

文章编号: 1007-8827(2020)04-0358-13

锂离子电池用 CoMoO_4 / 炭颗粒与 氮掺杂多孔炭复合材料

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摘要: 超精细过渡金属氧化物(TMO)在储锂方面具有巨大潜力,但在实际应用中还存在易团聚、电导率低等挑战。本文采用双炭复合方法,首先将 ZIFs-67 固定于模板法制备的石油沥青基多孔炭骨架上,然后将配位 Co^{2+} 原位转化为 CoMoO_4 @ 炭纳米颗粒,生成 CoMoO_4 @ 炭纳米颗粒/多孔炭骨架(CoMoO_4 @ CP/CF)。通过 ZIFs-67 热解制备出 N 掺杂炭骨架,从本质上提高 CoMoO_4 电子传输能力,而超细炭纳米颗粒可以有效阻止 CoMoO_4 聚集。基于上述优点,将该复合材料用做锂离子电池负极,电流密度为 1 A g^{-1} 时,可提供高达 818 mAh g^{-1} 的可逆比容量。该合成方法为高性能储能电极材料的设计提供了新途径。

关键词: CoMoO_4 ; 多孔炭; N 掺杂; 负极; 锂离子电池

中图分类号: TB33

文献标识码: A

基金项目: 国家自然科学基金(51572296, U1662113); 中央高校基本科研基金(15CX08005A); 中国石油天然气股份有限公司科学研究与技术开发项目(2016B-2004(GF))。

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CoMoO_4 -N-doped carbon hybrid nanoparticles loaded on a petroleum asphalt-based porous carbon for lithium storage

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Abstract: Ultrafine transition metal oxides have great potential for efficient lithium storage but some key problems, such as a strong tendency to aggregate and poor electrical conductivity, need to be solved for their possible application. Here, hybrid nanoparticles of CoMoO_4 and N-doped carbon were formed in a petroleum asphalt-based porous carbon prepared by a template method. A Co-based zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF-67) was then synthesized in-situ in its pores from $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 2-methylimidazole. The porous carbon was impregnated with $\text{Na}_2\text{MoO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and polyvinyl pyrrolidone, followed by solvothermal treatment at $180 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 24 h and finally calcination to convert the loaded components into hybrid nanoparticles of CoMoO_4 and N-doped carbon. Results indicate that the N-doped carbon boosts the electron transport ability of CoMoO_4 and efficiently prevents its aggregation. At an optimal CoMoO_4 loading the composite was used as an anode material in a lithium ion battery and delivered a reversible specific capacity of 818 mAh g^{-1} at 1 A g^{-1} , an initial coulombic efficiency of around 70%, and outstanding cycle and structural stability during cycling. The strategy reported here may open up a new avenue for the rational design and construction of well-designed electrode materials for energy storage.

Key words: CoMoO_4 ; Porous carbon; N-doped; Anode; Lithium-ion battery

Received date: 2020-04-06; *Revised date:* 2020-07-08

Foundation item: National Natural Science Foundation of China (51572296, U1662113), Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (15CX08005A), Financial Support from Taishan Scholar Project, Scientific Research and Technology Development Project of Petrochina Co., LTD (2016B-2004(GF)).

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English edition available online ScienceDirect (<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/journal/18725805>).

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version.

DOI:10.1016/S1872-5805(20)60494-2

1 Introduction

The overuse of fossil fuels in past decades has aroused growing concerns about energy shortage and environment pollution^[1-3]. The exploration of renewable and sustainable energy has been suggested as the most efficient technology to address these issues. Unlike the fossil fuels, these renewable sources are intermittent and the reliable use of them is in desperate need of robust energy storage systems. With the advantages of safety, high energy density, and excellent cycle stability^[4-5], lithium ion batteries (LIBs) have been the dominating energy storage devices in today's market. However, the practical performance of the current LIBs can not meet the increasing demand of many current and emerging applications because of the limitations from the electrode materials. For example, the commercially available graphite anode has a low specific capacity and slow ion diffusion rate^[6]. As a result, the searches for alternative anode materials with high specific capacity and fast ion diffusion rate are urgently required^[7-12].

With the possibility of reacting reversibly with Li⁺ ions, transition metal oxides (TMOs) afford a much higher theoretical capacity (600-1 000 mAh g⁻¹) than graphite anodes, thus attracting worldwide attention recently^[12,13,44]. Previous researches indicate that the single metal oxides, such as Fe₃O₄, MoO₃, CuO, Co₃O₄, TiO₂ and SnO₂^[13-19], usually suffer from pulverizations of primary particles, low initial coulombic efficiency (ICE) and poor cycling performance due to large volume expansion during lithiation/delithiation^[20-22]. To address these issues, tremendous efforts have been devoted to mixed transition metal oxides (MTMOs) where the synergic effects rising from different metal elements can contribute to improved performance^[23-24]. Typical examples include stannates, ferrites, cobaltates, nickelates and so on^[25-28].

To further enhance the competitiveness of MTMOs, a myriad of modification strategies have been proposed, including construction of ultrafine particles as well as hybridization with nanocarbons^[29-31]. Among them, CoMoO₄ has been widely used as electrode materials for LIBs owing to its high theoretical capacity (980 mAh g⁻¹) and feasible oxidation state, such as CoMoO₄/Fe₂O₃ core-shell nanorods^[32], hierarchical CoMoO₄^[33], fully conversion of MoO₃ by the introduction of CoMoO₄^[34]. However, CoMoO₄ still suffers from low conductivity and particle aggregation. Through rationally hybridizing with porous carbon frameworks and/or optimizing the particle size

of CoMoO₄, these drawbacks can be essentially overcome.

Hybrid structured CoMoO₄-carbon materials, such as CoMoO₄ nanorods-graphene^[35], CoMoO₄@Co₃O₄ on flexible carbon fabric^[24], electrospun lotus root-like CoMoO₄@graphene nanofibers^[36], coaxial CoMoO₄ nanowire on carbon cloth^[49], have been reported with improved lithium storage performance. On the one hand, the reduced particle size can contribute to a shortened Li⁺ ion diffusion length. On the other hand, loading the ultrafine CoMoO₄ on conductive carbon particles can improve the local electron transport rate. Zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF) is a branch of metal organic frameworks (MOFs) which consists of metal ions or clusters combined with organic linkers/ligands through strong coordination bonds. Meanwhile, ZIFs are thought to be desired porous carbon precursors^[37-38]. Furthermore, imidazoles in ZIFs can provide N heteroatom-doping owing to its high nitrogen content, which improves electron conductivity by modifying electron density^[39-40].

