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$\alpha\mbox{-}Fe_2O_3/SnO_2$ heterostructure composites: A high stability anode for lithium-ion battery

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ARTICLE INFO	A B S T R A C T
Keywords: Composites Oxides Chemical synthesis Microstructure Electrochemical properties	α -Fe ₂ O ₃ microoval structure decorated with SnO ₂ nanocrystals are fabricated by hydro-thermal process. The composite heterostructure has a uniform size of 310 nm in length and 110 nm in width, and SnO ₂ shell thickness is ~10 nm. The SnO ₂ shell acts as a conductive layer to offer fast pathways for transport of electrons and ions. What is more, the SnO ₂ layer serves as an inactive matrix for α -Fe ₂ O ₃ particles, avoiding agglomeration and keeping structural integrity. Benefiting from the smart design, the hierarchical α -Fe ₂ O ₃ /SnO ₂ composite as anode exhibits a higher specific capacity and a better rate performance than those of pristine α -Fe ₂ O ₃ structures. The stability electrochemical performance of the hierarchical composite can be put down to the core-shell architecture, which improves the conductivity and stability of the electrodes. The heterostructure design in our work provides a possible approach to synthesis high stability materials for electrochemical energy storage.

1. Introduction

Rechargeable batteries with high power/energy density, long cycle life and high safety have been developed for a variety of applications, such as portable consumer electronic products, electromobiles and large-scale energy storage in smart grids [1]. However, the commercial batteries cannot meet the fast-growing demand, thereby attracting much interest and prompting extensive studies [2–4]. For lithium-ion batteries (LIBs), graphite or modified graphite has become the most popular negative electrode materials, but its theoretical specific capacity is only 372 mA h·g⁻¹. The main challenge in this field is that the graphite-based materials used in commercial LIBs cannot satisfy the demand of higher energy density. Thus, great efforts have been devoted to exploring negative electrode materials with a high specific capacity [5–7]. Recently, transition metal oxides (Fe₂O₃, SnO₂, Co₃O₄, Fe₃O₄, *etc.*) have been widely investigated due to their high theoretical capacity, natural abundance and environmentally friendly [8].

Among various metal oxides, α -Fe₂O₃ has a higher theoretical specific capacity, nearly three times that of graphite [9–11]. Drastic volume expansion/shrink will take place during the lithium-ion insertion/ extraction process for α -Fe₂O₃-based materials, leading to pulverization and aggregation of α -Fe₂O₃ and large irreversible capacity loss. SnO₂ as negative electrode has been reported due to its high reversible capacity and high conductivity, but with tremendous volume expansion and lower coulombic efficiency (CE) [12–14]. One of the approaches to circumvent these obstacles is to synthesize nanostructured oxide/ graphene, such as Fe₂O₃/graphene and SnO₂/graphene [15,16]. Recent advances have moved to engineer new structures as anode materials of LIBs with a special design to improve their physical and chemical properties, *i.e.* heterostructured composites [17-19]. Zhou et al. [20] reported a branched heterostructure composed of SnO2 and α -Fe2O3, which shows a remarkably-improved capacity of $800 \text{ mA h} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$, much higher than that of pure SnO₂ (230 mA h·g⁻¹) and α -Fe₂O₃ $(300 \text{ mA h}\cdot\text{g}^{-1})$. Lou et al. [21] reported SnO₂ submicroboxes with a SnO₂ shell thickness of 40 nm, which delivered a reversible specific capacity of 491 mA $h\cdot g^{-1}$ at 0.5 $A\cdot g^{-1}$ after 100 cycles. Some studies have suggested that the strain due to the volume change during Li-ion insertion/extraction cycling could be avoided by introduce nanosized materials [22-24] or integrate carbon materials as structural buffers [25,26], thereby enhancing the cycle stability. These strategies can relieve strain and promote electron transport to partly improve the performance of LIBs, but the cycling performance is still unsatisfactory in the previous reports on SnO_2 and α -Fe₂O₃ [22,27]. Thus, it is highly expected that α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites should have excellent performances due to the interaction of the two components. To our best knowledge, there is no report on preparation of heterostructured composites of α -Fe₂O₃ microovals decorated with SnO₂ nanocrystals (NCs) as negative electrode materials for LIBs.

