



# Hydrothermal microwave-assisted synthesis of $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ as an anode for lithium-ion battery

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## Abstract

$\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  with various morphologies has been synthesized by a microwave-assisted hydrothermal method. It is shown that the crystal size and morphology of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  are determined by the type of solvent in the reaction solution and possible reasons of the solvent-type effect are discussed. Electrochemical studies of as-prepared  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  as anode materials for Li-ion batteries demonstrate a clear influence of the materials' morphology and surface properties on the electrochemical performance.  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  nanocrystals with a porous structure exhibit an enhanced electrochemical activity with an initial discharge capacity of 163  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$ .

**Keywords**  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  · Hydrothermal synthesis · Anode material · Lithium-ion batteries

## Introduction

Lithium-ion rechargeable batteries have high current and power densities compared with other rechargeable batteries. The major challenges in designing next-generation lithium-ion batteries (LIB) include the need to increase their energy density, cycling life, and charge/discharge rate capability. This demands the design of improved electrode materials with favored properties, e.g., fast Li-ion diffusion and small volume changes upon electrochemical cycling [1]. In this respect, among the different reaction mechanisms, intercalation-type anodes are particularly promising [2, 3]. The commercially widely used graphite features a high theoretical capacity of 372  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$  [4, 5].

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However, it exhibits a low voltage plateau (below 0.3 V vs.  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}^+$ ) near to the potential to that of deposition of Li metal which involves the risk of dendrite formation [6]. Alternative materials LIBs are  $\text{Li}_4\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{12}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ . In particular, the spinel  $\text{Li}_4\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{12}$  is used in niche applications as it can accommodate three Li-ions with a, however, low theoretical specific capacity of 175  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$  at a flat potential of 1.55 V [7, 8].  $\text{TiO}_2$  demonstrates double theoretical specific capacity (335  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$  at  $x=1$  in  $\text{Li}_x\text{TiO}_2$ ) and high Li insertion potential (1.5–1.8 V vs.  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}^+$ ) [9]. However, the maximum value of Li insertion is limited to  $x=0.5$ , corresponding to the theoretical capacity of 167.5  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$  [10]. Additionally, this material has low electrical conductivity and poor cycling performance. Good electrochemical performance was reported for elongated  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanostructures such as rods or tubes [11, 12]. Due to high aspect ratio and porous morphology,  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanostructures allow efficient transport of lithium ions and a high charge/discharge capacity (about 250  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$ ).

Recently, lithium orthovanadate,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ , has been suggested as another promising intercalation-type anode material for lithium-ion batteries [13–19]. In comparison with graphite,  $\text{Li}_4\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{12}$ , and  $\text{TiO}_2$ , lithium orthovanadate could be intercalated by Li-ions in the voltage range of 0.2–1.0 V (vs.  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}^+$ ). Its high working voltage offers a save operating potential and allows to effectively avoid the deposition of lithium metal on the electrode. In addition, it demonstrates a large theoretical reversible specific capacity comparable to that of graphite (394  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$ ) corresponding to  $x=2$  in  $\text{Li}_{3+x}\text{VO}_4$ . Low

and safe voltage combined with a large specific capacity permit to claim that  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  might play a promising role as a new insertion anode for LIB.

There are two known  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  polymorphs: the low-temperature  $\beta$ -form and the high-temperature  $\gamma$ -form. Its crystal structure belongs to the  $\text{Li}_3\text{PO}_4$ -type which is composed of a 3D network of corner-sharing  $\text{LiO}_4$  and  $\text{VO}_4$  tetrahedrons (Fig. 1). The empty sites of the crystalline framework generate straight channels along the  $a$ - and  $c$ -axes, and zigzag channels along the  $b$ -axis, both of which providing potential intercalation paths for Li-ions.

Various methods have been attempted to synthesize  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ , including solid-state reaction [14, 20, 21], hydrothermal [22–24], aerosol spray [25], sol-gel [26, 27], precipitation [20], and self-template [28] methods. Solid-state synthesis and precipitation are the most conventional and widely used chemical syntheses. Nevertheless, they lead to broad particle size distributions of the final product. Besides, it is hard to prevent the agglomeration of the primary nanoparticles, which may cause poor electrochemical performance. Whereas, sol-gel and conventional hydrothermal methods can promote precursors to achieve mixing and homogenizing up to the nanometer level. Both procedures, however, usually require a long and time-consuming sintering process. Similarly, as the aerosol spray method is also costly in terms of time and requires sophisticated equipment, it is not advantageous for large-scale production. Compared with conventional methods, hydrothermal microwave-assisted synthesis is quite faster, simpler, and more energy-efficient providing the production of the final product with a smaller particle size and improving its electrochemical performance [29].

