



## Communication

# Synthesis of iron oxide cubes/reduced graphene oxide composite and its enhanced lithium storage performance



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## ABSTRACT

$\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  is considered as a promising electrode material for lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) due to its low cost and high theoretical capacity (928 mAh/g). Nevertheless, the huge volume expansion and poor conductivity seriously hamper its practical applications. In this study, we use a facile hydrothermal reaction together with a post heat treatment to construct the three-dimensional heterostructured composite ( $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{rGO}$ ) in which reduced graphene oxide sheets wrapped the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  submicron cubes as the conductive network. The electric conduction and electrode kinetics of lithium ion insertion/extraction reaction of the composite is enhanced due to the assist of conductive rGO, and thus the Li-storage performance is obviously improved. The composite exhibits a reversible charge capacity of 772.1 mAh/g at the current density of 0.1 A/g, and the capacity retention reaches 70.3% after 400 cycles at 0.5 A/g, demonstrating obviously higher specific capacity and rate capability over the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  submicron cubes without rGO, and much superior cycling stability to the parent  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  submicron cubes without rGO. On the other hand, as a synergic conductive carbon support, the flexible rGO plays an important role in buffering the large volume change during the repeated discharge/charge cycling.

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As a consequence of the long-term overusing of fossil resources for combustible electricity generation, excavating clean and sustainable alternatives to mitigate those environmental issues has been worldwide promoted. Renewable electricity generation from wind and solar could be the most optimal option to reduce dependence on the traditionally thermal power station. Nonetheless, the natural intermittency limits the spreading of commercialization, leading to the creeping demands of reliable energy storage. Electrochemical energy storage has been well known since 1940 and massively researched in the last decades. Now, research attentions are focused on several electrochemical energy storage systems, such as lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) [1–4], lithium-sulfur batteries [5–7], sodium-ion batteries [8] and supercapacitors [9,10]. Among them, LIBs are the most popular commercial energy storage devices used in various portable electronics such as cellular phones and in large-scale applications such as electric vehicles. Over the last decades, graphite has always been the cardinal anode material for LIBs, but the low capacity (372 mAh/g) [11], poor rate performance and safety considerations extremely limit its large-scale commercial applications in electric vehicles and grid storage,

etc. Therefore, the development of high-capacity anode materials has become the focus of attention. There are various high-capacity anode materials, for example, transition metal oxides, metal nitrides, metal sulfides. Among them,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  has attracted extensive attentions owing to its high reversible capacity (926 mAh/g), affordable cost and abundant reserves [12].

However, the shortcomings of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ -based nanomaterials cannot be ignored, even though they have many advantages, *i.e.*, (i)  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles are prone to agglomeration due to its size effect and magnetism; (ii) In the process of  $\text{Li}^+$  insertion and deinsertion reactions, large volume change will occur in transition metal oxides due to the internal stress, leading to the deteriorative transportation and diffusion properties of electric charge and  $\text{Li}^+$  ions, which seriously affects its cycle performance and rate performance; (iii) The lack of interpenetrating ion transmission paths and continuous conductive network in electrode materials usually results in the low utilization of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles [13]; (iv) The inherently low conductivity of metal oxides has a serious negative effect on the transport of ions/electrons in the rapid electrochemical reaction [14,15]. To solve these problems, various modification methods have been carried out, such as preparation of nanoparticles with special morphology, surface modification by coating, and change of the crystal structure by doping. It is recognized that regulate the structure and morphologies of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$

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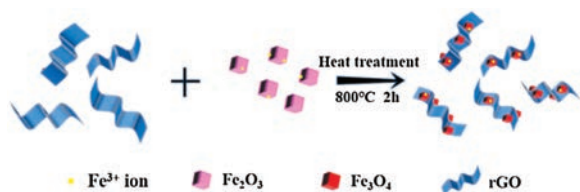
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or combine it with other functional materials can significantly improve the electrochemical performance [16,17].

