

1 **Thickness-dependent fracture of amorphous carbon**
2 **coating on SnO₂ nanowire electrodes**

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12 **ABSTRACT** Carbon-coated SnO₂ nanowires (NWs) were fabricated and applied as
13 electrode to study the lithiation process using *in situ* transmission electron microscopy. A
14 critical coating thickness (~9 nm) was found, above which the carbon coating is able to
15 constrain the lithiation-induced expansion of SnO₂ core without failure. Theoretical
16 modeling and numerical simulation were performed and revealed that such
17 thickness-dependent fracture can be attributed to the thickness-dependent maximum
18 stress developed in the carbon coating during the lithiation of SnO₂ core. Our work
19 provides direct evidence of the mechanical robustness of thick carbon coating and offers
20 a minimum thickness of carbon coating for constraining the deformation of anode
21 materials with large lithiation-induced volume change.

22 **KEYWORDS:** lithium ion battery · size effect · fracture mechanics · lithiation · *in situ*

23 TEM

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24 **1. Introduction**

25 To meet the increasing demands from the industries of portable electronics and electric
26 vehicles, materials with higher specific capacity and energy density have been studied
27 intensively as the substitutes of the prevailing graphite-based anodes in lithium ion
28 batteries (LIBs). Especially, tin-based oxides, IV-group element anodes, and transition
29 metal oxides attracted much attention. Among them, tin-based composite oxides were
30 first commercialized as anode active materials by the Fuji Film Co. in 1995 [1, 2]. Tin
31 dioxide (SnO_2) offers theoretical capacity value as high as 781 mAh/g and low potential
32 of lithium ion intercalation [2]. However, large volume changes during charging and
33 discharging process cause cracking and pulverization, resulting in poor cyclability[3, 4].
34 Carbon coating was demonstrated capable of improving the cycle life due to its constraint
35 to the large volume expansion [5-8]. This nano-structuring strategy can increase the cycle
36 life of SnO_2 anode up to dozens of cycles with 98% capacity retention, although this is
37 still far away from what we expect [9]. The SnO_2 electrode coated with carbon showed
38 good electrical conductivity and fast lithium ion (Li^+) diffusivity [10, 11]. For example,
39 the lithiation rates of SnO_2 nanowires(NWs) with carbon coating was about 3-12 times
40 faster than that of the uncoated ones. Meanwhile, carbon coating was found to be able to
41 improve the conductivity of the nanowires by 3-4 orders of magnitude [5]. Furthermore,
42 carbon coating also contributes to the stability of solid-electrolyte-interface (SEI) formed
43 by electrolyte decomposition, which is another critical factor affecting the cycle life [12].
44 However, carbon coating promotes the durability of anodes actually at the expense of

45 capacity as carbon has much lower capacity (372 mAh/g) in comparison to SnO₂ [13-17].
46 From the capacity point of view, carbon should be used as less as possible. Therefore,
47 how to promote the life cycle and conductivity of anode materials by using minimum
48 amount of carbon turns to be a crucial problem for LIBs.

49 Here solvent-thermal method was applied to coat amorphous carbon on SnO₂ NWs
50 grown by CVD method based on the vapor-liquid-solid (VLS) mechanism. The lithiation
51 process of the carbon coated SnO₂ NWs was studied *in situ* using transmission electron
52 microscopy (TEM) equipped with a Nanofactory® STM-TEM holder [18-21]. This work
53 reveals the existence of a critical thickness of carbon coating layer for the SnO₂ NW
54 anode, which may provide a guideline in optimizing the capacity and the cyclability.

