

Preparation of carbon-coated iron oxide nanoparticles dispersed on graphene sheets and applications as advanced anode materials for lithium-ion batteries

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ABSTRACT

We report a novel chemical vapor deposition (CVD) based strategy to synthesize carbon-coated Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles dispersed on graphene sheets (Fe₂O₃@C@G). Graphene sheets with high surface area and aspect ratio are chosen as space restrictor to prevent the sintering and aggregation of nanoparticles during high temperature treatments (800 °C). In the resulting nanocomposite, each individual Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle (5 to 20 nm in diameter) is uniformly coated with a continuous and thin (two to five layers) graphitic carbon shell. Further, the core-shell nanoparticles are evenly distributed on graphene sheets. When used as anode materials for lithium ion batteries, the conductive-additive-free Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode shows outstanding Li⁺ storage properties with large reversible specific capacity (864 mAh/g after 100 cycles), excellent cyclic stability (120% retention after 100 cycles at 100 mA/g), high Coulombic efficiency (~99%), and good rate capability.

1 Introduction

Rechargeable lithium ion batteries (LIBs) are attractive sustainable energy storage devices that are environmentally friendly with high output voltage and energy. LIBs with high energy/power density and long cycle life are desirable for applications in portable

devices and plug-in hybrid electric vehicles [1, 2]. Conventional LIBs use graphite as the anode material, which has good cycle stability but a limited theoretical specific capacity of 372 mAh/g. By comparison, transition metal oxides, such as Fe₂O₃ [3], Fe₃O₄ [4], Co₃O₄ [5], CoO [6], MnO [7], and NiO [8], have been proven to be effective in Li⁺ storage with much larger

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specific capacities. In particular, Fe_2O_3 has a theoretical specific capacity of 1,005 mAh/g which, combined with its low cost, abundance and low toxicity, makes Fe_2O_3 attractive to store Li^+ as anode material [3, 9]. However, Fe_2O_3 stores Li^+ using the so-called reconstitution reaction, during which Fe_2O_3 is decomposed and reformed repeatedly during charge–discharge operations [10]. This process involves drastic volume changes, which would cause fragmentation of the anode and the destruction of the solid electrolyte interface (SEI) film, leading to fast decay of specific capacity [11, 12]. Besides its poor cycle stability, another challenge for Fe_2O_3 to be used as an anode material is its limited rate capability that results from its low electrical and ionic conductivity [13].

To overcome these problems, decreasing the particle size to the nano-range and coating the particles with conductive carbon shells improves the stability and kinetics of the Fe_2O_3 electrode. The capacity-fading problem was partially resolved by the use of nanoparticles because of their better accommodation of the strain from volume expansion [14], and the rate capability was improved due to the shorter path length for electrons and Li^+ in nanoparticles than in bulk material [15]. However, the high surface area of nanoparticles means larger contact area between the electrode and electrolyte, which would lead to larger irreversible capacity and thus lower Coulombic efficiency due to the increased amounts of unstable SEI [16, 17]. The use of the carbon coating stabilizes the SEI by avoiding direct contact of the metal oxide nanoparticles with the electrolyte [18]. In addition, the carbon coating further improves cycle stability by lowering the volume change during charge–discharge operations and prevents some side reactions between electrode and electrolyte [19, 20]. The rate capability can be further improved by the enhanced electrical conductivity due to the carbon coating [14, 20].

With the realization of the merits of nano-sized materials with carbon coatings, carbon-coated iron oxide (Fe_2O_3 or Fe_3O_4) nanospheres [21], nanorods [12, 22], nanospindles [14] and nanowires [23] have been prepared and they exhibited improved electrochemical performance when used as anode materials for LIBs. However, the carbon coatings to date were of low quality, primarily in an amorphous form, as

the growth temperatures were intentionally kept low, at 400 to 600 °C, compared to the high temperature required to obtain graphitic carbon without using metallic catalysts [24, 25]. Low temperatures also prevent the aggregation of nanoparticles as well as the reduction of iron oxide to metallic iron through a carbothermal reduction process [26]. As a result, the cycle stability and rate capability of these materials demonstrated limited improvement. In this paper, we report the design and synthesis of iron oxide nanoparticles (5 to 20 nm in diameter) coated with uniform and thin graphitized carbon shells (two to five layers) well dispersed on graphene sheets. Benefiting from the protective and conductive graphitized carbon shells and graphene sheets, this nanocomposite displays superior electrochemical performance in Li^+ storage with excellent cycle stability, rate capability, large specific capacity and high Coulombic efficiency.

