


 Cite this: *RSC Adv.*, 2022, **12**, 28525

## A DFT prediction of two-dimensional $\text{MB}_3$ ( $\text{M} = \text{V}$ , $\text{Nb}$ , and $\text{Ta}$ ) monolayers as excellent anode materials for lithium-ion batteries<sup>†</sup>

Jiahui Wang, Lina Bai, \* Xiangru Zhao, Hong Gao and Li Niu

Transition metal borides (MBenes) have recently drawn great attention due to their excellent electrochemical performance as anode materials for lithium-ion batteries (LIBs). Using the structural search code and first-principles calculations, we identify a group of the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers ( $\text{M} = \text{V}$ ,  $\text{Nb}$  and  $\text{Ta}$ ) consisting of multiple  $\text{MB}_4$  units interpenetrating with each other. The  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers with non-chemically active surfaces are stable and have metal-like conduction. As the anode materials for Li-ion storage, the low diffusion barrier, high theoretical capacity, and suitable average open circuit voltage indicate that the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers have excellent electrochemical performance, due to the  $\text{B}_3$  chain exposed on the surface improving the Li atoms' direct adsorption. In addition, the adsorbed Li-ions are in an ordered hierarchical arrangement and the substrate structure remains intact at room temperature, which ensures excellent cycling performance. This work provides a novel idea for designing high-performance anode materials for LIBs.

 Received 15th August 2022  
 Accepted 27th September 2022

DOI: 10.1039/d2ra05111g

[rsc.li/rsc-advances](http://rsc.li/rsc-advances)

### 1. Introduction

With the rapid development of electronic devices, rechargeable lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) are becoming more and more important in people's life and work,<sup>1</sup> however, the current commercial electrode materials for LIBs are limited by poor-rate and capacity performance.<sup>2</sup> Therefore, finding suitable electrode materials to improve performance is a key challenge. Among lots of materials, two-dimensional (2D) materials have been widely applied as the anode materials, due to their high stability, larger surface area, fast charge/discharge rates, and high energy densities. Up to now, a variety of traditional 2D materials for LIBs have been investigated such as graphene,<sup>3,4</sup> borophene,<sup>5,6</sup> silicene,<sup>7</sup> transition metal oxides (TMOs),<sup>8,9</sup> transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs).<sup>10-12</sup>

In 2011, with the successfully synthesized transition metal carbides (MXenes) etching by MAX phase,<sup>13</sup> researchers pay much attention to their electrochemical performance as anode materials.<sup>14-17</sup> As the representative of the MXenes' family,  $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2$ , has a high theoretical capacity of  $448 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  for Li-ions<sup>18</sup> which is higher than graphite. It is regrettable that because the surfaces of MXenes are chemically active, which can absorb many chemical groups in the synthetic process, resulting in the experimental capacity of  $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2$  MXene to 123.6

$\text{mA h g}^{-1}$  at a rate of 1C,<sup>19</sup> only 27.5% of theoretical capacity. Zhao *et al.* reported the experimental capacity of  $\text{Nb}_2\text{C}$  MXene is  $342 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  for Li-ions at a high current density<sup>20</sup> when O functional groups are increased in a high-temperature synthesis environment, which is higher than  $170 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  at 1C in the past report.<sup>21</sup> Compared with the theoretical capacity of 813.13  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$ , the experimental capacity reached 42%.<sup>22</sup> It is revealed that the controllable surfaces play a key role which can effectively improve the capacity properties of the anode materials, which have been proven in more reports.<sup>23,24</sup>

The rapid development of structure search has played a great role in the exploration of high-performance anode materials. The exploration of 2D nonmetal-rich systems as anode materials of LIBs are concerned widely, such as  $\text{ScC}_2$ ,<sup>25</sup>  $\text{MC}_6$  ( $\text{M} = \text{Cu}$ ,  $\text{Ag}$ ,  $\text{Au}$ ),<sup>26</sup>  $\text{VC}_2$ ,<sup>27</sup>  $\text{NiC}_3$ ,<sup>28</sup>  $\text{ZrC}_2$ ,<sup>29</sup>  $\text{MoC}_2$ ,<sup>30</sup> and  $\text{TaC}_2$ .<sup>31</sup> On the one hand, Li-ions can directly adsorb on the non-metal elements, which can significantly improve the theoretical capacity. On the other hand, the surfaces of these 2D structures are often chemically inactive, and they will avoid the effects of poorly performing functional groups if they are successfully synthesized experimentally.

A novel family called transition-metal borides (MBenes) has gradually become novel anode materials for LIBs, due to high electronic conductivity and outstanding mechanical properties. In 2017, Guo *et al.* first reported the  $\text{Mo}_2\text{B}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{B}_2$  obtained from the MAB phase ( $\text{M}_2\text{AlB}_2$ , M represents Mo and Fe) in theory,<sup>32</sup> which has large theoretical capacities for Li-ions ( $\sim 444$  and  $665 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$ ). Follow-up studies found that  $\text{Ti}_2\text{B}$ ,<sup>33,34</sup>  $\text{Ti}_2\text{B}_2$ ,<sup>35</sup>  $\text{V}_2\text{B}_2$ ,  $\text{Cr}_2\text{B}_2$ ,<sup>36</sup>  $\text{Y}_2\text{B}_2$ ,<sup>37</sup> and  $\text{Zr}_2\text{B}_2$ <sup>38</sup> MBenes also display excellent electrochemical performance. However, the surfaces

Key Laboratory for Photonic and Electronic Bandgap Materials, Ministry of Education, School of Physics and Electronic Engineering, Harbin Normal University, Harbin 150025, China. E-mail: shidabailina@163.com

† Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available. See <https://doi.org/10.1039/d2ra05111g>



of the structures listed above are chemically active indicating that these MBenes can be functionalized by chemical groups. Therefore, finding non-chemically active MBenes is an urgent need to improve their performance as electrode materials.

Recently, Li *et al.* reported a novel  $TiB_3$  monolayer,<sup>39</sup> whose B atoms are exposed on the surface. A large unit cell area and more adsorption sites provide a theoretical capacity of 1335.4 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>. However, the study of the boron-rich MBenes of other elements as anode materials of LIBs is still lacking. Therefore, we selected group V transition metal elements and designed  $MB_3$  monolayers (M = V, Nb and Ta) by using the structural prediction method and replacing elements method. Subsequently, their stability, mechanical properties, electronic structures, and electrochemical performance are investigated by using the DFT calculations. Our results show that the  $MB_3$  monolayers are particularly excellent anode materials for LIBs.

