



h-MoO₃/Activated carbon nanocomposites for electrochemical applications

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Abstract

MoO₃ nanorods were synthesized through the microwave method and the nanocomposites of MoO₃/activated carbon were prepared for supercapacitor and hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). The XRD pattern revealed that the prepared MoO₃ has a hexagonal phase (h-MoO₃). The as-prepared h-MoO₃ was composited with activated carbon (AC) and tested for supercapacitor studies. The fabricated supercapacitor exhibited an appreciable specific capacitance, power density, and energy densities. Further, dedoping of nitrogen in the doped AC creates defects on AC (DAC). These DAC/MoO₃ nanocomposites were prepared and tested for its electrocatalytic activity towards hydrogen evolution reactions. DAC/MoO₃ nanocomposite showed much higher electrocatalytic activity than the neat MoO₃.

Keywords h-MoO₃ · Supercapacitors · Specific capacitance · Hydrogen evolution reactions

Introduction

The increasing demand for energy around the globe enforces the utilization of clean and abundantly available renewable resources to meet the future energy demands. To add on to these problems, the rapid use of fossil fuels for various purposes causes the linear decrease in the number of fossil fuels and is responsible for several environmental problems around the globe. Hence, there is a vital requirement of renewable sources, over fossil fuels for energy storage and conversion. Rapid search is on the next generation energy storage and conversion materials. Supercapacitors bridge batteries and capacitors, owing to high power density, faster charge-discharge rate (few seconds), longer shelf-life, and prolonged cycle stability in aqueous as well as non-aqueous electrolytes with high efficiency [1–4]. In simple terms, these could be regarded as the non-polluting power sources. The electrode material for supercapacitors is categorized as (a) high surface area carbon-based materials like activated carbon (AC), carbon aerogels,

single and multiwalled carbon nanotubes, templated porous carbon and graphene [5–8], (b) pseudocapacitor materials including conducting polymers and transition-metal oxides—NiO, RuO₂, MnO₂, MoO₃ [9, 10]. A clean energy source, hydrogen, has acquired a great interest in recent years due to its eco-friendly nature, non-carbonaceous matter emission when burnt, and high energy density characteristics. Although H₂ has certain merits, the production of H₂ consumes a significant amount of energy, which in turn hinders its commercialization. Thus, there is a constant search for highly electroactive materials for hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) [11, 12].

Biomass-derived AC is of great interest due to its exclusive characteristics such as large specific surface area (~4000 m² g⁻¹), low cost, higher endurance, good electric conductivity, less corrosiveness, and also wide operating temperature. High surface area AC was synthesized using several biomass precursors like apricot seeds, potato starch, seaweed, corncob, gelatin, egg-white, and prawn-shells [13–19]. The carbon materials are not generally considered to be active towards various electrochemical reactions due to their sluggish nature. But these materials can be converted into electrochemically active material by creating defects in their lattice. These defects can be created through doping or dedoping the heteroatoms [20, 21]. Various research groups around the globe are working head on, so as to increase the specific energy and power of the supercapacitors. The attempts include metal

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oxide nanostructures derived from metal-organic frameworks with tunable structure and their composition [22, 23]; growth of conducting polymer array on the porous carbon [24]; electroless plating producing surface deposition of nanoparticles on AC [25]; multilayer approach [26]; composites of EDLCs materials with the pseudocapacitive materials [27, 28]. Lee JH et al. demonstrated the use of the composite in fabricating cylindrical hybrid supercapacitor. High surface activated carbon was used as the positive electrode and Nb-doped $\text{H}_2\text{Ti}_{12}\text{O}_{25}$ (HTO) giving $\text{H}_2\text{Ti}_{12-x}\text{Nb}_x\text{O}_{25}$, as the negative electrode. The concentration of the dopant was varied from $0 \leq x \leq 0.6$ to study the performance of the supercapacitor. Among the various ratios, $\text{H}_2\text{Ti}_{11.85}\text{Nb}_{0.15}\text{O}_{25}$ retained 84% of the initial capacitance even after 10,000 cycles [29]. The same group improvised the negative electrode material by using carbon/ AlPO_4 -coated HTO, in the fabrication of hybrid supercapacitors. This combination yielded a very high energy and power density reaching up to 46.3 W h kg^{-1} and $12,223.9 \text{ W kg}^{-1}$, respectively [30]. Lee B-G et al. used the combination of AC with granular $\text{Li}_4\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{12}$ (LTO) to study the improved performance of the asymmetric hybrid supercapacitors at different current densities [31]. Transition-metal oxides like MoO_3 are of great interest for supercapacitor and HER, due to their excellent reduction-oxidation (redox) properties ($\text{M}^{n+} + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{M}^{(n+1)}$). The process of charge storage mechanism is due to the highly reversible surface redox reactions termed as pseudocapacitance. The unique structure of them helps in faster electron transport for HER. The three crystalline polymorphs of MoO_3 include α - MoO_3 (orthorhombic), β - MoO_3 (monoclinic), and h - MoO_3 (hexagonal) [32]. MoO_3 has been synthesized in different morphology such as nanorods, nanosheets, nanodots, and nanobelts, tested for two applications, supercapacitors and HER [33–37]. The poor inherent conductivity of MoO_3 avoids the use of it in a single component MoO_3 electrode system. Thus, by preparing composites of MoO_3 with the AC, enhanced specific capacitance (SC) and improved catalytic activity of MoO_3 is observed [38, 39].