In this work, α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ heterostructure composites decorated with SnO₂ NCs are synthesized *via* a two-step hydrothermal method. Benefiting from the structural features and synergistic effect, the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ anode exhibits high stability lithium storage performance

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for LIBs. The lithium storage mechanism of the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode was also investigated by examining its microstructural evolution after discharge/charge cycling.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials preparation

The synthesis of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites follows two steps. Firstly, the α -Fe₂O₃ microovals were prepared by following our previous work [28]. Secondly, 100 mg α -Fe₂O₃ microovals was dispersed in 30 mL deionized (DI) water by ultrasonication to form a suspension. Then 1 mmol Na₂SnO₃ was dissolved in another 30 mL DI water and added to the former suspension under constant stirring. The obtained suspension was transferred to Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave, which was heated at 180 °C for 24 h. The resultant product was collected by centrifuged with DI water and ethanol, dried in an oven at 60 °C overnight.

2.2. Materials characterization

Powder x-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were obtained with a Rigaku SmartLab X-ray diffractometer using Cu-Kα radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406$ Å). Field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) and energy-dispersive x-ray spectroscopy (EDS) were carried out on a Hitachi S-4800 scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Bright-field (BF) transmission electron microscopy (TEM) imaging, selected-area electron diffraction (SAED), high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) imaging, and TEM-EDS element mapping of the samples were performed on a JEOL JEM2100 F electron microscope with an acceleration voltage of 200 kV. X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) were recorded on an ESCALAB 250 spectrometer with a monochromatic Al Kα radiation (hv = 1486.6 eV) under ultrahigh vacuum (below 10^{-8} Pa).

2.3. Electrochemical measurements

Electrochemical measurements were conducted by half coin-type cells (CR2025) assembled inside a glove box (Mikrouna) under an argon atmosphere at room temperature (25 °C). The working electrodes were fabricated by mixing 70 wt.% α-Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ or α-Fe₂O₃, 15 wt.% acetylene black and 15 wt.% sodium-alginate (SA) and adequate amount of DI water, coating the mixture on the copper current collector and drying in a vacuum oven at 120 °C for 12 h. The loading of active material was ca. $0.8 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$. Pure lithium foil was used as a counter electrode, 1 M LiPF₆ in ethylenecarbonate (EC) and dimethyl carbonate (DMC) (EC:DMC = 1:1 in volume) as electrolyte and a polypropylene microporous film as separator. The galvanostatic charge-discharge tests were performed on LAND CT 2001A battery testing system in a voltage range from 0.01 to 3.0 V vs. Li/Li+. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) was performed on Metrohm Autolab PGSTAT302N in a potential window of 0.01-3.0 V with a scan rate of 0.1 mV·s⁻¹. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed on fresh cells at open circuit potential with Metrohm Autolab PGSTAT302N by applying a sine wave with an amplitude of 5.0 mV over a frequency range from 100 kHz to 0.1 Hz.

3. Results and discussion

The crystal structures of as-prepared products were analyzed by XRD, as displayed in Fig. 1(a). In these patterns, the main diffraction peaks of the products match well with those of rhombohedral α -Fe₂O₃ (JCPDF: 33-0664) [29]. The weak diffraction peaks marked by inverted triangles can be ascribed to tetragonal rutile SnO₂ (JCPDF: 41-1445), and the relatively low diffraction intensity is due to the low content and small crystal size of SnO₂ in the samples. It is shown that the incorporation of SnO₂ has no impact upon α -Fe₂O₃ crystalline structure,

because the diffraction peaks of the hematite phase in the samples locate in the standard α -Fe₂O₃ peak positions. Moreover, the EDS spectrum further demonstrates the existence of SnO₂ in the samples, as shown in Fig. 1(b). It reveals that the product consists of four elements (C, O, Fe, Sn), and the weight percentages of Fe and Sn elements are about 42% and 14%, respectively. The quantification of EDS spectrum shows that the molar ratio of α -Fe₂O₃ and SnO₂ is about 6:1. The C element may originate from the residual surfactants of PVP.

