

# High-Performance Capacitors Based on MoS<sub>2</sub> Nanosheets Supported on Carbon Fibers

Xiaojun Liu<sup>1</sup>, Ke Liu<sup>2</sup>, Weijia Zhou<sup>1,\*</sup>, Ligui Li<sup>1</sup>, Kai Zhou<sup>1</sup>, and Shaowei Chen<sup>1,2,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>New Energy Research Institute, School of Environment and Energy, South China University of Technology, Guangzhou Higher Education Mega Center, Guangzhou, Guangdong 510006, China

<sup>2</sup>Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of California, Santa Cruz, California 95064, United States

## ABSTRACT

MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets are grown on the surface of carbon fibers by a facile one-step hydrothermal method, forming a core-shell nanocomposite, as manifested in scanning/transmission electron microscopy, Raman scattering, and X-ray diffraction measurements. Electrochemical studies show that the core-shell nanocomposites exhibit enhanced capacitance performance in comparison with MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles or bare carbon fibers alone, with a specific capacitance as high as 474.4 F/g at the current density of 1 A/g in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous electrolyte and excellent long-term cycle stability with only 3.1% loss of the capacitance after 3,000 charge/discharge cycles. This is accounted for by the large effective surface area of the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets as well as good electronic conductivity of the nanocomposites.

**KEYWORDS:** MoS<sub>2</sub> Nanosheet, Carbon Fiber, Core-Shell Nanocomposite, Hydrothermal, Supercapacitor.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

As a unique energy storage device, supercapacitors have attracted increasing attention in recent years, because of their fast charge and discharge dynamics, high power performance, long cycle life, and relatively low costs.<sup>1-4</sup> Thus, supercapacitors have been used widely in diverse areas such as hybrid electrical vehicles, digital telecommunication, computer systems, etc. In general, there are two types of supercapacitors based on the energy storage mechanisms: electrical double-layer capacitors (EDLC) which store energy based on ion adsorption and pseudocapacitors that rely on fast surface redox reactions.<sup>5-7</sup> Of these, various carbon materials including carbide-derived carbon, activated carbon,<sup>8</sup> carbon nanotubes,<sup>9-11</sup> graphene sheets,<sup>12-14</sup> and carbon fibers (CFs) have been used extensively as electrode materials. Among these, CFs represent one of the most attractive materials, benefiting from their high mechanical flexibility, electrical conductivity, large surface area and excellent chemical stability in a wide variety of electrolytes. In a recent study, we demonstrated that conventional CFs might be used to prepare porous core-shell carbon electrodes for the fabrication of high-performance all-carbon supercapacitors.<sup>15</sup> Notably, CFs can also serve as a unique structural scaffold to support active materials such as MoS<sub>2</sub> and MnO<sub>2</sub> in the preparation

of small-size, lightweight and flexible supercapacitors with much enhanced capacitance performance.<sup>16,17</sup>

Among these, two-dimensional (2D) nanosheet materials such as MoS<sub>2</sub>, VS<sub>2</sub>, SnS<sub>2</sub>, CoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub><sup>5,14</sup> have been attracting particular attention. For instance, MoS<sub>2</sub> features a two-dimensional layered structure that is similar to that of graphene, the Mo atomic layer is sandwiched between two sulfur layers via covalent bonding, and the MoS<sub>2</sub> layers are stacked by van der Waals interactions, which facilitate reversible intercalation/extraction of foreign ions, such as Li<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, and H<sup>+</sup>.<sup>18</sup> In addition, the Mo atoms in the center possess a range of oxidation states from +2 to +6, where the pseudocapacitance contributions may drastically enhance the overall capacitance performance that is anticipated to be comparable to that of RuO<sub>2</sub> and MnO<sub>2</sub>, with a theoretical specific capacitance up to ~1000 F/g.<sup>2,19,20</sup> In fact, MoS<sub>2</sub> has been used extensively in lithium ion batteries,<sup>21,22</sup> catalysts,<sup>23</sup> and phototransistors<sup>24</sup> due to their unique morphology, excellent mechanical and electrical properties. More recently, considerable efforts have been devoted to the preparation of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures as the competitive electrode materials for supercapacitor applications. For instance, Soon et al.<sup>18</sup> prepared highly edge-oriented MoS<sub>2</sub> films by a thermal evaporation method which exhibited a maximum specific capacitance of 100 F/g at a potential scan rate of 1 mV/s. Cao et al.<sup>19</sup> prepared two-dimensional MoS<sub>2</sub> films-based microsupercapacitors by simple and low-cost spray painting of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets on Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> chips followed by laser patterning, which featured a high area

\*Authors to whom correspondence should be addressed.