In this paper, the hydrothermal microwave-assisted route is introduced to synthesize  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ . The study is focused on the

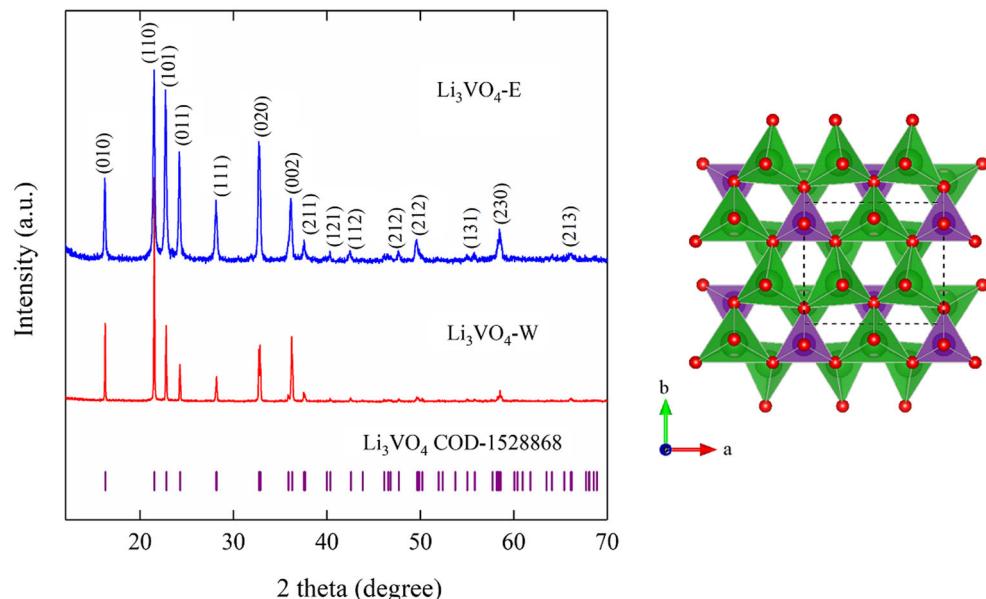
results of the structure, morphology, and electrochemical performance of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ .

## Experimental

The starting materials used in the experiment were of analytical grade and purchased from Sigma–Aldrich. In a typical procedure, 0.234 g  $\text{NH}_4\text{VO}_3$  and 0.252 g  $\text{LiOH}\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (the molar ratio of  $\text{NH}_4\text{VO}_3$  to  $\text{LiOH}\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O} = 1:3$ ) were dissolved in 30 ml distilled water. After stirring for 20 min, the clear solution was poured into a sealed glass vial and then transferred into a microwave reactor (Monowave 300, Anton Paar). On a ramping time of 10 min, the vial was heated at 180 °C, held at this temperature for 20 min, and cooled by compressed air up to 40 °C. The product was collected by centrifugation and washed with deionized water several times. The as-prepared material is labeled as  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-W}$ . For the purpose of comparison,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  was also prepared in an ethanol-assisted route using a volume ratio of  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$  to  $\text{H}_2\text{O} = 1:1$ . The resulting material is denoted as  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$ . To investigate the effect of pounding on the electrochemical activity,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  powder was grinded using a mortar for 15 min; this sample is labeled as  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$ .

The structure and morphology of the resulting product were characterized by X-ray powder diffraction (Shimadzu XRD-7000S,  $\text{Cu K}_\alpha$  radiation,  $\lambda = 1.540 \text{ \AA}$ ), ZEISS Leo 1530 scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and JEOL JEM 2100 transmission electron microscope (TEM). The specific surface area and pore volume of the samples were measured by a surface area and porosity analyzer (Gemini VII, Micromeritics).

