Research Article

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Green Synthesis and RSM Optimization of *Endostemon viscosus*-derived α-MoO_3 Nanostructures for Supercapacitor Applications

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ABSTRACT

This study introduces a sustainable plant-mediated strategy for preparing electrochemically active α-MoO_3 nanostructures using *Endostemon viscosus* leaf extract and evaluates their potential as supercapacitor electrode materials. The aqueous leaf extract was prepared from 10 g of dried leaves in 100 mL of distilled water at 80 °C for 30 min, followed by its reaction with ammonium heptamolybdate precursor solution and subsequent aging, washing, drying, and calcination. XRD confirmed well-crystallized orthorhombic α-MoO_3 with an average crystallite size of approximately 28 nm, while TGA indicated satisfactory thermal stability with 91.4% residual mass. FTIR confirmed characteristic Mo=O and Mo–O–Mo vibrations, and FE-SEM revealed agglomerated flake-/sheet-like nanostructures with interconnected porous regions. EDS showed 66.66 wt.% Mo and 33.34 wt.% O, while BET analysis yielded a specific surface area of approximately 118 $m^2 g^{-1}$ and an average pore diameter of 18 nm. Electrochemical measurements demonstrated a maximum specific capacitance of approximately 458 F g^{-1} at 5 mV s^{-1} from CV and 360 F g^{-1} at 0.5 A g^{-1} from GCD. The electrode retained 94.3% of its initial capacitance after 5000 cycles and exhibited low series and charge-transfer resistances of approximately 1.8 and 7.2 Ω, respectively. Overall, the developed α-MoO_3 nanostructures exhibited promising electrochemical performance for supercapacitor applications. Future studies should focus on developing complete two-electrode devices and evaluating energy density, power density, long-term cycling stability, and practical operating performance.

Keywords: Green synthesis; Supercapacitors; Thermal stability; Charge transfer; Nanoparticles.

1. INTRODUCTION

The growing demand for high-performance supercapacitors has intensified the development of advanced electrode materials capable of providing high electrical conductivity, rapid electrochemical charge transfer, active surface area, prolonged cycling stability, and efficient ion diffusion. In particular, electrode architectures possessing redox activity and structural stability are essential for improving pseudocapacitive charge-storage kinetics and overall electrochemical performance (Ganvir *et al.* 2026). Alongside electrochemical performance, increasing attention has been directed toward sustainable synthesis strategies. Green synthesis provides a cost-effective and environmentally benign route for producing functional nanostructures while reducing the dependence on hazardous chemical reagents (Rout *et al.* 2025). Structural and chemical characterization plays role in understanding properties of synthesized materials. X-ray diffraction (XRD) is widely employed to determine crystalline phases, crystallinity, and structural modifications, whereas FTIR provides information regarding functional groups, chemical bonding, and interfacial (Krishnasamy *et al.* 2026).

Plant-derived extracts have attracted considerable attention as natural sources of phytochemicals that can participate in environmentally sustainable nanoparticle synthesis. Ethanolic leaf extract of *Endostemon* contains phenolics, alkaloids, and tannins and exhibits notable antioxidant, antibacterial, selective cytotoxic, and anti-inflammatory activities (Meena *et al.* 2026b). The suitability of this extract for nanomaterial preparation has also been demonstrated through the synthesis of TiO_2 nanoparticles exhibiting anatase crystallinity, spherical morphology, particle sizes of approximately 50–110 nm, and good colloidal stability (Meena *et al.* 2026c).

Among transition-metal oxides investigated for electrochemical energy storage, MoO_3 has emerged as an attractive pseudocapacitive material because its redox-active structure can support reversible charge-storage reactions (Vadivel *et al.* 2026). Nevertheless, its electrochemical performance can be restricted by conductivity and charge-transport limitations, motivating the development of composites, heterostructures, conductive hybrids, and surface-modified architectures. For example, a MoO_3–MC–SiO_2–PANI composite demonstrated prolonged operation over 250,000 charge–discharge cycles and a density of 31 Wh kg^{-1}, highlighting the benefits of multicomponent electrode architectures for long-term energy storage (Gottam and Srinivasan, 2021). Similarly, electrodeposited MoO_3–PANI exhibited improved ion diffusion and electron transport, achieving a specific capacitance of 683 mF cm^{-2} compared with 203 mF cm^{-2} for pristine MoO_3 (Patil *et al.* 2026). The addition of additional redox-active and conductive components has further enhanced the electrochemical characteristics of MoO_3-based systems. A Co-doped MoO_3/carbon nanosphere electrode showed specific capacitance of 1357.97 F g^{-1}, energy density of 169.75 Wh kg(Hemapriya *et al.* 2026). Likewise, hierarchical WS_2/α-MoO_3 provided 715 F g^{-1} with 85% capacitance retention after 6000 cycles, while the asymmetric device reached an energy density of 37.1 Wh kg^{-1} (Kabir *et al.* 2025). V_2O_5-decorated MoO_3 microplates further demonstrated that heterointerfaces, mixed-valence states, and oxygen vacancies can promote charge-transfer kinetics, with the optimized electrode reaching 1029.17 F g^{-1} and 42.1 Wh kg^{-1} (Pradhan *et al.* 2026).

