Spray-Drying-Induced Assembly of Skeleton-Structured SnO2/Graphene Composite Spheres as Superior Anode Materials for High-Performance Lithium-Ion Batteries

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ABSTRACT: Three-dimensional skeleton-structured assemblies of graphene sheets decorated with SnO2 nanocrystals are fabricated via a facile and large-scalable spray-drying-induced assembly process with commercial graphene oxide and SnO2 sol as precursors. The influences of different parameters on the morphology, composition, structure, and electrochemical performances of the skeleton-structured SnO2/graphene composite spheres are studied by XRD, TGA, SEM, TEM, Raman spectroscopy, and N2 adsorption–desorption techniques. Electrochemical properties of the composite spheres as the anode electrode for lithium-ion batteries are evaluated. After 120 cycles under a current density of 100 mA g−1, the skeleton-structured SnO2/graphene spheres still display a specific discharge capacity of 1140 mAh g−1. It is roughly 9.5 times larger than that of bare SnO2 clusters. It could still retain a stable specific capacity of 775 mAh g−1 after 50 cycles under a high current density of 2000 mA g−1, exhibiting extraordinary rate ability. The superconductivity of the graphene skeleton provides the pathway for electron transportation. The large pore volume deduced from the skeleton structure of the SnO2/graphene composite spheres increases the penetration of electrolyte and the diffusion of lithium ions and also significantly enhances the structural integrity by acting as a mechanical buffer.

KEYWORDS: tin dioxide, graphene, spray drying, skeleton structure, lithium-ion battery

1. INTRODUCTION

Lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) are an ideal power supply for consumer electronics. They are also expected to play a prominent role as electrochemical storage systems in the development of sustainable energy as well as power systems for hybrid and electric vehicles.1–3 However, the conventional graphite electrode that has been used as the anode for LIBs cannot fulfill the increasing demands for power sources with high energy density because of its low capacity of 372 mAhg−1 in theory.4–6 A growing concern is the acquisition of options of anode materials with low price, improved safety, high energy density, and durable cycle life.7–9 Alloy or metal oxides have been regarded as promising anode materials for LIBs due to the superior energy capacity and impressive safety character.10,11 As a kind of promising candidate anode for LIBs, tin dioxide (SnO2) has attracted intensive attention owing to its low cost and high theoretical capacity of 782 mAhg−1.12–14 However, the relative low conductivity and especially the severe volume...
variation of pristine SnO₂ particles during charging/discharging leads to serious mechanical disintegration (e.g., breaking and comminuting), destroying the conduction routes in the electrodes, which thus depresses the performance of the battery.15−17 To tackle these problems, several endeavors are explored to enhance the electronic conductivity and the integrality of SnO₂-based electrodes.18−20 Therein, the construction of a porous structure and the formation of carbon/metal (oxide) composites have been considered to be efficient strategies for improving the performance of alloy (or metal oxide) anode materials.21,22 An electrode with three-dimensional (3D) porosity and abundant pores could counteract the volume distension of the active material.23−25 Carbon/metal (oxide) composite materials have been shown to display improved electric and ionic conductivity, since the porous carbon materials play the role in buffering the volume change of the composite electrode.26,27 It has been found that carbon-supported SnO₂ materials with a rationally designed structure and composition can improve Li-storage performance.28,29 Various SnO₂ nanostructures, for example, nanotubes, hollow spheres, etc., are fabricated to improve the surface area and to shorten the diffusion path of Li⁺, easing the interior strain induced due to the change of volume in the charging and discharging processes.30−32 As for the composites, a great deal of efforts have been dedicated to finding appropriate carbon sources and facile approaches for the preparation of SnO₂/graphene composite electrodes.33,34 Graphene has been found to be an appropriate carbon material for enhancing the properties of SnO₂.35,36 Consequently, many endeavors have been performed to fabricate a composite of SnO₂ and graphene with a novel structure, and most of the resulted composites exhibited high energy density and superior reversibility capacity.37,38 In comparison with two-dimensional (2D) graphene nanosheets, 3D graphene architectures (e.g., graphene foams or skeletons) derived from 2D sheets can provide a higher specific surface area, flexible structure, and more voids for accommodating or encapsulating the SnO₂ nanoparticles, which can increase further the structural stability and the electrochemical performance of the SnO₂/graphene composite materials.39−41 However, the formation of a 3D graphene assembly with a spherical morphology is still problematic since there is a lack of an efficient method to prepare them on the large scale, especially utilizing low-cost raw materials.