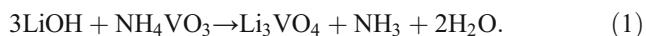
**Fig. 1** XRD patterns of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  synthesized in the presence of ethanol (blue line), in water without ethanol (red line), and the expected Bragg positions for the  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  structure (left). Crystal structure of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  along (001) direction (right). Oxygen atoms are denoted by red balls, and  $\text{LiO}_4$  and  $\text{VO}_4$  tetrahedra are marked by green and violet color, respectively



Electrochemical studies were performed in Swagelok-type two electrode cells using a VMP3 potentiostat (Bio-Logic SAS) at 25 °C (see [30]). The working electrodes were prepared by mixing  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ , carbon black (Timcal), and polyvinylidene fluoride binder (PVDF, Solvay Plastics) dissolved in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP, Sigma–Aldrich) in a weight ratio of 75:20:5. In order to ensure a homogeneous distribution, the mixture was stirred for at least 12 h. Afterwards, most of the NMP was evaporated to obtain a spreadable slurry that was applied on circular Cu-meshes with a diameter of 10 mm. The electrodes were dried in a vacuum oven at 80 °C, mechanically pressed with 8 MPa, and then dried again. The loading density was about 2 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. As counter electrode, a lithium metal foil disk (Alfa Aesar) pressed on a nickel current collector was used. Both electrodes were separated by two layers of glass fiber separator (Whatman GF/D), which was soaked with 200  $\mu\text{l}$  electrolyte (Merck Electrolyte LP30), a 1 M  $\text{LiPF}_6$  salt solution in 1:1 ethylene carbonate (EC) and dimethyl carbonate (DMC). The cells were assembled in a glove box under an argon atmosphere ( $\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O} < 5 \text{ ppm}$ ).

## Results and discussion

Lithium orthovanadate,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ , was synthesized by the following reaction:



In Fig. 2, the XRD pattern of the material prepared using pure water as solvent (marked W) is shown in comparison to the one synthesized in the presence of ethanol (marked E). All diffraction peaks of the patterns can be indexed in the orthorhombic  $\beta$ - $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  phase with the space group  $\text{Pnm}_2_1$  according to the standard pattern of COD-1528868. Lattice parameters determined by means of full-profile analyses with the FullProf Suite are in a good agreement with reference data (Table S1). As shown in Fig. 1,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -W exhibits sharper diffraction peaks which we associate to the larger crystal size in comparison with samples synthesized in the presence of ethanol. The crystallite sizes of the as-synthesized samples are calculated using Scherrer equation:

