



Enhanced lithium/sodium storage of SnO₂/Graphene aerogels nanocomposites

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HIGHLIGHTS

- SnO₂ nanoparticles with 5–8 nm size can decrease diffusion lengths of Li⁺/Na⁺.
- Graphene aerogel can effectively relieve SnO₂ expansion/shrinkage upon cycling.
- The optimized mass loading of SnO₂ nanoparticles facilitates capacity improvements.

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ABSTRACT

SnO₂/graphene aerogels (SnO₂/GAs) nanocomposites are fabricated via a cost-efficient hydrothermal and large-scalable strategy. In present study, SnO₂ nanoparticles possessing various contents are loaded onto the surface of GAs to optimize the electrochemical activity of nanocomposite systems as anodes for lithium ion batteries (LIBs) and sodium ion batteries (SIBs). SEM and TEM characterizations obviously show SnO₂ nanoparticles with the diameter of 5–8 nm are dispersed homogeneously on GAs through present synthetic process. Remarkably, the optimized SnO₂/GAs demonstrates excellent cycling performance and stability as a LIB anode while delivering discharge capacity of 935 mAh g⁻¹ upon 350 cycles at 100 mA g⁻¹, accounting for 98.8% of the 2nd reversible capacity. Moreover, as for SIB, SnO₂/GAs anode can deliver a discharge capacity of 274 mAh g⁻¹ at 50 mA g⁻¹ after 100 cycles, which is 91.3% of the reversible capacity in the second cycle. The outstanding electrochemical stability benefits from synergistic effects of SnO₂ nanoparticles as well as GAs matrix offering large surface area. Hence, consideration of superior electrochemical property and high yield, the SnO₂/GAs nanocomposite presents a great potential for the electrochemical energy storage.

1. Introduction

Currently, lithium ion batteries (LIBs) have received widespread attention all over the world as energy storage technology due to their long lifespan, high security, and excellent energy density [1]. In addition to portable devices, they are used in hybrid electric vehicles and electric vehicles and have developed into one of the dominant energy storage devices. However, the lithium reserves are limited and they can't satisfy the increased demands on LIBs. Fortunately, the sodium resources are abundant and unlimited in the Earth crust [2,3]. Meanwhile, sodium exhibits similar chemical properties as well as the similar

“rocking-chair” sodium storage mechanism to that of lithium [4]. So sodium ion batteries (SIBs) are another hopeful energy reserve system.

For commercial LIBs, graphite with low theoretical capacity of 372 mAh g⁻¹ suffers from limited power and energy performance when employed as anode material [5]. In addition, graphite is inapplicable to SIBs because of large ionic radius of sodium as well as thermodynamically instability of sodium-graphite system [6]. It is highly demanded to develop suitable anode materials with superior capacity, low cost, and high rate of charge for LIBs/SIBs. As a typical transition metal oxide, SnO₂ with excellent theoretical capacity has been considered as a potential anode material [7]. Nevertheless, SnO₂ suffers from dramatic

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volume expansion during cycling processes, pulverization and poor circulation characteristic severely restrict its practical applications [8]. Designing various SnO₂ heterostructures and morphologies, such as nanorod array [9], quantum dots [10], hollow nanospheres [11] and so on, is a potential approach to restrain these drawbacks. These SnO₂ could greatly relieve pressure from the contraction or expansion upon the charge-discharge process. Another available strategy is to synthesize nanosized SnO₂ with carbonaceous materials, including SnO₂@carbon core-shell spheres [12], Sn/SnO₂/porous carbon [13], graphene-encapsulated CNT@SnO₂ [14], all of the composites mentioned above ensure the implementation of electrode integrity and display the enhanced electrochemical properties.

Herein, we synthesize SnO₂ soliquid with high stability and reactivity, and a facile hydrothermal method is employed to prepare SnO₂/graphene aerogels (denoted as SnO₂/GAs) nanocomposites. As observed from Scheme 1, the positively charged SnO₂ soliquid can be coupled with negatively charged graphite oxide (GO) by electrostatic interactions. Following a chemical reduction by hydrothermal process, the GO in SnO₂/GO is converted into GAs with forming SnO₂/GAs composites. SnO₂ nanoparticles are distributed on GAs and a systematic study is conducted to explore the effect of different SnO₂ contents in nanocomposites for superior anodes performance of LIBs/SIBs. The optimized SnO₂/GAs nanocomposites exhibit stable electrochemical performance and long lifespan. Moreover, the limitations related to volume expansion are minimized in this case because of GAs with high surface area along with nano-sized SnO₂ particles. We anticipate that this technique may provide significant contributions to the development of anode materials in energy storage systems.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Synthesis of the SnO₂ soliquid

10.2 mL acetylacetone was added to 37.6 mL *n*-butyl alcohol under constant magnetic stirring efficiently. After the formation of homogeneous suspension, 34.2 mL SnCl₄ was added into above solution drop by drop at room temperature. The resultant mixed solution was labeled as

solution A. Subsequently, solution B was prepared by dissolving 3.804 g *p*-toluenesulfonic acid in 18 mL deionized water. After mixing of the two solutions, the resultant mixture was then transferred to a flask, stirred at 60 °C for 12 h under reflux. Finally, light yellow and transparent SnO₂ soliquid was obtained.

