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Microstructure and hydrogen storage properties of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x=0~15) alloys



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HIGHLIGHTS

 \bullet Bulk $Ti_{10+x}V_{80\text{-}x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) are directly used into the activation.

 \bullet The incubation time for activation for $\mathrm{Ti}_{15}V_{75}Fe_{6}Zr_{4}$ is only 12 s.

• The substitution of Ti for V within 10 at.% enhances the absorption capacity.

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ABSTRACT

The microstructure and hydrogen storage properties of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) alloys have been studied. XRD and SEM analyses show that all alloys consist of a BCC main phase and a small fraction of C14 Laves secondary phase, in which the latter precipitates along the grain boundary of the former becoming network structure. With increasing Ti content in the alloy, the lattice parameter and cell volume of the BCC main phase of the alloy increase. The chemical composition of each phase is analysed by EDS, from which the lattice parameters of BCC phase have a good linear relationship with their average atomic radii. All bulk alloys have good activation behaviors and hydriding kinetics. With the increase of Ti content, the incubation time for activation decreases first and then increases under an initial hydrogen pressure of 4 MPa at 298 K. The incubation time of $Ti_{15}V_{75}Fe_6Zr_4$ alloy is only 12 s. It is one of the shortest incubation time in V-based solid solution alloys as far as we know, which may be related to the existence of C14 Laves phase. All the alloys have relatively high hydrogen absorption capacities of above 3 wt%, which increase first and then decrease as the Ti content increases, achieving the maximum capacity of 3.61 wt % at x = 10 at 298 K. With increasing x, the equilibrium plateau pressure of dehydrogenation of the samples at 353 K decreases owing to the expansion of unit cell of main phase, which is far below 0.1 MPa for x = 10 and 15. The maximum desorption capacity of 1.94 wt%

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(desorbed to 0.001 MPa) is obtained at x = 5, compared to that of 1.6 wt% (desorbed to 0.1 MPa) achieved at x = 0.

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Introduction

Energy is the lifeblood of national economy and the source of human social activities. Clean environment is the basis of sustainable development of human society. Among various categories of new energy carriers, hydrogen is regarded as one of the most promising energy due to nearly no pollutant emission. Compared with the liquid and gaseous hydrogen storage, storing hydrogen in a solid state has advantages in security and high volumetric capacity.

In the latest research, hydrogen storage properties of different types of materials were reported in literature [1-3], such as AB₃₄₂-type La-Y-Ni based alloy, La₂Mg₁₇/Ni system and AlH₃. However, For AB_{3.42}-type La-Y-Ni based alloys, only the low temperature electrochemical properties are studied through element substitution and surface treatment, while the gas-solid hydrogen storage characteristics were not mentioned. For La₂Mg₁₇/Ni system, Although hydrogen storage capacities and cycle stabilities of La2Mg17/Ni system increased due to special surface stratified configuration, dehydrogenation temperatures were still too high (above 550 K). AlH₃ contains a high volumetric and gravimetric energy density, but direct hydrogenation of bulk Al into AlH3 requires hydrogen pressures as high as several GPas and the reversibility of nanoconfined AlH₃ also needs to be further confirmed. Consequently, the alloys mentioned above are far from practical application.

V-based solid solution alloys have been widely concerned for their theoretical hydrogen storage capacity of about 3.8 wt % [4,5] and good dynamic performance. Nevertheless, the disadvantages of difficult in activation, high cost and low hydrogen release at ambient temperature restrict the practical application of the alloys.

A large number of studies have demonstrated that multialloying could effectively improve the comprehensive properties of V-based hydrogen storage alloy [4,6-20]. Challet et al. [7] studied the structure and hydrogen storage performance of $(Ti_{0.355}V_{0.645})_{100-x}Fe_x$ (x = 7, 14), of which the hydrogen absorption capacity at 298 K was 3.95 wt% and 3.8 wt% respectively. The reversible capacity of (Ti0.355-V_{0.645})₉₃Fe₇ alloy is only 0.33 wt% at 298 K. When the temperature rises to 573 K, the reversible capacity suddenly rises to 3.18 wt%. Our previous study found that the addition of Zr element can significantly improve the activation performance of Ti-V-Fe hydrogen storage alloy and the optimal overall hydrogen storage performance is obtained for Ti10- $V_{80}Fe_6Zr_4$ [9]. On the basis of this study, the microstructure and hydrogen storage performance of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) system alloys were investigated systematically in this paper for reducing the alloy cost (the price of Ti is much lower compared with V) and further improving its overall hydrogen storage performance.

Experimental

The $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) alloy samples were prepared by levitation induction melting under argon atmosphere and remelted for four times to ensure high homogeneity. All starting elemental metals of V, Ti, Zr and Fe have purity higher than 99%. The crystal structures of the samples were studied by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using Cu K α radiation. The morphology and elemental distribution of the samples were examined by using a scanning electron microscope (SEM) and an energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDS), respectively.

For activation measurement, a bulk sample with 4 g was loaded in a reactor and evacuated for 15 min at 298 K using a rotary pump, then high-purity hydrogen was introduced gradually into the reactor up to 4 MPa for the hydriding process. Activation refers to the process in which the sample reaches its maximum hydrogen absorption capacity. Then, the reactor was evacuated for 30 min at 673 K for the next hydriding process. In this study, the hydrogen absorption capacity is defined as the hydrogen content under a pressure of 4 MPa at 298 K. Hydrogen storage behaviors were conducted on a Sievert's type apparatus (MH-008), which performed well in air tightness.



Fig. 1 – XRD patterns of as-cast $\text{Ti}_{10+x}\text{V}_{80\text{-}x}\text{Fe}_6\text{Zr}_4$ (x = 0~15) alloys.

Results and discussion

Microstructure

The XRD patterns of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) alloys are shown in Fig. 1. All alloys are composed of V-based BCC main phase and a small amount of C14 Laves secondary phase, of which diffraction peaks are not noticeable in the patterns due to the relatively low abundance. With the increase of Ti content, the diffraction peaks of the BCC phase shift to the left (low angle direction), due to the larger atomic radius of Ti (1.47 Å) than that of V (1.32 Å). The increase of Ti content in the alloy would increase the lattice parameter and cell volume of the BCC phase. The crystal characteristics of the BCC phases and phase abundance of each phase in the alloys are determined by Rietveld refinement and the results are listed in Tables 1 and 2.

The SEM micrographs of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) alloys are shown in Fig. 2. It can be seen that all of these alloys are made up of a main phase (dark region) and a secondary phase (bright region). The secondary phase precipitates along the grain boundary of the main phase and forms a network structure. Evidently, the amount of dark region for each alloy is much higher than that of bright region. Therefore, it is reasonable for this type of alloys to deduce that the dark region is the BCC main phase and the bright region is the C14 Laves secondary phase through SEM observation together with XRD analysis (Fig. 1), which is in good agree with literature [6,21–23].

