

Ni–V₂O₅·nH₂O Core–Shell Nanocable Arrays for Enhanced Electrochemical IntercalationKatsunori Takahashi,^{†,‡} Ying Wang,[†] and Guozhong Cao^{*,†}

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We have prepared Ni–V₂O₅·nH₂O core–shell nanocable arrays for Li⁺ intercalation applications. Ni–V₂O₅·nH₂O nanocables were prepared via formation of Ni nanorod arrays through the template based electrochemical deposition, followed by coating of V₂O₅·nH₂O on Ni nanorods through electrophoretic deposition. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) micrograph clearly shows the Ni core was covered completely by a V₂O₅·nH₂O shell. Electrochemical analysis demonstrates that in a current density of 1.6 A/g, the Li⁺ intercalation capacity of Ni–V₂O₅·nH₂O nanocable array is approximately 10 times higher than that of single-crystal V₂O₅ nanorod array and 20 times higher than that of sol–gel-derived V₂O₅ film. Both energy density and power density of such nanocable-array electrodes are higher than the V₂O₅ film electrode by at least 1 order of magnitude. Such significant improvement in electrochemical performance is due to the large surface area and short diffusion path offered by the nanostructured V₂O₅·nH₂O.

Introduction. Electrochemical intercalation is used to store electroactive species based on fast reversible faradic reactions occurring at or near the surface of an intercalation compounds. An electroactive species in electrolyte is reduced at the surface and diffuses into the interior of the crystal structure of the intercalation compound, i.e., solid electrode, in response to an externally applied electric field.¹ Vanadium pentoxide (V₂O₅) is a typical intercalation compound with a layered structure,² and thus it is one of the most promising materials for applications in electrochemical pseudocapacitors and electrochromic smart windows because of its Li⁺ intercalation ability.³ In electrochemical pseudocapacitors, the amount of energy stored is proportional to the amount of the electroactive species that can be absorbed by the electrode. Electrochromic property arises from the change of valence state of vanadium through the intercalation process. For these applications, charge/discharge rate, intercalation capacity, and cycling fatigue resistance are the most important parameters. Since the diffusion coefficient of Li ion in V₂O₅ (10^{–12}–10^{–13} cm²/s^{4,5}) and electrical conductivity of V₂O₅ (10^{–2}–10^{–3} S/cm^{6,7}) are rather small, the intercalation process is slow and only a surface layer is active in intercalation. Nanostructured materials possess large surface area (or a large surface-to-volume ratio) and a short diffusion distance and thus offer promises to achieve significantly enhanced intercalation capacity and faster intercalation/extraction kinetics.

One of the most promising nanostructures for intercalation applications is one-dimensional nanomaterials, such as nanowires, nanocables, and hollow tubes. Although various methods have been developed for the formation of nanorods or nano-

wires,⁸ template-based synthesis is one of the most important fabrication methods for nanorod arrays, since this method offers the ability to fabricate unidirectionally aligned and uniformly sized nanorod arrays of a variety of materials. Martin et al.⁹ investigated the electrochemical properties of vanadium pentoxide nanorod arrays made by filling vanadium oxide sol into porous polycarbonate (PC) membranes, and reported that nanorod arrays achieved 4 times the capacity of a thin-film electrode. We recently demonstrated single-crystal V₂O₅ nanorod arrays grown by electrochemical deposition, surface condensation induced by a change of local pH as a result of H₂O electrolysis, and sol–gel electrophoretic deposition, combined with template growth methods.^{10,11} Single-crystal V₂O₅ nanorod-array electrode has 5 times higher energy storage density than sol–gel derived films in a current density of 0.7 A/g.^{11,12} These results suggest that the specific surface area of electrode is important since the redox or intercalation reactions occur at and near the electrode interface with electrolyte; hence a nanorod array structure is effective for use as a capacitor.