Highly porous α-MoO_3 nanobenzene with nanosheets directly grown on nickel foam exhibited an exceptionally high SC of 3206 F g^{-1} at 1 A g^{-1}, an energy density of 111 Wh kg^{-1}, and approximately 99.95% capacitance after 3000 cycles (Raza *et al.* 2024). Carbonaceous and semiconductor hybridization represents another effective approach for overcoming transport limitations of MoO_3. An RGO–MoO_3–MoS_2/polyindole nanocomposite achieved 1189.79 F g^{-1}, while its symmetric device delivered an energy density of 67.34 Wh kg^{-1} with 81% capacitance retention after 20,000 cycles (Shoeb *et al.* 2025). Similarly, hydrothermally synthesized g-C_3N_4@MoO_3/NiO showed SC of 1567 F g^{-1} and an ED of 19.72 Wh kg^{-1}, demonstrating the advantages of combining conductive and redox-active components (Alotaibi *et al.* 2025). MoO_3 doping of single-layer graphene also produced effective p-type doping and approximately three-fold enhancement in areal capacitance relative to pristine graphene, further confirming the beneficial role of MoO_3-based interfacial charge transfer (Verma *et al.* 2025). In addition to compositional modification, synthesis conditions and post-treatment strongly influence MoO_3 electrochemical behavior. Orthorhombic MoO_3 microstructures produced by controlled oxidation at 500 °C showed initial specific capacitance of 179.2 F g^{-1}, which increased to 201.7 F g^{-1} following KOH surface activation because of improved accessible surface area (Ondrejka *et al.* 2025).

Despite these advances, most previous investigations have enhanced MoO_3 performance through doping, heterostructure formation, conductive-carbon hybridization, polymer incorporation, surface activation, or conventional hydrothermal and chemical synthesis routes. Comparatively limited attention has been directed toward the plant-mediated synthesis of phase-pure α-MoO_3 for supercapacitor electrodes, particularly using *Endostemon viscosus* phytochemicals as natural complexing and stabilizing agents. Moreover, the relationship among bio-assisted synthesis, crystalline structure, accessible mesoporosity, and Mo^{6+}/Mo^{5+}-mediated pseudocapacitive behaviour remains insufficiently established. Therefore, the present study addresses this gap by developing *E. viscosus*-mediated α-MoO_3 nanoparticles and correlating their 28 nm crystallite size, 118 m^2 g^{-1} surface area, 18 nm mesopore diameter, and electrochemical characteristics with their suitability for sustainable supercapacitor electrodes.

This study investigates the green preparation of MoO_3 nanoparticles using *Endostemon viscosus* leaf extract and examines their potential as active electrode materials for supercapacitors. A distinctive aspect of the proposed approach is the phytochemical-assisted formation of porous MoO_3 nanostructures with favourable surface characteristics and improved electrochemical response. Particular attention was given to correlating crystalline features, pore characteristics, and electrochemical charge-storage behaviour. The findings establish a bio-assisted fabrication strategy and demonstrate the potential of plant-mediated MoO_3 nanostructures for developing scalable, environmentally sustainable, and efficient energy-storage electrodes.

2. MATERIALS AND EXPERIMENTAL METHODOLOGY

2.1 Raw Materials

Ammonium heptamolybdate tetrahydrate [$(NH_4)_6Mo_7O_{24}\cdot 4H_2O$] was employed as a molybdenum precursor. Fresh *Endostemon viscosus* leaves were obtained from locally available plants in Tamil Nadu. Double-distilled water was utilized for solution preparation, extraction, washing, and other experimental procedures.

2.2 Material Characterization

Crystalline structure and phase composition of prepared MoO_3 NPs were investigated by PANalytical X'Pert PRO XRD operated with Cu Kα radiation. Chemical bonding and surface functional groups were

examined using a PerkinElmer Spectrum Two FTIR spectrometer (Shalom *et al.* 2026). Nitrogen adsorption–desorption was performed with a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 surface-area analyzer to analyse BET specific pore characteristics and surface area. Thermal behaviour was assessed using a TA Instruments TGA 550 thermogravimetric analyzer. Surface morphology and particle characteristics were examined by a Gemini Zeiss FESEM coupled with an EDS detector for elemental analysis. Electrochemical characteristics were measured using a CH Instruments CHI660E electrochemical workstation.

2.3 Green synthesis of MoO_3 NPs by *Endostemon viscosus* Extract

MoO_3 nanoparticles were prepared through a plant-assisted synthesis process employing *Endostemon viscosus* leaf extract as a bioactive complexing and stabilizing medium. Collected leaves were repeatedly rinsed with deionized water and subsequently shade-dried. Approximately 10 g of dried leaves were added to 100 mL of distilled water and heated at 80 °C for 30 min. After cooling, suspension was passed through filter paper to recover aqueous extract.

For precursor preparation, an aqueous solution of ammonium heptamolybdate tetrahydrate was prepared at an appropriate molar concentration. Subsequently, 50 mL of prepared plant extract was introduced gradually into 100 mL of precursor solution while magnetically stirring at approximately 60 °C. Stirring was continued for 2 h to facilitate interactions between molybdate species and phytochemical constituents. The resulting suspension was maintained for 12 h to promote precursor formation and stabilization. The solid product was separated by centrifugation and washed using deionized water to eliminate soluble impurities and residual organic constituents.

The recovered material was oven-dried at 70 °C for 12 h. Phenolic compounds, flavonoids, and other oxygen-containing phytochemicals present in the leaf extract can coordinate with molybdenum-containing species by carbonyl and hydroxyl functionalities, thereby influencing particle growth, nucleation, and surface stabilization. Similarly, MoO_3 NPs were green-synthesized by plant as an eco-friendly stabilizing and reducing agent (Ferozgandhi *et al.* 2025). The dried precursor was subsequently calcined at 500 °C for 3 h to obtain crystalline α-MoO_3 nanoparticles.