2.2. Synthesis of SnO₂/GAs nanocomposites

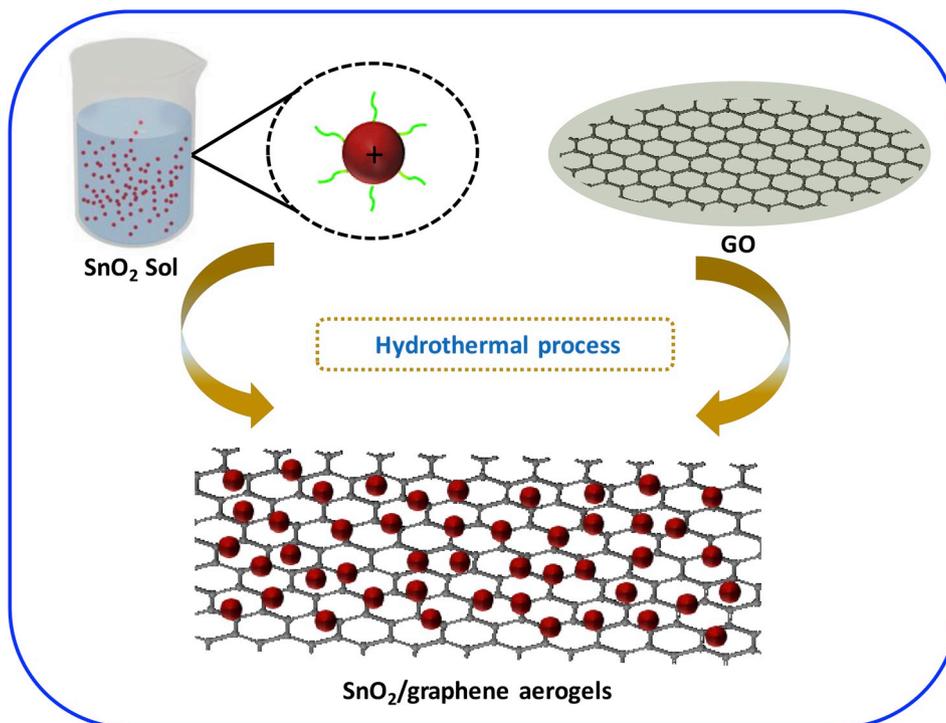
GO was prepared via the method reported in our previous work [15, 16]. Typically, fixed amount of SnO₂ soliquid was dispersed in deionized water (40 mL) and stirred for 30 min, forming a stable suspension. Simultaneously, to control the SnO₂ contents, three varying amounts of GO were added into above mixture by sonication, respectively. The resultant mixture was transferred to 50 mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave, kept at 180 °C for 24 h in an oven. Afterwards, samples were washed using absolute ethyl alcohol and deionized water via centrifugation, and then freeze-dried. Three products were denoted as SnO₂/GAs-I, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III, respectively. As a comparison, pristine GAs were prepared via same approach without SnO₂ soliquid.

2.3. Physical characterization

The morphologies of samples were researched via scanning electron microscopy (SU8010 Hitachi/Gemini500 ZEISS; SEM) as well as transmission electron microscopy (FEI Tecnai G² F20; TEM). Raman spectra were performed on LabRAM HR800. Structure for prepared materials was studied by X-ray diffraction (DX-2700; XRD). The surface element states of products were researched via X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (VG ESCALAB MK II; XPS). SnO₂ contents in nanocomposites were determined by thermogravimetric analysis (Pyris Diamond6000 TG/DTA, PerkinElmer Co, America; TGA) ranging from 25 °C to 700 °C in air.

2.4. Electrochemical characterization

To fabricate a working electrode, active materials (80 wt%), polyvinylidene fluoride (10 wt%), and conductive carbon black (10 wt%)



Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of the synthesis of SnO₂/graphene aerogels nanocomposites.

were added into uniform slurry in N-methyl pyrrolidone (NMP), coating on copper foil and then drying in vacuum. Afterwards, the electrodes were punched into 12 mm disks in diameter, and the mass loading of active materials was about 0.68 mg cm^{-2} . The lithium/sodium metal plates were employed as the counter and reference electrodes for LIB/SIB. 1.0 M LiPF₆ solution in ethylene carbonate (EC) and dimethyl carbonate (DMC) (1:1, vol/vol) was used as electrolyte of LIBs, and porous polypropylene as the separator. The electrolyte of SIBs was 1.0 M NaClO₄ in ethylene carbonate (EC) and propylene carbonate (PC) (2:1, vol/vol) with a 10 vol% fluoroethylene carbonate (FEC), and the glass fibre (GF/F, Whatman) as the separator. The 2032 typed coin cells were assembled in a high purity argon-filled glove box. All cells were tested using battery tester (LANHE CT2001A) between fixed voltage limits of 3.0 to 0.01 V. The cyclic voltammograms (CV) tests were performed between 0.01 and 3.0 V via Princeton Applied Research VersaSTAT4 electrochemical workstation, which was also used to test electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) with a potential amplitude of 5 mV and frequency ranging from 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz. All electrochemical characterizations were performed at room temperature.

3. Results and discussion

As observed from XRD measurement (Fig. 1a) that the diffraction peaks of SnO₂/GAs-I, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III located at 26.6° , 33.7° , 37.9° , 51.7° , and 65.9° correspond to (110), (101), (200), (211), and (301) crystal faces, which indicates that SnO₂ nanoparticles are formed during the hydrothermal process [17]. For pristine GAs, the diffraction peaks at $2\theta \approx 24.5^\circ$ and 43.4° correspond with (002) and (100) planes of graphite, respectively [18]. Raman spectra measurements are carried out to prove the presence of carbon and to characterize the vibrational modes of anodes (see Fig. S1). G band puts down to vibration of sp² bonded carbon atoms, and D band puts down to disorder and defects in hexagonal graphitic layer [19]. I_D/I_G value is about 2.26 for pristine GAs. By comparison, it is 2.18, 2.06, and 2.00 for SnO₂/GAs-I, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III, respectively. The reduced I_D/I_G values suggest improved ordering of GAs layer [20,21]. Moreover, TGA is performed to evaluate SnO₂ contents in SnO₂/GAs composites (Fig. 1b). The dramatic weight loss ranging from 200 °C to 520 °C results from burning of GAs. Therefore, weight percentages of SnO₂ in SnO₂/GAs-I, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III are 36%, 69%, and 82%, respectively.

