

Ti₃C₂ MXene-Derived Sodium/Potassium Titanate Nanoribbons for High-Performance Sodium/Potassium Ion Batteries with Enhanced Capacities

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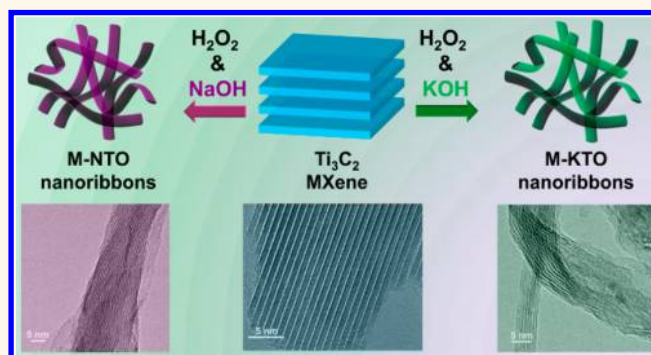
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Sodium and potassium ion batteries hold promise for next-generation energy storage systems due to their rich abundance and low cost, but are facing great challenges in optimum electrode materials for actual applications. Here, ultrathin nanoribbons of sodium titanate (M-NTO, NaTi_{1.5}O_{8.3}) and potassium titanate (M-KTO, K₂Ti₄O₉) were successfully synthesized by a simultaneous oxidation and alkalization process of Ti₃C₂ MXene. Benefiting from the suitable interlayer spacing (0.90 nm for M-NTO, 0.93 nm for M-KTO), ultrathin thickness (<11 nm), narrow widths of nanoribbons (<60 nm), and open macroporous structures for enhanced ion insertion/extraction kinetics, the resulting M-NTO exhibited a large reversible capacity of 191 mAh g⁻¹ at 200 mA g⁻¹ for sodium storage, higher than those of pristine Ti₃C₂ (178 mAh g⁻¹) and commercial TiC derivatives (86 mAh g⁻¹). Notably, M-KTO displayed a superior reversible capacity of 151 mAh g⁻¹ at 50 mA g⁻¹ and 88 mAh g⁻¹ at a high rate of 300 mA g⁻¹ and long-term stable cyclability over 900 times, which outperforms other Ti-based layered materials reported to date. Moreover, this strategy is facile and highly flexible and can be extended for preparing a large number of MXene-derived materials, from the 60+ group of MAX phases, for various applications such as supercapacitors, batteries, and electrocatalysts.

KEYWORDS: MXene, sodium titanate, potassium titanate, nanoribbons, sodium ion batteries, potassium ion batteries



Lithium ion batteries (LIBs) are being widely used in portable electronic devices and large-scale grid storage applications, which however could be greatly hampered by never-ceasing concerns of limited lithium resources, rising cost, and safety issues.^{1–3} To address this issue, sodium ion batteries (SIBs) and potassium ion batteries (PIBs) are promising as ideal alternatives to LIBs for energy storage applications due to their rich abundance (Na, K), low cost, high theoretical capacities, and similar redox potentials ($E_{\text{Na}^+/\text{Na}} = -2.7$ V, $E_{\text{K}^+/\text{K}} = -2.9$ V) to lithium ($E_{\text{Li}^+/\text{Li}} = -3.0$ V).^{2,4–9} Unfortunately, larger ionic radii of Na⁺ (1.02 Å) and K⁺ (1.38

Å) in comparison with Li⁺ (0.76 Å) result in totally different electrochemical behaviors of SIBs and PIBs from LIBs.^{10,11} For example, graphite is the most well-known anode for LIBs and also exhibits a reversible capacity of 207 mAh g⁻¹ for PIBs,⁹ but shows poor record for Na storage in most electrolytes.¹² Furthermore, the huge volume expansion and sluggish kinetics in most electrodes (e.g., metal oxide, porous carbon) induced

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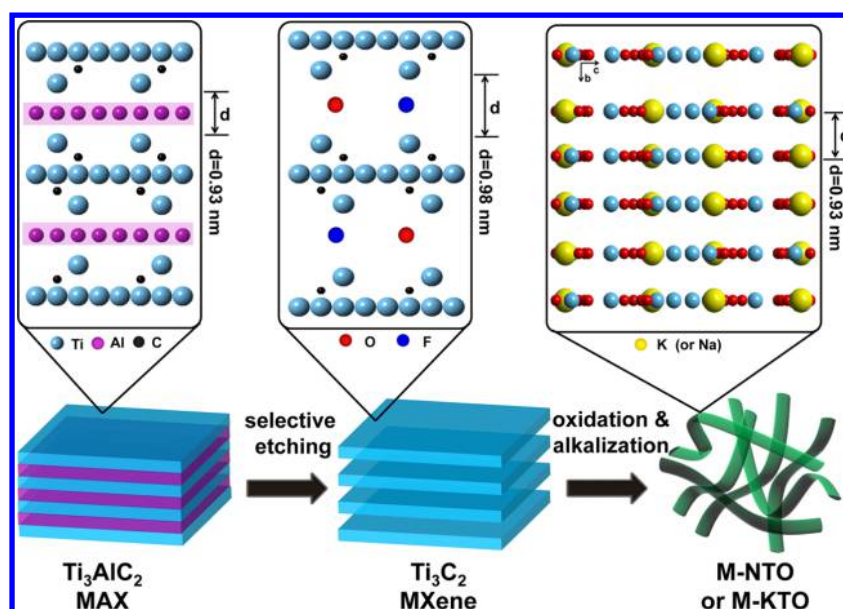


Figure 1. Schematic of the fabrication of M-NTO or M-KTO nanoribbons. First, Ti₃C₂ MXene was fabricated *via* selectively etching Al of Ti₃AlC₂ MAX phase in 40% HF. Second, Ti₃C₂ MXene was hydrothermally treated with NaOH or KOH solution in the presence of H₂O₂ at 140 °C for 12 h, producing M-NTO or M-KTO nanoribbons.

by large Na⁺ or K⁺ ions usually lead to low capacities and/or fast capacity fading.^{11,13} Therefore, urgent development of nanostructural electrode materials with enhanced charge storage mechanism is highly required to meet the coming era of next-generation batteries (SIBs, PIBs).