However, it seems that the network of bright phase in the alloys with x = 0 and 15 is quite connected, while it is discrete for x = 5 and 10. The reason is probably the variation of cooling rate within the ingot during solidification, resulting in the formation of equiaxed or columnar grain for main phase [24]. It is well known that equiaxed structure is supposed to be uncompacted enough after solidification, which would easily leads to intergranular precipitation of the bright phase as observed in Fig. 2(a) and (d). On the contrary, the relatively high compactness of the columnar structure may make the intergranular precipitation slightly more difficult as displayed in Fig. 2(b) and (c). On this account, the variation in relative amount of secondary phase with Ti content is difficult to estimate from these SEM images, compared with the determination of phase abundance by Rietveld refinement from XRD patterns.

The EDS mappings of $Ti_{15}V_{75}Fe_6Zr_4$ alloy are shown in Fig. 3. It can be seen that the difference of Ti content in BCC and C14 Laves phase is not obvious, and the content of Fe in C14 Laves phase is slightly higher than that in BCC phase. While the distribution of V in BCC phase is much higher than that in C14 Laves phase. In sharp contrast, Zr element is almost completely distributed in C14 Laves phase with

Table 1 – The crystal characteristics of BCC phase of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80\text{-}x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0~15) alloys.											
Sample (x)	0	5	10	15							
Lattice parameter, a (nm) Cell volume, V (nm ³)	0.30437 0.02820	0.30617 0.02870	0.30761 0.02911	0.30786 0.02918							

Table 2 – The J Ti _{10+x} V _{80-x} Fe ₆ Z	phase abun r_4 (x = 0~15	dance (wt.%) 5) alloys.	of each ph	ase in
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Sample (x)	0	5	10	15
BCC	92.62	86.8	88.7	92.3
C14	7.38	13.2	11.2	7.7

depletion in BCC phase. It seems that BCC phase could not accommodate the Zr, forcing the formation of C14 Laves phase. This finding is in line with literature [9,11,13,16,24–26].

The EDS results of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) alloys are presented in Table 3, and the elemental distribution in the two phases of each alloy is basically consistent with the EDS mapping results of $Ti_{15}v_{75}Fe_6Zr_4$ alloy.

Based on the data presented in Tables 1 and 3, the variations of lattice parameter and average atomic radius of BCC phase with Ti content are plotted in Fig. 4. It can be seen that the lattice parameter increases linearly with the rise in Ti content from x = 0 to x = 10 as well as that in average atomic radius. However, as the Ti content further increases to x = 15, the increase in the lattice parameter is not linear with the increase in Ti content but distinctly smaller than that of the linear tendency, which may be attributed to the similar change in the average atomic radius. Meanwhile, the lattice parameter is plotted as a function of the average atomic radius in Fig. 5, in which a linear relationship between the lattice parameter and average atomic radius of the BCC phase in the alloys is evident, further confirming the variation law displayed in Fig. 4.

Activation behaviors and hydrogen absorption/desorption properties

The activation hydriding curves of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) alloys are shown in Fig. 6. It is found that all the alloys have been activated in the first hydrogenation process. The incubation times of all the alloys are listed in Table 4. With the increase of Ti content, the incubation time of the alloy decreases first and then increases, achieving the minimum value of 12 s for the alloy with x = 5, which indicates that the best activation performance of the alloy is obtained at x = 5. It also can be seen that all the alloys achieve the maximum capacities within a short time after the incubation period, reflecting the remarkable hydriding kinetics.

It was reported that the C14 Laves phase (secondary phase) is responsible for the easy activation of the V-based alloys [11,13,26]. In this study, as displayed in Table 2, the phase abundance of C14 Laves phase increases first and then decreases, attaining the maximum content of 13.2 wt% at x = 5. It could well explain why the alloy with x = 5 shows the best activation performance.

For the activation of V-based solid solution alloys, it is common for the alloys to withstand the harsh pretreatment (high pressure and high temperature) [27,28]. However, the alloys in this study could complete the activation during the first hydrogenaiton with the incubation time of no more than 34 min, which were only subjected to the pretreatment of evacuation of 15 min at 298 K. Even then, the activation behaviors are also enhanced to certain extent, compared to incubation times of 1600 s and 120 min for Ti-32 V-10Cr-18Mn



Fig. 2 – SEM images of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0~15) alloys. (a) x=0; (b) x=5; (c) x=10; (d) x=15.

[29] and 52Ti-12 V-36Cr alloy with additive of 2.2 wt% Zr [13], respectively. From practical application point of view, the activation of the hydrogen storage alloys under moderate conditions would be more desirable.

The maximum hydrogen absorption capacities of the studied alloys at 298 K are presented in Table 5. It can be seen that the electron/atom ratio of the alloys are all less than the critical value of 5.1 [5,11], bringing about relatively high absorption capacities of above 3 wt%. With the increase of x from 0 to 15, the maximum hydrogen absorption capacity of the alloy increases first and then decreases, which are 3.4 wt%, 3.5 wt%, 3.61 wt% and 3.18 wt%, respectively, indicating that the increase of Ti content can increase the hydrogen absorption capacity to a certain extent, however, the absorption capacity will reduce if the Ti content is too high. This phenomenon may be interpreted that the increase in the capacity is related to the expansion of the lattice whose effect is dominant over that of the reduction in V content as displayed in Fig. 4, in which the rise in lattice parameter is linear with the increase of Ti content from x = 0 to x = 10. However, the extent of increase in lattice parameter distinctly declines from x = 10 to x = 15, of which influence is dominated by the decrease in V content, possibly bringing about the reduction in the capacity.

Fig. 7 shows cyclic absorption curves of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) alloys at 298 K. It can be seen that hydrogenabsorbing rate of the 2nd to 5th cycles for all the alloys are enhanced compared with that of the 1st cycle (also shown in Fig. 6) and the saturated capacity is obtained within 3 min.

Yu et al. [29] reported that variation of hydrogen absorption rate of was attributed to difference in affinities of constituent elements with H in the first hydrogenation for Ti-xV-10Cr-(50-x)Mn (x = 20, 24, 28 and 32) alloys without exposure to air before activation and nearly no incubation time was observed, whereas the incubation times of 700–1600 s are observed for the alloys exposed to air before activation. However, the analysis on activation mechanism seems to be insufficient and cyclic absorption kinetics for these alloys was not addressed. Priyanka et al. [16] revealed that the higher hydrogenation rate of Ti_{0.43}Zr_{0.07}Cr_{0.25}V_{0.25} in the initial stage could be attributed to the higher driving force due to large difference between the initial pressure and the equilibrium pressure at the beginning. However, the higher driving force mentioned above is an external test condition during the hydrogenation and the intrinsic absorption kinetics of the V-based alloys were not reported. Amol et al. [13] put forward that shorter incubation time meant giving faster intrinsic kinetics, the reason for which was also not mentioned. It should be noted that only the first hydrogenation was reported in these work. While in this study, the five cyclic absorption processes of the alloys have been investigated as displayed in Fig. 7.