Although metastable h - MoO_3 shows enhanced electrochemical properties, its synthesis is difficult compared to other stable forms. In view of this, in this paper, we have demonstrated, quick and simple microwave-assisted synthesis of h - MoO_3 using a CTAB surfactant to control the size parameters. The sustainable synthesis of AC using the Tendu leaves has been reported in the previous work. AC/ MoO_3 composites were tested for supercapacitor applications through cyclic voltammetry, galvanostatic charge-discharge, and AC-impedance studies. Further, we processed the AC obtained from the Tendu leaves to create defective sites (DAC) and studied the electrocatalytic activity of DAC/ MoO_3 composites towards hydrogen evolution reaction through linear sweep voltammetry and Tafel plots.

Materials and methods

The synthesis of AC and DAC was done following the literature procedure [40–42]. Synthesis of MoO_3 was carried out by dissolving a mixture of 0.49 g of ammonium molybdate tetrahydrate ($(\text{NH}_4)_6\text{Mo}_7\text{O}_{24} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$) and 0.36 g of CTAB in 20-mL distilled water with continuous stirring for 30 min. To this solution, 3M HNO_3 (7.50 mL) was added and was placed in a microwave oven maintained at 150°C for 30 mins. The precipitate obtained was then collected and dried [43]. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were obtained between $2\theta = 10$ and 70° with the help of Bruker Miniflex 600 model. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to analyze the surface morphology of the samples using ZEISS EVO18 special edition. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was obtained using Philips CM 200. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was determined using a nonmonochromatic Al $K\alpha$ source (1486.6 eV) with a pass energy of 50.0 eV.

Electrochemical characterization and fabrication of supercapacitor electrodes

All the electrochemical measurements were carried out using BioLogic SP-150. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed in the frequency range of 10 mHz to 1 MHz and AC amplitude of 10 mV with respect to the open circuit potential. EIS measurements initially were performed in a three-electrode system—counter (Pt), reference (saturated calomel), and working electrodes (fabricated composite electrode). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) were performed in a two-electrode working setup.

Different weight ratio—1:1, 1:2, 1:3, 2:1, and 3:1, of AC and the MoO_3 , were mixed to form composites as given below. The ratio with lesser impedance was chosen for studying the further electrochemical properties. The procedure to fabricate the working electrode was as follows. AC/ MoO_3 , acetylene black, and binder mixture (poly (vinylidene fluoride) in N -methylpyrrolidone) were taken in 80:15:5 weight ratio and finely mixed to give a homogeneous slurry. This mixture was then coated on a stainless steel (SS) current collector of surface area 1 cm^2 and let to dry. This is taken to be the working electrode. The weight of the working electrode was maintained to be $\approx 5 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$. The assembly of two AC/ MoO_3 electrodes separated by polypropylene separator will be termed as symmetric supercapacitor electrode throughout whereas the assembly of AC electrode as positive and AC/ MoO_3 electrode as negative electrodes separated by the separator will be regarded as a hybrid supercapacitor. 1M Na_2SO_4 was chosen as the electrolyte for supercapacitor studies.

Preparation of the electrode for electrochemical HER work was done as follows. Initially, the AC was doped with nitrogen

through a hydrothermal method using urea as a dopant. This was termed as nitrogen-doped AC (NAC). This NAC was later annealed in the N_2 atmosphere at 800 °C for 2 h to create defects in the AC. This was labeled as DAC [40]. 1:1 weight ratio of NAC/MoO₃, DAC/MoO₃ composites was sonicated with 50- μ L Nafion and 250- μ L water for 30 min to ensure proper dispersion. This mixture was drop cast on the glassy carbon electrode. N_2 saturated 0.5-M H₂SO₄ electrolyte was chosen for HER in three-electrode systems using Ag/AgCl as a reference and Pt as a counter electrode.

Results and discussion

Figure 1a shows densely dispersed MoO₃ nanorods. These nanorods showed an irregularity in their size and shape. Figure 1b represents the XRD of MoO₃ and the pattern indicates the metastable hexagonal phase of MoO₃ (h-MoO₃). The compound has single crystalline hexagonal phase. No secondary impurity peaks that correspond to other polymorphs of MoO₃ were observed. The strong diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 10.35^\circ, 20.04^\circ, 26.3^\circ,$ and 29.9° are indexed to the (100), (200), (210), and (300) crystal phases of h-MoO₃ with reference to JCPDS-21-0569. To calculate the average crystallite size (τ) of the synthesized MoO₃, Scherrer's formula is used.