Ti-based layered materials, such as sodium/potassium titanate and Ti-based MXene (*e.g.*, Ti₃C₂, Ti₂C), have been intensively explored in SIBs and PIBs due to their suitable interlayer spacing for accommodating Na⁺/K⁺ ions, low working potentials, exceptional chemical durability, and environmental benignity.^{4,14–17} Note that electrochemical performances of these materials are strongly dependent on their nanostructures. For instance, Na₂Ti₃O₇ nanotubes exhibited high reversible capacities of 245 mAh g⁻¹ at 50 mA g⁻¹ and 155 mAh g⁻¹ at 2 A g⁻¹,¹⁴ while microspherical Na₂Ti₃O₇ delivered only a low capacity of 108 mAh g⁻¹ at 350 mA g⁻¹.¹⁸ Furthermore, potassium titanates (K₂Ti₄O₉ and K₂Ti₈O₁₇) were also evaluated for PIBs, however their uncontrollable nanostructures offered low capacities (<100 mAh g⁻¹ at 50 mA g⁻¹) and limited cycling life (<100 times).^{19,20} Moreover, two-dimensional (2D) MXene nanosheets (*e.g.*, Ti₃C₂) have gained enormous attention because of their high conductivity,^{21–24} flexible interlayer space,^{25–27} tailored surface chemistry^{28,29} and promising applications in LIBs, SIBs, and PIBs with a theoretical capacity of 447.8, 351.8, and 191.8 mAh g⁻¹, respectively.^{30,31} However, these HF-etched multilayer MXene nanosheets, terminated by oxygen- and fluorine-containing groups, usually show severe structural defects, leading to large initial irreversible capacities and limited reversible capacities of 164 mAh g⁻¹ for SIBs and 146 mAh g⁻¹ for PIBs.^{2,32} Therefore, designing well-defined layered Ti-based nanostructures with suitable interlayer spacing and stable structure, using innovative synthesis strategies, is of great significance for improving sodium and potassium storage kinetics of SIBs and PIBs. Very recently, layered TiO₂@Ti₃C₂T_x heterogeneous structures for enhanced lithium storage were reported by one-step oxidation transformation of MXene (Ti₃C₂T_x), which greatly inspired us to develop a class of

MXene-derived materials with well-defined structures for energy storage.³³ To the best of our knowledge, there is no report on MXene-derived Ti-based layered materials for SIBs and PIBs so far.

Here we report the transformation of accordion-like Ti₃C₂ MXene into ultrathin nanoribbons of sodium titanate (M-NTO, NaTi_{1.5}O_{8.3}) and potassium titanate (M-KTO, K₂Ti₄O₉) as high-performance anode materials for SIBs and PIBs, respectively. Ultrathin layered M-NTO and M-KTO nanoribbons were fabricated by selective etching of the Ti₃AlC₂ MAX phase, followed by simultaneous oxidation and alkalinization processes of HF-etched Ti₃C₂ nanosheets. Both the ion insertion/extraction kinetics and structural stability were greatly improved by the resulting nanostructures of M-NTO and M-KTO, such as the suitable interlayer spacing (0.90 nm for M-NTO, 0.93 nm for M-KTO), ultrathin thickness (<11 nm), narrow widths of nanoribbons (<60 nm), and open macroporosity; therefore, the resulting M-NTO exhibited an enhanced reversible capacity of 191 mAh g⁻¹ at 200 mA g⁻¹ for SIBs, higher than those of pristine Ti₃C₂ (178 mAh g⁻¹) and commercial TiC derivative (86 mAh g⁻¹). Furthermore, M-KTO offered superior potassium storage, such as a high reversible capacity of 151 mAh g⁻¹ at 50 mA g⁻¹, high rate capacity of 88 mAh g⁻¹ at 300 mA g⁻¹, and long cycling life over 900 times, outperforming the Ti-based anodes for PIBs reported to date.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A schematic for synthesizing MXene (Ti₃C₂)-derived titanate nanoribbons of M-NTO (NaTi_{1.5}O_{8.3}) or M-KTO (K₂Ti₄O₉) was illustrated in Figure 1. First, the pristine Ti₃AlC₂ MAX phase was prepared by solid–liquid reaction of ball-milled Ti, Al, and graphite powder in a molar ratio of 3:1.1:1.88 at 1550 °C for 2 h under an argon flow.³⁴ Second, Ti₃C₂ MXene nanosheets were synthesized by selectively etching the Al layer from the pristine Ti₃AlC₂ phase with HF acid (Figure S1).^{35,36} Third, M-NTO or M-KTO nanoribbons were fabricated *via* simultaneous oxidation and alkalinization of Ti₃C₂ MXene in a

