Hierarchical Manganese Oxide/Carbon Nanocomposites for Supercapacitor Electrodes

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ABSTRACT

MnO₂/carbon nanocomposites with hierarchical pore structure and controllable MnO₂ loading have been synthesized using a self-limiting growth method. This was achieved by the redox reactions of KMnO₄ with sacrificed carbon substrates that contain hierarchical pores. The unique pore structure allows the synthesis of nanocomposites with tunable MnO₂ loading up to 83 wt.%. The specific capacitance of the nanocomposites increased with the MnO₂ loading; the conductivity measured by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy, on the other hand, decreased with increasing MnO₂ loading. Optimization of the MnO₂ loading resulted in nanocomposites with high specific capacitance and excellent rate capability. This work provides important fundamental understanding which will facilitate the design and fabrication of high-performance supercapacitor materials for a large variety of applications.

KEYWORDS

Hierarchically porous carbon, MnO₂/carbon nanocomposite, supercapacitor

1. Introduction

Supercapacitors are emerging as a class of high-power energy-storage devices [1–4]; their broader uses, however, are still limited by their energy density [5–7]. Generally, a supercapacitor is based on the electrical double layers formed along carbon electrodes, which may provide capacitance of up to 300 F/g in an aqueous electrolyte [8, 9]. Oxides of transition metals, such as RuO₂ [10–12], MnO₂ [13–16], NiO [17, 18], Co₃O₄ [19], and V₂O₅ [20, 21], possess significantly higher capacitances; however, harvesting such capacitance has been limited by their low conductivity and

redox kinetics. To address such intrinsic limitations, a common strategy is to integrate low-dimensional oxide materials with conductive components, such as carbon, which has led to the development of various nanocomposites with significantly improved energy density [22–24]. Nevertheless, many essential questions about such composites, such as how the structure, composition and interfaces of the composites may affect the capacitive performance, remain open.

We report herein the synthesis of MnO₂/carbon nanocomposites with controlled structure and composition and the study of the role of these properties in determining capacitive performance. MnO₂ is currently

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considered as one of the most promising redox components for supercapacitor applications owing to its high capacitance, low cost, and low toxicity. To date, various MnO₂/carbon composites have been synthesized, such as composites with planar graphite [25], acetylene black [26, 27], ordered mesoporous carbon [28, 29], carbon nanotubes [30–33], and carbon aerogels and nanofoams [34]. These have generally been synthesized by physical mixing of MnO₂ with carbon [31], or electrochemically or chemically depositing MnO₂ on carbon substrates [32, 33]. Among these synthesis methods, the chemical deposition of MnO₂ through self-limiting redox reactions of KMnO₄ and carbon is of particular interest [25–29]. In such a synthesis, carbon substrates are exposed to KMnO₄ solution at room temperature or an elevated temperature, and a spontaneous redox reaction described as

occurs producing MnO₂ on the sacrificial carbon substrates [35]. The resulting MnO₂ layer reduces the diffusion of the MnO₄[−] ions, generating conformal MnO₂ coatings on the conductive carbon substrates. Such a self-limiting growth confers several major advantages, such as intimate interfaces between the oxide and the carbon, nanosized oxide particles, and controllable oxide thickness.

Nevertheless, the structure and composition of such MnO₂/carbon composites are governed by transport of the KMnO₄ in solution and its reaction with carbon, which is very rapid even at room temperature. Note that the diffusion of KMnO₄ in porous carbon substrates, such as activated carbon and mesoporous carbons, is generally slow in comparison with the fast reaction kinetics [36, 37]. The rapid reactions result in the preferential formation of MnO₂ layers located on the exterior of the carbon substrates, blocking inwards diffusion and reaction of KMnO₄. This technical difficulty inevitably leads to a low MnO₂ loading in the composites, which is detrimental for overall capacitance. Moreover, the formation of MnO₂ is often associated with reduced pore accessibility and electron conductivity. In fact, it has been observed that increasing the oxide loading in such carbon composites by further promoting the redox reaction

resulted in a reduction in the overall capacitance [38]. Therefore, the synthesis of MnO₂/carbon composites with higher oxide loading and controlled pore structure for fast transport of ions, which retain the carbon framework needed for electron conductivity is essential to ensure a satisfactory capacitance performance.