Petroleum asphalt, as a residual product in processing of crude oil, has been used in water-proofing, paving roads or fuels for quite a few years^[27,40]. Nevertheless, these applications are still of low value and how to realize its value-added utilization is meritorious. Taking this into consideration, asphalt is promising to serve as anode precursors of LIBs and electrode materials of supercapacitors because it is abundant in aromatic ring and available in massive production. Though a lot of work has been done to realize this goal, asphalt based carbon materials still have room for improvement^[40-42].

Herein, we report the dual carbon hybridizing technology to fabricate ultrafine MTMO, namely CoMoO₄, and carbon composites for robust lithium storage. Starting from 3D asphalt-derived porous carbon framework, ZIF-67 nanoparticles are firstly loaded on the carbon frameworks with the help of oxygen containing functional groups, such as —OH, —COOH. Because of the different diffusion rates of metal ion in a mixed solvent, the coordinative Co²⁺-in-situ has metal ion exchange reaction with MoO₄²⁻ to convert into ultrafine CoMoO₄@carbon nanoparticles loaded on carbon framework. The ultrafine CoMoO₄ is firstly embedded into the ZIF-derived carbon nanoparticles to prevent the tendency of CoMoO₄ aggregation. The 3D porous carbon framework can secure the efficient electron transfer. When evaluated as anode materials for LIBs, such a nanohybrid delivers a reversible specific capacity of 818 mAh g⁻¹ and long-term stability of over 450 cycles.

2 Experimental

2.1 Chemicals

Petroleum asphalt was obtained from China National Petroleum Corporation. 20 nm γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles was purchased from Macklin Biochemical Co., Ltd. HCl (36 wt. % -38 wt. %) was purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (99 wt. %), Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O (99 wt. %), polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP, average MW 58000, K29-32) and 2-methylimidazole (98 wt. %) were purchased from Aladdin Industrial Corporation. All chemicals were directly used without further purification.

2.2 Synthesis

2.2.1 Synthesis of 3D carbon framework (CF)

The 3D carbon framework was prepared according to our previous work^[40]. 50 g of petroleum asphalt was loaded in a 100 mL high-pressure autoclave for thermal pre-treatment at 380 °C for 14 h in nitrogen atmosphere. The pre-treated petroleum asphalt was collected after cooling down to room temperature naturally. Subsequently, 2 g of pre-treated product was dissolved in 80 mL toluene. Then 6 g of γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles were added into the aforementioned solution. After that, the solvent was fully evaporated and the as-obtained mixture was carbonized at 800 °C for 1 h under N₂ atmosphere with a heating rate of 5 °C/min. Finally, the obtained black powder was then washed with 4 mol/L HCl and deionized water sequentially before drying at 60 °C overnight. Then as-prepared product was denoted as carbon framework (CF).

2.2.2 Preparation of CoMoO₄@CP/CF

Firstly, 0.2 g of CF was added into a mixture of 15 mL methanol and 15 mL isopropanol under stirring followed by sonication for 15 min. Next, 1 mmol Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O was dispersed in above mixture (denoted as solution A). Then, 2 g of 2-methylimidazole was dissolved in a mixture (denoted as solution B) of 5 mL methanol and 5 mL isopropanol followed by sonication for 10 min. Solution B was poured into solution A and mixed thoroughly by vigorous stirring. Finally, 1 mmol Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O and 0.5 g of PVP were added to the resulting solution mixture before sonication for 30 min. The solution was vigorously stirred for 24 h. Then, the dispersion was transferred into a 50 mL Teflon-lined autoclave, heated to 180 °C and kept for 20 h. At last, the black powder was collected by centrifugation and dried in air overnight before calcination at 500 °C for 3 h under N₂ atmosphere with a heating rate of 2 °C min⁻¹ (denoted as precursor of CoMoO₄@CP/CF). For comparison, CoO@CP/

CF and CoMoO₄/CF were prepared using a similar procedure without adding Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O and 2-methylimidazole, respectively.

In addition, the sample was also calcinated at different temperatures (400, 500, 600 °C, and denoted respectively as 400, 500, 600) to investigate the effect of temperature on the material. After exposed in air for several days, the precursor of CoMoO₄@CP/CF was further calcinated at 400 °C with a heating rate of 3 °C min⁻¹ under N₂ atmosphere (denoted as CoMoO₄@CP/CF). The precursor of CoMoO₄@CP/CF was also further calcinated at 300 and 400 °C for 3 h with a heating rate of 3 °C min⁻¹ in air (denoted as 500-300-Air, 500-400-Air). Besides, different mass loadings of CoMoO₄ on CoMoO₄@CP/CF were investigated by a similar preparation method except for adding 0.5 mmol Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O and 0.5 mmol Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O, and 2 mmol Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O and 2 mmol Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O, and denoted as 0.5-CoMoO₄@CP/CF and 2-CoMoO₄@CP/CF, respectively.

2.3 Characterization

The crystal structure of different samples was detected by X-ray diffraction (XRD, X'Pert PRO MPD) worked at 40 kV and 40 mA (Cu K α , λ = 0.154 066 nm). Morphologies of the as-made samples were obtained by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, Hitachi S-4800). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS), and selected area electron diffraction (SAED) were tested on a JEM-2010 system at 220 kV. The specific surface area and pore structure were investigated by nitrogen sorption (Micromeritics, ASAP2020, America). Raman spectra were tested on a Jobine Yvon Labram-010 Raman spectrometer. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analyses were carried out on a PHI 5 000 VersaProbe instrument (ULVAC-PHI, Japan).

2.4 Electrochemical measurements

The as-made material (70 wt%), acetylene black (20 wt%), binder (CMC, 10 wt%) were mixed and dispersed in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone. Then, the slurry was coated on the copper foil and dried at 80 °C for 12 h in a vacuum oven. The mass loading of each electrode was 1.1-1.2 mg cm⁻². Then, CR2032 coin type half cells were assembled in an Ar-filled glove box, with Li foil as the counter and reference electrodes, Celgard 2400 film served as a separator, and 1 mol/L LiPF₆ in (1:1, v/v) ethylene carbonate and dimethyl carbonate (EC/DMC) as an electrolyte. The galvanostatic charge-discharge results were obtained on a Land CT2001A battery test system

under a potential range of 0.01–3V (vs. Li⁺/Li). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves (scan rate: 0.2 mV s⁻¹) and electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) at a frequency range of 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz with an AC amplitude of 5 mV were conducted on a CHI760E (CH Instruments, Shanghai, China) electrochemical workstation.

