



# A novel oxygen vacancy introduced microstructural reconstruction of SnO<sub>2</sub>-graphene nanocomposite: Demonstration of enhanced electrochemical performance for sodium storage

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## ABSTRACT

This paper reported an oxygen vacancy contained SnO<sub>2</sub>-graphene nanocomposite (OVs-SnO<sub>2</sub>-Gr), which was prepared by annealing SnO<sub>2</sub>-graphene nanocomposite in 3 vol% H<sub>2</sub>/Ar atmospheres. It demonstrated with a high reversible capacity of around 510 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> after 300 cycles at a current density of 40 mA g<sup>-1</sup>, and an impressive reversible rate performance of 391 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> can be obtained even at a high current density of 1200 mA g<sup>-1</sup> when applied as anode for sodium storage. Evidenced by a new phase of Na<sub>2</sub>SnO<sub>3</sub> during sodium storage reactions, it is found that sodium can insert into crystal lattice of oxygen vacancy contained SnO<sub>2</sub>. Moreover, sodium insertion could arouse a novel structural reconstruction and introduce amorphous phase SnO<sub>2</sub>, which promotes the surface-controlled reaction process and Na<sup>+</sup> diffusion rates, and enables a good rate performance. Additionally, the H<sub>2</sub>/Ar annealing process increases overall conductivity of electrodes, which further reduces the barrier of Na<sup>+</sup> diffusion. It is believed that the as-prepared OVs-SnO<sub>2</sub>-Gr is a promising anodes for Na-ion batteries with outstanding electrochemical performance.

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## 1. Introduction

Due to properties of low costs and nature abundance of sodium, Na-ion batteries are highly promising power sources in large-scale stationary energy storage as compared to Li-ion batteries [1–3]. Graphite is known as the standard anode material for commercial Li-ion batteries, which has reasonable reversible capacity, low lithium insertion potential and flat discharge plateaus, and can provide a high battery voltage, superior cycling behavior and high Coulombic efficiency [4,5]. However, conventional graphite is not suitable for sodium storage application, due to sodium has a larger ionic radii of 0.102 nm, makes it difficult to insert into lattice planes of graphite [2,3]. Although, the expanded graphite has been demonstrated as anodes for Na-ion batteries [2,5], but electrochemical performance of specific capacities, operation voltages and

Coulombic efficiency are still far away from practice requirements. Therefore, a major challenge in developing Na-ion batteries could be lie in finding suitable anode materials [3,5,6]. Currently, researches are moved to active materials of NiSe<sub>2</sub> [7], TiO<sub>2</sub> [8], Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [5,9], SnO<sub>2</sub> [10,11], Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [12], NiO [13] and Na<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> [14]. Among them, SnO<sub>2</sub> is a particularly attractive material due to its high theoretical sodium storage capacity (1378 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>) [9]. However, SnO<sub>2</sub> anodes suffer with low rate performance and pulverization problems during sodium storage processes. The former problem should be caused by the limitation of reaction kinetics, and the later one is aroused by volume expansion stress when sodium ions insert into the electrode [6,11,15]. In order to alleviate these problems and improve electrochemical performance, microstructures of SnO<sub>2</sub> should be modified. Nanocompositing is a commonly used method to improve the electrochemical performance of SnO<sub>2</sub> anodes. Benefit from nanocrystalline features and enhanced overall conductivity, electrochemical performance and cyclability of SnO<sub>2</sub> anodes can be significantly improved [10,16,17]. Following this concept, Wang et al. [18] reported a SnO<sub>2</sub>-carbon nanotube nanocomposite which revealed a high specific capacity of 839 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>

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in the first cycle, and maintained a reversible capacity of  $400 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  after 50 cycles at a current density of  $50 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ . Zhang et al. [19] prepared an ultrafine  $\text{SnO}_2$  on graphene sheets, it delivered a high reversible capacity of  $369 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  after 100 cycles at a current density of  $100 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  as anode for sodium ion batteries. Then, defect modification is another method to improve electrochemical performance of transition metal oxide in sodium storage application [20–22]. Defects such as doping elements [23,24] and oxygen vacancies [22,24,25] can trigger changes in the chemical and structural characteristics of crystal materials to affect the energetics for electron and ion transport, facilitate the phase transition in electrochemical reactions, and modify surface thermodynamics, and electrochemical performances can be benefit from these changes. For example, Zhang et al. [8] prepared an oxygen vacancies evoked blue  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanobelts and obtained a higher capacity  $210.5 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  and remarkable long-term cyclability (capacity retention of 94.4% at a high rate of  $10 \text{ C}$  after 5000 times). Xu et al. [22] reported an oxygen vacancies contained amorphous  $\text{SnO}_2$ , which exhibits high reversible capacity and good cycle life by retaining the capacities of  $376 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  after 100 cycles at  $50 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  and  $220 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  after 800 cycles at  $1000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ .

In this work, an oxygen vacancies contained  $\text{SnO}_2$ -graphene nanocomposite (OVs- $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr) has been prepared by annealing  $\text{SnO}_2$ -graphene nanocomposite ( $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr) under 3 vol%  $\text{H}_2/\text{Ar}$  atmosphere. By incorporating merits of nanocompositing and defect modification, the OVs- $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr was demonstrated with an impressive rate capacity and good cyclability when used as anodes for Na-ion batteries.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Preparation of the OVs contained $\text{SnO}_2$ -graphene

