Facile synthesis of nanocrystalline-assembled nest-like NiO hollow microspheres with superior lithium storage performance†

Yanwei Li, Yuanyuan Zheng, Jinhuan Yao, Jianrong Xiao, Jianwen Yang and Shunhua Xiao

Interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres assembled from nanocrystallites are prepared by a facile hydrothermal method followed by annealing at 700 °C in air. It is noteworthy that the NiO hollow microspheres exhibit a very significant pseudocapacitive effect which makes a great contribution to the enhanced lithium storage performance. Benefiting from the advantages of unique nest-like nanoarchitecture and pseudocapacitive effect, the NiO hollow microspheres show high reversible capacity, superior cyclic performance, and excellent high rate capability. When used as anode materials for lithium ion batteries, the NiO hollow microspheres maintain a capacity of 650 mA h g⁻¹ after 100 cycles at a current density of 1 A g⁻¹. The capacity retention is 93%, which corresponds to a very small capacity decay of 0.07% per cycle. In particular, even at an ultra-high current density of 10 A g⁻¹, the NiO electrode still delivers a stable discharge capacity of 457 mA h g⁻¹.

1. Introduction

As a type of highly efficient energy storage system, lithium ion batteries (LIBs) have been widely used as power sources in portable electronic devices, stationary energy storage systems, and rapidly developing electric vehicles (EVs). However, the commercial graphite anode materials in LIBs suffer from low theoretical capacity (372 mA h g⁻¹) and poor rate capability, which cannot meet the increasing requirement for more demanding applications due to the limitations in energy capacity and reliable operation. Therefore, it is essential to develop alternative high-capacity anode materials for the next-generation LIBs.

In recent years, transition metal oxides are considered as the potential candidates for the next generation anode materials for LIBs because of their large specific capacity, high volumetric energy density, safety, and much improved rate capability than those of conventional graphite anodes. Among those transition metal oxides, nickel oxide (NiO) has been focused on as one of the most promising anode materials for LIBs because of its high theoretical capacity (718 mA h g⁻¹), high volumetric energy density, natural abundance, low cost, low toxicity, and superior safety. However, the pulverization of NiO particles associated with repeatedly volume expansion and contraction during lithiation/delithiation cycles leads to large irreversible capacity loss and poor cycling stability, which greatly limits its practical application in LIBs. A promising solution is to reduce the size of active materials to nanoscale, which can not only shorten the diffusion pathway of both lithium ions and electrons, but also effectively relieve the pressure derived from the volume changes during discharge/charge cycles. Among various nanostructures, micro/nano-structured hollow spheres have received great attentions due to their unique structural features, fascinating physicochemical properties, and widespread applications. Hollow micro/nano structures could effectively accommodate the severe volume variation of electrode materials upon cycling and prevent self-aggregation of the nanoscale subunits, which could alleviate the pulverization of active materials and significantly improve the cycling performance. In addition, the hollow micro/nano structures facilitate electrolyte penetration and provide large contact area between the electrode and the electrolyte; the nanosized primary building blocks could ensure short transport length for both lithium ions and electrons, resulting in enhanced rate capability. For example, Huang et al. synthesized NiO hollow microspheres by co-hydrolysis of nickel nitrate and tetraethyl orthosilicate in an ammonia solution and subsequent calcination and HF treatment processes, which showed a reversible capacity of 560 mA h g⁻¹ after 40 cycles at 0.2 A g⁻¹. Wang et al. fabricated NiO hollow spheres with size of ~2 μm using carbon microspheres as template and it delivered a capacity of 598 mA h g⁻¹ after 50 cycles at 0.2 A g⁻¹. However, the synthesis procedures and reactant materials for fabricating these hollow
structured materials are usually complex and expensive; the sizes of products are always as large as several micrometers resulting in lower volumetric energy density.