3 Results and discussion

Fig. 1 depicts the fabrication process of CoMoO₄@CP/CF. Firstly, 3D porous carbon framework was made according to our previous report^[41]. What is worthy to mention is the use of γ -Fe₂O₃, as γ -Fe₂O₃ is magnetic which contributes to the formation of a

connected porous carbon framework when the mixture is stirred with magneton, while α -Fe₂O₃ is non-magnetic. The formation of pores are caused by removal of γ -Fe₂O₃ template by strong acidic HCl. Then, ZIF-67 nanoparticles were loaded on these porous carbon frameworks with the help of oxygen containing functional groups, such as —OH, —COOH. The function of PVP mainly lies on controlling the particle size of ZIF-67 to prevent formation of bulky ZIF-67 particle. Finally, due to the faster diffusion rate of coordinative Co²⁺ and slower diffusion rate of MoO₄²⁻ in the mixed solvent, metal ion exchange reaction occurred. Thus, the ZIFs-67 mediated CoMoO₄ precursor was formed by a one-pot solvothermal method before being calcinated to obtain CoMoO₄@CP/CF.

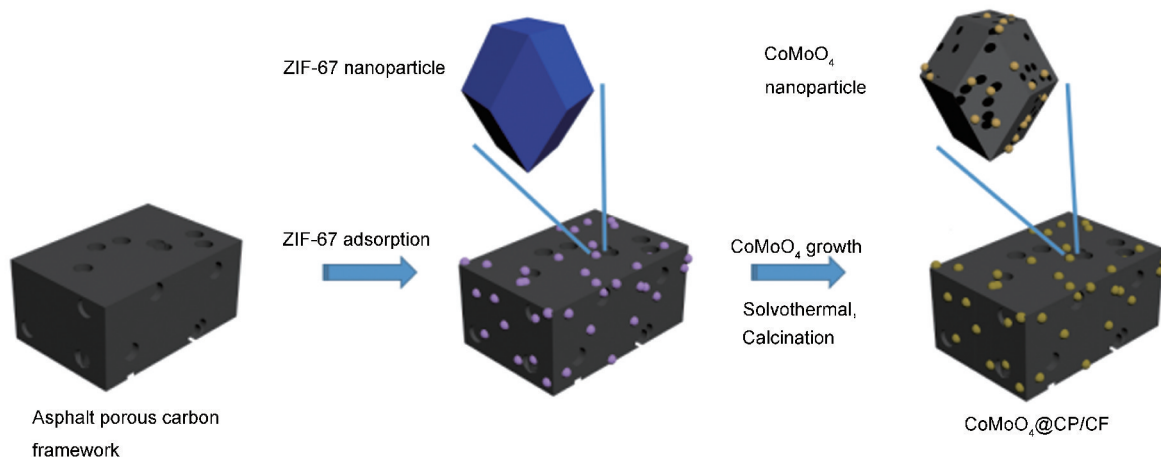


Fig. 1 Schematic illustration of the preparation process of CoMoO₄@CP/CF.

As shown in Fig. 2a, the XRD patterns of CoO@CP/CF and CoMoO₄@CP/CF show metal phases of materials. It can be seen that CoO@CP/CF has several peaks, which are well corresponding to CoO standard peaks and there is no other phase of Co metal observed. In terms of CoMoO₄@CP/CF, the sample was calcinated twice to improve the crystallinity of CoMoO₄. The main peaks of CoMoO₄@CP/CF correspond to standard CoMoO₄ and the peak with highest intensity fits standard CoMoO₄ very well. Besides, two weak peaks belonging to CoMoO₃ and Co₃C are also observed. This phenomenon is ascribed to the reduction reaction of metal oxides under carbon atmosphere.

In order to investigate temperature effect on the material, we also prepared samples at different calcinating temperatures which are shown in Fig. S1a. The pattern in the 400 sample which mainly contains MoO₃ is totally different from the 500 and 600 samples while the 500 and 600 samples are similar and have some metal phase of CoMoO₄ and some other impure metal phases of Co and Mo. This may be re-

sulted from unsuccessful metal phase transformation under relative low temperature, so CoMoO₄ metal phase can not be formed. Fig. S1b shows two peaks of CF at 23.9° and 43.2°, which are ascribed to amorphous carbon and graphitic carbon, respectively^[40]. Meanwhile, it proves that Fe₂O₃ has been removed because no peaks of Fe₂O₃ can be found. As shown in Fig. S2, we conducted XRD analysis of the precursors of CoMoO₄@CP/CF further calcinated in air for a better understanding of secondary calcination effect on the precursor. There is no obvious metal phase change when the precursor of CoMoO₄@CP/CF was calcinated once more at 300 °C in air, whereas, a high purity metal phase of CoMoO₄ was formed when the precursor of CoMoO₄@CP/CF was calcinated at 400 °C in air. And the XRD result of CoMoO₄@CP/CF calcinated twice at 400 °C in N₂ atmosphere matches well with that of CoMoO₄/CF. This phenomenon confirms that a second thermal treatment at 400 °C is favorable for the phase transformation of precursor while it is not at 300 °C. While the precursor of CoMoO₄@CP/CF was exposed to air

for several days to adsorb enough oxygen and then further calcinated at 400 °C under N₂ atmosphere to

prevent the carbon element of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF from losing when it was calcinated in air.

