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## A Study of the Superior Electrochemical Performances of 3 nm SnO<sub>2</sub> Nanoparticles Supported by Graphene

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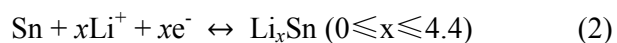
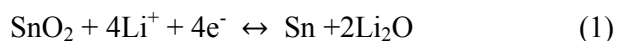
### Abstract

Owing to the discovery of its new reaction mechanism towards lithium, SnO<sub>2</sub> has recently regained the attention from scientific field as a promising potential anode material. A theoretical capacity of 1494 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> can be reached provided that SnO<sub>2</sub> particles are reduced to ultra-small sizes. In addition, other two important aspects, namely cyclic stability and power density, can also be greatly enhanced by applying SnO<sub>2</sub> particles with appropriate dimensions. Therefore, size controlling of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles is critical for their applications in lithium ion batteries (LIBs). In this work, SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles with an average diameter of 3 nm are decorated on graphene nanosheets. Owing to the small sizes of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and the electronic conductive graphene network, anode consisting of SnO<sub>2</sub> and graphene (SnO<sub>2</sub>/G) delivers a high first reversible capacity of 1239 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> at an initial current density of 0.1 A·g<sup>-1</sup> and a surprisingly 574 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> charge capacity under an exceptional high current density of 10 A·g<sup>-1</sup>. Meanwhile, superior cycleability is also

achieved in view of increasing reversible capacity up to  $1813 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  after over 1000 cycles under a high current density of  $2 \text{ A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ . Such stunning performance is carefully studied with various characterization techniques, including electrochemical measurements, TEM, and ex-situ XRD. The high reversible capacity of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$  is attributed to the 3nm-sized  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles, which almost doubled the theoretical capacity of the oxide. Besides, the excellent performance under high current densities is ascribed to the enhanced lithium and electron diffusion, resulting from the significantly shortened lithium diffusion length within each  $\text{SnO}_2$  particle and the conductive graphene network, respectively. In addition, the prominent increment in reversible capacity upon cycling is understood by the increasing number of active lithium storage sites and polymeric gel-like film formation during the prolonged charge/discharge process.

### Introduction

To meet the requirements of portable electronics and electric vehicles, the development of the next generation of lithium ion batteries (LIBs) with both high energy density and excellent power density has been an urgent task.<sup>1, 2</sup> Graphite, despite of its great success as the anode of LIBs in the past two decades, has been proven to be unsuitable for advanced applications due to its low theoretical capacity ( $372 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ) and poor performance under high current densities.<sup>3</sup> Owing to its relatively high theoretical capacity, natural abundance, and environmental benignity,  $\text{SnO}_2$  has been considered as a potential anode material.  $\text{SnO}_2$  reacts with lithium through a two-step reaction:<sup>4</sup>



It has been reported that only the alloying reaction (equation 2) is reversible for bulk  $\text{SnO}_2$ . As a consequence, the theoretical capacity of  $\text{SnO}_2$  has been widely accepted to be  $782 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  for a long period since the first discovery of  $\text{SnO}_2$  as an anode material back in 1997.<sup>5</sup> This value was outperformed by transition metal oxides which were discovered as LIBs' anode materials in 2000,<sup>6</sup> including  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{MnO}_2$ ,

$\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ , with higher theoretical capacities ranging from 890 to 1232  $\text{mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ .<sup>7-10</sup> However, very recent studies reported that the conversion reaction of equation 1 can also be reversible when the  $\text{SnO}_2$  particles are reduced to ultra-small size.<sup>11-13</sup> As a result,  $\text{SnO}_2$  is able to reach a theoretical capacity of 1494  $\text{mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , which is over 4 times of that of graphite and higher than those of the transition metal oxides.<sup>14</sup> Such high capacity makes  $\text{SnO}_2$  among the several top available candidates for potential anode materials. Besides the high capacity, ultra small  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles are also beneficial to accommodate the volume change accompanied by the lithium insertion/removal and enhance the rate of lithium insertion/removal, ensuring a more stable cycle stability and better performance at high charging current.<sup>15, 16</sup> Therefore, much attention has been paid on developing ultra small  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles and their composites for LIBs' anode applications.<sup>14, 17, 18</sup>