## 2. Computational methods

The CALYPSO code based on the particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithm was employed to predict structures.<sup>40-42</sup> The CALYPSO calculation details can be seen in (ESI†). Vienna *Ab initio* Simulation Package (VASP) based on density functional theory (DFT) was employed for structural optimization and electronic structure calculations.<sup>43,44</sup> The ion-electronic interaction was treated by the project-augmented-wave (PAW) method.<sup>45</sup> The exchange-correlation functional employed the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional in the generalized gradient approximation (GGA).<sup>46,47</sup> The kinetic energy cutoff was set to 550 eV in all calculations. The energy and force convergence standards were set as  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  eV and  $1 \times 10^{-2}$  eV Å<sup>-1</sup>. The spin polarization was turned off during the calculation. The *k*-points meshes in the reciprocal space with the Gamma-center were  $2\pi \times 0.25$  Å<sup>-1</sup> and  $2\pi \times 0.15$  Å<sup>-1</sup> for structural optimization and electronic structures calculations, respectively. The semi-empirical DFT-D2 method was used to describe the weak van der Waals (vdW) interactions between adatoms and the substrate.<sup>48</sup>

Phonon calculations were performed using the PHONOPY code<sup>49</sup> in order to demonstrate the dynamic stability, which is based on the density functional perturbation theory (DFPT). Molecular dynamics simulation was performed with the *Ab initio* Molecular Dynamic (AIMD) simulations. The total time of stimulation was set to 10 ps with a time step of 2 fs (a total of 5000 steps) in the NVT ensemble. The elastic constants were calculated by using the strain-stress method. The energy barriers of diffusion paths were employed by the climbing image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB) method.<sup>50</sup> The data post-processing used the VASPKIT code.<sup>51</sup>

The cohesive energies of the  $MB_3$  monolayers can be obtained by the following formula

$$E_{coh} = (E_{MB_3} - E_M - 3E_B)/4 \quad (1)$$

where  $E_{MB_3}$ ,  $E_M$  and  $E_B$  represent the total energy of the  $MB_3$  monolayers, an M atom from M-metal phases, and a B atom from borophene monolayer, respectively.

The adsorption energies of Li atoms absorbed on the  $MB_3$  monolayers are calculated by

$$E_{ads} = (E_{MB_3Li_n} - E_{MB_3} - nE_{Li})/n \quad (2)$$

where  $E_{MB_3Li_n}$  and  $E_{Li}$  represent the total energy of Li atoms adsorbed on the  $MB_3$  monolayers and the total energy of a single Li atom obtain by the Li bulk metal.  $n$  is the layer number of Li atoms.

The theoretical capacities of the  $MB_3$  monolayers for Li-ions are calculated based on

$$C = nF/M_{MB_3} \quad (3)$$

where  $F$  is the Faraday constant (26 801 mA h mol<sup>-1</sup>).  $M_{MB_3}$  represents the molar mass of the  $MB_3$  monolayers.

In the process of electrochemical reaction, the average open-circuit voltages (OCV) are gained by the following equation<sup>28,31,52</sup>

$$V = (E_{MB_3} + nE_{Li} - E_{MB_3Li_n})/ne \quad (4)$$

The in-plane strain ( $\Delta a$  and  $\Delta b$ ) and out-of-plane strain ( $\Delta h$ ) are calculated by the expressions

$$\Delta a = (a_1 - a) \times 100\% / a \quad (5)$$

$$\Delta b = (b_1 - b) \times 100\% / b \quad (6)$$

$$\Delta h = (h_1 - h) \times 100\% / h \quad (7)$$

where  $a_1$  and  $b_1$  are the lattice constants of the  $MB_3Li_n$ , and  $h_1$  are their thickness. The  $a$  and  $b$  are the lattice constants of the  $MB_3$  monolayers, and  $h$  are their thickness.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1 Structures and bonding characteristics

The lowest energy configuration of the  $VB_3$  monolayer is obtained from structural searching and optimization. We use Nb and Ta elements to replace the V element, and obtain reasonable  $NbB_3$  and  $TaB_3$  monolayers through structural optimization. These structures belong to *Pmmn* (no. 59) symmetry group and are similar to the  $TiB_3$  monolayer in the past report.<sup>39</sup> Each unit cell includes two M atoms and six B atoms, consisting of two  $MB_4$  units, as shown in Fig. 1. Since the  $MB_4$  units share the B1 and B3 atoms with each other along the *b*-axis, the stoichiometric ratio of M to B is 1 to 3. The chain  $B_3$  structure is similar to the B chains in  $MB_3$  bulk.<sup>53</sup> These B atoms at the surface form structures similar to  $C_2$  dimers, which have been proved that such prototype nanocluster structures can stabilize metal clusters<sup>54</sup> and metal 2D structures,<sup>55</sup> such as  $NiC_3$ ,<sup>28</sup>  $TaC_2$ ,<sup>31</sup>  $IrN_2$ ,<sup>56</sup>  $MnB_6$ .<sup>57</sup> The more detailed information of  $MB_3$  monolayers is listed in Table 1. It can be observed that the addition of Nb and Ta elements increases the lattice constants and bond length of M–M and M–B, and decrease the thickness  $h$  compared with the  $VB_3$  monolayer. Furthermore, the  $NbB_3$  monolayer structure is very similar to the  $TaB_3$  monolayer.



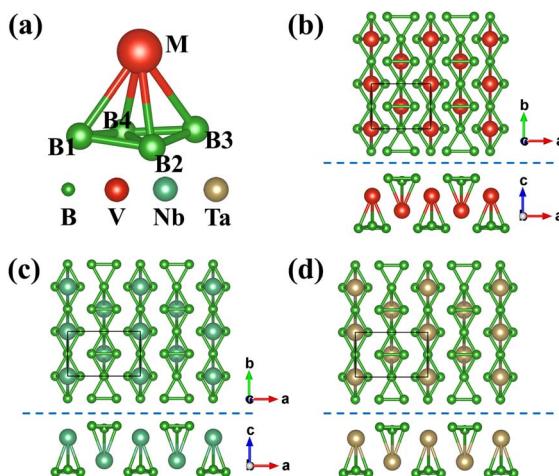


Fig. 1 (a) Schematic diagram of  $MB_4$  structural unit. (b)–(d) Top and side views of the  $MB_3$  ( $M = V$ ,  $Nb$ , and  $Ta$ ) monolayers.