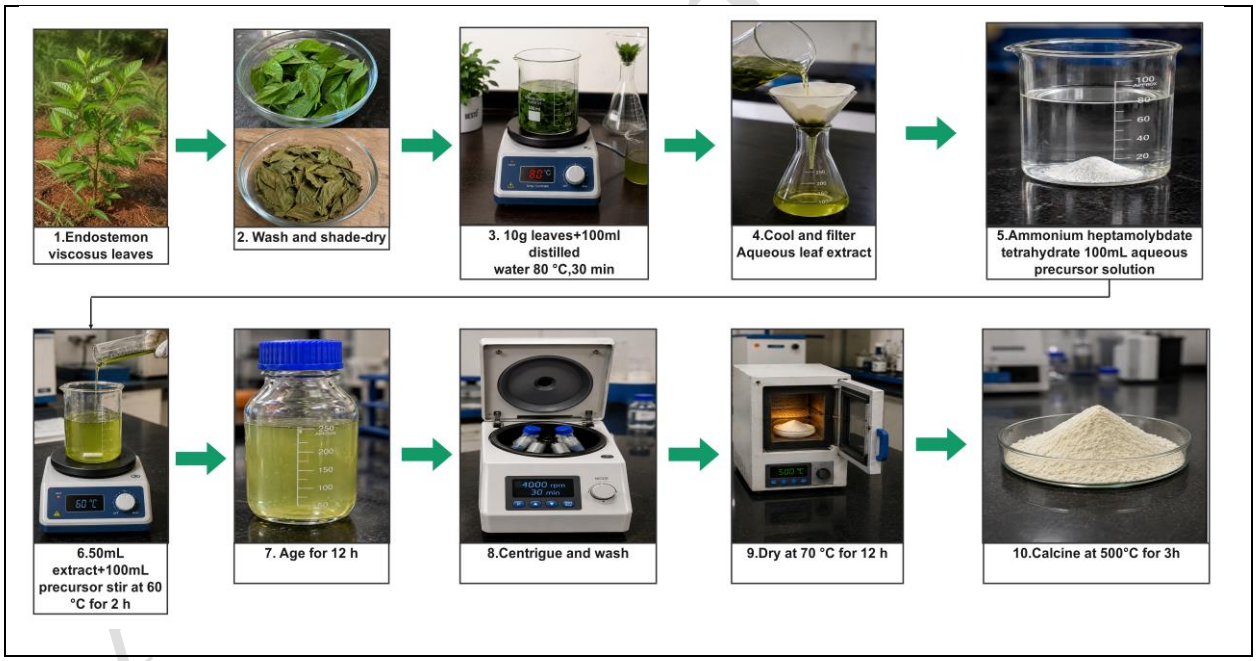


Fig. 1: Green synthesis of α-MoO_3 nanoparticles using *Endostemon viscosus* leaf extract

2.4 Electrochemical Evaluation of MoO_3 Electrode

Electrochemical properties were examined by a conventional three-electrode cell with Ag/AgCl as the reference electrode, nickel foam with an exposed area of approximately 1 × 1 cm^2 as the current collector, and platinum wire as the counter electrode. The working electrode slurry contained 80 wt.% MoO_3 active material, 10 wt.% acetylene black, and PVDF. N-methyl was added in sufficient quantity to produce a uniform coating mixture.

PVDF provided mechanical binding and improved adhesion of the electrode layer, whereas acetylene black established conductive pathways for electron transport. Binder and conductive-agent proportions was maintained unchanged for prepared

electrodes. An active-material loading of 4–6 mg cm^{-2} was maintained. Slurry was coated uniformly onto nickel foam and dried at 70 °C for 12 h. Electrode loading was determined from the mass difference of the current collector measured before and after deposition. Identical slurry preparation, coating area, mixing conditions, and drying parameters were maintained to improve experimental reproducibility.

Electrochemical behaviour was investigated by cyclic voltammetry, electrochemical galvanostatic charge–discharge, and impedance spectroscopy (Edlabadkar *et al.* 2026). Impedance measurements were conducted between 0.1 Hz and 100 kHz by sinusoidal perturbation of 10 mV. Gravimetric specific capacitance was determined from the discharge portion of the GCD profile according to:

$$C_s = I\Delta t/(m\Delta V) \quad \ldots (1)$$

where C_s shows specific capacitance (F g^{-1}), Δt is the discharge duration, I is the applied discharge current, m corresponds to the mass of MoO_3 active material deposited on the electrode, and ΔV shows the effective potential interval during discharge.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Crystalline Structure, Thermal Behaviour, and Surface Chemistry

XRD was employed to analyse the crystalline phase, structural characteristics, and phase purity of the synthesized material. The diffraction profile was recorded over the 2θ range of 10–80°. Fig. 1 presents the XRD pattern of MoO_3 NPs obtained following thermal treatment at 500 °C.