2 Results and discussion

The preparation of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ is illustrated in Fig. 1. We started with a nanocomposite of magnetite nanoparticles on graphene sheets ($\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{G}$). The Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles were synthesized according to an established protocol [27] in the presence of graphene oxide (GO) (see the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM) for details). The GO oxygen functional groups facilitate the nucleation and growth of Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images (Fig. S1 in the ESM) show that the Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles, with diameters < 10 nm, were evenly anchored on the GO. The resulting $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{G}$ was then placed in a chemical vapor deposition (CVD) furnace to grow the carbon coating using a two-step synthesis procedure, during which the GO was converted to graphene. In the first step, the Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles were reduced in a H_2 atmosphere at 450 °C to metallic Fe nanoparticles, which then acted as catalysts for the growth of graphitic carbon in the following step. Second, semipermeable graphitized carbon shells were grown around the Fe nanoparticles using CH_4 as a carbon source at 800 °C to obtain carbon-coated Fe on graphene ($\text{Fe}@\text{C}@\text{G}$). Finally, Fe in the core structure was oxidized in air at 280 °C to Fe_2O_3 to obtain the final product $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$. The graphitic

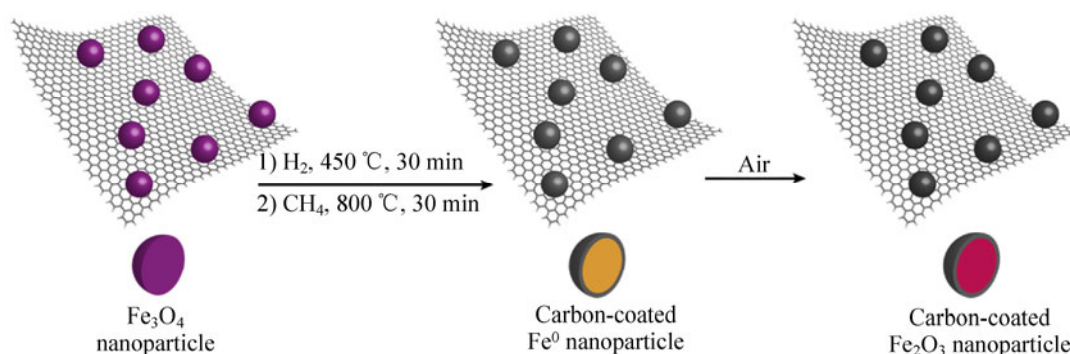


Figure 1 Illustration of the synthesis of the $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ nanocomposite via a two-step CVD reduction and carbon growth followed by air oxidation.

carbon coating was rendered more permeable during this process due to expansion upon oxidation.

Figure 2 shows scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and TEM images of the $\text{Fe}@\text{C}@\text{G}$ nanocomposite. From the SEM image (Fig. 2(a)), small nanoparticles were closely and evenly packed on the surface of the graphene sheets. The low magnification TEM image (Fig. 2(b)) shows individual graphene sheets homogeneously decorated with nanoparticles 5 to 20 nm in diameter. The small size and uniformity of these nanoparticles was maintained after the 800 °C treatment; apparently the strong interaction between the graphene sheets and the nanoparticles prevented

their aggregation. From the high resolution TEM images (Figs. 2(c) and 2(d)), it can be seen that the nanoparticles are uniformly coated with thin graphitized carbon shells with a thickness of two to five layers. The CVD method is known to produce a uniform and complete carbon coating, making it a coating technique superior to others such as ball milling [28], wet mixing [29], and hydrothermal treatment [30, 31]. From the high resolution TEM image in Fig. 2(d), the core structure is crystalline and the lattice fringes with an interlayer distance of 0.201 nm correspond to the spacing between (110) planes of α -Fe crystals. The X-ray diffraction patterns (XRD) (Fig. S2 in the ESM) show the peaks characteristic of α -Fe (JCPDS 89-7194) with the coexistence of peaks for Fe_3C (JCPDS 03-1055) and graphite (JCPDS 12-0212).