$$\tau = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos\theta}$$

K is the shape factor whose value is taken to be 0.9, λ is the x-ray wavelength, β is the line broadening at half the maximum intensity also known as the full width half maximum (FWHM), and θ is the Bragg angle. The average crystallite size was found to be ≈ 142 nm. The high-intensity peak was observed at 25.80° and is noticed to be sharp with slight broadening. This broadening of the highest intensity peak is due to the reduced crystallite size. When the particle size is reduced to the nanoscale, the ratio of the disordered atoms at the surface of particles with the ordered atoms in the center of

the nanoparticles is found to be higher than that in the bulk MoO₃. This is reflected as the broadening of the XRD peaks. In the h-MoO₃ phase, the tunnel along the c-direction probably contains water molecules or cations. These molecules or cations are bounded by 12 MoO₆ octahedra. These are linked in the zigzag chain fashion by sharing the corners and the corners align along the a, b directions [44]. The formation of metastable h-MoO₃ was affected by the solvent used, the concentration of HNO₃, and reaction time. The better crystallinity was observed when water was used as the solvent medium. The crystallite size was calculated to be 150 nm. Figure 1c corresponds to TEM images of MoO₃. Particles of 1D-rod shaped, stacked together to form a dense structure were observed. SAED was carried out to identify the crystal phase of the h-MoO₃. The hexagonal dot pattern was obtained, and the corresponding phases have also been identified in the SAED patterns [45–47]. The measured lattice spacing corresponds to (220), (210), (200), and (100) plane of h-MoO₃ that was found in a match with the obtained XRD data.

Supercapacitor studies of symmetric and hybrid electrodes

The frequency range of 10^3 – 10^5 Hz and potential of 10 mV with respect to open circuit potential were chosen to carry out the EIS measurements. In 5–10 mV, the system was linear, and for other potentials, the system was nonlinear. When the potential was increased from lower value to higher value, the tail of the impedance curve (Warburg) approached 90° . Pseudocapacitance nature dominated at a lower frequency with respect to the potential of the material. The R_{ct} value also decreased, when the applied potential was increased, due to the reduced length of diffusion [48]. All the ratios of AC/MoO₃ exhibited similar patterned impedance plots as shown in Fig. 2a. MoO₃ showed a very high resistance value of 4200 Ω whereas AC alone showed the much lesser resistance of 125 Ω . The prepared composites with different ratios of AC/MoO₃ namely, 1:1, 1:2, 1:3, 2:1, and 3:1 showed a resistance of 36, 365, 1356, 76, and 43 Ω , respectively.

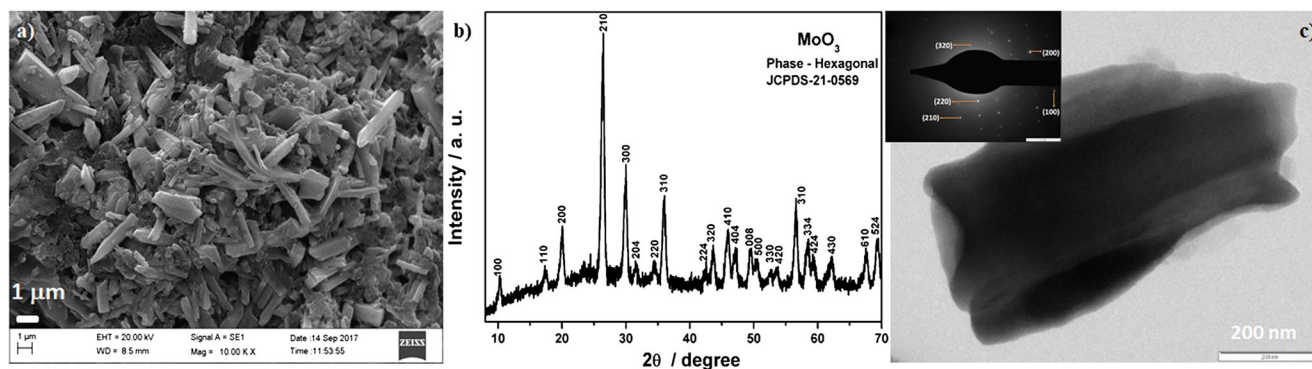


Fig. 1 MoO₃. a SEM image; b XRD results; c TEM image. Inset: electron diffraction pattern