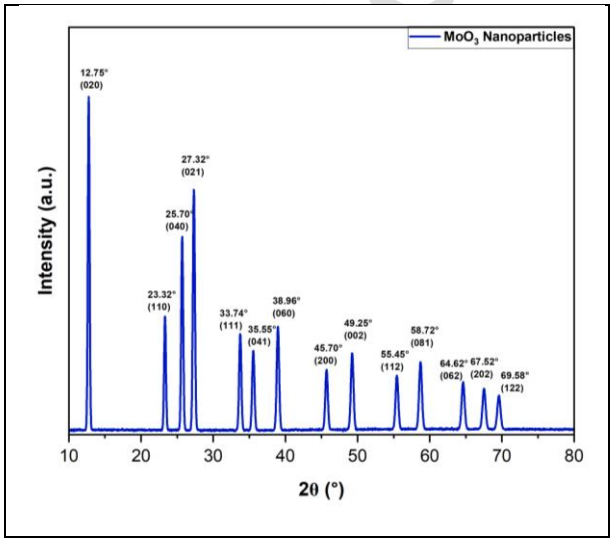


Fig. 2: XRD profile of green-synthesized MoO_3 nanoparticles

The diffraction reflections are characteristic of orthorhombic α-MoO_3, indicating successful development of the crystalline oxide phase. Distinct reflections appeared at approximately 12.75°, 23.32°, 25.70°, 27.32°, 33.74°, 35.55°, 38.96°, 45.70°, 49.25°, 55.45°, 58.72°, 64.62°, 67.52°, and 69.58°, which can be indexed to the (020), (110), (040), (021), (111), (041), (060), (200), (002), (112), (081), (062), (202), and (122) planes, respectively. The absence of prominent secondary-phase reflections indicates good phase purity of the resulting powder. The narrow and intense diffraction peaks further demonstrate appreciable crystallinity. The average crystallite dimension estimated by the Debye–Scherrer relationship was 28 nm. Calculated orthorhombic lattice parameters were approximately a = 3.96 Å, b = 13.86 Å, and c = 3.70 Å, corresponding to a unit-cell volume of about 203 $Å^3$. Recent studies highlighted that the XRD analysis confirmed the successful formation and crystalline phases of Pd–rGO and Pd/MoO_3–rGO nanocomposites, including the incorporation of MoO_3 nanorods within the Pd–rGO framework. The structural characteristics supported effective interactions among Pd, MoO_3, and rGO, contributing to improved electrochemical performance (Wanchan *et al.* 2025).

Thermogravimetric and differential thermal measurements were employed to examine thermal stability and temperature-dependent transformations of the prepared nanoparticles (Amale *et al.* 2026). Figure 2 displays the corresponding TG–DTA profiles.

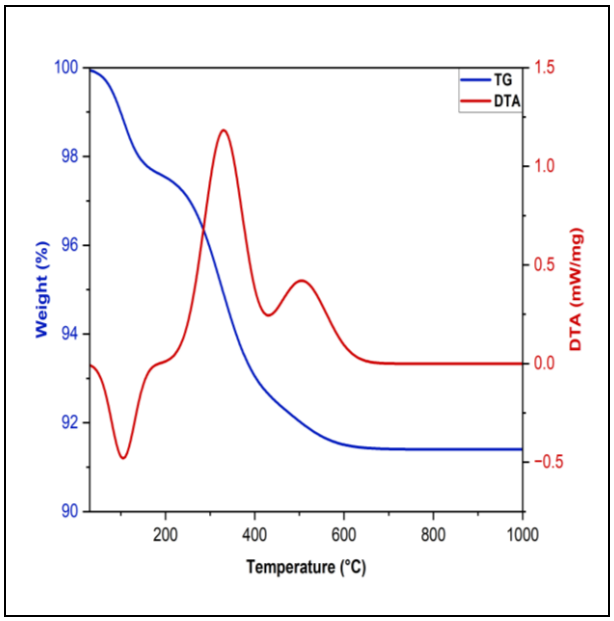


Fig. 3: TG–DTA profiles of plant-mediated MoO_3 nanoparticles

The TG profile exhibited three principal mass-loss regions. An initial reduction of approximately 2.4% below 150 °C was associated mainly with desorption of

physically retained water and surface hydroxyl species, accompanied by a weak endothermic feature near 105 °C. A second mass reduction of approximately 5.0% between 200 and 400 °C can be attributed to the decomposition of residual organic constituents originating from the bio-assisted synthesis process. A corresponding thermal event appeared near 330 °C. At elevated temperature, an additional mass change of about 1.2% was observed and may be related to the removal of strongly bound residues and high-temperature volatilization processes. Approximately 91.4% of the initial sample mass remained at the end of the measurement, demonstrating satisfactory thermal stability of the synthesized oxide. The mass-loss events below 400 °C align with structural transformations reported for MoO_3 nanomaterials; (Zhang *et al.* 2023) identified a first-order h-MoO_3-to-α-MoO_3 phase transition over 378.5–443.1 °C, driven by release of structurally bound water from octahedral tunnel sites. The thermal event near 330 °C observed here likely reflects an analogous dehydration step preceding transformation to the stable orthorhombic α-MoO_3 phase. The high residual mass (91.4%) confirms that the synthesized nanoparticles retain good structural integrity through this transition.

FTIR spectroscopy was employed to identify surface functionalities and characteristic metal–oxygen bonding within the synthesized nanoparticles. The resulting spectrum is presented in Figure 3.

