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25 superior anode materials for lithium-ion batteries.

26 **Keywords:** Porous nanofiber: Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles: Electrospinning: Hybrid anode materials:

27 Li-ion battery

28

29 **1 INTRODUCTION**

30 Haze and greenhouse effect have become severe challenges to environment, which are closely connected to excessive use of fossil fuels $[1-3]$. Rechargeable lithium ion batteries are 32 tools of energy exchange between chemistry energy and electric energy $[3-4]$, which can store 33 energy from clean energy ^[5]. As rechargeable lithium ion batteries have the characteristics of h high energy density, long lifespan, environment friendly and fast charge-discharge rates $[6-7]$, they have been widely applied to mobile phones, digital cameras and laptops, etc $^{[7]}$. But 36 hybrid electric vehicles and electric vehicles require Li-ion batteries to have higher energy 37 density and rate capability $[3,8]$ to match the performance of internal combustion vehicles $[3]$.

38 Natural graphite seems to be the most promising candidate for the anode material in 39 lithium-ion batteries because of its numerous advantages $[9,10]$. Graphite and graphitized 40 carbon as anode materials in lithium-ion batteries have been used in many commercial 41 products on the market $[9]$. Modification of carbonaceous anode materials which has been a 42 research focus ^[11] can greatly improve materials' electrochemical performance. Composites 43 of carbon nanomaterials and sulfides $[12-16]$ /metal oxides $[17-21]$ have been intensively studied 44 for efficient energy storage. Transition metal oxides (MO) (Fe₂O₃, Fe₃O₄, NiO, Co₂O₄, O₃O₄, Cu_2O , CuO, RuO₂ and Cr₂O₃ *etc*.) have much higher theoretical capacities (~1000 mA h g⁻¹) 46 than graphite based on the conversion between MO and M $^{[17]}$. But pure transition metal 47 oxides as anodes in lithium ion batteries often have poor cycling performance owing to the 48 collapse of lattice structure of the original crystal over several discharge/charge cycles as the 49 tremendous volume changes $[18-19]$. A number of research methods about transition metal

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 oxides as anodes in lithium ion batteries have been carried out to improve the deficiency and obtained excellent electrochemical performance by constructing nanostructured materials, hollow nanostructures, hybrid nanostructures, etc. Carbon coating is the most widely used modification techniques for transition metal oxides. On the one hand, carbon coating on the surfaces of metal oxide nanoparticles can reduce the side reactions of solid electrolyte 55 interface (SEI) at the interface between metal oxide and electrolyte $[19]$. On the other hand, good electrical conductivity of carbon can make up for the poor conductivity of metal oxides and promote the electron transport. What's more, carbon coating as elastic buffer 58 layers/supports $[20]$ can confine the position of metal oxides and prevent the agglomeration and cracking of crystal structures which can enhance the cycle stability of electrode. In addition, nanostructured electrode materials have some special characteristics, such as large proportion of surface atoms, small size, etc. which lead to higher electrode/electrolyte contact 62 area, shorter path lengths for Li^+ transport and higher charge/discharge rates^[21]. So carbon coating nanostructured metal oxides as anodes in lithium ion batteries would strengthen the cycle stability and improve the high-rate charge-discharge performance. Iron oxides have the characteristics of low price, environment-friendliness and abundant resources, which make 66 them charming anodes for high performance lithium-ion batteries $^{[20]}$.

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67 A lot of Fe₃O₄/carbon nanocomposites $^{[22-25]}$ and Fe₂O₃/carbon nanocomposites $^{[26-28]}$ have been fabricated and detected as electrode materials for lithium ion batteries. Carbon 69 coating iron oxides nanoparticles can form 0 D nanospheres $^{[29-30]}$, 1 D nanowires $^{[31-32]}$, 2 D 70 nanoflakes $[33-34]$ and 3 D structures of porous carbon foam loading iron oxide $[35-36]$. Electrospinning is one of the carbon coating methods and has been used to fabricate1 D 72 hybrid carbon coating iron oxides nanofibers composites $[37-41]$, 1 D iron oxides nanofibers $[42-43]$ and 1 D carbon nanofibers for Li ion batteries $[44-45]$. The method can embed the iron oxides into a conductive carbon by subsequent heat treatment and enhance the