Herein, we depict a facile way to fabricate SnO₂/graphene composite spheres in which the graphene sheets are assembled into a skeleton-structured 3D spherical network. The mass-producible technique and industrial preparation method for powders, namely spray drying, was conveyed to the assembly of the skeleton-structured 3D SnO₂/graphene composite spheres by simply using SnCl₄ and commercial graphene oxide as precursors and combining with a calcination process. SnO₂/graphene composite spheres with superior capacity, extraordinary rate capability and excellent cycle persistence as anode materials for LIBs have been obtained through this spray-drying-assisted facile method. The effects of various preparation conditions of the 3D SnO₂/graphene composite spheres, especially the applied temperature for calcination, on their structure and performance as an LIB electrode were also systematically investigated, aiming at obtaining SnO₂/graphene composite spheres with high stability and excellent performance via flexible control of their structure and conformation.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Materials. Tin(IV) chloride pentahydrate, ammonium hydroxide, and absolute ethanol are all of AR grade and utilized as purchased with no additional purification. Graphene oxide (GO) powder is received as a gift from the Sixth Element Ltd. (Changzhou) and used as obtained.

2.2. Preparation of the SnO₂/Graphene Composite Spheres. First, 0.25 g of graphene oxide was added to 100 mL of an ethanol and deionized water mixture (ethanol/deionized water = 3:7, v/v) followed by sonication for 2 h. Tin(IV) chloride pentahydrate (3.5 g) was dissolved in the above suspension under vigorous stirring at 60 °C. Ammonium hydroxide with a concentration of 0.5 mol/L was then exported into the suspension dropwise via a peristaltic pump (1 mL·min⁻¹) until the pH value of the suspension got to 3–5. Then, the obtained brownish black suspension was imported into the nozzle on a lab-scale SP-1500 spray dryer. The imported suspension is pulverized by the shear force from the pressurized air with a pressure in the range of 200−400 kPa, spraying out tiny droplets of SnO₂/GO suspension through the orifice of the nozzle. The liquid droplets quickly evaporated upon contact with the carrier gas of 160 °C hot air passing through the chamber of the dryer, resulting in dry and stable porous SnO₂/GO microspheres. Dried SnO₂/GO microspheres were collected finally by an online cyclone separator. The SnO₂/GO microspheres were calcined in nitrogen atmosphere at 550 or 650 °C, respectively, for 4 h to obtain samples SnO₂/G-1-550 and SnO₂/G-1-650, respectively, where 550 and 650 represent the calcination temperature.

As control experiments, pristine SnO₂ spheres were prepared with the same procedure as that for SnO₂/G-1 but using a suspension without graphene oxides. SnO₂/GO solid was also prepared by ordinary evaporation drying instead of spray drying, and then, the dried solid was calcined at 550 °C for 4 h under nitrogen atmosphere. The resulting sample is labeled as SnO₂/G-2-550.

2.3. Characterization. Phase recognition (XRD) of the samples was achieved by a Rigaku Ultima IV X-ray diffractometer using Cu Kα radiation (λ = 1.5418 Å). Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra were acquired in the range of 400 to 4000 cm⁻¹ on a Nicolet IS50 spectrophotometer. The morphology and the structure were examined on a JSM-7800 scanning electron microscope (SEM) and a JEM-2100 transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL Ltd.). Thermogravimetric analysis (Mettler Toledo TGA-2) was conducted in air atmosphere with a temperature ramp of 5 °C min⁻¹. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data were recorded on a PHI VersaProbe III (ULVAC-PHI INC.) X-ray photoelectron spectrometer with a monochromatized Al K standard X-ray source. C ls of 283.8 eV has been considered to be the internal standard to calculate the binding energies. N₂ adsorption−desorption isotherms were recorded with an Autosorb-IQ-XP/SR surface area and pore analyzer (Quantachrome). Specific surface areas were calculated with the Brunauer−Emmett−Teller (BET) model using nitrogen adsorption data obtained in between P/P₀ = 0.05−0.95. The Barrett−Joyner−Halenda (BJH) model was utilized to determining the pore size distributions based on the desorption branch of the N₂ isotherms. An Enishaw inVia Plus Micro-Raman spectroscope was used to record the Raman spectra with a 532 nm excitation wavelength.