$$D = K\lambda/\Delta(2\theta)\cos\theta, \quad (2)$$

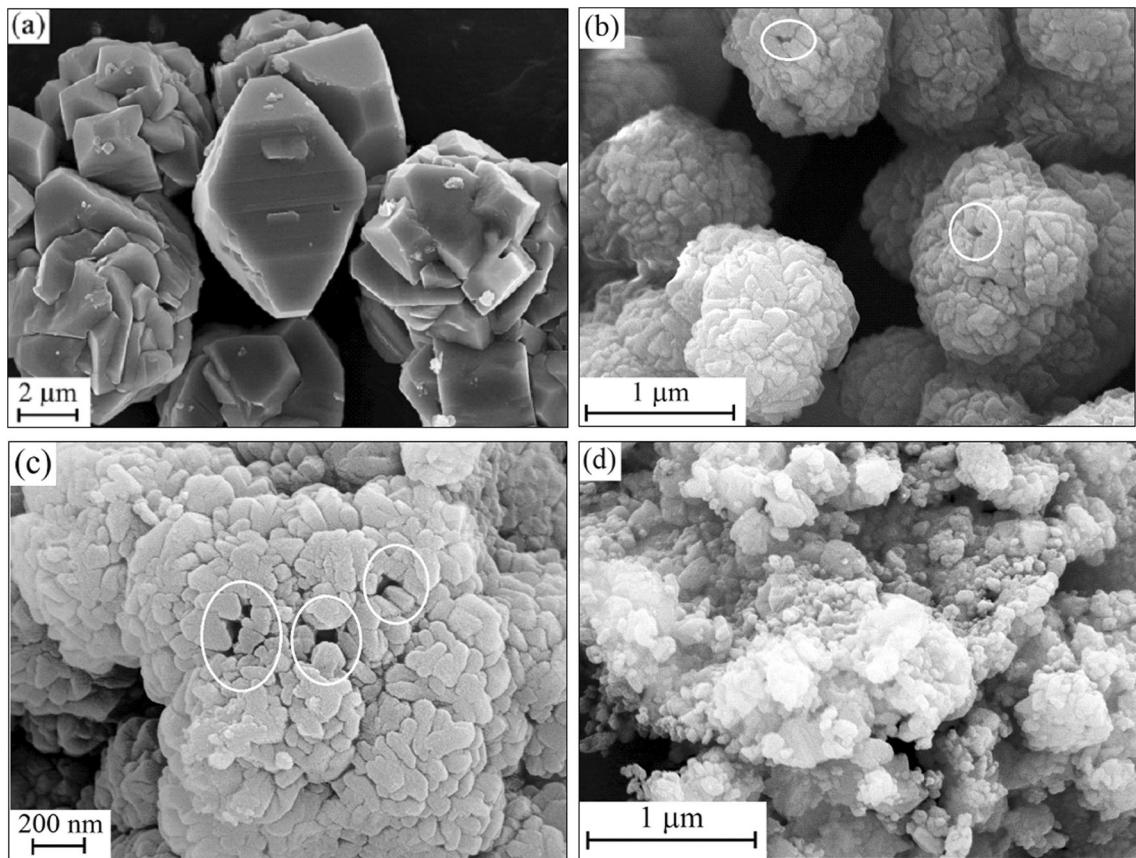
where  $D$  is the average grain size based on the particular reflecting crystal face (hkl) direction,  $K$  is a shape factor which can be approximated to 0.93,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the applied  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation,  $\Delta(2\theta)$  is the full width at half-maximum of the diffraction peak, and  $\theta$  is the Bragg angle. The analysis of the 110 and 101 peaks yields average crystallite sizes of  $68 \pm 5 \text{ nm}$  for both  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -E and  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -E(G) samples. In contrast,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -W is a bulk material with an

average crystallite size of more than 100 nm which renders Scherrer's formula non-applicable. This indicates that the crystal size decreases with the addition of ethanol to the reactive system.

The influence of the solvent type on the morphology of the synthesized samples is further examined by SEM as illustrated in Fig. 2. As shown in Fig. 2a,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -W which is hydrothermally synthesized with water as solvent mainly possesses irregular aggregates. Some particles exhibit a truncated tetragonal pyramid-like shape with sharp corners and well-defined edges of 1–4  $\mu\text{m}$  in length. These particles show smooth surfaces. In the presence of ethanol as solvent in the reactive system, self-assembled hierarchical porous microspheres with a size of around 1  $\mu\text{m}$  are formed (Fig. 2b). The surface of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -E is very rough and consists of numerous flake-like nanoparticles which sizes range from 40 to 200 nm. Between these particles, the large holes are distinctly exhibited (Fig. 2c). Similar  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  particles of sphere-like shape have been also fabricated with the usage of ethanol as solvent under conventional hydrothermal conditions by other researchers [31]. As seen in Fig. 2d, grinding of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -E yields breaking of the sphere-like particles and formation of weakly aggregated of about 50–70-nm-sized nanocrystals ( $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -E(G)). Note that according to Scherrer's analysis, it does not significantly affect the primary particles size but mainly affects agglomerates.

Additionally, TEM investigation was applied to further study the morphology of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -E in detail. As shown in a low-magnification TEM image in Fig. 3a, the  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -E compounds are composed of sphere-like microparticles which size ranges from 0.9 to 1.5  $\mu\text{m}$ . As seen, these particles show uneven surfaces with cavities. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -E in Fig. 3b exhibits lattice fringes with spacing of 0.35 nm, which corresponds well with the (011) plane of the orthorhombic  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ .