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75 electrochemical properties effectively. Zhang, X. $^{[37]}$ fabricated Fe₂O₃-carbon composite 76 nanofibers as durable anode materials for lithium ion batteries. The cell exhibits a reversible capacity of 820 mA h g^{-1} at a current rate of 0.2 C even after 100 cycles. Chaudhari, S. ^[42] 77 78 synthesized hollow-structured α -Fe₂O₃ nanofibers by a simple electrospinning technique and 79 subsequent calcination at 500 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ for 4 h in air. The hollow fibers anodes obtained a high reversible capacity of 1293 mA h g⁻¹ at a current density of 60 mA g⁻¹ (0.06 C). Kim, C. ^[44] 80 81 fabricated high-purity carbon nanofiber webs by combination of electrospinning 10 wt. % 82 polyacrylonitrile (PAN) polymer - dimethyl formamide (DMF) solution and thermal 83 treatments. Nanofiber webs thermally treated at 1000 °C in Ar have the highest reversible 84 capacity of 450 mA h g^{-1} than that of 700 °C or 2800 °C at a discharge current density of 30 85 mA g^{-1} .

86 Here, 1D Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles/porous carbon nanofibers (Fe₃O₄/PCNFs) composites are 87 fabricated by electrospinning a 10 wt. % PAN and 3 wt. % Fe(acac)₃ dissolving in DMF 88 solution and subsequent thermal treatments (Fig. 1). The innovative thermal treatments are 89 made up of four calcination processes for the first time. Firstly, the electrospun nanofibers 90 were pre-oxidized at 250 \degree C in air to maintain their morphologies. Secondly, carbonization 91 was proceeded at 1000 $^{\circ}$ C in argon to obtain high conductive graphitized carbon. Thirdly, 92 oxidation was continued at 400 $^{\circ}$ C in blowed air to change Fe atoms and Fe C compounds 93 into iron oxides and remove some graphitized carbon of the nanofibers to form pore 94 structures. Carbothermic reduction was finally proceeded at 500 $^{\circ}$ C in Ar to change Fe₂O₃ 95 nanoparticles into high conductive $Fe₃O₄$ nanoparticles with better crystal structures and 96 further more increase porosity of the nanofibers. What should be noted is that the flow rate of 97 air and calcinating equipment have very significant effects on content of carbon and types of 98 iron oxides in the third calcination process. The excellent electrochemical properties of the 99 novel high conductive $Fe₃O₄/PCNFs$ composites anode is evident from the high capacity of 100 717.2 mA h g^{-1} after 100 cycles at 0.5 A g^{-1} .

101 **2 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

102 **2.1 Fabrication of Fe3O4/PCNFs Composites**

103 PAN with 150,000 average molecular weight was purchased from Aladdin. Analytic 104 grade ferric acetylacetonate $(Fe (acac)₃)$ and DMF were obtained from Sinopharm Chemical 105 Reagent Co.,Ltd. All the reagents were not further purified before using.

106 In a typical process, 1 g PAN and 0.3 g Fe(acac)₃ were added into 8.70 g DMF and 107 formed a 10 g mixture, followed by vigorous stirring at room temperature for at least 24 h. 108 The obtained homogeneous dispersion was used as the $Fe₃O₄/PCNFs$ composites precursor 109 solution for electrospinning. The precursor solution was loaded into a 10 mL plastic syringe 110 connected to a blunt-tip needle with a inner diameter of 0.33 mm. The [distance](javascript:void(0);) between the 111 needle tip and collector is 15 cm. The injection flow rate of the solution was set to 0.1 mm 112 min^{-1} (about 1 mL h⁻¹) driven by a pumb. A total voltage power of 15 kV was applied 113 between the needle (12 kV) and a plate (-3 kV) covered with aluminum foil. Electrospinning 114 was proceeded with a commercial setup (Beijing Ucalery Technology Development Co., Ltd, 115 SS-2535DC). The environmental humidity of electrospinning was 45 ± 10 %, and temperature 116 25 \pm 5 °C. The electrospun nanofibers were firstly preoxidized at 250 °C for 120 min with a 117 heating rate of $1 \,^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ in [air](javascript:void(0);) atmosphere in a tube furnace (Hefei Ke Jing Materials 118 Technology Co., Ltd., OTF-1200xΦ50) to keep fibrous morphology, and then carbonized at 119 1000 °C for 120 min with a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹ in argon atmosphere to obtain high 120 conductive graphitized carbon. Then the composite nanofibers were calcined at 400 \degree C for 3 121 h with a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹ in [air](javascript:void(0);) atmosphere to obtain the Fe₂O₃ and Fe₃O₄ 122 nanoparticle-loaded porous carbon nanofibers $(Fe_xO_y/PCNFs)$ composites. It should be noted 123 that the flow of air and the calcination time both have a profound influence on the 124 compositions and morphology of the $Fe_xO_y/PCNFs$ composites because it is likely that