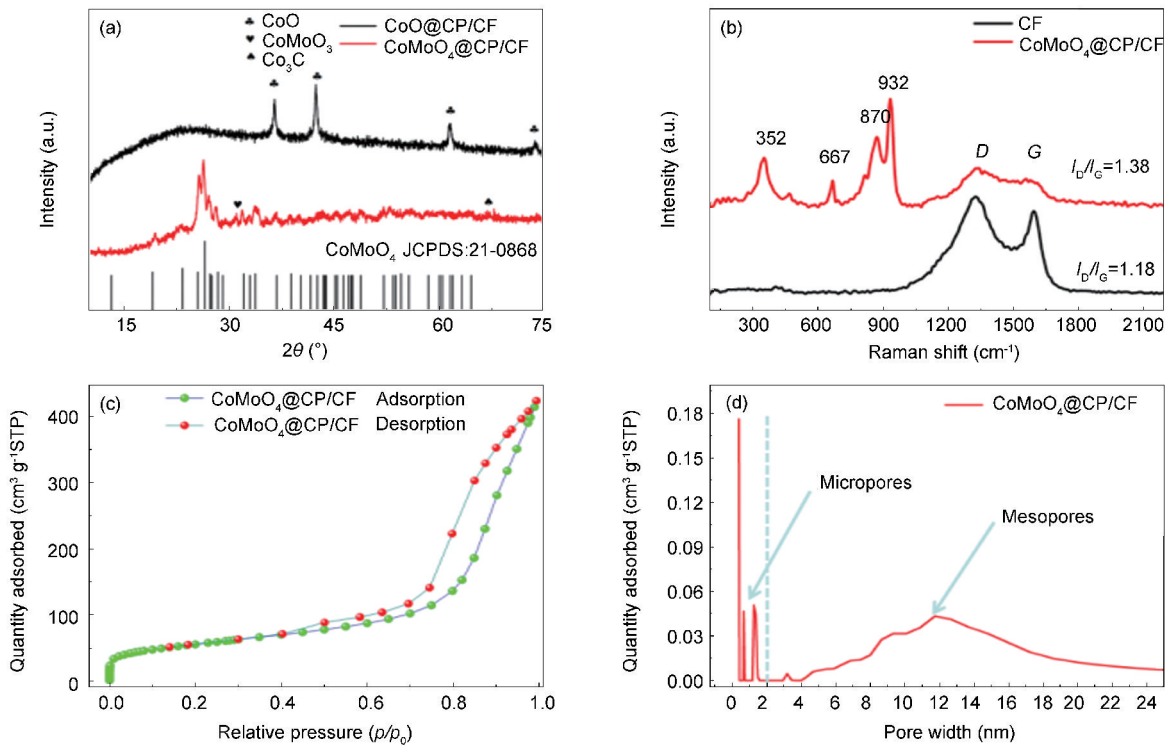


Fig. 2 (a) XRD patterns, (b) Raman spectra, (c) nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms and (d) pore size distribution of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF.

Raman spectra are shown in Fig. 2b. In view of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF, peaks observed at 352, 667, 870, 932 cm⁻¹ are ascribed to CoMoO₄, and this result agrees well with the XRD analysis^[36]. Besides, D band (1 356 cm⁻¹) from structural defects and G band (1 596 cm⁻¹) from the vibration of sp²-bonded graphitic carbon atoms can be seen in the Raman spectra^[10]. CoMoO₄@ CP/CF shows a larger I_D/I_G ratio than that of CF, because further calcination can provide more defects which are essential for carbon-based electrodes. Additionally, pore structure was investigated by nitrogen adsorption. In Fig. 2c, a typical type-IV isotherm of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF with an apparent hysteresis loop is clearly obtained. The CoMoO₄@ CP/CF has a BET surface area of 196.6 m² g⁻¹ and this relatively smaller specific surface area may be resulted from ultrafine carbon nanoparticles formed in pyrolysis of ZIFs covering on the pores of substrate CF. Micropores and mesopores dominated pore size distribution of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF is shown in Fig. 2d. Micropores and mesopores are clearly observed in the pore width distribution curve.

This hierarchical pore structure plays a key role in offering more active sites and reservoirs for Li⁺ storage. The CoMoO₄@ CP/CF delivered an average pore size of 13.12 nm. A part of mesopores are a little bit smaller than the template because micropores originated from ZIFs cover on/in mesopores. Some mesopores are bigger than the template because of the aggregation of the template.

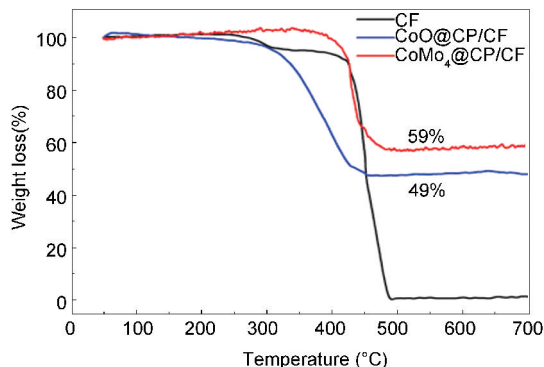


Fig. 3 Thermogravimetric curves of CF, CoO@ CP/CF and CoMoO₄@ CP/CF.

In the Fig. 3, thermogravimetric analysis was applied to measure the metal content of CoMoO₄@CP/CF and CoO@CP/CF after oxidation at 800 °C in air with a heating rate of 5 °C/min. As shown, the thermogravimetric curve of CF indicates that they start to lose weight starts at 290 °C and the weight loss stop at 490 °C. This may be resulted mainly from the carbon loss in the form of CO₂. The CoMoO₄@CP/CF has a 78% residue derived from CoMoO₄, and CoO@CP/CF has a 59% residue of CoO.

The morphology and structure were investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). As the SEM images of ZIF-67/CF shown in Fig. S3, ZIF-67 anchored on CF is in a standard octahedron shape. In addition, numerous pores are visible in SEM images of CF (Fig. S4a) due to the removal of the template. When CF is combined with ZIFs-67 followed by cal-

ination, we can see a lot of linked nanoparticles anchored on CF and the pore structure of CF is hardly observed in the SEM image of CoO@CP/CF. Furthermore, interconnection of ZIFs is clearly seen due to the formation of strong coordination bonds between metal ions and organic linkers (Fig. S4b). In the SEM images of CoMoO₄@CP/CF (Fig. 4a-c), it is obvious that the mass loading of CoMoO₄ increases with the amounts of cobalt salt and molybdenum salt. No aggregation phenomenon is detected, at the same time, pores and nanoparticles can be clearly seen. This uniform distribution of CoMoO₄ nanoparticles contributes greatly to the well electrochemical performance because of its abundant active sites. Besides, the TEM images of CF also prove that pores are formed after the removal of the template (Fig. S4c and S4d).