Table 1 Lattice constants ( $a$ ,  $b$ , unit: Å) and thickness ( $h$ , unit: Å) of the  $MB_3$  monolayers. The bond lengths between two atoms ( $d_{A-B}$ , unit: Å)

	$a$	$b$	$h$	$d_{B_1-B_2}$	$d_{B_2-B_4}$	$d_{M-B_1}$	$d_{M-B_4}$
$VB_3$	3.918	2.960	3.304	1.743	1.809	2.458	2.319
$NbB_3$	4.839	2.982	3.081	1.713	1.651	2.606	2.449
$TaB_3$	4.834	2.979	3.071	1.714	1.652	2.588	2.452

Electron localization function (ELF) maps of the  $MB_3$  monolayers are plotted to investigate the bonding characteristics, as shown in Fig. 2. ELF values are normalized, where 0, 0.5, and 1 represent extremely low electron densities, completely delocalized electrons, and completely localized electrons, respectively. It can be observed that the electrons are localized between the  $B$  atoms which form strong covalent bonds. There

are very few electrons around  $M$  atoms, indicating the ionic bonds between  $M$  and  $B$  atoms. It can be observed that the  $NbB_3$  and  $TaB_3$  monolayers have more localized electrons between the  $B_2$ – $B_4$  bonds of the  $MB_4$  unit compared with the  $VB_3$  monolayer, indicating a stronger interaction between  $B_2$ – $B_4$  of the  $NbB_3$  and  $TaB_3$  monolayers, as shown in the 3D ELF of Fig. 2.

### 3.2 Stability

The possibility of the  $MB_3$  monolayers for experimental synthesis can be demonstrated by the cohesive energy, phonon spectrum, and AIMD calculations. Our computed cohesive energies are  $-0.51$  eV for the  $VB_3$  monolayer,  $-0.47$  eV for the  $NbB_3$  monolayer, and  $-0.39$  eV for the  $TaB_3$  monolayer, showing that the  $MB_3$  monolayers are thermodynamically stable. Their dynamic stability is proved by phonon dispersion curves, as shown in Fig. S2 in ESI.† No negative frequency indicates that the  $MB_3$  monolayers are dynamically stable. The highest frequencies are up to  $28.48$  THz ( $949.99$  cm $^{-1}$ ) for the  $VB_3$  monolayer,  $31.66$  THz ( $1056.06$  cm $^{-1}$ ) for the  $NbB_3$  monolayer, and  $31.64$  THz ( $1055.40$  cm $^{-1}$ ) for the  $TaB_3$  monolayer at  $\Gamma$  point, which represents their outstanding stability. AIMD simulations are also shown in Fig. S2.† The integrity of their structures and their energy oscillations at equilibrium indicate that the  $MB_3$  monolayers have excellent thermodynamic stability at high temperatures.

Furthermore, the mechanical stability of the  $MB_3$  monolayers is investigated by elastic constants which are listed in Table 2. There are four independent variables for the rectangular crystal system, which are  $c_{11}$ ,  $c_{12}$ ,  $c_{22}$ , and  $c_{66}$ , respectively. Their elastic constants satisfy stability criteria:  $c_{11} > 0$ ,  $c_{66} > 0$  and  $(c_{11}c_{22} - c_{12}^2) > 0$ . The corresponding 2D (in-plane) Young's moduli of  $MB_3$  monolayers are calculated by  $Y_x = (c_{11}c_{22} - c_{12}^2)/c_{22}$  and  $Y_y = (c_{11}c_{22} - c_{12}^2)/c_{11}$ . Their  $Y_x$  exceeds  $100$  N m $^{-1}$  and  $Y_y$  exceeds  $300$  N m $^{-1}$  respectively, indicating their good mechanical stiffness. These stability calculations

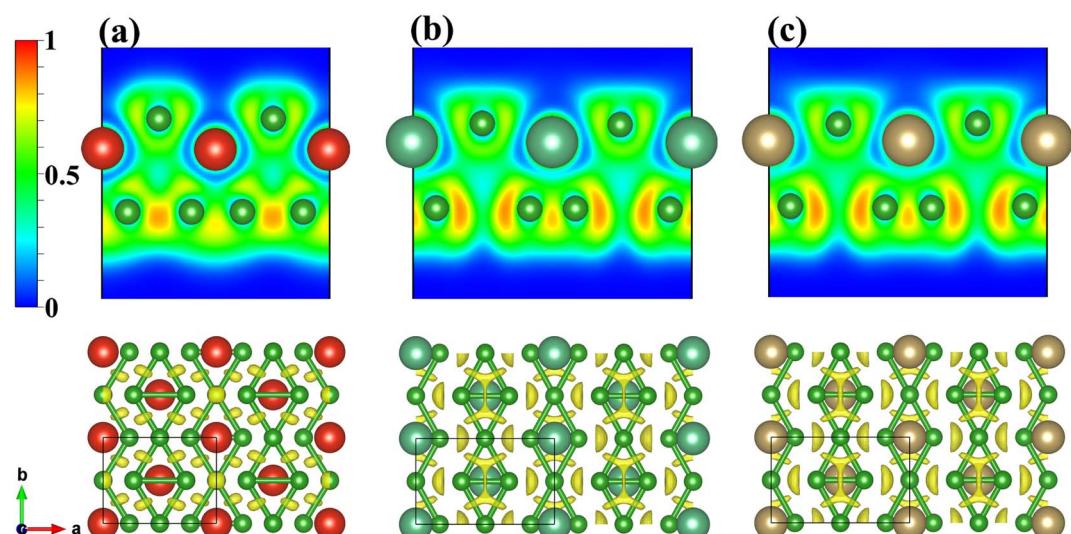


Fig. 2 2D ELF maps of the (010) plane (up) and 3D ELF maps (down) for the (a)  $VB_3$ , (b)  $NbB_3$ , and (c)  $TaB_3$  monolayers. The isosurface for 3D ELF maps is selected as 0.8.