$\text{Fe}@\text{C}@\text{G}$ was then subjected to air oxidation to convert Fe to Fe_2O_3 , which was then used as the active material for Li^+ storage in the assembled LIB device. Figures 3(a) and 3(b) show the low and high resolution TEM images of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$. It can be seen that the morphology of the sheet-like structure of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ is quite similar to $\text{Fe}@\text{C}@\text{G}$, but with less contrast due to the lower electrical conductivity of Fe_2O_3 . The images show that the carbon shells were well preserved after air oxidation. Any cracking of the thin carbon shells because of nanoparticle expansion during the oxidation may enable the transport of Li^+ through the carbon shells. Interestingly, apart from the solid core-shell structure, we also observed some nanoparticles with yolk-shell structure (Fig. S3 in the ESM), which can be explained by a nanoscale

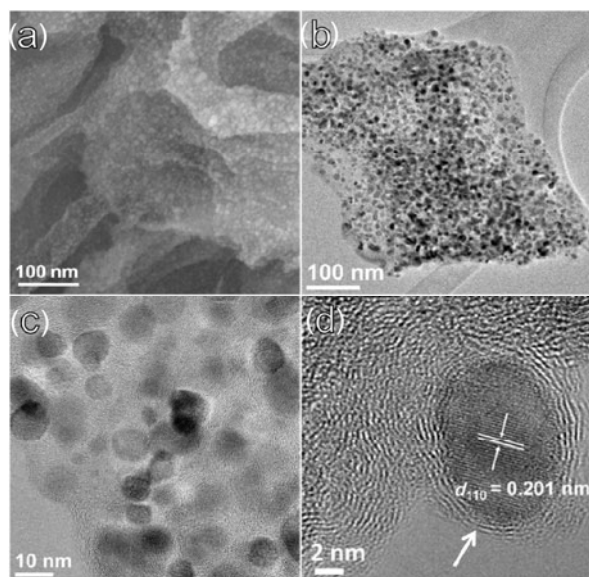


Figure 2 (a) SEM image of $\text{Fe}@\text{C}@\text{G}$. (b)–(d) TEM images of $\text{Fe}@\text{C}@\text{G}$ at different magnifications. (d) Shows the Fe^0 lattice fringes with the surrounding graphene shells (indicated by arrow).

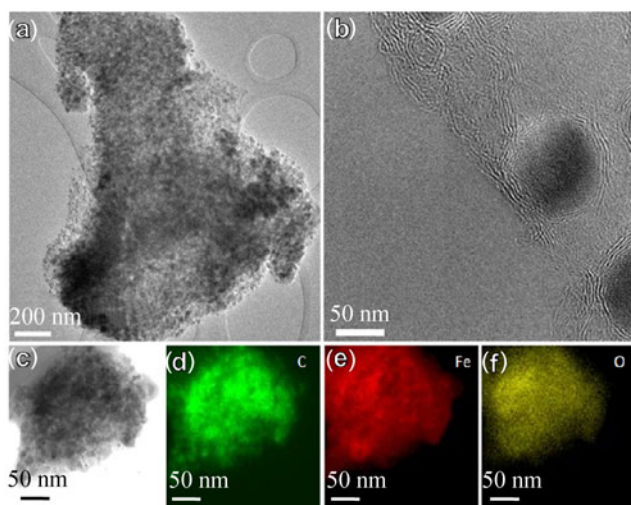


Figure 3 (a) Low and (b) high magnifications TEM images of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$. (c) Energy filter transmission electron microscopy (EFTEM) image and corresponding elemental mapping images of (d) carbon (e) iron and (f) oxygen, showing the homogeneous dispersion of iron and oxygen on the graphene sheets.