2.4. Electrochemical Measurements. The active materials (SnO₂/G), acetylene black, and polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) solution in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) were mixed with a weight ratio of 8:1:1. The slurry mixture was deposited on a copper foil and then dried at 110 °C under vacuum for 12 h to evaporate water and NMP. Round electrodes with a size of 10 mm were cut out and weighed, and the precise loadings of the active materials were kept in a range of 1.46−1.66 mg/cm². A 1 M LiPF₆ solution in an EC/DEC/DMC mixture (1:1:1 in volume) was utilized as the electrolyte. Coin cells of 2016-type were then fabricated in an Ar-filled glovebox (oxygen and moisture less than 1 ppm) using Celgard 2400 film as separator. Pristine lithium foil has been utilized as the counter electrode. The charge−discharge measurements were performed on a 2001A cell test system (LAND, Wuhan) with cutoff voltages between 3 and 0.01 V.
Cyclic voltammetry (CV) studies with coin-type cells in a two-electrode configuration were carried out in the range of 0.01 to 3 V with a scan rate of 0.2 mV s\(^{-1}\) using a CHI760D electrochemical working station. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) surveys were collected with the same electrochemical working station in a frequency scope from 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz at an amplitude of 5 mV.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. XRD. The XRD curves of pristine SnO\(_2\), SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550, and SnO\(_2\)/GO-1-650 samples along with a control sample of SnO\(_2\)/G-2 are shown in Figure 1. It can be seen that all samples exhibited four major diffraction peaks at 2\(\theta\) = 26.7, 34.0, 38.2, and 66.0°, respectively. These peaks can be indexed to the (110), (101), (211), and (301) planes of SnO\(_2\) in the tetragonal rutile phase (JCPDS No. 41-1445).\(^{42}\) When the SnO\(_2\)/GO composite spheres were calcined at 650 °C in nitrogen atmosphere for 4 h, additional peaks at 2\(\theta\) = 26.7, 34.0, 38.2, and 66.0° appear. These peaks can be ascribed to the typical planes of (200), (101), (220), and (211) of metallic Sn (JCPDS No. 86-2265),\(^{43}\) demonstrating that a large proportion of SnO\(_2\) had been reduced to metallic Sn under such calcination conditions. From the XRD pattern of SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550, it can be seen that the control sample showed much weaker characteristic peaks of SnO\(_2\) in comparison with that of SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550, indicating the amorphous nature of the SnO\(_2\) particles. The discrepancy of the crystallinity for SnO\(_2\) nanoparticles in SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 and SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 can be explained due to the surface effect and the wrapping effect, which can alter somehow the phase transition temperature. Similar phenomena have also been observed for TiO\(_2\) nanoparticles due to their condensed contact or to the wrapping of the particles with other kinds of compounds.\(^{44,45}\)

Such a speculation has been verified by the following morphology and porosity investigation. No characteristic peaks for graphene can be detected in these SnO\(_2\)/G composites, revealing a disordered stacking of the graphene sheets.\(^{46}\) To get more information on the SnO\(_2\) particles, the Debye–Scherrer equation, \(L = \frac{0.89\lambda}{B \cos \theta}\), was exploited to evaluate the size of the SnO\(_2\) particles, where \(L\) is the mean size of SnO\(_2\) nanoparticles, \(B\) represents the FWHM (full-width at half-maximum) of the applied peak in radians, \(\lambda\) denotes the...
lack of the selected X-ray radiation, and θ corresponds to the diffraction angle.\(^\text{47}\) \(L\) values of about 9.0 and 6.5 nm for SnO\(_2\) nanocrystals in pristine SnO\(_2\) microspheres and SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550, respectively, have been deduced based on the (110) peak of their XRD patterns.

**3.2. FTIR Spectra and XPS Measurements.** Panel A in Figure 2 shows the FTIR spectra of the GO precursor, SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550, and SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 samples recorded in a wavelength ranging from 400 to 2500 cm\(^{-1}\). Several peaks around 1734, 1374, 1061, and 1624 cm\(^{-1}\) have been observed in the FTIR curve of GO, which can be ascribed to the stretching vibration of the C=O bond in carboxyl or carbonyl groups, the O–H in a carboxyl group or water, the C–O in epoxy or alkoxy groups, and also the vibration of C=C bonds in the unoxidized graphitic skeleton.\(^\text{48}\) In these FTIR spectra of the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 and SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 composites, the typical peaks for C–O, O–H, and C=O bonds turn obviously to being weaker in contrast to that of the C=C band, revealing the diminishing of most oxygen-related groups after calcination. The band centered at about 621 cm\(^{-1}\) turns to more visible in the patterns of SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 and SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550. This peak can be attributed to the vibration of the Sn–O=Sn moiety, thus its growth demonstrates the existence of SnO\(_2\) in the composite.

The formation of SnO\(_2\) has been confirmed further by XPS measurements. The XPS full survey and the high-resolution survey at the Sn 3d and C 1s regions have been presented as panels B to D in Figure 2. The full survey shows obviously the presence of Sn, C, and O elements. The peaks at 495.5 and 487.0 eV in the high-resolution XPS survey of Sn 3d can be designated as the characteristic signals of Sn 3d\(3/2\) and Sn 3d\(5/2\) for Sn (IV), confirming the existence of SnO\(_2\) in the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite. The C 1s peak can be further deconvoluted into four peaks located at 284.8, 286.2, 287.6, and 289.1 eV (panel D), which could be assigned to C–C, C–O, C=O, and O–C=O groups, respectively.\(^\text{24}\) A π–π-related peak at 290.6 eV is observed as well in SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550, indicating that the affinity between SnO\(_2\) and graphene is strong. These XPS results are in good agreement with the FTIR results and demonstrate further that the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite consists of graphene and SnO\(_2\) crystals.