Emails: eszhouwj@scut.edu.cn, shaowei@ucsc.edu

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capacitance of 8 mF/cm<sup>2</sup> and volumetric capacitance of 178 F/cm<sup>3</sup> in aqueous electrolytes.

It should be noted that the capacitance performance of MoS<sub>2</sub> depends strongly on the morphology and dimensions, and the reversible capacity may be further improved by loading MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles/nanosheets on carbonaceous supports forming a hierarchical architecture.<sup>25,26</sup> For instance, Hu et al.<sup>27</sup> synthesized porous tubular C/MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites using porous anodic aluminum oxide as a template. The nanocomposites delivered a high capacitance of 210 F/g at 1 A/g and exhibited excellent long-term cycling stability. Huang et al.<sup>28</sup> prepared a hybrid material with graphene coated with layered MoS<sub>2</sub>, and electrochemical measurements revealed that the maximum specific capacitance of the MoS<sub>2</sub>-graphene electrodes reached up to 243 F/g at a discharge current density of 1 A/g in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. Recently, Huang et al.<sup>29</sup> also reported a simple strategy to prepare novel 2-dimensional graphene analog MoS<sub>2</sub>/MWCNT (molybdenum disulfide/multi-walled carbon nanotube) composites as supercapacitor electrode materials. The composites showed a high specific capacitance of 452.7 F/g at a current density of 1 A/g. This is the primary motivation of the present study.

Herein, by taking advantage of the unique capacitance performance of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures as well as the excellent electrical conductivity of carbon fibers, we describe a simple one-step hydrothermal method to synthesize functional core-shell CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites where MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were evenly grown on the carbon fiber surfaces in an edge-on orientation. The resulting hierarchical structures were characterized by various experimental techniques including scanning/transmission electron microscopy (SEM/TEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and Raman spectroscopies. Electrochemical studies showed that the resulting CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites exhibited a remarkable specific capacitance and excellent long-term cycle stability, suggesting that they might be used as an effective electrode material for high-performance supercapacitors.

## 2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

### 2.1. Chemicals

Pitch carbon fibers (CFs) were purchased from Fiber Glast Development Corporation. Sodium molybdate (Na<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>4</sub> · 2H<sub>2</sub>O) and thioacetamide were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. All chemicals were used without further purification. Water was supplied with a Barnstead Nanopure Water Purification System (18.3 MΩ · cm).

### 2.2. Synthesis of CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> Nanocomposites

Experimentally, CFs were cleaned by ultrasonication in a 0.1 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution prior to the synthesis of CF@MoS<sub>2</sub>. In a typical reaction, 30 mg of sodium molybdate (Na<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>4</sub> · 2H<sub>2</sub>O) and 60 mg of thioacetamide were

dissolved in 30 mL of deionized water. The solution was then transferred into a 50 mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave, into which was added 20 mg of CFs. The autoclave was heated in an electrical oven at 200 °C for 24 h. The as-synthesized black products were then removed, ultrasonically cleaned for several times with deionized water and ethanol, and finally dried at 60 °C for 12 h in a vacuum oven. The resulting nanocomposites were denoted as CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> (at 11.9 wt% of MoS<sub>2</sub>). For comparison, pure MoS<sub>2</sub> powders were synthesized under the same conditions but in the absence of CFs. The final products were stored in a desiccator.