Kirkendall effect during the oxidation reaction [32]. The elemental mapping analysis (Figs. 3(c)–3(f)) shows a uniform distribution of C, Fe, and O.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was used to determine the chemical composition of the $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ nanocomposite. The survey spectrum (Fig. 4(a)) shows peaks characteristic of Fe, O, and C. The Fe2p spectrum (Fig. 4(b), red curve), which is sensitive to the valence state of iron, shows that the peaks for $\text{Fe}2p_{3/2}$ and $\text{Fe}2p_{1/2}$ from $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ are at 710.7 eV and 724.2 eV (compared to 707.0 eV and 720.3 eV for metallic Fe in the $\text{Fe}@\text{C}@\text{G}$ composite before the air oxidation treatment, as shown in the black curve in Fig. 4(b)), consistent with Fe_2O_3 [33]. In addition, the presence of the satellite peak in $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ is characteristic of Fe^{3+} in Fe_2O_3 [34]. The iron oxide formed here was identified to be the hematite phase, $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (see the XRD pattern in Fig. S4 in the ESM). The absence of peaks representing metallic Fe and Fe_3C in the XRD pattern, combined with the Fe2p XPS spectra discussed above, indicates the successful conversion of Fe to Fe_2O_3 by air oxidation. The specific surface area and pore size distribution of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ were analyzed using nitrogen adsorption measurements. The adsorption–desorption isotherm and pore size distributions are shown in Fig. S5 (in the ESM). The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area of

$\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ was calculated to be $156\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, which is higher than the surface areas for other reported iron oxide carbon composites ($< 120\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) [14, 18, 35] and mesoporous iron oxides ($116\text{--}128\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) [36, 37]. This higher surface area should facilitate the surface electrochemical reaction. The pore size distribution curve plotted from the desorption isotherm using the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method revealed the presence of pores of size $\sim 38\text{ nm}$. The pore size measurement was made on the $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ composite and is therefore a combination of the space between the nanoparticles and between the nanoparticles and graphene sheets. It is reasonable that the measured pore size is larger than the $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}$ nanoparticles (Fig. 2(b)). The Fe_2O_3 content was determined to be $\sim 78\text{ wt.}\%$ in the nanocomposite by thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) performed in air (Fig. S6 in the ESM).

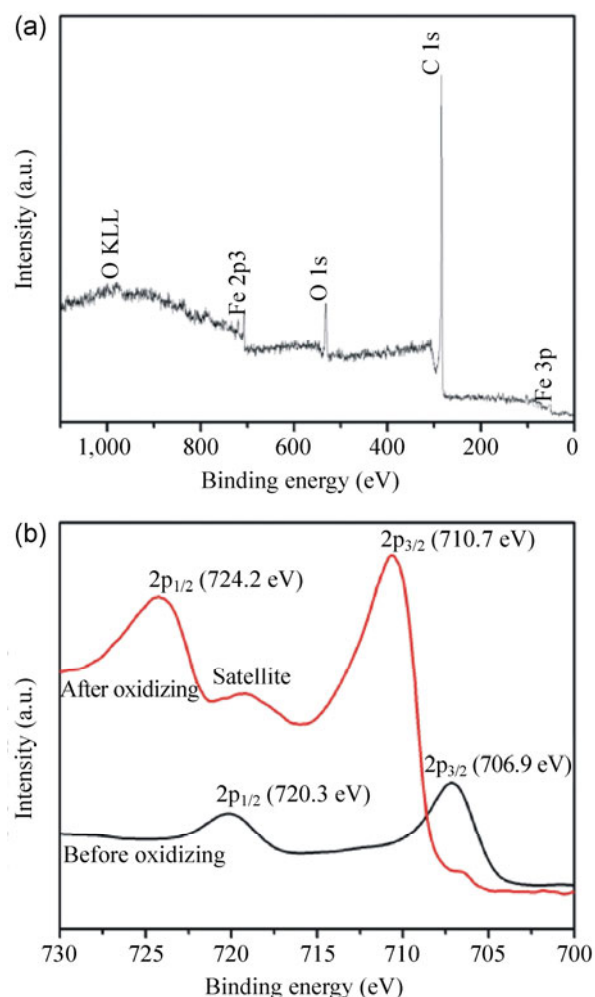


Figure 4 (a) XPS survey spectrum of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$. (b) Fe2p spectrum of $\text{Fe}@\text{C}@\text{G}$ (black curve) and $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ (red curve).