**3.3. SEM and TEM Investigations.** The morphologies of pristine SnO\(_2\) spheres and SnO\(_2\)/G-x (x = 1 or 2) were investigated using SEM, and the corresponding images are shown in Figure 3. From the images, it can be seen that pristine SnO\(_2\) samples show a spherical morphology with smooth surface character and a sphere diameter of about 0.5–2 \(\mu\)m (image A). High-resolution SEM demonstrates that the spheres of pristine SnO\(_2\) consist of nanoparticles with a size of about several nanometers, and the SnO\(_2\) nanoparticles aggregated into a large-sized spherical cluster (see Image B and the inset therein). Amazingly, the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite sample consisted of SnO\(_2\) nanoparticles and graphene sheets assembled also into a spherical morphology (image C). However, the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite spheres present a rough and wrinkled surface, which is completely distinct from that of the pristine SnO\(_2\) spheres. The high-magnification SEM images show that the wrinkled morphology of the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite spheres originates mainly from the protuberant graphene sheets (see image D and E). A more close observation reveals that the graphene sheets connected loosely with each other and mostly were oriented to the sphere center, forming a novel skeleton-structured sphere (see image F and the inset therein, which show obvious skeleton character). The same images reveal also that SnO\(_2\) particles with a size of several nanometers have been deposited tightly onto the surface of wrinkled graphene sheets. The SEM image of the skeleton-structured SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite spheres show the existence of abundant void volume (see images D and F), and such a structure character will result in a high specific surface area and provide spaces for the volume expansion of SnO\(_2\) particles during the alloying process with lithium\(^\text{26}\) (section 3.7). Such a kind of structure is responsible for the superior electrochemical properties of the composite spheres (see section 3.8). EDS elemental mapping analysis has been performed over a selected area of one SEM image to detect the elements and their dispersion in the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite, and the results have been depicted in Figure S1. Picture A of Figure S1 shows the overlap triple-elemental mapping of tin, oxygen, and carbon in the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 sample. Obviously, the high contrast of tin and oxygen signals in the overlap mapping suggest that the surface of the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 spheres
was covered mainly with tin and oxygen. The individual elemental mapping of tin, oxygen, and carbon demonstrates the uniform dispersion of the SnO₂ nanocrystals and the graphene sheets, which confirm further the above observation by SEM and will be verified by TEM measurements as following. For comparison, SEM images of SnO₂/G-1-650 and SnO₂/G-2-550 are presented in Figure S2. From the images, it can be seen that SnO₂/G-1-650 also possesses a spherical morphology, albeit, with metallic Sn particles anchored onto the surface of the spheres (see the bright spots in image A of Figure S2). Differently, from the image of SnO₂/G-2-550, one can see only a bulk without any regular morphology, which demonstrates that spray drying plays an essential role in the formation of the SnO₂/G-1 spheres.

TEM measurements are performed to reveal further the detailed structure of SnO₂/G-1-550 composite spheres, and also the size and crystallinity of the enclosed SnO₂ particle therein. Picture A of Figure 4 shows the overview of an individual SnO₂/G-1-550 sphere. From the image, one can see clearly the porous property of the sphere. We can also see roughly the arrangements of the graphene sheets. The high-magnification TEM image of the same sphere shows that the SnO₂ particles with size of a few nanometers were dispersed homogeneously and anchored tightly onto the graphene layers, and a few of the particles were wrapped incompletely with graphene layers (image B). The size of the SnO₂ nanocrystals observed with TEM is close to the value derived from the Scherrer formula (see section 3.1). The TEM image predicts also that such a skeleton structure seems also favorable for preventing the aggregation of SnO₂ particles. From the high-resolution TEM image, one can see the very observable lattice fringes in a single SnO₂ nanocrystal (image C of Figure 4), and a plane spacing of about 0.34 nm, close to the spacing of the (101) facet of tetragonal rutile SnO₂ crystal, has been derived. A selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern corresponding to these SnO₂ nanocrystals has been detected (Figure 4D). Obviously, the SAED pattern demonstrates well-defined rings consisting of bright spots, and they can be assigned to the (110), (101), (210), (211), and (112) facets of the SnO₂ crystal with a tetragonal rutile structure. Such a SAED pattern is in accordance with their XRD characteristic. To have a deeper insight into the composition, TEM measurements have also been carried out for the SnO₂/G-1-650 composite, and the results have been displayed in Figure S3. Panel A in Figure S3 is the overview TEM image of the SnO₂/G-1-650 sample, which shows clearly the decoration of the graphene sheets with some nanoparticles. The high-resolution TEM images B and C presented in Figure S3 display clearly lattice fringes with spacings of 0.33 and 0.288 nm, respectively, which can be indexed to the (110) and (200) lattice planes of SnO₂ and metallic Sn, correspondingly. The TEM observations are consistent with the XRD results, which prove that a part of the SnO₂ nanoparticles had been reduced to Sn during the high-temperature calcination process.