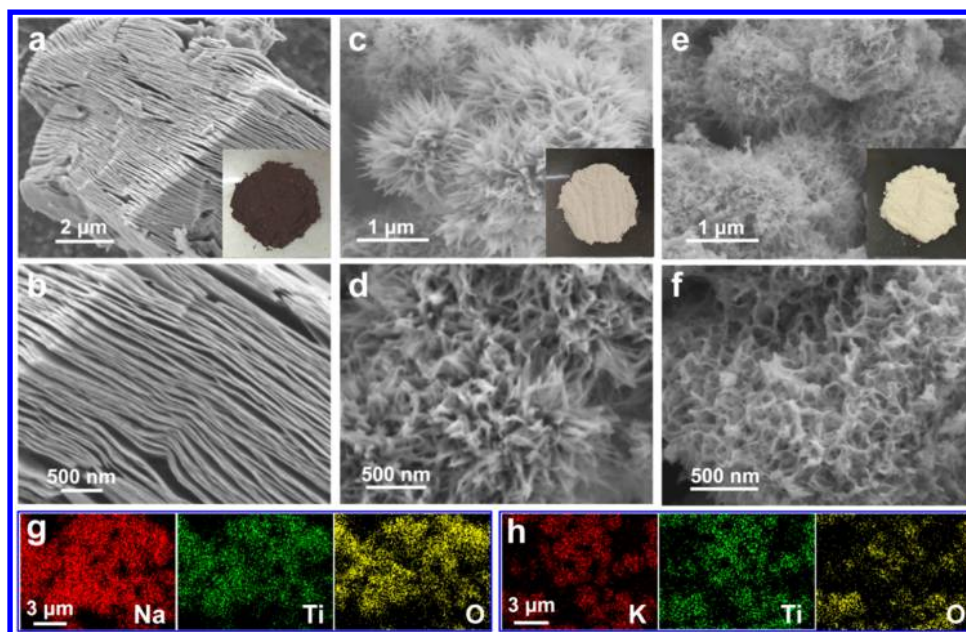


Figure 2. SEM images of (a and b) Ti_3C_2 MXene, (c and d) M-NTO, and (e and f) M-KTO. The insets in (a), (c), and (e) are photographs of Ti_3C_2 MXene, M-NTO, and M-KTO powder, respectively. (g, h) Elemental mapping analysis of (g) M-NTO and (h) M-KTO.

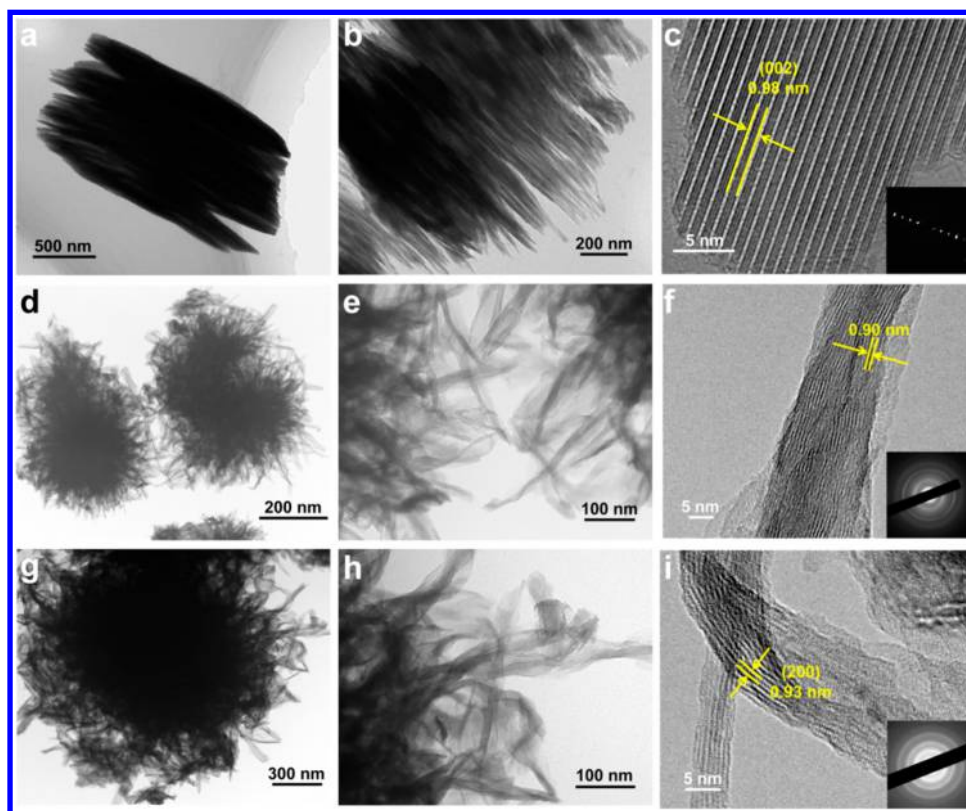


Figure 3. (a, b) TEM and (c) HRTEM images of Ti_3C_2 MXene. (c, d) TEM and (f) HRTEM images of M-NTO. (g, h) TEM and (i) HRTEM images of M-KTO. The insets in (c), (f), and (i) are the corresponding SAED patterns.

mixed solution of 1 M alkaline solution (NaOH or KOH) and 30% H_2O_2 at 140 °C for 12 h. Importantly, this strategy is simple and avoids high temperature.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of Ti_3C_2 MXene is shown in Figure 2a and b. A panoramic view revealed an accordion-like multilayer nanostructure, indicative of the successful fabrication from densely packed Ti_3AlC_2 (Figure 1,

Figure S1).^{36–38} A high-magnification SEM image disclosed the thickness of the exfoliated multilayers ranging from 30 to 50 nm (Figure 2b). After hydrothermal treatment of Ti_3C_2 MXene in NaOH and H_2O_2 solution, the color changed from black-red (Figure 2a) to white (Figure 2c), suggestive of the transformation of MXene into M-NTO. The SEM image displayed urchin-like morphology of M-NTO, and a high-magnification