XPS measurements are employed to explore the elemental composition and the chemical-bonding environment of as-prepared products. Survey scan results of SnO₂/GAs-II and SnO₂/GAs-III show the existence of C, O, and Sn elements (Fig. 2a). By comparison, no obvious peaks of Sn element are found for pristine GAs. Moreover, as shown in Fig. 2b, two peaks at 494.7 and 487.6 eV represent binding energies of Sn 3d_{3/2} and Sn 3d_{5/2}, indicating formation of Sn⁴⁺ [22]. From O 1s spectra in Fig. 2c, it can be identified that three samples show a common peak at

531.2 eV, which results from C=O groups or shoulder peak of O 1s in SnO₂. Additionally, compared with both SnO₂/GAs, the pristine GAs exhibit an extra peak (533.0 eV), corresponding to C–O–C or C–OH groups [23]. In Fig. 2d ~ f, the C 1s spectra can be resolved into four sections, which are centered at 284.2, 286.1, 287.5, 289.2 eV and assigned to C–C (sp² C), C–O, C=O, O–C=O groups, respectively [24]. Compared with that of pristine GAs, peak intensities of epoxide groups-C sharply decrease for SnO₂/GAs-II and SnO₂/GAs-III due to these groups possibly have bonding with SnO₂ [25].

The morphologies of products are identified by SEM. Fig. 3a c exhibit SnO₂ nanoparticles are anchored on the two-dimensional GAs forming a sandwich-like structure and the diameter is ranged in 5–10 nm. Apparently, the loading of SnO₂ nanoparticles increases in turn, in accordance with the analytic results of TGA. Notably, for SnO₂/GAs-III, the particles aggregation phenomenon occurs severely, which may be the primary factor for the poor electrochemical property. Fig. 3d and e demonstrate TEM images of SnO₂/GAs-II, in which the 5–8 nm-sized and well-distributed SnO₂ nanoparticles could be discerned clearly. The lattice fringe d-spacings of 0.335 nm and 0.265 nm are associated with (110) and (101) interplanar distances of rutile SnO₂ [26]. In Fig. 3f, the ring-like SAED pattern is well indexed to pure phase of SnO₂, in accordance with the diffraction peaks of (110), (101), (211), (301), and (200) planes in XRD pattern, suggesting the polycrystalline nature of composites. In addition, the uniformity of SnO₂/GAs-II is also proven by the element mapping, as shown in Fig. 3g ~ j (Fig. S2 for SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III). Clearly, Sn, C, and O signals are homogeneously distributed within the chosen region, which further demonstrates the uniformly dispersion of SnO₂ nanoparticles on GAs.

Electrochemical performance of as-prepared samples for LIBs is investigated. For all SnO₂/GAs electrodes, the specific capacities are calculated in view of the full mass of the composites. Fig. 4a exhibits the first four CV curves of SnO₂/GAs-II ranging from 0.01 to 3.0 V (Figs. S3a and b for SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III). For all composites, the characteristics of these curves are assigned to reaction mechanism of SnO₂ anode during cycling, as shown by Eqs. (1) and (2):



In the initial cycle, one can see that cathodic peak at 0.81 V results from conversion of SnO₂ to Sn and generation of solid electrolyte interface (SEI) film, which is in good agreement with Eq. (1) [27]. Notably, this reduction peak shifts to 1.05 V in the following scanning cycles, which further reveals irreversibility of the reaction during the first cycle [28]. Two clear oxidation peaks (0.10 and 0.62 V) could be observed, standing for the alloying/de-alloying of Li_xSn, as described by Eq. (2), and the reversible alloying/de-alloying reactions are mainly contributive to lithium storage capacity. Another oxidation peak (1.25 V) results from the transformation from Sn to SnO or SnO₂,

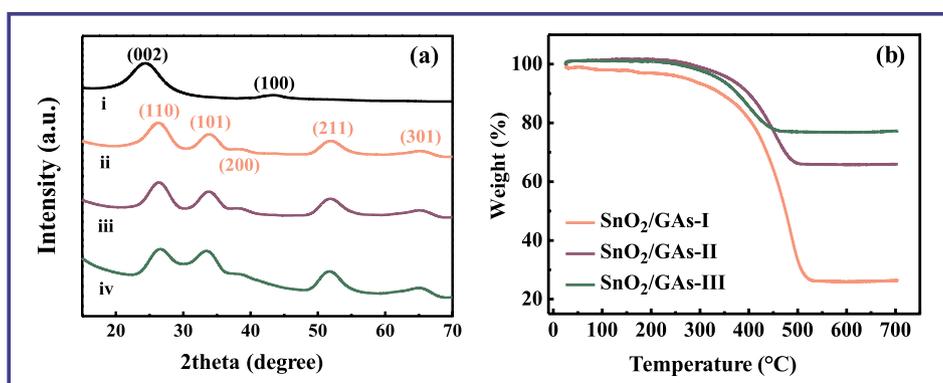


Fig. 1. (a) XRD patterns of (i) pristine GAs, (ii) SnO₂/GAs-I, (iii) SnO₂/GAs-II, and (iv) SnO₂/GAs-III; (b) TGA curves of SnO₂/GAs-I, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III.