### 2.3. Characterizations

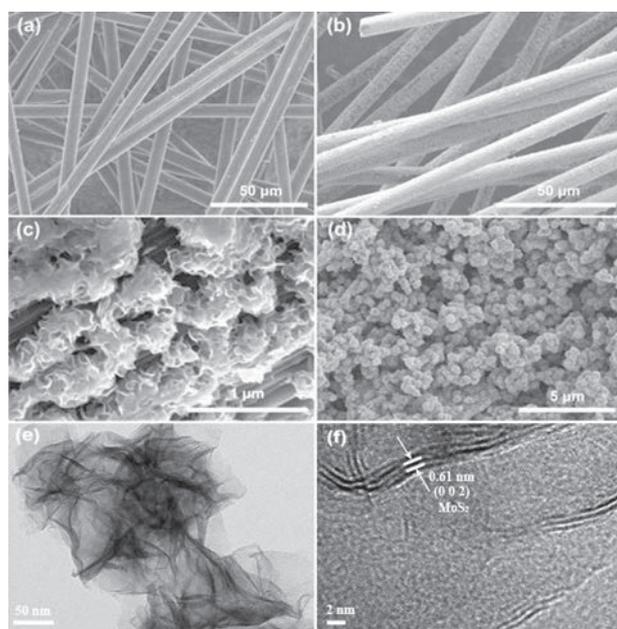
The morphology and microstructures of the samples were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (Hitachi S-4800 field-emission SEM). Transmission electron microscopic (HRTEM) images were acquired with a JEOL JEM-2100 instrument at an acceleration voltage of 200 kV. The crystalline structures were examined by X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD, Rigaku D/Max-IIIC). Raman spectra were recorded on a RENISHAW in Via instrument with an Ar laser source of 488 nm in a macroscopic configuration.

### 2.4. Electrochemistry

Electrochemical measurements were carried out by using a conventional three-electrode cell containing a 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous electrolyte. About 3 mg of the fine core-shell carbon fibers were mixed with a 5 wt% Nafion solution and coated over a copper foil of 1 × 0.5 cm<sup>2</sup> in area. Then this coated electrode was dried at 100 °C for 10 h and was used as the working electrode. A platinum wire and Ag/AgCl (in sat. KCl) were used as the counter and reference electrode, respectively. Cyclic voltammetric (CV) measurements and galvanostatic charge/discharge tests were performed with a CHI 660E electrochemical workstation. The specific capacitance ( $C_s$ , F/g) was calculated from the cyclic voltammograms by the equation,  $C_s = Q/\Delta E m$ , where  $Q$  is the integrated voltammetric charge and  $\Delta E$  is the voltage range of the voltammetric measurements, and  $m$  is the mass of the active material (g). The specific capacitance was also calculated from the galvanostatic discharge curves according to the equation,  $C = I\Delta t/\Delta V m$ , where  $I$  is the discharge current,  $\Delta t$  is the discharge time,  $\Delta V$  is the voltage change excluding IR drop during the discharging process, and  $m$  is the mass of the active material (g). Electrochemical impedance spectroscopic (EIS) measurements were performed at the open circuit voltage within the frequency range of 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz with the CHI 660E electrochemical workstation.

## 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

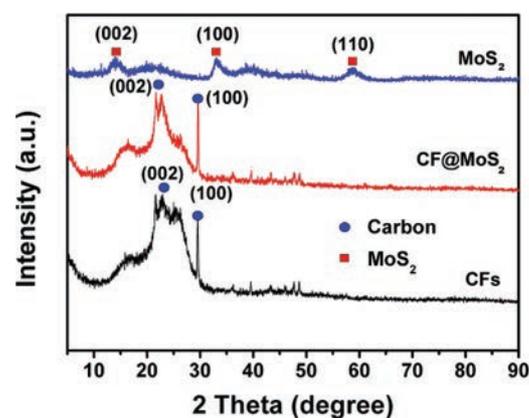
The structures of the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites were first examined by SEM measurements. From Figure 1(a), one can see that bare CFs exhibited a clean and smooth



**Fig. 1.** SEM images of CFs (a) before and (b) after the growth of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. Scale bars 50  $\mu\text{m}$ . (c) High-magnification SEM images of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets grown on CFs. Scale bar 1  $\mu\text{m}$ . (d) SEM images of pure MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Scale bar 5  $\mu\text{m}$ . (e), (f) HRTEM images of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets grown on CFs. Scale bar 50 nm and 2 nm, respectively.

surface (with a diameter of about 7  $\mu\text{m}$ ). In contrast, after hydrothermal reactions with sodium molybdate and thioacetamide, the surface of the CFs became apparently roughened, likely as a result of the deposition of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures, as shown in Figure 1(b). High-magnification SEM studies in panel (c) showed that the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures exhibited a curly sheet-like surface morphology (up to 1  $\mu\text{m}$  in length) and the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were grown on the CF surface largely in an edge-on orientation. This is markedly different from that of MoS<sub>2</sub> prepared without CFs, as depicted in panel (d), where one can see that roughly spherical MoS<sub>2</sub> particles (dia. about 500 nm) were formed and densely packed. Indeed, High-resolution TEM measurements of the materials scratched from the carbon fiber surface displayed an ultrathin sheet-like structure (Fig. 1(e)), with well-defined lattice fringes where the interlayer spacing of 0.61 nm is consistent with MoS<sub>2</sub> (002), as depicted in Figure 1(f). This is consistent with XRD results in Figure 2.

