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# Influence of surfactants on the microstructure and electrochemical performance of the tin oxide anode in lithium ion batteries



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#### ABSTRACT

Different SnO<sub>2</sub> micro–nano structures are prepared by precipitation using a surfactant-assisted process. The surfactants, such as cetyltriethylammonium bromide (CTAB) or sodium dodecyl benzene sulfonate (SDBS), can change the crystal growth direction and microstructure of SnO<sub>2</sub> primary and secondary particles. Larger SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were synthesized without surfactant, and micro-fragments composed of small nanospheres or nanocubes were synthesized using CTAB and SDBS. The CTAB-assisted process resulted in smaller primary particles and larger specific surface area and larger pore volume, as a lithium-ion-battery anode that exhibits superior electrochemical performance compared to the other two anodes. Further investigation showed that the concentration of CTAB had a substantial influence on the growth of the crystal face, morphology and size of the SnO<sub>2</sub> secondary particles, which influenced the electrochemical performance of surfactants on SnO<sub>2</sub> morphology and size in the precipitation and annealing process is proposed.

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nanosheets [10], and 3D hollow or porous nanostructures [11–13]. It has been suggested that the nanostructures can exhibit

excellent Li<sup>+</sup> storage performance such as large and stable

reversible capacity and good rate capability due to their small

size and high specific surface area [1]. In particular, a hollow or

porous structure electrode can provide sufficient void space to

overcome the damage caused by the volume expansion of SnO<sub>2</sub>

during the charge-discharge process, thus leading to improved

lithium storage properties, and resulted excellent cycling perfor-

mance. For example, Yin et al. synthesized mesoporous SnO<sub>2</sub>

spheres that were 100-300 nm, and when the 3D mesoporous

structure was used as an anode material, it delivered a capacity of

761 mAh  $g^{-1}$  after 50 cycles at a current density of 200 mA  $g^{-1}$ .

Even at  $2 \text{ Ag}^{-1}$ , this anode retained a capacity of  $480 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  after 50 cycles [14]. Zhang et al. reported a large and stable reversible

lithium-ion storages from mesoporous SnO2 nanosheets with

ultralong lifespan over 1000 cycles. It exhibited outstanding

durable cycling life  $(420 \text{ mAh g}^{-1} \text{ after } 1000 \text{ cycles at a current density of } 200 \text{ mA g}^{-1} \text{ at first stage and then } 500 \text{ mA g}^{-1} \text{ at the end})$ 

[15]. These anode materials promote electrolyte and lithium ion

transfer, minimize the severe volume change and greatly enhance the electrochemical performance, suggesting that structure modification could be a good solution to the poor cyclic retention of SnO<sub>2</sub>-based anode materials. Various methods have been

applied to synthesize SnO<sub>2</sub> nano-materials, such as thermal

evaporation [16], hydrothermal method [17,18], solvothermal

#### 1. Introduction

Tin dioxide (SnO<sub>2</sub>)-based materials, which are used as anodes in lithium ion batteries (LIBs), have been intensively studied for the last few decades due to their high theoretical lithium storage capacity of  $1494 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  (that is much higher than that of the currently used graphite-based anode of  $372 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ), which corresponds to the maximum uptake of 8.4 mol of Li<sup>+</sup> (SnO<sub>2</sub>+4  $Li^+ + 4e \leftrightarrow Sn + 2Li_2O$  and  $Sn + 4.4Li^+ + xe \leftrightarrow Li_{4,4}Sn$  [1–5]. However, the practical use of SnO<sub>2</sub> based anodes is hampered by their poor capacity retention arising from the large volume change of up to approximately 300% for LixSn alloy during charge/discharge processes [4-6]. This would induce huge internal stress in the electrode material, which leads to disintegration and loss of electric contact, and eventually results in quick capacity fading upon extended cycling. Different strategies have been proposed to resolve the abovementioned problems of SnO<sub>2</sub>-based anodes, and two of them are widely practiced. One is to introduce carbonaceous materials and other metal oxides into the SnO<sub>2</sub> electrodes [1]. The other effective way is to create uniquely nanostructured SnO<sub>2</sub>, which includes nanotubes [7], nanorods [8], nanowires [9],

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.materresbull.2015.10.050 0025-5408/© 2015 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. method [19], precipitation [20,21], microemulsion [22] and the sol-gel method [23]. Among these methods, the hydrothermal or solvothermal method assisted by surfactants have been extensively investigated. By adding surfactants, a number of geometrical morphologies of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals have been prepared. For example: SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes [24,25], nanosheets [24,25], nanorods [25] and mixture of nano-flower and nano-prism [24], spherical and dumbbell-shaped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles [26], cauliflower and flower petals morphology [27], and nanocorals, nanofragments and nanograss [28] were synthesized in hydrothermal or solvothermal process assisted by different surfactants such as cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) [24-27], sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) [24-27], polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) [25], tetrapropyl ammonium bromide (TPAB) [25], and polyethylene glycol (PEG) [26,28]. Here, most SnO<sub>2</sub> nano-materials were synthesized by surfactants-assisted hydrothermal or solvothermal process, and most of them were used as sensors [24,28], optical [26] and photocatalysis [27] materials. There are only a few reports that SnO<sub>2</sub> nano-materials were synthesized by precipitation method assisted by surfactants [29]. Jiang et al. [29] prepared a series of Co-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles surface-modified with different amount of CTAB by the co-precipitation of SnCl<sub>4</sub> and urea, and the mediation of surfactant molecules on the magnetic and optical properties was discussed. Zhao [30] prepared SnO<sub>2</sub> hollow spheres and rod bundles using SnSO<sub>4</sub> as raw material and sodium dodecyl benzenesulfonate (SDBS) and PVP as templates at room temperature through oxidation-crystallization of colloidal spheres, and investigated the catalytic performance toward CO oxidation. However, there has been a lack of systematic investigations of the surfactant-assisted precipitation method for synthesizing morphology and size controlled SnO<sub>2</sub>, especially the electrochemical performance of this synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> as anodes of LIBs.