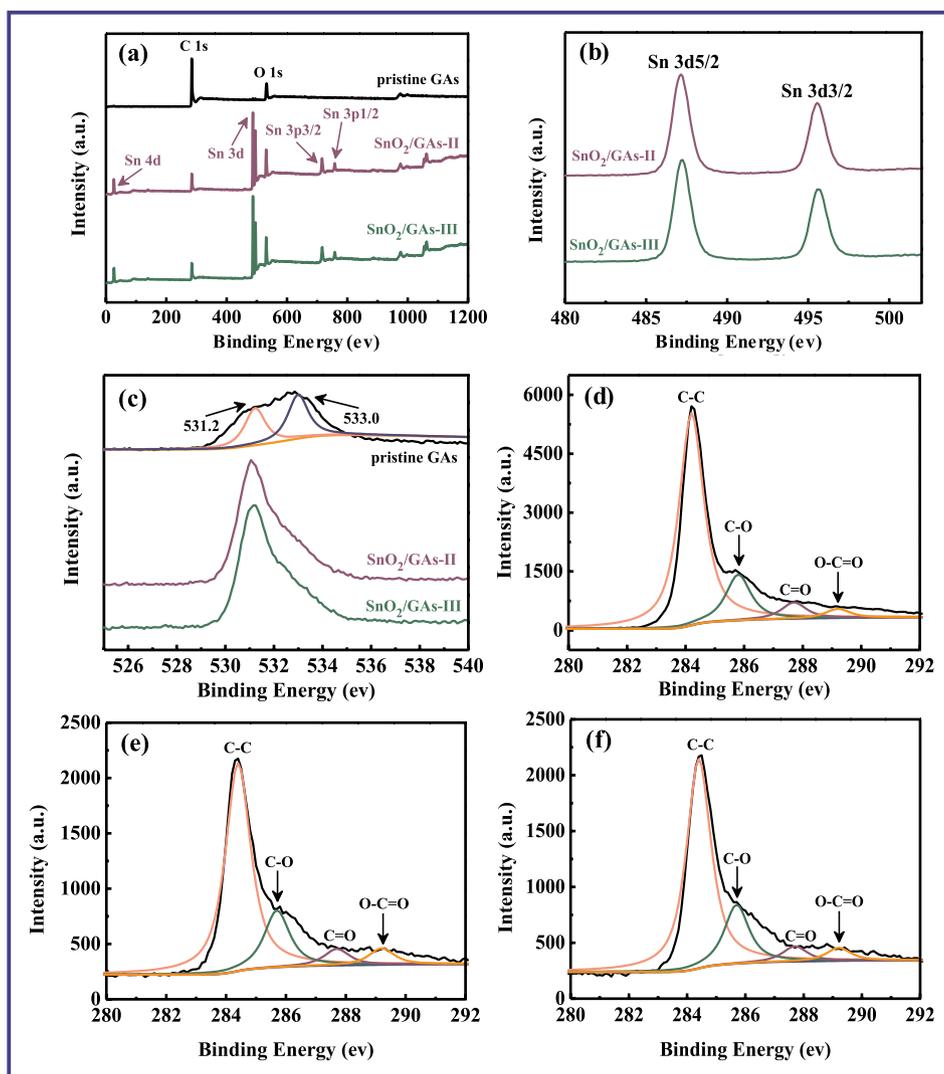


Fig. 2. (a) The survey XPS spectra of pristine GAs, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III; (b) Sn 3d spectra of SnO₂/GAs-II and SnO₂/GAs-III; (c) O 1s spectra of pristine GAs, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III; C 1s spectra of (d) pristine GAs, (e) SnO₂/GAs-II, and (f) SnO₂/GAs-III.

indicating that the partial reversibility of Eq. (1) [29,30]. Fig. 4b presents charge/discharge tests of SnO₂/GAs-II (Figs. S3c and d for SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III). In first cycle, discharge (charge) capacities of SnO₂/GAs-I, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III anodes are estimated to be 1004.1 (796.9), 1553.3 (960.1), and 1357.8 (745) mAh g⁻¹. Massive irreversible capacities of these electrodes probably result from decomposition of electrolyte upon lithiation as well as formation of SEI layer. In addition, compared with SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III, discharge/charge capacities of SnO₂/GAs-II are relatively consistent during cycling, suggesting that the cyclic performance tends to be stable.

As observed from Fig. 4c, cycling capacities of bare SnO₂ (see supporting materials for the detailed synthesis information) and pristine GAs are inferior and unstable at 100 mA g⁻¹. Moreover, the aggregation phenomenon of SnO₂ particles is severe (see Fig. S4), which can be responsible for the poor electrochemical performance. Theoretically, the designed SnO₂/GAs anodes are supposed to own enhanced electrochemical property due to synergistic effect. However, the cyclic performance of SnO₂/GAs-III composite is also not satisfactory. Upon 100 cycles, its reversible capacity declines rapidly to 467.6 mAh g⁻¹, the corresponding retention is approximately 55.0% (compared to the 2nd cycle, 849.4 mAh g⁻¹). The essential factors include that high SnO₂ loading leads to severe aggregation and some active materials lose electrical contact with the matrix due to volume expansion upon cycling.