To test the electrochemical performance of the composite when used as an anode in a LIB, coin cells were fabricated using metallic lithium foil as the counter electrode; the working electrode was prepared by mixing the composite with poly(vinylidene difluoride) (PVDF) at a weight ratio of 90:10. In contrast to other studies [14, 18, 22, 38], no other conductive additives were added since we expected good electrical conductivity from the graphene sheets and graphitized carbon shells. The lack of additional conductive materials has a crucial practical implication since the additional weight of an additive would lower the specific capacity of the electrode. Figure 5(a) shows cyclic voltammograms of a $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ electrode at a scan rate of 0.2 mV/s for the first two cycles. In the cathodic process of the first cycle, a broad peak is observed at ~ 0.5 V, which can be attributed to the combined processes of lithium intercalation, reductive reaction of Fe^{3+} to $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}^0$ and irreversible reaction with electrolyte. In the anodic scan, a main peak at ~ 1.7 V is observed and can be ascribed to the oxidative

reactions of Fe^0 to Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} . In the 2nd cycle, the cathodic peak becomes much sharper and shifts positively to ~ 1.3 V compared to the 1st cycle, while the position of the anodic peak remains almost unchanged. Figure 5(b) shows the galvanostatic charge–discharge profiles for the 1st and 2nd cycles at a current density of 100 mA/g in the voltage range from 0.01 to 3 V. The 1st discharge curve consists of two slope regions and a plateau. The first slope from 1.5 to 0.8 V is attributed to the Li^+ insertion into the iron oxide lattice accompanied by a reduction from Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} [33]. The plateau at ~ 0.8 V is due to the further conversion of Fe^{2+} to metallic Fe^0 [39]. The second slope after 0.8 V is due to the reversible Li^+ storage in the graphene sheets and the decomposition of the electrolyte. The 1st discharge and charge specific capacities were found to be 1,038 mAh/g and 891 mAh/g, respectively, and this gives a 1st cycle Coulombic efficiency of 86%. The irreversible 14% capacity loss is mainly due to the electrolyte decomposition and the formation of the SEI [10, 40, 41]. The 1st cycle Coulombic efficiency