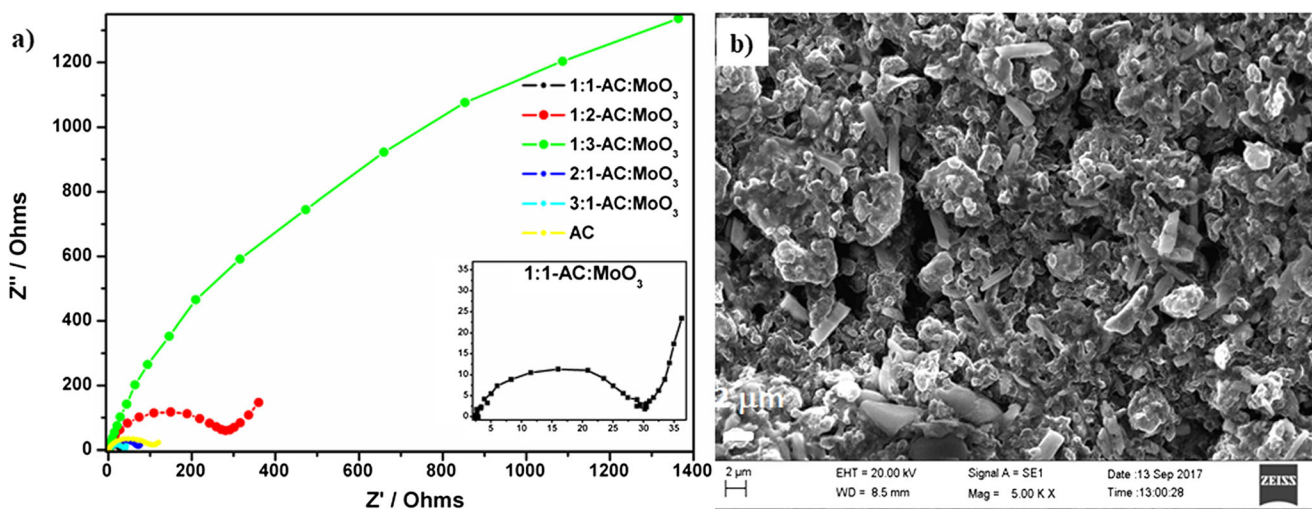


Fig. 2 AC/MoO₃ composites. **a** Nyquist plots of different ratios namely, 1:1, 1:2, 1:3, 2:1, and 3:1 of AC/MoO₃; **b** SEM images of 1:1 AC/MoO₃

Among the above, 1:1 AC/MoO₃ nanocomposite showed better performance with the lesser resistance of 36 Ω. Thus, the ratio 1:1 AC/MoO₃ was adjudged as the best composite and used for the fabrication of symmetric and hybrid supercapacitors.

To test the performance of both symmetric and hybrid supercapacitor electrodes, CV and GCD measurements were carried out. The CV and GCD profiles measured at a range of scan rates and current densities are shown in Figs. 3 a and 4 a and Figs. 3 b and 4 b, respectively. Figure 2b represents the SEM image of the 1:1 AC/MoO₃. The composites of AC/MoO₃ exhibit the morphological features of both AC and

MoO₃. Since the potential of MoO₃ was measured towards the negative potential range (−0.8 to 0.0 V) and that of AC towards the positive potential range (0 to 1.0 V), the operating cell voltage extended from −0.8 to 1.0 V for both the supercapacitors. A quasi-rectangular shape was observed, in this potential range, when the CV study was carried out (Figs. 3 a and 4 a). The double layer behavior of AC along with the pseudocapacitive behavior of MoO₃ is accountable for such a response. Due to the pseudocapacitive nature of MoO₃, there is a slight modification in the quasi-rectangular behavior as seen in Figs. 3 a and 4 a. It is noticeable that as the scan rates vary, the rectangular profile is retained, and this infers good

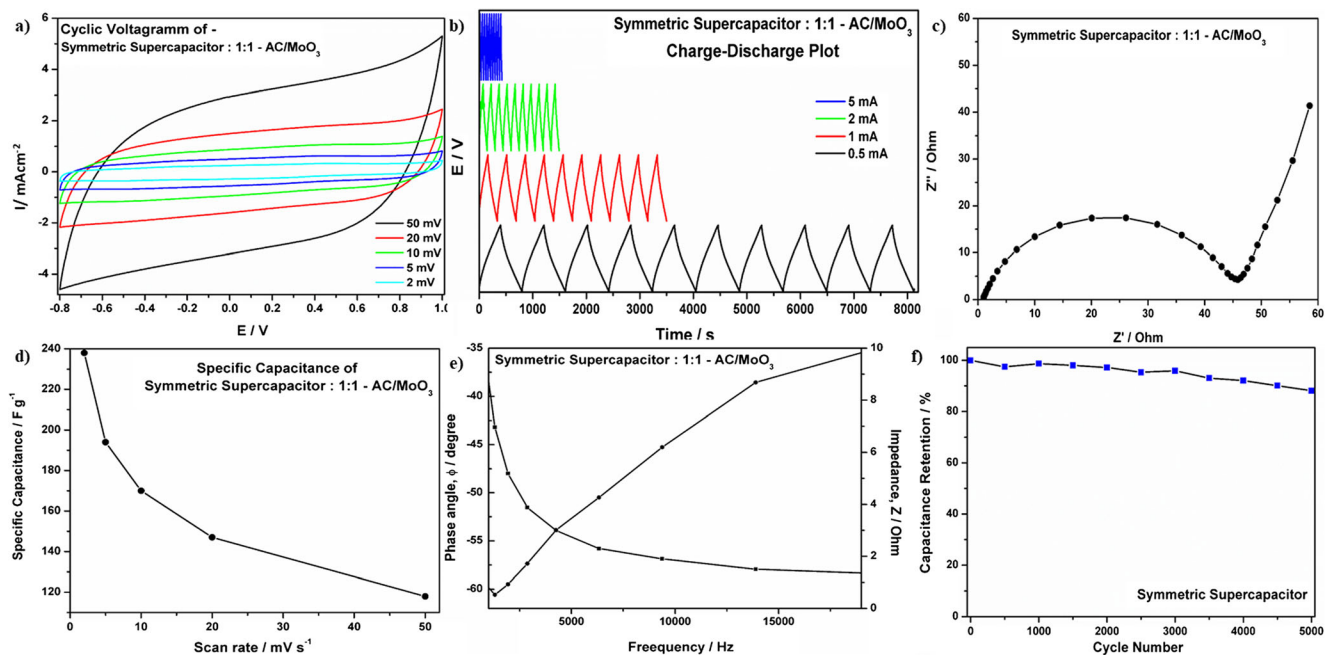


Fig. 3 Electrochemical properties of Symmetric Supercapacitors in 1-M Na₂SO₄. **a** CV curves recorded at different scan rates, **b** galvanostatic charge-discharge profile with different current densities, **c** Nyquist plot,

d specific capacitance at different scan rates, **e** time constant plot, and **f** capacitance retention over 5000 cycles