In this work,  $\text{SnO}_2$  based composites consisting of 3 nm  $\text{SnO}_2$  ultra small nanoparticles and graphene nanosheets were synthesized for potential LIBs' anodes. Graphene has been recognized as an excellent substrate for metal oxide nanoparticles, due to its excellent electric conductivity and mechanical flexibility that can enhance the electron conduction and partially accommodate the volume change of metal oxides, respectively.<sup>19</sup> Besides, the large surface area of graphene can reversibly accommodate large amount of lithium, thus contributing to the overall capacity of the composites.<sup>17</sup> The as-obtained 3 nm  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles attached on graphene composite ( $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$ ) was electrochemically tested up to an exceptional high current density of 10  $\text{A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , and subsequently charged/discharged at 2  $\text{A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  for at least 1000 cycles. Astonishingly, an unexpected high reversible capacity of 574  $\text{mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  was delivered at the current density of 10  $\text{A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ . Furthermore, the capacity climbed to over 1800  $\text{mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  under 2  $\text{A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  after over 1000 cycles of charge/discharge process. These observed capacity values of our  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$  samples greatly exceed most reported values of  $\text{SnO}_2$  anode systems.<sup>17, 18, 20, 21</sup> Therefore, it should be an intriguing work to study the possible mechanism of such superior electrochemical performance. In this work, the electrochemical results and the cycled electrodes were carefully analyzed by

various techniques, including  $dQ/dV$  plots in view of different stages of cycling process, together with TEM and ex-situ XRD on cycled electrodes, respectively. Based on the results of our analysis, the ultra-small size of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles, increasing lithium storage sites on graphene surface resulted from the volume expansion/contraction of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles, and the formation of polymeric gel-like film are believed to work synergistically in the contribution to the overall superior electrochemical performance of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$ .

The  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$  anode was synthesized through a one-step hydrothermal method. In a typical synthesis, Tin (IV) chloride pentahydrate, sodium bicarbonate, L-ascorbic acid, and graphene oxide (GO) nanosheets obtained via a modified Hummers method were mixed appropriately and reacted hydrothermally at 150 °C for 6 hours. The small sizes of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles were achieved by the slow condensation of  $\text{Sn}(\text{OH})_4$ . The detailed procedure of synthesis method is described in experimental section.

## Experimental

### Materials synthesis

GO was prepared by the oxidation of natural flake graphite powder using a modified Hummers method. In the synthesis of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$  composite, appropriate amount of GO was firstly dispersed in DI water (30 ml) by ultrasonication. Subsequently,  $\text{SnCl}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (0.47 g) followed by  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  (0.45 g) were added into the solution. After mixing (30 min) in the aid of magnetic stirring, L-ascorbic acid (0.176 g) was added and the solution was allowed for further mixing (10 min). After that, the mixture was transferred to a Teflon-lined steel autoclave (125 ml) and reacted hydrothermally at 150 °C for 6 hours. The obtained product was collected by centrifuge and washed with DI water several times and freeze dried in vacuum environment.

### Characterization

Transmission electron microscope image (TEM) and selected area diffraction (SAED) patterns were examined by a JEOL 100CX instrument using a 300 kV accelerating

voltage. Scanning electron microscope (SEM) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) mapping were collected by a Zeiss Supra 40 FESEM. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were measured by a powder diffractometer (Bruker D8 Advanced Diffractometer System) with Cu K $\alpha$  (1.5418 Å) source. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data were obtained by an Axis Ultra DLD X-ray photoelectron spectrometer equipped with an Al K $\alpha$  X-ray source (1486.6 eV). The thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed under an air flow of 100 mL min<sup>-1</sup> using Du Pont Instruments TGA 2950 from room temperature to 1000 °C with a heating rate of 10 °C min<sup>-1</sup>.

