



Crystallinity degree of MoSe₂ influencing its potassium-ion storage performance

Jiamei Liu^{1,2,§}, Xiaowei Shi^{3,§}, Jia Liu², Chang Huang², Chao Li⁴, Haixiao Kang⁵ (✉), Zhan Gao¹ (✉), and Lei Li³ (✉)

¹ School of Chemical Engineering and Technology, Xi'an Jiaotong University, No.28, Xianning West Road, Xi'an 710049, China

² Instrument Analysis Center of Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an Jiaotong University, No.28, Xianning West Road, Xi'an 710049, China

³ State Key Laboratory for Mechanical Behavior of Materials, School of Materials Science and Engineering, Xi'an Jiaotong University, No.28, Xianning West Road, Xi'an 710049, China

⁴ School of Chemistry, Xi'an Jiaotong University, No.28, Xianning West Road, Xi'an 710049, China

⁵ College of Geography and Environment, Baoji University of Arts and Sciences, Baoji 721013, China

[§] Jiamei Liu and Xiaowei Shi contributed equally to this work.

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ABSTRACT

The effect of crystallinity degree of MoSe₂ on the potassium ions storage performance in potassium-ion batteries (PIBs) has been largely overlooked in the energy communities. In this study, we experimentally realize MoSe₂ grown on graphene nanoribbons (MoSe₂-GNR) with tunable crystallinity by tailoring the thermal annealing temperature, and further investigate the effect of crystallinity degree in MoSe₂-GNR on the potassium ions storage performance. The spectral, electrochemical, and microscopy experiments indicate that high-temperature thermal annealing results in a high crystallinity degree of MoSe₂-GNR with decreased interlayer spacing of (002). The MoSe₂-GNR with high crystallinity degree exhibits a high capacity, but suffers from reduced cycling stability. What is more, the *in-situ* X-ray powder diffractometer (*in-situ* XRD) and *in-situ* Raman experiments reveal the phase transition in MoSe₂ triggered by potassium ions insertion/extraction during the potassium ions storage. The work sheds light on the development of MoSe₂-based anode materials for PIBs.

KEYWORDS

crystallinity degree, potassium ions storage, interlayer spacing, MoSe₂

1 Introduction

Potassium-ion batteries (PIBs) are emerging as next-generation energy storage technologies that present viable alternatives to lithium-ion batteries, primarily owing to the relative abundance and cost-effectiveness of potassium [1–4]. The electrochemical performance of PIBs is influenced by many factors, including the electrode materials, the electrolyte, binders, and conductive additives [5–8]. Previous studies have shown that the larger ionic radius of K⁺ (1.38 Å) compared to that of Li⁺ (0.76 Å) results in elevated diffusion barriers and slower insertion/extraction kinetics, which in turn contribute to the suboptimal electrochemical performance of PIBs [9–15]. Therefore, the exploration of anode materials with appropriately designed interlayer spacing that facilitates efficient K⁺ intercalation and deintercalation is essential for advancing the development of PIBs [16, 17]. Among the various potential anode materials for PIBs, transition metal two-dimensional (2D) materials have garnered significant attention due to their unique structural characteristics, high surface area, and tunable electronic properties that can enhance the kinetics of

potassium ion transport and improve overall battery performance [9, 17–19]. Molybdenum diselenide (MoSe₂), a representative 2D transition-metal dichalcogenides (TMDs), emerges as a promising anode candidate due to its larger interlayer spacing and superior electrical conductivity [20–24]. One significant research direction regarding MoSe₂-based anode materials involves the optimization of their structure, including the modification of size and morphology, to enhance the exposure of active sites and achieve superior electrochemical performance, particularly in terms of capacity [25–30]. Additionally, another avenue includes the fabrication of composites that integrate MoSe₂ with other electrically conductive materials, which can improve the overall electrical conductivity of the anode [31–38]. These strategies have substantially contributed to the advancement of MoSe₂-based anode materials for PIBs. However, the impact of the degree of crystallinity of MoSe₂ on electrochemical performance has been largely overlooked by the energy storage research community. Investigating this relationship could provide valuable insights for the further advancement of this field.

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Address correspondence to Haixiao Kang, hx_kang@126.com; Zhan Gao, zhangao18@xjtu.edu.cn; Lei Li, l-li@xjtu.edu.cn

Here, we tune the crystallinity of MoSe₂ grown on graphene nanoribbons (MoSe₂-GNR) via tailoring the thermal annealing temperature and study its effect on the electrochemical performance as anode in PIBs. The spectral and microscopy experiments indicated that the increase of thermal annealing temperature results in the increase of crystallinity degree of MoSe₂-GNR, along with the decrease of its interlayer spacing of (002). The crystallinity degree of MoSe₂-GNR greatly influenced its electrochemical performance in PIBs. The increase of crystallinity degree of MoSe₂-GNR led to high capacity, but reduced cycling stability. Beyond this, the *in-situ* Raman and *in-situ* X-ray powder diffractometer (*in-situ* XRD) were carried out to explore the K⁺ storage mechanism in MoSe₂-GNR, revealing a phase transition in MoSe₂ triggered by the insertion and extraction of K⁺ ions. The work presented here would be beneficial for the development of MoSe₂-based anode materials for PIBs.

