



# Highly dispersed Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> microspheres: Facile solvothermal synthesis and their application as Li-ion battery anodes



Jianfei Yu<sup>a</sup>, Lin Zhu<sup>a,c</sup>, Cheng Fan<sup>a</sup>, Cheng Zan<sup>b</sup>, Ling Hu<sup>a</sup>, Shuhui Yang<sup>a</sup>, Qiang Zhang<sup>a,\*</sup>, Wancheng Zhu<sup>c</sup>, Lin Shi<sup>d</sup>, Fei Wei<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Beijing Key Laboratory of Green Chemical Reaction Engineering and Technology, Department of Chemical Engineering, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China

<sup>b</sup> State Key Laboratory of Enhanced Oil Recovery, Research Institute of Petroleum Exploration & Development, China National Petroleum Corporation, Beijing 100007, China

<sup>c</sup> Department of Chemical Engineering, Qufu Normal University, Shandong 273165, China

<sup>d</sup> Key Laboratory for Thermal Science and Power Engineering of Ministry of Education, Department of Thermal Engineering, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China

## ARTICLE INFO

### Article history:

Received 21 August 2014

Received in revised form 5 October 2014

Accepted 11 October 2014

### Keywords:

Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>

Microspheres

Li-ion batteries

Solvothermal synthesis

Nanostructures

## ABSTRACT

Nanostructured transition metal oxides are promising alternative anodes for lithium ion batteries. Li-ion storage performance is expected to improve if high packing density energy particles are available. Herein, Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> microspheres with a ca. 18 μm diameter and a tapped density of 1.33 g/cm<sup>3</sup> were synthesized by a facile solvothermal–thermal conversion route. Spherical MnCO<sub>3</sub> precursors were obtained through solvothermal treatment and they decomposed and converted into Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> microspheres at an annealing temperature of 700 °C. The Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> microspheres consisted of Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles with an average 40 nm diameter. These porous Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> microspheres allow good electrolyte penetration and provide an ion buffer reservoir to ensure a constant electrolyte supply. The Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> microspheres have reversible capacities of 590 and 320 mAh/g at 50 and 400 mA/g, respectively. We thus report an efficient route for the fabrication of energy particles for advanced energy storage.

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## 1. Introduction

Rechargeable lithium ion batteries (LIBs) have become the dominant power source used in portable electronic devices because of their excellent low self-discharge rate, high coulombic energy efficiency, and the absence of a memory effect (Deng, Wan, Xie, Qin, & Chen, 2014; Su & Schlogl, 2010;). However, commercial LIB anode materials such as graphite have a relatively low Li storage capacity of only 372 mAh/g. Much effort has been put into the development of better electrode materials for LIBs to meet ever-growing performance demands (Cheng et al., 2013b; Gao et al., 2013; Jiang, Tang, Wu, Lin, & Qu, 2013; Zhang et al., 2014c).

Nanostructured transition metal oxides are the most widely investigated alternative anode materials for LIBs because of their large theoretical specific capacities (Yuan, Wu, Xie, & Lou, 2014).

Among all transition metal oxides, manganese-based oxides have lower operating voltages (average discharge and charge voltages of 0.5 and 1.2 V, respectively). Anode materials with lower charge (battery discharge process) voltages versus Li/Li<sup>+</sup> can deliver a higher energy density. Manganese oxides (MnO<sub>x</sub>) are an important class of the metal oxide family and are believed to be promising electrode materials because of their abundance, nontoxicity, and low cost. For instance, manganese oxides with excellent structural flexibility combined with unique chemical and physical properties are widely used in fields like heterogeneous catalysis (Han et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2012), electrocatalysis (Cheng et al., 2013a), supercapacitors (Xu, Kang, Li, & Du, 2010; Yan et al., 2010), and rechargeable batteries (Dai, Jiang, Hu, & Li, 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014b). Among these, Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> possesses a high theoretical specific capacity (~1018 mAh/g) as an anode material for LIBs. Recently, Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods (Shen, Ji, Miao, Yang, & Chen, 2011), nanocubes (Wang et al., 2012), nanoplates (Zhang et al., 2014b), stacking nanoflowers (Zhang, Qian, Zhu, & Tang, 2014a), porous spheres (Chang et al., 2013; Deng et al., 2012;

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +86-10-62789041; fax: +86-10-62772051.  
E-mail address: [zhang-qiang@mails.tsinghua.edu.cn](mailto:zhang-qiang@mails.tsinghua.edu.cn) (Q. Zhang).