**Table 2** Elastic constants ( $c_{11}$ ,  $c_{12}$ ,  $c_{22}$ ,  $c_{66}$ , unit:  $\text{N m}^{-1}$ ) and Young's moduli along  $a$ - and  $b$ -axes ( $Y_x$  and  $Y_y$ , unit:  $\text{N m}^{-1}$ ) of the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers

	$c_{11}$	$c_{12}$	$c_{22}$	$c_{66}$	$Y_x$	$Y_y$
$\text{VB}_3$	115.796	27.621	375.757	171.522	113.766	369.169
$\text{NbB}_3$	181.063	67.315	334.253	143.037	167.506	309.227
$\text{TaB}_3$	214.373	75.296	346.031	150.963	197.989	319.584

prove that  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers can be synthesized as independent nanostructures. It is noted that the  $\text{NbB}_3$  and  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayers have the larger  $Y_x$  and smaller  $Y_y$  compared to the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer, this result is consistent with the analysis of the bonding characteristics between the B2–B4 for the  $\text{MB}_4$  unit.

### 3.3 Electronic structures

The GGA and GGA + SOC methods are both considered to calculate the band structures of the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers which are displayed in Fig. 3. They all exhibit metal-like characteristics due to the bands crossing the Fermi level ( $E_F$ ), indicating high electrical conductivity. The SOC effect cannot change their

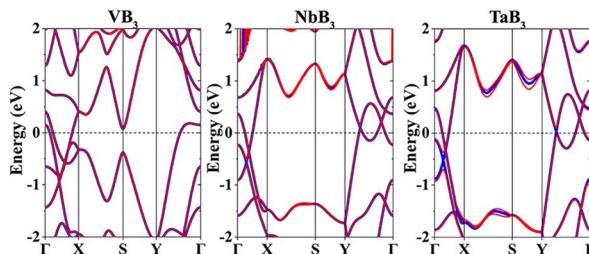
metallic properties. Therefore, the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers have a high electronic conductance. Surprisingly, Dirac cones near the  $E_F$  can be observed in the band structures of the  $\text{NbB}_3$  and  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayers on  $\Gamma$ –S and  $\text{Y}$ – $\Gamma$  paths in the Brillouin zone (BZ), but not in that of the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer.

### 3.4 Adsorption and diffusion of the single Li atom

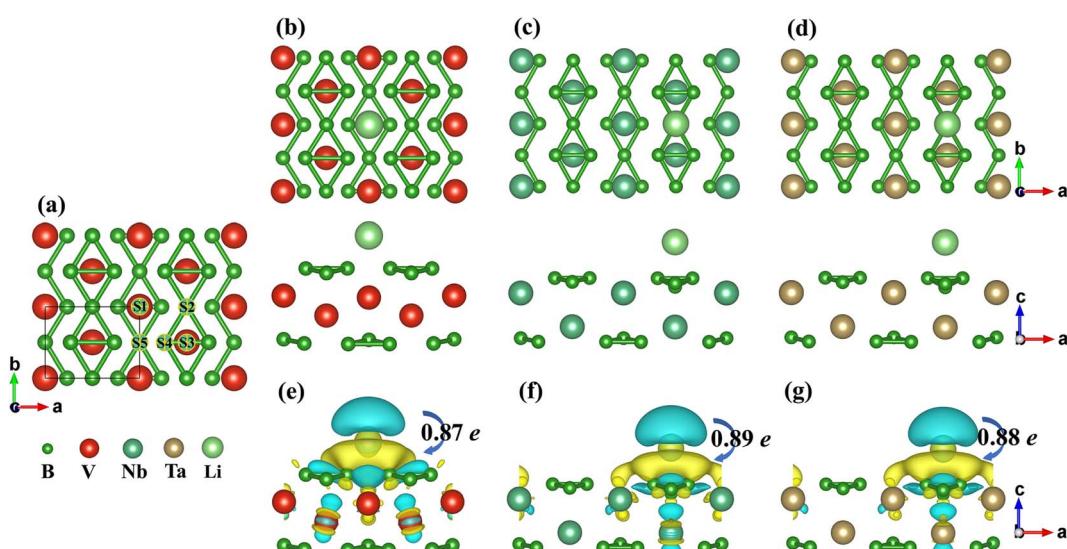
In order to study the adsorption behaviour of a single Li atom on the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers, a  $2 \times 2 \times 1$  supercell is selected and five atomic positions are considered after full consideration of the symmetry. As shown in Fig. 4(a), the five positions are arranged clockwise from S1 to S5. Their adsorption energies are listed in Table 3 (the value of the adsorption energies under different correction schemes are shown in Table S2–S4†). It should be noted that S4 will move to S3 for the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer or S5 for  $\text{NbB}_3$  and  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayer. Therefore, only four adsorption sites will be considered (S1, S2, S3, and S5) in subsequent calculations. For the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer, the adsorption site with the lowest adsorption energy is S1 (on the M atoms). However, S2 (on the B1/B3 atoms) is the most favourable site for  $\text{NbB}_3$  and  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayers. The most favourable sites of the single Li atom for the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers are shown in Fig. 4(b)–(d).

The charge density difference maps of the favourite Li sites for the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers are also shown in Fig. 4(e)–(g). The yellow and blue areas represent the gained and lost electrons, respectively. The transfer of electrons from the Li atom to the  $\text{MB}_3$  surfaces can be observed, indicating that the Li atom forms the ionic bonds with the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayer. Bader charge analysis can quantitatively analyze the value of the charge transfer from the Li atom to the monolayer, as shown in the black number. This reveals that the Li atom has been completely ionized on the surface, forming the Li-ions.

The diffusion barrier is an important parameter to measure the rate of charge and discharge. High-performance anode



**Fig. 3** Band structures of the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers. The thick blue and thin red lines represent the GGA and GGA + SOC methods, respectively.

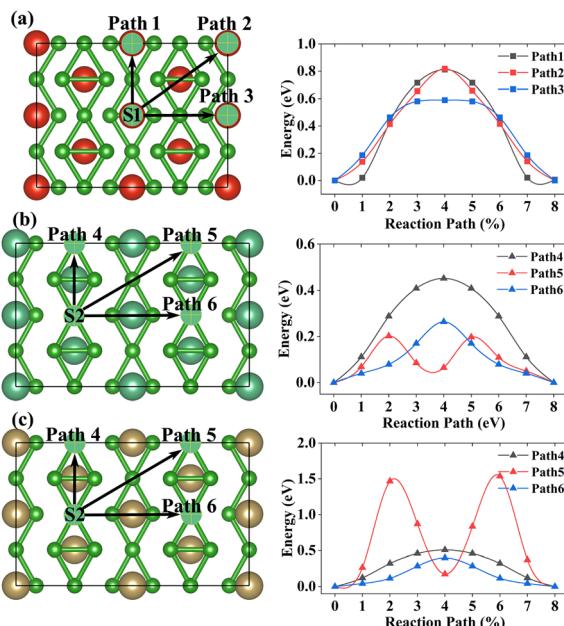


**Fig. 4** (a) Possible adsorption sites of a single Li atom on the monolayers. (b)–(d) Schematic diagrams of  $\text{MB}_3\text{Li}_{0.125}$ . (e)–(g) The charge density difference maps of  $\text{MB}_3\text{Li}_{0.125}$ . The black numbers represent the amount of charge transferred from the Li atom to the monolayer.