2 Experimental

2.1 Synthesis of MoSe₂-GNR

Graphene nanoribbons (GNR) were synthesized following a previously reported method [39, 40], serving as the substrates for MoSe₂ loading. The MoSe₂-GNR was synthesized through a hydrothermal reaction. 100 mg of GNR was ultrasonically dispersed in 200 mL of 5 mol·L⁻¹ HNO₃ for 10 min, followed by reflux heating at 100 °C for 18 h. The resulting product was washed three times with deionized water (Hitech, Master-S15) to a neutral pH value of 7. 1 mmol of Se powder (Aladdin, 99.99%) was completely dissolved in 10 mL of N₂H₄·H₂O (National Pharmaceutical Group, 85%) solution to yield the Se N₂H₄·H₂O mixture solution. 25 mg of activation treated GNR was ultrasonically dispersed in 30 mL of deionized water, followed by the sequential addition of 0.5 mmol of Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O (Aladdin, 99.0%) and the aforementioned Se/N₂H₄·H₂O solution. After stirring for 1 h, the suspension was transferred to a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and subjected to a 12-hour reaction at 200 °C. The resulting product underwent thorough 5 times washing with deionized water and anhydrous ethanol (National Pharmaceutical Group, 99.7%), respectively. The product was dried at 60 °C for 12 h and annealed for 10 h at different temperatures (600 °C, 700 °C, and 800 °C) in an Argon atmosphere. The product was named as MG-X, in which M stands for MoSe₂, G stands for GNR, and X stands for the annealing temperature.

2.2 Preparation of electrodes

MG-X electrodes were fabricated by coating a mixed slurry of MG-X, conductive additive (Timical Super C65, MTI Corp.), and binder (PVDF, HSV900, MTI Corp.) in a weight ratio of 7:2:1 in NMP (Aladdin, >99.9%) onto Cu foil current collectors. The coated electrodes were dried at 100 °C for 10 h under vacuum conditions. The resulting electrodes have an approximate active material mass loading of ~1.7 mg·cm⁻².

2.3 Preparation of the battery

The battery was assembled on a CR2032 coin-type battery in an argon-filled glovebox (Universal, Mikrouna), where the concentration of both H₂O and O₂ was maintained below 0.1 ppm. Within the half-battery PIBs, MG-X electrode operated as the anode, K foil functioned as the cathode, a glass fiber was

used as separator, and the electrolyte was consisted of 1 mol·L⁻¹ potassium difluorosulfonimide (KFSI) in a solvent mixture of diethyl carbonate and ethylene carbonate (1:1 by volume).

2.4 Materials characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was conducted using a Bruker D8-Advance X-ray diffractometer equipped with Cu-Kα radiation (λ = 1.5418 Å). Raman spectroscopy measurements were carried out utilizing a HORIBA LabRAM HR Evolution spectrometer. The morphologies of the materials were examined using field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, Zeiss Gemini 500) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL JEM-F200). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data was acquired with a ThermoFisher ESCALAB Xi+ spectrometer utilizing monochromatic Al Kα X-ray radiation. Thermal gravimetric (TG) analysis was performed using a Synchronous thermal analyzer (TG-DSC, METTLER TOLEDO TGA/DSC 3+).

2.5 Electrochemical evaluation of batteries

Cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements were conducted on an AMETEK ParSTAT MC (PMCCHS08A) potentiostat. Galvanostatic charge discharge experiments, the rate capability and cycling performance assessments of the batteries, were evaluated using a multichannel battery test system (Land CT 2001A). The specific capacity of the half-battery was determined based on the mass of active material of anode. All electrochemical measurements were performed at room temperature.

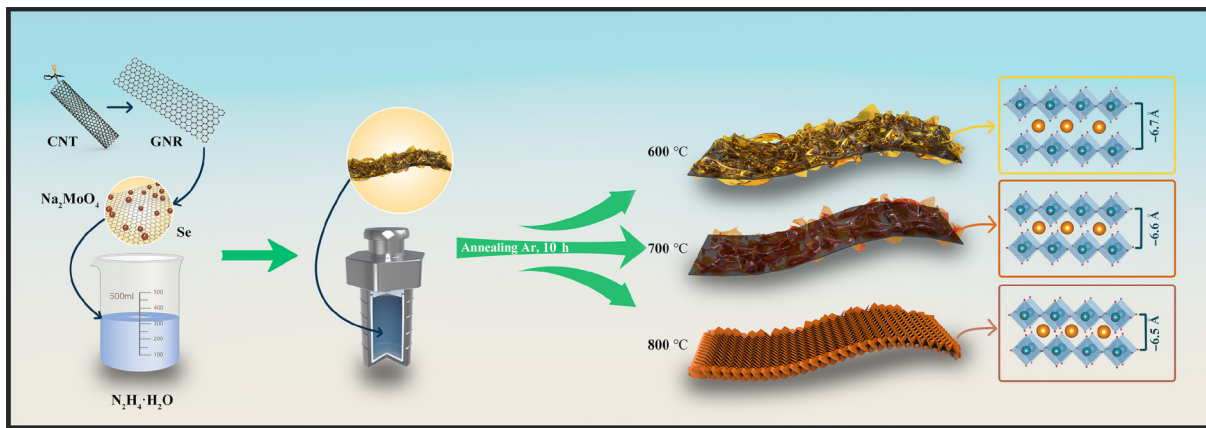
3 Results and discussion

Scheme 1 illustrates the synthesis process of MG-X. GNR was prepared from carbon nanotubes (CNT) following a methodology described in the reported literature [39, 40]. The prepared GNR was combined with Na₂MoO₄, Se and N₂H₄·H₂O mixed solution in water to prepare the uniform MoSe₂ loading onto GNR through hydrothermal reaction. The resulting materials were subjected to annealing in an argon atmosphere, resulting in the formation of MG-X. Regulating the annealing temperature can tune the interlayer spacing of the (002) plane of MoSe₂. The detailed experimental procedure was provided in the experimental section.

