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Mesoporous TiO₂-Sn@C core-shell microspheres for Li-ion batteries†

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Using amorphous TiO₂ microspheres as precursors, we obtain mesoporous TiO₂–Sn@C core–shell microspheres. Sn is encapsulated into a TiO₂ matrix, and carbon is coated outside. This intriguing architecture can effectively buffer volume change and structural stress, thus contributing to excellent long-term cycling stability and superior high-rate cyclability.

With advantages such as high energy density, high safety, low cost, and long lifespan, lithium ion batteries (LIBs) have attracted significant research interest worldwide.1 LIBs are considered as the most promising energy storage technologies for electrical vehicles, portable electronic devices, and renewable energy such as wind and solar.2 Metallic tin (Sn) is one of the most promising anode materials for next-generation LIBs due to its high theoretical capacity of 991 mA h g⁻¹ or 7313 mA h cm⁻³, multiple times that of commercialized graphite anode materials (372 mA h g⁻¹ or 833 mA h cm⁻³).³ In addition, the operating potential of Sn is slightly higher than that of graphite, not only providing a high voltage for a full cell, but also ensuring higher safety.4 However, the huge volume expansion (up to 360%) and dramatic mechanical stress of Sn during cycling cause cracking and pulverization of the active material and loss of conductivity at the electrode, thus leading to quick capacity fading, which greatly hinders the practical application of Sn.5 To overcome this obstacle, nanostructure has been employed to reduce the absolute volume expansion of Sn, whereas the cycling stability is still far from satisfaction.⁶ In fact, nanosized Sn suffers from aggregation in both fabrication and cycling processes. To address this problem, a second phase has to be introduced to prevent the aggregation of Sn into large grains and function as a cushion to buffer volume change and structural stress of Sn. Usually, embedding Sn into a carbon matrix is an effective strategy to improve the cycling stability, since carbon is highly conductive, elastic and flexible.

Another anode material anatase TiO_2 experiences negligible volume change (<4%) upon Li⁺ intercalation and de-intercalation, which contributes to great structural stability and long cycle life. The disadvantages of TiO_2 are its low conductivity and low theoretical capacity (168.5 mA h g⁻¹). Considering that Sn and TiO_2 anode materials possess complementary characteristics, here we prepare Sn– TiO_2 composites, trying to combine their merits. Mesoporous structure and a carbon shell are also introduced so as to suppress cracking or pulverization of the active material. Our final product is mesoporous TiO_2 –Sn@C core–shell microspheres, which exhibit a reversible capacity of 206.2 mA h g⁻¹ at 500 mA g⁻¹ after 2000 cycles. Such a long term cycling stability has never been reported for Sn anode materials. This composite also gives a superior rate performance of 131.8 mA h g⁻¹ at 5000 mA g⁻¹, 5.8 times that of typical graphite anode materials.

Fig. 1 describes the fabrication process, using amorphous TiO_2 as the precursor. This precursor possesses the morphology of monodispersed microspheres with a smooth surface. The diameter is between 150 and 400 nm, as shown in Fig. 2a. After step I, hydrothermal reaction, pure crystallized anatase TiO_2 (Fig. S1, ESI†) would be obtained if a tin source (K_2SnO_3) is not added. In this situation, mesoporous TiO_2 microspheres (Fig. S2a, ESI†) are obtained after 3 h reaction. After 12 h, the TiO_2 microspheres collapse and turn out to be dispersed small particles (Fig. S2b, ESI†), due to an effect similar to the Kirkendall effect. In alkaline solution at high temperature and high pressure, amorphous TiO_2 is etched by OH^- , forming $HTiO^{3-}$ anions. $HTiO^{3-}$ anions then diffuse

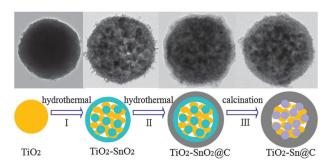


Fig. 1 Schematic illustration of the fabrication process.

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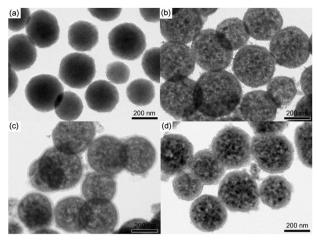


Fig. 2 TEM images (a) TiO₂ precursor, (b) TiO₂-SnO₂, (c) TiO₂-SnO₂@C, and (d) TiO₂-Sn@C.