Functional carbon-coated materials with special morphologies are more likely to obtain higher lithium storage performance. For example, the electrical conductivity, active material utilization (specific capacity) and the rate performance of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /carbon composites can be obviously enhanced by combining the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  with conductive pyrolytic carbon shell [18,19], carbon nanotubes [20,21] or rGO [22]. Attractively, surface functionalized two-dimensional reduced graphene oxide (rGO) is conducive to interact or react with most metal ligands, which means that bridging rGO with other metal oxides can be easily achieved. As an enhancing component, rGO has some particular features, e.g., outstanding carrier mobility, large specific surface area, attractive electrical conductivity and extraordinary mechanical strength. Besides, rGO can change the transfer path and influence the contact area between active material and electrolyte, having a deep impact on the diffusion rate of lithium ions.

Herein, a  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite was prepared by a facile hydrothermal reaction followed by a high temperature treatment, as described in detail in Supporting information. First, the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  cubes were prepared by a hydrothermal reaction. Second, for the preparation of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite, the surface of the prepared  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  cubes was modified by adsorbing  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  cations, and then an electrostatic interaction taken place between the positively charged  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  cubes and the negatively charged GO sheets. Thus, the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  cubes were anchored on the surface of GO sheets. Through separation, rinsing and drying, the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  cubes were wrapped by the curled GO sheets. Lastly, the 3D structured  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite with  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  cubes enwrapped by rGO was obtained by heat treatment of the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  cubes and GO sheets at  $800^\circ\text{C}$  under nitrogen atmosphere, as illustrated in Scheme 1.

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  cubes,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  cubes and  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite are shown in Figs. 1a–c, respectively. As can be seen in Fig. 1a, the diffraction peaks of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  corresponded well to the standard diffraction peaks of  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  (JCPDS No. 33-0664, space group R-3c). While, in Fig. 1b the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  ascribed to the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  phase (JCPDS No. 19-0629, space group Fd3m), and the iron oxide in  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite (Fig. 1c) is mainly composed of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  (JCPDS No. 19-0629, space group Fd3m), but contains a small amount of FeO (JCPDS No. 06-0615, space group Fm3m). However, no characteristic diffraction peaks of rGO can be detected in the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite due to its low content and the disordered structure [23]. The rGO content in  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite is ca. 9.4%, which is determined by the thermogravimetric analysis (Fig. S2 in Supporting information). Figs. 1d–f show the SEM images of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composites, respectively. It can be seen from Fig. 1d that the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  sample exhibits the morphology of monodisperse cubes of  $\sim 700$  nm with a smooth surface, and while in Fig. 1e, the reduced product ( $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  cubes) become slightly coarse on the surface. In Fig. 1f, the iron oxide cubes in  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO sample have the same shape and size as the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  cubes and the rGO nanosheets are distributed in the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  cubes, forming a conductive network.



**Scheme 1.** Schematic diagram illustrating the preparation procedure of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite material.

The  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite was further analyzed by Raman spectroscopy and the result is shown in Fig. 2a. Two main peaks are observed in the Raman spectrum, corresponding to the disordered carbon defect (D band) at  $1350\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the ordered  $\text{sp}^2$  graphite plane (G band) at  $1591\text{ cm}^{-1}$  [24,25]. The intensity ratio of D band to G band ( $I_D/I_G$ ) is usually used to illustrate the degree of ordering of carbon element [26]. The  $I_D/I_G$  value of rGO in  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO sample is 0.983, which proves that the rGO contained in  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO composite possesses high crystallinity, thus enhances the conductivity of the material. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was used to analyze the chemical characteristics and oxidation states. As shown in Fig. 2b, the high-resolution XPS spectra of Fe 2p reveals two characteristic peaks of Fe  $2p_{3/2}$  and Fe  $2p_{1/2}$  at 710.8 and 724.4 eV, respectively. The fitted features of 710.4 and 723.9 eV should be attributed to  $2p_{3/2}$  and  $2p_{1/2}$  of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ , and while those of 712.4 and 726.3 eV should be ascribed to  $2p_{3/2}$  and  $2p_{1/2}$  of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  [27,28]. It can be seen from the fitted peak areas that the content of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  are almost equivalent because of the existence of a small amount of FeO in the composite, which is consistent with the XRD result. The O 1s spectrum in Fig. 2c shows three fitted peaks at 529.8, 531.4 and 532.5 eV, respectively. The peak at 529.8 eV is attributed to the lattice oxygen ( $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ ), the peak at 531.4 eV should be caused by the Fe–O–C bond formed between  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  and rGO, and the peak at 532.5 eV should be assigned to the C–OH group in rGO. The C 1s spectrum in Fig. 2d displays a sharp peak at 284.8 eV, which should be attributed to the carbon skeleton in rGO, and while the fitted peaks at 286.2 and 288.4 eV should correspond to C–OH and C=O groups, respectively [29].

The cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO electrode for the first three cycles is presented in Fig. 3a. In this work, the current density (A/g) and specific capacity (mAh/g) are calculated based on the mass of the active materials. As shown, during the first cathode scan, the very sharp peak at ca. 0.45 V is assigned to the conversion of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  (containing a small amount of FeO) to metallic Fe and  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$ , which is positively moved to ca. 1.0 V in the subsequent cycles, and while the anodic peak at ca. 1.65 V should be attributed to the oxidation of metallic Fe to Fe(II) and/or Fe(III) oxide(s) accompanied by the decomposition of  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  [30–33]. From the second cycle scan, the cathodic peak is obviously decreased and anodic peak is also decreased in some degree, and the coulombic efficiency for the first cycle is low. This is because that the first cathode process is accompanied by the decomposition of electrolyte and formation of the solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) layer. In addition, the inherently poor conductivity of the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /Fe/ $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  matrix formed during the  $\text{Li}^+$  insertion/extraction process may also cause irreversible capacity loss [34].

Fig. 3b shows the constant current discharge and charge curves of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO electrode at the current density of 0.1 A/g for the first three cycles. The first discharge and charge capacities are 1251 and 773 mAh/g, respectively, giving coulombic efficiency of 61.8%. The second charge capacity is 704 mAh/g and the coulombic efficiency is 93.7%, and while the third charge capacity is 674 mAh/g and the coulombic efficiency is 95.9%. The rate performance of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO electrode cycled from 0.1 A/g to 1 A/g is shown in Fig. 3c. The maximum reversible charge specific capacities at 0.1, 0.2, 0.5 and 1 A/g are 772.1, 558.4, 423.7 and 335.8 mAh/g, respectively, with capacity retention of 43.5% when the current density is increased from 0.1 A/g to 1 A/g. When the current density is decreased back to 0.1 A/g, the maximum reversible charge specific capacity is 564.5 mAh/g that is obviously lower than that achieved in the initial cycle due to capacity decline in the cycles at lower current densities (0.1 and 0.2 A/g). As can be seen, the cycle stability becomes better with increasing current density. The cycling performance of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /rGO electrode (after the rate performance test) at the current density of 0.5 A/g is displayed in Fig. 3d. The capacity decline in the first 70 cycles may be related to the initial