It is interesting that nearly no incubation time of Ti-xV-10Cr-(50-x)Mn (x = 20, 24, 28 and 32) alloys was observed without exposure to air before activation, while distinct incubation period of 52Ti-12 V-36Cr with or without Zr addition was observed. Hence, in our opinion, for the V-based alloys with BCC and C14 Laves phases without exposure to air before activation, the incubation time should be controlled by the difficulty of formation of new cracks in the alloys, which is supposed to be associated with the C14 Laves phase because new cracks are more easily formed inside the C14 Laves phase at the initial stage of activation due to its higher brittleness than BCC phase [29,30].





Table 3 – EDS analysis results of each element of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80\text{-}x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0~15) alloys.									
х	Phase	_	Composi	tion(at%)					
		Ti	V	Fe	Zr				
0	BCC	6.98	88.42	4	0.6				
	C14	16.7	42.35	13.88	27.07				
5	BCC	11.37	83.32	4.12	1.19				
	C14	15.01	42.3	15.53	27.15				
10	BCC	19.03	74.99	4.71	1.26				
	C14	19.42	46.52	12.77	21.3				
15	BCC	20.78	73.31	4.71	1.2				
	C14	20.88	37.33	16.04	25.75				

From the viewpoint of practical application, the alloys in this study are exposed to air before activation. In this case, the incubation time of the alloys should be affected by the formation of oxide film on the alloy surface besides the factor of new cracks. During the activation process, once the chain



Fig. 4 – Functions of lattice parameter and average atomic radius of the BCC phase as x in $Ti_{10+x}V_{80\cdot x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0~15) alloys.



Fig. 5 – Relationship of lattice parameters and average atomic radius of the BCC phases in $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0~15) alloys.



Fig. 6 – Activation hydriding curves of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0~15) alloys at 298 K.

Table 4 – The incubation time of $\text{Ti}_{10+x}\text{V}_{80\text{-}x}\text{Fe}_{6}\text{Zr}_{4}$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) alloys.										
Ti content	<i>x</i> = 0	x = 5	x = 10	x = 15						
Incubation time(s)	1620	12	249	2019						

reaction of formation of new cracks launches, hydrogenabsorbing rate of the alloys will be high as shown in Fig. 6 and literature [13]. Furthermore, as displayed in Fig. 7, hydrogen-absorbing rate of the 2nd to 5th cycles for each alloy seems more rapid than that of the 1st cycle due to the existing cracks after the 1st cycle. This further confirms the excellent intrinsic absorption kinetics of the BCC phase. On the other hand, compared with the 1st cycle, the hydrogenation of the 2nd to 5th cycles for each alloy is absent of incubation time, owing to the elimination of impact of oxide film on incubation time also caused by the existing cracks after the 1st cycle. This could well confirm the activation mechanism mentioned above for the oxidized alloys. In addition, the variation in hydrogen-absorbing rate of the 2nd to 5th cycles representing the intrinsic absorption kinetics of the BCC phase with increasing Ti content is not obvious, which indicates that the substitution of Ti for V would not change its good intrinsic absorption kinetics.

It is also revealed in Fig. 7 that the measured hydrogen absorption capacity reduces with cycling for all the alloys and the capacity attenuation rates are 93.5%, 87.1%, 87.0%, 87.2% at the 5th cycle for x = 0, 5, 10,15, respectively. It should be noted that BCC alloys have a large hydrogen solid solution range at low pressure [31], resulting in the existence of residual hydrogen in the hydrogenated samples even undergoing the evacuation for 30 min at 673 K. Thus, the attenuation of measured absorption capacity could not directly represent the hydrogen content change in the alloy [32].

Fig. 8 shows the desorption PCI curves of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0–15) samples at 353 K. The equilibrium plateau pressure (P_{eq}) is obtained from the midpoint of desorption isotherm plateau and the slope factor (S_f) is commonly expressed as:

$$S_f = \frac{d(\ln P)}{d(H/M)}$$

 $S_{\rm f}$ reflects the steepness of the plateau.

The data of the PCI characteristics are summarized in Table 5. Here, the desorption capacity is defined as the amount of hydrogen desorbed when hydrogen pressure reduced from 3 to 0.001 MPa at 353 K.

With increasing x, the plateau pressure decreases drastically as displayed in Fig. 8. The plateau pressure is supposed to be related to cell volume of BCC and the distance between neighbouring hydrogen atoms [6,29]. Macroscopically, the expansion in cell volume of BCC phase in this study leads to a increase in volume of hydrogen absorbed in unit cell, theoretically bringing about a decrease in the decomposition pressure at a fixed hydrogen content and temperature according to ideal gas law. Additionally, the hydrogen desorption capacity increases first and then decreases, achieving the maximum at x = 5 and minimum at x = 15, corresponding to the similar change of the plateau width. Besides the plateau width, S_f is another important parameter to illuminate the plateau performance of hydrogen desorption. As seen in Table 5, S_f decreases first and then increases with increasing x,

Tab	Table 5 $-$ The hydrogen storage characteristics of ${ m Ti}_{10+x}{ m V}_{ m 80-x}{ m Fe}_{ m 6}{ m Zr}_4$ (x $=$ 0~15) alloys.									
х	Electron-to-atom Ratio	Maximum hydrogen absorption capacity at 298 K/(wt.%)	Hydrogen desorption capacity (desorbed to 0.001 MPa) at 353 K/(wt.%)	Equilibrium plateau pressure P _{eq} at 353 K (MPa)	Slope factor (S _f)					
0	5.04	3.40%	1.88%	0.511	2.57					
5	4.99	3.50%	1.94%	0.170	1.81					
10	4.94	3.61%	1.54%	0.040	2.75					
15	4.89	3.18%	1.35%	0.012	4.16					



Fig. 7 – Cyclic absorption curves of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0~15) alloys at 298 K. (a) x = 0; (b) x = 5; (c) x = 10; (d) x = 15.



Fig. 8 – Desorption PCI curves of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80\text{-}x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0~15) samples at 353 K.

obtaining the minimum at x = 5 and maximum at x = 15, which may be resulted from the variation in strain energy of interstitial site in the alloys [29,33]. Combining S_f, plateau pressure and desorption capacity, it could be valuably found that the sample with x = 5 shows the best overall PCI performance.

From the point of view of practical application, the hydrogen capacities of the $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0-15) samples desorbed to 0.1 MPa at different temperatures were measured and the results are shown in Fig. 9. The hydrogen desorption capacity of the sample with x = 0 increases significantly with the increase in temperature, from 0.15 wt%



Fig. 9 – The hydrogen capacities of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0~15) samples desorbed to 0.1 MPa at different temperatures.

at 298 K to 1.6 wt% at 353 K. In deep contrast, the desorption capacities of the samples with $x \ge 10$ remain low from 298 K to 333 K. Hence, it is necessary to investigate the phase structure and the state of hydrogen for dehydrided samples.