Composite structures have also been explored to further enhance the intercalation properties of vanadium pentoxide. For example, a composite of V₂O₅ aerogel, and nickel fiber has been reported to achieve 80% of the theoretical capacity.¹³ Kudo et al. demonstrated that a V₂O₅ gel and carbon composite has a capacity of 360 mAh/g with a high charge/discharge rate.¹⁴ These results suggest that the characteristic distance of lithium diffusion and electrical conduction plays a significant role in determining the intercalation properties. In this paper, we investigated (1) the formation of Ni–V₂O₅·nH₂O cable arrays with Ni nanorod arrays coated by V₂O₅·nH₂O using sol electrophoretic deposition and (2) their electrochemical intercalation properties. Figure 1 shows a schematic illustrating the Ni–V₂O₅·nH₂O core shell nanostructure for electrochemical supercapacitors.

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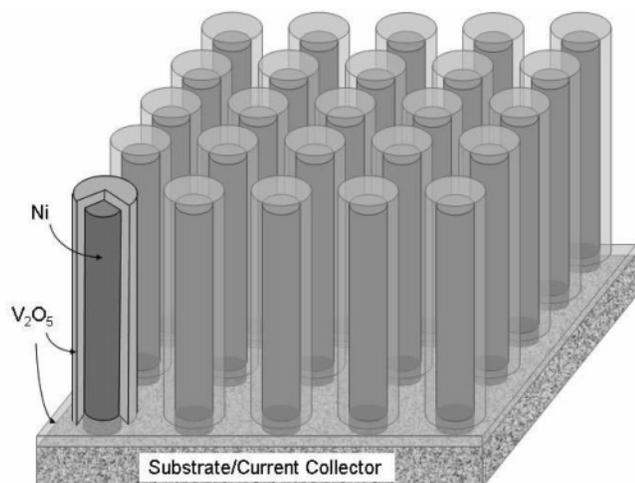


Figure 1. Schematic illustration of Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O core shell structure as a capacitor electrode studied in the present investigation for improved performance.

Experimental Section. Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O core–shell nanocable arrays were synthesized with two steps. Ni nanorod arrays were first grown by template-based electrochemical deposition. In the second step, hydrated vanadium pentoxide shell was deposited onto the surface of nickel nanorods through sol electrophoretic deposition. Ni nanorod arrays have been grown from commercial Ni plating solution NKBP11 (Caswell, Newark, NY) inside polycarbonate templates by electrochemical deposition. The templates used for this study were radiation track-etched hydrophilic PC membrane (Millipore, Bedford, MA) with pore diameters of 200 nm and thickness of 10 μm. To ensure a good electrical contact, the backside of the membrane template was first sputter-coated with Au–Pd before attaching it to the aluminum working electrode. Pt mesh was used as a counter electrode. The distance between two electrodes was kept at 25 mm. The applied voltage was 2.0 V, and the deposition lasted up to 3 h. Upon the completion of deposition, the samples were dried at 110 °C for 12 h in air. Dried samples were subsequently attached onto the titanium plate using silver paste. The samples with titanium plate were then immersed in methylene chloride to dissolve the PC membrane, resulting in the formation of free-standing Ni nanorod arrays attached on a titanium plate.

In the second step, the above Ni nanorod arrays were coated with a thin layer of V₂O₅·*n*H₂O by sol electrophoretic deposition. V₂O₅·*n*H₂O sols were synthesized using a method reported by Fontenot et al.¹⁵ with V₂O₅ (Alfa Aesar) and 30% H₂O₂ (J. T. Baker) as precursors. V₂O₅ powder was dissolved in H₂O₂ solution with a V₂O₅ concentration of 0.15 M. The resulting solution has a H₂O₂/V₂O₅ ratio of 8:1. After stirring for 1.5 h at room temperature, the excess H₂O₂ was decomposed by sonication, and a yellow-brown gel was obtained. The resultant gel was then redispersed in DI–water, resulting in the formation of brownish sol, which contained 0.01 mol/L vanadium with a pH of 2.7. The primary vanadium species in the colloidal dispersion are hydrated vanadium oxide nanoparticles. From this sol, a thin layer of V₂O₅·*n*H₂O was coated onto Ni nanorods using electrophoretic deposition. Detailed description of the sol electrophoretic deposition process and setup have been reported previously.^{16,17} The applied voltage was –0.8 V and the deposition lasted up to 15 min.

Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O core–shell nanocable arrays were characterized by means of scanning electron microscopy (SEM, JEOL JSM-5200), transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Phillips

EM420), and X-ray diffractometry (XRD, Philips PW1830). Electrochemical properties of Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O nanorod array electrode were investigated by a three-electrode cell. A 1 M LiClO₄ solution in propylene carbonate is used as electrolyte, and a Pt mesh is used as counter electrode with Ag/AgNO₃ as a reference electrode. A cyclic voltammetry and chronopotentiometric measurement were carried out by potentiostat/galvanostat (EG&G Princeton Applied Research, model 273).

Results and Discussion. Figure 2 shows typical SEM images of (a) Ni nanorod arrays grown in 200 nm PC membranes under an applied voltage of 2.0 V after PC membrane dissolved in methylene chloride and (b) Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O core–shell nanocable arrays with a V₂O₅·*n*H₂O layer deposited under an applied voltage of –0.8 V. Ni nanorod arrays grown by electrochemical deposition have a diameter of ~200 nm and stand perpendicular to the substrate, and the XRD spectrum (not shown here) indicated that there is no other detectable phase other than Ni. The nanocables after the electrophoretic deposition in V₂O₅·*n*H₂O sol have a larger diameter than Ni nanorods, and each nanocable has an independent coating layer with a relatively smooth surface. In electrophoretic deposition, the electric field induces the oriented migration and stack of charged nanoclusters or nanoparticles on the growth surface, and no electrochemical reactions are required. However, Ni is oxidized to Ni²⁺ if the applied voltage is higher than –0.4 V in basic solution.¹⁸ Ni²⁺ has a strong catalytic effect on the condensation reaction of V₂O₅·*n*H₂O sol and thus hinders the formation of homogeneous coating of V₂O₅·*n*H₂O on the surface of Ni nanorods. In the present study, –0.8 V (–0.44 V vs NHE) was applied on Ni nanorods to avoid possible dissolution of Ni.

Figure 2c shows a TEM micrograph of a Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O core–shell nanocable. The image of nanocable consists of dark area in the center and light area outside along the axis. This morphology clearly suggests that the nanocable has a layered structure with different composition along the radial, and the dark area is likely to be Ni and the outer area be V₂O₅·*n*H₂O. Core material is covered completely and uniformly by V₂O₅·*n*H₂O shell with a thickness ranging from 30 to 50 nm based on SEM and TEM. It should be noted that the interface between Ni and V₂O₅·*n*H₂O is not smooth microscopically, which may be attributable to the Ni nanorod nature formed by electrochemical deposition. XRD analyses of nanocable arrays revealed the presence of Ni only. The V₂O₅·*n*H₂O coating is too thin to be detected, although EDS analyses unambiguously revealed the presence of vanadium. Figure 2d is the XRD pattern of the V₂O₅·*n*H₂O film grown by electrophoretic deposition from the same sol and identical voltage, suggesting the coating layer being V₂O₅·*n*H₂O.