Fig. 2 shows typical XPS spectra of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites, indicating the existence of Fe, C, Sn, and O elements. In Fig. 2(a), the spectra exhibit two broad peaks at around 724.3 eV and 710.6 eV, corresponding to Fe 2p_{1/2} and Fe 2p_{3/2} states, respectively [30]. The satellite peak at around 718.9 eV gives further evidence of α -Fe₂O₃. For C 1 s spectra in Fig. 2(b), three peaks are assigned to C = O (287.8 eV), C = N (286.5 eV), C-C (284.7 eV), indicating the presence of residual surfactant of PVP [31]. The peaks located at 716.5 eV, 494.6 eV and 486.1 eV in Fig. 2(a) and (c) are attributed to Sn 3p_{3/2}, Sn 3d_{3/2} and Sn 3d_{5/2}, respectively, confirming the presence of SnO₂ in the composites [32,33]. Fig. 2(d) displays the XPS spectra of O 1 s, in which the binding energy peaks at 531.5 and 529.6 eV represent Fe-O and Sn-O, respectively, corresponding to O²⁻ from α -Fe₂O₃ and SnO₂ [34]. These results further confirm that the composites consist of α -Fe₂O₃, SnO₂ and carbon.

Morphology and microstructure about α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites were further examined by FESEM and TEM. Fig. 3(a) and (b) show typical FESEM images of the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites at different magnifications. It is clearly revealed that the composites are oval-like with a relatively uniform size. The dimensions of the composites are about 310 nm in length and about 110 nm in width, and the surface of the composites is covered with many NCs. Fig. 3(c) reveals BF TEM image of single α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ structure, where a core-shell structure is observed. To clarify the microstructure of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composite, HRTEM image was performed, as displayed in Fig. 3(d). The crystal lattice spacings measured from the HRTEM image are 2.70 Å and 3.35 Å, which correspond to the (10 $\overline{1}$ 4) planes of α -Fe₂O₃ and (110) planes of SnO₂, respectively. In the core-shell structure, the core is α -Fe₂O₃ microoval, while the shell is composed of SnO₂ NCs. The average shell of SnO₂ layer is ~ 10 nm. To better investigate the distribution of Fe, Sn, O and C in the composite, elemental mappings were obtained for the individual core-shell structure as demonstrated in Fig. 3(e)-(h). The Fe element is mainly distributed in the core, while the Sn element is mainly located in the outer layer of the core-shell structure. In addition, the O and C elements are evenly distributed in an individual composite, and the C around the microoval is attributed to the carbon film on the copper grids to support sample. Therefore, the α -Fe₂O₃ microovals were uniformly decorated with SnO₂ NCs on the whole surface.

According to the above analysis, the synthetic process of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites is schematically illustrated in Fig. 4. Firstly, PVP acts as surfactant to prevent the nanoparticles from agglomeration in the DI water and ethanol solution of FeCl₃ and PVP. The reaction between Fe³⁺ ions and ethylenediamine (EDA) probably forms Fe³⁺-EDA complex after the addition of the EDA. The stability of the complex decreases at high temperature and unstable coordinated ligands disappear. The Fe³⁺ freedom and react to OH⁻ from water to form Fe (OH)₃ in this process. When the solution mixture is transferred to the autoclave and heated at 180 °C, Fe(OH)₃ particles grow and evaporated to form oval-like α -Fe₂O₃ particles [35,36]. Secondly, the SnO₃²⁻ ions are gradually released from the added Na₂SnO₃, and will aggregate on the surface of α -Fe₂O₃. The SnO₂ NCs are grown on the surface of α -Fe₂O₃ under the mild hydrothermal conditions. Finally, the hetero-structured composites of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ are produced.

The electrochemical properties of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ heterostructures is first evaluated by CV, which helps to better understand the redox reactions. Fig. 5(a) displays a typical CV of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ heterostructures in the potential window of 0.01–3.00 V at a scan rate of 0.1 mV/s. In first cathodic process, four reduction peaks can be



Fig. 1. (a) XRD patterns of the products; (b) Typical EDS spectrum of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites.