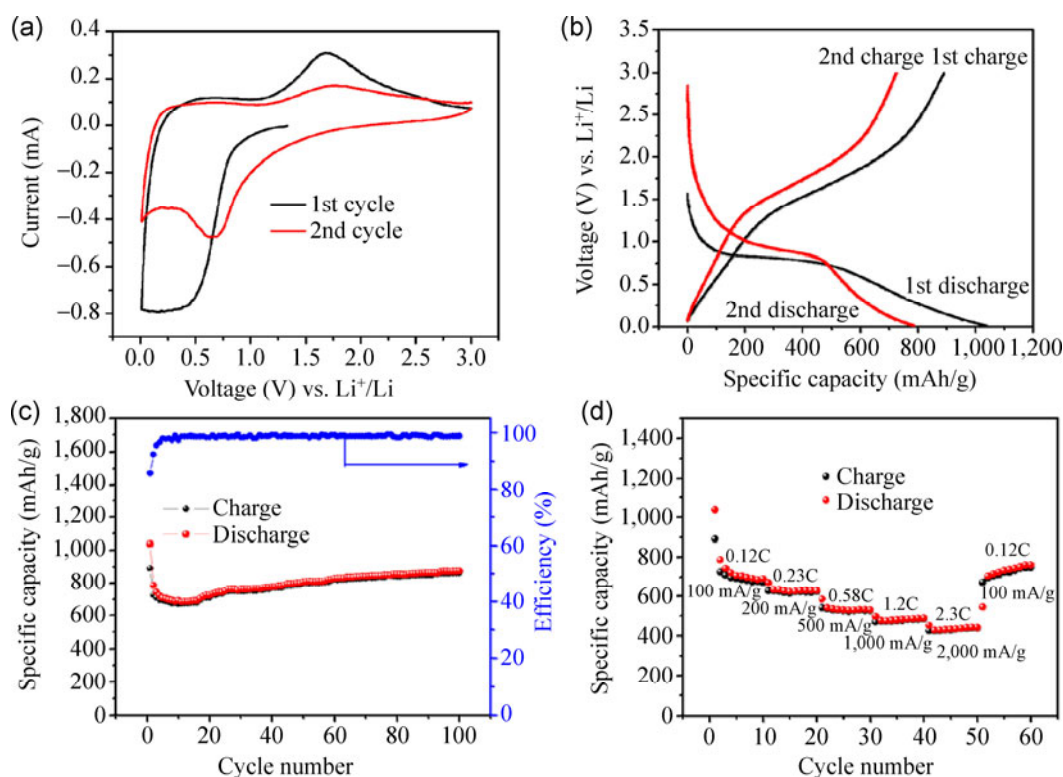


Figure 5 (a) Cyclic voltammograms of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ electrode at a scan rate of 0.2 mV/s for the first two cycles. (b) Galvanostatic charge–discharge profiles of the first two cycles of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ at a current density of 100 mA/g and a voltage range of 0.01 to 3 V. (c) The cycle performance of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ at a current density of 100 mA/g. (d) Rate performance of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ at five different current densities.

is higher than those reported for carbon coated CNT@Fe₂O₃ (55%) [42], polypyrrole-coated Fe₂O₃@C (70%) [11], Fe₃O₄/C core-shell nanorods (71.7%) [22] or carbon coated Fe₃O₄ nanospindles (80%) [14]. The reduced irreversible capacity of Fe₂O₃@C@G compared to these composites can be ascribed to the complete carbon coating of the Fe₂O₃, which apparently prevents direct contact of the electrolyte with the iron oxide nanoparticles and stabilizes the SEI formed on the interface [19, 38]. The increased Coulombic efficiency is critical in practical applications, as lower Coulombic efficiency correlates to loss of Li⁺ from the cathode material, which would add weight to a fully configured battery [43]. From the 2nd cycle onwards (Fig. 5(c)), the discharge capacity slightly decreased from 726 mAh/g to 673 mAh/g after the following 10 cycles and then gradually increased to 864 mAh/g after 100 cycles, corresponding to a 20% increase compared to the discharge capacity at the 2nd cycle. The specific capacity increase may be due to the formation of a gel-like layer or an activation process to allow the full utilization of the well-coated iron oxide nanoparticles [10, 44]. The Coulombic efficiency remained near 99% after 10 cycles, indicative of the stability of the SEI film and good reversibility of the electrochemical reactions [11, 45]. The morphology of the Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode after 100 cycles was further examined by TEM and it can be seen from Fig. 6(a) and Fig. S10 (in the ESM) that the nanoparticles were still well encapsulated in the carbon shells, which helps explain the good cycle stability of Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode. To explore the long-term cycle stability at a high charge-discharge rate, the Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode was first cycled five times at a current density of 100 mA/g and then cycled up to 300 times at a relatively high current density of 2,000 mA/g. It can be seen from Fig. S7 (in the ESM) that after 350 cycles at this high rate, the specific capacity remained at ~405 mAh/g, which is above the theoretical specific capacity of graphite (372 mAh/g), the most commonly used commercial anode material. For comparison, the cycle test was also performed on bare Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles, which were synthesized using the same synthesis method, however, they had no GO or carbon coatings. The charge-discharge profiles for the first two cycles

and the 100 cycle performance at a current density of 100 mA/g for the control Fe₃O₄ electrode are shown in Fig. S8 (in the ESM). The control Fe₃O₄ electrode had 1st discharge and charge capacities of 1,522 mAh/g and 1,010 mAh/g, respectively, producing a much lower first cycle Coulombic efficiency of 66%. After ten cycles, it suffered a sharp capacity decay with a negligible specific capacity of ~30 mAh/g remaining. This indicates that the cycle performance of the Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode was greatly improved by the uniform distribution of Fe₂O₃ on graphene sheets and the graphitized carbon coating around the Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles.