In the present work, we report a facile and cost-effective method to synthesize interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres (only ~1 μm) composed of nanosized primary particles (~50 nm). When tested as anode materials for LIBs, the interconnected nest-like hollow structures endow NiO microspheres with excellent electrochemical performance. In particular, we analyze the lithium storage mechanism of the NiO hollow microspheres, and found that pseudocapacitive effect has a great contribution to the high capacity and good rate capability, providing a new approach to design and optimize micro/nano electrode materials with superior rate performance.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis of interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres

Interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres were prepared by a two-step approach of hydrothermal synthesis of spherical Ni(HCO3)2/C precursor and subsequent heat treatment in air. All the chemical agents were analytical grade and used without further purification. In a typical synthesis procedure, a precursor Ni(HCO3)2 microspheres, 4.16 g nickel chloride (NiCl2·6H2O), 4.2 g urea (NH2CONH2), 4.0 g glucose (C6H12O6) were dissolved in 70 mL deionized water under vigorous stirring. Then, the blue solution was transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave. It was maintained at 180 °C for 4 h and then cooled naturally to room temperature. The resultant gray black Ni(HCO3)2/C microspheres were filtered, rinsed with deionized water three times, and freeze dried until constant weight. Finally, nest-like NiO hollow microspheres were obtained by calcining the precursor of Ni(HCO3)2/C microspheres at 700 °C for 3 h in a muffle furnace with a rate of 5 °C min⁻¹ in air.

2.2. Physical characterizations

The phase structures of the prepared samples were analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) on a X’Pert³ diffractometer (PANalytical, Netherlands) with Cu Kα radiation (λ = 1.54056 Å) over the range of 10° to 90° (2θ) with a scanning speed of 5° min⁻¹. The morphologies and microstructures of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres were characterized by Hitachi SU-5000 field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) and JEM-2100Plus high resolution transmission electron microscope (HRTEM) with an operating voltage of 200 kV. The thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed on a TGA Q500 thermal analyzer at a ramp of 5 °C min⁻¹ in air from room temperature to 800 °C. The nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms were measured at 77 K on a Micromeritics Tristar 3020 analyzer.

2.3. Electrochemical measurements

The working electrode was prepared by mixing the active material (the NiO hollow microspheres), conductive additive (Super-P), and polymer binder (PVDF) in N-methyl pyrrolidone (NMP) solvent with a weight ratio of 6 : 3 : 1. The resultant slurry was then uniformly coated on a copper foil and dried in a vacuum oven at 80 °C for 12 h. Afterward, the electrodes were punched into disks and assembled into CR2016 coin type cells in an high purity Ar gas filled glove box with metal lithium sheets as the counter electrode and the reference electrode, Celgard 2400 film as separator, and 1 M LiPF6 in a non-aqueous solution of ethylene carbonate (EC), diethyl-carbonate (DEC) and dimethyl carbonate (DMC) (1 : 1 : 1 by volume) as electrolyte. The thickness, diameter, and mass loading of the working electrode were 8.34 μm, 15.0 mm, and ~0.8 mg, respectively. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) was measured using an electrochemical workstation (CHI760E) within the voltage range from 0.01 V to 3.0 V (vs. Li/Li⁺). Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was conducted on electrochemical workstation (CHI760E) at a frequency range that varied from 10 mHz to 100 kHz with an AC signal amplitude of 5 mV at open-circuit potential (OCP) in a fully charged state. The discharge/charge cycling performance was tested on the Neware BTS-5 V/10 mA multi-channel battery testing system between 0.01 V and 3.0 V vs. Li⁺/Li⁻. All measurements above were carried out at room temperature (25 °C).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structure analysis of the prepared samples

Fig. 1a shows the XRD pattern of the precursor before annealing in air. All the diffraction peaks are well-matched...
with the Ni(HCO₃)₂ (JCPDS 152-0782). The strong and narrow peaks suggest that the as-synthesized Ni(HCO₃)₂ is of high crystallinity. No diffraction peaks of carbon are observed because the carbon is in the amorphous state. Fig. 1b gives the XRD pattern of the final sample prepared by annealing the precursor at 700 °C for 3 h in air. The five strong and well-defined diffraction peaks at 37.12°, 43.16°, 62.77°, 75.30°, and 79.29° are perfectly indexed to the (111), (200), (220), (311), and (222) planes of face-centered cubic NiO phase (JCPDS 47-1049), respectively. No other diffraction peaks are observed, indicating that the precursor has completely converted to the cubic phase NiO after annealing in air. The average crystallite size calculated using the Scherrer equation is about 50 nm, which is in good accordance with the TEM examination (Fig. 3f).