Fig. 2. XPS spectra of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites. (a) Fe 2p and Sn 3p; (b) C 1 s; (c) Sn 3d; (d) O 1 s.

observed at 1.2, 0.9, 0.6 and 0.1 V, respectively. A pair of cathodic peaks located at 1.2 and 0.6 V are associated with the reduction of Fe³⁺ into metallic Fe[°] (Fe₂O₃ + 2Li⁺ + 2e⁻ \rightarrow Li₂(Fe₂O₃), Li₂(Fe₂O₃) $+4Li^+ + 4e^- \rightarrow 2Fe + 3Li_2O$ [37,38], while the peaks observed at 0.9 and 0.1 V are assigned to the reduction of SnO₂ to Sn $(SnO_2 + 4Li^+ + 4e^- \rightarrow Sn + 2Li_2O)$, and lithium insertion into Sn to form a Li_xSn alloy $(Sn + xLi + xe^{-} \rightarrow Li_xSn)$ [39]. The strong non-reversible cathodic peak at around 0.6 V is ascribed to the forming of solid electrolyte interphase (SEI), which disappears after first cycle. Furthermore, two oxidation peaks are located at 0.55 and 1.8 V. The weak anodic peak at 0.55 V is due to dealloying reaction of $\text{Li}_x \text{Sn}$ alloy ($\text{Li}_x \text{Sn} \rightarrow$ $Sn + xLi^+ + xe^-$). The broad anodic peak at around 1.8 V is assigned to the metallic Fe into Fe^{3+} (2Fe+3Li₂O \rightarrow Fe₂O₃+6Li⁺+6e⁻) and partial reversible formation of SnO_2 (Sn + Li₂O \rightarrow SnO₂ + 4Li⁺ + 4e⁻) [40]. In subsequent cycles, a couple of peaks located at 0.02 and 0.55 V (cathodic/anodic) can be attributed to reversible alloying and dealloying reactions of Li_xSn ($0 \le x \le 4.4$). Another couple of peaks observed at 0.88 and 1.8 V (cathodic/anodic) are caused by reversible oxidation-reduction reactions of α -Fe₂O₃ [20]. The CV of pure α -Fe₂O₃ is shown in Fig. S1 [28]. The peak observed at 0.5 V is attributed to the formation of SEI film and the reduction of α -Fe₂O₃ to Fe. The anodic peak at 1.8 V during the first cycle can be ascribed to the oxidation of Fe (0) to Fe³⁺. Compared to the CV of the pure α -Fe₂O₃, α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composite electrode has extra peaks, corresponding to the redox reactions of SnO₂. The lithiation-delithiation potentials of SnO₂ are lower than those of α -Fe₂O₃. Thus, the SnO₂ layer in the composite serves as inactive matrices to prevent α -Fe₂O₃ microovals from agglomeration during discharge-charge cycling.

Fig. 5(b) displays the 1 st, 2nd, 100th and 150th discharge/charge profiles of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode at 100 mA·g⁻¹. The first discharge curve exhibits a wide voltage plateau at ~0.88 V, in good agreement with above CV results. The initial discharge/charge specific capacities



Fig. 3. (a) and (b) FESEM images of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites; (c) BF TEM image of single α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ structure; (d) HRTEM image of square region in (c); (e–h) TEM-EDS elemental mapping of Fe, O, Sn, C in an individual composite.



Fig. 4. Schematic illustration of the formation of $\alpha\mbox{-}Fe_2O_3/SnO_2$ composites.

of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ are 1262 and 902 mA h·g⁻¹, corresponding to a CE of 71%. The irreversible capacity reduction can be assigned to the decomposition in the electrolyte or some non-reversible reactions such as the formation of SEI layer in the initial discharge cycle [41]. During the second cycle, the discharge and charge specific capacities are 909.2 mA $h \cdot g^{-1}$ and 892.6 mA $h \cdot g^{-1}$, respectively. The capacity is maintained at a stable level in the following cycles, and the 100th and 160th galvanostatic discharge and charge curves are highly coincident, indicating that the as-prepared α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites have prominent cycling stability. The charge/discharge profile of pure α -Fe₂O₃ is shown in Fig. S2 [28]. A distinct long voltage platform can be clearly seen at ~ 0.8 V in the first discharge curve, and a sloping platform at \sim 2.0 V is observed due to a reverse reaction in the first charge curve in good agreement of the CV results. The reversible capacity of pure α - Fe_2O_3 electrode is higher than that of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode during 1-50 cycles. The results further demonstrated that the introduced SnO₂ can react with Li⁺ in the low lithiation-delithiation potentials.