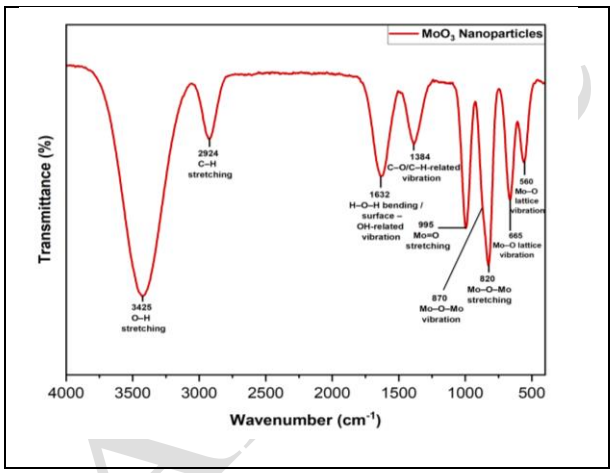


Fig. 4: FTIR spectrum of bio-assisted MoO_3 nanoparticles

A broad absorption region extending approximately from 3425 cm^{-1} is assigned to O–H stretching from adsorbed water and surface hydroxyl functionalities. The feature around 1632 cm^{-1} is associated predominantly with H–O–H bending of molecularly adsorbed water. Weak bands at approximately 2924 and 1384 cm^{-1} may originate from C–H stretching and residual C–O/C–H-related phytochemical functionalities remaining on the nanoparticle surface. The characteristic terminal Mo=O stretching vibration was observed near 995 cm^{-1}, while the bands around 870 and 820 cm^{-1} correspond to Mo–O–Mo vibrations. A lower-frequency feature near 665 and 560 cm^{-1} is associated with Mo–O lattice vibrations. These characteristic absorption features support the development of the Mo–O framework and confirm the formation of MoO_3 through the plant-mediated synthesis route. Several reports have indicated that the FTIR analysis confirmed the successful incorporation of MoO_3, multilayer graphene (MLG), and coconut husk-derived biochar in the ternary nanocomposite. The observed functional groups supported interactions between MoO_3 and the carbonaceous MLG–biochar framework (Saeed *et al.* 2025). Surface features of the synthesized MoO_3 NPs were examined through FE-SEM. Figure 4(a,b) displays the microstructural appearance at two different magnifications.

The micrographs reveal interconnected and agglomerated flake-/sheet-like structures with irregular porous regions. Particle clustering can be associated with surface interactions among adjacent structures during drying and subsequent thermal treatment. Numerous interparticle voids are visible throughout the aggregated morphology, producing accessible pathways that can favour electrolyte penetration and ion migration. Such porous structural networks can increase the electrochemically accessible surface and provide effective contact between neighbouring structures, thereby supporting ion transport and charge-transfer processes during electrochemical operation. Previous studies have revealed that the FE-SEM analysis of nanoparticles green-synthesized by Endostemon viscosus leaf extract revealed predominantly rod-shaped Ag NPs, whereas Chi–Ag NPs exhibited mainly aggregated particles. These morphological differences indicate that chitosan influenced nanoparticle growth and surface organization (Meena *et al.* 2026a).

Elemental composition of the synthesized nanoparticles was further examined through EDS, as presented in Figure 5.

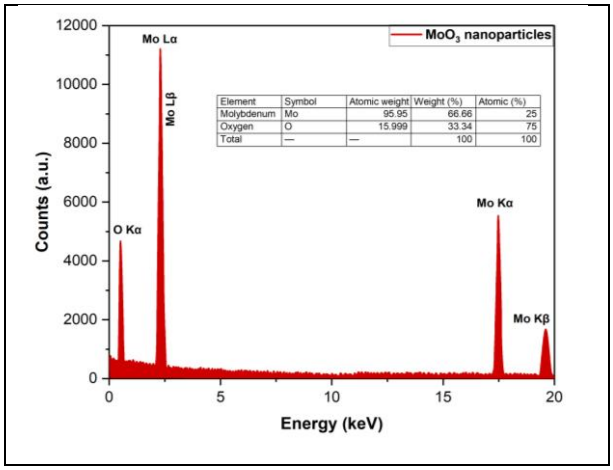


Fig. 6: EDS spectrum of plant-mediated MoO_3 nanoparticles

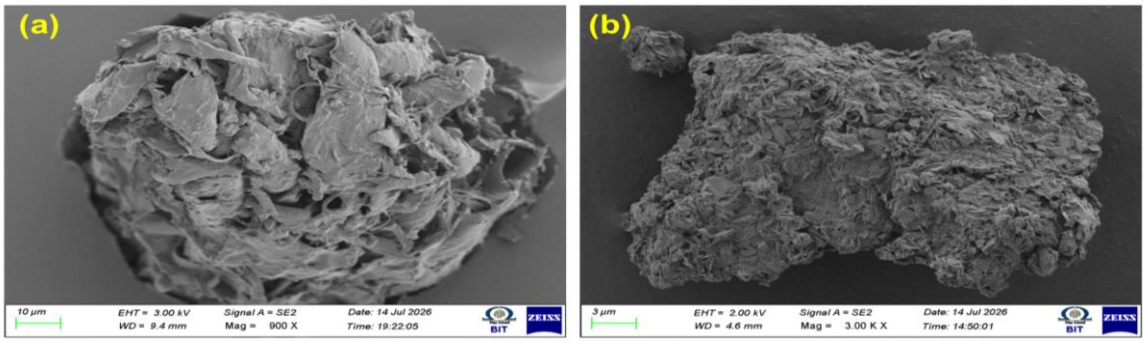
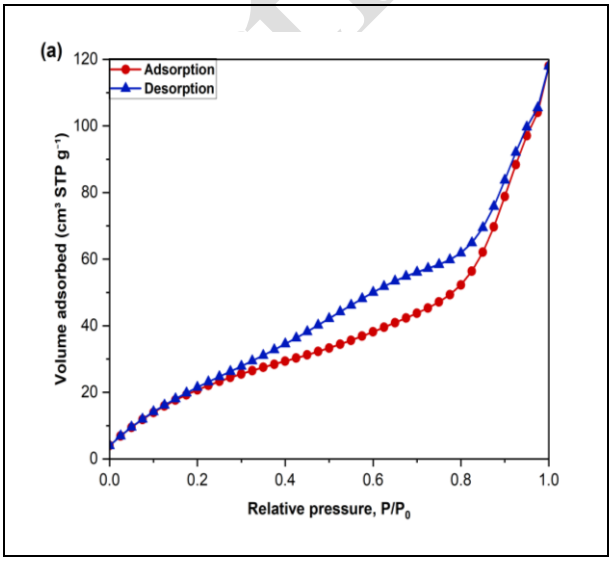


Fig. 5: FE-SEM micrographs of green-synthesized MoO_3 NPs at (a) lower and (b) higher magnification