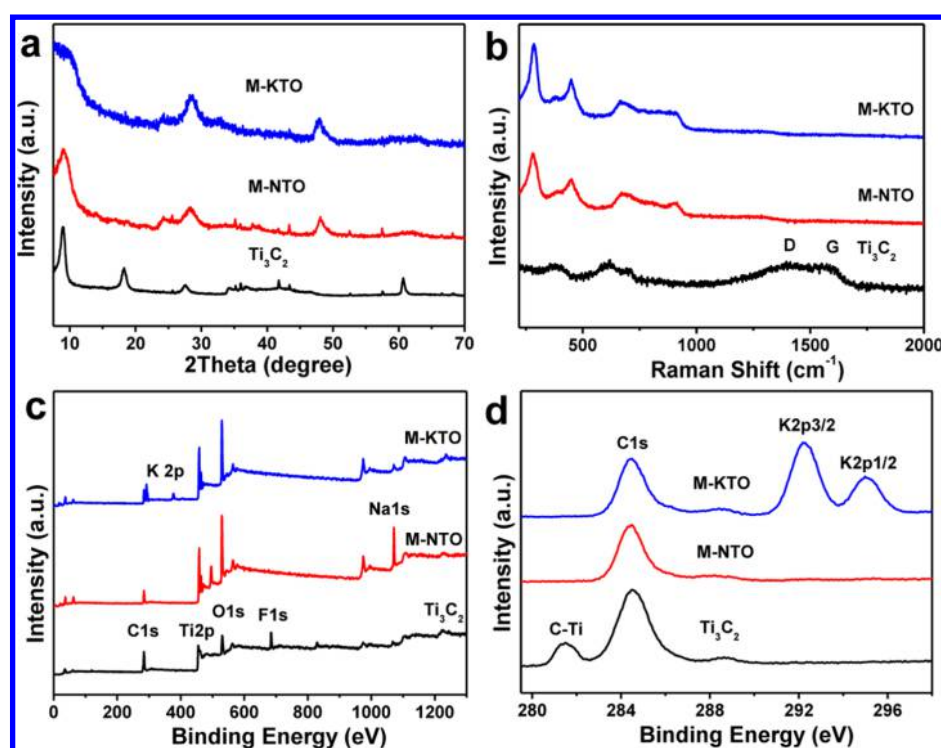


Figure 4. (a) XRD patterns, (b) Raman spectra, and (c) XPS full spectra of Ti_3C_2 MXene, M-NTO, and M-KTO. (d) C 1s XPS spectra of Ti_3C_2 and M-NTO, and C 1s and K 2p XPS spectrum of M-KTO.

SEM image further evidenced the curved structures of M-NTO nanoribbons (Figure 2d). While Ti_3C_2 MXene was treated in a KOH and H_2O_2 system, a light yellow product of M-KTO was obtained and showed a self-woven framework with open macroporosity (Figure 2e and f), which was different from the relatively straight nanoribbons of M-NTO. Furthermore, elemental mapping visualized the homogeneous element distribution of Na, Ti, and O in M-NTO (Figure 2g) and K, Ti, and O in M-KTO (Figure 2h), respectively.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images further revealed the structural evolution from Ti_3C_2 MXene nanosheets to M-NTO and M-KTO nanoribbons. As shown in Figure 3a–c, Ti_3C_2 MXene exhibited microscale bulk particles with multilayer structures, and HRTEM manifested multilayered crystalline structure, with a typical interlayer spacing of ~ 0.98 nm, which was also confirmed by the dotted-line pattern in selected area electron diffraction (SAED). Interestingly, after a simultaneous oxidation and alkalization process, nanosphere-like aggregates with a diameter of $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ were found, consisting of randomly elongated nanoribbons (Figure 3e). Notably, TEM and HRTEM images validated the narrow widths of 15–50 nm and ultrathin thickness of 4–11 nm of M-NTO nanoribbons (Figure S2). The width or thickness is much smaller than those of pristine Ti_3C_2 MXene and reported titanate nanoribbons or nanosheets,^{33,39–41} demonstrating the advantages of the transformation strategy in nanostructural design. M-NTO also showed the layered nanostructures with an interlayer spacing of 0.90 nm and multiring pattern in SAED (Figure 3f). The M-KTO aggregate was slightly larger than that of M-NTO, but still smaller than that of Ti_3C_2 bulk particles (Figure 3g). M-KTO nanoribbons presented highly curved and intertwined structures (Figure 3h), with widths of 28–60 nm and thicknesses of 3.5–11 nm (Figure S3). Moreover, a large interlayer spacing of

0.93 nm, corresponding to the (200) plane of M-KTO, was identified in Figure 3i.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns, Raman spectra, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) were also recorded of the phase transformation. As shown in Figure 4a, a strong peak at 9.0° was assigned to in-plane diffraction (002) of Ti_3C_2 with a *d*-spacing of ~ 0.98 nm, well consistent with the reported literature.³⁵ After the oxidation and alkalization process, the typical diffraction peaks at 18° and 60° of Ti_3C_2 disappeared, and new peaks at 24.3° and 48° were observed in both M-NTO and M-KTO. Furthermore, a strong peak at $\sim 9.3^\circ$ for M-NTO and at $\sim 9.2^\circ$ for M-KTO was recognized. The chemical composition of M-KTO was analyzed as $\text{K}_2\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_9$ (JCPDS 32-0861),²⁰ and M-NTO was evaluated as $\text{NaTi}_{1.5}\text{O}_{8.3}$ based on XRD and elemental analysis of Na:Ti:O (Figures S4 and S5). Raman spectra confirmed the disappearance of a broad C peak of Ti_3C_2 MXene ranging from 1300 to 1600 cm^{-1} , and accordingly, two strong peaks were observed at ~ 280 and ~ 450 cm^{-1} for both M-NTO and M-KTO (Figure 4b).^{17,42} Moreover, XPS spectra disclosed a remarkable F 1s signal and C–Ti signal of Ti_3C_2 MXene at 686 and 281.5 eV, but both of them are not observable in the case of M-NTO and M-KTO (Figure 4c and d). Notably, the Na 1s signal at 1074 eV and K 2p signals (K 2p_{3/2} at ~ 292 eV and K 2p_{1/2} at ~ 295 eV) were well affirmed in the full XPS spectrum of M-NTO and K 2p–C 1s spectrum of M-KTO (Figure 4c and d), respectively.