Fig. 5(c) depicts cycling performance of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ and α -Fe₂O₃ structured electrodes, and CE of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites from the

first cycle to the 160th cycle at 100 mA·g⁻¹ between 0.01 and 3.0 V. The α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ structured electrode exhibits a discharge capacity of 817 mA h·g⁻¹ after 160 cycles, which is nearly three times of the pure α -Fe₂O₃ (304 mA h·g⁻¹ after 160 cycles). The composite electrode shows superior capacity retention in electrochemical cycling process. Compared with pure α -Fe₂O₃ electrode, the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode shows remarkable cycling performance because the introduced SnO₂ is able to prevent the electrode in the process of lithiation-delithiation [42].

Besides the cycling behavior, rate capability is also an important factor for LIBs. As shown in Fig. 5(d), α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites deliver discharge capacities of around 783, 702, 601, 498, 389, 780 mA h·g⁻¹ at 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2 and 0.1 A·g⁻¹, respectively. The discharge capacity of 780 mA h·g⁻¹ is obtained when current density returns to 0.1 A·g⁻¹ after 50 cycles. More remarkably, the electrode of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composite is more stable than the α -Fe₂O₃ microovals electrode in long cycling life. The enhanced rate performance of the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode can be allied to the promoted conductivity of the heterostructures after being decorated with the SnO₂ layer. Therefore, the incorporation of SnO₂ NCs onto the surface of α -Fe₂O₃ microovals can improve the cycle performance of LIBs.

To further demonstrate the excellent electrochemical performance, EIS measurements were conducted on α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites and α - Fe_2O_3 microovals. As shown in Fig. 6(a), the Nyquist plots are composed of a semicircle at high frequency and an inclined line at low frequency [43,44]. The impedance data are fitted by the equivalent circuit shown as the inset in Fig. 6(a), in which R_s and R_{ct} represent ohmic resistance and charge transfer resistance, CPE is double-layer capacitance, and W is the Warburg impedance. The semicircle of the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites is relatively small as compare to α-Fe₂O₃ microovals. The fitted value of R_{ct} for α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode ($R_{ct} = 19.5$ $\Omega)$ is lower than that for $\alpha\text{-}Fe_2O_3$ electrode (R_{ct} = 31.6 $\Omega),$ indicating that the SnO₂ layer can accelerate ion diffusion and decreases the total internal resistance of the battery, leading to a significant enhancement in the electrochemical performance [45]. The lithium ion diffusion coefficient (D_{Li}) is calculated according to the formula $D_{Li} = R^2 T^2 / T^2$ $2A^{2}n^{4}F^{4}C^{2}\sigma^{2}$, where R is the ideal gas constant, T is the absolute



Fig. 5. (a) Typical CV of the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites; (b) Discharge/charge curves of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites; (c) Cycling performance of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites and α -Fe₂O₃ microovals at 0.1 A·g⁻¹, and CE of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites; (d) Rate performance of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites and α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites.