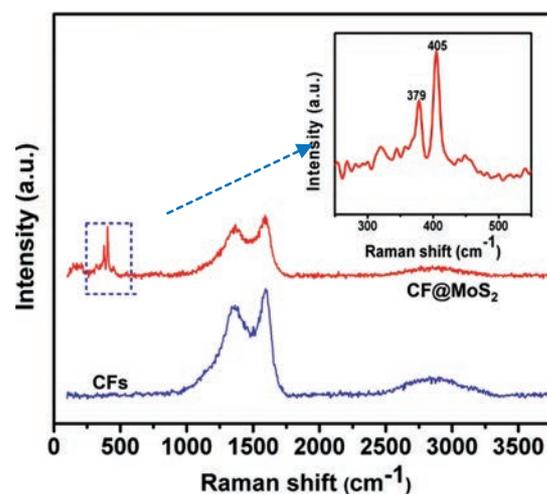
The formation of CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites was further manifested in XRD measurements. Figure 2 depicts the XRD patterns of pure MoS<sub>2</sub>, bare CFs, and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites. It can be seen that MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (blue curve) exhibited three peaks (red squares) at about 14.4°, 33.3° and 59.1°, which may be assigned to the (002), (100) and (110) crystalline planes of hexagonal MoS<sub>2</sub>, respectively ( $a = b = 0.316$  nm,  $c = 1.230$  nm, JCPDS card no. 37-1492).<sup>30,31</sup> For bare CFs (black curve) and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> (red curve), similar patterns can be seen with a broad peak (blue circle) between 20° and 30° and



**Fig. 2.** XRD patterns of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, CFs, and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites.

a sharp one at 29.6° that may be respectively assigned to the graphite (002) and (100) planes. However, one may notice that the diffraction features of MoS<sub>2</sub> were not apparent in CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites, likely because of the low loading and/or poor crystallinity of the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets.<sup>32</sup>