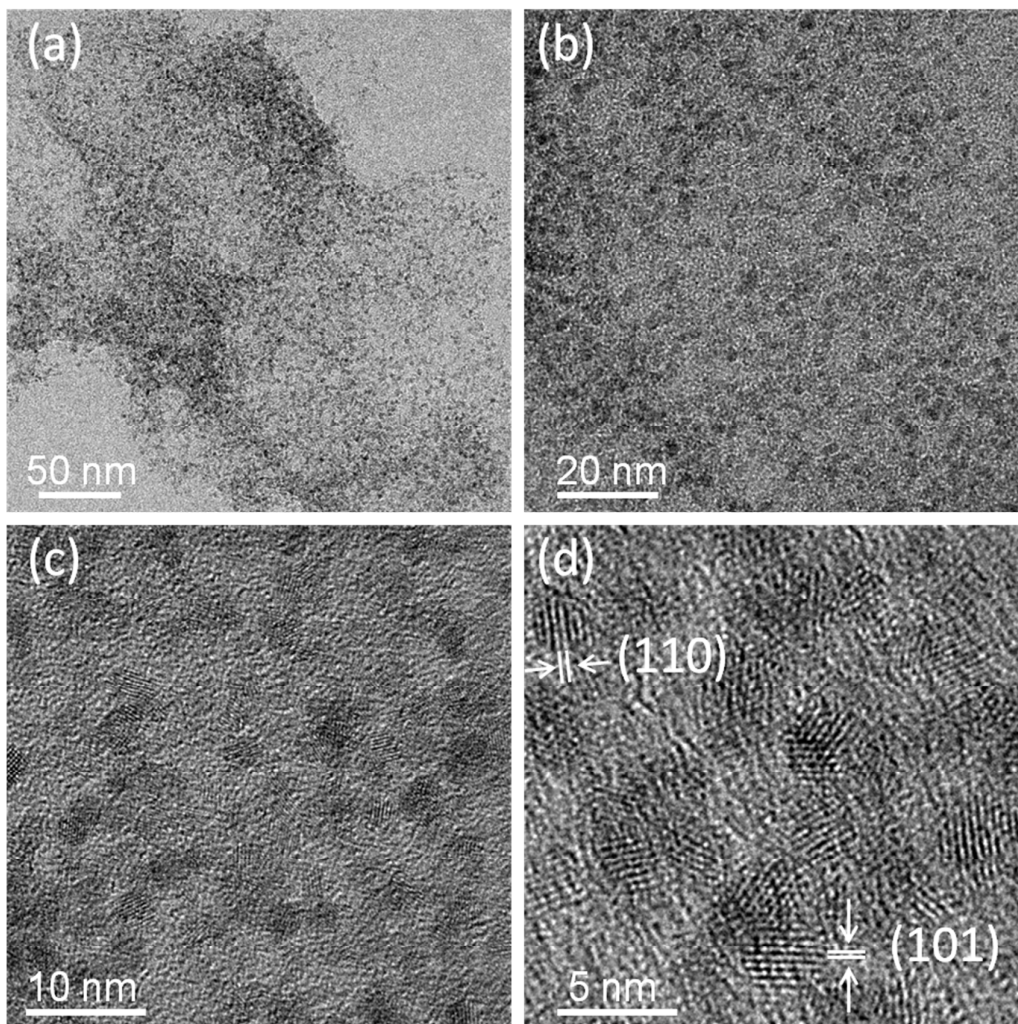
#### Electrochemical measurements

CR2016 coin-type cells were used to test the electrochemical performance of all samples. In the first place, a working electrode was prepared by mixing 70 wt% active materials, 15 wt% carbon black (Super P), and 15 wt% Polyvinylidene Fluoride (PVDF) in n-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) solution, followed by pasting it onto copper foil before assembly. After drying the electrode at 120 °C over night, its typical loading density is around 1 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. All battery cells were carefully assembly using as-prepared electrodes, pure Li foil, separators (Celgard 2500), and electrolyte (1 M LiPF<sub>6</sub> in EC : DEC : DMC = 1 : 1 : 1 organic solutions) in an argon-filled glovebox. A fixed voltage window of 0.005 – 3 V vs. Li<sup>0</sup>/Li<sup>+</sup> was applied for all electrochemical cycling tests.

#### Results and discussion

GO was fabricated through a modified Hummers method with characterizations shown in Figure S1. The morphology of the as-synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite was characterized by TEM and is shown in Figure 1. Figure 1a showed the TEM of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G under a low magnification, demonstrating numerous SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles attached on graphene surface. At the early stage of hydrothermal reaction, the oxygen-containing functional groups on the surface of GO acted as anchor points for the decoration of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Subsequently, GO nanosheets were reduced by L-ascorbic acid under elevated temperature, forming SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composites.<sup>22</sup> Under a slightly higher magnification as shown in Figure 1b, the uniform attachment of

distinct SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles on graphene nanosheets could be clearly observed. The uniform decoration of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles could also be proven by even distribution of Sn, O, and C elements shown in the EDS mapping (Figure S2). No obvious aggregation of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles could be observed, which reduced the risk of pulverization. Under an even higher magnification (Figure 1c), the contour of each SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle could be clearly seen and size of individual SnO<sub>2</sub> particles was measured. According to the size distribution chart shown in Figure S3, the average size of SnO<sub>2</sub> was measured to be around 3 nm. Besides, void spaces were observed in-between each SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, which was beneficial for the electrolyte penetration during the electrochemical test. Figure 1d showed the high resolution TEM image of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G. The lattice fringe of each SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles was clearly observed. The selected area electron diffraction (SAED) of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G was shown in Figure S4, which corresponded to the tetragonal SnO<sub>2</sub> structure (JCPDS: 41-1445).