The morphologies of MG-X were characterized using FESEM and TEM. Figures 1(a) and 1(b) show the SEM images of MG-600 at different magnifications. It is clearly seen that MoSe₂ nanosheets are evenly dispersed on the surface of GNRs. Figures 1(c) and 1(d) show the high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images of MG-600 at different magnifications. It exhibits clear lattice fringes and layered structure. The interlayer spacing of (002) in MG-600 is 0.670 nm (Fig. 1(d) and Fig. S1(a) in the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM)). With the increasing annealing temperature, the morphologies of MG-X have a little variation. MG-600 and MG-700 appear similar morphology, while MG-800 has a distinct change in morphology, where MoSe₂ nanosheets exhibit certain shrinkage on GNR surface (Figs. 1(e), 1(f), 1(i) and 1(j)).

The interlayer spacing of (002) in MG-700 and MG-800 was 0.666 and 0.653 nm (Figs. 1(h) and 1(l) and Figs. S1(b) and S1(c) in the ESM), respectively. The interlayer spacing of (002) in MG-X decreases with the increase of thermal annealing temperature.

The crystal structure and chemical composition of MG-X were also studied by XRD, Raman, and XPS. As demonstrated in Fig. 2(a) and Table 1, the XRD peaks of MG-X matched well with the



Scheme 1 Schematic illustration of the synthetic process of MG-X.

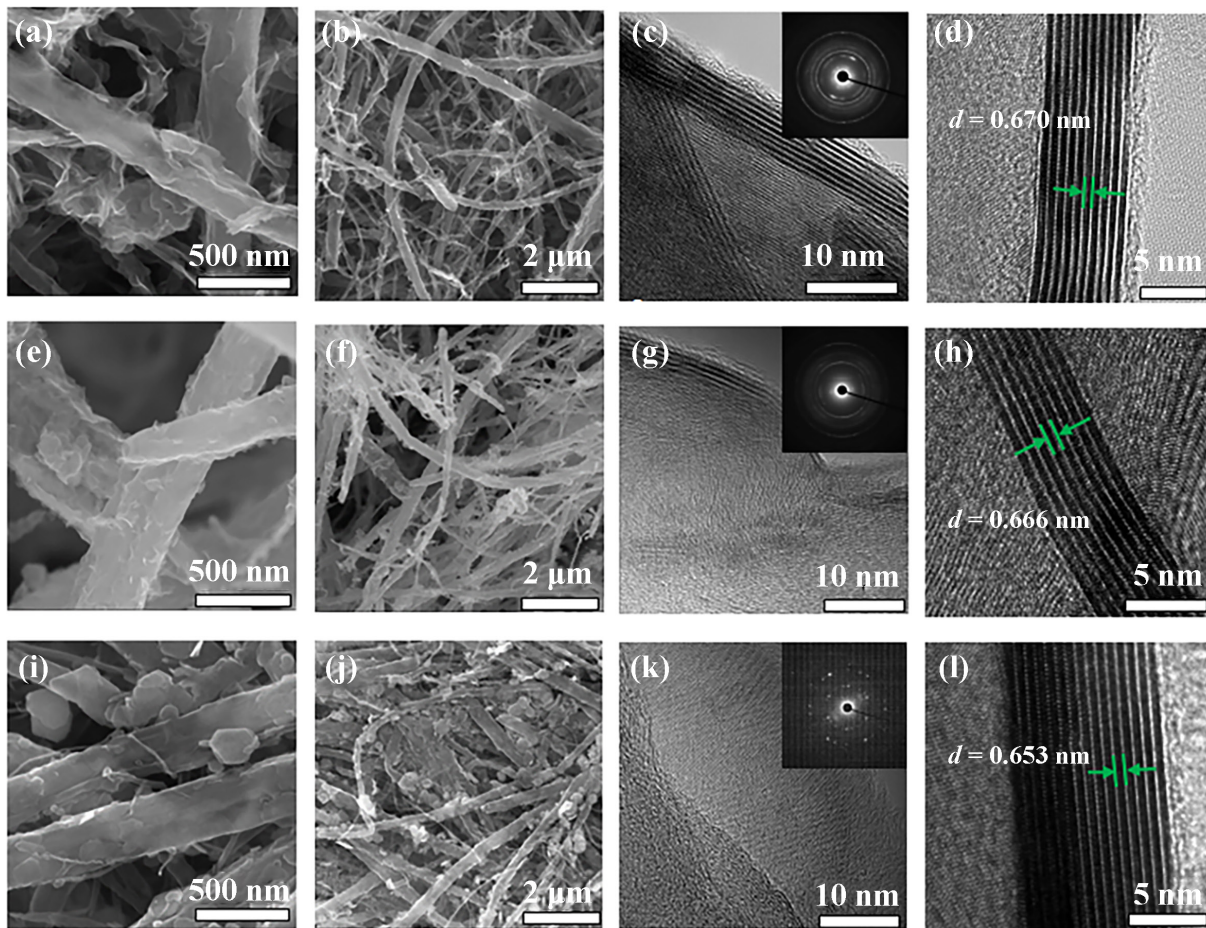


Figure 1 (a) and (b) SEM images of MG-600. (c) and (d) HRTEM images of MG-600. (e) and (f) SEM images of MG-700. (g) and (h) HRTEM images of MG-700. (i) and (j) SEM images of MG-800. (k) and (l) HRTEM images of MG-800.