Figure 3a compares the typical cyclic voltammograms of Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O nanocable arrays and single-crystal V₂O₅ nanorod arrays (200 nm in diameter and 10 μm in length) using a scan rate of 10 mV/s; the synthesis and electrochemical properties of the latter have been reported in our previous publication.¹² The cyclic voltammogram of Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O nanocable array shows cathodic peaks at –0.4 and –0.9 V, which are attributed to Li⁺ intercalation, and anodic oxidation peaks at 0.0 and –0.6 V, which are attributed to Li⁺ extraction. Single crystalline V₂O₅ nanorod array has cathodic reduction peaks at –0.3 and –0.9 V, and anodic oxidation peaks at 0.0 and –0.6 V (broad). Although the Li⁺ extraction and intercalation behaviors were found similar in single-crystal V₂O₅ nanorod arrays and Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O core–shell nanocable arrays, the charge capacity of Ni–V₂O₅·*n*H₂O core–shell nanocable array is about 10 times higher than that of a single-crystal V₂O₅ nanorod array and about

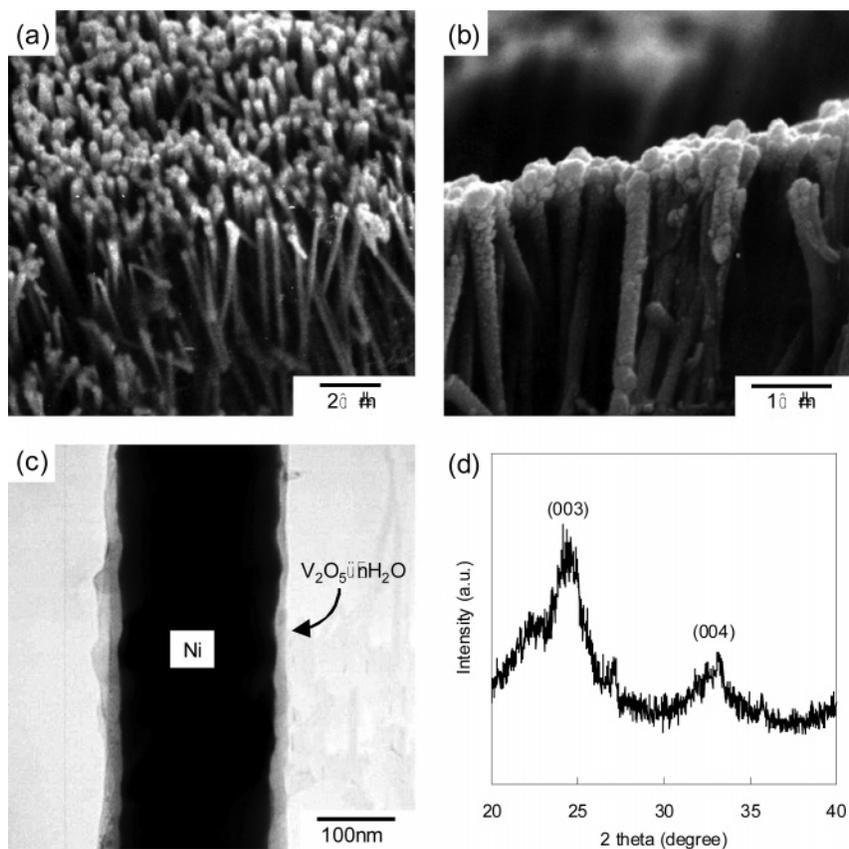


Figure 2. SEM image of (a) Ni nanorod arrays grown in 200 nm PC membranes under an applied voltage of 2.0 V and dissolving PC membrane in methylene chloride and (b) V_2O_5 coated Ni nanorods under an applied voltage of -0.8 V. (c) TEM micrograph of a Ni- V_2O_5 core-shell nanocable. (d) X-ray diffraction pattern of V_2O_5 film grown by sol electrophoretic deposition.

20 times higher than a V_2O_5 film at a given density. Our separate experiments have shown that the intercalation by Ni nanorod arrays was negligible under the experimental conditions; thus the enhancement is ascribed to both nanostructures and presence of water, which are to be discussed further later in this paper.