For comparison, XRD patterns of the hydrogenated samples at 298 K and those desorbed to 0.1 MPa at 333 K have been presented in Fig. 10. All the hydrogenated samples show the similarity in respect of XRD patterns (Fig. 10(a)), indicating the existence of VH₂-based FCC main phase and minor phases such as VH_{0.81}-based BCT phase, TiH-based phase and ZrH-based phase.



Fig. 10 – XRD patterns of $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ samples (a) hydrogenated at 298 K and (b) after dehydrogenation to 0.1 MPa at 333 K.

Table 6 – A comparison of the crystal characteristics of the main phase in $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ samples after hydrogenation at 298 K (defined as process A) and those desorbed to 0.1 MPa at 333 K (defined as process B).											
Sample (x)	C)		5	1	0	1	5			
Process	А	В	А	В	А	В	А	В			
Main phase	FCC	BCT	FCC	FCC	FCC	FCC	FCC	FCC			
Lattice parameter, a (nm)	0.42807	0.30288	0.42849	0.42649	0.42977	0.42661	0.43033	0.42677			
Lattice parameter, c (nm)		0.34054									
Cell volume, V (nm ³)	0.07844	0.03124	0.07867	0.07758	0.07938	0.07764	0.07969	0.07773			

For pure V metal, the deformed BCC solid solution phase containing hydrogen (α phase) is formed when absorbing a small amount of H, and the mono-hydride phase (β phase) with BCT structure and di-hydride phase (γ phase) with FCC structure are formed by further hydrogen absorption [34].

Hence, The appearance of VH₂-based FCC main phase (γ phase) is logical for the hydrogenated V-based samples in this study under high initial hydrogen pressure(4 MPa) [13,24]. However, the reason for the small amount coexistence of VH_{0.81}-based BCT phase (β phase) caused by the incomplete transition of β to γ phase needs further study. Obviously, the minor TiH-based and ZrH-based phases are attributed to the hydrogenation of the small amounts of Ti and Zr, while the majority of them may distribute in the main phase (γ phase).

As shown in Fig. 10(b), after dehydrogenation at 333 K, almost only $VH_{0.81}$ -based hydride (β phase) with BCT structure is observed for the sample with x = 0, which indicates the relatively completed transition of γ to β phase, corresponding to the relatively high desorption capacity of 1.43 wt% shown in Fig. 9. It is also found in Fig. 9 that the desorption capacities of samples with $x \ge 5$ at 333 K seem to be so low that the XRD patterns (Fig. 10(b)) of dehydrided samples are almost unchanged, compared to those of the hydrogenated samples shown in Fig. 10(a). It is well known that the desorption capacity of the sample is closely related to the desorption equilibrium plateau pressure. While the desorption equilibrium plateau pressures of the samples with $x \ge 5$ appear to be such low even at 353 K (Fig. 8). The crystal characteristics of the main phase in $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-}$ _xFe₆Zr₄ samples after hydrogenation at 298 K and dehydrogenation to 0.1 MPa at 333 K are determined by Rietveld refinement and the results are listed in Table 6. Compared with the hydrogenated samples, the cell volume of the main phase in the dehydrogenated samples drastically reduces for x = 0, while slight reduction is observed for $x \ge 5$, which agrees well with Fig. 10.

Conclusions

 $Ti_{10+x}V_{80-x}Fe_6Zr_4$ (x = 0, 5, 10, 15) hydrogen storage alloys are composed of BCC main phase and C14 Laves secondary phase that precipitates along the grain boundary of the former. With the increase of x, the lattice parameter of BCC phase in the alloy increases, which has a good linear relationship with its average atomic radius. All bulk alloys have relatively good activation behaviors and excellent hydriding kinetics. With increasing x, the incubation time of the alloy decreases first and then increases under the initial hydrogen pressure of 4 MPa at 298 K, obtaining the minimum value of 12 s at x = 5. Meanwhile, the maximum hydrogen absorption capacity of the alloy increases first and then decreases, achieving the maximum value of 3.61 wt% at x = 10. With the increase of x, the hydrogen desorption capacity of sample desorbed to 0.001 MPa at 353 K increases first and then decreases, reaching the maximum value of 1.94 wt% at x = 5, while that desorbed to 0.1 MPa at 353 K reduces, especially for x = 10 and 15, attaining the maximum value of 1.6 wt% at x = 0. After dehydrogenation to 0.1 MPa at 333 K, the main phase changes from γ to β phase for the sample with x = 0, while remains the same γ phase as that in the hydrogenated samples with $x \ge 5$.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Article Enhancing Hydrogen Storage Kinetics and Cycling Properties of NaMgH₃ by 2D Transition Metal Carbide MXene Ti₃C₂

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Abstract: Metal hydrides have recently been proposed for not only hydrogen storage materials but also high-efficiency thermal storage materials. NaMgH3 contains a considerable theoretical thermal storage density of 2881 kJ/kg. However, its sluggish de/re-hydrogenation reaction kinetics and poor cycling stability exhibit unavailable energy efficiency. Doping with active catalyst into NaMgH3 is deemed to be a potential strategy to mitigate these disadvantages. In this work, the enhancement of de/re-hydrogenation kinetics and cycling properties of NaMgH3 is investigated by doping with lamellar-structure 2D carbon-based MXene, Ti₃C₂. Results shows that introducing 7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ is proved to perform excellent catalytic efficiency for NaMgH₃, dramatically reducing the two-step hydrogen desorption peak temperatures (324.8 and 345.3 °C) and enhancing the de/re-hydrogenation kinetic properties with the hydrogen desorption capacity of 4.8 wt.% H2 within 15 min at 365 °C and absorption capacity of 3.5 wt.% H₂ within 6 s. Further microstructure analyses reveal that the unique lamellar-structure of Ti₃C₂ can separate the agglomerated NaMgH₃ particles homogeneously and decrease the energy barriers of two-step reaction of NaMgH3 (114.08 and 139.40 kJ/mol). Especially, lamellar-structure Ti₃C₂ can improve the reversibility of hydrogen storage of NaMgH₃, rendering 4.6 wt.% H₂ capacity remained after five cycles. The thermal storage density of the composite is determined to be 2562 kJ/kg through DSC profiles, which is suitable for thermal energy storage application.