hexagonal-MoSe₂ phase (PDF 04-004-4226), except for the peak at 26.3° attributed to GNR (Fig. S2 in the ESM). Table 1 shows the position of different peaks in MG-X [41, 42]. Obviously, the interlayer spacing of (002) peak in MG-X closely aligned with the HRTEM observations. The peak positions and shapes of (002) and (105) diffraction peaks differed among these three samples. The diffraction peaks of MG-600, MG-700, and MG-800 exhibited varying intensity and shape under different annealing temperature. The increasing annealing temperature results in the sharp shape with high intensity, indicating the high crystallinity. This indicates that MG-800 exhibits the highest degree of crystallinity, followed by MG-700 with intermediate crystallinity,

while MG-600 displays the lowest crystallinity among the three samples.

The Raman spectra were examined to investigate the influence of processing temperature on the vibrational structure of MG-X (Fig. 2(b)). The two distinct peaks in MG-X at 237 and 283 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to the out-plane Mo-Se phonon mode (A_g¹) and in-plane Mo-Se phonon (E_{2g}¹) of MoSe₂, respectively. Compared to pure MoSe₂, the intensity ratio of A_g¹ / E_{2g}¹ is significantly increased in MG-X, indicating a high abundance of edge-terminated structures within the materials [43, 44]. Moreover, an increase in treatment temperature leads to a higher intensity ratio of A_g¹ / E_{2g}¹, suggesting that elevated temperatures result in a

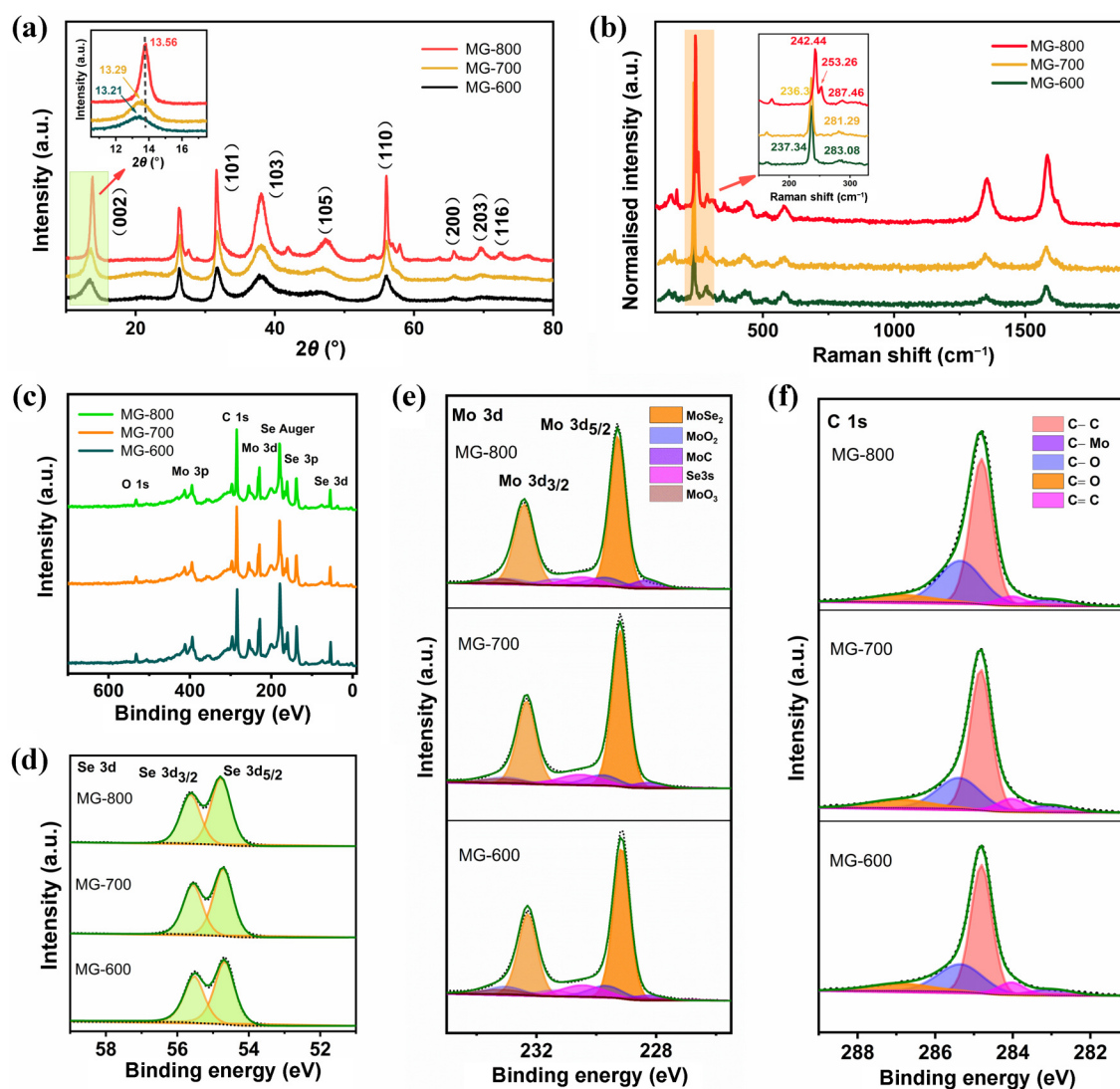


Figure 2 (a) XRD patterns of MG-X. (b) Raman spectra of MG-X. (c) XPS survey of MG-X. (d) Se 3d of MG-X. (e) Mo 3d of MG-X. (f) C 1s of MG-X.