In addition to its superior cycle performance, the Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode also shows excellent rate capability. The rate capability was evaluated by cycling the electrode 10 times each at five different current densities; the results are shown in Fig. 5(d) and Fig. S9 (in the ESM). At discharging current densities as high as 1,000 mA/g (corresponding to 1.2 C) and 2,000 mA/g (2.3 C), the specific capacities remained at 480 mAh/g and 430 mAh/g, corresponding to 67% and 60% retention compared to 100 mA/g. In addition, when the current density was reduced back to the initial 100 mA/g, the specific capacity recovered to ~750 mAh/g, indicating that the structure of the electrode remained stable even after the high rate cycling. To reveal the good conductivity of Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode, electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) was performed after two cycles of charge-discharge at 100 mA/g and the resulted Nyquist plots of the Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode and control Fe₃O₄ electrode are compared in Fig. 6(b). It reveals that the Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode has a much lower charge transfer resistance

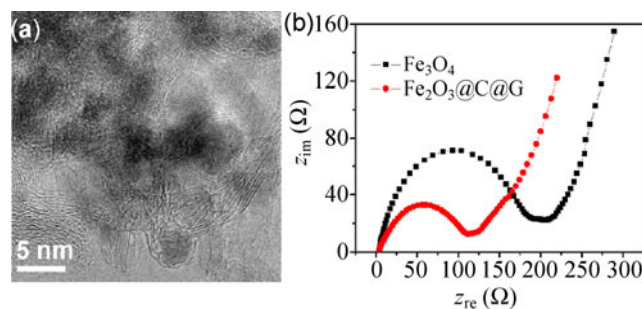


Figure 6 (a) TEM image of Fe₂O₃@C@G electrode after 100 cycles at 100 mA/g. (b) Nyquist plots of ac impedance spectra in the frequency range between 100 kHz and 10 mHz.

than that of Fe_3O_4 (~105 vs. ~190 Ω), indicating faster Li^+ diffusion and electron transfer in $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ electrode.

The high Coulombic efficiency, cycle stability and rate capability of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ can be attributed to the following factors: 1) The small size of the iron oxide nanoparticles that allows fast transport of electrons and Li^+ ions; the large surface area provides an efficient interface for the electrochemical reaction; 2) the electrical conductivity of the composite is greatly improved by the hierarchically conductive network resulting from the uniform and continuous graphitized carbon coating as well as from the graphene sheets, which act as nano-current collectors to electrically interconnect the physically isolated iron oxide nanoparticles with conductive carbon shells; 3) the carbon coating shells and graphene sheets improve the structural integrity and robustness of the electrode by suppressing sintering and volume change during cycling. In addition, they presumably prevent direct contact between the iron oxide nanoparticles and electrolyte during cycling, thus decreasing the irreversible capacity coming from the formation and propagation of an unstable SEI.

3 Conclusion

In summary, we have successfully developed a strategy to coat Fe_2O_3 with a uniform and thin graphitized carbon shell using a CVD-based method; graphene sheets were added as space restrictors to prevent high temperature aggregation of nanoparticles. The resulting Fe_2O_3 nanoparticles in the $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ nanocomposite are 5 to 20 nm in size and are encapsulated with thin graphitized carbon shells (two to five layers). In addition, these Fe_2O_3 nanoparticles with core-shell structure are evenly distributed on two-dimensional graphene sheets, which act as nano-current collectors to electrically interconnect the physically separated Fe_2O_3 nanoparticles. In this unique architecture, the carbon shells and graphene sheets provide electrical networks to allow fast and efficient electron transport, they strengthen the structural integrity and robustness of the electrode and they suppress the aggregation/sintering of the electrode. The carbon coatings on

each individual Fe_2O_3 nanoparticle prevent the direct contact of electrode and electrolyte. As a result, the conductive additive-free $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{C}@\text{G}$ electrode shows outstanding Li^+ storage properties with large reversible specific capacity (~864 mAh/g) after 100 cycles at a current density of 100 mA/g, excellent cyclic stability (~120% retention after 100 cycles at 100 mA/g), high Coulombic efficiency (~99%), and good rate capability. This effective strategy can be extended to construct other hybrid architectures of nano-carbon (e.g., graphene, graphene nanoribbons, carbon nanotubes) and metal oxides toward high-performance metal oxide-based anode material for LIB and other energy storage devices.

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