Whereas, with the increasing of GAs, it can ensure the uniform distribution of SnO₂ nanoparticles, along with the high surface area of GAs, the volume expansion of SnO₂ can be effectively restrained. Hence, SnO₂/GAs-I anode obtains the improved capacity of 709.6 mAh g⁻¹ in the 100th cycle. However, due to the low loading of SnO₂, finite SnO₂ particles can't sufficiently exploit the high specific surface area of GAs, and the SnO₂/GAs-I contained less SnO₂ has the lower theoretical specific capacity, resulting in the cycling performance with a certain degree of limitation. Fortunately, SnO₂/GAs-II composite with suitable SnO₂ content presents the best cycling performance for all as-prepared products. It remains stable at around 818.5 mAh g⁻¹ when the test is prolonged to 100 cycles. Notably, the cycling curves of as-prepared samples are not smooth due to the variable temperature in the testing room. Rate capacity under various current densities is performed to further study electrochemical property of SnO₂/GAs composites (Fig. 4d). Impressively, compared with SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III, SnO₂/GAs-II manifests exceptional rate capabilities of 853.3, 716.3, 625.5, and 542.4 mAh g⁻¹ at 100, 200, 400, and 800 mA g⁻¹. Besides, reversible capacity can recover completely when current density is decreased to 100 mA g⁻¹.

The cyclability of SnO₂/GAs-II is investigated at higher current densities (Fig. 5a). It still achieves the excellent reversible capacity of 935 mAh g⁻¹ upon 350 cycles under 100 mA g⁻¹, accounting for 98.8%

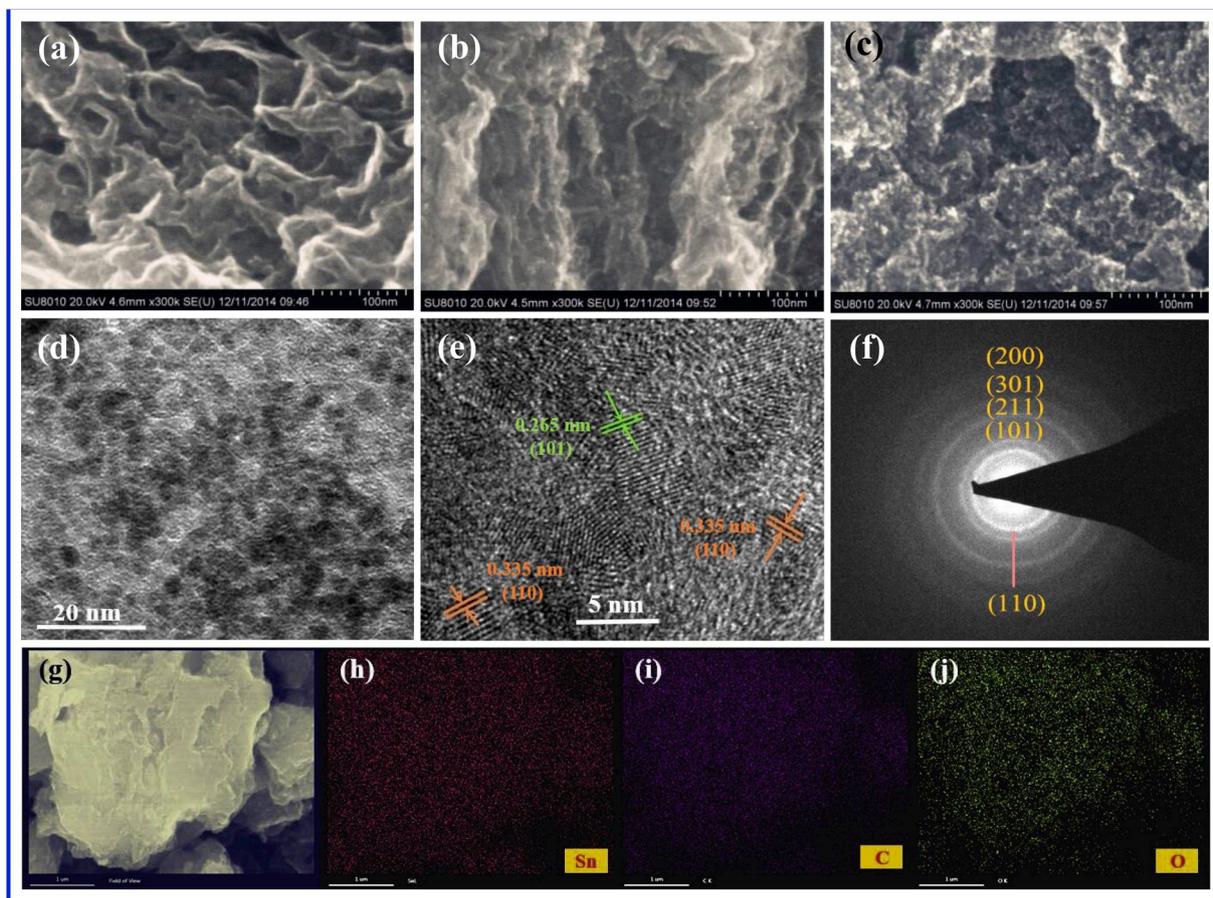


Fig. 3. Typical SEM images of (a) SnO₂/GAS-I, (b) SnO₂/GAS-II, and (c) SnO₂/GAS-III; The characteristics of SnO₂/GAS-II: (d) TEM image, (e) HRTEM image, (f) selected-area diffraction (SAED) pattern, (g ~ j) the elemental mapping images.