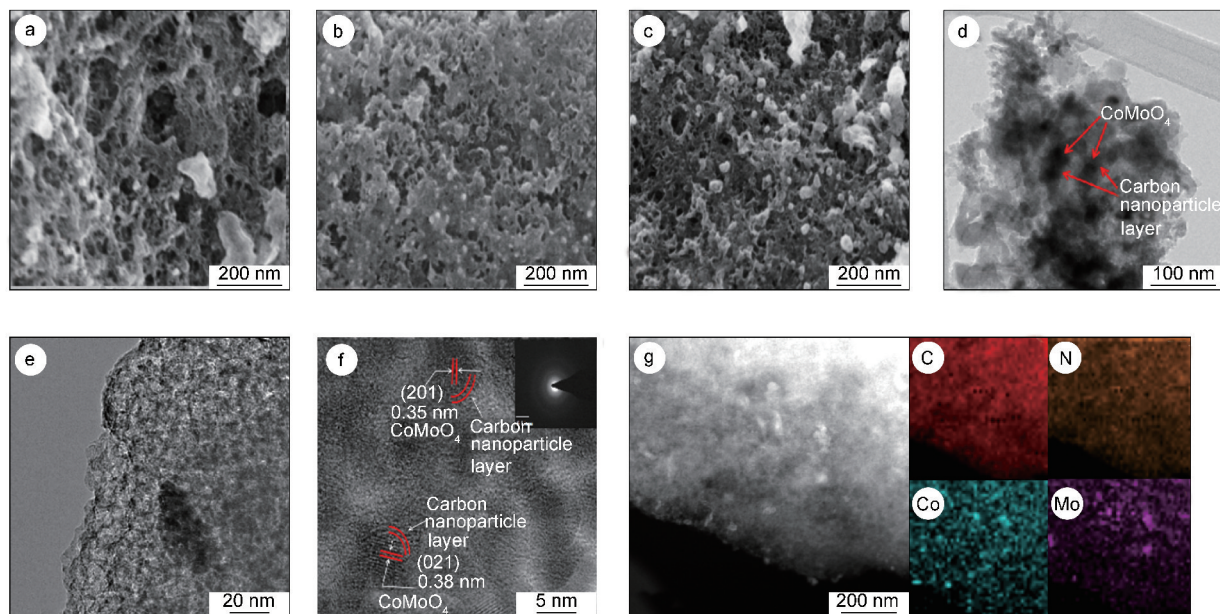


Fig. 4 SEM images of (a) 0.5-CoMoO₄@CP/CF, (b) CoMoO₄@CP/CF, (c) 2-CoMoO₄@CP/CF, (d-f) TEM images and high-magnification TEM image of CoMoO₄@CP/CF and (g) TEM image of CoMoO₄@CP/CF and the corresponding elemental mappings of C, N, Co and Mo.

However, less pores are seen in TEM images of CoMoO₄@CP/CF (Fig. 4d, 4e). This phenomenon may be resulted from Co²⁺ linked by the micropores-dominated ZIFs and carbon nanoparticles coated on the surface of CF network. In further analysis, TEM image of CoMoO₄@CP/CF shows smaller CoMoO₄ clusters successfully anchored in the carbon framework, which are presented in the form of dark pots, and carbon nanoparticle layer surrounded CoMoO₄ clusters are clearly observed (Fig. 4d). HRTEM of CoMoO₄@CP/CF clearly shows the crystal lattice of CoMoO₄ clusters with a size of 5-10 nm and this is

similar to Yao's work^[44] (Fig. 4f). The lattice fringe is around 0.38 nm and 0.35 nm, corresponding to the spacing of (021) and (201) planes of CoMoO₄. SAED result with a ring pattern shows low crystallinity due to ultrafine carbon nanoparticles derived from ZIFs surrounding around CoMoO₄ particles (inset of Fig. 4f). Meanwhile, elemental mapping analyses are carried out to demonstrate element dispersion, and we can clearly see that C, N, Co and Mo elements are dispersed uniformly in CoMoO₄@CP/CF.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) is also used to further investigate elemental components of

samples. Fig. 5a clearly shows the presence of C, N, O, Co and Mo elements in CoMoO₄@CP/CF, but only C and O elements exist in CF. This result well proves that compounds containing Co, Mo, N grow on CF network. In comparison, only Co element is obtained in the sample of CoO@CP/CF, which agrees well with the XRD result. The high-resolution C 1s of

CoMoO₄@CP/CF indicates some functional groups (—OH, —COOH) on CF, which may help CoMoO₄ grow on carbon network due to hydrogen bonding or van der Waals' intercalation (Fig. S5)^[44]. The peaks centered at 232.5 and 235.5 eV belong to Mo 3d_{5/2} and Mo 3d_{3/2} of Mo⁶⁺, respectively, which demonstrate the existence of MoO₄²⁻ (Fig. 5b)^[45].

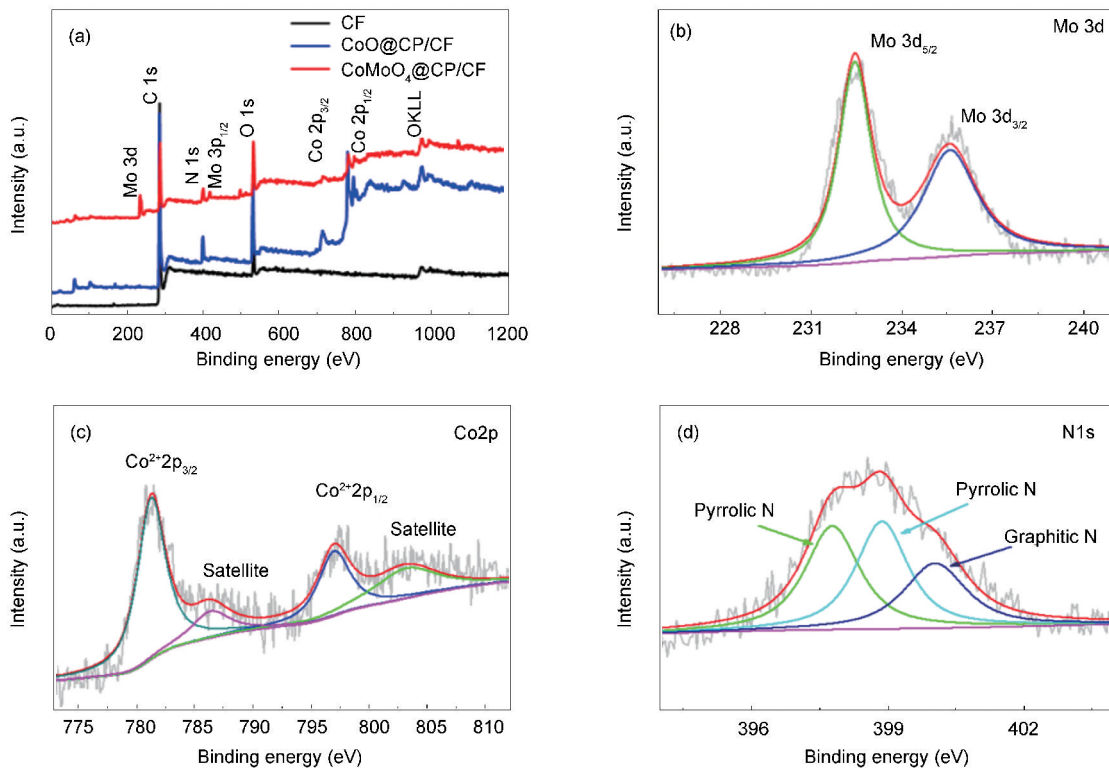


Fig. 5 XPS spectra of (a) CF, CoO@CP/CF, CoMoO₄@CP/CF, (b) Mo 3d spectrum, (c) Co 2p spectrum and (d) N 1s spectrum of CoMoO₄@CP/CF.