Table 1 The XRD peaks of MoSe₂ in MG-600, MG-700, and MG-800

(2θ /°)	002	101	103	105	110	200	203	$d(002)/(\text{\AA})$	$d(105)/(\text{\AA})$
MG-600	13.21	31.51	37.82	45.30	55.83	65.50	69.43	6.70	2.00
MG-700	13.29	31.51	37.82	46.64	55.83	65.50	69.43	6.66	1.95
MG-800	13.56	31.51	37.82	47.12	55.83	65.50	69.43	6.53	1.93

greater presence of edge-terminated structures in MG-X. Notably, MG-800 exhibits a blue-shifted A_g^1 peak compared to the other samples, which may be attributed to the increased crystallinity and van der Waals forces between MoSe₂ layers under higher temperature treatment conditions. This increase in crystallinity with rising annealing temperature aligns well with the XRD results. Additionally, the peaks at 1347 and 1579 cm⁻¹ correspond to typical carbon shifts associated with D-band and G-band vibrations in GNR of MG-X, respectively [41, 43, 45–48].

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy was also utilized to analyze the interfacial chemical composition and valence states. As shown in Figs. 2(c)–2(f), the survey spectra of MG-X reveal four main elements of Se, Mo, C, and O. The Se 3d spectra were deconvoluted into two peaks located at 54.7 and 55.6 eV, corresponding to the Mo-Se bond (Se²⁻). The Mo 3d spectra were well resolved into four sets of peaks. The peaks at 228.2 and

231.4 eV assigned to Mo-C bond, the peaks at 229.2 and 232.3 eV assigned to Mo-Se bond, the peaks at 229.8 and 233.1 eV assigned to Mo-O bond (Mo⁴⁺), and the peaks at 233.2 and 235.7 eV assigned to Mo-O bond (Mo⁶⁺) [49, 50]. The C 1s spectra were deconvoluted into five peaks located at 283.0, 284.0, 284.8, 285.4 and 287.0 eV, assigned to C-Mo, C=C, C-C, C-O, and C=O, respectively [51–53]. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area of MG-600, MG-700 and MG-800 is 50.4, 45.2, and 48.3 m²g⁻¹, respectively (Fig. S3 in the ESM). The MoSe₂ content in MG-600, MG-700, and MG-800 is 63.0, 64.3, and 59.7 wt.%, respectively, based on thermogravimetry (Fig. S4 in the ESM) [26]. All these results indicate that the designed MG-X with different crystallinity were successfully prepared.

The electrochemical performance of MG-X for potassium-ion storage was evaluated using CR2032-type coin batteries. The charge/discharge capacity was determined based on the active

material of MG in MG-X, calculated using TG curves (Fig. S4 in the ESM). The rate performance of MG-X under different current densities from 0.1 to 5.0 A·g⁻¹ is shown in Fig. 3(a). The three samples demonstrate obvious difference in capacity at different current densities. MG-800 has high capacity at low current density, but displayed the fastest capacity decay with the increase of current densities. MG-700 has the highest capacity of 421 mAh·g⁻¹ at 0.1 A·g⁻¹ and a medium capacity decay with the increase of current density compared to MG-600 and MG-800. MG-600 exhibits the lowest capacity at low current density and also demonstrates the slowest capacity decay with increasing current density among all samples. They also demonstrate the high capacity in volumetric metric as shown in Fig. S5 in the ESM.

The long-term cycle performance of MG-X was evaluated at 0.1 A·g⁻¹ for the first 10 cycles, followed by subsequent cycles at 2 A·g⁻¹. The capacity retention from the 11th to the 100th cycle is recorded as 90%, 84%, and 76% for MG-600, MG-700, and MG-800, respectively (Fig. 3(b)). The MG-600 with low crystallinity has the best cycling stability among all the samples. The results regarding the capacity, rate and cycling performance indicate that varying crystallinity degree of MoSe₂ in MG-X greatly affects their electrochemical performance. The elevated crystallinity of MoSe₂ in MG-X frequently results in increased capacity, but diminished rate capability and cycling stability. As a result, MG-800 demonstrates the poorest rate performance and cycling stability, whereas MG-600 showcases the highest cycling stability among the examined samples.

In order to elucidate the impact of MoSe₂ morphology on the structural stability of MG-X during the charge/discharge process, HRTEM imaging was performed on the electrodes after 100 cycles. Compared with the original material, a significant change in crystal spacing can be seen in the HRTEM images of MG-600, MG-700, and MG-800 electrodes (Fig. 4 and Fig. S6 in the ESM). The corresponding crystal spacing of (002) in MG-X changes from 0.670, 0.666, and 0.653 nm in MG-600, MG-700, and MG-800 to 0.706, 0.708, and 0.725 nm, respectively. Thus, all

these samples exhibit certain degree of volume expansion due to potassium ion insertion. MG-800 exhibits the highest degree of expansion, resulting in the poorest stable performance.