To address this challenge, carbon substrates with hierarchical pores (pores with multiple-length-scale diameters) rather than uniform pores were used in this work. The presence of large pores ensures the effective transport of KMnO₄ to the substrate interior, while the mesopores provide high surface area for effective reaction. Such a structure allows the formation of composites with high oxide loadings that are homogeneously and intimately coated on the sacrificial carbon scaffold. Moreover, the resulting nanocomposites still retain an interconnected porous structure, which facilitates effective electrolyte diffusion and charge transport and ensures higher specific capacitance and better rate capability. Resulting from this unique design, nanocomposites with MnO₂ loadings of up to 80 wt.% have been achieved, which is a significant advance on the current state of the art. For the first time, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy has been used to study the synergic effects between the MnO₂ mass loading and conductive carbon scaffold, providing insights leading to better capacitance performance.

2. Experimental

2.1 Synthesis of carbon substrate and MnO₂/carbon nanocomposites

The porous carbon substrates were synthesized by an assembly process using phenolic resol as the carbon precursor. Tri-block copolymer F127 (M_w = 12,600, PEO₁₀₆PPO₇₀PEO₁₀₆, where PEO and PPO are poly(ethylene oxide) and poly(propylene oxide), respectively) was used as a soft template; silicate clusters formed by hydrolysis and condensation reactions of tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS) and colloidal silica particles (70–100 nm in diameter) were used as the hard template. Briefly, F127 (1.6 g), 0.2 mol/L HCl (1.0 g), ethanol (8 g), TEOS (2.08 g), and colloidal silica (1.5 g) were mixed in a flask and vigorously stirred

for 4 h. The mixture was transferred to a glass dish and after evaporation of the solvent for 12 h at room temperature, the mixture was put into an oven at 100 °C for 24 h to effect the thermo-polymerization. The samples were then carbonized in a tubular furnace under nitrogen flow. The samples were heated from room temperature to 350 °C at 2 °C/min, kept at 350 °C for 2 h and heated to 500 °C at 1 °C/min, followed by heating to 900 °C at 10 °C/min and holding at 900 °C for 2 h. After carbonization, the as-formed carbon/silica composites were soaked with 5 wt.% HF for 12 h to remove the silica, converting the composites into hierarchical porous carbons. For comparison, ordered mesoporous carbon (OMC) with a uniform pore structure was also synthesized according to the method reported by Zhao et al. [39].

The synthesis of MnO₂/carbon composites was conducted by a procedure adapted from the Ref. [25]. Briefly, 0.08 g of carbon substrate was soaked in 25 mL of Na₂SO₄ solution (0.1 mol/L) at 50 °C in vacuum and stirred with 25 mL solution containing 0.1 mol/L KMnO₄ and 0.1 mol/L Na₂SO₄ for 1, 5, 10, 30, 60, 120, or 240 min. The products were then washed with deionized water and dried at 80 °C in vacuum for 24 h; the products are denoted MnO₂/carbon-time (e.g., MnO₂/carbon-240).

2.2 Material and electrode characterization

X-ray diffraction patterns were recorded on a PANalytical X'Pert Pro X-ray powder diffractometer using copper *K*_α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$). Nitrogen sorption isotherms were measured at 77 K with a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 analyzer. The samples were degassed in vacuum at 180 °C for 3 h before measurements were taken. The specific surface areas were calculated by the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method using the adsorption branch in the relative pressure range from 0.04 to 0.25. The pore size distributions (D_p) were derived from the adsorption branch using the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) model. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was carried out in a PerkinElmer analyzer from 25 °C to 800 °C with a heating rate of 10 °C/min and air flow rate of 100 mL/min. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were obtained using a JEOL JSM-6700 FE-SEM.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were obtained using a Philips CM120 microscope operated at 120 kV. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) experiments were conducted on a Titan 300 kV S/TEM operated at 300 kV.