In terms of Co²⁺ spectrum, peaks at 781.3 and 797.0 eV originate from Co²⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Co²⁺ 2p_{1/2}, respectively. The other two shakeup-type peaks (at 786.3, 803.2 eV) are shakeup-type peaks of Co at the high binding energy side of the Co 2p_{3/2} and Co 2p_{1/2} edges (Fig. 5c)^[46-47]. The N 1s peak can be divided into three types of N element, including pyridinic N, pyrrolic N and graphitic N (Fig. 5d)^[37]. Especially, the existence of graphitic N is favorable for electrode materials because of it can tune the electronic proper-

ties and improve electronic conductivity of carbon^[48]. In addition, element concentrations are also characterized in Table 1. The concentration of N element is obviously increased by introducing ZIFs and the percentages of Co (1.87%) and Mo (2.33%) demonstrate the metal content of CoMoO₄@CP/CF in detail. For the ratio of Co and Mo atoms (0.8) is close to the stoichiometry of CoMoO₄. The result is in accordance with the XRD pattern and Raman result, which show strong crystallinity of CoMoO₄.

Table 1 Elemental contents and concentrations of nitrogen species in CF, CoO@CP/CF and CoMoO₄@CP/CF analyzed by XPS measurements.

	C (at. %)	N (at. %)	O (at. %)	Co (at. %)	Mo (at. %)	Pyrrolic N (%)	Pyridinic N (%)	Graphitic N (%)
CoMoO ₄ @CP/CF	54.08	8.53	25.19	5.87	6.33	36.83	36.64	26.52
CoO@CP/CF	71.06	8.79	14.86	5.29	/	58.78	23.16	18.06
CF	91.09	0.37	8.54	/	/	/	/	/

Electrochemical properties of as-made materials

were investigated by assembling 2032 coin-type half

cells with Li metal. It is implied that the reaction mechanism can be followed by several equations^[44,49]:

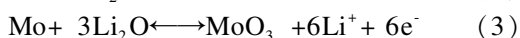
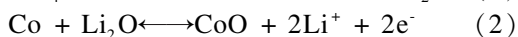
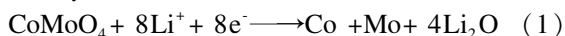


Fig. 6a depicts the CV curve of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF. Three peaks (at 0.15, 1.68 and 2.0 V) are observed in the first cathodic scan. Two sharp peaks at 1.68 and 2.0 V belonging to decomposition of CoMoO₄ in the first cathodic scan prove that CoMoO₄ exists in CoMoO₄@ CP/CF. The peak at 0.15 V may come from the formation of solid electrolyte interphase (SEI)^[44,49,51,53]. In the subsequent cycles, peaks centered at 0.6 and 1.43 V correspond to de-

struction of the crystal structure of CoMoO₄ accompanied with complete reduction to Co⁰ and Mo⁰^[36]. For the first anodic scan of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF, three peaks (at 1.27, 1.82 and 2.40 V) are observed. A broad weak peak at 1.27 V and an obvious peak at 1.82 V belong to the oxidation of Mo to Mo⁴⁺ and Co to Co²⁺, respectively, while the peak at 2.40 V may correspond to Li⁺ extraction from interfacial storage sites^[50]. In the subsequent cycles, nearly overlapped curves prove that the reaction is highly reversible. The peak at 2.40 V disappears and the peaks centered at 1.36 V and 1.82 V correspond to the reactions in the eq (2) and eq (3), respectively, which prove that the reaction is fully reversible. All above prove that CoMoO₄ is successfully formed in CoMoO₄@ CP/CF^[44,52].

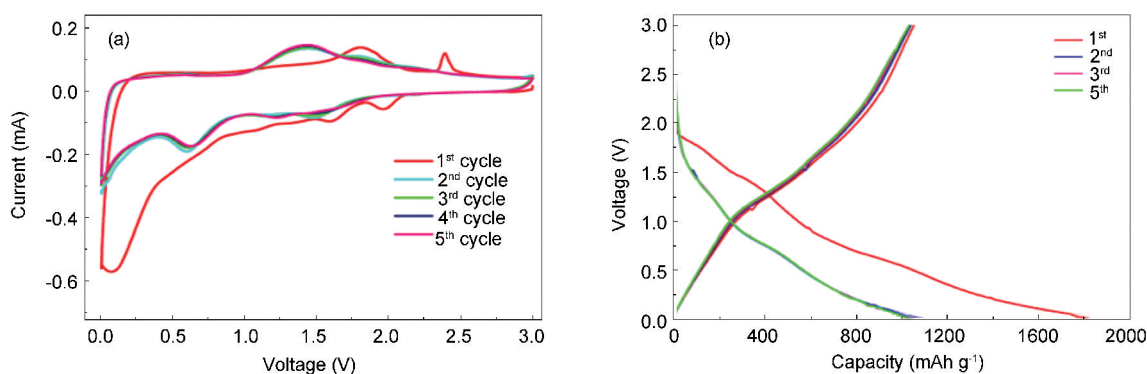


Fig. 6 (a) CV curves at a scan rate of 0.2 mV s⁻¹ for CoMoO₄@ CP/CF and (b) galvanostatic charge and discharge profiles at a current density of 100 mA g⁻¹ for CoMoO₄@ CP/CF.

In addition, discharge/charge and voltage curves of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF were obtained by galvanostatic tests in Fig. 6b. The test was carried out at a current density of 100 mA g⁻¹ between a voltage range of 0.01-3 V vs. Li⁺/Li. For the first charge/discharge process of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF, it has a discharge capacity of 1838 mAh g⁻¹ and a charge capacity of 1050 mAh g⁻¹ in the first cycle. Moreover, two voltage plateaus (1.68 V and 2.0 V) in the first discharge process and 1.27 V in the first charge process are in accordance with the corresponding CV curves. In the subsequent charge/discharge plots, well overlapped curves demonstrate a high reversibility of reactions.