To further elucidate the potassium storage mechanism of the target electrode, *in-situ* Raman spectroscopy and *in-situ* XRD were systematically conducted at different charge/discharge states during the initial cycle. MG-700 was selected as the sample for this study. Figure 5(a) illustrates the *in-situ* Raman spectra obtained during the first potassiation and depotassiation processes in MG-700 (Fig. S7 in the ESM). It exhibits a slight blue shift of peak A_g¹ (240 cm⁻¹) compared to *ex-situ* test result (237 cm⁻¹). The characteristic peaks of MoSe₂ (A_g¹: 240 cm⁻¹ and E_{2g}¹: 283 cm⁻¹) gradually diminish with ongoing discharging, indicating gradual embedding of potassium ions into the interlayer of MoSe₂. Upon reaching a discharge voltage of 2.0 V, a fresh peak at 276 cm⁻¹ progressively emerges, assigned to K_xSe. All characteristic peaks completely disappear upon fully discharge at 0.01 V. However, upon charging to 3 V, a reversible A_g¹ peak at 255 cm⁻¹ is detected along with broadening width, suggesting reversible conversion reaction into MoSe₂ during both potassiation and depotassiation processes. The results also demonstrate complete expulsion of potassium ions from K_xSe, and converted to MoSe₂ and Mo₁₅Se₁₉ with Mo. The observed shift is caused by changes in interlayer spacing and the number of layers present within the material structure [31, 54]. This finding is consistent with the observations made in HRTEM analysis described earlier. Additionally, D and G peaks associated with GNR are observed throughout this process. These D and G peaks undergo significant red-shifts accompanied by broadening during discharging due to K⁺ embedding within the electrodes [9]. During charging, these characteristic carbon peaks recover their original status, indicating excellent reversibility and stability of GNR in MG-700. As shown in Fig. 5(b), the *in-situ* XRD patterns of MG-700 revealed significant changes in the diffraction peaks of MoSe₂ during the charging-discharging process (Fig. S8 in the ESM). Specifically, the (103) peak of MG-700 at ~ 37.8° exhibited a gradual leftward shift during the

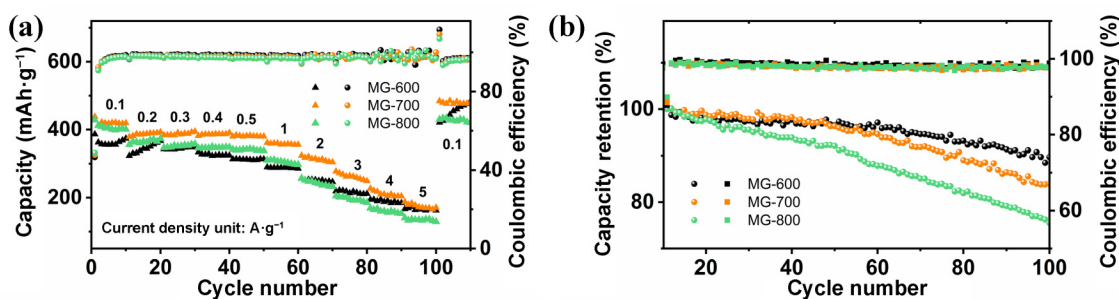


Figure 3 (a) The rate performance of MG-X at various current densities from 0.1 to 5.0 A·g⁻¹. (b) Cycle performance of MG-X from the 11th to the 100th cycle at 2 A·g⁻¹.

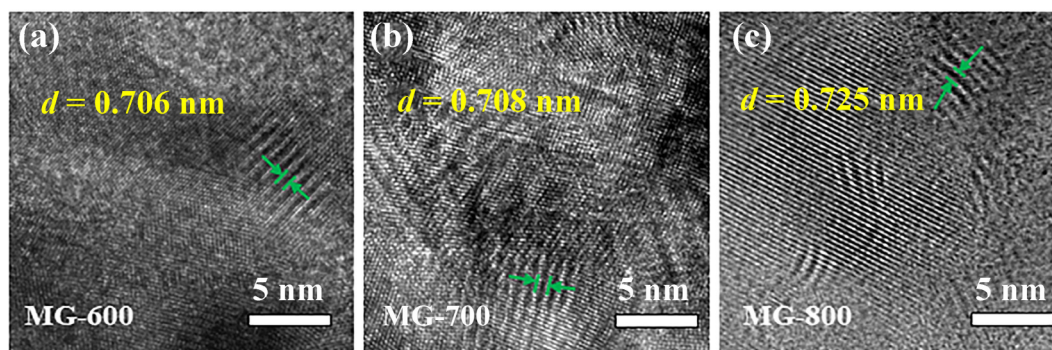


Figure 4 The HRTEM images of MG-600 (a), MG-700 (b) and MG-800 (c) electrodes after 100 cycles at 1 A·g⁻¹.