Our data highlight the crucial role of solvent in the synthesis process. The morphology of samples prepared using a mixture of water and ethanol as solvents significantly differs from that of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  synthesized in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  only. It is known that the polarity and the saturated vapor pressure of the solvents during the hydrothermal (solvothermal) treatment are relevant solvent parameters which determine the morphology and size of the final product [32]. The polarity of the solvent is proportional to the dielectric constant, which for water and alcohol is 80.1 and 25.3 at 25 °C, respectively [33]. Chen et al. have determined the correlation between particle size and dielectric constant of alcohol/water solution [34]. There is a linear relationship between the reciprocal of particle size and the reciprocal of the dielectric constant for various kinds of alcohols which implies that the polarity of the solvents affects the nucleation rate and particle size of the prepared nanoparticles. In general, more polar solvents facilitate nucleation and tend to result in bigger particles according to the Ostwald ripening

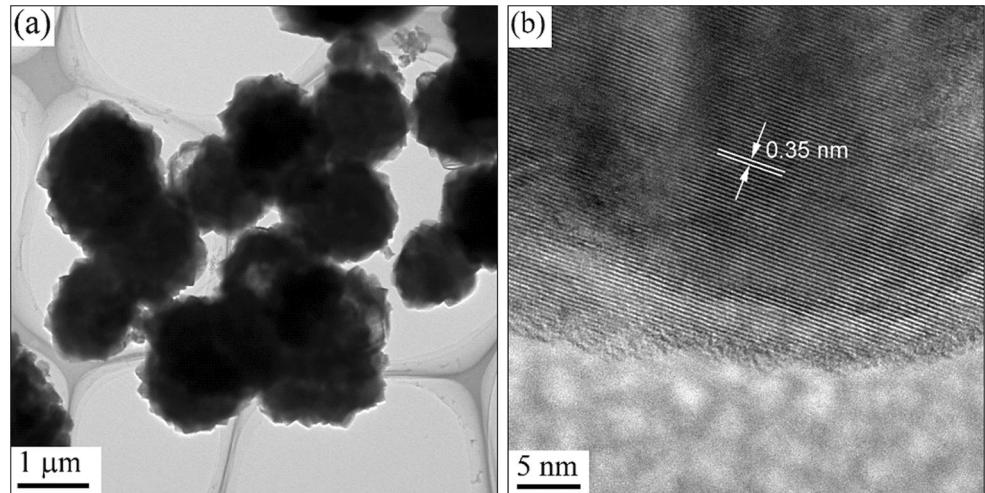


**Fig. 2** SEM images of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-W}$  (a),  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  at low (b) and high (c) magnifications, and  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$  (d). Large holes in  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  particles are shown by white circles

process [35]. The saturated vapor pressure influences not only the nucleation of the crystals but also the morphology of the materials since it is inversely proportional to the boiling point of the solvents [36]. For water and ethanol at ambient pressure, the boiling points of water and ethanol amount to 100 and 78.29 °C, respectively [33]. Accordingly, larger  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  crystals with faceted morphologies were obtained in water which possesses lower vapor pressure. This implies that the

lower saturated vapor pressures assist more rapid growth of the  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  nuclei, resulting in larger particles. In contrast, the saturated vapor pressure of ethanol is high, so that growth of the  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  nuclei is limited, leading to the predominant nucleation of nanosized particles. Aggregation of these nanoparticles to the observed clusters and assemblies of various morphology takes place to reduce the overall surface area and thus to lower the surface energy of the compound.

**Fig. 3** (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM images of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$



In addition to size of primary and secondary particles, electrochemical activity of a material is influenced by surface properties such as specific surface area and pore size distribution. Both properties have been investigated on the  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  samples at hand by physisorption of nitrogen using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method. The specific surface area, average pore size, and total pore volumes for the samples are summarized in Table S1, indicating that the use of different solvents has substantial effects on the textural properties of the materials. The nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-W}$  (data not shown) imply a very low surface area of roughly  $0.02 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  as expected for a typical bulk material with a non-porous structure. The similar value of the specific surface was obtained by G. Yang et al. [22]. In contrast, application of ethanol as solvent during the hydrothermal treatment increases the specific surface area of the sample to  $2.36 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ . Additionally, grinding of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  further increases the BET surface area by nearly four times ( $8.91 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ). According to the classification of IUPAC [37], sorption isotherms (Fig. 4a) obtained on  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  prepared with ethanol as solvent feature a type IV behavior with a type H3 hysteresis, which is a characteristic for particles with rather uniform particle size distribution and a slit-shaped mesoporous structure. Analysis of the pore size distribution (Fig. 4b) shows that both  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  and  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$  samples exhibit a wide pore size distribution from 2 to more than 120 nm.  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  mainly features mesopores which sizes are centered at around 11 and 17 nm. Grinding, which yields the abovementioned partial breaking of agglomerates, also affects the porosity: the pore-size distribution of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$  is rather broad and has two distinct maxima. One of which is associated with mesopores of about 5 nm. According to the literature, these pores may be attributed to the presence of

interstices between the primary particles [38]. The larger pores (concentrated around  $\sim 36 \text{ nm}$ ) of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$  are supposed to result from aggregation of the nanosized crystals. To summarize, the obtained textural parameters show that use of ethanol as solvent and grinding of the final product yields increase of surface area and porosity which both may enhance applicability of the materials for electrodes in LIB.