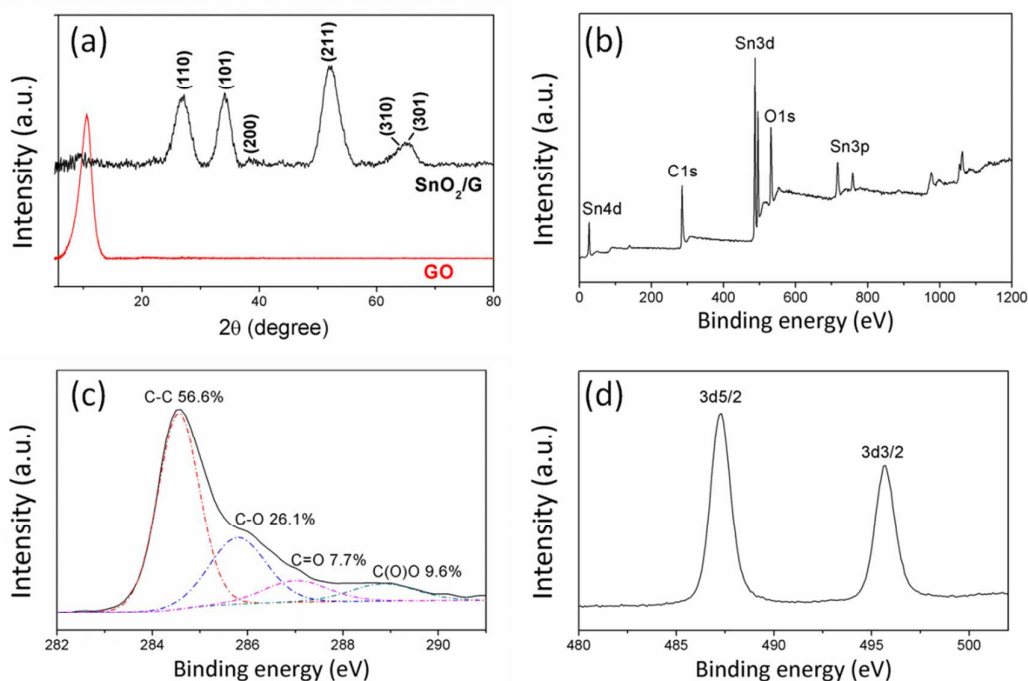


**Figure 1.** (a-d) TEM images of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G under different magnifications.

The XRD patterns of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite and GO nanosheets were demonstrated in Figure 2a. The distinct and broadened peak located around 10.6° corresponded to an interplanar distance of 8.35 Å for GO nanosheets. Compared with the basal distance of graphite (3.35 Å), such expansion was due to the introduction of oxygen-containing functional groups during the GO formation. As shown in the XRD pattern of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composites, after the decoration of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and reduction of GO nanosheets, the peak around 10.6° vanished, indicating negligible stacking of graphene nanosheets. All other peaks were attributed to the tetragonal SnO<sub>2</sub> structure (JCPDS: 41-1445). By applying Scherrer equation, the crystal size of SnO<sub>2</sub> was calculated to be around 3 nm, which was consistent with the result measured from



TEM images. The survey XPS spectrum of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G was shown in Figure 2b, confirming the existence of Sn, C, and O elements. Figure 2c showed the XPS spectrum of C 1s from SnO<sub>2</sub>/G. Compared with the C 1s obtained from GO (Figure S5), a huge reduction in oxygen content is observed. Specifically, the content of sp<sup>2</sup> bonded carbon at 284.6 eV (C-C) increased from 32.2 to 56.6 %, while the content of epoxy/hydroxyl groups around 286.6 eV decreased from 56.2 to 26.1 %. The reduction of oxygen-containing functional groups was desirable to the partial restoration of electrical conductivity of graphene, thus beneficial to the resultant electrochemical performance. As shown in Figure 2d, the Sn 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Sn 3d<sub>3/2</sub> were observed to be around 487.3 and 495.7 eV, confirming the formation of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.<sup>17</sup> By applying TGA (Figure S6), the SnO<sub>2</sub> content of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite was determined to be around 55 %. The high proportion of graphene was beneficial to the final electrochemical performance of the composite.