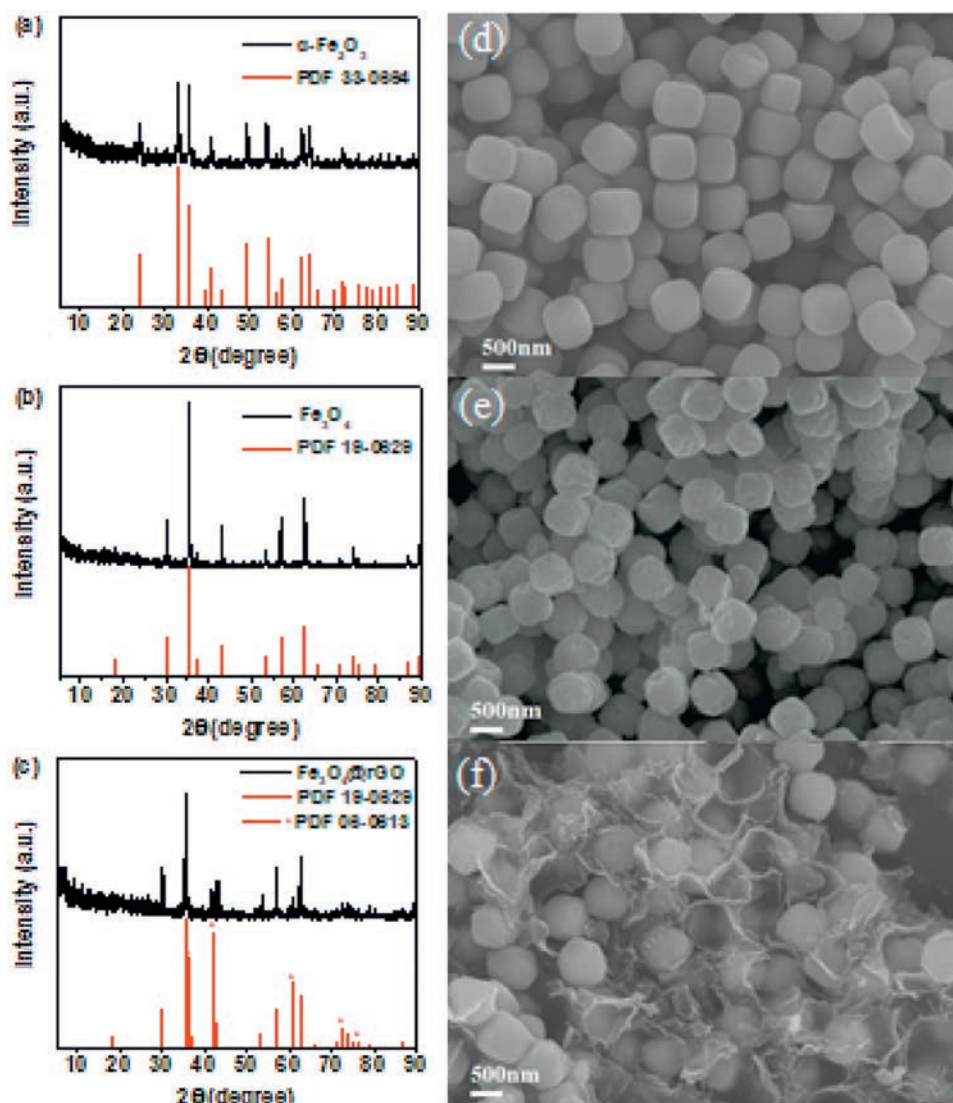


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of (a)  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , (b)  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  and (c)  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{rGO}$ . SEM images of (d)  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , (e)  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  and (f)  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{rGO}$ .

volume change, and the subsequent capacity rise (from *ca.* 90–150<sup>th</sup> cycle) should be ascribed to the further morphological change of the electrode towards a favorable direction. After 400 cycles, the capacity retention is 70.3% with the coulombic efficiency close to 100%. Fig. S3 (Supporting information) shows the SEM image of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{rGO}$  electrode after 400 cycles. As can be seen, the particles of the active material have a certain degree of aggregation after a long-term cycle.

For comparison, the electrochemical performance of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  cubes is presented in Fig. 4, where Fig. 4a shows the CVs for the first three cycles. In the first cathodic scan, two peaks located at *ca.* 1.33 and 0.34 V are observed. The peak at *ca.* 1.33 V should be related to the initial lithiation of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  ( $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 + x\text{Li}^+ + xe^- \rightarrow \text{Li}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ), and while the sharp peak at *ca.* 0.34 V should be attributed to the conversion reaction ( $\text{Li}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 + (6-x)\text{Li}^+ + 6e^- \leftrightarrow 2\text{Fe} + 3\text{Li}_2\text{O}$ ) to metallic Fe and  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$ , which is shifted positively to *ca.* 0.77 V during the following cathodic scan. In the first anodic scan, the peak at *ca.* 1.65 V should be ascribed to the oxidation of metallic Fe to  $\text{FeO}_x$  and the decomposition of  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  [35,36]. During the following cycles, the reversible conversion reactions take place between metallic Fe and  $\text{FeO}_x$ . Fig. 4b shows the constant current discharge and charge curves of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  electrode at 0.1 A/g for the first three cycles. The first discharge and charge capacities are 1152 and 708 mAh/g,

giving coulombic efficiency of 61.4%. The second charge capacity is 643 mAh/g with the coulombic efficiency of 93.5%, and the third charge capacity is 609 mAh/g with the coulombic efficiency of 95.6%. As shown in Fig. 4c, the maximum reversible charge specific capacities at 0.1, 0.2, 0.5 and 1 A/g are 708.4, 493.9, 364.9 and 286.3 mAh/g, respectively, with capacity retention of 40.4% when the current density is increased from 0.1 A/g to 1 A/g. When the current density is decreased back to 0.1 A/g, the maximum reversible charge specific capacity is 516.3 mAh/g. Fig. 4d displays the cycle performance at 0.5 A/g. After 83 cycles, the capacity is decreased to 70.5% of the initial value. After 130 cycles, the capacity is decreased to a low value of 61.7% of the initial value. Afterwards, the capacity increases again and then decreases. After 400 cycles, the capacity retention is 66.7%. Compared to  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{rGO}$  composite (Fig. 3), the electrochemical performance of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  is poor, especially the cycling performance.

