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Electrochemical properties of tungsten sulfide–carbon composite microspheres prepared by spray pyrolysis

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Tungsten sulfide (WS₂)–carbon composite powders with superior electrochemical properties are prepared by a two-step process. WO₃-carbon composite powders were first prepared by conventional spray pyrolysis, and they were then sulfidated to form WS₂-carbon powders. Bare WS₂ powders are also prepared by sulfidation of bare WO₃ powders obtained by spray pyrolysis. Stacked graphitic layers could not be found in the bare WS₂ and WS₂-carbon composite powders. The amorphous bare WS₂ and WS₂-carbon composite powders have Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface areas of 2.8 and 4 m² g⁻¹, respectively. The initial discharge and charge capacities of the WS₂-carbon composite powders at a current density of 100 mA g⁻¹ are 1055 and 714 mA h g⁻¹, respectively, and the corresponding initial Coulombic efficiency is 68%. On the other hand, the initial discharge and charge capacities of the bare WS₂ powders are 514 and 346 mA h g⁻¹, respectively. The discharge capacities of the WS₂-carbon composite powders for the 2nd and 50th cycles are 716 and 555 mA h g⁻¹, respectively, and the corresponding capacity retention measured after first cycle is 78%.

ransition metal sulfides $(M_x S_y, M = W, Mo, Zn, Mn, Ni, Fe)$ with various morphologies prepared by conventional liquid solution processes have been investigated as promising anode materials for lithium-

ion batteries (LIBs)^{1,2}. In particular, layered dichalcogenide materials (MoS₂ and WS₂), which have van der Waals forces across the gaps between the S–M–S sheets, thus allowing the Li ions to diffuse without a significant increase in volume expansion, have higher structural stabilities during repeated lithiation and delithiation processes as compared with transition metal oxides and tin oxide studied widely as anode materials for LIBs^{3–19}. In addition, transition metal dichalcogenides have better electronic and ionic conductivities than transition metal oxides and tin oxide. However, the electronic conductivity of transition metal dichalcogenides is still lower as compared to carbon-based materials¹⁵. Carbonaceous materials, including graphene, carbon nanotubes, and amorphous carbon, have been composited with transition metal dichalcogenides in order to improve their electrochemical properties^{5–17}. Various structured MoS₂–carbon composite materials prepared by liquid solution methods have been studied as anode materials for LIBs^{5–13}. However, the preparation of WS₂–carbon composite materials and their electrochemical properties have been scarcely studied^{4–17}. WS₂–graphene composite materials had better cycling and rate performances than bare WS₂ powders¹⁵.

Commercial LIB anode materials typically comprise spherical powders with sizes of several microns. However, micron-sized metal sulfide–carbon composite powders with spherical particles and superior electrochemical properties have been scarcely studied in the conventional liquid solution processes. In this study, tungsten sulfide (WS₂)–carbon composite powders with superior electrochemical properties were prepared by a two-step process. WO₃–carbon composite powders prepared by spray pyrolysis (Figure S1) were sulfidated to form the WS₂–carbon composite powders^{20,21}. The spherical shape and micron size of the WO₃–carbon composite powders were maintained even after the sulfidation process. The electrochemical properties of the WS₂–carbon composite powders had higher capacities than the bare WS₂ powders.

Results

The WO₃ and WO₃-carbon composite powders prepared by spray pyrolysis were transformed into WS₂ and WS₂-carbon composite powders, respectively, by a sulfidation process. The morphologies and crystal structures



Figure 1 | Morphologies and crystal structures of the bare WO_3 and WO_3 -carbon composite powders: (a) SEM image of bare WO_3 , (b) SEM image of WO_3 -carbon, and (c) XRD patterns.

of the bare WO₃ and WO₃-carbon composite powders prepared by spray pyrolysis under nitrogen atmosphere are shown in Figure 1. The carbon component was formed by polymerization and the carbonization of sucrose dissolved into the spray solution. The powders had a spherical shape and nonaggregation characteristics, regardless of the carbon component. One particle with spherical shape was formed from one droplet by gas phase reaction. The WO₃-carbon composite powders with high carbon content had a larger mean size than the bare WO₃ powders, as shown in the SEM images in Figures 1a and 1b. The bare WO₃ powders had a sharp monoclinic crystal structure without impurity peaks as shown in Figure 1c. On the other hand, the WO₃-carbon composite powders had an amorphous structure with low-intensity crystalline peaks.