Qiao, Yu, Jin, Guan, & Chen, 2014), nanochains (Salavati-Niasari, Mohandes, Davar, & Saberyan, 2009), nano-ovals (Qiu et al., 2011), and nanocones (Dai et al., 2013) have been reported. Both the structure and morphologies of  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  nanostructures can be easily tuned. However, their packing density is usually not very high and the volumetric density of the as-obtained electrodes should be further improved. An efficient method to fabricate high packing density  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  nanostructures with excellent Li-ion storage performance is thus required.

In this contribution,  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres were fabricated through the facile solvothermal synthesis from  $\text{MnCO}_3$  precursors and subsequent calcination. Microspheres have a high tapped density and, therefore, are widely employed in the battery industry. The reason we selected solvothermal synthesis is because of advantages such as high efficiency, low cost, extraordinary homogeneity, ability to mix starting compounds on the molecular level, and flexibility to effectively tailor products by tuning synthetic parameters (Liu et al., 2012). As-obtained  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres exhibit good electrochemical performance as anode materials for LIBs.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Synthesis of $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ microspheres

$\text{Mn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ , ethylene glycol ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}_2$ , 99.9%), and  $\text{HNO}_3$  (99.9%) were purchased from Beijing Chemical Company (China) and used as received. In the preparation of  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres, 2.0 mL 5.0 M  $\text{Mn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  and 2.0 mL 5.0 M  $\text{HNO}_3$  solution were added to ethylene glycol. After stirring for 10 min, the mixtures were transferred to a 100 mL Teflon-lined vessel, which was sealed in an autoclave and then treated at 180 °C for 10.0 h. As the autoclave was cooled to room temperature naturally, the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  precursors were collected from the reaction solution by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm for 10 min. The precursors were washed several times with ethanol and dried in air at 100 °C. The final  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres were obtained upon heat treatment of the precursors at 700 °C for 2.0 h in air.

### 2.2. Characterization

The as-prepared  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres were examined by X-ray diffraction (XRD, D8 Advance, Bruker, Germany;  $\text{CuK}\alpha$ ), scanning electron microscopy (SEM, JSF7401, JEOL, Japan; 3–20 kV), transmission electronic microscopy (TEM, JEOL2010, JEOL, Japan; 200 kV), Raman spectroscopy (Horiba JY, France; 633 nm laser), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, 250Xi, ESCALAB, USA;  $\text{MgK}\alpha$ ), and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA, TGA/DSC1, Mettler Toledo, Switzerland; elevating heat rate: 10 °C/min,  $\text{O}_2$  atmosphere).

### 2.3. Electrochemical measurements

The composite electrodes consisted of 80%  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ , 10% carbon nanotubes (high purity, made by fluidized bed technology of Tsinghua University), and 10% polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF, 761A, Arkema, France) by weight and were prepared by coating the mixture on copper foil. The 2025 coin cells use lithium foil as a counter electrode, a polypropylene microporous membrane as a separator and 1.0 M  $\text{LiPF}_6$  dissolved in ethylene carbonate (EC), dimethyl carbonate (DMC), and ethylene methyl carbonate (EMC) (1:1:1, v/v/v) as the electrolyte. The cells were assembled in an argon-filled glove box. Charge–discharge measurements were carried out using a Neware battery testing system (CT3008 W) at 100 mA/g in the range of 0.01–3.0 V versus  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}^+$ .