outside, form H₂TiO₃ in the diffusion process, and transform into crystallized anatase TiO2, which would collapse if the reaction time is long. If a TiO₂ precursor is not involved in step I, pure SnO₂ microspheres (Fig. S2c, ESI[†]) are obtained. When both TiO₂ and K₂SnO₃ are added, SnO₂ is generated during the Kirkendall process (i.e. etching and re-crystallization) of TiO2, inserted into and coat TiO2 mesoporous microspheres, thus preventing TiO₂ microspheres from collapsing after 12 h reaction. The surface of the as-obtained TiO2-SnO₂ microspheres is rough and the mesoporous structure is seen as shown in Fig. 2b; Fig. S3 and S4b (ESI⁺). Then TiO₂-SnO₂@C and TiO2-Sn@C microspheres are obtained after step II and step III processes, respectively. Well-coated carbon with core-shell structure can be clearly observed in Fig. S3 (ESI[†]). A TiO₂ matrix and a carbon shell can prevent the aggregation between Sn particles during step III. SEM images of the products at each stage are shown in Fig. S4 (ESI[†]).

Fig. S5a (ESI[†]) shows wide-angle XRD patterns of TiO₂-SnO₂ and TiO2-Sn@C microspheres. The XRD profile of the product after step I is divided into two phases, namely tetragonal anatase TiO2 (JCPDS 21-1272) and tetragonal rutile SnO2 (JCPDS 41-1445). The broad peaks indicate that this product is not well-crystallized and the crystallized size is small. After thermal reduction using carbon in step III, the final product is comprised of two parts. One is still in line with anatase TiO_2 , and the other one accords well with β -Sn (JCPDS 86-2265). There is a small amount of SnO₂ impurity existing in the final product, since it is deeply inserted into TiO2. Small-angle XRD patterns of these two products in Fig. S5b (ESI[†]) confirm the mesoporous structure. In addition, the weight proportions of TiO2 and Sn are measured to be 39.1% and 37.5% based on ICP analysis, respectively. To further understand the structural properties, Raman spectra of TiO₂-SnO₂ and TiO2-Sn@C were measured (see Fig. S6, ESI†). In TiO2-SnO2, TiO2 is more reflected than SnO2, with five resolved peaks located at 143.5, 199, 395.5, 515, and 633 cm⁻¹, corresponding to symmetric vibration modes of $A_{1\mathrm{g}}$ + $2B_{1\mathrm{g}}$ + $3E_{\mathrm{g}}$ of the tetragonal anatase phase. SnO_2 has an intense peak at 633 cm⁻¹ and a weak peak near 515 cm⁻¹, overlapping with those of anatase TiO2, so peaks of TiO2-SnO2 at 633 cm⁻¹ and 515 cm⁻¹ are more intense than those of TiO₂-Sn@C. Except for peaks of TiO2, TiO2-Sn@C have two broad peaks at 1333 and 1575.5 cm⁻¹, which are designated as disorder (D) and graphene (G) bands of carbon, respectively. The G band is associated with the allowed E2g optical modes of the Brillouin zone center of the

crystalline graphite, while the D band is assigned to double-resonance excitation of phonons close to the K-point in the Brillouin zone. As shown in Fig. S7 (ESI[†]), TiO₂-SnO₂ and TiO₂-Sn@C display typical type-IV isotherm curves with a representative H₁-type N₂ adsorptiondesorption hysteresis loop, according to IUPAC classification. This result indicates the mesoporosity structure, which can also be confirmed by BJH pore-size distributions. The BET surface area and pore volume of TiO2-SnO2 and TiO2-Sn@C are 125.5 and 166.6 m² g⁻¹, and 0.294 and 0.164 cm³ g⁻¹, respectively.

CV curves of TiO₂-Sn@C at a scan rate of 0.5 mV s⁻¹ with cutoff voltages of 2.5-0 V (versus Li⁺/Li) are shown in Fig. 3a. One pair of cathodic-anodic peaks located at 1.73 and 2.15 V can be observed, relating to Li⁺ insertion into and extraction from the interstitial octahedral site of TiO2 reversibly, during which a two-phase reaction occurs with phase equilibrium of the Li-poor Li_{0.01}TiO₂ (tetragonal) phase and the Li-rich Li_{0.55}TiO₂ (orthorhombic) phase. The cathodic peak at 0.6 V in the 1st cycle is ascribed to Sn alloying with Li, and the anodic peaks at around 0.12 and 0.54 V are assigned to the de-alloying process. A large irreversible part in the 1st cycle can be observed, mainly owing to irreversible lithium intercalation into TiO2 and amorphous carbon below 1 V, degradation of the electrolyte, and inevitable capacity loss of Sn. It is also noted that 2nd and 3rd cycles nearly overlap, indicative of good reversibility after the 1st cycle.