Fig. 2a presents the TGA plot of the precursor tested in air atmosphere. The first weight loss of 4.2 wt% from 25 to 200 °C indicates the loss of adsorbed water molecules. The weight loss of 15 wt% from 200 °C to 340 °C can be ascribed to oxidation of carbon microspheres. The sharp weight loss of 30% from 350 °C to 450 °C can be attributed to the decomposition of Ni(HCO₃)₂. With the temperature increasing from 450 °C to 700 °C, the TGA curve almost remains, implying that the precursor has been completely converted to NiO. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area of the NiO sample is characterized by nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms at 77 K. Based on the above analysis, the preparation process of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres is illustrated in Fig. 4. In this preparation process, glucose is first hydrothermal polymerized and carbonized to form carbon microspheres under hydrothermal condition. The presence of many hydrophilic oxygen-containing functional groups (particularly hydroxyl and carboxyl groups) on the surface of carbon microspheres provides abundant negative-charged active sites to adsorb NiHCO₃. The gradually generated HCO₃⁻ from urea decomposition reacts with the adsorbed Ni²⁺ on the surface of the carbon microspheres and forms Ni(HCO₃)₂ coating layer by Ostwald ripening (as illustrated in eqn (1)–(5)). Finally, interconnected nest-like porous NiO hollow microspheres can be obtained after a simple annealing of Ni(HCO₃)₂/C precursor in air. The following reactions are involved in the formation of Ni(HCO₃)₂ and NiO.
Fig. 3 SEM images of the NiO precursor (a and b) and the NiO hollow microspheres (c and d). TEM images (e and f), HRTEM image (g) and SAED pattern (h) of the NiO hollow microspheres.

Fig. 4 Possible formation mechanism of the NiO hollow microspheres.
3.2. Electrochemical performance of the prepared samples

Fig. 5a gives the CV curves of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres at the initial four scanning cycles. In the first CV cycle, the intense irreversible cathodic peak at 0.50 V can be ascribed to the initial reduction of Ni$^{2+}$ to Ni$^{0}$, the generation of Li$_2$O matrix, and the formation of the solid electrolyte interface (SEI) layer on the surface of electroactive materials; the oxidation peak at about 2.16 V corresponds to the reversible oxidation of Ni$^{0}$ to Ni$^{2+}$, decomposition of Li$_2$O to Li, and the partial dissolution of SEI.$^{7,8}$ In the second CV cycle, the shift of reduction and oxidation peaks to 1.31 V and 2.23 V from 0.50 V and 2.16 V, respectively, are due to the drastic lithium-driven structural or textural modifications.$^{8,24}$ After the second cycle, the CV profiles are almost overlapped each other, suggesting a good electrochemical reversibility and a cyclic stability of the synthesized NiO hollow microspheres.$^{19}$

Fig. 5b gives the galvanostatic discharge/charge curves of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres for the 1st, 2nd, 5th, 15th, 50th, 80th, and 100th cycle at a current density of 1 A g$^{-1}$ in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V. For the first discharge, there exists a long potential plateau at ~0.50 V corresponding to the reduction of Ni$^{2+}$ to Ni$^{0}$ and the formation of Li$_2$O and solid electrolyte interface (SEI) film.$^{23}$ The initial discharge/charge capacities are 1190/753 mA h g$^{-1}$, and the corresponding coulombic efficiencies is 63.2%. This obvious coulombic
inefficiency at the first cycle can be ascribed to the presence of side reactions, such as irreversible electrolyte decomposition and formation of SEI layer, which is common in most transition metal oxides. From the second cycle onward, the discharge plateau shifts to 1.0–1.3 V, while the charge plateau slightly shifts to higher potential, which is consistent with the CV results. In particular, the charge potential plateau almost disappears in the 100th cycle. Fig. 5c shows the cycling performance and coulombic efficiency of the NiO electrode at a current density of 1 A g\(^{-1}\) in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V. The formation of SEI layer on the electrode materials leads to low coulombic efficiency at the first cycle. After the initial 5 cycles, the coulombic efficiency drastically increases up to 98%. After 100 cycles, the NiO electrode can still deliver a discharge capacity of 650 mA h g\(^{-1}\), and the capacity retention is 92.86% compared to the 5th cycle. The discharge capacity and cycling stability are much superior to the previous reported NiO-based electrode materials (as listed in Table 1).