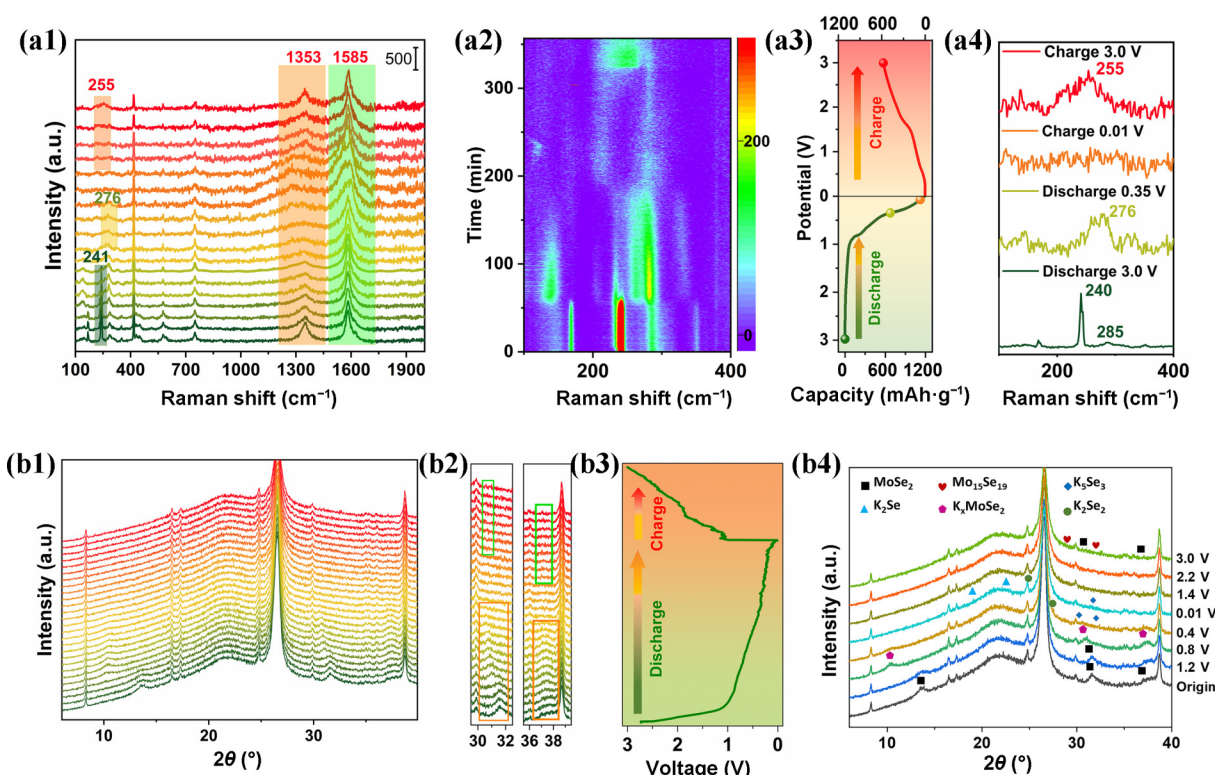


Figure 5 The analysis of potassium ion storage mechanism of MG-700. (a) *In-situ* Raman plots ((a3) shows the initial cycle charge/discharge curve at 0.3 A·g⁻¹). (b) *In-situ* XRD patterns ((b3) shows the initial cycle charge/discharge curve at 0.2 A·g⁻¹).

discharging process and eventually disappeared upon completion of the full discharge cycle. Subsequent to full charging at 3 V, a weak (103) peak gradually reappeared, indicating reversible insertion/deinsertion processes. A similar trend was also observed for the (101) peak at ~31.5°, further supporting the reversibility of electrochemical reactions. The crystal phase structure of MoSe₂ underwent noticeable changes accompanied by potassium embedding process, confirming alterations in the material composition. Particularly, upon reaching a discharge voltage of 0.8 V, the three peaks of MoSe₂, including (002), (101), and (103), gradually shifted to lower angles and weakened, attributed to the intercalation of potassium ions into MoSe₂ layers, leading to an increased interlayer spacing and the formation of a highly disordered layered structure. As potassium ions accumulated within the host, an intermediate transition phase of K_xMoSe₂ began to appear. Upon discharging to 0.4 V, the characteristic peaks corresponding to K₅Se₃ at 30.8° and 32.2°, and K₂Se₂ at 24.8° and 27.4° emerged due to electrochemical reactions, transforming K_xMoSe₂ to K₅Se. In the first fully discharged state, at a voltage level as low as 0.01 V, all typical peaks associated with MoSe₂ completely disappeared, instead corresponding characteristic peaks related to K₂Se, K₂Se₂, and K₅Se₃ appeared. In the subsequent charging process, the characteristic peaks associated with K₂Se, K₂Se₂, and K₅Se₃ gradually became weakened due to electrochemical reactions between Mo and K_xSe, giving rise to Mo_xSe_y. With charging up to 3 V, peaks of Mo₁₅Se₁₉ and MoSe₂ emerged [9, 31, 38]. Interestingly, the (002) peak at ~13.3° also exhibited a leftwards shift during discharging. In contrast to the previously mentioned peaks, it did not reappear after charging to 3 V. Additionally, the presence of a peak at 38.5° corresponding to BeO, originating from the *in-situ* cell setup, was noted. Based on the comprehensive analysis of the experimental results, a plausible potassium storage mechanism in MoSe₂ can be

proposed as reaction 1 ($\text{MoSe}_2 + x\text{K}^+ + x\text{e}^- \leftrightarrow \text{K}_x\text{MoSe}_2$) and reaction 2 ($3\text{K}_x\text{MoSe}_2 + (10 - 3x)\text{K}^+ + (10 - 3x)\text{e}^- \leftrightarrow 2\text{K}_5\text{Se}_3 + 3\text{Mo}$) [9, 55, 56].