The electrodes were assembled on nickel foam collectors. Briefly, 80 wt.% of the test material, 10 wt.% of carbon black, and 10 wt.% of poly(vinylidene fluoride) dispersed in *N*-methylpyrrolidinone were mixed to form a slurry. The slurry was ultrasonically treated at 60 °C for 0.5 h, coated on a nickel foam substrate, and dried at 80 °C for 10 min under vacuum. As formed electrodes were then subjected to a pressure of 2 MPa and further dried under vacuum at 100 °C for 12 h. The electrochemical measurements were conducted using a Solartron 1860 electrochemistry workstation. Cyclic voltammetry measurements were conducted in 1 mol/L Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution at room temperature using a platinum wire as the counter electrode and an Ag/AgCl electrode as the reference electrode. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were conducted on a Solartron 1287 using a sinusoidal signal with an AC voltage of 13 mV amplitude in the frequency range from 1×10^5 to 1×10^{-2} Hz. The specific capacitance (*C*) of the electrode materials were derived using the equation $C = I/(dE/dt) \approx I/(\Delta E/\Delta t)$, where *I* is the constant discharge current density, *E* is the cell voltage, and *dE/dt* is the slope of the discharge curve.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Composition and structure of the composites

The structure and composition of the nanocomposites were found to depend strongly on the reaction conditions. Figure 1(a) compares the TGA traces of the carbon substrate and a representative composite synthesized using 0.1 mol/L KMnO₄ at 50 °C with a reaction time of 120 min (denoted as MnO₂/carbon-120). The carbon substrate lost 99.7% of its mass at 640 °C, while the TGA curve of MnO₂/carbon-120 can be divided into three regions. The mass loss (~15%) below 200 °C can be ascribed to the removal of adsorbed water. It is worth mentioning that the mass loss for MnO₂/carbon-10 in this region was slightly less (~11%)

Figure 1 (a) Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) curves of (A) the carbon substrate and (B) MnO₂/carbon-120 in air (100 mL/min). (b) Dependence of the MnO₂ content on the reaction time of the carbon substrates with KMnO₄ solution as measured by TGA

(Fig. S-1 in the electronic supplementary material (ESM)), which is due to its thinner MnO₂ coating that retains less interlayer hydration [40]. The mass loss between 200 °C and 400 °C corresponds to the combustion of residual carbon catalyzed by MnO₂ and its derivatives [41]. At the same time, the layered structure transformed to a thermodynamically stable tunnel structure [42, 43], and in addition δ -MnO₂ decomposed to Mn₃O₄ with release of oxygen at around 400 °C, which also contributed to the mass loss. Above 500 °C, residual carbon underwent combustion and Mn₃O₄ was transformed to Mn₂O₃ [44].

Based the TGA analysis, the MnO₂ contents of the composites synthesized with reaction times of 1, 5, 10, 30, 60, 120, and 240 min are compared in Fig. 1(b). It was found that the MnO₂ content increased rapidly to 46 wt.% within minutes and more slowly subsequently, due to the self-limiting growth mechanism, reaching 67 and 83 wt.% after 60 min and 240 min of the reaction, respectively. The rapid formation of MnO₂ can be attributed to the large carbon/KMnO₄ contact area and rapid KMnO₄ diffusion and reaction kinetics. Composites with 83 wt.% of MnO₂ were obtained; this is significantly higher than those prepared using mesoporous carbon or activated carbon as the sacrificed substrates (~40 wt.%) [34].

To be best of our knowledge, this content is higher than that of materials prepared using other carbon scaffolds [29, 31].

The structure of the composites was characterized

using SEM, TEM, X-ray diffraction (XRD), and other techniques. Figure 2(a) shows a representative SEM image of the hierarchical carbon substrate showing the presence of macropores with diameter from 70–100 nm. Their mesoporous structure is clearly revealed under TEM observation (Fig. 2(c)). These mesoporous channels have uniform diameters in the range 6–8 nm, which is consistent with the use of F127 surfactant as the template [45]. Upon reaction with KMnO₄ for 120 min, the composite exhibited a rougher morphology whilst retaining the macroporous structure, and deposition of MnO₂ particles was also observed (Fig. 2(b)). TEM images (Fig. 2(d)) confirmed the retention of macropores necessary for effective electrolyte transport; the ordered carbon mesoporous texture was destroyed; however, and disordered pores are clearly present in the composite. A HRTEM image (Fig. 2(d)) suggests that the MnO₂ in the composites is polycrystalline, which is confirmed by XRD (Fig. S-2 in the ESM). The diffraction peaks in this figure marked Bir (birnessite) and Bur (buserite) are characteristic of two different types of layered δ -MnO₂ [46]: the sharp peaks occur at 2θ values of 12.5° (002) and 25° (212) can be assigned to Na-birnessite and the peak at a 2θ value of 17° to Na-buserite, with these layered structures having an interlayer separation of 0.7 Å and 1 Å, respectively [47]. The reflection marked Feit at a 2θ value of 19.1° (002) represents feitknechtite (β -MnOOH) derived from a phase transformation which depends on the MnO₄⁻/Mn²⁺ ratio [48].