The cyclability and rate performance of as-made materials were further investigated. Fig. 7a depicts cycling performances of CF, CoO@ CP/CF and CoMoO₄@ CP/CF while CoMoO₄@ CP/CF exhibits the highest specific capacity of 818 mAh g⁻¹ after cycling for 450 times. As shown, there is an obvious tendency of going up for both CoO@ CP/CF and CoMoO₄@ CP/CF which may be caused by the activation

process of electrode materials in the initial tens of cycles. After that, reversible capacities of CoO@ CP/CF and CoMoO₄@ CP/CF tend to drop resulting from SEI film formation and irreversible “dead Li” formation. Moreover, the fluctuation of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF may come from the partially ununiform dispersion of metal clusters. Remarkably, the specific capacity of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF climbs up to ~818 mAh g⁻¹ after reaching a capacity valley of ~635 mAh g⁻¹. Since the 200th cycle, the capacity of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF maintains at 818 mAh g⁻¹ over 450 cycles with a capacity retention rate of 74%. In detail, this phenomenon may be originated from the reversible growth of a polymeric gel-like film resulting from kinetically activated electrolyte degradation with the increase of cycling numbers^[54-58]. The going down and up feature is pretty common in petroleum-based carbon materials due to the gradual activation process, more specifically, more and more electrolyte goes into interlayers of active materials. The same phenomenon is observed in samples of CoO@ CP/CF and CF, since carbon framework is involved in all of them. Meanwhile, CE

of $\text{CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$ is also presented. Remarkably, the initial CE of $\text{CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$ is up to 70.3% while the first discharge capacity is $1\,101 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ and the first charge capacity is 774 mAh g^{-1} , which further proves a high reversibility of $\text{CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$. For CoO@ CP/CF , the material delivers a reversible of specific capacity of 530 mAh g^{-1} over 450 cycles with a capacity retention rate of 71%, and this inferior electrochemical performance may be ascribed to the low theoretical capacity of CoO (750 mAh g^{-1}). In the meantime, the cycling tendency of CoO@ CP/CF also presents a minor upward trend caused by the activation process and a slow decay derived from the stable SEI film formation^[58-59].

In view of the bare CF, CF exhibits a reversible specific capacity of 453 mAh g^{-1} with a capacity retention rate of 38%. The cycling trend of CF consists of two segments including a weak downward part and an upward part, which comes from a partial crystallinity degradation from graphitic carbon to a more disordered one after more active sites are exposed for lithium storage^[10]. In addition, we also investigated the effect of temperature and other factors on cycling per-

formance in Fig. S6. In the cycling performance curves of various thermal treatment process, we found that the first calcination temperature in $500 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ exhibits the best performance with a reversible capacity of 583 mAh g^{-1} and the capacity retention rate around 73% over 300 cycles. The sample 400 shows a specific capacity of 535 mAh g^{-1} with a capacity retention rate of 69% and the sample 600 affords a specific capacity of 558 mAh g^{-1} with a capacity retention rate of 71%. The similarity in different samples is attributed by the fact that carbon framework occupies remarkable ratio in as-made materials and dispersion of metal oxides may be un-uniform because pores on carbon framework are more or less uneven. Calcination temperature has a great influence on crystallinity degree of metal oxides and on carbonization of petroleum-based carbon materials. Additionally, we made a comparison of the electrochemical performances of previously reported CoMoO_4 -based anode materials with our work in Table 2 and the as-made material exhibits a considerable long-cycle life with an excellent reversible specific capacity.

Table 2 Comparison of the electrochemical performances of previously reported CoMoO_4 -based anode materials with our work.

Sample	Current density (mA g^{-1})	Cycle number (Times)	Reversible capacity (mAh g^{-1})	Journal	Ref.
$\text{CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$	1000	450	818		This work
$\text{CoMoO}_4\text{-G}$	100	40	968	Ionic	[35]
lotus like CoMoO_4 /Graphene nanofiber	100	200	735	Electrochimica Acta	[36]
ultrathin CoMoO_4 on carbon fabric	100	150	1128	New J Chem	[24]
interconnected CoMoO_4	100	50	990 ± 10	ACS AMI	[52]
$\text{CoMoO}_4/\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ hollow octahedrons	200	100	1050	Mater Chem A	[23]
hierarchically porous CoMoO_4	500	100	758	Nanoscale	[33]
$\text{CoMoO}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ core-shell nanorods	500	80	990	J Alloys Compd	[32]
CoMoO_4 NP/rGO	740	600	620	ACS AMI	[44]
coaxial CoMoO_4 nanowire on carbon cloth	1200	1000	764	Journal of Power Sources	[49]
	1000	100	875		
P-Mo-Co-HMs	1500	100	751	ACS Nano	[34]
	2000	587	587		

Fig. 7b shows the cycling performances of the $\text{CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$ samples with different loadings of CoMoO_4 . $\text{CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$ gives the best result among these samples while $0.5\text{-CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$ has a 652 mAh g^{-1} reversible capacity with a capacity retention rate of 61.1%. However, $2\text{-CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$ suffers a severe drop during cycling and then increases to a capacity of 626 mAh g^{-1} with a capacity retention rate of 59.7%, which may be caused by activation process of massive transition metal oxides. Fig. 7c shows the rate performances of CF, CoO@

CP/CF and $\text{CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$ at current densities of 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2 A g^{-1} . The $\text{CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$ delivers reversible capacities of 1 035, 992, 828, 670, 415 mAh g^{-1} , CF delivers reversible capacities of 620, 551, 436, 322, 210 mAh g^{-1} and CoO@ CP/CF presents reversible capacities of 633, 555, 396, 272, 159 mAh g^{-1} at 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2 A g^{-1} , respectively. Especially, the as-made material of $\text{CoMoO}_4@ \text{CP/CF}$ can still maintain an initial capacity of $1\,035 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ after a higher current density of 2 A g^{-1} is suddenly switched to a lower density of

0.1 A g⁻¹, indicating that as-made material has a structural integrity and excellent reversibility at high current densities.