3.4. Formation Mechanism of the Skeleton-Structured Composite Spheres. Based on the morphology and structure studies and the virtue of spray drying, a spray-drying-induced formation process of the skeleton-structured SnO₂/G-1-550 composite spheres has proposed and been illustrated in Scheme 1. First, commercial muddy GO stacks were dispersed into a water/ethanol mixture solvent, and then, the GO sheets were further peeled off from each other upon the ultrasound irradiation. After the mixing of the GO suspension with tin(IV) chloride and the subsequent addition of aqueous ammonia, amorphous SnO₂ nanoparticles were deduced via a sol–gel process. Meanwhile, a part of the formed SnO₂ nanoparticles were deposited in situ to the surface of GO sheets due to the presence of abundant functional groups therein. Then, a suspension containing colloidal SnO₂ nanoparticles and GO sheets decorated with SnO₂ nanoparticles were obtained. When
they were pulverized upon the contact with pressurized air, spurting out numerous microdroplets of SnO₂/GO suspension through the nozzle orifice. The solvent in the microdroplets then evaporated transiently when the microdroplets were blew by the 160 °C hot air flow in a chamber of the dryer, resulting in dry and stable porous SnO₂/GO microspheres. The evaporation of solvent (water/ethanol mixture) results in the solidification of the suspension microdroplets. Meanwhile, the evaporation of the solvent steam from the interior of the microdroplets will produce an impact force to the GO layers, inducing the erection of the GO layers and finally resulting in the dried SnO₂/GO composite spheres with a skeleton structure and abundant pores. Dried SnO₂/GO microspheres were then collected by an online cyclone separator. After the calcination process in a nitrogen atmosphere at 550 or 650 °C for 4 h, crystallized SnO₂/G-1-550 and SnO₂/G-1-650 samples were acquired, respectively. As for the SnO₂/G-2 sample, it was solidified via an ordinary evaporation process instead of the spray drying as applied to SnO₂/G-1. In the normal evaporation process, SnO₂-decorated graphene sheets aggregated gradually and formed the agglomeration without a typical morphology. After calcinations in a nitrogen atmosphere at 550 °C for 4 h, SnO₂/G-2-550 with a bulk shape was acquired.

3.5. Thermal Analysis. To acquire the precious percentage of SnO₂ in the as-prepared sample, TGA analysis was performed in air at a temperature range between room temperature and 800 °C with a temperature ramp of 5 °C·min⁻¹. As shown in the TGA curve (Figure 5), the weight loss below 100 °C in both of the curves could be attributed to the evaporation of adsorbed moisture. The pristine SnO₂ spheres exhibit a smooth weight loss in between room temperature and 800 °C with a total loss of about 2.80 wt %. For the SnO₂/G-1-550 composite spheres, a significant weight loss with a value of about 20 wt % took place from 350 to 550 °C, which is ascribed to the burning of carbon by oxygen. The total loss of the composite up to 800 °C reach to about 76.5 wt %. Therefore, a mass percentage of about 78 wt % for SnO₂ in the SnO₂/G-1-550 series of composite spheres can roughly be deduced. For comparison, the content of SnO₂ in SnO₂/G-2-550 has been investigated by TGA as well, and the result has been depicted in Figure S4. From the curve, it can be seen that SnO₂/G-2-550 shows a weight loss of about 7.0% in between room temperature and 800 °C due mainly to the burning of carbon materials. Thus, the weight content of about 93 wt % for SnO₂ in the SnO₂/G-2-S50 composite can be deduced. The difference of SnO₂ contents in SnO₂/G-1-S50 and SnO₂/G-2-S50 can be attributed to the drying techniques applied to them. The spray drying may result in a partial loss of the ultralight nanoparticles under a strong high-temperature air flow.

3.6. Raman Spectra. Raman spectroscopy is a powerful tool to identify ordering and disordering on the structure of carbon materials. As depicted in Figure 6, a G band at 1597 cm⁻¹ corresponding to the sp² hybridized carbon and another peak around 1346 cm⁻¹ named as a D band deriving from the disordering of the carbon structure have been observed. The disordering, normally caused by amorphizing of graphite, is believed to induce an growth of the ratio between the relative intensities of the D to G bands (I_D/I_G) due to the reduction of the sp² domain size. Evidently, the I_D/I_G value of SnO₂/G-1-S50 (1.20) is much higher than that of GO (1.05), which can be explained as due to the intercalation of SnO₂ particles between the graphene layers or the anchor of the SnO₂ particles on the surface of the graphene layers in these SnO₂/G-1-550 composite spheres.