**Table 3** Adsorption energies ( $E_{\text{ads}}$ , unit: eV) of single Li atom adsorbed on the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers at different adsorption sites

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5
$\text{VB}_3$	-1.418	-0.835	-0.432	-0.432	-0.439
$\text{NbB}_3$	-0.676	-0.933	-0.487	-0.833	-0.833
$\text{TaB}_3$	-0.620	-0.963	-0.456	-0.931	-0.931



**Fig. 5** The diffusion path and diffusion barrier of a single Li-ion on the (a)  $\text{VB}_3$ , (b)  $\text{NbB}_3$ , and (c)  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayers, respectively.

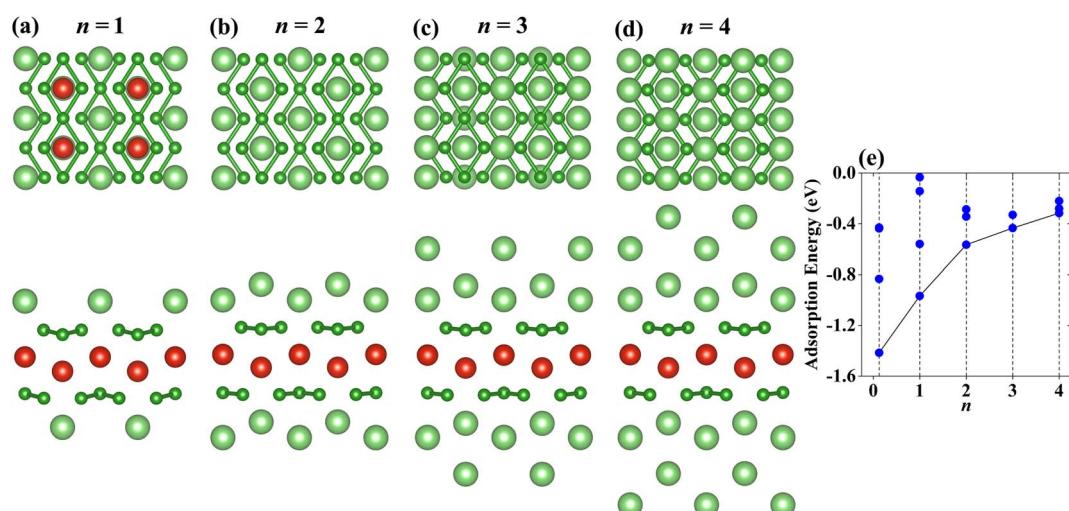
materials tend to have low diffusion barriers. According to their adsorption sites with the lowest adsorption energies, six possible diffusion paths are considered, which can be seen in

Fig. 5. For the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer, the optimal diffusion path is path 3 whose value is 0.590 eV. However, path 5 (0.202 eV) and path 6 (0.399 eV) are the lowest energy diffusion paths for the  $\text{NbB}_3$  monolayer and  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayer. Compared with other high-performance anode materials for LIB in theory, such as 0.50 eV for  $\text{NiC}_3$ ,<sup>28</sup> 0.58 eV for silicon,<sup>58</sup> 0.60 eV for  $\chi_3$  borophene<sup>5</sup> and 0.78 eV for  $\text{MoN}_2$ ,<sup>59</sup> our  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers have fast charge-discharge rates which could be anode materials for LIBs.

### 3.5 Theoretical capacity and open-circuit voltage

Theoretical capacity and average OCV are important indicators for electrode material, which are related to the number of adatoms and their adsorption energies. In the following discussion, we divide the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer into a separate group, and  $\text{NbB}_3$  and  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayers into another group due to their differences in structural characteristics and the most stable adsorption sites. The Li atoms are stacked on both sides of the monolayer according to the above adsorption sites until these sites exposed to the surface are completely occupied, corresponding to the stoichiometries of  $\text{MB}_3\text{Li}_n$  ( $n = 1-4$ ).

The configurations of the Li atoms adsorbed on the  $\text{VB}_3$  surfaces with the lowest adsorption energies are shown in Fig. 6(a)-(d). When  $n = 1$ , the first layer Li atoms prefer to adsorb on S1. With the adatoms increasing, the second Li atomic layer is located at S4. The subsequent third and fourth layers of Li atoms are adsorbed on S5 and S2, respectively. Fig. 6(e) shows the adsorption energies of  $\text{VB}_3\text{Li}_n$ . With the increase of the Li content, the average adsorption energies increase gradually from -1.416 eV per Li atom ( $n = 0.125$ ) to -0.317 eV per Li atom ( $n = 4$ ) but still remain negative. These results demonstrate that the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer can adsorb four-layer Li at least. According to eqn (3), the corresponding theoretical capacity is 1286 mA h g<sup>-1</sup> which is higher than that of  $\text{VC}_2$  (1073 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>),<sup>27</sup>  $\text{V}_2\text{B}_2$  (969 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>).<sup>36</sup> The corresponding



**Fig. 6** (a)-(d) Top and side views of the most stable adsorption configurations with  $n$  layer Li-ions adsorbed on the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer ( $n = 1, 2, 3$  and 4). (e) The adsorption energies of  $\text{VB}_3\text{Li}_n$  as a function of Li-ion content. The black lines connect the adsorption energies corresponding to the most stable adsorption configurations.