The cycling performances of TiO2-SnO2 and TiO2-Sn@C are studied by the galvanostatic method between 2.5 and 0.01 V, as shown in Fig. 3b. For comparison, TiO2 mesoporous microspheres (Fig. S2a, ESI[†]) and Sn@C core-shell microspheres (Fig. S2d, ESI[†]) are also investigated under the same conditions. At 500 mA g⁻¹, TiO₂ gives discharge capacities of 750.6 and 152.2 mA h g⁻¹ at 1st and 200th cycles respectively. The discharge capacity of Sn@C at the 1st cycle is 970.5 mA h g^{-1} , larger than that of TiO₂, whereas it drops to 137 mA h g⁻¹ after 200 cycles. Although the carbon shell is well-coated outside Sn microspheres, the particle size of Sn is too large. The dramatic volume change of Sn during the alloying process would make the carbon shell collapse and pulverize Sn microspheres, consequently leading to the connectivity loss of the active material and poor cyclability. SnO2-TiO2 exhibits the largest initial discharge capacity, due to the formation of Li2O. After 200 cycles, the capacity gradually decreases to 143.7 mA h g⁻¹ with poor capacity retention. When both the TiO2 matrix and the carbon shell are employed, TiO2-Sn@C gives the best cycling performance of 246.5 mA h g^{-1} at the 200th cycle. The increase in the unit cell volume of TiO2 is merely 4% from anatase to lithium titanate, so the TiO2 matrix can effectively cushion volume change and structural stress of Sn during the lithium storage process. In addition, the mesoporous structure can provide enough void space to accommodate volume expansion of Sn, and the amorphous carbon shell contributes to improved mechanical property and an enhanced buffer effect. The long-term cycling performance of TiO₂-Sn@C is displayed in Fig. 3c. Such a long cycle life has never been reported for Sn anode materials before. The reversible capacity of 206.2 mA h g⁻¹ can be maintained after 2000 cycles. The capacity loss in each cycle from 200 to 2000 cycles is merely 0.022 mA h g⁻¹. The initial three discharge-charge curves are presented in Fig. S8 (ESI†), showing a typical sloping voltage profile, with coulombic efficiencies being 48.4%, 85.5%, and 87.3%, respectively. After ~200 cycles, TiO2-Sn@C is further charged and discharged at progressively higher rates for additional 200 cycles, as

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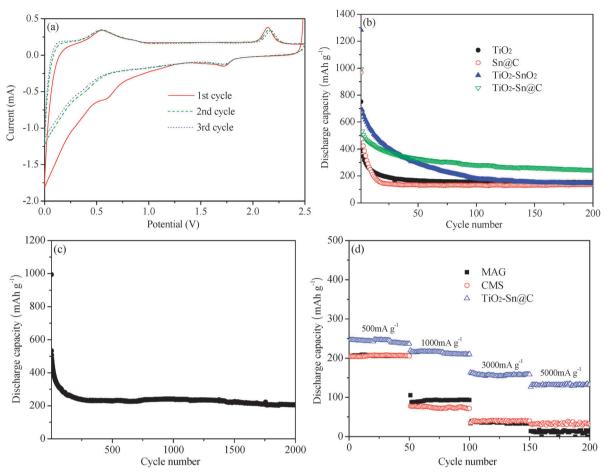


Fig. 3 (a) Cyclic voltammogram of TiO₂-Sn@C at a scan rate of 0.5 mV s⁻¹ between 2.5 and 0 V, (b) cycling performances of crystallized TiO₂, Sn@C, TiO₂-SnO₂, and TiO_2 -Sn@C at 500 mA g^{-1} , (c) long-term cycling performance of TiO_2 -Sn@C at 500 mA g^{-1} , and (d) rate performance of TiO_2 -Sn@C.

shown in Fig. 3d. Two kinds of carbon-based materials are also investigated. They are artificial graphite (MAG) and mesocarbon microspheres (CMS). The average capacities of MAG/CMS at 500, 1000, 3000, and 5000 mA g^{-1} are 206.5/206.3, 96.6/78.5, 37.5/41.0, and 12.5/ 33.3 mA h g⁻¹, respectively. As for TiO₂-Sn@C, they are 242.9, 213.5, 157.1, and 131.8 mA h g⁻¹, much higher than those of MAG/CMS.

In summary, we have prepared mesoporous TiO2-Sn@C core-shell microspheres by using mono-dispersed amorphous TiO2 microspheres as precursors. In this composite, Sn is encapsulated into a TiO₂ mesoporous microsphere matrix, with a well-coated carbon shell. The mesoporous TiO2 matrix and the carbon shell can prevent the aggregation of Sn, buffer volume change and accommodate structural stress of Sn during electrochemical processes. The as-prepared TiO2-Sn@C composite exhibits excellent long-term cycling stability of 2000 cycles, which has never been reported for Sn anode materials. Improved high-rate cyclability (131.8 mA h g⁻¹ at 5000 mA g⁻¹) is also obtained, significantly better than those of typical carbon anode materials.

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