The EDS spectrum exhibited prominent signals to Mo and O, confirming these as principal elemental constituents of the prepared material. Quantitative elemental analysis showed approximately 66.66 wt.% Mo and 33.34 wt.% O, corresponding to 25 at % Mo and 75 at. % O, respectively. The atomic ratio of approximately 1:3 (Mo:O) is consistent with the expected MoO_3 stoichiometry. No substantial impurity-related signals were observed within the detection capability of the analysis, supporting successful formation of the molybdenum oxide phase. Previous studies have revealed that, the EDS analysis confirmed the presence and successful incorporation of the constituent elements in the MnO_2@MoO_3/MXene (MMM) composite electrode, supporting the formation of the hybrid structure. The elemental composition indicated effective integration of MnO_2 and MoO_3 with MXene, contributing to the composite's enhanced electrochemical performance (Eisa *et al.* 2026). Textural characteristics of MoO_3 nanoparticles were evaluated from nitrogen adsorption–desorption measurements, as illustrated in Figure 6(a,b).



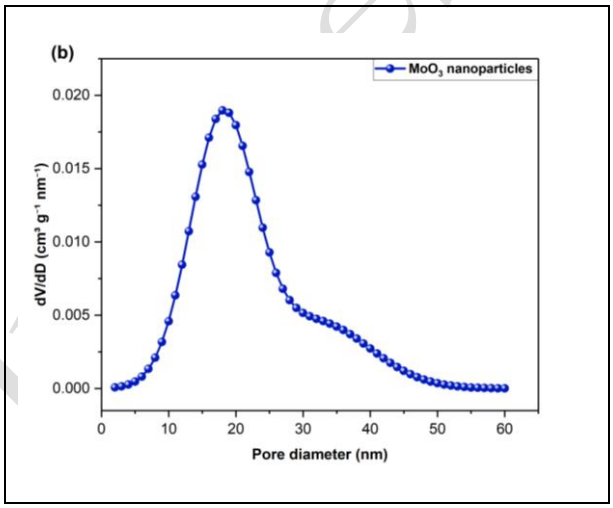


Fig. 7: (a) Nitrogen adsorption–desorption and (b) pore-size of MoO_3 nanoparticles

BET yielded a specific surface area of approximately 118 m^2 g^{-1}. The comparatively large accessible surface can be associated with nanoscale particle dimensions, interconnected voids, and porous regions generated between aggregated MoO_3 nanostructures. These characteristics provide numerous accessible electroactive sites and shorten electrolyte-ion diffusion pathways. The pore-size distribution has a dominant pore radius of approximately 90 Å, corresponding to an average pore diameter of about 18 nm. This value falls within the mesoporous range and indicates the presence of an interconnected porous architecture. Such mesopores can facilitate electrolyte infiltration, ion transport, and utilization of electrochemical surface sites, thereby contributing to improved charge-storage behaviour. In prior studies, BET analysis confirmed the mesoporous nature of the CuO–Mo_9O_{26} composite, providing an accessible porous structure favorable for electrolyte-ion transport. The mesoporous architecture facilitates ion diffusion and increases accessible electroactive sites, contributing to

the enhanced supercapacitor performance (Thirupathy *et al.* 2026).

3.2 Electrochemical Performance of MoO_3 Electrode

Figure 7(a) presents cyclic voltammetry responses of the MoO_3 electrode obtained at various scan rates.

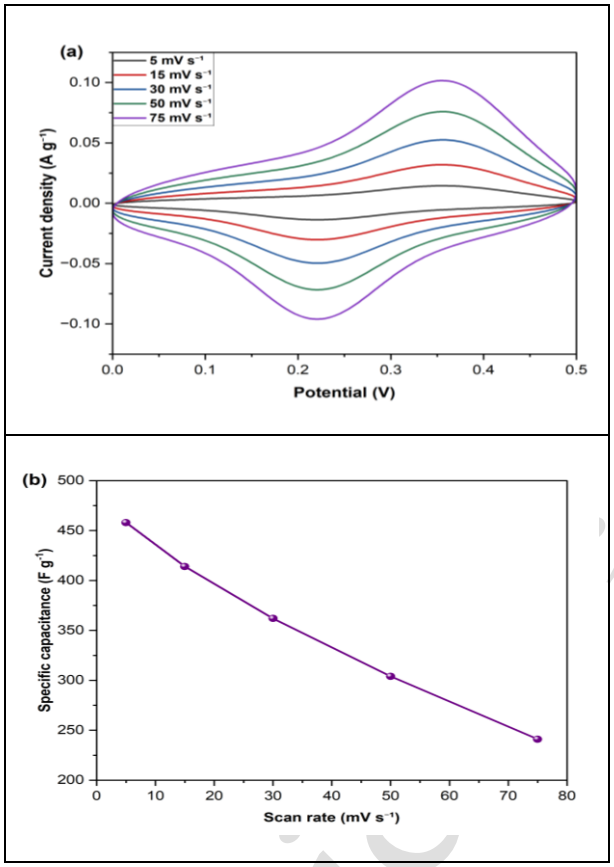


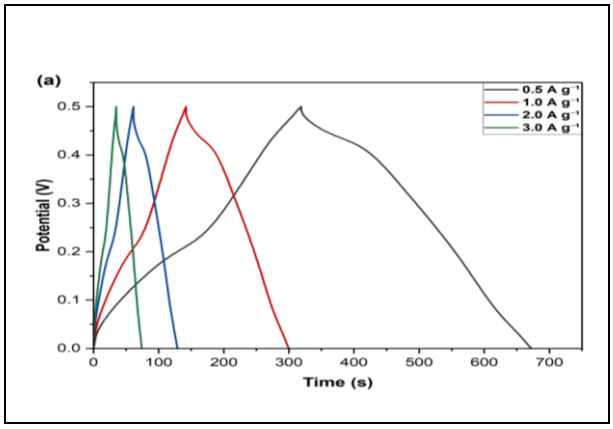
Fig. 8: (a) CV profiles of the MoO_3 electrode and (b) difference of SC with scan rate