On the basis of the above observation, we proposed a possible mechanism for the formation of Ti_3C_2 MXene-derived ultrathin M-NTO or M-KTO nanoribbons as follows. First, Ti_3C_2 was oxidized to TiO_2 , as confirmed by XRD and SEM characterizations (Figures S6a and S7).⁴³ Second, the alkalization process of TiO_2 under hydrothermal conditions promoted the formation of sodium or potassium titanates.⁴⁴ It should be mentioned that the alkalinized Ti_3C_2 without involving

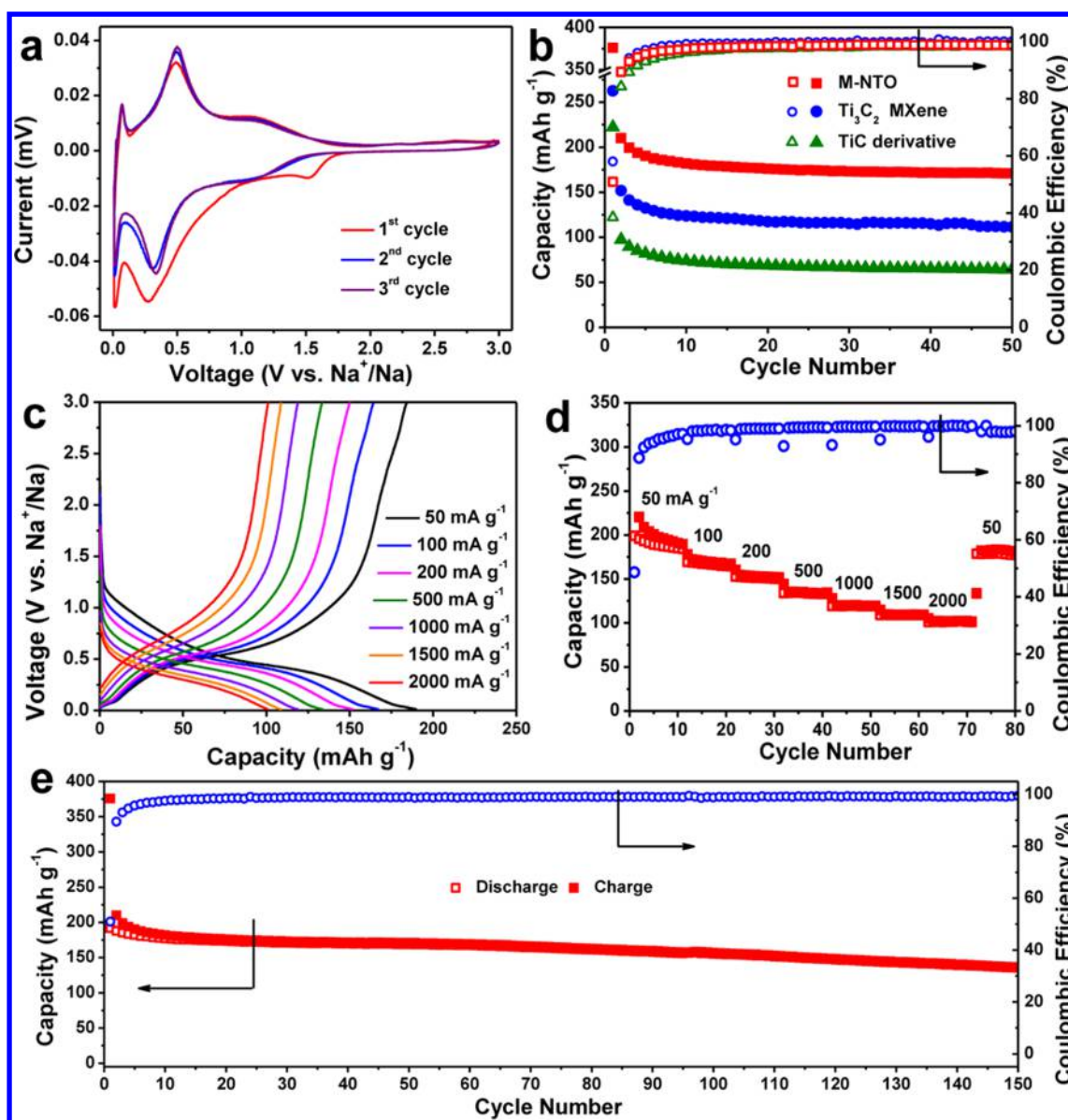


Figure 5. Electrochemical characterization of M-NTO for SIBs in 1 M NaCF₃SO₃ electrolyte. (a) Cyclic voltammetry of M-NTO measured at 0.1 mV s⁻¹. (b) Cycling stability and Coulombic efficiencies of M-NTO, Ti₃C₂ MXene, and commercial TiC derivative at a current density of 200 mA g⁻¹. (c) Galvanostatic charge and discharge curves of M-NTO cycled at different current densities from 50 to 2000 mA g⁻¹. (d) Rate performance of M-NTO at different current densities. (e) Long-term cycling performance and Coulombic efficiency of M-NTO for SIBs at 200 mA g⁻¹.