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125 graphitized carbon is completely oxidized to CO_2 and Fe_xO_y transforms into pure Fe_2O_3 by 126 much longer time calcination and bigger air flow rate at 400 $^{\circ}$ C in air. At last, Fe₃O₄/PCNFs 127 composites were prepared by further calcination at 500 \degree C for 2 h with a heating rate of 5 \degree C min⁻¹ in argon atmosphere.

 For comparison, homogeneous dispersion containing 1.00 g PAN and 9.00 g DMF was also prepared, and then proceeded electrospinning and calcination with the same processes. In 131 addition, the preoxidized nanofibers were calcined at 700 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ or 900 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ in Ar to observe electrical conductivity of calcinated nanofibers at different calcination temperature. For ease of description, the above products were renamed in this article as follows.

 Table 1 Renaming of various products with different composition and calcination temperature.

| 136 | | | | | | | | |
|------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|----------|----------|-----------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 137 138 | Samples | Fe (acac) ₃ g | PAN g | DMF g | Temp (atm) First | Temp (atm) Second | Temp (atm) Third | Temp (atm) Last |
| 139 140 | PAN0-250 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 9.00 | 250° C (air) | | | |
| 141 | PAN0-700 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 9.00 | 250° C (air) | 700 °C (Ar) | | |
| 142 | PAN0-900 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 9.00 | 250° C (air) | 900 °C (Ar) | | |
| 143 | PAN0-1000 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 9.00 | 250° C (air) | $1000\,^{\circ}$ C (Ar) | | |
| 144 | PAN0-400 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 9.00 | 250° C (air) | 1000 °C (Ar) | 400 °C (air) | |
| 145 | PAN0-500 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 9.00 | 250° C (air) | 1000 °C (Ar) | 400 °C (air) | 500 °C (Ar) |
| 146 | PAN3 | 0.30 | 1.00 | 8.70 | | | | |
| 147 | PAN3-250 | 0.30 | 1.00 | 8.70 | 250° C (air) | | | |
| 148 | PAN3-1000 | 0.30 | 1.00 | 8.70 | 250° C (air) | $1000\,^{\circ}$ C (Ar) | | |
| 149 | PAN3-400 | 0.30 | 1.00 | 8.70 | 250° C (air) | 1000 °C (Ar) | 400 °C (air) | |
| 150 | PAN3-500 | 0.30 | 1.00 | 8.70 | 250° C (air) | 1000° C (Ar) | 400 °C (air) | 500 $^{\circ}$ C (Ar) |

Comment: Temp = Temprature, atm = atmosphere.

2.2 Materials characterizations

 The crystal structures of as-prepared materials were characterized using powder X-ray diffraction(XRD) on a D8 Advanced with lynxEye and SolX (Bruker AXS, WI, USA) with a Cu-Kα radiation source between 10° and 80°. The morphologies were characterized using a field-emission scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (S-4800Ⅱ, Hitachi, Japan) and a field

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 emission transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Tecnai 12, Philips, Holland) in the Test Center of Yangzhou University. A SEM (Zeiss Supra™ 55, Sapphire Carl Zeiss Group, Germany) and a TEM (JEM-2100, JEOL, Japan) in College of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering of Yangzhou University were also used to characterized the morphologies. High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) and high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) were conducted using a FEI Tecnai G2 F30 STWIN (USA) operating at 200 kV. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) (Pyris 1 TGA, PerkinElmer, 164 USA) was performed in air atmosphere up to 800 $^{\circ}$ C at a heating rate of 10 $^{\circ}$ C min⁻¹. Raman spectra was conducted with a laser Raman spectrometer (In Via, Renishaw, UK) at the 532 nm wavelength. The magnetic measurements of PAN3-400 and PAN3-500 were performed 167 on a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM) (EV7, ADE, USA). The electrical conductivities of different pure carbon nanofibers were measured by a direct volt-ampere method (SZT-2A, Suzhou Tong-Chang electronics company Ltd, CHN). Nitrogen physisorption–desorption 170 measurements at 100 °C were performed by a surface area and porosity analyzer (ASAP 2020 HD88, Micromeritics, USA). Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) analyses were done by software to characterize surface properties of porous carbon nanofibers. X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were conducted with an Al Kα (1486.8 eV) X-ray source (ESCALAB 250Xi, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA).