## 3. Results and discussion

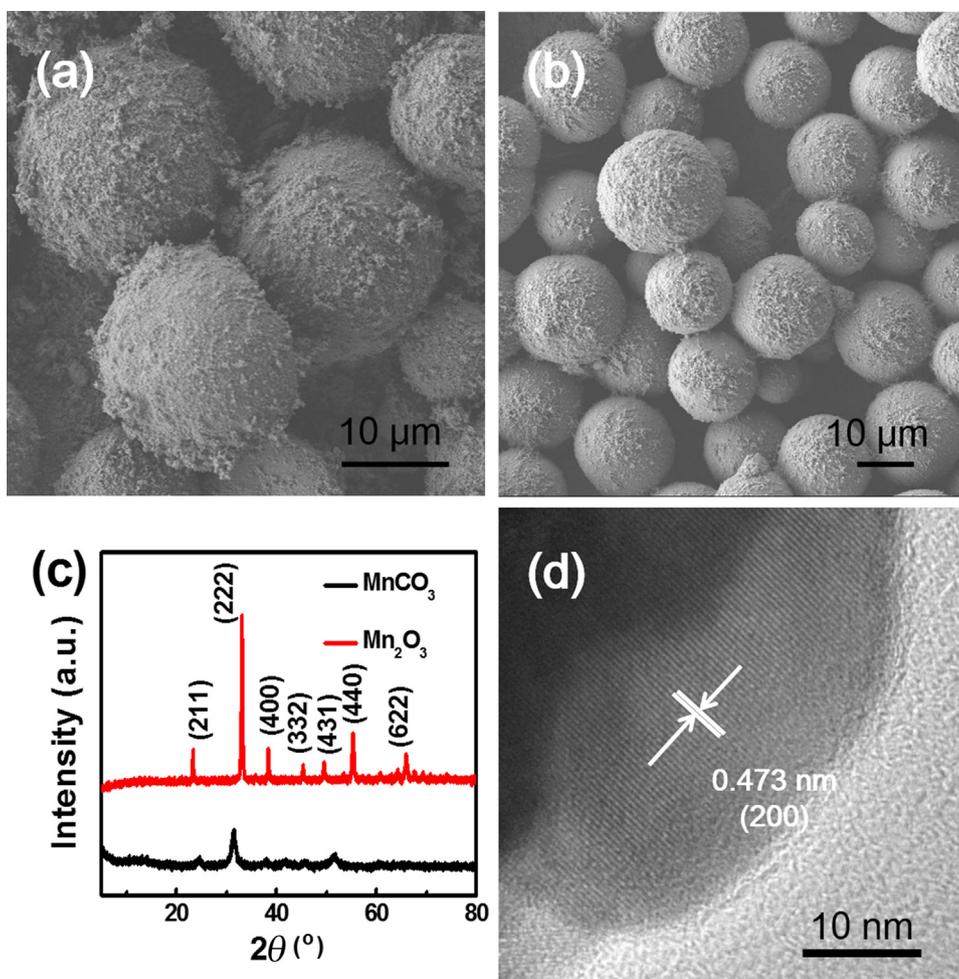
### 3.1. Structure of the $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ microspheres

$\text{MnCO}_3$  microspheres with a diameter of ca. 20  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 1(a)) were formed as precursors in the solvothermal process with  $\text{Mn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  as oxidant, as well as ethylene glycol as the medium. Ethylene glycol provides abundant hydroxy ligands to coordinate with manganese ions, which reduces the hydrolysis rate of the manganese ions and induces the formation of spherical  $\text{MnCO}_3$  precursor (Liang, Xu, Kuang, & Wang, 2008). The carboxyl groups produced by  $\text{HNO}_3$  oxidation inhibit precursor hydrolysis and favor the formation of microspheres. The rough surfaces of the as-prepared  $\text{MnCO}_3$  microspheres are composed of tiny grains. The spherical morphology of the  $\text{MnCO}_3$  microspheres is attributed to energy minimization principle in these systems. After heat treatment under an air atmosphere at 700 °C for 2.0 h, the  $\text{MnCO}_3$  microspheres decomposed into  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres. The  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres had an average diameter of about 18  $\mu\text{m}$ . A tapped density of 1.33  $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$  was obtained.