Figure 2a shows the XRD patterns of the sulfidated powders. The WS_2 and WS_2 -carbon composite powders had pure crystal structures of a hexagonal WS_2 phase without impurity peaks of WO_3 , even though the two samples had different crystal orientations. The (002)



Figure 2 | (a) XRD patterns of the bare WS_2 and WS_2 -carbon composite and (b) TG curve of the WS_2 -carbon composite.

reflection indicating stacking of the WS₂ layers was only observed in the WS₂–carbon composite powders. The XRD patterns had broad peaks with low intensities. The amorphous WS₂ and WS₂–carbon composite powders were prepared because of a low sulfidation temperature of 400°C. Figure 2b shows the thermogravimetry (TG) curve of the WS₂–carbon composite powders. The TG curve had two distinct weight losses below 700°C. The weight loss by complete oxidation of WS₂ into WO₃ under air atmosphere was as low as 6.5 wt%. Therefore, the two-step weight losses observed near 200 and 400°C were mainly due to the decomposition of carbon components. The composition of the WS₂–carbon composite powders with a dense structure occurred in two steps. The calculated carbon content of the WS₂–carbon composite powders calculated from the TG results was about 30 wt%.

The morphologies of the WS2-carbon composite powders are shown in Figure 3. The composite powders had morphology similar to that of the WO₃-carbon composite powders, indicating that the sulfidation process did not significantly change the morphology of the powders. The high-resolution TEM images shown in Figures 3c and 3d reveal slightly crystalline WS₂ that consists of a few graphitic layers near the surface of the powder. The interlayer distance of the (002) plane measured from the TEM image is 0.63 nm¹⁴. However, the stacked graphitic layers were not found in the inner part of the composite powders, as shown by the dotted rectangular in Figure 3d. The dot-mapping images shown in Figure 3e show the uniform distributions of the W, S, and C components all over the WS₂-carbon composite powder. Complete sulfidation of the powders occurred. The uniform distribution of carbon all over the powders disturbed the growth of WS₂ crystals. Figure 4 shows the morphologies of the bare WS₂ powders. The bare WS₂ powders also had a spherical shape like the WS₂-carbon composite powders. The high-resolution TEM images shown in Figures 4c and 4d show the non-stacked WS₂ layers





Figure 3 | Morphologies of the WS_2 -carbon composite powders: (a) SEM image, (b) low resolution TEM image, (c) and (d) high resolution TEM images, and (e) dot-mapping images.

and amorphous structure, respectively. The bare WS₂ and WS₂-carbon composite powders had Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface areas of 2.8 and 4 m² g⁻¹, respectively. The dense structures of the WS₂ and WS₂-carbon composite powders without pores, as shown by the TEM images in Figures 3 and 4, resulted in low BET surface areas.