The rate capability of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres is presented in Fig. 5d. The stable discharge capacities of the NiO hollow microspheres at current densities of 0.5, 1, 3, 5, and 7 A g\(^{-1}\) are around 766, 704, 605, 541, and 509 mA h g\(^{-1}\), respectively. When cycled at even the high rate of 10 A g\(^{-1}\), a capacity of 457 mA h g\(^{-1}\) can be still maintained, which is much higher than the theoretical capacity of graphite (378 mA h g\(^{-1}\)). Furthermore, while the current density jumps back to the 1 A g\(^{-1}\), the discharging capacity recovers to the value of around 740 mA h g\(^{-1}\). The above results demonstrate that the NiO hollow microspheres have excellent rate performance, high reversibility, and stability for high power LIBs. Fig. 5e gives the selected discharge/charge voltage profiles of the NiO hollow microspheres at various current densities. It can be seen that with the increase of current densities, the discharge voltage decreases and the charge voltage increases due to the increasing polarization effect. However, even under ultrahigh current densities, such as 7 A g\(^{-1}\) and 10 A g\(^{-1}\), these discharge and charge plateaus can still be well distinguished, suggesting the outstanding high-rate performance. The rate capability of this NiO hollow microspheres is obviously better than those previous reported NiO-based electrode materials as shown in Fig. 5f.

To better understand the superior electrochemical performance of the NiO hollow microspheres, EIS measurements are performed on the electrode before and after the 1st, 5th, 15th, 35th, 60th, 80th, and 100th cycle and the results are shown in Fig. 6. All EIS experiments are performed in the charged state at open-circuit potential (OCP). Before discharge/charge process, the spectrum is composed of one depressed semicircles in the high-frequency region and a sloped line in the low-frequency region (Fig. 6a). The depressed semicircle in the high-frequency region reflects the charge transfer resistance \((R_\text{ct})\) between the electrode and the electrolyte, while the sloped line in the low-frequency region is related to the lithium ion diffusion impedance. In the initial 15 cycles, only one depressed semicircle is observed in the high to medium frequency range suggesting that the effects due to surface film and charge transfer are not separable. In this case, the combined process of surface film resistance \((R_\text{f})\) and the charge transfer resistance \((R_\text{ct})\) could be assigned as \(R_\text{ct}+R_\text{f}\). These Nyquist plots are fitted with the equivalent circuit shown in the inset of Fig. 6a. CPE is the constant phase element to account for the depressed semicircle in the experimental spectra. The \(R_\text{ct}+R_\text{f}\) decreases from 84.05 \(\Omega\) for the 1st cycle to 41.37 \(\Omega\) for the 15th cycle, which associates with the activation process of electrode and the formation of SEI film during the initial cycles. After 15 cycles, the resistance of the electrode decreases very slowly and double semicircles appear gradually in the high to medium frequency range (Fig. 6b), suggesting that the surface film \((R_\text{f})\) and charge transfer resistances \((R_\text{ct})\) are well separated. These Nyquist plots are fitted with the equivalent circuit shown in the inset of Fig. 6b. The calculated \(R_\text{f}\) \((R_\text{f})\) in 35th cycle, 60th cycle, 80th cycle, and 100th cycle are 3.35 \(\Omega\) (32.8 \(\Omega\)), 3.45 \(\Omega\) (34.53 \(\Omega\)), 4.10 \(\Omega\) (32.80 \(\Omega\)), and 4.28 \(\Omega\) (29.17 \(\Omega\)), respectively. The fitted results are plotted in Fig. 5f. The stable impedance is favorable for elongating the lifetime of a cell, which partly explains the excellent cyclability of the NiO hollow microspheres as shown in Fig. 5c.