The crystal structures of the as-synthesized samples were determined by XRD (Fig. 1(c)). All the diffraction peaks of the precursor were indexed to rhombohedral  $\text{MnCO}_3$  (JCPDS Card No. 85-1109, space group: R-3c,  $a = b = 4.72926 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $c = 15.48718 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$ ,  $\gamma = 120^\circ$ ) without other impurities. All the diffraction peaks of the precursors that were annealed at 700 °C were perfectly indexed to the cubic phase of  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  (JCPDS Card No. 24-0508, space group: Ia3,  $a = b = c = 9.4091 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$ ). According to the Scherrer formula, the as-obtained  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  had an average size of 40.6 nm. A high-resolution TEM image of  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  is shown in Fig. 1(d). The lattice fringe with an interplanar distance of 0.473 nm corresponds to the (200) plane of the cubic  $\alpha$ - $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  structure.

To investigate the growth mechanism of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres, concentration-dependent shape evolution studies were also carried out. When using a 1.0 mL  $\text{Mn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  solution the  $\text{MnCO}_3$  (Fig. S1) were found to be irregular grains because of Ostwald ripening. The thermal decomposition behavior of the  $\text{MnCO}_3$  precursors was investigated by TGA and differential scanning calorimetric (DSC) methods (Fig. 2(a)). Three weight loss steps are present in the TGA profile. The first weight loss is between 30 and 250 °C in the TGA curve and comes from the desorption of physically absorbed water, glycol molecules, glycol oligomers, and other organic molecules (Chen, Yu, & Liang, 2011). The second sharp weight loss step between 250 and 400 °C corresponds to the decomposition and oxidation of chemically bonded organic species and the partial thermal decomposition of  $\text{MnCO}_3$  to  $\text{MnO}$  in the precursors. The third weight loss step between 400 and 550 °C comes from the transformation of  $\text{MnCO}_3$  and  $\text{MnO}$  to  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ . In particular, 500 °C was found to be a critical temperature for the simultaneous decomposition of  $\text{MnCO}_3$  and oxidation of  $\text{MnO}$  (Chang et al., 2013). The DSC curve exhibited an exothermic peak centered at about 260 °C and this corresponds well to the rapid weight loss in the TGA curve. Consequently, annealing the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  precursors at 700 °C for 2.0 h induced the formation of pure  $\alpha$ - $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ . The specified surface area of the as-obtained  $\alpha$ - $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  was 12.6  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$  and the pore volume was 0.018  $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$  (Fig. S2).

The Raman spectra of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  precursors and the samples annealed at 700 °C for 2.0 h are shown in Fig. 2(b). The Raman bands of around 200–1000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  come from the Mn–O vibration modes of manganese oxides. The Raman spectrum of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  precursors contains Mn–O vibrations of  $\text{MnCO}_3$  and these are located at 953.1, 643.2, and 347.8  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Three Raman bands are centered at 948.8, 628.6, and 335.5  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  respectively, and these fit the Mn(III)–O modes observed in the reference  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  well (Han et al., 2008).



**Fig. 1.** Structure and morphology of the  $\text{MnCO}_3$  precursor and the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres: (a) SEM image of the  $\text{MnCO}_3$  microsphere precursor produced by the solvothermal process; (b) SEM image of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres obtained by thermal decomposition of the  $\text{MnCO}_3$  precursor annealed at  $700^\circ\text{C}$  for 2.0 h; (c) XRD patterns; (d) HRTEM image.