The electrochemical properties of the bare WS₂ and WS₂-carbon composite powders are shown in Figure 5. Figure 5a shows the cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of the WS2-carbon composite powders measured at a scan rate of 0.4 mV s⁻¹ in the voltage range of 0.001–3 V. The first discharge curve had two broad reduction peaks near 0.5 and 0.1 V. The mesoporous WS₂ powders with high crystallinity prepared by a vacuum assisted impregnation route had sharp reduction and oxidation peaks in their CV curves¹⁴. However, the amorphous WS2-carbon composite powders had broad reduction and oxidation peaks in all cycles. The clear reduction peaks for the lithium insertion to WS₂ to form Li_x WS₂ (WS₂ + xLi⁺ + xe⁻ => Li_xWS₂) and the conversion reaction (WS₂ + 4Li⁺ + 4e⁻ => W + 2Li₂S) were not observed¹⁵. The steady CV profiles after the initial cycle indicated high stability and reversibility of the WS₂-carbon composite powders for Li⁺ insertion and extraction. Figure 5b shows the charge and discharge curves of the WS₂-carbon composite powders at a constant current density of 100 mA g⁻¹. The charge and discharge curves for all cycles, including the first cycle, had no distinct plateaus. These results well coincide with those of the CVs shown in Figure 5a. The cycle curves of the bare WS₂ powders with amorphous structure shown in Figure S2 also had no distinct plateaus. The initial discharge and charge capacities of the WS₂-carbon composite powders were 1055 and 714 mA h g⁻¹, respectively, and the corresponding initial Coulombic efficiency was 68%. On the other hand, the initial discharge and charge capacities of the bare WS₂ powders were 514 and 346 mA h g⁻¹, respectively, and the corresponding initial Coulombic efficiency was 67%. The rate performance of the WS2-carbon composite powders is shown in Figure S3, wherein the current density increased stepwise from 50 to 500 mA g^{-1} , and then returned to 50 mA g⁻¹. The WS₂-carbon composite powders exhibited the final discharge capacities of 761, 630, 561, 524, and 502 mA h g⁻¹ at current densities of 50, 150, 300, 400, and 500 mA g^{-1} , respectively. When the current density returned to 50 mA g^{-1} , the discharge capacity recovered to 678 mA h g^{-1} .

Discussion

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy was conducted to determine the Li^+ ion transfer behavior in the bare WS₂ and WS₂-carbon





Figure 4 | Morphologies of the bare WS₂ powders: (a) SEM image, (b) low resolution TEM image, (c) and (d) high resolution TEM images.

composite powders. The Nyquist impedance plots obtained before cycling are shown in Figure 5c. The semicircular diameter, which shows the charge-transfer resistance (R_{ct}) obtained in the mediumfrequency region for the WS2-carbon composite powders, was similar to that in the case of the bare WS₂ powders. Generally, the high BET surface area increased the R_{ct} of the powders. However, the high conductivity decreased the R_{ct} of the WS₂-carbon composite powders. The relationship between the real part of the impedance (Z_{re}) and $\omega^{-1/2}$ (where ω is the angular frequency in the low-frequency region, $\omega = 2\pi f$ in the low-frequency region is shown in the Figure S4^{22,23}. The low slope (σ , Warburg impedance coefficient) of Z_{re} versus $\omega^{-1/2}$ revealed the high lithium ion diffusion rate of the WS₂-carbon composite powders. Figure 5d shows the cycling performances of the bare WS2 and WS2-carbon composite powders at a current density of 100 mA g⁻¹. The discharge capacities of the WS₂carbon composite powders for the 2^{nd} and 50^{th} cycles were 716 and 555 $\,{\rm mA}\,{\rm h}\,{\rm g}^{\scriptscriptstyle -1}$, respectively, and the corresponding capacity retention measured after the first cycle was 78%. On the other hand, the discharge capacities of the bare WS2 powders for the 2nd and 50th cycles were 356 and 304 mA h g^{-1} , respectively, and the corresponding capacity retention measured after the first cycle was 85%. The bare WS2 powders had good cycling performance even though they had low initial discharge and charge capacities. Figure S5 shows the morphologies and EDS spectra of the bare WS₂ and WS₂-carbon composite powders after 50 cycles. The two samples maintained their spherical morphologies even after cycling as shown by SEM images. The high structural stabilities of the powders improved their cycling performances. However, the TEM images showed the different structures of the bare WS₂ and WS₂-carbon composite powders after cycling. The thick layer owing to the formation of a polymeric gellike film during cycling covered the bare WS₂ material. The main component of the layer covering the bare WS₂ powder observed by EDS spectrum was carbon.