The CVs of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  electrode for the first three cycles at the scan rate of 0.2 mV/s are shown in Fig. S4a (Supporting information). In the first cathodic scan, two peaks are observed at *ca.* 1.75 and 0.2 V. The cathodic peak at *ca.* 1.75 V should be ascribed to the initial lithiation of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  ( $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 + x\text{Li}^+ + xe^- \rightarrow \text{Li}_x\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ ), and the sharp peak at *ca.* 0.2 V is attribute to the conversion reaction ( $\text{Li}_x\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 + (8-x)\text{Li}^+ + 8e^- \leftrightarrow 3\text{Fe} + 4\text{Li}_2\text{O}$ ), which is positively

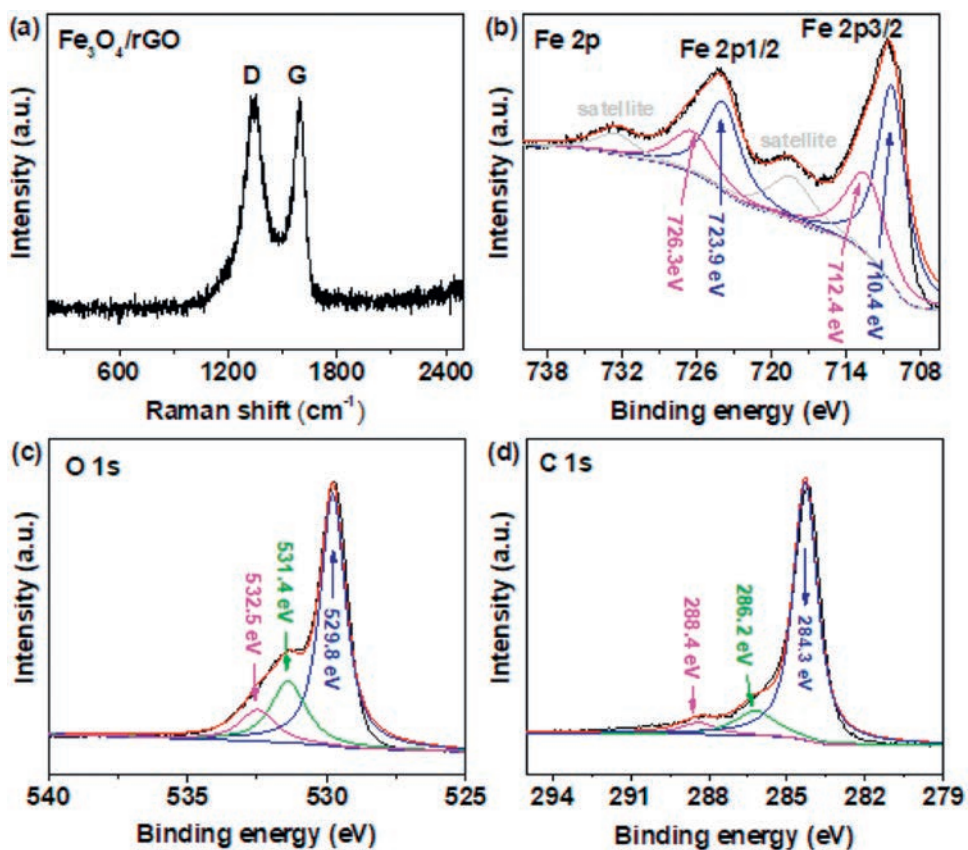


Fig. 2. (a) Raman spectra of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{rGO}$  composite; High-resolution XPS spectra of (b) Fe 2p, (c) O 1s and (d) C 1s of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{rGO}$  composite.