2.3 Electrochemical measurements

 The calcined flexible PAN0-500, PAN3-400 and PAN3-500 mats were cut into electrodes with size Φ16 mm, which were assembled into lithium ion batteries by attaching onto a current collector copper foil with 10 wt. % PVDF which dissolved in 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) as binder. The electrodes were first dried in a [vacuum](javascript:void(0);) [drying](javascript:void(0);) [oven](javascript:void(0);) at 80 °C for 12 h. The PAN0-500, PAN3-400 or PAN3-500 electrode was about 2 mg. Then coin cells were assembled with metallic lithium as the

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182 counter/reference electrode, 1 M LiP F_6 in ethylene carbonate (EC), diethyl carbonate (DMC) and ethylmethyl carbonate (EMC) (1:1:1 by volume) as electrolyte, and Celgard 2400 polypropylene as separator in an [high-purity](javascript:void(0);) argon-filled glovebox (VAC-Omni, OMNI-LAB, Vacuum atmospheres company, CA). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements were performed using an electrochemical workstation (CHI660 E, Chenghua, CHN) at a scan rate 187 of 0.0001 V s⁻¹ between 0.01 and 3.0 V. Galvanostatic charge (lithium extraction) and discharge (lithium insertion) cycling of the cells were carried out using a battery test system (CT-3008W, Xinwei, CHN) at the different current densities of 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5 and 1.0 A g^{-1} between 0.01 and 3 V (*vs.* Li⁺/Li) to observe ratio performance, and at the current density 191 of 0.5 A g^{-1} to study cycle stability. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopic (EIS) measurements were carried out on an electrochemical analyzer (Autolab, Ecochemie, NL). All the current densities and capacities in this study were calculated on the basis of the weight of integral maps.

195 Finally, the morphology of PAN3-500 anode was observed by S-4800Ⅱ SEM and 196 Tecnai 12 field emission TEM after 100 charge/discharge cycles at $0.5A g^{-1}$.

197 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

198 **3.1 Preparation process**

199 The overall synthesis procedures of Fe3O4/PCNFs composites are schematically 200 illustrated in Fig. 1. PAN and Fe(acac)₃ were dissolved in DMF forming uniform viscous 201 reddish-brown electrospinning solution by stirring 24 h. And electrospinning was carried out 202 using above conditions in experimental section. The original electrospinning nanofibers 203 (PAN3) films are yellow. Wide brown slices (PAN3-250) are obtained by pre-oxidation of 204 PAN3 films at 250 °C in air. Black graphitized nanofibers (PAN3-1000) composites are 205 prepared by calcination of PAN3-250 films at $1000\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ in Ar. Black porous graphitized carbon 206 coating Fe_xO_y nanofibers (PAN3-400) sheets are gotten by calcinating PAN3-1000 at 400 °C 207 in air. At last, black $Fe₃O₄/PCNFs$ (PAN3-500) compounds are gained by calcinating 208 PAN3-400 in Ar at 500 $^{\circ}$ C. The pieces have continuous macroscopic area shrinkages by pre-oxidation and graphitization, which can be demonstrated from the microscopic characterizations of SEM and TEM images below. PAN3-400 flakes have obvious weight loss and become more fluffy than PAN3-1000 pieces. A portion of carbon should be oxidized 212 to CO_2 at 400 °C and form a large amount of pores in air atmosphere, which can be demonstrated by the BET results of PAN0-1000 and PAN0-400 as shown in Fig. 2.

-
-

calcination conditions.

3.2 Materials characterization

 It is well known that high temperature is advantageous to the graphitization of 219 nanofibers. The pure PAN0-250 was calcinated at the temperature of 700, 900 and 1000 $^{\circ}$ C under Ar. Table 2 shows the conductivities of carbon nanofibers with the various calcination temperatures and BET results of PAN0-1000 and PAN0-400. PAN0-1000 has the highest 222 conductivity with the value of 476.2 μ S cm⁻¹, which indicates that the graphitization degree 223 increases with the carbonization temperature from to 1000 \degree C. However, the GCNFs have small specific surface area. In order to increase the specific surface area of graphitized 225 carbon nanofibers, the carbon nanofibers are continually calcinated at 400 \degree C under air atmosphere. Fig. 2(A) shows the nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of PAN0-1000