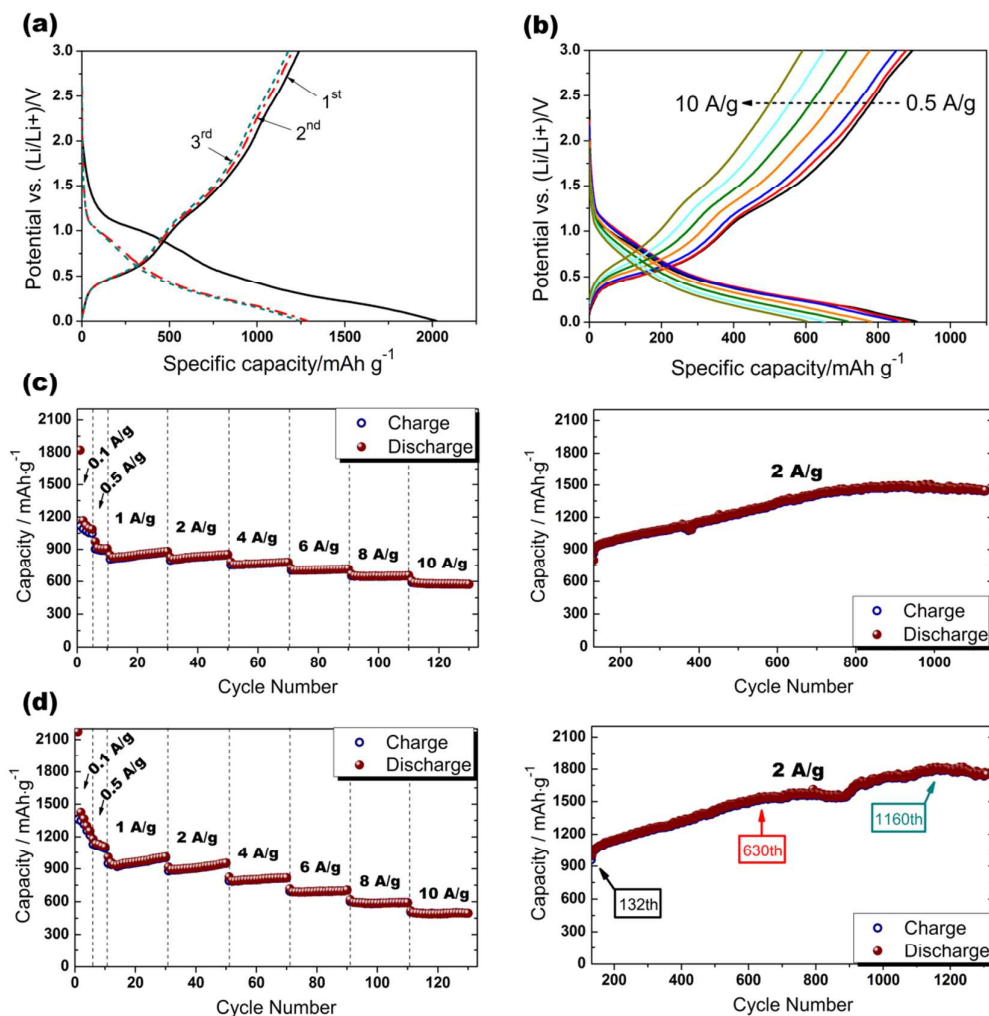


**Figure 2.** (a) XRD patterns of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G (black) and GO (red). (b) Survey XPS spectrum of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G. High resolution XPS spectra of (c) C 1s and (d) Sn 3d from SnO<sub>2</sub>/G.