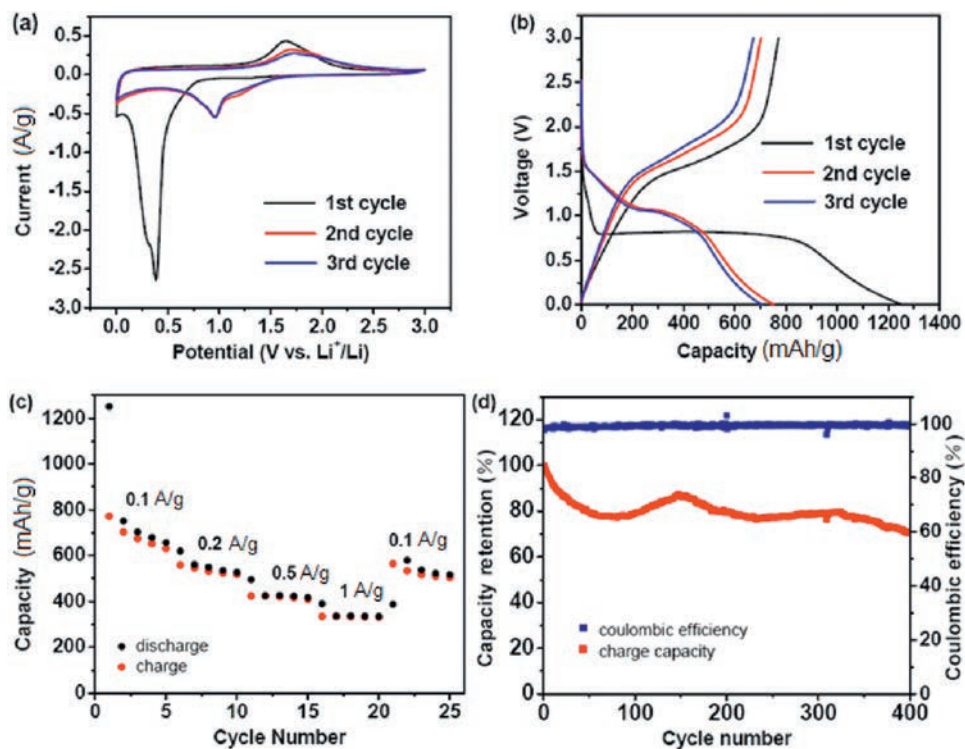
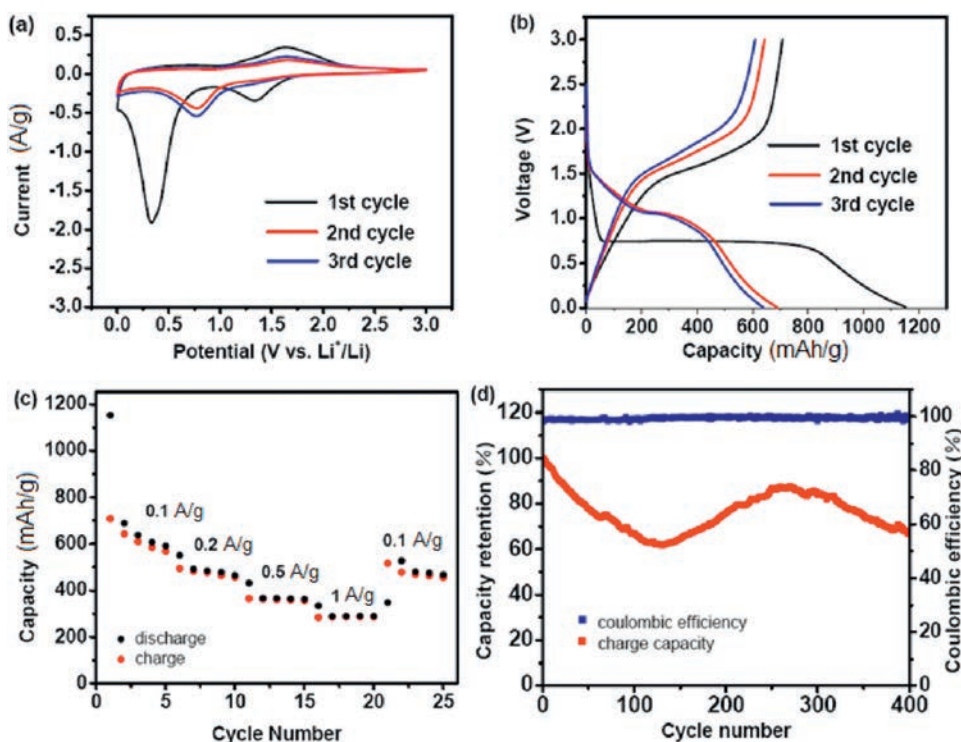


Fig. 3. Electrochemical performance of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{rGO}$  electrode. (a) CVs of first three cycles at the scan rate of 0.2 mV/s. (b) Discharge/charge curves of first three cycles at 0.1 A/g. (c) Rate performance. (d) Cycling performance at 0.5 A/g.