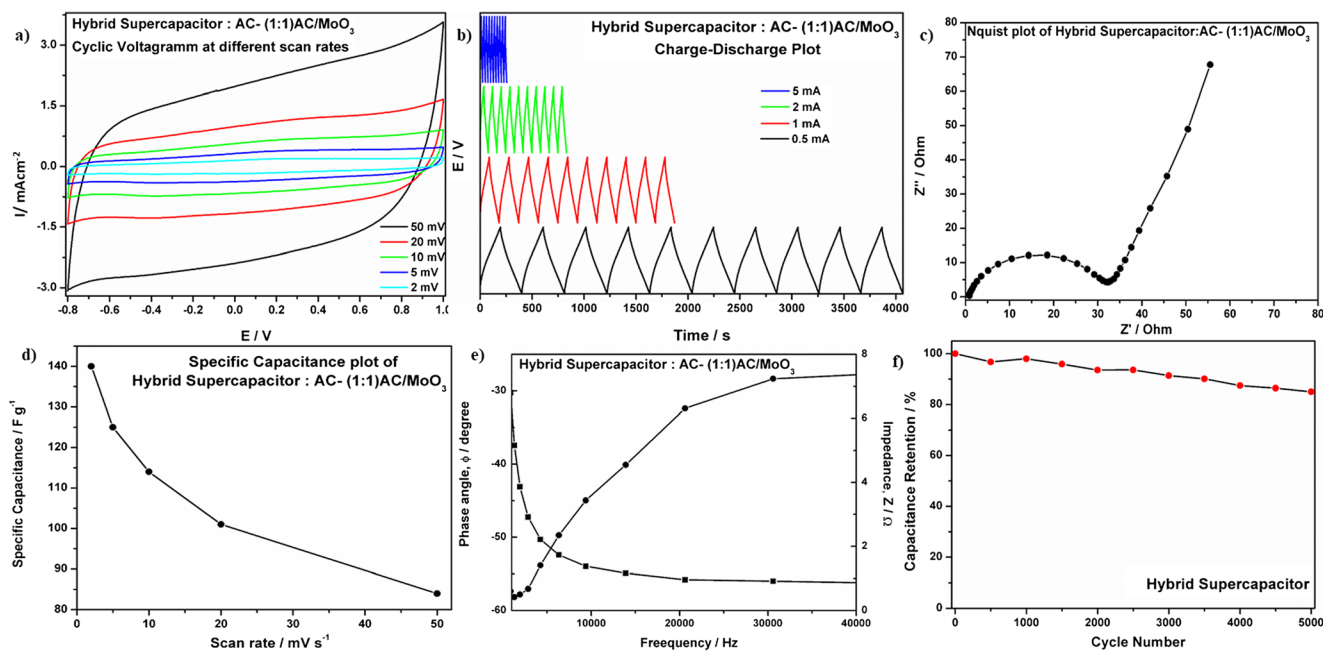


Fig. 4 Electrochemical properties of hybrid supercapacitors in 1-M Na₂SO₄. **a** CV curves recorded at different scan rates, **b** galvanostatic charge-discharge profile with different current densities, **c** Nyquist plot, **d** specific capacitance at different scan rates, **e** time constant plot, and **f** capacitance retention over 5000 cycles

specific capacitance and faster charge transferability of the composite material. Nyquist plots for both the supercapacitors are shown in Figs. 3c and 4c. A linear line at a lower frequency region represents lower charge transfer resistance and a pronounced capacitive nature with slight diffusion resistance, respectively. However, in the Nyquist plot for both symmetric and hybrid supercapacitors as shown in Figs. 3c and 4c, the arc in the high-frequency region is the contribution of the fast electron diffusion which further gives charge transfer resistance of the electrode material. In the high-frequency region, the reduced width of the arc is due to the shortened path for electron transport within the composite electrode material. The slope of the curve is termed as Warburg resistance and is observed due to the frequency dependence of ion diffusion/transport in the Na₂SO₄ to the electrode surface. The charge transfer resistance was calculated to be 45 Ω and the Warburg diffusion element (*Z_w*) was found to be equal to 59 Ω for symmetric supercapacitors. The SC (*C_S* in F g⁻¹) value from CV plot at various scan rates was calculated using the formula

$$C_S = \frac{2A}{\Delta V \times \nu \times m} \quad (1)$$

here *A* represents an integral area of CV loop, Δ*V* the potential window, ν the scan rate, and *m* represents the mass of the material at each electrode [49]. As shown in Figs. 3e and 4e, the SC decreases as the scan rate increases and a maximum value was obtained for 2 mVs⁻¹. When the current density is low, the electrolyte ions get sufficient time for complete movement throughout the surface of the electrode material. Hence,

the higher capacitance value is observed at lower current densities. Whereas, when the current density is higher, there occurs incomplete diffusion of electrolyte ions and hence the capacitance value decreases. The SC values of symmetric and hybrid supercapacitors were observed to be 238 and 140 F g⁻¹ at 2 mVs⁻¹, respectively. The supercapacitor performances of the AC/MoO₃ compared with those of the reported literature is summarized in Table 1. GCD plots of symmetric and hybrid supercapacitors at different current densities are shown in the Figs. 3b and 4b, respectively. During charging, there is an increase in the accumulation of charges, i.e., Na⁺ ions at the positive and SO₄⁻ at the negative electrode. There is an enhance in the potential difference. Once the capacitor is fully charged, the current passing through the circuit starts from a maximum value and then falls to 0. During the discharging process, as the current flows through the circuit the potential difference between the plates decreases. The plates individually attain electrical neutrality. The schematic representation of charge/discharge is shown below.