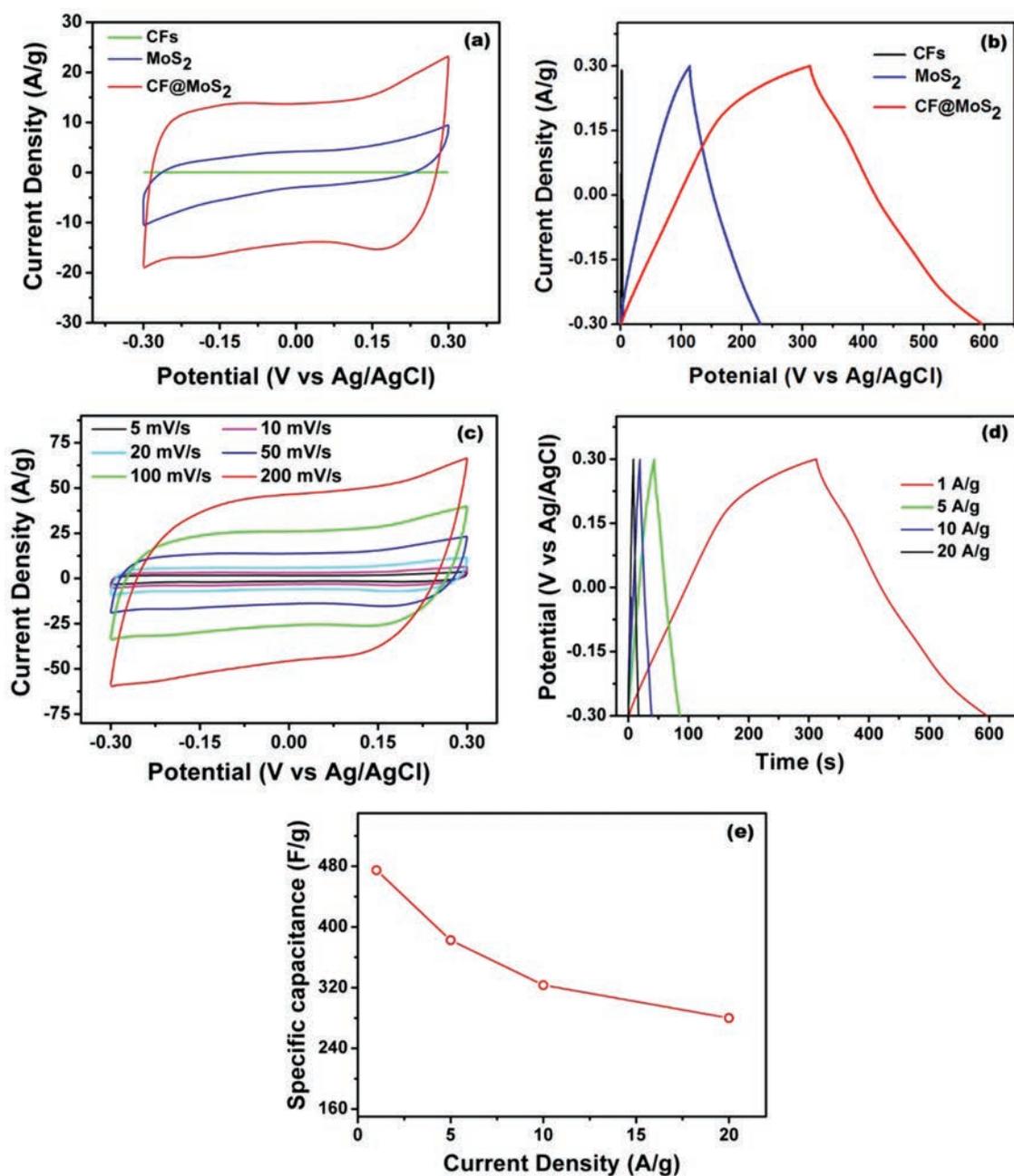
However, in Raman measurements (Fig. 3), it can be seen that two vibrational bands emerged at 379  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $E_{2g}$ ) and 405  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $A_{1g}$ ) with the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites (red curve and Figure inset).<sup>33</sup> These are the characteristic vibrations of MoS<sub>2</sub>, with the former due to the Mo–S stretching vibration in the basal planes of MoS<sub>2</sub>, and the latter to the symmetric stretching vibration Mo–S of MoS<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, for both CFs (blue curve) and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites, a pair of well-defined vibrational bands appeared at 1594  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 1364  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  which were consistent with the G and D bands of graphite (the 2D band appears as a broad peak at ca. 2750  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ).<sup>34–36</sup> These further confirm the formation of CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites.



**Fig. 3.** Raman spectra of CFs and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub>. Inset shows the magnification of the dashed region.

The CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites prepared above were then evaluated as an electrode material for supercapacitors. The performance of pure MoS<sub>2</sub> and bare CFs were also tested for comparison. It can be seen from Figure 4(a) that the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites (red curve) exhibited an approximately square-shape cyclic voltammogram (at 50 mV/s). Consistent behaviors can be seen with MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (blue curve) and bare CFs (green curve) as well. Yet the significantly greater voltammetric currents of the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites indicate a markedly

higher specific capacitance than the other two, most probably because of a larger electrochemical surface area and synergistic effects between MoS<sub>2</sub> and CFs.<sup>37</sup> In fact, based on the voltammetric data, the specific capacitance of CFs, MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites can be estimated to be 0.4, 149.3, 503.7 F/g, respectively. The symmetric shape and the instant response upon the reversal of the electrode potential indicated that charging and discharging were highly reversible and facile. Figure 4(b) depicts the charging–discharging curves for