Keywords: hydrogen storage materials; NaMgH₃; MXene; lamellar-structure; cycling performances

1. Introduction

Sodium-based hydrides such as NaH, MgH₂ (simple binary hydrides), NaBH₄ (borohydride), NaAlH₄ (alanates hydride), and NaMgH₃ (perovskite hydride) have been researched as promising candidates for hydrogen storage or thermal energy storage during the past decades [1–8]. As the GdFeO₃-type perovskite (space group P_{nma}) hydride, NaMgH₃ has received considerable attention for its high gravimetric and volumetric hydrogen densities (6 wt.% and 88 kg/m³) and possesses a considerable theoretical thermal storage gravimetric density (2881 kJ/kg) with reversible two-step de/re-hydrogenation process: [9–15]

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$$NaMgH_3 \rightarrow NaH + Mg + H_2$$
 (1)

$$NaH + Mg \rightarrow Na + Mg + 1/2 H_2$$
⁽²⁾

Especially, NaMgH³ is considered as a potential thermal energy medium for concentration solar power (CSP) because of the high thermodynamic stability [16]. In particular, as a suitable candidate for thermal energy storage (TES), NaMgH³ has several obvious advantages: high hydrogen storage capacity, low and flat hydrogen de/absorption pressure and plateau, negligible hysteresis, high thermal storage density, and low cost of raw materials [7]. In addition, de/re-hydrogenation kinetics performance and cycling properties are also important parameters to determine whether it is available to TES. However, the further applications to thermal energy storage are limited by sluggish de/re-hydrogenation kinetic performance and pronounced degradation of cycling properties of NaMgH₃.

Much attention has been focused on improving de/re-hydrogenation kinetics performance and cycling properties of NaMgH₃ during the last few decades [17–21]. It has been proved that adding Li or K into NaMgH₃ would make Li or K partially take the place of the Na position and the formation of distorted perovskite structure would enhance the de-hydrogenation kinetics performance [17,18]. Li et al. [19] improved the cycling properties through in situ embedding of Mg₂NiH₄ and YH₃ nanoparticles in NaMgH₃. Except alkali metal and metal hydrides, the Ti-based catalysts have been found to possess remarkably high catalytic activity. Wang's group [20] decreased the onset desorption temperature of NaMgH₃ to 328 K with 153.47 kJ/mol by introduced K₂TiF₆ as a dopant. Moreover, it was confirmed that TiF₃ can significantly reduce the activation energy of NaMgH₃ to 104 kJ/mol [18].

As a new type of two-dimension materials, MXenes have been successfully synthesized through etching ternary carbides, nitrides, or carbonitrides (MAX) with HF or in situ HF [22–25]. The general formula of MXenes is $M_{n+1}X_nT_x$ (n = 1-3), where M represents a transition metal, X is carbon and/or nitrogen, and T_x stands for the surface terminations [26]. The carbide transition metal MXene, such as Ti₃C₂, possesses a particularly lamellar structure, showing promising application as an anode material for Li-ion batteries [27,28]. Furthermore, much effort has been devoted to exploring the superior catalytic effect of Ti₃C₂ on de/re-hydrogenation reactions of hydrides [29–34]. Liu et al. [29,30] observed a strong catalytic effect of Ti₃C₂ in de/re-hydrogenation kinetics properties on both MgH₂ and NaAlH₄. In particular, Ti₃C₂ tremendously improved the cycling stability of NaAlH₄, with the de/re-hydrogenation performance remaining nearly constant over 10 cycles. The superior catalytic efficiency of Ti₃C₂ has also been proven on LiNa₂AlH₆ and Li_{1.3}Na_{1.7}AlH₆ [31,32]. Therefore, the superior catalytic efficiency of the lamellar-structure Ti₃C₂ is highly anticipated to expand to the NaMgH₃.

There are indeed many other higher hydrogen storage capacity compounds, such as LiBH₄ with 18.5 wt.%, MgH₂ with 7.6 wt.% and NaAlH₄ with 5.6 wt.% [35,36]. Although the reversible hydrogen storage capacity of NaMgH₃ is about 6 wt.%, it exhibits other engineering feasibility in heat storage, accompanying the reversible hydrogen storage process [37]. From pressure–composition isotherm (PCI) measurements, the enthalpy, Δ H(des), and entropy, Δ S(des), of desorption for Equation (1) were determined as 86.6 kJ·mol⁻¹ H₂ and 132.2 J·mol⁻¹·H₂·K⁻¹. The enthalpy and entropy of desorption for Equation (2) correspond to those for pure NaH (Δ H(des) = 116 kJ·mol⁻¹·H₂ and Δ S(des) = 168.2 J·mol⁻¹·H₂·K⁻¹). The theoretical gravimetric heat storage capacity of Equations (1) and (2) is 2881 kJ·kg⁻¹ (Equation (1) = 1721 kJ·kg⁻¹, Equation (2) = 1160 kJ·kg⁻¹). Therefore, NaMgH₃ would be an ideal thermal storage medium during the hydrogen storage process. However, further applications for thermal energy storage are limited by sluggish de/re-hydrogenation kinetic performance and pronounced degradation of NaMgH₃ cycling properties.

In this work, the 2D MXenes Ti₃C₂ with a unique lamellar-structure was introduced into NaMgH₃ for enhancing its de/re-hydrogenation kinetics and cycling behaviors for the first time. Five composites including NaMgH₃-x wt.% Ti₃C₂ (x = 0, 3, 5, 7, and 9) were synthesized via ball-milling. Among them, the 7 wt.% Ti₃C₂-containing NaMgH₃ shows the optimal de/re-hydrogenation storage performance as it can desorb 4.8 wt.% H₂ in 15 min at 365 °C and then can be easily hydrogenated at 300 °C under 80 bar H₂. More importantly, the reversible hydrogen storage performance stays at a relatively high level after 5 cycles. It is confirmed that the 2D Ti₃C₂ can disperse the agglomerated NaMgH₃ particles homogeneously, decrease the activation energy of NaMgH₃, and prevent Na from separating Mg during the cycles. Moreover, the thermal storage density for NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ is evaluated to be 2562 kJ/kg through DSC profile.

2. Materials and Methods

The lamellar-structure Ti_3C_2 was prepared via etching the Ti_3AlC_2 (98% purity, Laizhou Kai Xi Ceramic Materials Co., Ltd., Laizhou, China) with the HF, which was mixed by combining 15 mL HCl (12 M), 15 mL deionized water and 1.98 g LiF. Then 3 g Ti_3AlC_2 precursor was immersed into the in situ HF and transferred to a 100 mL Teflon-lined autoclave. The Ti_3AlC_2 was treated with a 48-hour heat treatment in an oil bath at 60 °C. After heat treatment, the precursor was washed with deionized water through centrifugation treatment. The final pH of this precursor should reach 6 and then further drying could be carried out. The drying process was operated at 80 °C for 24 h under vacuum.

The as-formed lamellar-structure Ti_3C_2 was doped into NaMgH₃ as a catalyst to enhance de/re-hydrogenation kinetics and cycling properties. Five composites of NaMgH₃-x wt.% Ti_3C_2 (x = 0, 3, 5, 7, and 9) were synthesized by milling with stainless steel balls of which the weight ratio to composites was 40:1 under 10 bar H₂ for 12 h at 400 rpm using a planetary ball mill (QM-3SP4, Nanjing, China).