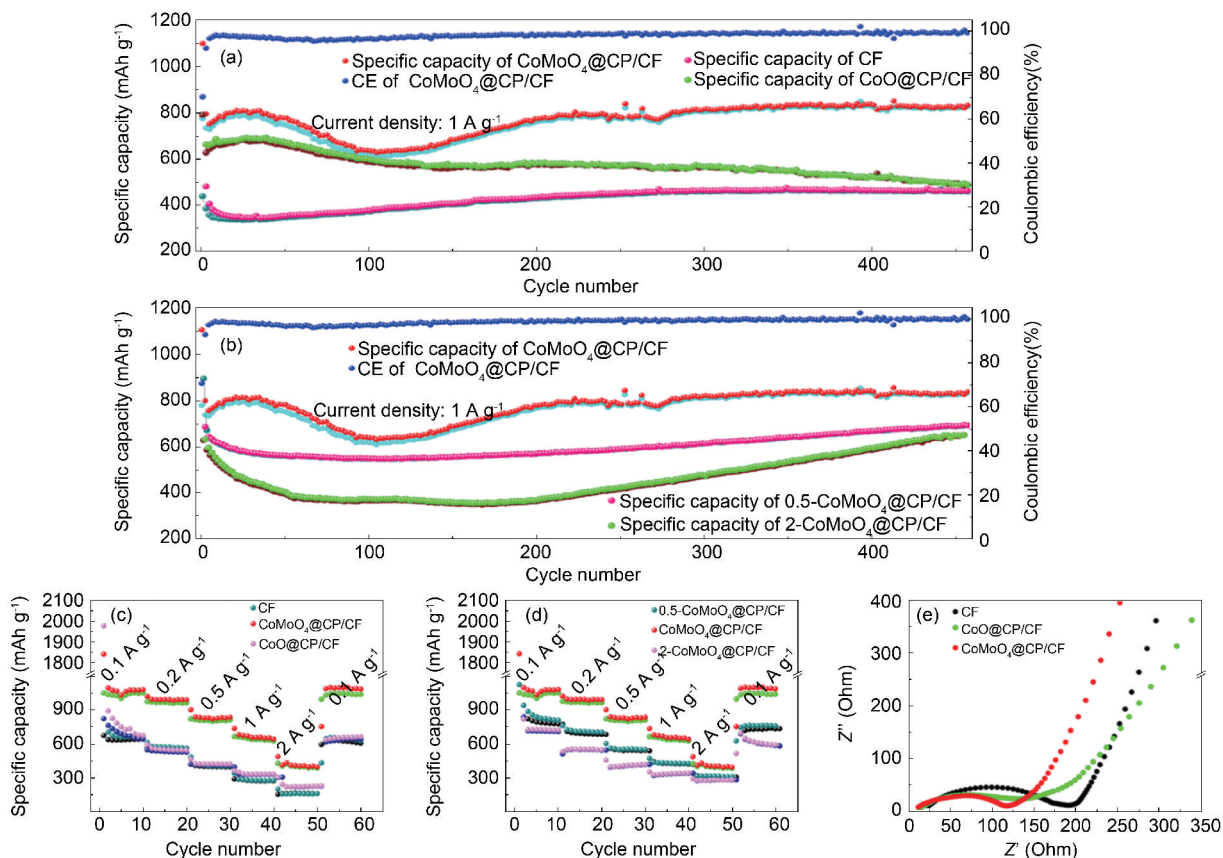


Fig. 7 (a) Cycling performances of CF, CoO@CP/CF, CoMoO₄@CP/CF and coulombic efficiency of CoMoO₄@CP/CF, (b) cycling performances of 0.5-CoMoO₄@CP/CF, CoMoO₄@CP/CF, 2-CoMoO₄@CP/CF, (c) rate performances of CF, CoO@CP/CF and CoMoO₄@CP/CF, (d) rate performances of 0.5-CoMoO₄@CP/CF, CoMoO₄@CP/CF, 2-CoMoO₄@CP/CF and (e) electrochemical impedance spectra of CF, CoO@CP/CF and CoMoO₄@CP/CF.

In the Fig. 7d, it shows the rate performance of samples with different mass loadings of CoMoO₄. CoMoO₄@CP/CF has the most appropriate loading compared with the other samples while 0.5-CoMoO₄@CP/CF delivers 783, 687, 544, 433, 315 mAh g⁻¹ and 2-CoMoO₄@CP/CF presents 718, 552, 411, 339, 281 mAh g⁻¹ at 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2 A g⁻¹, respectively. Apart from the above electrochemical performance, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy was also applied to further explain the outstanding performance delivered by CoMoO₄@CP/CF. As shown in Fig. 7e, electrochemical impedance spectra consist of two parts: a semicircle in high frequency region which represents SEI film resistance and charge transfer resistance, and an upward slope line in low frequency region which represents Li⁺ diffusion capability. In comparison of CF, CoO@CP/CF and CoMoO₄@CP/CF, CoMoO₄@CP/CF has the lowest semicircle radius and highest slope indicating that CoMoO₄@CP/CF possesses a superior electronic conductivity and fastest Li⁺ diffusion ability among these

samples^[10,36]. This result is mainly attributed to carbon particles on the surface of CoMoO₄ that facilitate the electron transfer ability and Li⁺ diffusion rate. At the same time, the N-doped carbon framework also gives a positive contribution to the electron transfer by tuning electronic property of carbon substrate.

The structural integrity of CoMoO₄@CP/CF electrode material was further investigated by SEM images before and after cycling at a current density of 1 A g⁻¹. Before cycling, a few CoMoO₄ particles and other pieces of particles are ascribed to additives of acetylene black and CMC in Fig. S7a. The SEM image of CoMoO₄@CP/CF electrode after cycling for 450 times is shown in Fig. S7b, it is found that an integrated porous carbon framework is clearly shown and a few CoMoO₄ particles exist in the porous carbon network. This phenomenon may be caused by transformation of crystalline CoMoO₄ particles to amorphous ones. In addition, there are a lot of pores which help store more Li⁺ and no apparent cracking of the carbon framework is observed. Thus, the well retained structural integrity of the material en-

sures sufficiently favorable electrochemical performance of CoMoO₄@ CP/CF during cycling.

4 Conclusion

A brand-new dual carbon hybridized CoMoO₄@ CP/CF was prepared by a facile solvothermal reaction coupled with post calcination method. It has been demonstrated that ZIFs-67 is firstly anchored on carbon frameworks and then in-situ converted into CoMoO₄@ CP/CF. Besides, N-doped carbon framework was realized with the introduction of imidazole to serve as N sources. The material performs a robust lithium storage competence; a considerable reversible capacity of 818 mAh g⁻¹ at 1 A g⁻¹, a high ICE of 70.3% and a preferable rate capability of 1 035 mAh g⁻¹ at 100 mA g⁻¹. Such a competitive lithium storage capability may be derived from a unique structure and excellent electron transport ability of ultrafine carbon nanoparticles and N-doped 3D carbon framework. This strategy provides a favorable approach for high value-added utilization of heavy oil for future energy storage materials.

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Instructions to Authors

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Aims and Scope

New Carbon Materials publishes research devoted to the physics, chemistry and technology of those organic substances that are precursors for producing aromatically or tetrahedrally bonded carbonaceous solids, and of the materials that may be produced from those organic precursors. These materials range from diamond and graphite through chars, semicokes, mesophase substances, carbons, carbon fibers, carbynes, fullerenes and carbon nanotubes, etc. Papers on the secondary production of new carbon and composites materials (for instance, carbon-carbon composites) from the above mentioned various carbons are also within the scope of the journal. Papers on organic substances will be considered if research has some relation to the resulting carbon materials.

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