Figure 3b summarizes the Li^+ intercalation capacity as a function of current density of Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ nanocable arrays, single-crystal V_2O_5 nanorod arrays, and sol-gel derived V_2O_5 films. The capacity of Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ nanocable arrays is calculated based on a $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ thickness of 40 nm (average thickness) and density of 2.87 g/cm^3 .¹⁹ Although all three types of structures can achieve high intercalation capacity at a very lower current density, the intercalation capacity of both single-crystal V_2O_5 nanorod arrays and sol-gel films decreases rapidly as the current density increases. However, Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ nanocable arrays demonstrated high intercalation capacity at very high current densities. Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ nanocable arrays offer a significantly high charge and discharge rate. For example, in the case of current density of 1.6 A/g, core-shell nanocable arrays possess 10 times larger Li^+ intercalation capacity than that of V_2O_5 nanorod arrays and 20 times than that of sol-gel films. Such significantly improved transport property in Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ nanocable arrays can be attributed to both short mass transport distance and better electrical conduction. Although V_2O_5 has high capacity of lithium intercalation, it has both low diffusion coefficient of Li^+ in V_2O_5 ^{4,5} and low electrical conductivity of V_2O_5 .^{6,7} These two characters limit the intercalation ability of V_2O_5 electrode and explain the fact that in both single-crystal nanorod arrays and sol-gel films, a high capacity can only be achieved at a very low current density and the intercalation capacity decreases rapidly as the current density increases. In the case of Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ core-shell

structure, Ni core acts as an electrode, resulting in a relatively large effective electric field applied on the thin $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ layer (shell). In addition, the $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ layer with a thickness of 30–50 nm offers a short diffusion distance for both Li ions and electrons.

The maximum capacity of Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ core shell nanocable array electrode is calculated as x in $Li_xV_2O_5$ equal to 3.1 based on 40 nm thickness of $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ layer. The capacity value with $x = 3.1$ (465 mAh/g) is higher than that of amorphous V_2O_5 /carbon composite (360 mAh/g).¹⁴ This high capacity might be explained by very short diffusion path in nanocomposite structure and the presence of H_2O in V_2O_5 crystal. The $I-t$ curve of Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ core-shell nanocable array electrode suggests that it may also consist of both pseudocapacitor and double-layer capacitor. Such hybrid phenomenon of both pseudocapacitor and double-layer capacitor was also observed in RuO_2 /activated carbon²⁰ and V_2O_5 /glassy carbon.²¹ It is also known that $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ has better intercalation capacity than V_2O_5 . Our separate experiments have demonstrated that sol-gel derived $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ films possess approximately 1.4 times higher intercalation capacity than that of sol-gel derived V_2O_5 films in a current density of 0.14 A/g as shown in Figure 4, which is in a good agreement with the literature.²² It is obvious that the enhancement in electrochemical intercalation found in the nanocable arrays is mainly due to the nanostructures that provide large surface area and short diffusion distance. Figure 3c shows a Ragone plot for Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ nanocable, V_2O_5 nanorod, and sol-gel film. The specific energy (intercalation capacity) and specific power (intercalation and extraction rates) are calculated from chronopotentiograms.¹³ This plot clearly demonstrates that Ni- $V_2O_5 \cdot nH_2O$ nanocable arrays have significantly enhanced specific energy (intercalation capacity) and specific power