The phase transformations, structures and morphological features of Ti₃C₂ and NaMgH₃-x wt.% Ti₃C₂ (x = 0, 3, 5, 7, and 9) composites were characterized via X-ray diffraction (XRD, PANalytical, The Netherlands, Cu K α) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi FSEM, SU-70, Tokyo, Japan). During the XRD and SEM analyses, all samples were protected by a laboratory-made container filled with argon for preventing samples from reacting with oxygen and water. Additionally, the de/re-hydrogenation performance of NaMgH₃-x wt.% Ti₃C₂ (x = 0, 3, 5, 7, and 9) composites were examined by a homemade Sieverts-type apparatus. The temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) analyses were tested with the heating rate of 5 °C/min from 25 to 450 °C under vacuum. The hydrogen desorption kinetics of all composites were examined at 365 and 350 °C with a base pressure of 3 × 10⁻² bar H₂. The hydrogen absorption kinetics were determined by a repeated de/re-hydrogenation procedure at 400 °C, but changing the back pressure from 3 × 10⁻² to 60 bar H₂. The gravimetric heat storage capacity and heat change of composites were determined using a differential scanning calorimeter (DSC).

3. Results and Discussion

First, the successful synthesis of lamellar-structure MXene Ti_3C_2 was confirmed through XRD and SEM analyses (Figure 1). It is obvious that the strongest and sharpest XRD diffraction peaks of Ti_3AlC_2 at $2\theta = 39^\circ$ totally disappeared after etching treatment, which were replaced by another curve, the XRD pattern of Ti_3C_2 . The diffraction peaks of as-formed Ti_3C_2 belonging to (002) and (004) are significantly broadened and shift to lower angles. Especially, the diffraction (002) peak was much stronger than before. Furthermore, the insert SEM image obviously suggests that the as-formed Ti_3C_2 exhibited a 2D lamellarstructure morphology, which was etched by in situ HF treatment and effectively separated by LiF [22].



Figure 1. XRD patterns of (a) Ti₃AlC₂ and (b) as-prepared Ti₃C₂. The insert is the SEM image of Ti₃C₂.

Five composites of NaMgH₃-x wt.% Ti₃C₂ (x = 0, 3, 5, 7, and 9) were formed/synthesized by doping the as-prepared Ti₃C₂ into NaMgH₃ by ball milling, and the phase components and structures were determined by XRD, as displayed in Figure 2. As can be seen from the XRD analyses, only NaMgH₃ and MgO can be obviously identified in all five composites. The appearance of MgO phase is due to the impurity of Mg powders during the synthesis of pure NaMgH₃. It is almost impossible to find the diffraction peaks belonging to lamellar-structure Ti₃C₂ in these five patterns due to the small amounts of Ti₃C₂ additive [34]. The other possibility is that the ball milling destroyed the multilayered structure of Ti₃C₂. Therefore, the XRD results indicate the successful synthesis of the five composites without any other impurity peaks.



Figure 2. XRD patterns of (**a**) pure NaMgH₃, (**b**) NaMgH₃-3 wt.% Ti₃C₂, (**c**) NaMgH₃-5 wt.% Ti₃C₂, (**d**) NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂, and (**e**) NaMgH₃-9 wt.% Ti₃C₂.

After assessing the phase components and morphology of NaMgH₃-x wt.% Ti₃C₂ (x = 0, 3, 5, 7, and 9) samples, the hydrogen desorption kinetics of all samples were evaluated

by DSC, TPD, and isothermal dehydrogenation measurements (Figure 3). As expected, doping a certain amount of Ti₃C₂ remarkably decreases the hydrogen desorption temperature in contrast to pure NaMgH₃ (Figure 3a). The first- and second-step dehydrogenation temperatures of NaMgH₃-3 wt.% Ti₃C₂ decreased from 372.3 and 380.3 °C to 344.5 and 358.4 °C, exhibiting 27.8 and 21.9 °C reduction, respectively. With increasing the Ti₃C₂ content to 5, 7, or 9 wt.%, the first-step dehydrogenation temperatures are further reduced to 327.5, 324.8 and 320.3 °C, respectively. Meanwhile, the second-step dehydrogenation temperatures of these samples declined to 341.3, 345.3, and 341.8 °C, respectively.



Figure 3. (a) DSC, (b) TPD, and isothermal dehydrogenation curves at (c) 365 °C and (d) 350 °C for NaMgH₃-x wt.% Ti₃C₂ (x = 0, 3, 5, 7, and 9) samples.

Combined with the TPD results (Figure 3b), more hydrogen desorption kinetic properties of NaMgH₃ undoped/doped with Ti₃C₂ are revealed. First, doping with 3 wt.% Ti₃C₂ reduces the onset dehydrogenation temperature of pure NaMgH₃ tremendously, from 350 °C to 250 °C. In particular, further increasing the content of Ti₃C₂ to 5, 7, or 9 wt.% allows around 3.5 wt.% H₂ to release (first-step decomposition reaction) below 350 °C. Importantly, the Ti₃C₂ sample containing 7 wt.% performs faster dehydrogenation kinetics than that of others below 350 °C. Nevertheless, the dehydrogenation capacity suffers a small loss, from 5.6 wt.% H₂ to 5.4, 5.3, 5.2, and 5.1 wt.% H₂, for the NaMgH₃-x wt.% Ti₃C₂ (x = 3, 5, 7, and 9) samples, respectively, which is mainly due to the dead weight of Ti₃C₂ and existence of MgO.

More specific dehydriding kinetic characterizations were carried out through the isothermal dehydrogenation measurements at 365 and 350 °C (Figure 3c,d). Just as shown by the earlier research, the sample containing 7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ exhibits the best dehydriding kinetic properties at 365 and 350 °C, desorbing 4.8 wt.% H₂ in 15 min and 3.4 wt.% H₂ in 5 min, respectively. However, for the pure NaMgH₃, only 0.6 wt.% H₂ is released in 15 min at 365 °C. As the temperature decreases to 350 °C, the pure NaMgH₃ sample only desorbs 0.2 wt.% H₂ in 5 min. As a result, it is obvious that doping of 7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ leads to a tremendous improvement in the dehydriding kinetic properties of NaMgH₃. Furthermore, considering the observed results, including the dehydrogenation temperatures, dehydrogenation kinetic performance, and dehydrogenation capacities, the NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ composite exhibits the best energy efficiency and represents the optimal constituent.

To further understand the reason for such a huge dehydrogenation property gap between NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ and pure NaMgH₃, the DSC analyses were measured at different heating rates (1, 2, 5, and 8 °C/min) (Figure 4a,b). The activation energy (E_a) corresponding to the two-step dehydrogenation reactions of both two composites are quantitatively shown in Figure 4c and Table 1, determined by Kissinger fitting methods [38] (Equation (3)).

$$\ln(\beta/T_p^2) = -E_a/RT_p + \ln(AR/E_a)$$
(3)

$$\ln(\beta/T_p^2) = -\underline{E_a}/RT_p + \ln(AR/E_a)$$
(4)

where β is the heating rate, T_p represents peak temperature, A is the pre-exponential factor, and R represents the gas constant.