H₂O₂ treatment still maintained layered structures of MXene and cannot achieve nanoribbon-like structures of M-NTO and M-KTO (Figure S6b). Furthermore, during the alkalization process in a suitable concentration (Figure S8), the small titanate nanosheets appeared at an early stage (~2 h) on the surface of bulk MXene particles (Figure S6c). With the progress of alkalization, longer curved nanoribbons were formed, then assembling into urchin-like spheres in M-NTO or intertwined frameworks in M-KTO. Third, MXene as a highly active Ti precursor is the key for the synthesis of M-NTO or M-KTO nanoribbons. For comparison, commercial TiC particles were also hydrothermally treated by the similar procedure of M-NTO, and the final products were denoted as commercial TiC derivative. However, neither the nanoribbon structure or phase transformation was obtained (Figures S6d–f and S7). Noteworthy, our simultaneous oxidation and

alkalization process operated at low temperature, and the alkaline solution is highly flexible for preparing MXene-derived titanate nanoribbons, which has never been achieved by traditional alkali hydrothermal treatment of TiO₂ precursors (Table S1).

The suitable interlayer spacing (0.9 nm for M-NTO, 0.93 nm for M-KTO), ultrathin thickness (<11 nm), narrow widths (<60 nm), and open macroporous structures of nanoribbons, such M-NTO and M-KTO are highly favorable for high-performance sodium and potassium storage.^{45,46} To this end, electrochemical properties of M-NTO and M-KTO were evaluated as anodes for SIBs and PIBs, respectively. Figure 5a showed cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves of M-NTO for the first three cycles, measured between 0.01 and 3.0 V (*vs* Na⁺/Na) at 0.1 mV s⁻¹ in 1 M NaCF₃SO₃ electrolyte. In the first discharge cycle, two main cathodic peaks were observed at 1.53 and 0.25