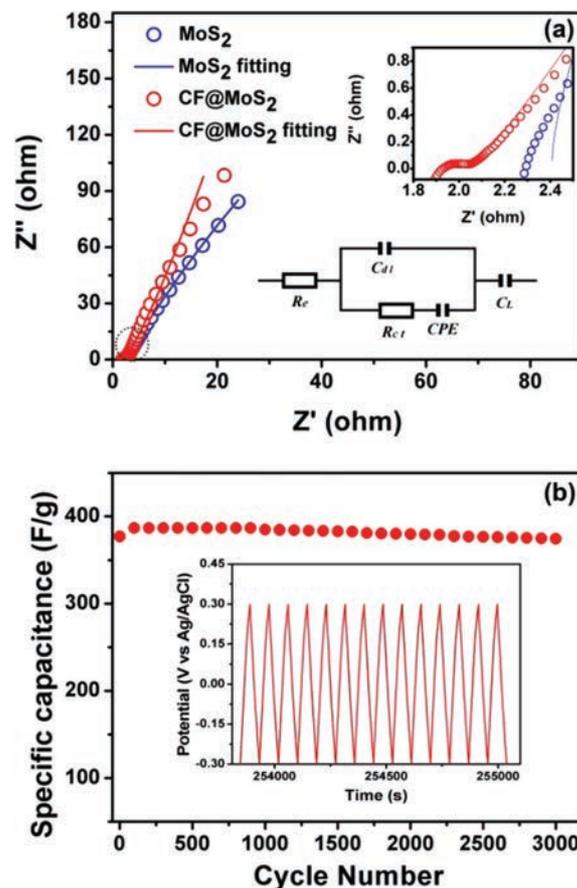


**Fig. 4.** (a) CV curves for bare CFs, pure MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> at the potential scan rate of 50 mV/s. (b) Galvanostatic charging–discharging curves for the bare CFs, pure MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> at a current density of 1 A/g. (c) CVs for the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> electrode at different potential scan rates, (d) Galvanostatic charging–discharging curves for the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> electrode at different current densities, and (e) specific capacitance as a function of discharge current density.

the bare CFs, pure MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> at a current density of 1 A/g, where the corresponding specific capacitance was estimated to be 0.2, 114.1, and 474.7 F/g, respectively, in good agreement with the values derived from the CV curves. As shown in Figure 4(c), similar rectangular-shaped CVs were observed at other scan rates of 5, 10, 20, 50, 100 and 200 mV/s. These results indicated ideal capacitive behaviors of the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites, which was further manifested in galvanostatic charging–discharging measurements at different current density with nearly symmetrical profiles, as depicted in Figure 4(d). The specific capacitance was then derived from the charging–discharging curves (Fig. 4(e)), and the values were 474.7, 382.5, 323.3 and 280.0 F/g at 1, 5, 10, and 20 A/g, respectively (note that for CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites at other MoS<sub>2</sub> loadings the capacitances were markedly lower, not shown). These are considerably higher than those reported in the literature for MoS<sub>2</sub>-based electrodes, such as mesoporous MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized by Ramadoss et al.<sup>38</sup> (376 and 403 F/g at a scan rate of 1 mV/s in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and KCl electrolyte solutions respectively), and porous tubular C/MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites by Hu et al. (210 F/g at 1 A/g).<sup>27</sup>

Further studies were carried out by electrochemical impedance spectroscopic (EIS) measurements. Figure 5(a) depicts the Nyquist plots of the three electrodes within the frequency range of 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz at the open circuit potential with an AC perturbation of 5 mV. From the low frequency data, the capacitance ( $C$ ) can be calculated using the equation  $C = 1/(2\pi fZ'')$ , where  $Z''$  is the imaginary part of the impedance and  $f$  is the frequency. For the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> electrode (red circles), the specific capacitance was estimated to be 435.8 F/g at the frequency of 0.01 Hz, in agreement with the result from the galvanostatic discharge measurements (Fig. 4). In contrast, the capacitance is only 119.7 F/g for MoS<sub>2</sub> alone (blue circles).

In addition, the impedance spectra can be fitted by the equivalent circuit shown as the lower inset to Figure 5(a), where  $R_e$  represents the combined contributions of ionic resistance of the electrolyte, intrinsic resistance of the substrate, and contact resistance at the active material/current collector interface,  $C_{dl}$  is the electrode double-layer capacitance,  $R_{ct}$  is the charge-transfer resistance, CPE is a constant-phase element representing the diffusive resistance (Warburg impedance) of the Faradaic process, and  $C_L$  is the limit capacitance.<sup>39,40</sup> As depicted by the red and blue lines, the fittings are very good for both the MoS<sub>2</sub> and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> electrodes, and the fitting results are summarized in Table I. It can be seen that the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite electrode exhibited a somewhat lower  $R_e$  (1.94  $\Omega$ ) than the MoS<sub>2</sub> one (2.41  $\Omega$ ), indicating enhanced electrical conductivity of the nanocomposites. In addition, the charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ) decreases drastically from 3.99  $\Omega$  for MoS<sub>2</sub> to 0.12  $\Omega$  for the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites, as manifested in the upper inset to Figure 5(a) by the apparent shrinking of