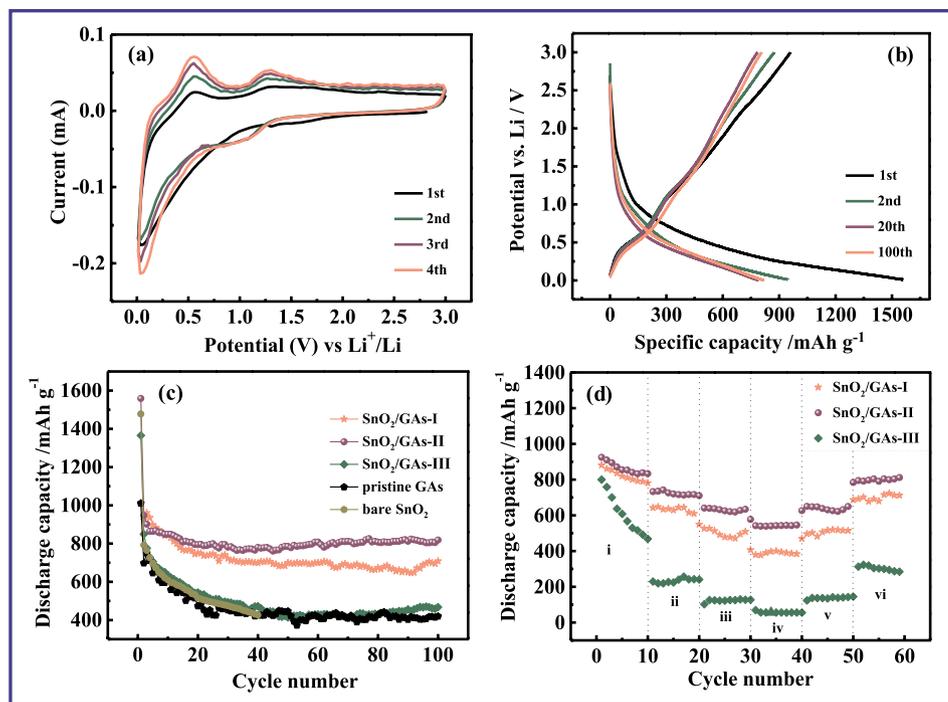


Fig. 4. Electrochemical performance for LIBs: (a) The cyclic voltammetry curves of SnO₂/GAS-II at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V; (b) The discharge/charge profiles of SnO₂/GAS-II in the 1st, 2nd, 20th, and 100th cycles; (c) Comparison of the cyclic performance of pristine GAS, bare SnO₂, SnO₂/GAS-I, SnO₂/GAS-II, and SnO₂/GAS-III at a current density of 100 mA g⁻¹; (d) Rate capability of SnO₂/GAS-I, SnO₂/GAS-II, and SnO₂/GAS-III at various current densities: (i) 100, (ii) 200, (iii) 400, (iv) 800, (v) 400, (vi) 100 mA g⁻¹.

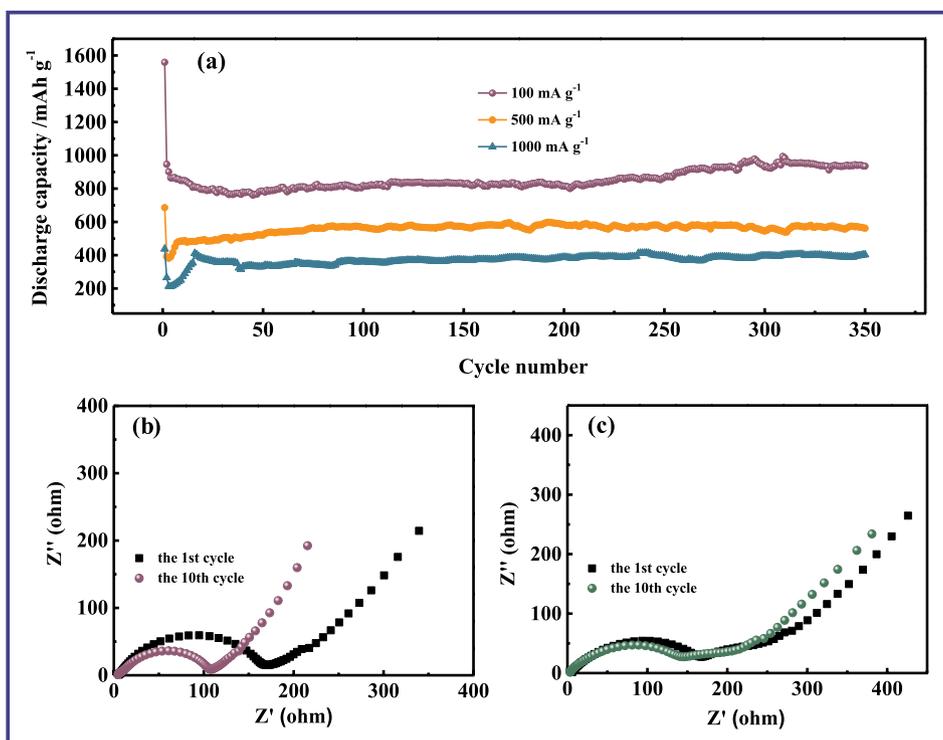


Fig. 5. Electrochemical performance for LIBs: (a) Comparison of the cyclic performance of SnO₂/GAs-II at various current densities of 100, 500, and 1000 mA g⁻¹; The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of (b) SnO₂/GAs-II and (c) SnO₂/GAs-III in the 1st and 10th cycles at a charged state of 0.6 V.

of the 2nd reversible capacity. Meanwhile, at 500 and 1000 mA g⁻¹, capacities reach 562.4 and 402.8 mAh g⁻¹ after 350 cycles (capacity retentions are 143.6% and 151.9% compared with the 2nd cycle value, respectively). Therefore, it can be speculated that SnO₂/GAs-II composite anode still possesses good reversibility even in the high current density and prolonged circle number. Compared with the SnO₂-based anode materials reported by others, the lithium storage performance of SnO₂/GAs-II is competitive and even better in terms of high capacity and long life, as shown in Table S1. EIS is carried out to investigate the mechanism for the different cycle performance of SnO₂/GAs-II and SnO₂/GAs-III composites (see Fig. 5b and c). Apparently, the charge transfer resistances (R_{ct}) are similar at first cycle for SnO₂/GAs-II (168 Ω) and SnO₂/GAs-III (172 Ω). After 10 cycles, the R_{ct} of SnO₂/GAs-II is rapidly reduced to 108 Ω, which is smaller than that of SnO₂/GAs-III (146 Ω). EIS analysis confirms that the high conductivity of SnO₂/GAs-II and thus extremely accelerates rapid electron transport during repeated lithiation-delithiation cycles [31].