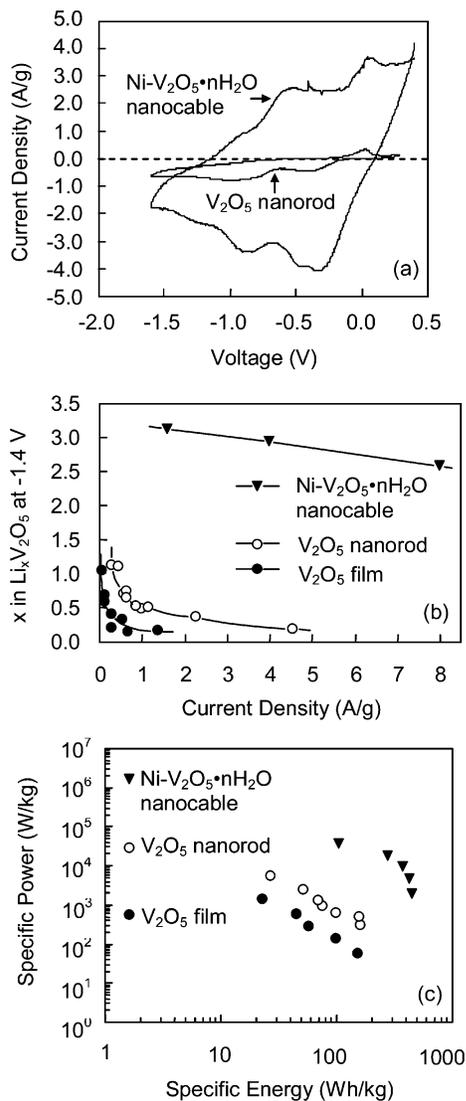


Figure 3. (a) Cyclic voltammograms of Ni-V₂O₅·nH₂O nanocable array and V₂O₅ nanorod array using a scan rate of 10 mV/s. (b) Relationship between current density and Li⁺ insertion capacity of Ni-V₂O₅·nH₂O nanocable arrays, V₂O₅ nanorod arrays, and sol-gel films from chronopotentiometric measurements. (c) Ragone plot for Ni-V₂O₅·nH₂O nanocable array, V₂O₅ nanorod array, and sol-gel film.

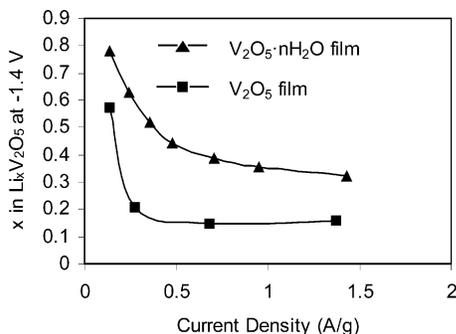


Figure 4. Relationship between current density and Li⁺ insertion capacity of V₂O₅·nH₂O film and V₂O₅ film from chronopotentiometric measurements.

(intercalation kinetics) as compared with those of both single-crystal V₂O₅ nanorod arrays and sol-gel V₂O₅ film; the improvement has been at least 1 order of magnitude under comparable experimental conditions. It should be noted that although hydrated vanadium pentoxide possesses higher intercalation capacities than crystalline vanadium pentoxide, it may suffer from poor

cyclic performance, and the role of water in determination of the properties of the material remains unclear.²³ However, the enhancement of electrochemical intercalation properties in nanocable structure is beyond question and the concept and approach are directly applicable to other metal-oxide systems. The diameter of metal cores can be easily reduced by simply using templates with smaller pore, to achieve even larger surface area. This research is currently underway and will be reported separately later on.

Conclusions

Ni-V₂O₅·nH₂O nanocable arrays were achieved in two steps: first, Ni nanorod arrays were prepared through the template-based electrochemical deposition; then a coating of V₂O₅·nH₂O was applied over the Ni nanorods through electrochemical deposition from the V₂O₅·nH₂O sol. The Ni core nanorod is covered completely and uniformly by a V₂O₅·nH₂O shell of average thickness of about 40 nm. In a current density of 1.6 A/g, Li⁺ intercalation capacity of Ni-V₂O₅·nH₂O nanocable arrays is approximately 10 times higher than that of single-crystal V₂O₅ nanorod arrays and 20 times higher than that of sol-gel-derived V₂O₅ film. Both energy density and power density of such nanocable-array electrodes are higher than those of V₂O₅ film electrode by at least 1 order of magnitude. This significant improvement in electrochemical performance of Ni-V₂O₅·nH₂O nanocable arrays is ascribed to the large surface area and short diffusion distance provided by nanostructured V₂O₅·nH₂O.

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