An XPS measurement of the as-prepared  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres was carried out to identify the chemical state of Mn as well as the composition and purity of the samples (Fig. 2(c) and (d)). The binding energy (BE) values of Mn 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Mn 2p<sub>3/2</sub> in the sample were 653.2 and 641.3 eV, respectively (Fig. 2(c)). Spin-orbit splitting was responsible for the difference between the BE values of the Mn 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and Mn 2p<sub>1/2</sub> levels. The observed spin-orbit splitting value was about 11.9 eV, which was nearly the same as that in manganese oxides. The BE of Mn 2p<sub>3/2</sub> (641.3 eV) and spin-orbit splitting (11.9 eV) were nearly the same as the values reported for  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  (Salavati-Niasari et al., 2009). Oxygen spectra are also shown in Fig. 2(d). The O 1s peaks at 529.7 and 531.1 eV are attributed to oxygen  $\text{O}^{2-}$  in the lattice of Mn–O–Mn.

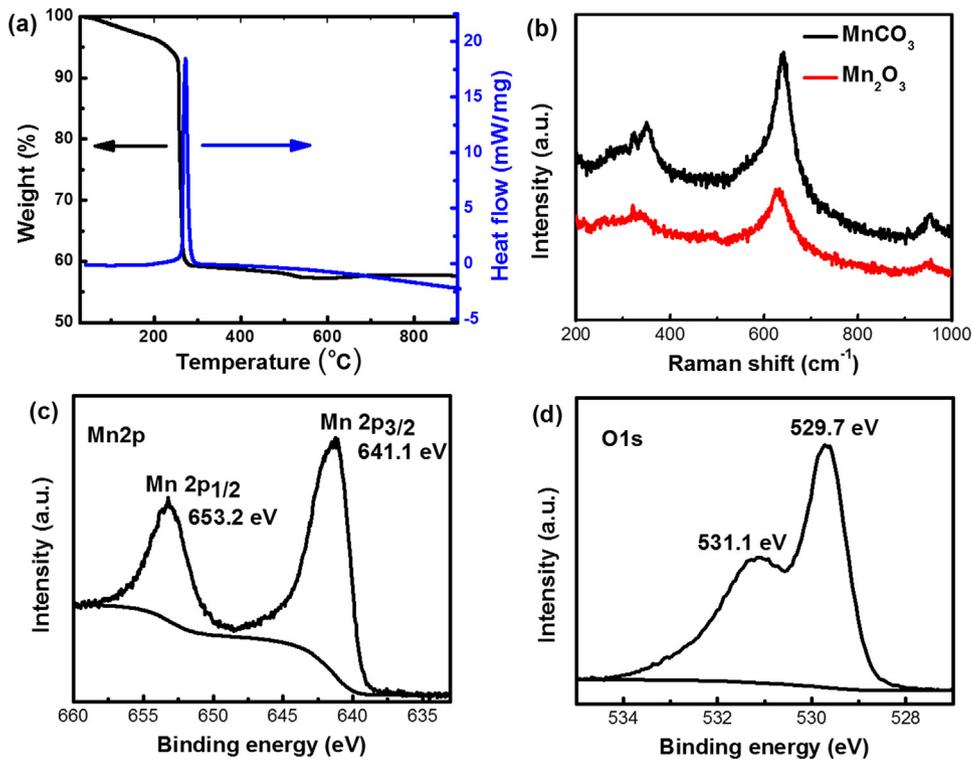
### 3.2. $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ microsphere formation mechanism

The formation of uniform  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres was investigated as follows. First, spherical  $\text{MnCO}_3$  precursors were obtained through a soft-chemical process. Glycol acted as both a solvent and a ligand. Glycol was oxidized by  $\text{HNO}_3$  and a series of organic ligands such as ethane diacid, ethanoic acid, and poly(ethylene glycol) formed. Manganese is oxyphilic and, therefore, it coordinates with these organic ligands to form hybrid precursors in the initial period. Because of the minimum surface energy principle, the precursors

fabricated by the soft-chemical process have spherical morphology. During the annealing process, the noncrystalline precursors convert into the crystalline cubic phase of  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ . The organic ligands decompose and combust leading to the maintenance of the microsphere's morphology (see Fig. 3).