In order to assess the effects of modified materials parameters on the electrochemical performance,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$ -based electrodes have been investigated by means of cyclic voltammetry and galvanostatic cycling with potential limitation (GCPL) in the range 0.2–3.0 V. Figure 5 a shows the first, second, and tenth cycle of the cyclic voltammogram (CV) of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  recorded at a scan rate of 0.1 mV/s. The first reductive sweep shows a weak peak  $R_1$  at 1.19 V and three pronounced ones at 0.67 V ( $R_2$ ), 0.37 V ( $R_3$ ), and at the lower limit 0.2 V ( $R_4$ ). The peaks  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  can be assigned to intercalation of  $\text{Li}^+$  into  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  [39]. During the first cycle, formation of the SEI contributes to the electrochemical activity in the same voltage range [23]. As of the second cycle, a shift of the peaks  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  to slightly higher potentials 0.82 V or rather 0.56 V is observable which is attributed to structural changes caused by an irreversible phase transformation during initial cycling [39, 40]. The first oxidative scan shows the main peak  $O_2$  around 1.18 V, which corresponds to the delithiation of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  [39], and a weak peak  $O_3$  around 2.5 V. Upon further cycling,  $O_2$  gets broader and the oxidation peak  $O_1$  around 0.3 V shows up. The redox pair  $O_1/R_4$  corresponds to the de-/lithiation processes related to carbon [41]. However, the underlying processes of the weak peaks  $R_1$  and  $O_3$  that are observed also by Ni et al. [23] remain unclear.

In order to investigate the cycling performance and rate capability of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  with different morphologies, GCPL