**Fig. 4.** Electrochemical performance of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> electrode. (a) CVs of first three cycles at the scan rate of 0.2 mV/s. (b) Discharge/charge curves of first three cycles at 0.1 A/g. (c) Rate performance. (d) Cycling performance at 0.5 A/g.

moved to *ca.* 0.98 V during the following cathodic scan. In the first anodic scan, the peak at *ca.* 1.6 V should be ascribed to the oxidation of metallic Fe to FeO<sub>x</sub> and the decomposition of Li<sub>2</sub>O. During the subsequent cycles, the reversible conversion reactions take place between metallic Fe and FeO<sub>x</sub>. Fig. S4b (Supporting information) shows the constant current discharge and charge curves of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> electrode for the first three cycles at 0.1 A/g. The first discharge and charge capacities are 1154 and 425 mAh/g, giving coulombic efficiency of 36.8%. The second charge capacity is 300.4 mAh/g with the coulombic efficiency of 77.5%, and the third charge capacity is 259 mAh/g with the coulombic efficiency of 88.4%, exhibiting much inferior electrochemical performance to the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO composite. As shown in Fig. S4c (Supporting information), the maximum reversible charge specific capacities at 0.1, 0.2, 0.5 and 1 A/g are 425, 142.7, 65.3 and 33.3 mAh/g, respectively, with capacity retention of 7.84% when the current density is increased from 0.1 A/g to 1 A/g, showing poor rate performance. When the current density is decreased back to 0.1 A/g, the maximum reversible charge specific capacity is decreased to 212.3 mAh/g. Fig. S4d (Supporting information) displays the cycle performance at 0.5 A/g. After 84 cycles, the capacity is decreased to 94.2% of the initial value. Yet, a gradual increase in capacity is observed thereafter. However, its specific capacity is too low at this current rate.

In order to know the kinetic characteristics of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> electrodes, after the rate performance test (25 cycles), the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurement was carried out for the electrodes. As depicted in Fig. S5 (Supporting information), the intersection of the real axis and the semicircle of the high frequency zone in Nyquist plots is the ohmic resistance ( $R_{\Omega}$ ). The smaller arc in the high frequency region represents the SEI-related resistance ( $R_1$ ) in parallel with the constant phase angle element (CPE<sub>1</sub>), and the larger medium frequency region represents the charge transfer resistance ( $R_2$ ) in

parallel with the another constant phase angle element (CPE<sub>2</sub>), and while the line in the low frequency region corresponds to the Warburg diffusion impedance ( $W_1$ ) of lithium ions in the active material [37,38]. As can be seen, both the ohmic resistance and the charge transfer resistance of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO composite are obviously smaller than those of the Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, which should be responsible for the observed better rate performance of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO composite. The impedance of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is much larger than that of the others, which should account for the observed poor rate performance. In addition, the rGO in the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO composite can not only provide an interconnected conductive network for the monodispersed Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> cubes, but also relieve the effect of volume expansion of the active material during cycling, thus improve the lithium storage performance, especially the cycling stability.

In conclusion, a Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO composite was prepared by a hydrothermal reaction and followed heat treatment process, and physically characterized in detail. Electrochemical results revealed that the lithium storage performance of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO is superior to that of the Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> or Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. The reversible charge specific capacities of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO are 708.4, 425.8 and 772.1 mAh/g at the current density of 0.1 A/g, and 286.3, 30.8 and 335.8 mAh/g at 1 A/g, respectively. After 400 cycles at 0.5 A/g, the capacity retention of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/rGO is 70.3% that is much superior to that of the Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. These results demonstrate that the combination of conductive and flexible rGO can effectively enhance lithium storage performance of the iron oxide-based anode material for lithium ion batteries.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ccllet.2020.11.038>.

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