Figure 4. DSC curves for (**a**) pure NaMgH₃; (**b**) NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ at different heating rates; and Kissinger plots of (**c**) first- and second-step dehydrogenation of both samples.

Table 1. Activation energies (*E_a*) for the dehydrogenation of the NaMgH₃ sample undoped and doped with 7 wt.% Ti₃C₂.

Doment	Apparent Activation Energy <i>E</i> _a (kJ/mol)					
Dopant	NaMgH₃ (First-Step)	NaMgH₃(Second-Step)				
Undoped	158.45	165.16				
7 wt.% Ti ₃ C ₂	114.08	139.40				

Based on these data, the values of E_a of the first-step hydrogen desorption reaction of NaMgH₃ and NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ are calculated to be 158.45 and 114.08 kJ/mol, respectively. For the second-step reaction, the value of E_a declines from 165.16 to 139.40 kJ/mol by doping with 7 wt.% Ti₃C₂. The reduction of E_a for both two reactions demonstrates that the improved dehydriding properties of NaMgH₃ can be ascribed to the Ti₃C₂ dopant by reducing the second-step dehydrogenation energy barrier.

The role played by unique lamellar-structure Ti₃C₂ during the dehydrogenation reactions was researched and explored. Figure 5a,b shows the SEM images of the pure NaMgH₃ sample, in which some small particles with average size of approximately 1 μ m agglomerate together to form a larger cluster. In Figure 5c, the results of EDS analyses further confirm the results of the XRD measurements noted above, suggesting the successful synthesis of NaMgH3. In contrast, the large layer-structure (about 10 µm wide) of Ti₃C₂ is completely broken into smaller lamellar-structure (about 2 µm wide) during the ball-milling procedure, with some tiny NaMgH³ particles attached, as shown in Figure 5d,e. Furthermore, after 12 h ball milling, the agglomerated NaMgH₃ particles were separated homogeneously by the lamellar-structure Ti₃C₂. The following EDS analyses (Figure 5f) prove the existence of NaMgH₃ and Ti₃C₂. Based on the significant reduction of operating temperature and the superior enhancement of dehydrogenation kinetics properties in the Ti₃C₂ doped sample, it can be proposed that Ti₃C₂ plays the role of catalyst to improve the dehydrogenation kinetics properties of NaMgH₃ hydride, which is in agreement with our previous papers in Ti₃C₂-doped Mg(BH₄)₂[33] and sodium alanate systems [34]. Apparently, the exploration of the SEM and EDS results described above indicate that the significant reduction of operating temperature and the superior enhancement of dehydrogenation kinetic properties of the 7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ doped sample can be mainly due to the unique lamellar-structure. The detailed microstructure information of Ti₃C₂ could not be easily revealed after the re/dehydrogenation process due to the small amounts of Ti₃C₂ additive; thus, the catalytic mechanism remains undiscovered. We hope that the catalytic mechanism of NaMgH3-x wt.% Ti3C2 composite can be revealed in the future by a X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectrum.



Figure 5. SEM images of (a,b) NaMgH₃ and (d,e) NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂; EDS results of (c) NaMgH₃ and (f) NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂.

Figure 6 shows the isothermal hydrogenation curves of pure NaMgH₃ and NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ samples at different temperatures. It is obvious that the hydrogen absorption kinetics of NaMgH₃ can be enhanced by doping with Ti₃C₂, resulting in the high capacity achieved at the same hydrogenation condition. Figure 6a shows the isothermal hydrogenation curves of pure NaMgH₃ and NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ samples at 300 °C. The 7 wt.% Ti₃C₂-containing composite can quickly absorb approximately 3.5 wt.% H₂ within 6 s.

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However, the pure NaMgH3 displays unacceptably slow re-hydrogenation kinetics, storing 3.0 wt.% H₂ in 15 min. This result suggests that only the first-step hydrogenation reaction is thermodynamically available at 300 °C. As the hydrogenation temperature increases to 350 °C, the hydrogenation kinetics of two dehydrogenated samples are improved, approximately 3.8 and 4.3 wt.% H2 stored for NaMgH3 and NaMgH3-7 wt.% Ti3C2 samples, respectively. The results reveal that first- and second-step hydrogenation reactions of the samples are feasible in thermodynamics, as the temperature increases to 350 °C. However, the second-step hydrogenation kinetics of both samples are too slow to desorb more hydrogen within 30 min. When the hydrogenation temperature rises to 400 °C, the Ti₃C₂-containing sample exhibits excellent hydrogenation kinetics, absorbing 4.9 wt.% H₂ in 8 min, confirming that the first- and second-step hydrogen absorption kinetics have been further improved. The hydrogenation capacity of pure NaMgH₃ is found to be 4.2 wt.% H₂ in 15 min, with the second-step hydrogen absorption kinetics still being sluggish. In summary, Ti₃C₂ has obvious catalytic efficiency on the enhancement of both first- and second-step hydrogenation kinetic properties of NaMgH3 under 80 bar H2 at 300, 350, and 400 °C.



Figure 6. Isothermal hydrogenation curves of pure NaMgH3 and NaMgH3-7 wt.% Ti3C2 at different temperatures. (**a**) 300 °C (**b**) 350 °C (**c**) 400 °C.

The reversible dehydrogenation properties of NaMgH₃ are remarkably enhanced because of the superior catalytic activity of Ti₃C₂ with lamellar-structure. To obtain the cycling properties of NaMgH₃ with or without dopant, the cycling isothermal dehydrogenation curves and hydrogen capacities of two samples are displayed in Figure 7. In the first cycle, pure NaMgH³ desorbs 5.5 wt.% H² in 15 min at 400 °C. After hydrogenation at 400 °C under 60 bar H₂, it releases only 2.6 wt.% H₂ in 60 min, losing approximately half of its initial capacity. The dehydrogenation kinetic property of pure NaMgH₃ also suffers tremendous degradation in the second cycle, especially in the latter 3rd, 4th and 5th cycles, 3.8, 4.0, and 3.75 wt.% H₂ were desorbed in 20 min, respectively. The dehydrogenation kinetics and capacity of pure NaMgH₃ in the latter three cycles are recovered from the poor second cycle. For the Ti₃C₂ doped NaMgH₃, in the first cycle, about 5.1 wt.% H₂ is released in 5 min. The difference is that the Ti₃C₂ doped sample does not suffer tremendous capacity loss in the second cycle. In the latter four cycles, the Ti₃C₂ doped sample desorbs 4.3, 4.4, 4.4, and 4.6 wt.% H₂ in 20 min, respectively. In five cycles, pure NaMgH₃ suffers a huge capacity loss from 5.5 to 4.1 wt.% H₂, losing a quarter of its initial capacity. It is well known that a material with faster kinetics will release more hydrogen within a fixed time. Hence, Ti₃C₂ can relieve the degradation of dehydrogenation capacity to some extent due to its improved dehydrogenation kinetics. However, it is clear that the lamellar-structure Ti₃C₂ can effectively enhance the cycling stability of NaMgH₃ in five cycles. The expectation of the dehydrogenation kinetics and cycling stability of NaMgH₃ remaining unchanged is not achieved. Therefore, further investigation of enhancing the cycle stability of NaMgH₃ should be explored.