3.7. Nitrogen Adsorption–Desorption Results. N₂ adsorption–desorption has been employed to investigate the surface area and porosity of pristine SnO₂ spheres as well as SnO₂/G-1-550 and SnO₂/G-2-550 composites. Their isotherms and pore size distribution graphs are depicted in Figure 7A–C, respectively. All these samples show isothermal curves of type IV and display an apparent capillary condensation slope. Obviously, adsorption–desorption hysteresis loops can also be observed in these isotherms. According to the IUPAC classification, the SnO₂/G-1-550 composite shows a hysteresis loop of type H3, while a type H2 hysteresis loop appears on the sorption isotherm of SnO₂/G-2-S50. It is different from these composites, whereas the bare SnO₂ sample exhibited a slender and atypical hysteresis loop. Meanwhile, the stage of the capillary condensation shifted to a higher relative pressure, indicating that the porosity of the bare SnO₂ sphere is poorer than that of the composite samples. The differences between the types of hysteresis loops among these samples can be due to the discrepancy of the arrangements or structures of the pores in them. Nevertheless, all these loops indicate the materials are abundant in mesopores. The average pore sizes

Figure 5. TGA curves of the pristine SnO₂ and the SnO₂/G-1-550 composite spheres.

Figure 6. Raman spectra of the GO raw material and the SnO₂/G-1-550 sample.
The BET specific surface area and pore volume with values of 40 m² g⁻¹ and 0.03 cm³ g⁻¹ for the bare SnO₂ spheres, 245 m² g⁻¹ and 0.41 cm³ g⁻¹ for SnO₂/G-1-550 composite spheres, and 124 m² g⁻¹ and 0.15 cm³ g⁻¹ for SnO₂/G-2-550 composite, respectively, were deduced. The large specific surface area of the SnO₂/G-1-550 composite spheres can be attributed to the formation of the skeleton-structured graphene spheres and the anchoring of nanosized SnO₂ particles on the graphene layers. The large pores, high specific surface area, and abundant pore space in SnO₂/G-1-550 sample can relieve the volume change of SnO₂ that occurred in the Li⁺ insertion/desertion process, resulting in an excellent electrochemical performance. The N₂ adsorption–desorption measurements are consistent with the aforementioned SEM observations.

3.8. Electrochemical Properties. The electrochemical performance of the synthesized SnO₂/G-1-550 composite and SnO₂/G-2-550 are studied as active materials for the anodes of LIBs. A galvanostatic technique is used for the investigation of cycling performance for these composite anodes under a current density of 100 mA g⁻¹. Figure 8 shows the specific capacities and cycle performances of pristine SnO₂ (panel A), SnO₂/G-1-550 (panel B), and SnO₂/G-2-550 (panel C) composites. The reversible capacity of pristine SnO₂ fades obviously and shows a weak capacity of just 121 mAh g⁻¹ after 50 rounds (Figure 8A). With respect to the SnO₂/G composite spheres of different structures, charge capacities of about 1140 mAh g⁻¹ for SnO₂/G-1-550 (panels B) were retained after 120 charge–discharge cycles and 293 mAh g⁻¹ was delivered for SnO₂/G-2-550 (panels C) after only 50 charge–discharge cycles, respectively. Obviously, the skeleton-structured composite spheres of SnO₂/G-1-550 exhibit much better cycle performances in comparison with the clusters of pristine SnO₂ spheres and the SnO₂/G-2-550 composites. The potential application of the SnO₂/G-1-550 composite has been explored by performing a long cycle test with a current density of 200 mA g⁻¹. After 200 cycles, a discharge capacity of about 680 mAh g⁻¹ could still be delivered by this promising material (Figure S5). However, the SnO₂/G-1-550 electrode also undergoes perceptible capacity decay after 110 cycles. Normally, the decline of capacity can be ascribed to the structure variation of the active materials and also to the decomposition of electrolyte and the increase of the SEI film. A deep insight of the structure evolution and the changes of the electrolyte and the solid electrolyte interface (SEI) film upon cycling requires a more advanced technique e.g., in situ TEM observation and in situ FTIR monitoring during the cycles, which will be the next endeavors of our study to this novel materials. Figure 8D presents the multivariate capabilities of the SnO₂/G-1-550 sample measured at current densities in between 100 and 2000 mA g⁻¹. Although the capacities decreased with the increasing of the applied current density, the SnO₂/G-1-550 composite spheres still show superior reversible capacities. Under a current density of 100 mA g⁻¹, the discharge capacity remain at 1107 mAh g⁻¹ after 10 cycles. At the 20th round with a current density of 200 mA g⁻¹, it could still reserve a discharge capacity of 1074 mAh g⁻¹. After an additional 10 cycles at a current density of 500 mA g⁻¹, the composite delivers a reversible capacity of 986 mAh g⁻¹. Even though under a large charge rate of 2000 mA g⁻¹, the composite still holds a satisfied reversible capacity of 775 mAh g⁻¹ at the 50th cycle. Impressively, when the charging/discharging rate is restored to 100 mA g⁻¹, the specific capacity of the anode with the skeleton-structured SnO₂/G-1-550 composite can almost resume the original capacity and
maintains a capacity of 1081 mAh g⁻¹ at the 60th cycle. The restorability of the capacity to the original one when the charge rate went back demonstrates the outstanding reversibility of the composite used as anode and also reveals its potential application for high-rate LIBs. We suppose that the unique skeleton arrangement of the graphene sheets, the small size of SnO₂, and the large specific surface area are beneficial to the rate capability and cycling performance of the SnO₂/G-1 composites. Figure 8E shows profiles for the voltage versus capacity at the 1st, 2nd, 10th and 50th cycle charge–discharge curves at the current of 100 mA g⁻¹ for the SnO₂/G-1-550 composite (panel E).