The CV exhibit broad redox features superimposed on a capacitive background, demonstrating that charge storage involves surface capacitive contributions together with Faradaic pseudo-capacitance. The redox response can primarily be associated with reversible changes between Mo^{6+} and Mo^{5+} states accompanied by electrolyte-ion interaction with electrochemically accessible MoO_3 sites. Increasing scan rate from 5 to 75 mV s^{-1} produces a corresponding increase in current while largely preserving the overall CV profile, suggesting favourable electrochemical reversibility and relatively rapid charge propagation. Moderate distortion at higher scan rates originates from electrode polarization and restricted ion penetration under rapid potential variation. As reported in previous studies, Cyclic voltammetry (CV) analysis revealed that the electrochemical response of MoO_3 nanostructures depended on hydrothermal synthesis temperature and the resulting morphology. The sample synthesized at 220 °C showed the best electrochemical activity, attributed to its higher electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) and greater availability of active sites (Khan *et al.* 2024).

Figure 7(b) shows the dependence of SC on scan rate. Capacitance progressively decreases as the scan rate increases because only readily accessible surface sites participate effectively at rapid polarization. At slower scanning, electrolyte ions had sufficient time to penetrate the porous electrode architecture and interact at additional redox-active regions. The highest SC of approximately 458 F g^{-1} was at 5 mV s^{-1}. As the scan rate increases, the anodic response shifts to more positive potentials, while the cathodic response shifts toward more negative potentials. This increasing separation reflects polarization and kinetic limitations associated with the quasi-reversible Mo^{6+}/Mo^{5+} redox process. The porous nanoscale architecture consequently provides accessible electrochemical sites and shortened pathways for electrolyte-ion migration.

The electrochemical response of MoO_3 is closely associated with its multivalent molybdenum chemistry and layered crystal framework. Reversible variation between Mo^{6+} and Mo^{5+} oxidation states contributes to Faradaic charge storage through surface and near-surface reactions. During polarization, charge compensation can occur through reversible insertion and extraction of electrolyte cations within accessible structural regions of MoO_3. Structural defects and oxygen-deficient sites can additionally modify electronic transport and provide favourable locations for electrochemical reactions. Furthermore, the mesoporous morphology increases electrode–electrolyte contact and facilitates ion migration toward active sites. The combined contribution of redox reactions, defect charge transport, and accessible porous pathways therefore supports the observed pseudocapacitive response.

Figure 8(a) displays galvanostatic charge–discharge of MoO_3 electrode measured under various applied current densities.



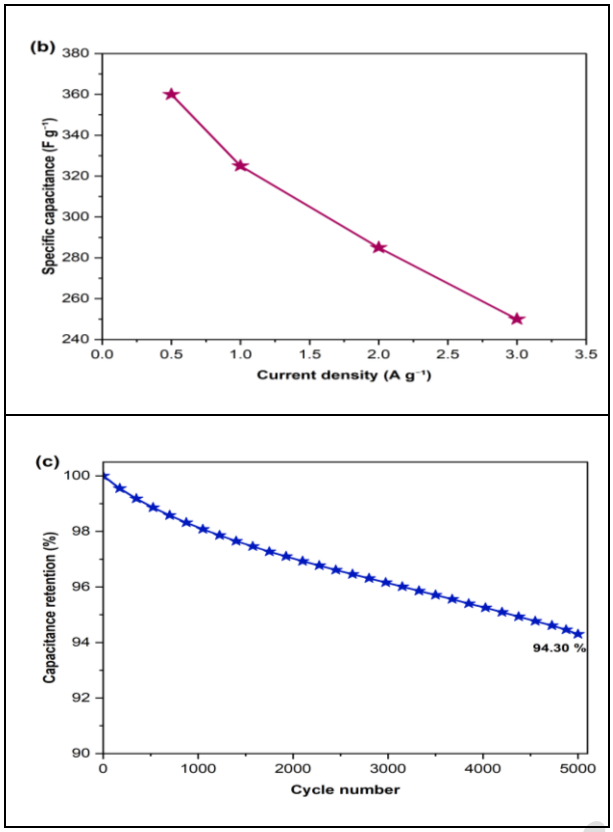


Fig. 9: (a) GCD profiles of MoO_3 electrode at various current densities, (b) specific capacitance and (c) capacitance retention

The GCD profiles exhibit quasi-symmetric charge and discharge branches with moderate deviation from ideal triangular behaviour, indicating the coexistence of capacitive charge accumulation and Faradaic reactions associated with molybdenum redox centres. The discharge duration progressively shortens with increasing applied current because rapid operation limits electrolyte-ion penetration into less accessible active regions. Nevertheless, the comparable charge and discharge profiles demonstrate favourable reversibility of the electrode reaction.

As illustrated in Figure 8(b), specific capacitance decreases progressively with increasing current density. At lower current density, electrolyte ions can access a larger fraction of the available surface and near-surface electroactive sites, whereas rapid charge–discharge restricts utilization of deeper regions. Electrode delivered maximum GCD-derived SC of approximately 360 F g^{-1} at 0.5 A g^{-1}, decreased to approximately 325, 285, and 250 F g^{-1} at 1.0, 2.0, and 3.0 A g^{-1}, respectively. This response can be related to the nanoscale morphology and mesoporous architecture, which improve electrolyte accessibility and provide numerous electrochemically active sites.