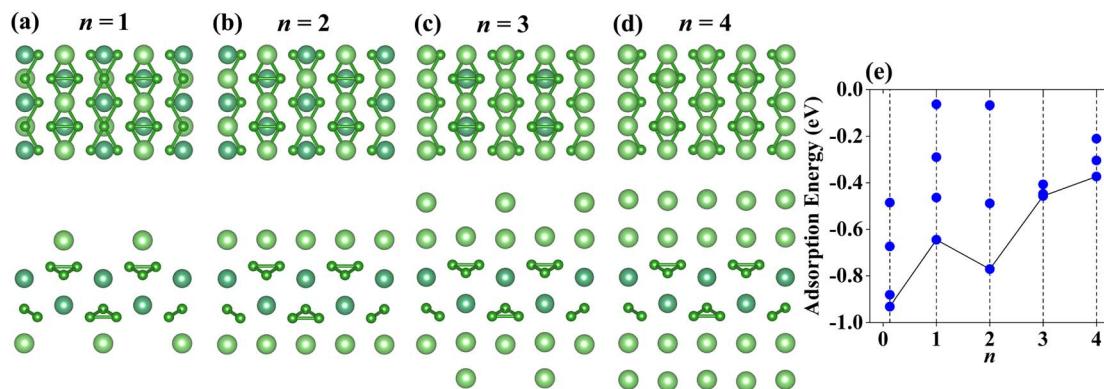


Fig. 7 (a)–(d) Top and side views of the most stable adsorption configurations with  $n$  layer Li-ions adsorbed on the  $\text{NbB}_3$  monolayer ( $n = 1, 2, 3$  and 4). (e) The adsorption energies of  $\text{NbB}_3\text{Li}_n$  as a function of Li-ion content. The black lines connect the adsorption energies corresponding to the most stable adsorption configurations.

average OCV for  $\text{VB}_3\text{Li}_4$  is 0.32 V which is suitable to be an anode material due to the value between 0 and 1 V, indicating the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer does not dendrite during lithiation and its capacity is reversible.<sup>52,60</sup>

Same to the  $\text{VB}_3$  monolayer, the configurations of the Li atoms adsorbed on  $\text{NbB}_3$  and  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayers are considered, whose most stable structures can be seen in Fig. 7(a)–(d) and 8(a)–(d). The occupy positions of Li atoms order to S2–S5–S1–S4 from the first layer to the fourth layer. The corresponding adsorption energies can be seen in Fig. 7(e) for  $\text{NbB}_3\text{Li}_n$  and Fig. 8(e) for  $\text{TaB}_3\text{Li}_n$ . With the increase of the layer number of adatom, the adsorption energies increase gradually, except for that of  $\text{Nb}(\text{Ta})\text{B}_3\text{Li}_2$  which is lower than that of  $\text{Nb}(\text{Ta})\text{B}_3\text{Li}$ . In addition, the Li atoms adsorbed on the  $\text{NbB}_3$  and  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayers are neatly arranged, when the value  $n$  is even, which causes lower adsorption energies for  $\text{Nb}(\text{Ta})\text{B}_3\text{Li}_2$  and  $\text{Nb}(\text{Ta})\text{B}_3\text{Li}_4$  compared with  $\text{VB}_3\text{Li}_2$  and  $\text{VB}_3\text{Li}_4$  due to the suitable arrangement of Li atoms. The theoretical capacities of the  $\text{NbB}_3$  and  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayers for Li-ions are 856  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$  and 502  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$ , respectively. Compared with Nb and Ta carbides such as 813.12  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$  for  $\text{Nb}_2\text{C}$ ,<sup>22</sup> 194.36  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$

for  $\text{Nb}_2\text{CS}_2$ ,<sup>61</sup> 264  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$  for  $\text{Ta}_2\text{C}$  and 556  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$  for  $\text{TaC}$ ,<sup>31</sup> they have excellent theoretical capacities. According to eqn (4), the average OCVs for  $\text{NbB}_3\text{Li}_4$  and  $\text{TaB}_3\text{Li}_4$  are 0.37 V and 0.42 V, indicating that they are potential anode materials for LIBs.

The process of Li adsorption often results in a volume change of anode material, which will affect the stability during the cycling process of electrode material. Therefore, the in-plane strain ( $\Delta a$ : along  $a$ -direction,  $\Delta b$ : along  $b$ -direction) and the out-of-plane strain ( $\Delta h$ ) during Li adsorption are obtained, which can be seen in Table S6–S8,† according to the eqn (5)–(7). The  $|\Delta a|$  of  $\text{VB}_3\text{Li}_n$  stays below 4% and  $|\Delta b|$  remains below 1%. The  $\Delta h$  of the  $\text{VB}_3\text{Li}_n$  monolayer increases to a maximum of 3.608% when  $n = 1$ , and decreases gradually to 0.022% when  $n = 4$ . However, the values of  $|\Delta a|$  and  $|\Delta b|$  for  $\text{NbB}_3\text{Li}_n$  and  $\text{TaB}_3\text{Li}_n$  are all below 2%. The maximum values  $\Delta h$  of  $\text{Nb}(\text{Ta})\text{B}_3\text{Li}_n$  are 4.737% ( $\text{NbB}_3\text{Li}_2$ ) and 5.607% ( $\text{TaB}_3\text{Li}_3$ ), respectively. Compared with graphite ( $\Delta a \sim 12\%$ ),<sup>62</sup>  $\text{Ti}_2\text{CSSe}$  ( $\Delta a \sim 4.10\%$ ,  $\Delta h \sim -2.22\%$ ),  $\text{Ti}_2\text{CSO}$  ( $\Delta h \sim 6.75\%$ )<sup>63</sup> and  $\text{MC}_6$  ( $\Delta a \sim 6.30\%$ ),<sup>23</sup> the volume change of the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers is small enough to be excellent anode materials.

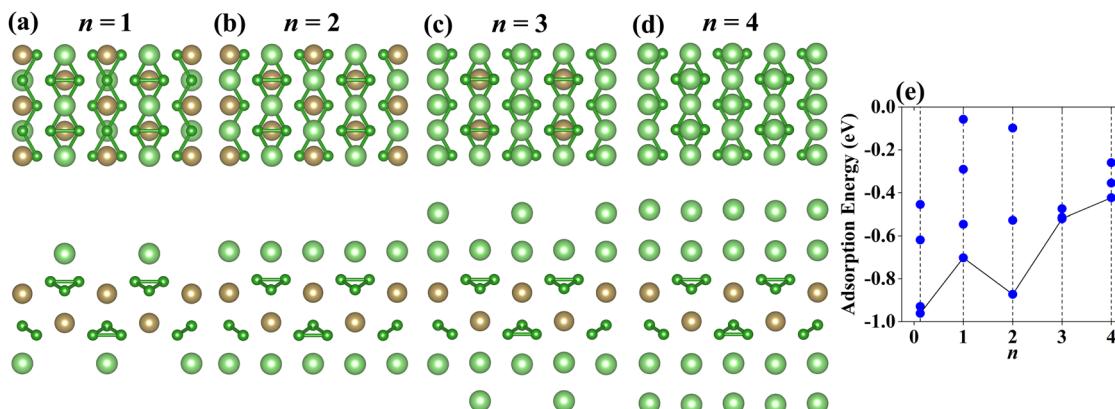


Fig. 8 (a)–(d) Top and side views of the most stable adsorption configurations with  $n$  layer Li-ions adsorbed on the  $\text{TaB}_3$  monolayer ( $n = 1, 2, 3$  and 4). (e) The adsorption energies of  $\text{TaB}_3\text{Li}_n$  as a function of Li-ion content. The black lines connect the adsorption energies corresponding to the most stable adsorption configurations.