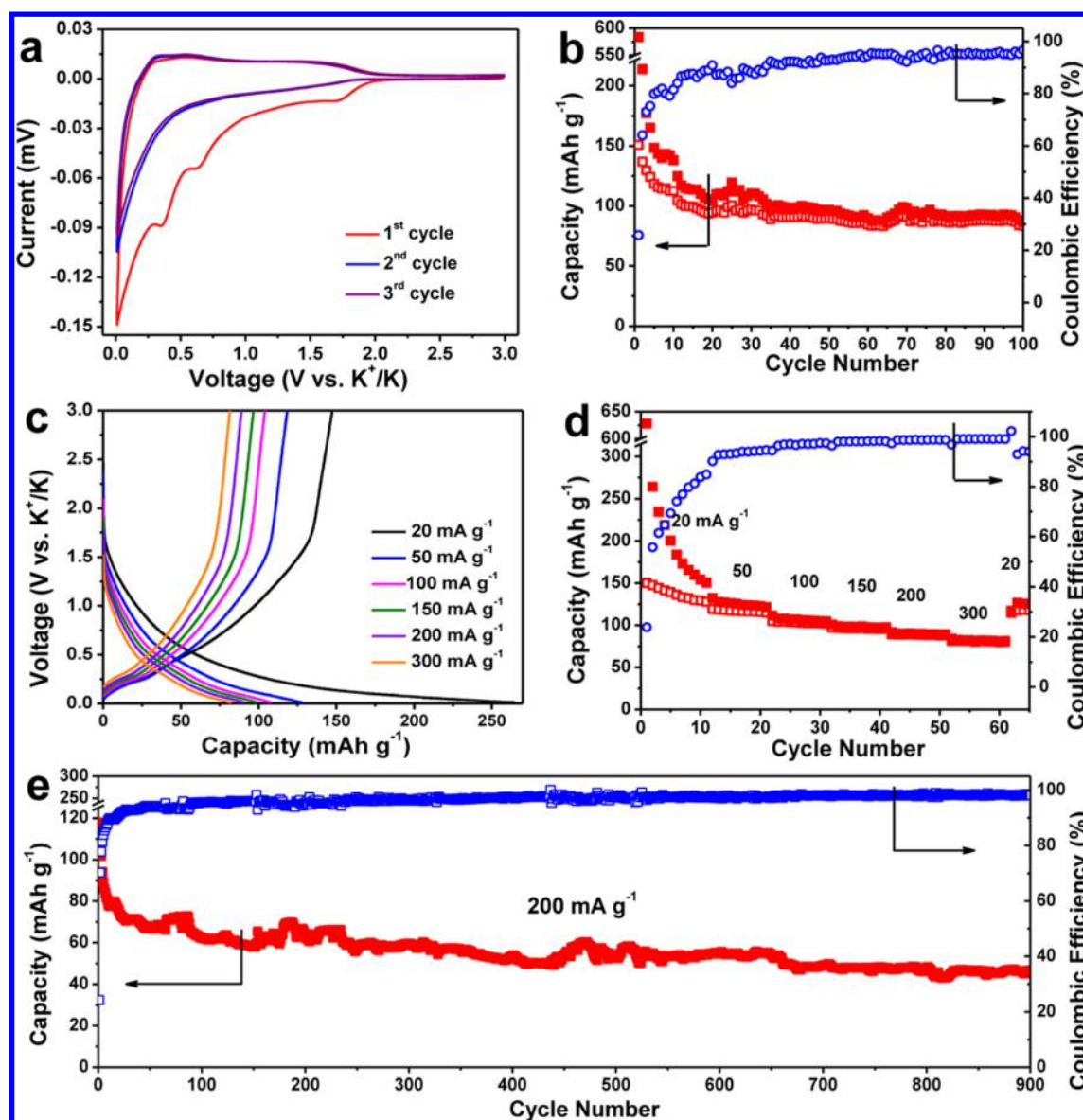


Figure 6. Electrochemical characterization of M-KTO for PIBs in 1.0 M KPF_6 electrolyte. (a) Cyclic voltammetry of M-KTO measured at 0.1 mV s^{-1} . (b) Cycling stability of M-KTO at 50 mA g^{-1} . (c) Galvanostatic charge and discharge curves of M-KTO cycled at different current densities from 20 to 300 mA g^{-1} . (d) Rate capability of M-KTO at different current densities. (e) Long-term cycling performance and Coulombic efficiency of M-KTO for PIBs at 200 mA g^{-1} .

V for M-NTO. Significantly, the subsequent cycles exhibited good reproducibility with almost overlapping of these cathodic peaks at around 0.3 and 1.0 V, demonstrating high reversibility of electrochemical reaction. Furthermore, a distinct voltage plateau between 0.3 and 0.6 V was found in the discharge profiles (Figure S9). The Coulombic efficiency of M-NTO increased promptly from 51% to 96% in the initial five cycles and thus became stable, up to 99%, in 50th cycle (Figure 5b). Importantly, M-NTO tested at 200 mA g^{-1} delivered high discharge capacities of 376, 210, and 171 mAh g^{-1} for the first, second, and 50th cycles (Figure 5b), respectively, which are higher than those of pristine Ti_3C_2 MXene (with a capacity of 263, 152, and 111 mAh g^{-1} , respectively) and commercial TiC derivative (with a capacity of 222, 97, and 64 mAh g^{-1} , respectively), clearly demonstrating enhanced sodium storage of M-NTO in terms of both high capacities and outstanding cycling stability. It is worth noting that high reversible capacity of M-NTO (192 mAh g^{-1} at 200 mA g^{-1}) outperformed most

of the state-of-the-art Ti-based anodes (Table S2), for instance, $\text{Na}_2\text{Ti}_3\text{O}_7$ nanotube arrays (185 mAh g^{-1} at 177 mA g^{-1}),⁴⁷ $\text{Na}_2\text{Ti}_3\text{O}_7$ /carbon (119 mAh g^{-1} at 178 mA g^{-1}),⁴⁸ $\text{K}_2\text{Ti}_6\text{O}_{13}$ nanowires (186 mAh g^{-1} at 20 mA g^{-1}),⁴⁹ and Ti_3C_2 MXene (143 mAh g^{-1} at 20 mA g^{-1}).⁵⁰ Moreover, Na-storage performance of M-NTO was also influenced by hydrothermal time and concentration of NaOH. In general, M-NTO treated with shorter (1 h) or longer (18 h) hydrothermal time (Figure S10) or in 5 M NaOH (Figure S11) exhibited low capacities and/or poor cyclability.

Remarkably, M-NTO showed extraordinary rate capability measured at varied current densities from 50 to 2000 mA g^{-1} (Figure 5c and d). With increasing current density from 50, 100, 200, 500, 1000, and 1500 to 2000 mA g^{-1} , high reversible capacities were achieved from 196 (2nd cycle), 169 (12th cycle), 153 (22th cycle), 134 (32th cycle), 119 (42th cycle), and 109 (52th cycle) to 101 mAh g^{-1} (62th cycle). Importantly, after abruptly switching the initial current density

back to 50 mA g^{-1} , a large capacity of 179 mAh g^{-1} was still restored, demonstrating the excellent robustness and stability of M-NTO. In sharp contrast, Ti_3C_2 MXene exhibited low reversible capacities of 136 (11th cycle), 125 (21th cycle), and 113 (41th cycle) at corresponding current densities of 50, 100, and 200 mA g^{-1} , respectively (Figure S12). Furthermore, long-term cyclability of M-NTO was further demonstrated for 150 cycles at 200 mA g^{-1} (Figure 5e), with an average capacity loss of 0.18% per cycle and a high Coulombic efficiency of 99.3%. Notably, the excellent electrochemical performance of M-NTO was also achieved at a higher mass loading of $\sim 1 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ (Figure S13), which was ascribed to the nanoribbon structures with suitable interlayer spacing, ultrathin thickness, and narrow widths for high utilization of active materials, enhanced ionic transport kinetics, and structural stability (Figure S14).