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 and PAN0-400. The BET specific surface areas of PAN0-1000 and PAN0-400 are calculated 228 to be 40.6 and 542.6 m^2 g⁻¹, respectively. After further calcination at 400 °C in air, the specific surface area of PAN0-400 increased 12.4 times than that of PAN0-1000. Fig. 2(B) displays the distributions of the pore size of PAN0-1000 and PAN0-400. Most pore diameter of PAN0-1000 ranges from 15 to 50 nm and a main peak centers at ~22 nm. The pore diameter of PAN0-400 has relatively large variation range of 3.5 – 50 nm. Most pore diameter of PAN0-400 ranges from 3.5 to 23 nm and a main peak centers at ~6.4 nm. As shown in Table 2, it is worth noting that the conductivity of PAN0-400 is also much higher 235 than PAN0-250 calcinating at 700 $^{\circ}$ C (PAN0-700). The method will be applied in the preparation of the follow-up composite of nanofibers in this paper.

 Fig. 2 Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of PAN0-1000 and PAN0-400 (A) and and pore size distributions of PAN0-1000 and PAN0-400 (B).

 The morphology and the diameter of the electrospun nanofibers of PAN0 and PAN3 are compared. It is found that there is no distinct difference between pure PAN nanofibers and

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 composite nanofibers as shown in Fig. S1, indicating that the electrospinning solution together with operation conditions of electrospinning in this experiment are appropriate to obtain uniform and perfect nanofibers. Fig. 3 shows SEM images of PAN3-250, PAN3-1000, PAN3-400 and PAN3-500. All nanofibers exhibit homogeneously distributed diameters. Fig. S2 shows the diameter distributions of PAN3-400 and PAN3-500. The mean sizes of PAN3-400 and PAN3-500 are 250 and 160 nm, respectively. More interesting, when the 253 carbon nanofibers was successively calcinated at 500 $^{\circ}$ C under Ar atmosphere, the average diameter of PAN3-500 decreased obviously comparing with that of PAN3-400, which was due to the consumption of carbon in ferric iron reduction reaction. In the control experiment, the average diameter of PAN0-500 has no distinct decrease relative to that of PAN0-400 as shown in Fig. S3.

Fig. 3 SEM images of PAN3-250 (a), PAN3-1000 (b), PAN3-400 (c) and PAN3-500 (d).

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 morphologies. But the porosities are distinctly increasing along with continuous calcination. As can be seen from Fig. 4(b) and (d), there are many tiny pores and particles in PAN3-400 and PAN3-500. The portion of darker colour of PAN3-400 and PAN3-500 would be iron oxides nanoparticles. The lighter colour would be carbon and tiny pores of them. The little white spots should be pores. The above-mentioned iron oxides nanoparticles, carbon and pores can be certified by following XRD patterns in Fig. 8(A), Raman spectra in Fig. 8(E) and BET values in Table.2, respectively. What should be noted is that in the third calcination process, both the flow of air and the placed apparatuses of PAN3-1000 have great influence to integral morphology of nanofiber and respective content of carbon and iron oxides. Fig. S4 shows two differrent equipments in the third calcination process. Fig. 5 shows the SEM and TEM images of product calcinated using apparatus in Fig. S4(b) in the third calcinating process. Fig. 5(a) and Fig. 5(b) have obvious different morphologies comparing with Fig. 3(c) and Fig. 4(b), respectively. The degree contacting with air of PAN3-1000 in the third calcination process is responsible for the results. What's more, large percentage shrinkage in area would occur or red brown product would generate at much higher temperature or larger flow rate of air. In this paper, the relevant experiments of a series of air flow and differrent equipments in the third calcinating process will not be further discussed. And all of the other products (PAN3-400 and PAN0-400) were calcinated using the apparatus in Fig. S4(a).

Fig. 4 Typical TEM image of PAN3-400 (a) and its partial magnification (b), representative

TEM image of PAN3-500 (c) and its partial magnification (d).

Fig. 6 shows HRTEM images of PAN3-500. The clear shell lattice fringes with

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 d-spacing of 0.30 nm in HRTEM picture (Fig. 6(c)) shows are in good agreement with that of 287 (220) plane of cubic Fe₃O₄. Fig. 6(d) demonstrates the clear shell lattice fringes with average d-spacing of 0.34 nm, corresponding to the (002) plane of hexagonal graphite. But the lattice structures are seldom observed. As shown in table 2, the conductivity of PAN0-400 is reduced significantly comparing with PAN0-1000. The lattice structures of graphitized carbon nanofibers would have been destroyed to a great extent in the calcination processes at \div 400 °C in air for 3 h and carbon thermal reduction at 500 °C for 2 h.