The cycling behaviour shown in Figure 8(c) indicates approximately 94.30% capacitance retention after 5000 cycles, demonstrating satisfactory stability. The gradual reduction during prolonged cycling may arise from minor structural rearrangement, partial loss of accessible active sites, or repeated ion extraction/insertion. Despite this decrease, the electrode maintains substantial electrochemical activity after extended cycling.

The GCD measurements further demonstrate the favourable charge-storage characteristics of the MoO_3 electrode. The nonlinear and quasi-symmetric charge–discharge profiles indicate contributions from both Faradaic and capacitive processes, while the progressive shortening of discharge time with increasing current density reflects the expected rate-dependent behaviour. The electrode exhibited a maximum specific capacitance of approximately 360 F g^{-1} at 0.5 A g^{-1}, which gradually decreased with increasing current density, indicating reasonable rate capability. Furthermore, the electrode retained approximately 94.30% of its initial capacitance after 5000 charge–discharge cycles, with good long-term cycling stability. The combination of appreciable specific capacitance, rate capability, and cycling stability can be associated with the accessible nanoscale surface, mesoporous structure, and reversible Mo^{6+}/Mo^{5+} redox activity of the MoO_3 electrode. These electrochemical characteristics indicate the potential of the prepared MoO_3 nanostructures for energy-storage uses. As reported in previous studies, the GCD analysis showed that the 3% CdO/MoO_3 electrode achieved the highest specific capacitance of 671 F g^{-1} at 0.50 A g^{-1}, compared with 386 F g^{-1} for pristine MoO_3. The enhanced charge–discharge performance was attributed to improved ion-diffusion electrical conductivity and pathways in the CdO-incorporated MoO_3 nanocomposite (Roy *et al.* 2025). Nyquist response obtained at electrochemical impedance spectroscopy is presented in Figure 9.

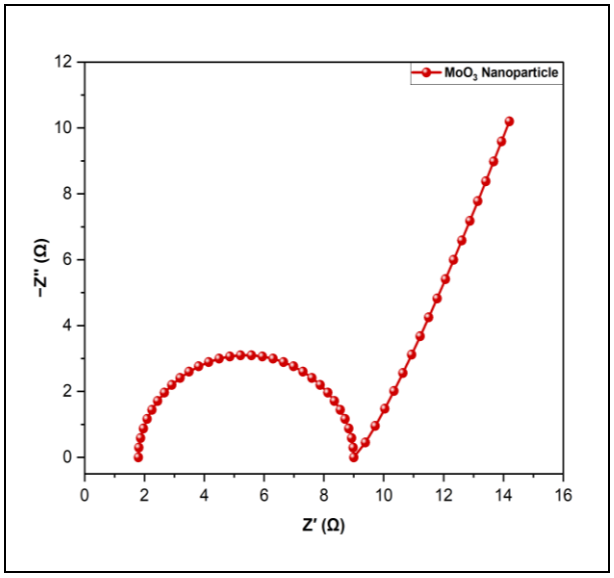


Fig. 10: Nyquist impedance plot of the MoO_3 nanoparticle electrode

The impedance spectrum consists of a high-frequency intercept, a depressed semicircular region, and an inclined low-frequency response. The real-axis intercept represents the equivalent series resistance (R_s) with contributions from the current collector, electrolyte, electrode material, and associated contact resistance. An R_s value of approximately 1.8 Ω was obtained, indicating relatively low internal resistance. The high-to-intermediate-frequency semicircle was related primarily to R_{ct}. Based on the approximate diameter of the semicircular region, an R_{ct} value of about 7.2 Ω was obtained, indicating comparatively favourable charge-transfer kinetics at the electrode–electrolyte interface.

At lower frequencies, inclined response reflects diffusion-related impedance and capacitive ion accumulation. The porous nanoscale architecture provides pathways for electrolyte penetration and facilitates ion movement toward accessible redox-active regions. Consequently, the combined low series resistance, moderate interfacial resistance, and favourable diffusion response support the capacitive characteristics observed from CV and GCD measurements. Although the three-electrode configuration is appropriate for examining intrinsic electrode behaviour, practical capacitance, energy density, and power characteristics should subsequently be verified using a complete two-electrode supercapacitor device.

4. CONCLUSIONS

MoO_3 nanoparticles were successfully fabricated through a sustainable plant-assisted route using *Endostemon viscosus* leaf extract. Structural characterization verified the development of a well-crystallized orthorhombic α-MoO_3 phase with good phase purity and an average crystallite size of 28 nm. Thermal examination indicated satisfactory stability with limited mass reduction, while FTIR analysis verified characteristic Mo=O, Mo–O–Mo, and Mo–O bonding features. FE-SEM observations revealed agglomerated flake-/sheet-like hierarchical structures with interconnected porous regions. BET evaluation yielded a specific surface area of approximately 118 $m^2\ g^{-1}$ and an average pore diameter of about 18 nm, a mesoporous architecture favourable for electrolyte penetration. Electrochemical measurements demonstrated combined capacitive and Faradaic charge-storage behaviour associated predominantly with reversible Mo^{6+}/Mo^{5+} redox activity. The electrode showed SC of 360 F g^{-1} at 0.5 A g^{-1} and about 94.3% of its capacitance after 5000 cycles. Furthermore, low series resistance of approximately 1.8 Ω and favourable diffusion response indicated effective ion and charge transport. The combined influence of accessible mesoporosity, nanoscale morphology, and multivalent molybdenum redox chemistry demonstrates the potential of bio-assisted MoO_3 as an electrode material for sustainable supercapacitors. The proposed synthesis route provides a comparatively simple and environmentally considerate strategy for developing functional metal-oxide materials for electrochemical energy storage.

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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