The electrochemical performance of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite as an anode material was investigated under different current densities in a voltage window of 0.005 – 3 V vs. Li/Li<sup>+</sup>. As shown in Figure 3a, the first discharge capacity reached 2023 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> under a current density of 100 mA·g<sup>-1</sup>, while 1239 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> initial charge capacity was achieved as a consequence of the following removal of Li, corresponding to 61.2 % coulombic efficiency. It is important to note that 782 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> was a commonly-accepted value as a reversible capacity for bulk SnO<sub>2</sub> solely based on the alloying reaction between Sn and Li (reaction 2). However, our observation of 1239 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> reversible capacity was far more beyond such value. The first possible reason for such a high reversible capacity was the ultra-small SnO<sub>2</sub> particles. As reported in several very recent works, compared with their bulk counterpart, ultra-small SnO<sub>2</sub> particles were able to demonstrate partial reversibility in the conversion reaction during cycling (reaction 1).<sup>14, 23, 24</sup> Such phenomenon was supported by the dQ/dV plots of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G as shown in Figure S7. Two strong reduction peaks at 1.1 (R<sub>1</sub>) and 0.2 V (R<sub>2</sub>) were ascribed to decomposition of SnO<sub>2</sub> to Sn and Li<sub>2</sub>O composite and alloying reaction to form Li<sub>4.4</sub>Sn, respectively. Correspondingly, two oxidation peaks during delithiation at 0.5 (O<sub>2</sub>) and 1.2 V (O<sub>1</sub>) were assigned to dealloying of Li<sub>4.4</sub>Sn and partial decomposition of Li<sub>2</sub>O to form SnO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. As shown in Figure S7, these peaks (R<sub>1</sub>/O<sub>1</sub> and R<sub>2</sub>/O<sub>2</sub>) continued to appear in the subsequent cycles, proving the reversibility of the corresponding reactions in the following cycles. The second reason for the high capacity of SnO<sub>2</sub> composite was highly related to its graphene content. As observed in many literatures on similar SnO<sub>2</sub>/C systems,<sup>25-27</sup> the appearance of carbon content not only significantly improved the specific areas of electrode materials, but also enhanced the reversibility of SEI formation/decomposition. Therefore, large amount of lithium could be reversibly stored on graphene surface, improving the overall capacity of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite. To evaluate the rate capability as well as the cycling performance of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite, the cell was charged/discharged at increasing current densities from 0.5 to 10 A·g<sup>-1</sup>, and then cycled at a constant 2 A·g<sup>-1</sup> from 131<sup>th</sup> for 1000 cycles. As represented from Figure 3c, this SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite was able to deliver 908, 882, 854,

780, 716, 653, and 574 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> at current densities of 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 A·g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The corresponding charge/discharge curves were shown in Figure 3b. As shown in Figure 3b, compared to the charge/discharge curves at low rate 0.5 A·g<sup>-1</sup>, similar starting points initiating lithiation/delithiation were observed at a much higher current density of 10 A·g<sup>-1</sup>, indicating significantly low internal resistance in electrode composite. Two advantages based on this unique SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite structure could be regarded as the main reasons for superior rate capability. One desired feature of the SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite was the extremely shortened lithium diffusion path between particle and electrolyte resulted from ultra-small SnO<sub>2</sub> particle. The other reason was that uniformly distributed graphene significantly improves the electronic conductivity within the electrode matrix.

After evaluation of rate capability, the cell was constantly charged/discharged at 2 A·g<sup>-1</sup> for another 1000 cycles. Most surprisingly, the reversible capacity continuously increased from 890 to 1480 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup>, and then stabilized around 1450 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> for extended cycles. As a matter of fact, the superior rate capability of this SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite as well as increasing reversible capacity exhibited during long-term cycling could be reasonably repeated for other cells. As shown in Figure 3d, another cell fabricated from SnO<sub>2</sub>/G was subjected to exactly the same charge/discharge process from 0.5 to 10 A·g<sup>-1</sup>. A reversible capacity of 1813 mAh·g<sup>-1</sup> after 1180 cycles at 2 A·g<sup>-1</sup> was achieved in this case. Such a high capacity is far beyond the normally-observed values in SnO<sub>2</sub>-based anode systems.<sup>28, 29</sup>