**Fig. 5.** (a) Nyquist plots of experimental impedance data (open circles) and fitting results (solid lines) for MoS<sub>2</sub> and CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> electrode at open circuit potentials in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous electrolyte. Upper inset is the zoom-in of the high frequency region and the lower inset is the electrical equivalent circuit used for fitting the impedance spectra. (b) Specific capacitance versus the cycle number of the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites measured at a current density of 5 A/g within an operational window of  $-0.3$  V to  $+0.3$  V. Inset is the galvanostatic charging/discharging curve after 3000 cycles.

the diameter of the semicircles in the high-frequency region. This suggests enhanced charge/discharge dynamics and hence good rate capability for the supercapacitors, as observed above in Figure 4. Meanwhile, the double-layer capacitance ( $C_{dl}$ ) and the low-frequency limit capacitance ( $C_L$ ) both increase by about 20 times from 33  $\mu$ F to 0.62 mF and from 8.9 mF to 0.20 F, respectively. This may be accounted for by the significantly larger surface area of the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites.

**Table I.** Fitting values of  $R_e$ ,  $C_{dl}$ ,  $R_{ct}$ , CPE and  $C_L$  for the experimental impedance spectra based upon the proposed equivalent circuit in Figure 5(a).

Sample	$R_e$ ( $\Omega$ )	$C_{dl}$ (F)	$R_{ct}$ ( $\Omega$ )	CPE-T (F cm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>n-1</sup> )	CPE-P (n)	$C_L$ (F)
MoS <sub>2</sub>	2.41	$3.30 \times 10^{-5}$	3.99	$1.75 \times 10^{-4}$	0.71	$8.87 \times 10^{-3}$
CF@MoS <sub>2</sub>	1.94	$6.18 \times 10^{-4}$	0.12	0.17	0.65	0.20

Because a long cycle life is also an important criterion for high-performance supercapacitors, an endurance test was conducted by galvanostatic charging/discharging cycles at 5 A/g (Fig. 5(b)). Interestingly, in the first 100 cycles the specific capacitance of the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite electrode actually increased gradually and reached a maximum of 386.6 F/g. This might be attributed to an activation process due to improved contact at the electrode/electrolyte interface. The specific capacitance then decreases only slightly to 374.5 F/g after 3,000 cycles, corresponding to only 3.1% loss of the capacitance. This cycling performance of the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites was markedly better than that observed with other MoS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures reported in the literature. For instance, a 8% loss was observed after only 1,000 cycles with MoS<sub>2</sub> films. That is, the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite electrode prepared above shows high electrochemical stability with a long cycle life at high current densities. These remarkable features might be ascribed to several factors. First, the unique two-dimensional layered structure of MoS<sub>2</sub> may facilitate reversible intercalation/extraction of foreign ions, which is beneficial to charge transfer at the nanocomposite electrode. Second, in contrast with MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles that were tightly packed, the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets in the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites were rather homogeneously dispersed on the CF surface with a curvy sheet-like morphology, leading to a large electrode/electrolyte interface and hence electrochemical surface area. Third, the CFs are highly conductive, leading to reduced contact resistance between the electrode materials and charge collectors.<sup>41</sup> That is, CFs served as an excellent current collector and a strong structural backbone for conformal coating of MoS<sub>2</sub>.

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, a hybrid structure based on MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets vertically grown on CF scaffolds was prepared and used as electrode materials for high-performance supercapacitors. The as-prepared nanocomposites show significantly enhanced electrochemical specific capacitances as compared to bare CFs and MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, and the specific capacitances reached 474.7 F/g in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous electrolyte at a current density of 1 A/g. The remarkable performance might be accounted for by the unique structures of the CF@MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites that allowed efficient electrochemical utilization of the electrode surface for charge storage with rapid transport of ions and electrons. The nanocomposites also demonstrated excellent cycling stabilities at high current densities.

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