Therefore, in this paper, morphology and size-controlled SnO<sub>2</sub> samples are prepared via a facile and surfactant-assisted precipitation method using oxalic acid as a precipitant followed by an annealing process. We choose a cation surfactant CTAB and an anion one SDBS to study the influence of the surfactants on the morphology and size of SnO<sub>2</sub> samples. And then, the SnO<sub>2</sub> samples are assembled as anodes in LIBs to determine the electrochemical performance. In addition, the influence of the CTAB concentration on the SnO<sub>2</sub> morphology and electrochemical performance was investigated. A simple mechanism for the influence of surfactants on SnO<sub>2</sub> morphology and size in the precipitation and annealing process is also proposed.

#### 2. Experiment

#### 2.1. Synthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures

All of the chemical reagents were of analytical grade and used without further purification.  $SnO_2$  nanostructures were synthesized at room temperature as follows: first, 1.12 g of  $H_2C_2O_4 \cdot 2H_2O$  was dissolved in 50 mL of distilled water under vigorously stirring, and 0.17 g of cationic surfactant (i.e., CTAB) (converts into

 $9.3 \times 10^{-3}$  mol/L in the solution, which is larger than the first critical micelle concentration (CMC) of  $9.0 \times 10^{-4}$  mol/L) was added and ultrasonically dispersed for 15 min to form a homogeneous solution. Then, 2.12 g of SnCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O was added into the above solution, and this mixture was aged for 10 min. Next, the precipitate was separated by centrifugation at 4500 r/min for 20 min and washed several times by water and ethanol. The precipitate was dried at 60 °C for 20 h in air. The dried precursors were placed in a muffle furnace, which was controlled with a heating rate of 2 °C min<sup>-1</sup> and annealed at 350 °C for 2 h followed by natural cooling to room temperature. Finally, the product (symbolized SnO<sub>2</sub>-CTAB) was obtained. For comparison, we synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> (symbolized SnO<sub>2</sub>-SDBS) under the identical conditions as SnO<sub>2</sub>-CTAB using 0.17 g of an anionic surfactant (i.e., SDBS) (converts into  $9.8 \times 10^{-3}$  mol/L, which is larger than the first CMC of  $1.2 \times 10^{-3}$  mol/L). In addition, different amounts of CTAB were used to modify the morphology of SnO<sub>2</sub>. One is 0.367 g of CTAB, which is between the first and second CMC values, and the other one is 0.728 g of CTAB, which is larger than the second CMC value of 0.021 mol/L. The obtained samples were symbolized SnO<sub>2</sub>-CTAB<sub>1-2</sub> and SnO<sub>2</sub>-CTAB<sub>2</sub>, respectively. For comparison, the same synthesis procedure was conducted without a surfactant to prepare a reference SnO<sub>2</sub> sample (symbolized SnO<sub>2</sub>-R). For the sake of clarity, the detailed amount or concentration of CTAB and SDBS added in the synthesis process of each sample, and the CMC value of CTAB and SDBS are listed in Table 1. Here, it is worth pointing out that oxalate acid is used as precipitant of Sn<sup>2+</sup> ions [31], but it can influence the CMC value of the surfactant in water. According to references [32–34], the CMC value of CTAB is decreased with increasing of the concentration of aliphatic dibasic acids (include oxalate acid). That means the micelles are easier to form in oxalate acid solution than in pure water. Unfortunately, the CMC values of CTAB and SDBS under the corresponding oxalate acid concentration used in this study are lack in literatures. So, the CMC values of CTAB and SDBS in water are used to comparatively study the influence of surfactant kinds and concentration on the morphology and structure of the SnO<sub>2</sub> particles with other conditions being consistent.

#### 2.2. Characterization of the synthesized materials

Structural characterization of the prepared samples was performed using X-ray diffraction (XRD, Model Y2000, China) with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda$  = 1.5406 Å) at 30 kV and 20 mA. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) specific surface area was determined using nitrogen adsorption/desorption with an automatic specific surface area measuring equipment (ASAP 2020M, Micromeritics Instrument Corporation). The structure and morphology of the products were observed using a scanning electron microscope (SEM, Model ZEISS Ultra 55, Germany). The thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed under an air flow of 100 mL min<sup>-1</sup> using PerkinElmer TGA instrument from room temperature to 800 °C with a heating rate of 10 °C min<sup>-1</sup>. Infrared spectrum was performed on a Fourier transform infrared

#### Table 1

The amount and concentration of the surfactant added in the synthesis process of each SnO<sub>2</sub> sample and the CMC value of the surfactant.

Sample	CTAB amount (g); [C (mol/L)]	SDBS amount (g); [C (mol/L)]	First and second CMC of CTAB (mol/L)	First and second CMC of SDBS (mol/L)
SnO <sub>2</sub> -CTAB SnO <sub>2</sub> -SDBS SnO <sub>2</sub> -CTAB <sub>1-2</sub> SnO <sub>2</sub> -CTAB <sub>2</sub> SnO <sub>2</sub> -R	$0.17; 9.3 \times 10^{-3}$ 0 0.367; 0.02 0.728; 0.04 0	0 0.17; $9.8 \times 10^{-3}$ 0 0 0	9.0 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> ; 0.021	$1.2 \times 10^{-3}; \ 6.9 \times 10^{-3}$

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