**Table 4** Comparison of theoretical capacities ( $C_M$ , unit:  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$ ) and diffusion barriers (DB, unit: eV) for other anode materials of LIBs

	$C_M$	DB	Ref.
$\text{VB}_3$	1286	0.590	This work
$\text{V}_2\text{B}_2$	969	0.22	36
$\alpha\text{-VC}_2$	1073	0.52	27
$\text{NbB}_3$	856	0.202	This work
$\text{Nb}_2\text{C}$	813	0.03	22
$\text{Nb}_2\text{CS}_2$	194.36	0.23	61
$\text{TaB}_3$	502	0.399	This work
$\text{Ta}_2\text{C}$	264	0.21	31
$\text{TaC}$	556	0.25	31
$\text{MoN}_2$	432	0.78	59

The AIMD simulations are employed to verify the thermodynamical stability when  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers adsorb Li atoms at 300 K, which can be seen in Fig. S3.† Compared with the highly deformed anode materials during the process of lithiation at certain temperatures, such as  $\text{NiC}_3$ ,<sup>28</sup> and hydrogenated graphene-like borophene,<sup>64</sup> the structures of the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers are undestroyed by Li-ions. Combined with the volume change of the Li adsorption process, it can clearly see that the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayer will not cause safety problems when working as an anode material due to volume change (Table 4).

## Conclusion

In conclusion, we design boron-rich  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers ( $\text{M} = \text{V}$ ,  $\text{Nb}$  and  $\text{Ta}$ ) and explore their electrochemical performance as anode materials for LIBs, using the structural prediction method and first-principles calculations. The  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers are stable which is verified by cohesive energies, phonon dispersions, molecular dynamics simulations and elastic constants, respectively. The high Young's moduli of  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers mean they have high stiff enough. Electronic structure calculations show that the  $\text{MB}_3$  monolayers have metal-like conduction. Furthermore, the low diffusion barriers and suitable average open-circuit voltages suggest that they could be promising anode materials for LIBs. Most importantly, the theoretical capacities are  $1286 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  ( $\text{VB}_3\text{Li}_4$ ),  $856 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  ( $\text{NbB}_3\text{Li}_4$ ) and  $502 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  ( $\text{TaB}_3\text{Li}_4$ ) which are higher than a lot of 2D anode materials for LIBs. Our work has enriched the study of MBenes as anode materials and provided certain guidance for future theoretical and experimental studies.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

## Acknowledgements

This work was partially supported by the National Nature Science Foundation of China (No. 52072099), the Natural Science Foundation of Heilongjiang Province (No. LH2021A016), and the subject of Harbin Normal University under Grant (No. 2020-KYYWF-0352). The calculations were

carried out using supercomputer resource provided by the High-performance Computing Center of Harbin Normal University.

## References

- 1 L. Lu, X. Han, J. Li, J. Hua and M. Ouyang, *J. Power Sources*, 2013, **226**, 272–288.
- 2 M. Winter, J. O. Besenhard, M. E. Spahr and P. Novák, *Adv. Mater.*, 1998, **10**, 725–763.
- 3 C. Ma, X. Shao and D. Cao, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2012, **22**, 8911.
- 4 R. Mas-Balleste, C. Gomez-Navarro, J. Gomez-Herrero and F. Zamora, *Nanoscale*, 2011, **3**, 20–30.
- 5 X. Zhang, J. Hu, Y. Cheng, H. Y. Yang, Y. Yao and S. A. Yang, *Nanoscale*, 2016, **8**, 15340–15347.
- 6 J. Liu, C. Zhang, L. Xu and S. Ju, *RSC Adv.*, 2018, **8**, 17773–17785.
- 7 A. Y. Galashev and A. S. Vorob'ev, *Electrochim. Acta*, 2021, **378**, 138143.
- 8 S. Deng, L. Wang, T. Hou and Y. Li, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2015, **119**, 28783–28788.
- 9 D. Wang, L. M. Liu, S. J. Zhao, B. H. Li, H. Liu and X. F. Lang, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2013, **15**, 9075–9083.
- 10 E. Yang, H. Ji and Y. Jung, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2015, **119**, 26374–26380.
- 11 X. Lv, W. Wei, Q. Sun, B. Huang and Y. Dai, *J. Phys. D: Appl. Phys.*, 2017, **50**, 235501.
- 12 G. Barik and S. Pal, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2019, **123**, 21852–21865.
- 13 M. Naguib, M. Kurtoglu, V. Presser, J. Lu, J. Niu, M. Heon, L. Hultman, Y. Gogotsi and M. W. Barsoum, *Adv. Mater.*, 2011, **23**, 4248–4253.
- 14 Y. Xie, Y. Dall'Agnese, M. Naguib, Y. Gogotsi, M. W. Barsoum, H. L. Zhuang and P. R. C. Kent, *ACS Nano*, 2014, **8**, 9606–9615.
- 15 Z. Yang, Y. Zheng, W. Li and J. Zhang, *Nanoscale*, 2021, **13**, 11534–11543.
- 16 K. Rajput, V. Kumar, S. Thomas, M. A. Zaeem and D. R. Roy, *2D Mater.*, 2021, **8**, 035015.
- 17 D. Çakir, C. Sevik, O. Gülsen and F. M. Peeters, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2016, **4**, 6029–6035.
- 18 D. Er, J. Li, M. Naguib, Y. Gogotsi and V. B. Shenoy, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces*, 2014, **6**, 11173–11179.
- 19 D. Sun, M. Wang, Z. Li, G. Fan, L. Z. Fan and A. Zhou, *Electrochim. Commun.*, 2014, **47**, 80–83.
- 20 J. Zhao, J. Wen, J. Xiao, X. Ma, J. Gao, L. Bai, H. Gao, X. Zhang and Z. Zhang, *J. Energy Chem.*, 2021, **53**, 387–395.
- 21 M. Naguib, J. Halim, J. Lu, K. M. Cook, L. Hultman, Y. Gogotsi and M. W. Barsoum, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2013, **135**, 15966–15969.
- 22 L. Bai, H. Yin, L. Wu and X. Zhang, *Comput. Mater. Sci.*, 2018, **143**, 225–231.
- 23 Q. Tang, Z. Zhou and P. Shen, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2012, **134**, 16909–16916.
- 24 F. Kong, X. He, Q. Liu, X. Qi, Y. Zheng, R. Wang and Y. Bai, *Electrochim. Acta*, 2018, **265**, 140–150.
- 25 H. Huang, H. H. Wu, C. Chi, B. Huang and T. Y. Zhang, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2019, **7**, 8897–8904.