Figure 2 SEM images of (a) the carbon substrate and (b) MnO₂/carbon-120; TEM images of (c) the carbon substrate and (d) MnO₂/carbon-120 (inset, high-resolution TEM of the MnO₂ within the composite)

The pore structure of the nanocomposites was further probed using the nitrogen sorption technique. Figure 3(a) shows the nitrogen sorption isotherms and pore size distribution of the carbon substrate, clearly suggesting a hierarchical pore structure. The significant nitrogen uptake at relative pressures below 0.3 is consistent with the microporous to mesoporous structure (2–3 nm in pore diameter) created by removal of silicate clusters [49]. In addition, the isotherm curves

show two substantial hysteresis loops which confirm the bimodal porosity in the meso- and macro- range, which are associated with mesoporous channels templated by the F127 surfactant and macropores templated by the silica colloids, respectively. For comparison, MnO₂/carbon-120 shows significantly different isotherms (Fig. 3(b)). The uptake at low relative pressure is significantly lower, suggesting a reduced microporosity and mesoporosity; significant uptake at high relative pressure (P/P_0) is still retained, suggesting retention of the macroporosity. In particular, the presence of the hysteresis loop concluding at a relative pressure of 0.8 indicates that the macropores are connected through a mesoporous network, forming hierarchically connected pore channels.

The above studies confirm the successful synthesis of MnO₂/carbon nanocomposites with a hierarchically porous network and tunable oxide content. The relationship between the exact location of the carbon and the oxide within the nanocomposites is unclear. Since the redox reaction was initiated from the pore surface of the carbon substrates, the rapid reaction resulted in the carbon framework becoming wrapped with a layer of MnO₂. Such a reaction may create porous nanocomposites in which the frameworks possess a “cable-like” structure made with a residual carbon core and an oxide exterior layer. Such a structure will be highly beneficial for harvesting the capacitance of the oxide; however, it is difficult to observe directly using electron microscopy and other techniques.

Figure 3 Nitrogen sorption isotherms and pore size distributions (insets) of (a) the hierarchical carbon substrate and (b) MnO₂/carbon-120 nanocomposite

3.2 Capacitive performance of MnO₂/carbon nanocomposites

The synthesis of MnO₂/carbon nanocomposites with a hierarchically porous network and tunable oxide content provides a unique material platform for a study of capacitance. Figure 4(a) shows the cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves of the carbon electrode. CV curves with nearly symmetrical rectangular shape were observed at potential scan rates of 5, 10, and 20 mV/s, owing to the connective pore structure and good conductivity. The MnO₂/carbon-120 electrode showed an obvious polarization, indicated by the distorted CV curve as the scan rate was increased to 20 mV/s (Fig. 4(b)). The polarization is believed to be due to the increased electron and transport resistance mentioned above. Nevertheless, with a mass loading of 70 wt.% MnO₂, the specific capacitance increased

to 218 F/g at a current density of 0.1 A/g, which was three times of that of the carbon substrate (Figs. 4(c) and 4(d)).

It is well known that the capacitance generally decreases with increasing current density due to the polarization from electrolyte transport, ion diffusion or charge transfer [50, 51]. To investigate the relation between the rate capability and the oxide content, galvanostatic charge and discharge (GC) tests at various current densities were conducted (Fig. 5). Owing to the favorable pore connectivity and good conductivity, the carbon electrode retained 81% (a decrease from 71 F/g to 58 F/g) of its capacitance as the current density was increased from 0.1 to 2 A/g. After introducing the oxide with its high specific capacitance, the nanocomposites exhibited improved capacitance. For example, the MnO₂/carbon-5 electrode, with 48 wt.% MnO₂ content, gave a moderate specific

Figure 4 Cyclic voltammograms of electrodes made from (a) hierarchical carbon substrate and (b) MnO₂/carbon-120 at potential sweep rates of 5, 10, and 20 mV/s in 1 mol/L Na₂SO₄ aqueous electrolyte at room temperature; Typical charge and discharge curves of the (c) carbon and (d) MnO₂/carbon-120 electrodes at different current densities of 0.1, 0.2, and 1 A/g