SIB is also assembled to further study the outstanding electrochemical performance of as-prepared nanocomposites. The redox couple properties of SnO₂/GAs-II are presented by CV curves in Fig. 6a (Figs. S5a and b for SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III). The reaction process is represented by Eqs. (3) and (4):



During initial cathodic scan, broad irreversible peaks around 1.3 and 1.0 V are assigned to irreversible reduction of electrolyte to form SEI film and reaction for SnO₂ to Sn [32]. The peak at 1.5 V in the oxidation process corresponds to the reversible de-alloying of Na_xSn [33]. The voltammograms are superimposable after the first cycle, indicating stable oxidation/reduction reaction and high reversibility of these SnO₂/GAs anodes. Fig. 6b presents the discharge/charge profiles for SnO₂/GAs-II at 50 mA g⁻¹ (Figs. S5c and d for SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III). As can be seen, a characteristic irreversible discharge plateau

from 0.7 to 1.25 V is observed, which results from formation of SEI film and irreversible reaction between SnO₂ and Na⁺. For SnO₂/GAs-II electrode, the initial discharge/charge capacities are 711.4/274.9 mAh g⁻¹, which are higher than that of SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III electrodes. In the subsequent cycle, SnO₂/GAs-II delivers discharge capacities of 300, 268.5, and 274 mAh g⁻¹ in the 2nd, 50th, and 100th cycles, respectively, showing good electrochemical stability.

In Fig. 6c, cycle performance is conducted at 50 mA g⁻¹ via galvanostatic measurements. Capacity of pristine GAs fades from 538 to 132 mAh g⁻¹ upon 100 cycles. Meanwhile, the bare SnO₂ also exhibits poor cycle life. By comparison, SnO₂/GAs with different mass loading shows enhanced electrochemical performance. As expected, SnO₂/GAs-II achieves a superior reversible capacity of 274 mAh g⁻¹ in the 100th cycle. However, SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III deliver lower reversible capacities of 207 and 190 mAh g⁻¹. More strikingly, for SnO₂/GAs-II electrode, the retentive capacity of 274 mAh g⁻¹ up to 100 cycles is 91.3% of the second cycle capacity (300 mAh g⁻¹), showing outstanding electrochemical stability. While capacity retentions of SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III are 71.9% and 76.4%, respectively. Moreover, as shown in Fig. 6d, SnO₂/GAs-II also shows a better rate capability at various current densities than that of SnO₂/GAs-I and SnO₂/GAs-III. The retained discharge capacities of three SnO₂/GAs anodes at 50, 100, 200, and 400 mA g⁻¹ are compared, as described in Fig. S6, the SnO₂/GAs-II is observed to sustain high capacity retention. Fig. 6e and f display the impedance spectra of SnO₂/GAs-II and SnO₂/GAs-III samples (Figs. S7a and b for pristine GAs and SnO₂/GAs-I). As a whole, the R_{ct} of all electrodes decrease with the increase of discharge depth (Table S2), illustrating that sodium insertion gradually enhances electronic conductivity of electrodes. In addition, R_{ct} for SnO₂/GAs-II electrode is smaller than those of other electrodes in the 1st and 5th cycles, respectively, suggesting that SnO₂/GAs-II electrode possesses an enhanced electron and sodium ion transport.

Based on the above discussion, SnO₂/GAs-II shows obvious advantages as anode material in LIBs and SIBs, which are attributed to the following points: (1) the synthesized SnO₂ soliquid has high stability and