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 Fig. 7 HAADF-STEM images of PAN3-500 (a) and partial enlargement (b), element mapping of C (c), O (d) and Fe (e).

 Fig. 8(A) shows the XRD patterns of PAN0-1000, PAN3-400 and PAN3-500. The identified diffraction peaks of PAN0-1000 nanofibers can be clearly assigned to the 308 hexagonal graphite (JCPDS, card 41-1487). The peak at $2\theta = 26.38$ can be indexed to (002) lattice plane of hexagonal graphite, which manifests the precursor-PAN has changed into 310 high conductive graphitic carbon. The peaks at $2\theta = 24.14$, 33.15, 35.61, 40.85, 49.48,

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336 Fe 2p spectrum (D), Raman spectra of PAN0-1000, PAN0-500 and PAN3-500 (E), and

333

337 TG-DSC curves of PAN0-500 and PAN3-500 (F).

338 Fig. 8(E) shows the Raman spectra of PAN0-1000, PAN0-500 and PAN3-500. All 339 samples show strong D (disorder) peak at about 1360 cm⁻¹ and G (graphite) peak at about 340 1590 cm⁻¹. The intensity ratios R (I_D/I_G) of PAN0-1000, PAN0-500 and PAN3-500 are 0.96,

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 0.99 and 0.99, respectively. The large values of R indicate the degrees of disordered and defected carbon. From Fig. 8(F), the differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and thermogravimetry (TG) curves of PAN0-500 indicate that the reaction is exothermic and the 344 Ioss weight is mainly between 550 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ and 600 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$. But the TG curve of PAN3-500 reveals that 345 the weight loss is mainly at the temperature range of 400 $^{\circ}$ C - 490 $^{\circ}$ C. It can be speculated that the graphitized carbon structures of PAN3-500 are destroyed more seriously 347 than PAN0-500 due to the reaction of $Fe₂O₃$ and carbon etc. and the exothermic reaction of Fe₃O₄ oxidizing into Fe₂O₃ promotes the oxidation reaction of porous carbon at the lower temperature. The residual proportion of PAN3-500 is 36.9 wt. %. According to the results of TGA tests, the original percentages in weight of carbon and Fe₃O₄ in PAN3-500 are calculated to be 66.0 wt. % and 34.0 wt. %, respectively.

Electrochemical Performance

 Porous carbon in the final mat PAN3-500 is sufficient to form a stable framework. So the PAN3-500 mat has very good flexibility, as shown in Fig. S5. The CV measurements were carried out to investigate the electrochemical reactions of PAN3-500 in the range of 3.0 356 to 0.01 V at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} at room temperature. It is seen in Fig. 9(A) the PAN0-500 exhibits a cathodic peak at about 0.63 V which represents the formation of SEI 358 film and the decomposition of the electrolyte $^{[46]}$ and two broad anodic peaks at about 1.16 V and 2.11 V attributing to irreversible reactions with electrolyte. In the subsequent cycles, the peak P2 at about 0.18 V and the peak P3 at about 0.25 V should be the insertion and extraction of lithium ion from the graphitized structures of porous carbon nanofibers, respectively. And the peak P1 at about 0.63 V disappears, indicating the stable and complete

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363 SEI film has formed on the surface of carbon. As shown in Fig. 9(B), at the first cycle, 364 PAN3-500 electrode exhibits a clear cathodic peak. The peak P1 at about 0.54 V might be the 365 initial lithium insertion into the Fe₃O₄ to form Li₂Fe₃O₄, given by Eqn (1) ^[33,47] and the 366 reduction reaction of Li₂Fe₃O₄ to Fe⁰, along with the formation of amorphous Li₂O, given by $\text{Eqn (2), as well as the formation of SEI film }^{[33,41,47]}$ and the decomposition of the electrolyte. 368 The peak P2 should be the extraction of lithium ion from the graphitized structures of porous 369 carbon nanofibers and the peak at about 1.20 V should be irreversible reactions with 370 electrolyte like as the peak at about 1.16 V of PAN0-500 in Fig. 9(A). The continuous broad 971 peaks P3 and P4 at about 1.64 V and 1.82 V are the oxidation reactions of Fe^{0} to Fe^{2+} and 372 Fe^{2+} to Fe³⁺, respectively ^[33,36,47]. The two electrochemical reactions of Fe⁰ to Fe²⁺ and Fe²⁺ to $F^{\frac{3}{2}}$ owning nearby peak potentials and the irreversible reactions could be responsible for the 374 phenomenon that the peaks P3 and P4 merged into a more broaden peak in the subsequent 375 cycles. The total reaction is given by Eqn (3) [33,41,47].