Figure 5 Gravimetric capacitance of the carbon substrate and composites with different MnO₂ content measured at charge-discharge current densities of 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, and 2 A/g in 1 mol/L Na₂SO₄ aqueous electrolyte at room temperature

capacitance of 164 F/g at a current density of 0.1 A/g; 79% capacitance was retained (130 F/g) at a current density of 2 A/g, exhibiting a good rate capability. The MnO₂/carbon-120 electrode, with 70 wt.% MnO₂ content, showed an even higher capacitance of 218 F/g at 0.1 A/g and good capacitance retention of 70% at 2 A/g. This value is about twice that of the capacitance of the MnO₂/carbon nanofoam composite prepared by a similar approach (110 F/g at 2 mV/s) [34]. However, further increasing the MnO₂ content resulted in a deterioration in the capacitance of the nanocomposites. For example, although the MnO₂/carbon-240 electrode has the highest MnO₂ loading (83 wt.%), its overall capacitance was only 166 F/g at 0.1 A/g; only 40% of its capacitance was released at a current density of 2 A/g, which is similar to that for a pure MnO₂ electrode. The deterioration in capacitance performance is due to the reduced electron conductivity (less residual carbon skeleton) and increased ion diffusion resistance (thicker MnO₂ layer).

To further understand the galvanostatic charge and discharge results, EIS was used to quantify their conductive and diffusive behavior. Figure 6 shows Nyquist plots of the composite electrodes with different oxide content, all of which have a comparable ohmic resistance. Polarization resistance (or charge transfer resistance R_p) of the electrode, shown in the high frequency region, increased gradually as the oxide content was increased. The MnO₂/carbon-240 electrode

Figure 6 Nyquist plot from impedance spectroscopic analysis of the MnO₂/carbon-5 nanocomposite (□), MnO₂/carbon-30 nanocomposite (○), MnO₂/carbon-120 nanocomposite (△), and MnO₂/carbon-240 nanocomposite (▽)

has an R_p of ~14 Ω calculated from the diameter of the semicircle, which is significantly higher than that of the MnO₂/carbon-120, MnO₂/carbon-30, and MnO₂/carbon-5 electrodes (10, 3, and 2 Ω, respectively). Assuming a bulk resistivity of MnO₂ of $5 \times 10^5 \Omega \text{ cm}$, a pure birnessite MnO₂ electrode with the same thickness (~20 μm) as the composite electrode will have a resistance of 1000 Ω [52]. It is clear that the carbon framework in the composites does serve as an effective conductive pathway, dramatically reducing the resistance. Note that with increasing MnO₂ content, the slope of the Nyquist plot in the low frequency region decreased gradually, indicative of the increasing Warburg resistance (or diffusion resistance). These results are in good agreement with the CV and galvanostatic charge/discharge results, verifying that higher MnO₂ content leads to larger charge transfer resistance and diffusion resistance. Therefore, to achieve good capacitance performance, it is necessary to maintain a connective carbon framework for good conductivity, and a high MnO₂ content for high specific capacitance.

Besides the improved capacitance and good rate performance, the unique composite structure creates robust oxide/carbon interfaces, which endows the nanocomposites with outstanding cycling stability. Using MnO₂/carbon-120 as an example, Fig. 7 shows the charge-discharge cycles at a constant current density of 1 A/g in 1 mol/L Na₂SO₄ electrolyte. The

Figure 7 Cycling stability and typical charge and discharge curves (insert) of the MnO₂/carbon-120 nanocomposite at a current density of 1 A/g in 1 mol/L aqueous sodium sulfate electrolyte at room temperature

cycling performance is shown in the inset plot, which gives the GC plots from the 91st to 100th cycles. As shown, the electrode retained a very stable capacitance over 100 cycles (the capacitance decays by only 0.1%), suggesting a good electrochemical cycling stability.

4. Conclusions

We have developed a general approach to synthesize MnO₂/carbon nanocomposites with hierarchically porous structure and controllable MnO₂ loading using hierarchical carbon as the sacrificed substrate. Such unique porous substrates enable the formation of nanocomposites with high MnO₂ loading and capacitance. An EIS study suggests that increasing the MnO₂ loading also reduces the conductivity of the composites. Optimizing the MnO₂ loading and conductivity of the nanocomposites provides high specific capacitance and excellent rate capability. The fundamental understanding gained in this work will promote the design and fabrication of high-performance supercapacitors for a large variety of applications.

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