M-KTO was also investigated as anode for PIBs with 1.0 M KPF_6 in diglyme electrolyte (Figure 6, Figure S13). Similar to M-NTO, electrochemical reversibility of M-KTO was rapidly established in the initial three cycles, as confirmed by the overlapped second and third curves (Figure 6a). The charge–discharge reaction of $\text{K}_2\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_9$ was proposed by Brij Kishore as follows,²⁰ $\text{K}_2\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_9 + 2\text{K}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \leftrightarrow \text{K}_4\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_9$, in which 2Ti^{4+} ions in $\text{K}_2\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_9$ are reduced to 2Ti^{3+} ions, accompanied by insertion of 2 K^+ ions into the lattices. It is noteworthy that our M-KTO offered high initial discharge and charge capacities of 584 and 151 mAh g^{-1} , respectively, when cycled at 50 mA g^{-1} . Similar to M-NTO, high capacity was likely attributed to ultrathin nanoribbons with expanded *d*-spacing for significantly accommodating more ions in the interlayer channels. Furthermore, an interfacial potassium storage mechanism on highly active layered structures of M-KTO might contribute to the extra capacity.^{51,52} After 100 cycles, a large capacity retention of 61% (the second charge capacity) with a high Coulombic efficiency of 96.6% was maintained (Figure 6b), demonstrative of outstanding cyclability. Furthermore, galvanostatic charge/discharge curves displayed pronounced K-storage behavior of M-KTO at different current densities (Figure 6c and d). The reversible capacities of 150 (1st cycle), 119 (12th cycle), 105 (22th cycle), 97 (32th cycle), 89 (42th cycle), and 81 (52th cycle) mAh g^{-1} were attained at 20, 50, 100, 150, 200, and 300 mA g^{-1} , respectively. Also, a high charge capacity of $\sim 117 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ was restored after a current density back to 20 mA g^{-1} . Importantly, the excellent rate capability (105 mAh g^{-1} at 100 mA g^{-1} , 81 mAh g^{-1} at 300 mA g^{-1}) of M-KTO nanoribbons was superior to the reported $\text{K}_2\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_9$ particles (80 mAh g^{-1} at 100 mA g^{-1})²⁰ and $\text{K}_2\text{Ti}_8\text{O}_{17}$ nanorods ($\sim 83 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ at 100 mA g^{-1}) (Table S3).¹⁹ Furthermore, M-KTO was validated by ultralong-term cycling life over 900 times, exhibiting a capacity retention of 51% (of the second charge capacity) and high Coulombic efficiency of 98.4% at 200 mA g^{-1} (Figure 6e) due to the robust structural integrity of ultrathin nanoribbons during cycling (Figure S15). Notably, ultrastable cyclability of M-KTO exhibited the best electrochemical performance for PIBs in the reported Ti-based nanostructures, such as potassium titanate and MXene (Table S3).^{2,19,20}

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have demonstrated the synthesis of ultrathin M-NTO and M-KTO nanoribbons from HF-etched MXene nanosheets by a simultaneous oxidation and alkalization process under hydrothermal conditions. Benefiting from the suitable

interlayer spacing, thin thickness, narrow widths, and open macroporous network, the resulting M-NTO delivered a high reversible capacity of 191 mAh g^{-1} at 200 mA g^{-1} for SIBs, and M-KTO exhibited a large reversible capacity of 151 mAh g^{-1} at 50 mA g^{-1} for PIBs, as well as outstanding rate capacity and long-term cyclability. We believe that this transformation approach is promising for developing a variety of MXene-derived nanostructured materials for numerous applications such as supercapacitors, batteries, electrocatalysts, and sensors.

METHODS

Materials Synthesis. To synthesize Ti_3C_2 MXene, typically, 1 g of Ti_3AlC_2 powder was slowly added to 120 mL of 40 wt % hydrofluoric acid solution. The reaction mixture was stirred at 300 rpm for 72 h at 25°C . After that, the mixed solution was centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 5 min, and the powder was collected after discarding the supernatant. Then, the resulting powder was washed with distilled water repeatedly four times. Finally, Ti_3C_2 was collected by filtering the solution using a polytetrafluoroethylene membrane (0.22 mm pore size) and dried in a vacuum oven at 60°C for 12 h.

To synthesize M-NTO and M-KTO nanoribbons, typically, 100 mg of Ti_3C_2 MXene was added into a mixed solution containing 30 mL of 1 M NaOH and 0.68 mL of 30% H_2O_2 . Then, the mixed solution was transferred into a 50 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave, which was hydrothermally treated at 140°C for 12 h. After naturally cooling to room temperature, the upper white suspension was collected by vacuum filtration, and the resulting M-NTO sample was washed with distilled water three times and dried at 60°C for 12 h. M-KTO was synthesized by the same procedure as M-NTO, except using KOH instead of NaOH. For comparison, 100 mg of commercial TiC particles was also hydrothermally treated with the same procedure as M-NTO, and the final product was denoted as commercial TiC derivatives.

Materials Characterizations. Materials characterizations were conducted by SEM (JEOL JSM-7800F), TEM (JEM-2100), XRD patterns (X'pert Pro), Raman (LabRam HR800 using a 633 nm laser), and XPS (Thermo Escalab 250Xi equipped with a monochromatic Al $K\alpha$ source of 1486.5 eV).

Electrochemical Measurement. Both the tests of SIBs and PIBs were carried out using CR2016 coin cells with sodium or potassium foil as the counter and reference electrodes. Galvanostatic charge and discharge profiles were investigated with a LAND CT2001A battery tester. CV studies were carried out on a CHI 760E electrochemical workstation at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} . The working electrodes (12 mm in diameter) consist of active material (Ti_3C_2 MXene, M-NTO, or M-KTO), carbon black, and polyvinylidene fluoride with a weight ratio of 7:2:1. The average mass loading on the electrodes is $0.44\text{--}1.0 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$. SIB and PIB tests were conducted with 1.0 M NaCF_3SO_3 in diglyme electrolyte and 1.0 M KPF_6 in diglyme electrolyte between 0.01 and 3.0 V, respectively. Special attention should be paid to the danger of fabricating SIBs and PIBs due to the extremely active reactivity of alkali metals (Na, K) with water.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsnano.7b01165.

Materials characterization, electrochemical characterization, and additional figures and tables (PDF)

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Z.S.W. and X.H.B. proposed and supervised the overall project. Y.F.D. did the fabrication and electrochemical measurement of M-NTO and M-KTO. Y.F.D. and Z.S.W. analyzed the data. X.H.W. prepared the MAX phase. S.H.Z., J.Q.Q., S.W., and X.Y.S. participated in the structural characterization of the related materials. Y.F.D., Z.S.W., and X.H.B. cowrote the paper. All authors commented and have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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