The Li⁺ diffusion coefficients \((D)\) in the NiO hollow microspheres after different cycles are also estimated according to the following equation:

\[
D = \frac{R^2 T^2}{2A^2 n^4 F^4 C^2 \sigma w^2} \tag{7}
\]
where \( R \) is the gas constant, \( T \) is the absolute temperature, \( A \) is the surface area of the anode, \( n \) is the number of electrons per molecule during cycling, \( F \) is Faraday constant, \( C \) is the concentration of lithium ion, \( \sigma_w \) is the Warburg factor which can be obtained from the following equation:

\[
Z' = R_e + R_{ct} + \sigma_w \omega^{-1/2}
\]  

where \( R_e \) is the resistance of the electrolyte and electrode material, \( R_{ct} \) is the charge transfer resistance and \( \omega \) is the angular frequency in the low frequency region. The relationship plot between \( Z' \) and \( \omega^{-1/2} \) at low frequency region is shown in Fig. 6c. The result in Fig. 6d calculated by eqn (7) and (8) clearly elucidates that the Li\(^+\) diffusion coefficient for the 1\(^{st}\) cycle slightly increases from \( 8.84 \times 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \) to \( 9.86 \times 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \) for the 35\(^{th}\) cycle due to the activation process of electrode. After 35 cycles, the Li\(^+\) diffusion coefficient sharply decreases to \( 3.61 \times 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \) for the 60\(^{th}\) cycle, which can be explained as the stable formation of SEI film resulting in the separation of the surface film resistances \( (R_{uf}) \) and charge transfer resistances \( (R_{ct}) \) as shown in Fig. S2.†

Generally, the charge storage mechanism of electrode active materials can be classified into components: the faradaic contribution from Li\(^+\) intercalation process and surface capacitive effect (including pseudocapacitance and double-layer capacitance). It has been reported that both the total stored charge and the capacitive contribution to the stored charge increase with decreasing particle size to nanoscale for some metal oxides. Since the average size of the primary particles of the NiO hollow microspheres is only \( \sim 50 \text{ nm} \), it is very necessary to analyze the capacitive contribution to the total stored charge. Gradually increasing voltammetric scan rates are used to calculate and identify the capacitive contribution as shown in Fig. 7a. According to the analysis proposed by Dunn and coworkers, the total current response \( (i) \) at a fixed potential \( (V) \) can be described as the combination of surface capacitive effect and diffusion-controlled insertion processes (eqn (9) and (10)).

\[
i(V) = k_1V + k_2V^{1/2}
\]  

\[
i(V)hV^{1/2} = k_1V^{1/2} + k_2
\]

where \( k_1V \) represents the total surface capacitive contribution, and \( k_2V^{1/2} \) stands for the contribution of the diffusion-controlled insertion process. The linear plot of \( i/V^{1/2} \) versus \( V^{1/2} \) is used to determine \( k_1 \) and \( k_2 \) as shown in Fig. 7b. Fig. 7c gives a typical separation of the capacitive and diffusion currents at a scan rate of \( 2.4 \text{ mV s}^{-1} \). The diffusion-controlled insertion processes is mainly occurred at around the peak voltage, indicating that the diffusion process is feasible at this region and corresponds to a redox reaction between Ni\(^{2+}/Ni\(^{3+}\). Fig. 7d shows the total stored charge due to both diffusion-controlled insertion processes and surface capacitive for LIBs at various scan rates. The diffusion-controlled insertion processes contribution is 58% at 0.1 mV s\(^{-1}\) and sharply decreases when increasing scan rate from 0.1 to 5 mV s\(^{-1}\), while the surface capacitive contribution gradually dominates the total capacity and is up to 83% at 5 mV s\(^{-1}\).
results indicate that surface capacitive contribution accounts for a significant proportion of the total capacity, particularly at high scan rates. It is noteworthy that the double layer effect mainly depends on the surface area. However, the surface area of the as-synthesized NiO hollow microspheres is only 7.9 m² g⁻¹. Therefore, the great contribution of pseudocapacitive effect to the total stored charge accounts for the excellent high rate capability of the NiO hollow microspheres. These results suggest that the charge stored at the surface of the NiO hollow microspheres from the pseudocapacitance storage mechanism can be a very important factor in achieving high values for the gravimetric energy density.

To ensure the retention of the porous hollow microspheres morphology after cycling, SEM analysis is performed after 80 cycles and 100 cycles at a current density of 1 A g⁻¹. For comparison, the as-prepared NiO hollow microspheres electrode is also subjected for the SEM investigations and obtained image is also presented in Fig. 8. It can be seen that the as-prepared NiO hollow microspheres electrode shows the presence of nest-like hollow microspheres morphology before cycling, indicating the good mechanical strength of this porous hollow microspheres structure (Fig. 8a). After 80 cycles, the porous hollow microspheres structure is well retained except for slight pore expansion (Fig. 8b). After 100 cycles, the complete microspheres structure is difficult to distinguish resulting from the squeeze of separator and the volume expansion during cycling, but the hollow frame is still retained (Fig. 8c). It is noted that the porous hollow structures in the microspheres could improve the structural integrity and accommodate the mechanical strain caused by the volume change during discharge/charge process. Thus, this porous hollow microspheres structure contributes greatly to its superior cycling stability.