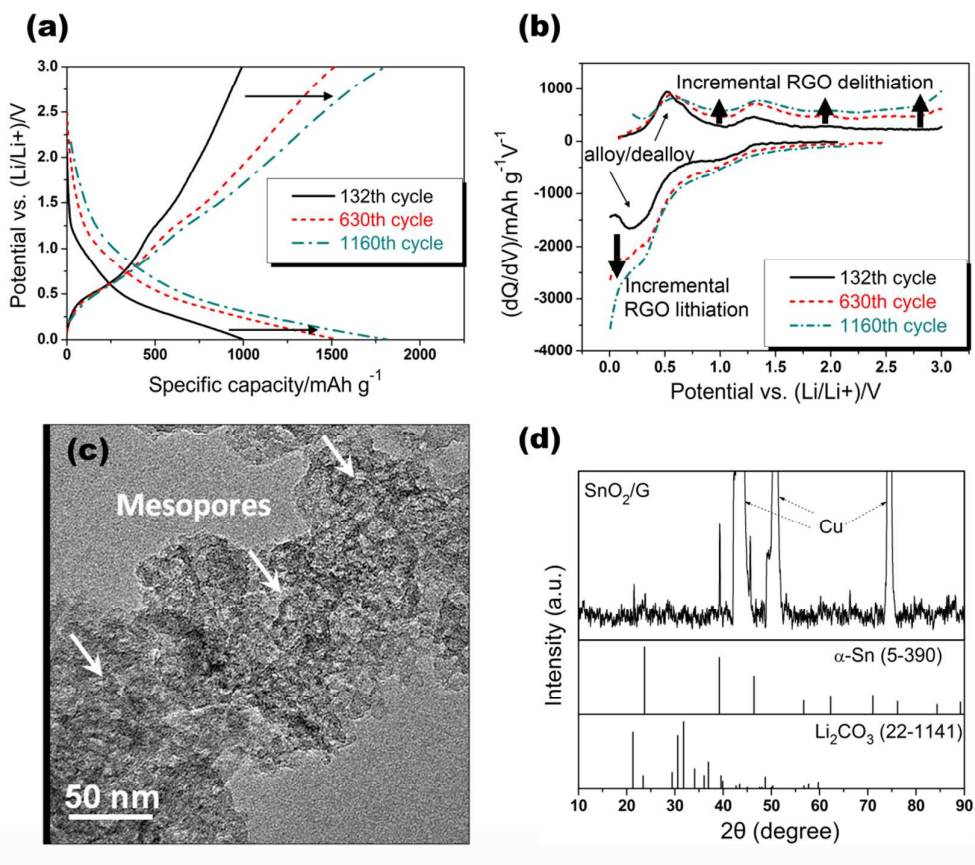
**Figure 3.** Electrochemical performances of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite cycled between 0.005 – 3 V. Charge/discharge curves of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite at (a) current density 0.1 A·g<sup>-1</sup> and (b) higher rates, i.e. 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 A·g<sup>-1</sup>. Rate capability and subsequent cycling tests at 2 A·g<sup>-1</sup> of (c) sample 1 and (d) sample 2.

To investigate the possible mechanisms behind such anomalous capacity achieved in SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composites, dQ/dV plots in view of different stages of increment, together with TEM and ex-situ XRD on cycled electrode were shown in Figure 4. Figure 4a and 4b indicated the charge/discharge curves and corresponding dQ/dV plots of 132<sup>th</sup>, 630<sup>th</sup>, and 1160<sup>th</sup> cycles of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite (corresponds to Figure 3d). The stable reduction peak at 0.2 V along with corresponding oxidation peak at 0.5 V strongly suggested highly reversible alloying/dealloying reactions between Sn and Li without

any obvious capacity fade. The stable reversible capacity was attributed to the critical sizes of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Dahn et al. claimed that the particle size is one of the key factors for stable cycling performance of SnO<sub>2</sub>, where smaller particle size could help to prevent gradual aggregation of Sn into large clusters.<sup>30</sup> Similarly, Kim et al. proved that ~3nm-sized SnO<sub>2</sub> has no aggregation upon cycling with cubic Sn formation, whereas particles with larger sizes are more vulnerable to aggregation into tetragonal Sn clusters.<sup>31</sup> In our case, according to ex-situ XRD results shown in Figure 4d, instead of tetragonal Sn,  $\alpha$ -Sn (JCPDS 5-390) with cubic crystal structure was confirmed on the fully-charged state of electrode after 1310 cycles. In addition, no aggregation of Sn was observed in the TEM shown in Figure 4c. As a comparison, a composite anode material consisting larger SnO<sub>2</sub> particles (~ 200 nm) and graphene was synthesized with morphology shown in Figure S8A. The critical effect of ultra-small active SnO<sub>2</sub> was demonstrated by the much inferior electrochemical performances of large SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite as shown in Figure S8B. Besides, the reduction peak at 1.1 V and the corresponding oxidation peak at 1.2 V could still be observed, indicating that the reversibility of the conversion reaction of SnO<sub>2</sub> (equation 1).