376 $Fe_3O_4 + 2 Li^+ + 2 e \rightarrow Li_2Fe_3O_4$ (1)

377
$$
Li_2Fe_3O_4 + 6 Li^+ + 6 e \rightarrow 3 Fe^0 + 4 Li_2O(2)
$$

378
$$
3 \text{Fe}^0 + 4 \text{Li}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 + 8 \text{Li}^+ + 8 \text{e} (3)
$$

 EIS measurements were carried out at open circuit potential with an AC voltage amplitude of 5.0 mV in a frequency range from 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz to understand the electrochemical performance of PAN3-500 comparison with PAN3-400, PAN0-500 and PAN0-1000. Fig. 9(C) and (D) display the Nyquist plots of PAN3-500 and PAN3-400 383 electrodes, PAN0-1000 and PAN0-500 electrodes after 1 cycle at 0.5 A g^{-1} . From Fig. 9(C), the Nyquist plots of PAN3-500 and PAN3-400 have similar profiles, which are consisted of two semicircles, as well as a line, respectively. The two semicircles and the line from high frequency to low frequency were related to the resistance of SEI, charge-transfer resistance

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 on the electrolyte/electrode interface and the solid-state diffusion resistance of Li ion in the 388 electrode, respectively $^{[13,15]}$. From Fig. 9(D), it clearly shows that the radius of the semicircle for PAN0-500 in the medium frequency region is much smaller than that of PAN0-1000, indicating the porous structured PAN0-500 has much lower electron-transfer resistance than graphitized PAN0-1000. The PAN3-500, PAN3-400 and PAN0-500 electrodes have remarkably small electron-transfer resistance compared with that of PN0-1000. The results indicates the greatly diminutive charge-transfer resistance at the electrode/electrolyte interface should be due to the porous structure in PCNFs of PAN3-500, PAN3-400 and PAN0-500, which can greatly improve the diffusion of lithium ions as well as the transfer of 396 electrons for better elctrochemical performance $[12-16]$.

Fig. 9 CV measurements of PAN0-500 (A), PAN3-500 (B) cycled between 0.01 and 3 V at

399 a scan rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} , Nyquist plots of PAN3-500 and PAN3-400 (C), PAN0-500 and

PAN0-1000 (D).

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401 As the proportion of graphitized carbon in PAN3-500 is 66.0 wt. %, the specific 402 capacitance of the composites is calculated as approximate 560 mA h g^{-1} based on the 403 theoretical capacities of Fe₃O₄ 926 mA h g⁻¹ and graphite 372 mA h g⁻¹. Fig. 10(a) shows the 404 charge-discharge cycle performance of PAN0-1000, PAN0-500, PAN3-400 and PAN3-500 at 405 0.5 A g^{-1} in the range of 3.0 to 0.01 V. In the 100th cycle, the discharge capacity of 406 PAN0-1000, PAN0-500, PAN3-400 and PAN3-500 were 173.1, 261.1, 579.3 and 717.2 mA 407 h g^{-1} , respectively. The test results show that the capacities of composite nanofibers are 408 obviously higher than that of carbon nanofibers. The high capacity of PAN3-500 is attributed 409 to superior porosity of porous carbon and carbon coating good crystallinity of $Fe₃O₄$. The 410 discharge capacities of PAN3-500 in the 1st, 2nd, 10th, 30th, 50th, 70th and 90th cycles were 411 1422.1, 811.7, 672.9, 665.0, 674.6, 692.7 and 700.6 mA h g^{-1} , respectively, indicating that 412 PAN3-500 had high capacity and remarkable capacity retention. The SEM images of 413 PAN3-500 after 100 charge-discharge cycles and one discharge cycle are shown in Fig. 11. 414 And the diameter distribution of PAN3-500 after 100 charge-discharge cycles and one 415 discharge cycle is shown in Fig. S6. The mean diameter of PAN3-500 after 100 416 charge-discharge cycles and one discharge cycle is 180 nm. The results shows that the mean 417 diameter of PAN3-500 after 100 charge-discharge cycles and one discharge cycle is the same 418 as the original PAN3-500, which can demonstrate that PAN3-500 basically has no volume 419 change in the charging-discharging process at the density of 0.5 A g^{-1} . The amounts of small 420 pores which can afford space for inserted lithium should be responsible for this phenomenon. 421 Fig. 10(b) shows the detailed charge and discharge curves of PAN3-500 at different cycle 422 numbers. As shown in Fig. 10(c), the rate capabilities of PAN3-500 were investigated at 423 various rates from 0.05 to 1.0 A g^{-1} to further evaluate the electrochemical performance. 424 When the densities were 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5 and 1.0 A g^{-1} , the PAN3-500 retained high 425 specific capacities of 1050.6, 931.1, 857.0, 709.0 and 501.6 mA h g^{-1} in their own 5th cycle,