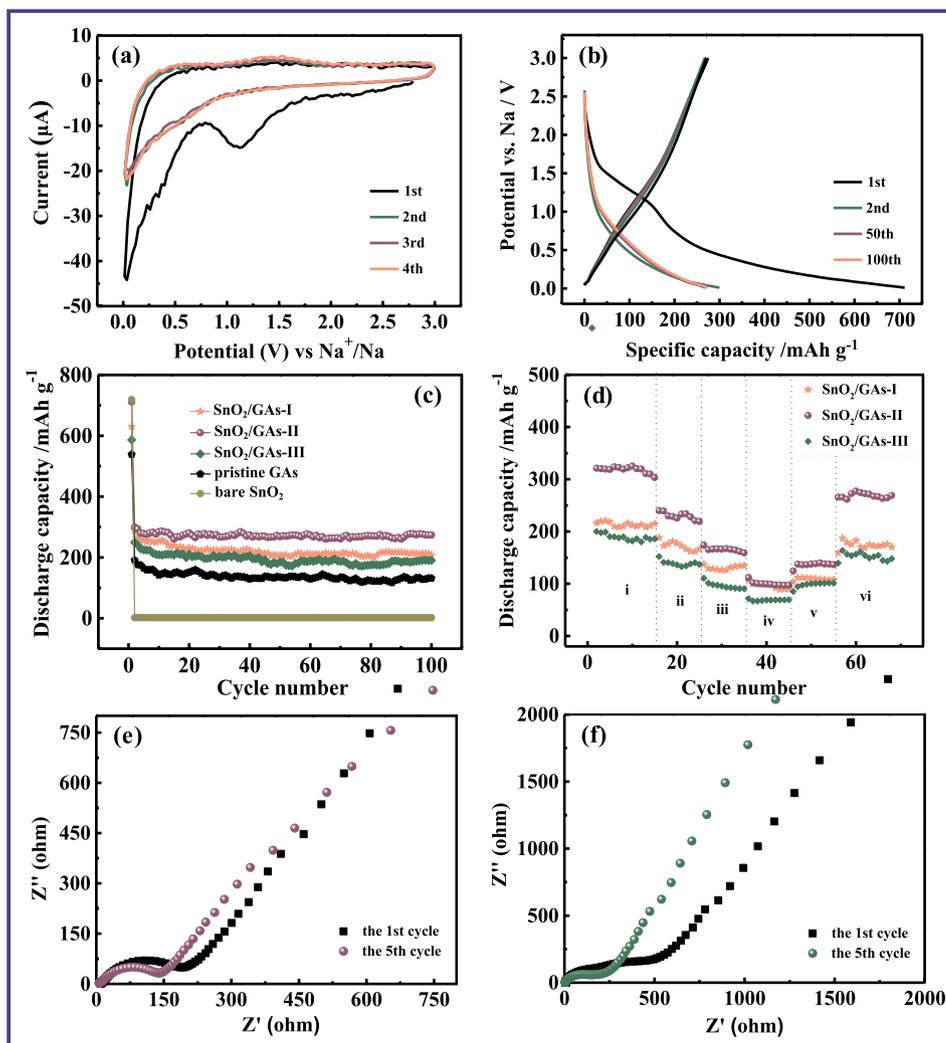


Fig. 6. Electrochemical performance for SIBs: (a) The cyclic voltammetry curves of SnO₂/GAs-II at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V; (b) The discharge/charge profiles of SnO₂/GAs-II in the 1st, 2nd, 50th, and 100th cycles; (c) Comparison of the cyclic performance of pristine GAs, bare SnO₂, SnO₂/GAs-I, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III at a current density of 50 mA g⁻¹; (d) Rate capability of SnO₂/GAs-I, SnO₂/GAs-II, and SnO₂/GAs-III at various current densities: (i) 50, (ii) 100, (iii) 200, (iv) 400, (v) 200, (vi) 50 mA g⁻¹; The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of (e) SnO₂/GAs-II and (f) SnO₂/GAs-III in the 1st and 5th cycles at a charged state of 1.5 V.

reactivity, and the electrostatic interaction between positively charged SnO₂ soliquid and negatively charged GAs ensures the structural integrity of composites; (2) the suitable SnO₂ contents in composites can guarantee the uniform distribution of nanoparticles and make full use of the GAs matrix, revealing a most effective combination advantages of composites; (3) the small size of SnO₂ nanoparticles can maintain high contact area with electrolyte, decrease diffusion lengths, and enhance lithium/sodium diffusion kinetics [34]; (4) high surface area of GAs can effectively relieve SnO₂ expansion/shrinkage upon cycling.

In order to further investigate the structure stability of SnO₂/GAs-II electrode in LIBs and SIBs, SEM images of SnO₂/GAs-II electrodes after 100 charge/discharge cycles are collected and shown in Figs. S8a and b. As anode material of LIBs, the initial morphology of the SnO₂/GAs-II has been well maintained at the end of the 100 cycles. The volumetric expansion during the repeated cycles has been restricted due to the GAs sheets. However, as anode material of SIBs, the structural integrity of SnO₂/GAs-II is destroyed after the long-term cycles. Because of the large radius of Na⁺, the resultant SnO₂ suffers from more severe volume expansion upon alloying with Na, which can make the SnO₂ active material become vulnerable [35]. The structural integrity of the electrode materials is the precondition for the cyclic stability, hence the cyclic performance of SnO₂/GAs in LIBs is superior than that of SIBs.

4. Conclusions

In summary, this work systemically investigates the effect of

different SnO₂ contents in nanocomposites for both anodes of LIBs and SIBs. An appropriate amount of SnO₂ nanoparticles in composites can sufficiently exploit the high specific surface area of GAs, as a result, particles aggregation phenomenon can be avoided so as to mitigate the enormous volume expansion during charge-discharge processes. Furthermore, due to the SnO₂ soliquid as the precursor, the resultant SnO₂ nanoparticles with the diameter of 5–8 nm show high stability and reactivity. More importantly, the electrostatic interaction between SnO₂ soliquid and GAs guarantees the structural integrity of anode materials. Surprisingly, as anode material for LIBs, the optimized SnO₂/GAs nanocomposite with suitable SnO₂ loading presents the superior reversible capacity of 935 mA h g⁻¹ at 100 mA g⁻¹ upon 350 cycles. Meanwhile, it still shows excellent rate capacities of 562.4 and 402.8 mA h g⁻¹ even under high current densities of 500 and 1000 mA g⁻¹. As anode material for SIBs, SnO₂/GAs exhibits long-term cyclic stability and excellent electrical conductivity. It maintains the capacity of 274 mA h g⁻¹ in the 100th cycle under 50 mA g⁻¹, according with 91.3% of the 2nd reversible capacity. Therefore, we believe this study may open a new ideal for designing SnO₂-based anode materials with excellent cyclic performance.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matchemphys.2019.121870>.

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