A very minute IR drop was observed in the GCD plots as shown in Figs. 3b and 4b. And also, the shape of the profile is symmetric and a nonlinear triangular. The nonlinearity of the discharge curve is evident for good capacitive behavior. Also, the profile accounts for the nearly ideal charging/discharging performance with good reversibility of the electrode material. It is due to the weak van der Waals forces that stack the several sheets together to form irregular morphology. The space between these sheets helps in the electrolyte ion intercalation and deintercalation during charging and discharging of MoO₃

Table 1 Comparison of supercapacitor performance of the present work with the literature

Material	Specific capacitance	Energy density (W h kg ⁻¹)	Power density (W kg ⁻¹)	References
α-MoO ₃ nanorods	30 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M H ₂ SO ₄	17	425	[25]
AC/H ₂ Ti _{11.85} Nb _{0.15} O ₂₅	78.4 F g ⁻¹ in 1.5-M LiBF ₄	24.3	1794.6	[29]
Carbon/AlPO ₄ hybrid-coated H ₂ Ti ₁₂ O ₂₅ /AC	58.19 F g ⁻¹ in 1.5-M LiPF ₆ solution in 1:1 ethylene carbonate: dimethyl carbonate	46.3	12,223.9	[30]
Granule Li ₄ Ti ₅ O ₁₂ /AC	46.4 F g ⁻¹ in 1.5-M LiPF ₆ solution in 1:1 ethylene carbonate: dimethyl carbonate	—	—	[31]
MoO ₃ /C matrix	179 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M H ₂ SO ₄	—	—	[35]
MoO ₃ nanodots/MWCNTs	103 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M LiClO ₄ in propylene carbonate	36.57	1870	[37]
PANI nanotubes/MoO ₃ nanobelts	518 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M H ₂ SO ₄	71.9	254	[50]
Branchlike MoO ₃ /polypyrrole	129 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M Na ₂ SO ₄	—	—	[51]
MoO ₃ /C	331 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M H ₂ SO ₄	41.2	12,000	[52]
Graphene/MoO ₃ nanospheres//graphene/MoO ₃ nanosheets	307 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M Na ₂ SO ₄	42.6	276	[53]
h-MoO ₃ microrods	194 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M Na ₂ SO ₄	7.33	1200	[54]
α-MoO ₃ nanobelts	369 F g ⁻¹ in 0.5-M Li ₂ SO ₄	—	—	—
α-MoO ₃ nanoplates	280 F g ⁻¹ in 0.5-M Li ₂ SO ₄	—	—	—
α-MoO ₃ nanowires	110 F g ⁻¹ in 0.5-M Li ₂ SO ₄	—	—	—
α-MoO ₃ nanorods	30 F g ⁻¹ in 0.5-M Li ₂ SO ₄	—	—	[55]
MoO ₃ nanosheets	540 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M LiClO ₄ in propylene carbonate	—	—	[35]
AC/MoO ₃	225 F g ⁻¹ in 1-M Na ₂ SO ₄	27	225	Present Work

electrodes. Additionally, the 1-D morphology of MoO₃ also contributes to the faster electron transport, resulting in the enhanced SC.

The SC (C_S in F g⁻¹) from the charge-discharge plot was calculated using the below formula,

$$C_S' = \frac{I\Delta t}{\Delta V m} \quad (2)$$

I represents the current density and Δt is the discharge time. 2 mA/cm² owes to a maximum SC and the capacitance value reduced as the current density increased. The SC calculated from charge-discharge profile was found to be 156 and 128 F g⁻¹ for symmetric and hybrid supercapacitors, respectively. The charge transfer resistance calculated was 31 Ω and the Warburg diffusion element (Z_w) observed for hybrid supercapacitors was 56 Ω. From the results obtained, it is evident that the symmetric supercapacitors gave a higher SC than that of the hybrid supercapacitors.

Figures 3 e and 4e show normalized imaginary part or the reactive power $|Q|/|S|$ (impedance) and active part or the active power $|P|/|S|$ (phase angle) of the complex power versus frequency plot. The time constants for the symmetric and hybrid supercapacitor were calculated from these plots. As the frequency was decreased, $|Q|/|S|$ increased, reaching a maximum power. In the lower frequency region, the supercapacitor behaved like a pure capacitor. The normalized active power corresponds to the power dissipated into the system. At a lower

frequency region, i.e., when the supercapacitor behaved as the pure capacitor, the maximum of the $|Q|/|S|$ was reached. The two plots cross over when $|P| = |Q|$, i.e., when $\varphi = 45^\circ$ that in turn corresponds to the time constant τ_0 . The time constant calculated was 1.6 ms. This indicates that the present system highly efficient at lower frequencies [56, 57].