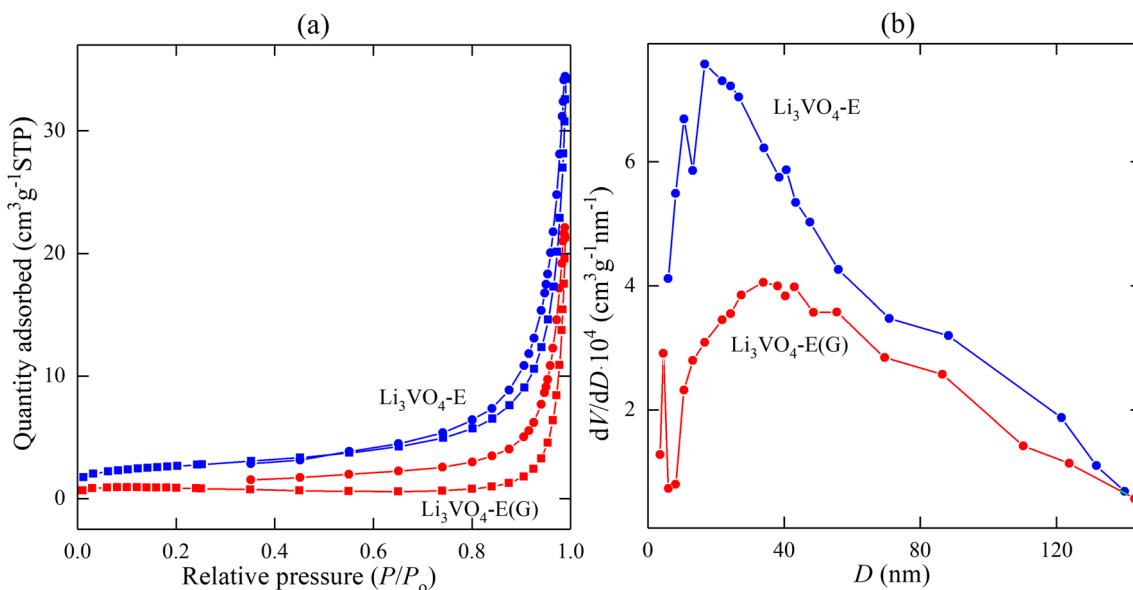
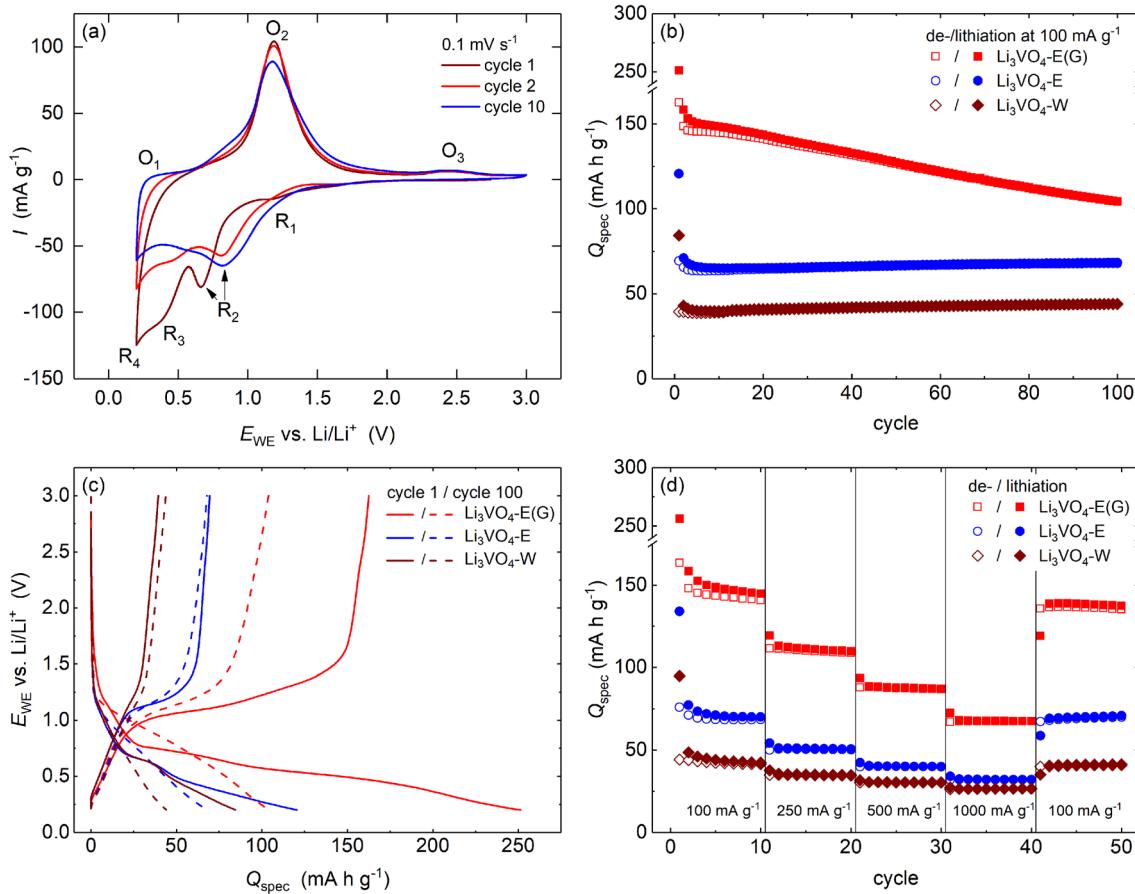


Fig. 4 (a) Nitrogen sorption isotherms and (b) corresponding pore size distribution curve of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  and  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$  samples



**Fig. 5** (a) CV of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  studied at a scan rate of  $0.1 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ . Specific charge/discharge capacities (b) and (c) potential profiles of the first and hundred cycles of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-W}$ ,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$ , and  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$  for

galvanostatic cycling at  $100 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ . (d) Capability test with different cycling rates between  $100$  and  $1000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$