Figure 9. Cyclic voltammograms of the initial five scans in a voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V for SnO₂/G-1-550 (panel A) and SnO₂/G-2-550 (panel B) composites.
1180 mAh g\(^{-1}\), deducing a Coulombic efficiency of 95%. From then on, the fading of capacity becomes weak and no obvious irreversible actions can be observed, suggesting that the irreversible actions took place principally in the initial cycle. Ten cycles later, a discharge capacity of 1151 mAh g\(^{-1}\) is obtained and a charge capacity of 1127 mAh g\(^{-1}\) can be reserved. The SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite provide still a discharge capacity of 1154 mAh g\(^{-1}\) and a charge capacity of 1136 mAh g\(^{-1}\) at a current density of 100 mA g\(^{-1}\) even after 50 discharge–charge cycles. In comparison with documented tin oxide/graphene composites, the novel skeleton-structured SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite shows superior lithium oxide/graphene composites, the novel skeleton structure.\(^6\) The former character will be ascribed in the one hand to the integration of SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 and the establishing of a SEI storage properties.\(^55\) A performance comparison of SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 sample with other documented SnO\(_2\)-based composites as anode materials for Li ion batteries are summarized in Table S1.\(^56\)–\(^58\) It can be seen from the table that both the cycling ability and the capacity of SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite is more prominent than those of most of the reported counterparts. The extraordinary rate stability of the electrode made of SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 can be ascribed in the one hand to the integration of graphene sheets into the composite and on the other hand to the novel skeleton structure.\(^6\) The former character will improve the conductivity of the composite while the latter property can alleviate the structure instability induced by volume variation of SnO\(_2\). To verify this speculation, ex situ SEM and TEM measurements have been performed to the cycled electrode materials, and the results have been depicted in Figure S6. Panels A and B of Figure S6 shows the SEM and TEM images, respectively, of the active materials after 50 cycles at a current density of 200 mA g\(^{-1}\). It can be seen that the morphologies of the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite spheres could remain roughly spherical (Figure S6A), and the SnO\(_2\) nanoparticles still anchored tightly on the surface of the graphene substrates (Figure S6B), suggesting the structural integrity of the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite upon cycles.

To recognize the reactions in different cycles, CV of SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 and SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 composite electrodes were characterized with a voltage in between 0.01 to 3 V under a scan rate of 0.2 mVs\(^{-1}\). Panel A of Figure 9 shows the CV profiles of SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 in the first five scanning cycles. As shown in the profiles, two reduction peaks at 0.78 and 0.09 V are detected in the first cathodic scan, which is accordance with those reported results.\(^59\) The former peak can be ascribed to the conversion of SnO\(_2\) + Li\(^+\) to Sn + Li\(_2\)O as described in eq 2 and the establishing of a SEI film as indicated with eq 1. These processes are normally considered as irreversible and will result in evident capacity loss of the first cycle. The latter one of the two peaks in the first cathodic process can be ascribed to the formation of Li\(_x\)Sn alloys as depicted by eq 3.\(^60\)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Li}^+ + e^- + \text{electrolyte} & \rightarrow \text{SEI (Li)} \quad (1) \\
\text{SnO}_2 + 4\text{Li}^+ + 4e^- & \rightarrow \text{Sn} + 2\text{Li}_2\text{O} \quad (2) \\
\text{Sn} + x\text{Li}^+ + x e^- & \rightarrow \text{Li}_x\text{Sn} \quad (0 < x < 4.4) \quad (3)
\end{align*}
\]

In the first anodic sweep, one oxidation peak located around 0.55 V could be assigned to the alloying/dealloying processes as depicted by eq 3, which has been regarded as extremely reversible and has mainly contributed to the reversible capacities. For the second round scan, both of the two cathodic peaks switch to higher voltages, while the peak current decreased obviously, indicating the occurring of irreversible action in the first cathodic sweep. The CV graphs of the SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 electrode become stable in between the following four cycles (from the second to the fifth cycle), and the following cycles are almost superimposed, implying a superior cyclability of this composite electrode. As shown in Figure 9B, the intensity of peak and integrated areas of these CV graphs in the first five round of scans reduced evidently for SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 composite, indicating poor cycling stability. The result is consistent fairly with the cycling performance of charge/discharge processes under a constant current.