The energy density (E in W h kg⁻¹) and the power density (P in W kg⁻¹) were calculated from the following equations:

$$E = \frac{1}{2} C_S (\Delta V)^2 \quad (3)$$

$$P = \frac{E}{\Delta t} \quad (4)$$

$$ESR = \frac{iR_{\text{drop}}}{2 \times I} \quad (5)$$

where C_S is the SC, ΔV represents the potential window, Δt is the discharge time after iR_{drop} . Five thousand cycles from charge-discharge at a current density of 10 mA was performed to check the stability of the electrode material. Of the initial capacitance, ~87 and 85% were retained for symmetric and hybrid supercapacitors respectively even after 5000 cycles. The SC calculated from cyclic voltammetry and charge/discharge, the energy density, power density, and ESR values calculated from charge/discharge plot for both AC/MoO₃ symmetric and hybrid supercapacitor performance is summarized in Table 2.

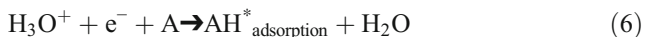
Table 2 Summary of the calculated values of specific capacitance, ESR, charge transfer resistance, energy density and power density of symmetric, and hybrid supercapacitors

Type	Specific capacitance from CV (F g ⁻¹)	Specific capacitance from GCD (F g ⁻¹)	ESR (Ω)	Charge transfer resistance (Ω)	Energy density (W h kg ⁻¹)	Power density (W kg ⁻¹)
Symmetric supercapacitor	238	156	0.974	45	27	225
Hybrid supercapacitor	140	128	0.885	31	13	200

Hydrogen evolution reaction (HER)

The total hydrogen evolution reaction, in acidic medium (H₂SO₄) on DAC/MoO₃ surface (A), can be written as follows,

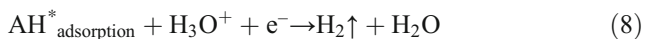
Step I: Volmer reaction—wherein electrochemical adsorption of hydrogen takes place on the DAC/MoO₃ composite surface. The surface provides an electron giving an intermediate adsorbed state on the surface.



Step II: Tafel reaction—a combination



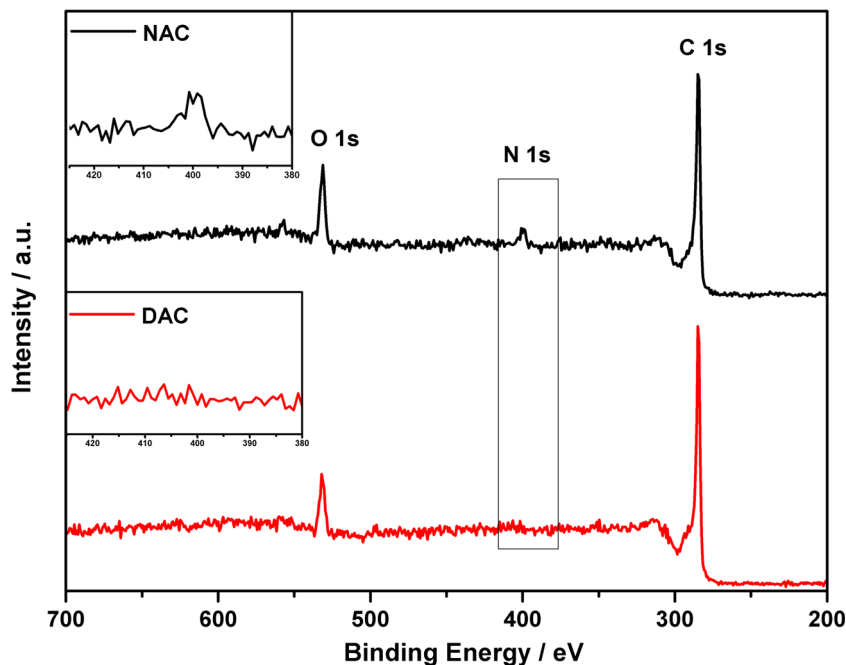
Step III: Heyrovsky reaction—desorption of H₂



where the * denotes a site on the surface and H* denotes a hydrogen atom adsorbed on the surface. Based on the

calculated value of overpotential, HER follows either Tafel (step II) or Heyrovsky (step III) [58]. Figure 6b shows the LSV for HER for different composites. The calculated current density was 76 mA cm⁻². The potential range of 0.0 to -0.4 V was chosen to carry out HER. The DAC used in the composite material owes to the nonlinearity of the Tafel slope. The onset potential was found to be -0.19 V for DAC/MoO₃. The Tafel slope value calculated from LSV was -92 mV dec⁻¹ for DAC/MoO₃ and -110 mV dec⁻¹ for NAC/MoO₃ nanocomposites and that for MoO₃ was found to be -176 mV dec⁻¹. The experimental overpotential value for DAC/MoO₃ was found to be, -50.2 mV dec⁻¹ at a current density of 10 mA cm⁻². The rate-determining step for HER can be identified using the Tafel slope values, that correspond to above mentioned steps (7 and 8)—Tafel, Heyrovsky reactions. In step I, the Volmer reaction is taken to be the rate-controlling step of HER. In a particular set of conditions, a slope of 120 mV dec⁻¹ is obtained in this step. If the reaction proceeds through steps II and III, the Tafel slope values of 30 or 40 mV dec⁻¹ will be detected. Complete H₂ molecule evolution does not proceed through a single step but instead