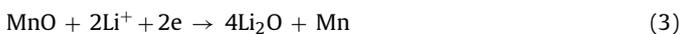
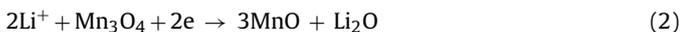
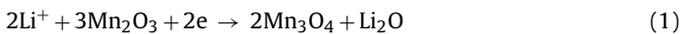
### 3.3. Li-ion storage performance of $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ microspheres

The electrochemical performance of an as-prepared  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microsphere electrode as an anode material for LIBs was investigated. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) profiles of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres are shown in Fig. 4(a). The voltammograms were measured at a sweeping rate of 0.1 mV/s in the potential range from 3.0 to 0.02 V vs.  $\text{Li}^+/\text{Li}$  at room temperature. The CV curve for the first cycle was different from that of subsequent cycles. The strong peak centered at 0.36 V in the first cathodic process was associated with the reduction of  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Mn}^0$ . In subsequent cycles the main cathodic peak shifted to about 0.30 V. For the anodic process, two peaks were present at 1.29 and 2.35 V, and these come from the oxidation of  $\text{Mn}^0$  to  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Mn}^{3+}$ , respectively. The first anodic peak shifted to 1.40 V because of the polarization induced by solid electrolyte formation during the first cycle. Compared with the first discharge process, the peak current decreased and this indicates capacity loss during the charging process. The cathodic peak for



**Fig. 2.** Decomposition of the  $\text{MnCO}_3$  precursors to  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres: (a) TGA and DSC profiles of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  precursors recorded from room temperature to  $900^\circ\text{C}$  in air; (b) Raman spectra; (c) Mn 2p and, (d) O 1s XPS spectra of the as-prepared  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres.

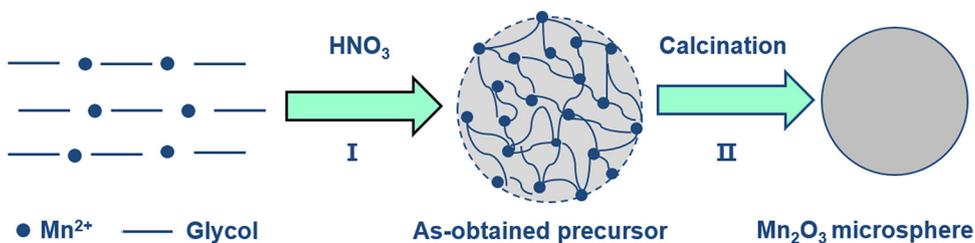
$\text{Mn}^{3+}$  to  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  was faint. However, as shown in the discharge curves in Fig. 4(b), the slope at 1.5–0.4 V and the voltage plateau at 0.4 V come from Li-ion insertion for  $\text{Mn}^{3+}$  to  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Mn}^0$ , respectively. The lithium storage mechanism of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres is as follows (Chang et al., 2013; Deng et al., 2012):