Figure 7. Isothermal dehydrogenation cycle curves of (**a**) NaMgH₃ and (**c**) NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ at 400 °C; cycle capacity curves of (**b**) NaMgH₃ and (**d**) NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂.

The pronounced degradation of dehydrogenation performance and hydrogen capacity in the second cycle for the pure NaMgH₃ is abnormal. There should be some phase separations during hydrogenation after the first cycle dehydrogenation. Furthermore, it was found that pure NaMgH₃ would segregate into separate NaH and Mg during the high-temperature cycling tests [39]. In order to confirm the phase transformation of Ti₃C₂ doped/undoped NaMgH3 samples during hydrogen storage process, XRD characterization was carried out for the re-hydrogenated sample. In Figure 8a,b, the NaMgH₃, NaH, Mg, and MgO phases can be seen in the XRD patterns of the pure NaMgH₃ sample after the second and third hydrogenations. The separation of NaH and Mg phases after hydrogenation can explain the reason why abnormal degradation occurs. Therefore, the detailed reaction process can be proposed as follows. When pure NaMgH3 dehydrogenates at 400 °C, both of the two step decomposition reactions occur quickly, forming molten Na and solid Mg. The drastic molten Na covers the outside surface of solid Mg particles to form the compact Na layer so that most Na and Mg are separated; the residual Na would be hydrogenated to form the solid NaH during the subsequent hydrogenation process, which hinders the further absorption of H₂, making the formation of MgH₂ and NaMgH₃ much more difficult, thereby decreasing the hydrogen capacity of NaMgH₃ [37]. Therefore, the formation of the NaH layer must be responsible for the pronounced degradation of dehydrogenation performance in the second cycle for the pure NaMgH₃. This hypothesis can be proved by the strong diffraction peaks of NaH in the second hydrogenation sample (Figure 8). Moreover, the enhanced dehydrogenation performance of the pure NaMgH³ sample in the latter three cycles would be due to the distillation of molten Na making the NaH layer thinner [37]. In contrast, the XRD patterns of the hydrogenated NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ sample displays the diffraction peaks of NaMgH₃, MgH₂, and MgO, without any diffraction peaks belonging to NaH (Figure 8c,d). The weak diffraction peaks of MgH₂ are caused by the distillation of molten Na during the cycles. Meanwhile, to confirm the separation phenomenon of Na and Mg, the dehydrogenation processes at 400 °C can be observed through a homemade quartz tube. It can be observed that after hydrogenation the pure NaMgH₃ appears as a light-yellow metal layer ingoting with metallic luster, corresponding to the existence of NaH (Figure S1a,b). However, the deposition of NaH disappears in the Ti₃C₂-doped NaMgH₃ sample (Figure S1c,d). Herein, the XRD results and dehydrogenation observation indicate that the existence of lamellar-structure Ti₃C₂ can effectively prevent Na from separating Mg to form the insular NaH layer, largely preserving the cycling dehydrogenation properties of NaMgH₃.



Figure 8. XRD patterns of pure NaMgH₃ before the (**a**) second and (**b**) third dehydrogenations at 400 °C. XRD patterns of NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ before the (**c**) second and (**d**) third dehydrogenations at 400 °C.

In addition to its use as a hydrogen storage application, NaMgH₃ can also be a potential candidate for thermal energy storage (TES) owing to the theoretical thermal storage density as high as 2881 kJ/kg [37]. In Figure S2a,b, the thermal storage densities of asformed pure NaMgH₃ and NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ samples are calculated to be 2727 and 2562 kJ/kg through DSC profiles, respectively. The reduction of ~6.0% thermal storage density for the NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ sample is mainly due to the dead weight of Ti₃C₂ and existence of MgO. Even with this reduction, as-formed NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ sample exceeds the thermal storage properties of most other candidates (Table 2). Meanwhile, Ti₃C₂ dramatically enhances the de/re-hydrogenation kinetics and cycling performance of NaMgH₃, making it more suitable for TES application [40].

Type of Thermal Energy Storage (TES)	Example of TES Materials	Total Thermal Storage Capacity (kJ/kg)	
Sensible heat	Molten salt mixtures	153 *	
Latent heat/phase change materials	NaNO ₃	282 *	
Thermochemical	Oxidation of Co ₃ O ₄	1055 *	
	NaMgH3-7 wt.% Ti3C2	2562	
Motol budridos	NaAlH ₄	711 *	
Metal Hydrides	Mg2NiH4	1157 *	
	Mg_2FeH_6	2090 *	

Table 2. Thermal energy storage densities of different thermochemical energy storage materials [41–44].

* Theoretical thermal storage capacity.

4. Conclusions

NaMgH₃ is considered a potential candidate for hydrogen storage and thermal storage, but further practical applications are limited by its poor de/re-hydrogenation kinetics and cycling performance. An investigation of enhancing the re/dehydrogenation kinetics and cycling performance of NaMgH₃ through doping with Ti₃C₂ was carried out by using XRD, SEM, TPD, DSC, isothermal de/re-hydrogenation measurements and cycling tests. The NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ sample exhibits the optimal dehydrogenation performance, reducing the two-step desorption peak temperatures from 372.3 and 380.3 °C to 324.8 and 345.3 °C, respectively. The NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ can release 4.8 wt.% H₂ in 15 min and 3.4 wt.% H₂ in 5 min at 365 °C and 350 °C, respectively. The unique lamellar-structure of Ti₃C₂ can separate the agglomerated NaMgH₃ particles homogeneously and decrease the activation energy of NaMgH3 to 114.08 and 139.4 kJ/mol for the first- and second-step dehydrogenation reactions, respectively. The addition of Ti₃C₂ also dramatically enhances the hydrogen storage kinetics of NaMgH³ at 300, 350, and 400 °C. Approximately 3.5 wt.% H₂ is absorbed in 6 s for the NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ sample at 300 °C. The poor cycling properties of NaMgH₃ are improved by Ti₃C₂, with 4.6 wt.% H₂ capacity remaining after five cycles. Lamellar-structure Ti₃C₂ can homogeneously separate aggregated NaMgH₃ particles and prevent Na from separating Mg after dehydrogenation. Furthermore, NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ with its high thermal storage density of 2562 kJ/kg and fast kinetics can be a potential candidate for TES.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/pr9101690/s1, Figure S1: Photographs of pure NaMgH₃ and NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ (a and c) before and (b and d) after dehydrogenation at 400 °C. Figure S2: DSC profiles of (a) pure NaMgH₃ and (b) NaMgH₃-7 wt.% Ti₃C₂ at a heating rate of 5 °C/min.

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