Interestingly, increasing capacities upon cycling were observed for both of the tested samples (shown in 3c and 3d). dQ/dV plots and TEM image were used to study the possible mechanism of such interesting phenomenon. As shown in Figure 4a, the enclosed areas lower than 0.2 V gradually increased upon cycling, which was most likely to be related to incremental RGO lithiation.<sup>32</sup> Correspondingly, the enclosed areas during lithium deintercalation from 0.5 to 3.0 V also gradually rose, which could be ascribed to incremental RGO delithiation. Furthermore, as shown in Figure 4c, owing to the large volume changes of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, mesopores were generated in graphene nanosheets after prolonged cycling process. The resulting porous graphene nanosheets with more edges were able to provide more activated sites for Li storage, thus further enhancing the overall capacity of SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite. Besides, the newly generated mesopores also facilitated the penetration of electrolyte, thus further enhancing the lithium ion conductivity within the composite electrode.<sup>33</sup>

Besides, the enhanced specific area of the electrode led to a higher interfacial area between electrode and electrolyte, resulting in a higher lithium ion flux across such interface, which is also beneficial for the overall electrochemical performances. Fan et al. claimed that the theoretical reversible capacity for porous graphene with more edges for Li storage could reach as high as  $1965 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ .<sup>34</sup> If the theoretical capacities for graphene and  $\text{SnO}_2$  components could be regarded as 1965 and  $1494 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  (theoretical capacity of  $\text{SnO}_2$  taking both equation 1 and 2 to be fully reversible) respectively, it was reasonable to expect a reversible capacity as high as  $1813 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  for  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$  composite as observed in  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$  composite. The electrochemical performances of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles encapsulated in hollow glucose-derived carbon beads have been studied in one of our early works.<sup>35</sup> However, without the incorporation of graphene, such composite only delivered 712 and  $400 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  at current densities of 100 and  $500 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , respectively, showing much inferior performances comparing to  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$  in this work. A stable  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  phase (JCPDS 22-1141) (Figure 4d) was identified after cycling by ex-situ XRD, which was normally recognized as a main component of electrolyte degradation products.<sup>36</sup> Besides, according to Figure S9, the average coulombic efficiencies from 131<sup>th</sup> to extending cycles for both samples (shown in 3c and 3d) were around 99.4 %. Such high coulombic efficiencies indicated the high reversibility of the charge/discharge process, including the reaction between  $\text{SnO}_2$  and Li, and lithium storage on graphene surface.



**Figure 4.** (a) Charge/discharge curves and (b) corresponding  $dQ/dV$  plots of different cycling stages. (c) Bright field TEM image and (d) ex-situ XRD pattern of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{G}$  electrode (corresponding to Figure 3d) after 1310 cycles.

## Conclusions

Ultra-small  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles with an average diameter of 3 nm decorated on graphene nanosheets were successfully synthesized through a one-step hydrothermal method. This composite structure exhibited superior electrochemical performance as an anode material for LIBs, delivering  $1239 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  initial charge capacity and  $574 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  high rate capacity under the current densities of  $0.1$  and  $10 \text{ A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , respectively. Most surprisingly, this anode material was capable of delivering an exceptionally high reversible capacity of  $1813 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  under a current density of  $2 \text{ A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  after a steady increment throughout 1310 cycles. A high initial reversible capacity ( $1239 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ), excellent high rate performance ( $574 \text{ mAh}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  at  $10 \text{ A}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ), and superior cycling

performance were achieved in the as-obtained SnO<sub>2</sub>/G composite. With the aid of various experiments, possible mechanisms for such superior performance were proposed. 1) Ultra-small sizes of SnO<sub>2</sub> particles that partially initiated reversible conversion between SnO<sub>2</sub> and Li<sub>2</sub>O upon cycling, and accommodated the volume changes during charge/discharge process. 2) Graphene network that not only enhanced the conductivity of the composite but also reversibly accommodated large amount of lithium. 3) Severe expansion/contraction of SnO<sub>2</sub> during lithiation/delithiation constructed graphene to be mesoporous with more activated sites for Li storage. 4) Polymeric gel-like film formation as a result of electrolyte decomposition contributed to extra capacity. These findings may enlighten the following works on exploring large reversible capacity on metal oxides, graphene, and their synergic composites as anodes for LIBs.

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