge (Figure 4f), and V³⁺ is oxidized back to V⁴⁺ at the subsequent charging process. It can be concluded that the reduction of V⁴⁺ corresponds to the Ca²⁺ insertion, and the existence of a small amount of V3+ is due to the residual of inserted Ca²⁺. The mechanism of calcium storage at 50 °C is consistent with that observed at room temperature, as demonstrated in Figure S22 (Supporting Information). To gain further information below the surface of the VO₂(B)/rGO electrode, XPS sputtering was applied. The XPS spectra of Ca 2p exhibited two peaks at 350.9 and 347.3 eV, which displayed similar intensities at various depths, suggesting a vertically homogeneous distribution of Ca²⁺ (Figure 4g). Furthermore, the timeof-flight-secondary ion mass spectrometry (TOF-SIMS) measurements conducted at the fully discharged electrode state reveal the homogeneous dispersion of V and O elements within the bulk structure (Figure 4h). The observed vigorous intensity of Ca²⁺ throughout the bulk reaffirms the profound insertion of Ca²⁺ into the VO₂(B)/rGO composite, corroborating the findings obtained from the XPS sputtering analysis. To investigate the morphological changes of VO₂(B)/rGO during the charge and discharge processes, ex situ TEM was employed. It can be observed that at the fully charged and fully discharged states, the nanobelt morphology of VO₂(B)/rGO remains unchanged (Figure S24, Supporting Information). Impressively, the crystal structure and morphology of VO₂(B)/rGO can be well preserved (Figures S25-S27, Supporting Information) even after 100 cycles, which reveals that the tunnel structure of VO₂(B)/rGO is sturdy and highly reversible during the Ca²⁺ insertion/extraction.

3. Conclusion

In summary, $VO_2(B)/rGO$ heterojunction formed by interfacial V—O—C bonds is constructed and firstly reported as a cathode material for CIBs. $VO_2(B)/rGO$ exhibits an ultrahigh discharge capacity of 319.2 mAh g⁻¹ and an exceptionally long lifespan (3000 cycles at 500 mA g⁻¹ with capacity retention of 85%), which is superior to most reported cathode materials for CIBs. In addition, $VO_2(B)/rGO$ also shows outstanding rate capability at 50 °C (127.1 mAh g⁻¹ at 1000 mA g⁻¹), which exhibits a wide temperature working range. The remarkable electrochemical performance is attributed to the big tunnel structures of $VO_2(B)$ and the role of rGO in enhancing electronic conductivity. DFT calculations reveal a feasible Ca^{2+} diffusion path at the interface. Furthermore, the Ca^{2+} storage mechanism of $VO_2(B)/rGO$ undergoes a reversible single-phase insertion/extraction reaction.

TOF-SIMS and XPS sputtering further indicate the profound insertion of Ca^{2+} into $VO_2(B)/rGO$. This work demonstrates the excellent electrochemical performances of $VO_2(B)/rGO$ for Ca^{2+} storage, which holds potential promise for advancing the practical application of CIBs.

Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

Acknowledgements

Y.W. and J.W. contributed equally to this work. This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (52172231), the Sanya Science and Education Innovation Park of Wuhan University of Technology (2022KF0011), and the Natural Science Foundation of Hubei Province (2022CFA087).

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Keywords

Ca-ion batteries, cathode, heterojunction, multivalent-ion battery, VO₂(B) nanobelts

Received: November 22, 2023 Revised: February 22, 2024 Published online: March 3, 2024

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