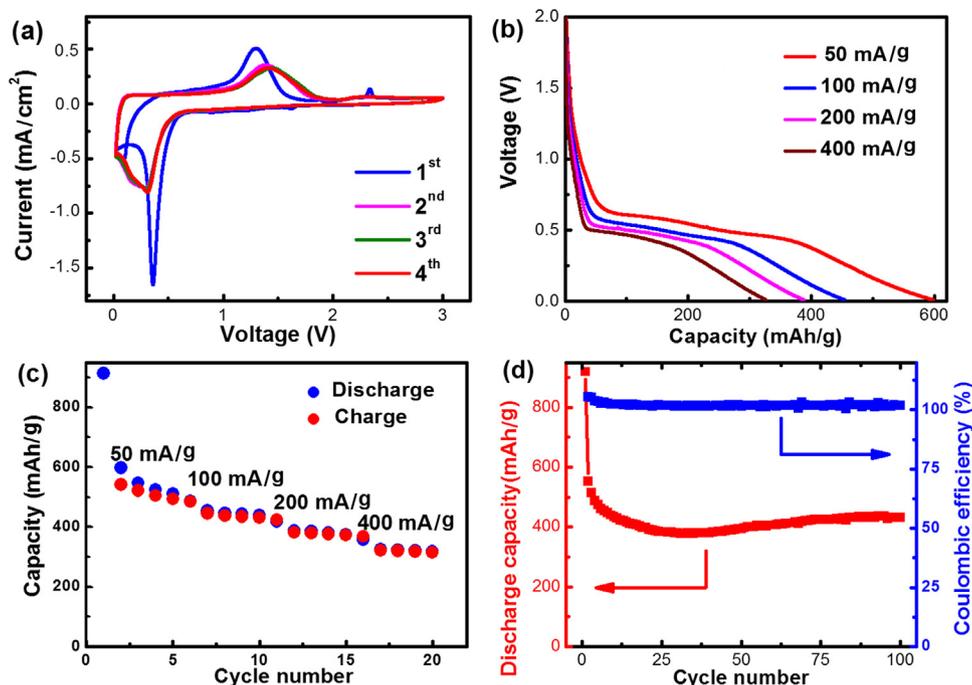
With an increase in current density the discharge capacity of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  anode decreases gradually. Specific discharge capacities of 590, 435, 377, and 320 mAh/g at 50, 100, 200, and 400 mA/g, respectively, were obtained (Fig. 4(c)). This is similar to the Li-ion storage performance reported for porous  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  spheres ( $\sim 300$  mAh/g at 200 mA/g for  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  calcined at  $700^\circ\text{C}$ ) (Chang et al., 2013), straw-sheaf-shaped  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  ( $\sim 370$  mAh/g at 400 mA/g) (Qiu et al., 2011), and hollow  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  nanocones (380 mAh/g at 400 mA/g) (Dai et al., 2013). This good rate performance is attributed to rapid ion diffusion through the mesopores of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres.

The cycling stability of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres was evaluated at a current density of 100 mA/h/g. Fig. 4(d) shows plots of the discharge capacity and coulombic efficiency versus cycle number. A rapid capacity fading was detected over the initial five cycles, and this stabilized over the following 95 cycles. The coulombic efficiency was nearly 100% for the whole test. These results indicate that the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres possess impressive Li-ion storage performance, which is better than that of reported pure porous  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  spheres (Chang et al., 2013) and also superior to nanocarbon anodes (Cheng et al., 2013b).

The good Li-ion storage performance of  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres can be attributed to the following aspects. First, the porous  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres allow good electrolyte penetration and an ion buffer reservoir to ensure a constant supply of electrolyte, even at high rates. Second, microspheres are ideal structures to accommodate the stress induced by volume changes during cycling, and the close packing of microspheres results in an anode with a high volumetric density. Li-ion storage performance can be further improved using a combination of nanocarbon structures as short-range current collectors from nanosized  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles.



**Fig. 3.** Proposed formation mechanism for the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres.



**Fig. 4.** (a) The CVs of the  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  electrode from 0.02–3.0 V versus  $\text{Li}^+/\text{Li}$  at a scan rate of 0.10 mV/s; (b) discharge curves and (c) rate performance at different current densities from 50–400 mA/g; (d) long-life cycling performance at 0.10 C (1.0 C = 1018 mAh/g).

#### 4. Conclusions

$\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres of ca. 18  $\mu\text{m}$  in size were synthesized by a general, facile solvothermal–thermal conversion route. The porous  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres allow good electrolyte penetration and an ion buffer reservoir to ensure a constant supply of electrolyte. They exhibit a reversible capacity of 590 and 320 mAh/g at 50 and 400 mA/g, respectively. Microspheres with a packing density of 1.33 g/cm<sup>3</sup> are ideal structures to accommodate the stress.  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  microspheres have potential application as anodes in lithium ion batteries with high energy density. This work offers a facile method to fabricate advanced functional particles for energy storage.

#### Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (21422604), the PetroChina Technology R&D Project on New Technology and the Method for Oil & Gas Development (2011A-1006), and CNPC Innovation Foundation (2014D-5006-0207).

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.partic.2014.10.007>.

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