Graphene oxide (Aldrich,  $2 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ , water suspension) and  $\text{SnCl}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Aldrich, 98%) were used as precursors for  $\text{SnO}_2$ -graphene nanocomposite ( $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr) preparation. Firstly,  $200 \text{ mg SnCl}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was added into  $15 \text{ ml}$  deionized water under continuous stirring to make a  $\text{SnCl}_4$  solution. Then,  $10 \text{ ml}$  graphene oxide suspension was quickly added into the  $\text{SnCl}_4$  solution. After treated by ultrasonication for  $0.5 \text{ h}$ , the mixture was transferred to  $25 \text{ ml}$  Teflon lined autoclaves, heated to  $160^\circ\text{C}$  for  $16 \text{ h}$ . After the autoclave was cooling down, the slurry-like  $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr was separated by centrifugation and washed several times with de-ionized water, followed by drying the product at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  under the vacuum. Then, the as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr was annealed in a low oxygen atmosphere to introduce oxygen vacancies in the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanocrystals [22,26,27]. Due to  $\text{SnO}_2$  is an oxygen-deficient n-type semiconductor, the concentration of oxygen vacancies in the  $\text{SnO}_2$  is determined by the partial pressure of oxygen at a certain temperature [28]. Comparing with pure Ar atmosphere, the  $\text{H}_2/\text{Ar}$  mixture gas can provide a lower partial pressure of oxygen, and high temperature annealing provide enough energies for oxygen ions to move toward to the outside of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanocrystals [27]. So that, the oxygen vacancies (OVs) contained  $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr (OVs- $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr) can be prepared by annealing the as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr in 3 vol%  $\text{H}_2/\text{Ar}$  mixture gas at  $500^\circ\text{C}$  for  $3 \text{ h}$  with a flow rate of  $500 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$ . For comparison, the as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr was annealed in pure Ar atmosphere at same experimental conditions. In order to study the sodium storage performance which is contributed from reduced graphene oxide (RGO) components, RGO was individually prepared for comparison by annealing graphene oxide at same experimental conditions.

### 2.2. Sample characterization

Crystal structures were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD,

Philips, X'pert PW1830) using a Cu K $\alpha$  radiation at a scan rate of  $1^\circ \text{ min}^{-1}$ . For ex-situ XRD tests, each scan was collected between  $5^\circ$  and  $35^\circ$  at a scanning speed of  $0.5^\circ \text{ min}^{-1}$ , and samples at the different discharging states were attached to Kapton tapes and measured in thin film diffraction mode. The carbon component were examined by Raman spectra, and performed on a Renishaw Raman microscope 1000 system using HeNe laser (a wavelength of  $633 \text{ nm}$ ). Chemical state analysis was performed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Phi 5702, Physical Electronics). Room temperature electron spin resonance (ESR) spectra were obtained using an ESR spectrometer ( $300 \text{ K}$ , ADANI SPINSCAN X). Thermal stabilities were determined by thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA), which carried out on a Setaram S60 TGA by measuring the weight loss over a temperature range of  $100\text{--}800^\circ\text{C}$  in an air atmosphere with a ramp rate of  $5^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ . Morphologies of as-prepared samples were observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, XL30, FEI) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Tecnai G2,  $200 \text{ KV}$ , FEI). For ex-situ TEM analysis, samples were soaked in diethyl carbonate for  $48 \text{ h}$  and washed several times with methanol to remove the remaining electrolyte, then dropped on a copper grid (Agar, S166-3H) for TEM analysis.

### 2.3. Electrochemical measurement

The active material contained the as-prepared sample and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) binders with a weight ratio of 9:1 (without conductive agent), and dispersed in NMP solvent to form a uniform slurry. Then, working electrodes were prepared by coating the above slurry on a carbon sheet (MTI Corp. USA, EQ-P11440), drying on a vacuum oven at  $130^\circ\text{C}$  over  $12 \text{ h}$  and cutting to disks with a diameter of  $16 \text{ mm}$ . The loading weight of the OVs- $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr and the  $\text{SnO}_2$ -Gr on this electrode was measured as  $1.5 \text{ mg}$ . The electrochemical performance was assessed on a traditional coin type cells (RC2032). Cells were assembled in an Ar-filled glove box, using the as-prepared electrode and a metallic sodium tablet as working and counter electrodes. A solution of  $1 \text{ M NaPF}_6$  in a mixture of ethylene carbonate/dimethyl carbonate (EC: DMC = 1:1 in volume) was used as electrolyte, and a glass microfiber filter (Whatman, Cat No. 1825–090) was used as separators. The cycling performance was evaluated at a constant current density of  $40 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  in a potential range of  $0.05\text{--}3 \text{ V}$  (vs.  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Na}$ ) on a battery tester (Neware CT–3008w, China). The rate performance was inspected in a potential range of  $0.05\text{--}3 \text{ V}$  (vs.  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Na}$ ) at rates of  $40, 100, 240, 600$  and  $1200 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ . Cyclic voltammograms (CV) were performed on a Princeton Applied Research VersaSTAT 3 electrochemistry workstation in a potential range of  $0.05\text{--}3 \text{ V}$  (vs.  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Na}$ ) at a scanning rate of  $0.1 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ . To evaluate the  $\text{Na}^+$  diffusion coefficient, series of CV experiments have been carried out at various scanning rates of  $0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7$  and  $1.5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  in a potential range of  $0.05\text{--}3 \text{ V}$  (vs.  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Na}$ ). Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were carried out in a frequency range between  $100 \text{ kHz}$  and  $0.01 \text{ Hz}$  with an AC amplitude of  $5 \text{ mV}$ , and the bias voltage mode was set as open circuit potential (OCP). For ex-situ XRD tests, cells were galvanostatically discharged to target potentials at a current density of  $40 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  and terminated at  $5$  target potentials in the first cycle.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Structures and morphologies

Thermal properties of samples were characterized by the thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) in air atmosphere. As shown in Fig. 1(a), weight loss mainly occurs between  $350$  and  $500^\circ\text{C}$ , which could be attributed to the oxidation of graphitic materials. When

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