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435 **Fig. 11** SEM image of PAN3-500 after 100 charge-discharge cycles and one discharge cycle 436 (a) and relevant magnifation (b).

437 It is worth noting that the electrochemical performance of PAN3-500 in this work are 438 comparable to most of the electrospinning and calcined products, such as $Fe₂O₃$ nanofibers $[42-43]$, carbon nanofibers $[44-40]$ and iron oxides/CNFs composites $[37-41]$ reported in previous 440 literatures, as shown in Table 3.

441 **Table 3** Comparison of the retaining capacity of FexO^y nanofibers, carbon nanofibers or

460 Comment: PS = polystyrene, PVP = polyvinylpyrrolidone, PCFs = porous carbon fibers.

461 **CONCLUSIONS**

462 In summary, we synthesized $Fe₃O₄/porous carbon nanofibers by electrospinning and$ 463 subsequent unique calcination processes. Graphitized carbon was obtained by calcination at 464 1000 °C in Ar. Porous structured carbon was obtained by further calcination at 400 °C in air, 465 which had much higher porosity than graphitized carbon. Fe₃O₄/porous carbon nanofibers

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466 were prepared via the carbon-thermal reduction process by the final calcination at 500 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ in 467 Ar. Porous carbon coating nano-sized $Fe₃O₄$ nanofibers composites had excellent 468 performance as anodes for lithium ion batteries. The reversible capacity was higher than 469 Fe_xO_y/porous carbon nanofibers composites and carbon nanofibers. Fe₃O₄/porous carbon 470 nanofibers kept a reversible capacity of 717.2 mA h g^{-1} at 0.5 A g^{-1} after 100 cycles. At 0.05 A 471 g⁻¹, the composites delivered a reversible capacity as high as 1050.6 mA h g⁻¹. The porous 472 carbon nanofibers of coating $Fe₃O₄$ nanoparticles have good conductivity, which is useful for 473 electronic transmission and fast diffusion of lithium in the charge-discharge process. What's 474 more, carbon can buffer the volume changes between nano-sized $Fe₃O₄$ nanoparticles and Fe 475 atoms in charging and discharging process and make the transition reactions in situ to 476 maintain the crystal structures. So the combinations of conductive porous carbon nanofibers 477 and nano-sized $Fe₃O₄$ are responsible for the higher capability and good cycling stability. We 478 believe much higher capacity $Fe₃O₄/porous carbon nanofibers can be fabricated by more$ 479 appropriate calcination conditions containing calcinating apparatuse, temperature and flow 480 rate of air. More importantly, the method of preparing $Fe₃O₄/porous carbon nanofibers is$ 481 novel.

482 **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

483 **Supporting Information**

 Additional experimental data including SEM images of PAN0 and PAN3, SEM images of PAN3-400 (a), PAN3-500 (c) and relevant diameter distributions of PAN3-400 (b), PAN3-500 (d), SEM images of PAN0-400, PAN0-500 and relevant diameter distributions, two differrent equipments in the third calcination process, picture of flexible PAN3-500 [electrodes](javascript:void(0);), SEM image of PAN3-500 after 100 charge-discharge cycles and one discharge cycle and relevant diameter distribution.

490 **AUTHOR INFORMATION**

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The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Ferroferric oxide/porous carbon nanofibers composites were synthesized by electrospinning and

subsequent innovative thermal treatments, exhibiting enhanced electrochemical performance.