Phase-pure WS_2 -carbon composite powders with uniform distribution of W, S, and C components were prepared by applying ultrasonic spray pyrolysis. The WS_2 -carbon composite powders had a spherical shape, dense structure, and amorphous crystal structure. Amorphous WO_3 -carbon composite powders with high carbon content were transformed into amorphous WS_2 -carbon composite powders. However, highly crystalline bare WO_3 powders prepared by spray pyrolysis were transformed into amorphous bare WS_2 powders by a sulfidation process. The cyclic voltammograms and initial discharge and charge curves revealed the amorphous structure of the WS_2 -carbon composite powders. The WS_2 -carbon composite powders had better electrochemical properties than the bare WS_2 powders.

Methods

Material fabrication. Spherical WO3-carbon and WO3 powders were prepared directly by spray pyrolysis from spray solutions of ammonium metatungstate with and without a sucrose additive, respectively. The spray pyrolysis system consisted of a droplet generator, a quartz reactor, and a powder collector. The length and diameter of the quartz reactor were 1000 and 55 mm, respectively. A 1.7 MHz ultrasonic spray generator with six vibrators was used to generate a large quantity of droplets, which were carried into the high-temperature tubular reactor by the carrier gas (nitrogen) at a flow rate of 10 L min⁻¹. The reactor temperature was fixed at 900°C. The concentrations of the ammonium metatungstate and sucrose were 0.2 and 0.1 M, respectively. The as-prepared WO3-carbon and WO3 powders were converted to WS2-carbon and WS2, respectively, by adopting a sulfidation process under a reducing atmosphere with thiourea as the sulfur source. The as-prepared powders were placed in a small alumina boat, which was located inside a larger alumina boat. Thiourea was loaded outside of the small alumina boat in excess to form the WS2. The sulfidation process was performed at 400°C for 6 h in the presence of a 10% H₂/Ar mixture gas.

Characterization. The crystal structures of the WS₂–carbon and WS₂ powders were investigated by performing X-ray diffractometry (XRD, Rigaku DMAX-33) using Cu K α radiation at the Korea Basic Science Institute (Daegu). The morphologies of the powders were characterized using scanning electron microscopy (SEM, JEOL JSM-6060) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL JEM-



Figure 5 | Electrochemical properties of the bare WS₂ and WS₂-carbon composite: a) CV curves of the WS₂-carbon composite, (b) Cycle profiles of the WS₂-carbon composite at a current density of 100 mA g^{-1} , (c) Nyquist impedance plots before cycling, and (d) Cycle performances at a current density of 100 mA g^{-1} .

2010). The specific surface areas of the bare WS_2 and WS_2 -carbon composite powders were calculated by Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) analysis of nitrogen-adsorption measurements (Micromeritics TriStar 3000).

Electrochemical measurements. The electrochemical properties of the WS₂–carbon and WS₂ powders were measured using 2032-type coin cells. The electrodes were prepared by mixing 35 mg of the active powders, 10 mg of carbon black (Super P) as a conductive material, 5 mg of sodium carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) using distilled water. Lithium metal and a microporous polypropylene film were used as the counter electrode and separator, respectively. LiPF₆ (1 M) in a mixture of ethylene carbonate (EC) and dimethyl carbonate (DMC) in a 1 : 1 volume ratio with 5 wt% fluoroethylene carbonate (FEC) was used as the electrolyte (Techno Semichem Co.). The entire cell was assembled under an argon atmosphere in a glove box. The charge/ discharge characteristics and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements of the samples were measured at 100 mA g⁻¹ in the voltage range of 0.001–3 V. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements were carried out at a scan rate of 0.4 mV s⁻¹.

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Author contributions

S.H.C., J.H.L. and Y.C.K. devised the concept, designed the experiment, and wrote the manuscript. S.H.C. and S.J.B. performed the experiments and analyzed the data. Y.C.K. supervised the project. All authors discussed the results and contributed in this manuscript.

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