Fig. 7  (a) CV curves of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres electrode at different scan rates; (b) the fitted lines of \( i/V \) vs. \( i/v^{1/2} \) at different voltage (1.7 V, 0.1 V for cathodic scan and 2 V, 2.9 V for anodic scan); (c) CV curves of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres electrode at 2.4 mV s⁻¹ (the red and blue shaded portion in the CV plot correspond to intercalation effect and capacitive effect, respectively); (d) capacitive contributions to the total capacity under different scan rates.

Fig. 8  SEM images of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres electrodes (a) before cycling, (b) after 80 cycles, and (c) after 100 cycles.
The superior lithium storage performance of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres is believed to be based on their unique architecture resulting from the following aspects: the nano-sized building blocks (very small nanoparticles with diameter around 50 nm) facilitate the transport of both lithium ions and electrons due to the short diffusion length. The mesoporous hollow microspheres structure not only ensures efficient electrolyte penetration and increases the contact area between active materials and electrolyte, but also effectively relaxes the mechanical strain generated upon the discharge/charge cycling. The micro-sized and robust porous hollow microspheres secondary structure can effectively suppress self-aggregation and structural degradation upon cycling. The special interconnected chain-like mesoporous shells can provide a continuous electronic transfer channel and greatly reduce the path lengths of lithium ions diffusion. Moreover, the great contribution of pseudocapacitive charge storage in the discharge/charge process facilitates the improvement of rate capability. The integration of all these advantages enhances the lithium storage performance of the interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres.

4. Conclusions

In summary, interconnected nest-like NiO hollow microspheres were successfully fabricated via a facile and cost effective hydrothermal method followed by a simple sintering process. The unique nanoscale characteristics, including interconnected chain-like mesoporous spherical shells, hollow microspheres structure, nanoparticle building blocks, and highly porous structure of these NiO hollow microspheres lead to the superior electrochemical performance in terms of their high lithium storage activity, good cyclability, and excellent rate capability when they are used as an anode material for LIBs. It delivers a good reversible capacity of 650 mA h g⁻¹ after 100 cycles at a current density of 1 A g⁻¹ with only 0.07% decay per cycle. When cycled at 5 A g⁻¹ and 10 A g⁻¹, it still displays a stable capacity as high as 541 mA h g⁻¹ and 457 mA h g⁻¹, respectively. More importantly, computational modeling indicates that the pseudocapacitive effect accounts for a significant portion of the total capacity. The obtained excellent performance, particularly the excellent rate capability associated with pseudocapacitive effect, opens up new opportunities in the development of high performance next-generation LIBs used for alternative energy and electric transportation.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the financial supports from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 51664012 and 51464009), Guangxi Natural Science Foundation of China (2015GXNSFGA139006), and Innovation Project of Guangxi Graduate Education (YCSW2017158). The authors also thank the supports from Collaborative Innovation Center for Exploration of Hidden Nonferrous Metal Deposits and Development of New Materials in Guangxi.

References

2 T. F. Yi, S. Y. Yang and Y. Xie, Recent advances of Li₄Ti₅O₁₂ as a promising next generation anode material for high power lithium-ion batteries, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2015, 3, 5750–5777.
3 Y. Hui, L. Y. Cao, Z. W. Xu, J. F. Huang, H. Ouyang and J. Y. Li, Mesoporous Li₄Ti₅O₁₂ nanoparticles synthesized by a microwave-assisted hydrothermal method for high rate lithium-ion batteries, J. Electroanal. Chem., 2016, 763, 45–50.


38 V. Aravindan, P. S. Kumar, J. Sundaramurthy, W. C. Ling, S. Ramakrishna and S. Madhavi, Electrospun NiO nanofibers as high performance anode material for Li-ion batteries, *J. Power Sources*, 2013, 227, 284–290.