The Nyquist profiles of the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) for pristine SnO\(_2\), SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550, and SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 composites before and after five cycles were depicted in Figure S7. EIS tests were performed at a status of open circuit voltage with frequency in between 10\(^2\) to 0.01 Hz using as-assembled cells containing an electrode made of the samples. All these graphs display a hemicycle in the domain of high-middle frequency, corresponding to the resistance of charge transfer. At the same time, a straight line in the low-frequency zone representing the diffusion of Li\(^+\) in these anode materials can also be observed in their EIS.\(^24\) The inset in Figure S7 shows the equivalent circuit, in which R\(_Q\) and R\(_{CT}\) represent the ohmic resistance (sum of resistance comes from electrolyte, separator, and electrical contacts) and the charge transfer resistance, respectively. CPE is the constant phase element and corresponds to the double layer capacitance, while W stands for the Warburg impedance, symbolizing the diffusion of Li ions into the bulk of active materials at a solid state.\(^25\) In comparison with those of pure SnO\(_2\) (~148 \(\Omega\)) and SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 (~102 \(\Omega\)), the diameter of the semicircle in the EIS graph for SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 (~71 \(\Omega\)) run for five turns is much smaller, reflecting a smaller charge transfer resistance (R\(_{\text{CT}}\)) in SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 composite. Abnormally, diameter of semicircle in the EIS graph for the SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 is even slightly larger than that of pristine SnO\(_2\) sample before cycling owing to the bulk property of SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 sample. After five cycles, the charge transfer resistance in SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 sample became smaller in comparison with that of pristine SnO\(_2\). Such a change is reasonable taking the existence of graphene and the porous structure of the SnO\(_2\)/G-2-550 sample into consideration. The graphene moiety integrated into a composite has been considered as essence for reducing the charge transfer resistance of the composite material. The aforementioned results confirmed the role of graphene in improving the electrochemical performances for an electrode consisting of SnO\(_2\)/G composite spheres.

4. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, unique 3D SnO\(_2\)/graphene composite spheres (SnO\(_2\)/G-1) with a skeleton structure have been induced through a simple spray-drying process. The framework of the skeleton is constructed with graphene sheets, in which the graphene layers were decorated by nanosized SnO\(_2\) particles. In comparison with the pristine SnO\(_2\) clusters and the SnO\(_2\)/graphene composite prepared via a normal evaporation method (SnO\(_2\)/G-2), the skeleton-structured SnO\(_2\)/G-1 samples exhibited significantly improved electrochemical performance as a lithium-ion battery anode and delivered a stable capacity of 1140 mA h g\(^{-1}\) after 120 cycles at a current density of 100 mA g\(^{-1}\). Even at a high current density as high as 2000 mA g\(^{-1}\), a capacity of 775 mAh g\(^{-1}\) could still be maintained after 50 cycles, showing an extraordinary rate capability performance. The remarkable electrochemical performance of SnO\(_2\)/G-1-550 is attributed to the synergistic effect between SnO\(_2\) nano-
particles and the graphene matrix. The skeleton-structured arrangements of the graphene sheets improve the surface area and pore volume of the composite spheres. The skeleton structure can act as a mechanical buffer to effectively alleviate the volume changes generated during the lithiation/delithiation processes. Such a skeleton structure is also beneficial to the transportation of electrolyte and the diffusion of lithium ions. Further development of this spray-drying-assisted method and their extension to other kinds of skeleton-structured graphene composites will make graphene-based composites more excellent as electrodes for high-performance LIBs or as electrodes of high-sensitivity sensors, and even as high-performance catalysts for photocatalytic reactions.

### ASSOCIATED CONTENT

- **Supporting Information**
  The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsami.7b15916.


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The manuscript was written from contributions made by all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

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**Notes**
The authors declare no competing financial interest.

### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is supported by the Double First Class University Construction of Shandong Province, the Taishan Scholars Advantageous and Distinctive Discipline Program of Shandong Province for supporting the research team of energy storage materials, and Qingdao Basic & Applied Research Project (15-9-1-56-jch). Y.Q.W. thanks the financial support from the Top-notch Innovative Talent Program of Qingdao City (Grant no.: 13-CX-8).

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