measurements have been performed. Figure 5 b shows the evolution of charge/discharge capacities during long-term measurements at a current density of  $100 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  for 100 cycles. The belonging potential profiles in Fig. 5c exhibit plateaus corresponding to the peaks that are visible in the CV (Fig. 5a). For each sample, there is a large irreversible contribution in the first half cycle due to the SEI formation and structural changes [21, 39]. It is noticeable that the nanocrystals ( $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$ ) reach the highest capacity over all cycles. In the first and the hundredth cycle, a charge capacity of 163 and  $104 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  is measured, respectively, while for the porous hierarchical microspheres ( $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$ ) just 69/68  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$  and for the bulk material with non-porous structure ( $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-W}$ ) 39/44  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$  are reached. Comparing the samples that have been synthesized with and without ethanol shows that  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$ , which features more than 100 times larger surface, achieves about 60% higher capacity than  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-W}$ . Grinding of sample  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$  results in a more than three times larger surface area and yields an increase of the capacity of around two times for  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$ . As expected, larger reaction surface leads to a higher electrochemical activity of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  as on the one hand electrolyte diffusion is

facilitated, and on the other hand, a large contact area with the conductive additive enables good electron transport pathway [22]. However, regarding the relative cycling stability, the grinded sample  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$  delivers the least results with a discharge capacity loss of 36% between the first and hundredth cycle. In contrast, the other materials exhibit a more stable behavior. In case of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$ , a small capacity loss of 1% and for  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-W}$  even an increase of 13% is observable. The lower cycling stability of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$  may be attributed to huge charge depth yielding to structure damage caused by distortion and expansion upon cycling [21].

Furthermore, the rate capability of the different samples was studied at cycling rates between  $100$  and  $1000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ . The specific charge/discharge capacities are shown in Fig. 5d and the potential profiles in Fig. S1-S3. Again, the nanocrystals  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$  show enhanced rate performance. Even at a high current density of  $1000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ , a discharge capacity of  $67 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  is still achieved, which is more than twice of that of the other materials. Moreover, it is observable that the capacity of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G)}$ ,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E}$ , and  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-W}$  can regain to about 96%, 97%, and 95% when the current density returns to the initial value of  $100 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ . Notably,

**Table 1** Summary of the electrochemical performance of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  electrodes prepared via different synthesis methods

Method	Current density 1 C $\approx 394$ mA g $^{-1}$ (mA g $^{-1}$ )/rate	Discharge capacity (mAh g $^{-1}$ )/cycle no.	Ref.
Solid-state reaction	20	283/25	[14]
Precipitation	1 C	190/100	[20]
Solid-state reaction	20	116/50	[21]
Hydrothermal	100	200/100	[22]
Aerosol-assisted	400	150/5	[25]
Hydrothermal	100	350/100	[31]
Solid-state reaction	20	143/50	[42]
Sol-gel	4000	52/1000	[43]
Sol-gel	30 C	160/60	[44]

in case of a constant current density of 100 mA g $^{-1}$  (Fig. 5b), the capacity loss between cycle 41 and 10 is even larger (e.g.,  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4\text{-E(G) 10\%}$ ). This observation can be also traced back to higher degradation effects of a more comprehensive de-/lithiation process as it is in the case of lower cycling rates [21]. Table 1 illustrates the electrochemical performance of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  prepared via different synthesis methods. It is obvious that the electrochemical performance of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  mainly depends on morphological features as particle size and surface texture. These parameters determine the specific surface of the material which is related to the transport path lengths.

## Conclusions

In conclusion, a facile and low-cost approach was developed for the synthesis of  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  with different morphology by means of the hydrothermal microwave-assisted method. In particular, using a mixture of water and ethanol used as solvent yields hierarchically structured  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  microspheres assembled from stacked nanoflakes, while without ethanol, the procedure yields a rather bulk-like material with micro-sized primary particles. The electrochemical performance of the produced materials highlights the relevance of hierarchical structure and morphology for application in LIB. In comparison with the  $\text{Li}_3\text{VO}_4$  bulk material, the hierarchical sphere-like particles show enhanced cycling performance which is associated with porous structure and large reaction area for the de-/insertion of Li-ions. The electrochemical activity is further boosted by grinding of the microspheres which significantly breaks the hierarchical structure while in general maintaining the size of the primary nanoparticles. The grinded material features a significantly improved specific capacity of 163 mAh g $^{-1}$  which is straightforwardly explained by short Li-ion diffusion length and large surface area enabling good electronically conductive network by additives. Boosted capacity is however associated with lower cycling stability of the grinded nanocrystals which most presumably is caused by the huge charge depth that leads to more pronounced

degradation effects. In view of further optimization, a promising approach to suppress the pulverization upon cycling may be coating of the surface with carbon.

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