26 S. Lu, C. Yang, D. Fan and X. Hu, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2019, **21**, 15187–15194.

27 J. Xu, D. Wang, R. Lian, X. Gao, Y. Liu, G. Yury, G. Chen and Y. Wei, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2019, **7**, 8873–8881.

28 C. Zhu, X. Qu, M. Zhang, J. Wang, Q. Li, Y. Geng, Y. Ma and Z. Su, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2019, **7**, 13356–13363.

29 F. Zhang, T. Jing, S. Cai, M. Deng, D. Liang and X. Qi, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2021, **23**, 12731–12738.

30 Y. Yu, Z. Guo, Q. Peng, J. Zhou and Z. Sun, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2019, **7**, 12145–12153.

31 T. Yu, S. Zhang, F. Li, Z. Zhao, L. Liu, H. Xu and G. Yang, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2017, **5**, 18698–18706.

32 Z. Guo, J. Zhou and Z. Sun, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2017, **5**, 23530–23535.

33 S. F. Wang, B. T. Wang, T. Bo, J. R. Zhang and F. W. Wang, *Appl. Surf. Sci.*, 2021, **538**, 148048.

34 N. Ma, T. Wang, N. Li, Y. Li and J. Fan, *Appl. Surf. Sci.*, 2022, **571**, 151275.

35 T. Bo, P. F. Liu, J. Xu, J. Zhang, Y. Chen, O. Eriksson, F. Wang and B. T. Wang, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2018, **20**, 22168–22178.

36 J. Jia, B. Li, S. Duan, Z. Cui and H. Gao, *Nanoscale*, 2019, **11**, 20307–20314.

37 S. Gao, J. Hao, X. Zhang, L. Li, C. Zhang, L. Wu, X. Ma, P. Lu and G. Liu, *Comput. Mater. Sci.*, 2021, **200**, 110776.

38 G. Yuan, T. Bo, X. Qi, P. F. Liu, Z. Huang and B. T. Wang, *Appl. Surf. Sci.*, 2019, **480**, 448–453.

39 R. Li, Y. Wang, L. C. Xu, J. Shen, W. Zhao, Z. Yang, R. Liu, J. L. Shao, C. Guo and X. Li, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2020, **22**, 22236–22243.

40 Y. Wang, J. Lv, L. Zhu and Y. Ma, *Comput. Phys. Commun.*, 2012, **183**, 2063–2070.

41 Y. Wang, J. Lv, L. Zhu and Y. Ma, *Phys. Rev. B*, 2010, **82**, 094116.

42 B. Gao, P. Gao, S. Lu, J. Lv, Y. Wang and Y. Ma, *Sci. Bull.*, 2019, **64**, 301–309.

43 G. Kresse and J. Furthmüller, *Comput. Mater. Sci.*, 1996, **6**, 15–50.

44 G. Kresse and J. Furthmüller, *Phys. Rev. B*, 1996, **54**, 11169–11186.

45 G. Kresse and D. Joubert, *Phys. Rev. B*, 1999, **59**, 1758–1775.

46 J. P. Perdew, J. A. Chevary, S. H. Vosko, K. A. Jackson, M. R. Pederson, D. J. Singh and C. Fiolhais, *Phys. Rev. B: Condens. Matter Mater. Phys.*, 1992, **46**, 6671–6687.

47 J. P. Perdew, K. Burke and M. Ernzerhof, *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, 1996, **77**, 3865–3868.

48 S. Grimme, *J. Comput. Chem.*, 2006, **27**, 1787–1799.

49 A. Togo and I. Tanaka, *Scr. Mater.*, 2015, **108**, 1–5.

50 G. Henkelman, B. P. Uberuaga and H. Jonsson, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2000, **113**, 9901.

51 V. Wang, N. Xu, J. C. Liu, G. Tang and W. T. Geng, *Comput. Phys. Commun.*, 2021, **267**, 108033.

52 T. Yu, Z. Zhao, L. Liu, S. Zhang, H. Xu and G. Yang, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2018, **140**, 5962–5968.

53 Y. Wang, L. Wu, Y. Lin, Q. Hu, Z. Li, H. Liu, Y. Zhang, H. Gou, Y. Yao, J. Zhang, F. Gao and H. Mao, *Phys. Rev. B*, 2015, **92**, 174106.

54 J.-O. Joswig and M. Springborg, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2008, **129**, 134311.

55 C. Zhang, S. Zhang and Q. Wang, *Sci. Rep.*, 2016, **6**, 29531.

56 J. Jia, S. Wei, Q. Cai and J. Zhao, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, 2021, **600**, 711–718.

57 Z. Gao, F. Ma, X. Zhang, Z. Tian, Y. Liu, Y. Jiao and A. Du, *Phys. E*, 2021, **134**, 114930.

58 O. I. Malyi, T. L. Tan and S. Manzhos, *Appl. Phys. Express*, 2013, **6**, 027301.

59 X. Zhang, Z. Yu, S. S. Wang, S. Guan, H. Y. Yang, Y. Yao and S. A. Yang, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2016, **4**, 15224–15231.

60 Z. Zhao, T. Yu, S. Zhang, H. Yu, G. Yang and Y. Liu, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2019, **7**, 405.

61 Y. Jing, J. Liu, Z. Zhou, J. Zhang and Y. Li, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2019, **123**, 26803–26811.

62 Y. Zhang, G. Mo, X. Li, W. Zhang, J. Zhang, J. Ye, X. Huang and C. Yu, *J. Power Sources*, 2011, **196**, 5402–5407.

63 E. M. D. Siriwardane and J. Hu, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2021, **125**, 12469–12477.

64 M. Makaremi, B. Mortazavi and C. V. Singh, *Mater. Today Energy*, 2018, **8**, 22–28.