Cyclic voltammetry testing was employed to further confirm the electrochemical mechanisms governing potassium ion intercalation and deintercalation in MG-700, as illustrated in Fig. S9 in the ESM. During the initial charge process, the reduction peaks at 0.34 and 0.57 V are attributed to the reduction of K_xMoSe₂ into Mo and K₂Se, as well as the formation of solid electrolyte interphase (SEI). Furthermore, the peak at 1.82 V corresponds to the highly reversible depotassiation process, with the corresponding oxidation peak at 1.11 V in the subsequent discharge process [41, 54, 57]. Subsequent cycles exhibit well-overlapping CV curves with the initial charge and discharge processes, albeit with minor peak position variations, underscoring the remarkable electrochemical stability and reversibility of MG-700. The findings from *in-situ* XRD and *in-situ* Raman spectroscopy experiments are in good agreement with those from the CV analysis.

4 Conclusions

In conclusion, we have synthesized MG-X with tunable degrees of crystallinity. When evaluated as the anode material for PIBs, MG-X with high crystallinity exhibited high capacity, but limited cycling stability due to the reduced structural integrity upon cycling, notable changes in crystal plane spacing. MG-700 demonstrated comprehensive potassium storage ability, including a high specific capacity of 421 mAh·g⁻¹ at 0.1 A·g⁻¹, good rate, and cycling stability. Through comprehensive analysis employing *in-situ* XRD, *in-situ* Raman spectroscopy, and HRTEM, we elucidated the underlying reaction mechanism between MoSe₂ and potassium, identifying the principal discharge products as

K₂Se, K₂Se₃, and K₅Se₃, while the charge products comprised MoSe₂ and Mo₁₅Se₁₉. This study provides valuable insights for the development of innovative negative electrode materials for PIBs.

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Electronic Supplementary Material: Supplementary material (XRD patterns of GNR, HRTEM images of samples, TGA and BET curves of MG-X, CV curves of MG-700, and HRTEM images of cycled electrodes) is available in the online version of this article at <https://doi.org/10.26599/NRE.2024.9120143>.

Declaration of conflicting interests

The authors declare no conflicting interests regarding the content of this article.

Data availability

All data needed to support the conclusions in the paper are presented in the manuscript and/or the Supplementary Materials. Additional data related to this paper may be requested from the corresponding author upon request.

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Jiamei Liu received her master degree from Nanjing Normal University in 2006. He now works at the Core Facilities and Experiment Center of Xi'an Jiaotong University. Her current scientific interests focus on energy storage materials, and *in-situ* characterization techniques.



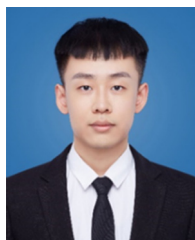
Xiaowei Shi received her master degree from the school of Materials Science and Engineering, Xi'an Jiaotong University, China, in 2015. She received her Ph.D. degree in Xi'an Jiaotong University. Her major research focus is on energy storage materials and devices, including corrosion in Li-ion batteries, and dendrite suppression of Li metal anode.



Jia Liu received her Ph.D. degree in Physical Chemistry (2021) from Xiamen University (XMU) She now works as an engineer in Instrumental Analysis Center in Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an, PR China. Her research interests focus on electrochemical *in-situ* Raman spectroscopic study, *in situ* Infrared Spectroscopic study, transient absorption, and plasmonic photo-electrocatalysis.



Chang Huang received his master degree from School of Physics from Xi'an Jiaotong University in 2010. He now works at the Core Facilities and Experiment Center of Xi'an Jiaotong University. His current scientific interests focus on X-ray diffraction and small angle X-ray scattering.



Chao Li received his bachelor's degree from Shijiazhuang Tiedao University in 2022. He is currently pursuing a master's degree in the School of Chemistry at Xi'an Jiaotong University. His research interests are mainly focused on the performance improvement of PVDF-HFP based polymer solid state batteries.



Haixiao Kang received his Bachelor of Engineering degree from the Faculty of Environmental Science and Engineering in Kunming University of Science and Technology in 2005, and his Ph.D. degree from the School of Environmental and Municipal Engineering in Lanzhou Jiaotong University in 2020. He is currently an associate professor at College of Geography and Environment Sciences, Baoji University of Arts and Sciences. His research interests focus on the preparation and application of functional materials.



Zhan Gao received his Ph.D. degree in Materials Science from the KTH Royal Institute of Technology in Sweden in 2011. He continued his postdoctoral research at Department of Materials Science and Engineering in Northwestern University till 2016. After working in Plastic Onnium company as a research engineer for several years, he joined School of Chemical Engineering and Technology as a full professor and group leader at Xi'an Jiaotong University. His research interests mainly include development of high-performance reversible solid oxide cells for energy storage, novel anode materials for hydrocarbonous fuels, electrochemical characterization and identification of reaction mechanisms of SOFC electrodes and low carbon hydrogen production by reforming technologies.



Lei Li received his M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in Chemistry from Jilin University and Rice University in 2010 and 2015, respectively. After his postdoctoral research at Department of Materials Science and Engineering in Northwestern University, he joined School of Materials Science and Engineering as a full professor at Xi'an Jiaotong University. He is leading a group that mainly studies the materials and device performance in energy conversion and storage.