temperature, A is the cross-sectional area of the electrode, n is the number of transferred electron per molecule, F is Faraday constant, C is the electrode of lithium ion concentration, and σ is Warburg factor. As shown in Fig. 6(b), the relationship between σ and Z' can be described using $Z' = R_s + R_{ct} + \sigma \omega^{-1/2}$, where Z' is the real part of the impedance spectrum, R_s is the solution resistance, R_{ct} is the charge transfer, ω is the angular frequency, and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is the value of the slope of the curve. From Fig. 6(b), the σ values of $\alpha\text{-}Fe_2O_3/SnO_2$ and $\alpha\text{-}Fe_2O_3$ electrodes are determined to be 90.65 and 159.28, respectively. The corresponding lithium ion diffusion coefficients of $\alpha\text{-}Fe_2O_3/SnO_2$ and $\alpha\text{-}Fe_2O_3$ electrode are calculated to be 1.81×10^{-6} cm²·s⁻¹ and 5.87×10^{-7} cm²·s⁻¹, respectively. The lithium ion diffusion coefficient of the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ is higher than that of α -Fe₂O₃, indicating fast Li-ion diffusion in the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode. Therefore, the introduction of the SnO₂ layer can improve the conductivity of the active material and enhance the electrochemical reaction.

To further understanding the electrochemical property of the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode, TEM, HRTEM and SAED were employed to investigate its microstructural change in the delithiated states (3.0 V) after 160 cycles at $0.1 \text{ A} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$. Fig. 7(a) and (b) show typical BF TEM images of the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode after 160 cycles. The morphology of active materials remains oval-like shape, while their length and width are much bigger than those dimensions before cycling. No obvious cracks and breakage can be found, suggesting that the composites well accommodate the volume changes during cycling. Fig. 7(c) shows an enlarged TEM image of interface area surrounded by a small rectangle in (a), and the corresponding SAED pattern is demonstrated in Fig. 7(e). The diffraction rings in Fig. 7(e) can be indexed using α -Fe₂O₃ and SnO₂. Fig. 7(d) is an enlarged HRTEM image surrounded by a rectangle in (c). To obtain more detailed microstructural information, enlarged HRTEM images of different areas are shown in Fig. 7(f-h). The HRTEM images show crystal lattices with an interplanar distance of



Fig. 6. (a) The impedance spectra of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites and α -Fe₂O₃ microovals, inset is an equivalent circuit; (b) The relationship between Z' and $\omega^{-1/2}$ in the low frequency region.



Fig. 7. TEM images and SAED pattern of the α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ electrode after 160 cycles. (a) and (b) BF TEM images; (c) Enlarged TEM image of interface area enclosed by the rectangle in (a); (d) Enlarged HRTEM image of the region in (c); (e) Typical SAED pattern taken from (c); (f), (g), (h) HRTEM images of different areas in (d).

2.60 Å that can be ascribed to (101) planes of SnO₂. This reveals that the SnO₂ NCs are still coated on the surface of α -Fe₂O₃ during the delithiation process, thus the SnO₂ can well protect the α -Fe₂O₃ during the discharge/charge cycling.

The remarkable cycling stability and rate performance of hierarchical α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites can be attributed to the complementary roles of SnO₂ and α -Fe₂O₃. First, the SnO₂ layer can provide a fast transport pathway for both electrons and ions, as well as act as a structural buffer to accommodate the volume expansion/shrinkage during the cycling. Second, the potentials of SnO₂ for both lithium insertion and extraction are lower than those of α -Fe₂O₃, thus the thin SnO₂ layer can play the part of inactive matrix for α -Fe₂O₃ particles, avoiding agglomeration and keeping structural integrity. On the basis of above advantages, the lithium storage performance of α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composite anode are significantly improved, compared with pure α -Fe₂O₃.

4. Conclusions

In summary, hierarchical α -Fe₂O₃/SnO₂ composites with an average SnO₂ shell thickness of ~10 nm were synthesized through a two-step hydrothermal method. The SnO₂ NCs were uniformly decorated onto the outside surface of α -Fe₂O₃ microovals. When evaluated as anode material for LIBs, the composite delivers a specific capacity of over 810 mA h·g⁻¹ at 100 mA·g⁻¹ after 160 cycles, better than that of pristine α -Fe₂O₃. The stability electrochemical performance of the hierarchical composite can be put down to the core-shell architecture, which reduces its internal resistance of the battery, and improves the conductivity of the electrodes and stabilizes α -Fe₂O₃ structures. Further design and regulate of a core-shell heterostructured material will open a new opportunity in the areas of photoconversion, sensing and

electrochemical energy storage.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.materresbull.2018.05.014.

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