Fig. 5 XPS spectra of NAC and DAC



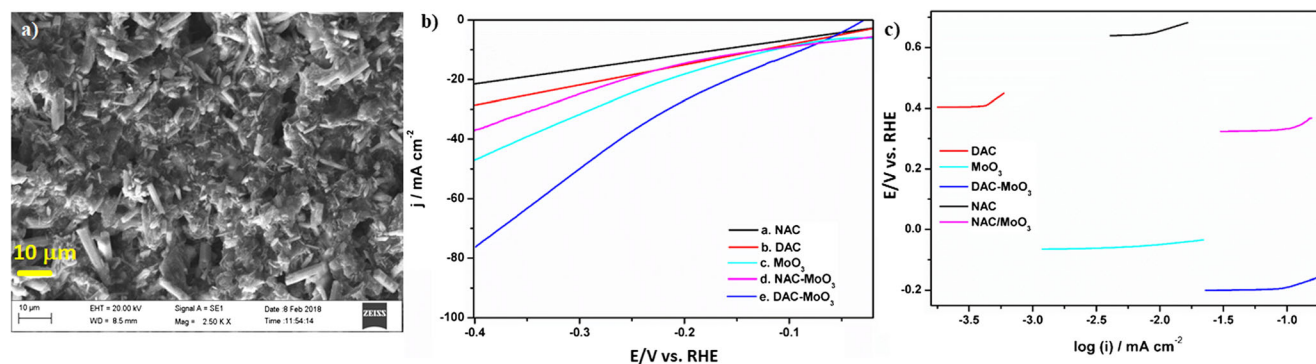


Fig. 6 a SEM images of DAC/MoO₃, b polarization curves evaluating the HER performance of DAC/MoO₃, and c current density vs overvoltage plot

proceeds through Volmer-Heyrovsky mechanism or Volmer–Tafel mechanism. In the present study, the results obtained shows that the HER from DAC/MoO₃ nanocomposites follows Volmer-Heyrovsky mechanism. The lesser value of the Tafel slope for DAC/MoO₃ nanocomposite material displays better hydrogen evolution at the electrode surface. The defective sites mainly contribute to this enhancement [20]. When the activated carbon (AC) is doped with nitrogen and further when this doped nitrogen is dedoped through high-temperature annealing (800 °C) under the N₂ atmosphere, there are defective sites observed due to the removal of nitrogen atoms [40]. From the XPS plots shown in Fig. 5, two common peaks for both NAC and DAC are noticeable. The first common peak appears at ≈ 285 eV that corresponds to the 1s C. While the next peak appears at ≈ 530 eV and corresponds to 1s O. However, the peak at ≈ 400 is observed only in NAC which corresponds to 1s N. This is due to the doped N in NAC which disappears in the case of DAC wherein the N is been removed to create defective sites [41, 59]. In addition to the defects on AC, the distribution of MoO₃ over AC greatly influence the reduction of Tafel slope value. The 1-D morphology of MoO₃ is an additional advantage to enhance the electrochemical activity. These facilitate the electron transport along the nanorod axis, i.e., electrons are thus confined in one direction. This can also act as a driving force for faster electron movement and thus enhances electroactivity. The interconnected network of uniformly distributed MoO₃ on the DAC (Fig. 6a) thus facilitates the fast electron transport in the DAC.

Table 3 Electrocatalytic performance of the electrocatalyst towards HER

Electrocatalyst	Onset potential (V vs Ag/AgCl)	Tafel slope (mV/dec)	Overpotential (mV/dec)
DAC/MoO ₃	−0.19	−92	−50.2

The reduction in the Tafel slope value of DAC, compared with that of DAC/MoO₃ shows that MoO₃ contributes towards HER in DAC/MoO₃ nanocomposites. While in the case of HER, 100 cyclic voltammetry cycles were run at a scan rate of 10 mV s^{−1} to check the stability of the electrode material. The material was stable upto 100 cycles in the acidic medium and maintains good HER. Table 3 summarizes the electrocatalytic properties of DAC/MoO₃, towards HER. The results suggested that the composite is a potential material for hydrogen evolution in the acidic medium. Activated carbon is a sluggish material towards electrochemical hydrogen evolution and does not show significant HER activity even when composited with electrochemically active MoO₃. But when defects are formed in activated carbon, the material exhibits enhanced HER, which very clearly indicates the active role of defects in the process.

Conclusion

In summary, here we report the synthesis of hexagonal phase MoO₃ via a simple and faster microwave synthesis route. The composite materials of AC/MoO₃ show the excellent performance as symmetric and hybrid supercapacitors. The fabricated symmetric supercapacitor exhibited a higher SC of 238 F g^{−1}, power density of 225 W kg^{−1} at a current density of 1 mA than compared to hybrid supercapacitor SC of 140 F g^{−1}, power density 200 W kg^{−1}. The material also has a large potential window of 1.8 V. The prepared DAC/MoO₃ composite showed a Tafel slope of 92 mV dec^{−1} for hydrogen evolution reaction. Hence, AC/MoO₃ and DAC/MoO₃ composites can be considered as a potential next-generation materials for supercapacitor and hydrogen evolution reaction.

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