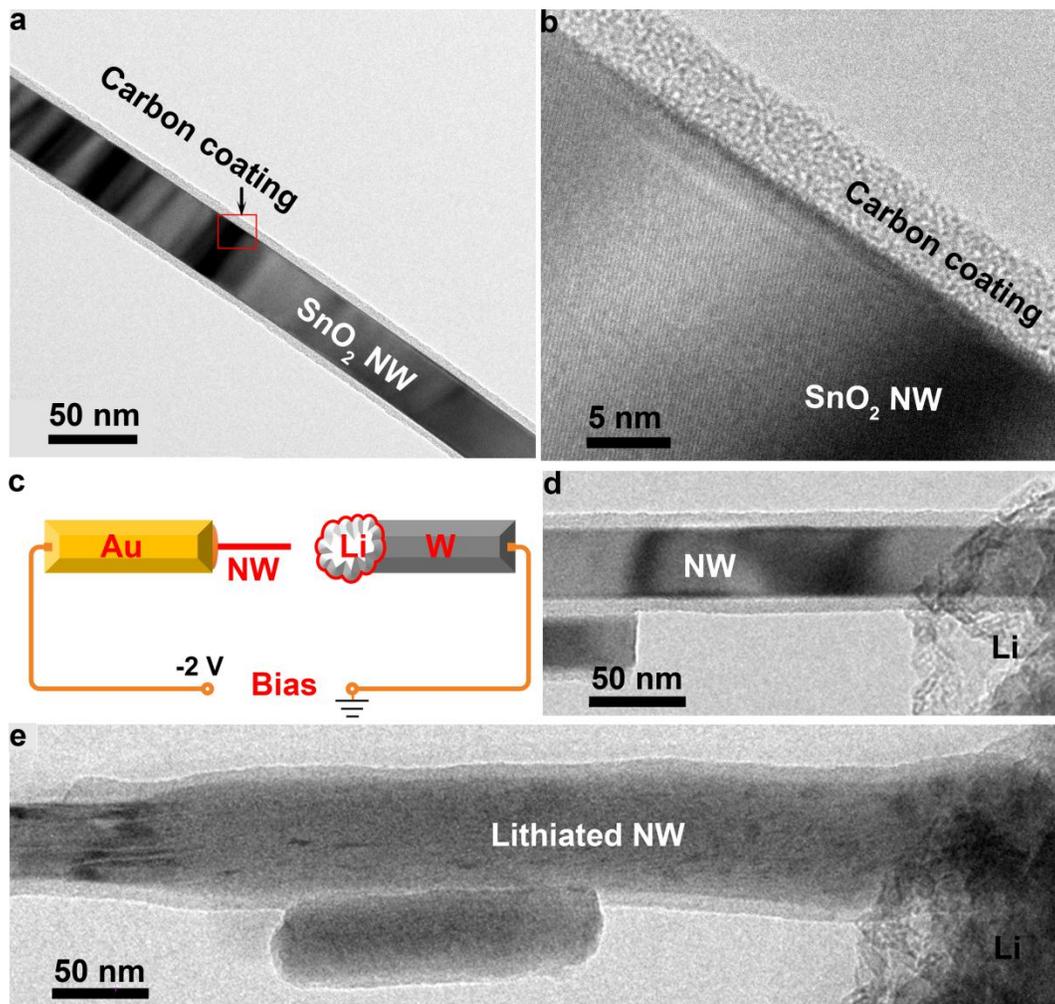
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56 **2. Experimental**

57 *2.1. Synthesis of SnO₂/C NWs*

58 The carbon coated SnO₂ nanowires (SnO₂/C NWs) were synthesized by hydrothermal
59 templating method with glucose used as the carbon source. The as-synthesized SnO₂
60 NWs [22, 23] and glucose were mixed with ethanol solution (25 vol%). The suspension
61 was sonicated for 30 min and then was heated at 190 °C for 12 h in a sealed Teflon-lined
62 stainless steel autoclave. After cooling down, the dark precipitate was filtrated and rinsed
63 with distilled water. A uniform carbon coating was then formed on SnO₂ NWs after
64 annealing in air at 450 °C for 2 h (Fig. 1a, b). The thickness of the fabricated carbon
65 coating is controllable by changing the glucose concentration, heating temperature and

66 duration.



67

68 Fig. 1 -(a) The TEM image of a SnO₂/C NW; (b) The high resolution image shows the
69 amorphicity of the carbon coating; (c) The schematic setup of a nano half-cell LIB inside
70 TEM; (d) A contact was established between a single SnO₂/C NW and the Li metal; (e) The
71 lithiation of the NW in (d).

72

73 2.2. *In situ* TEM characterization

74 The *in situ* electrochemical experiments were conducted in a JEOL 2100 TEM equipped
75 with a Nanofactory® STM-TEM holder. Fig. 1c shows the schematic setup of the *in situ*

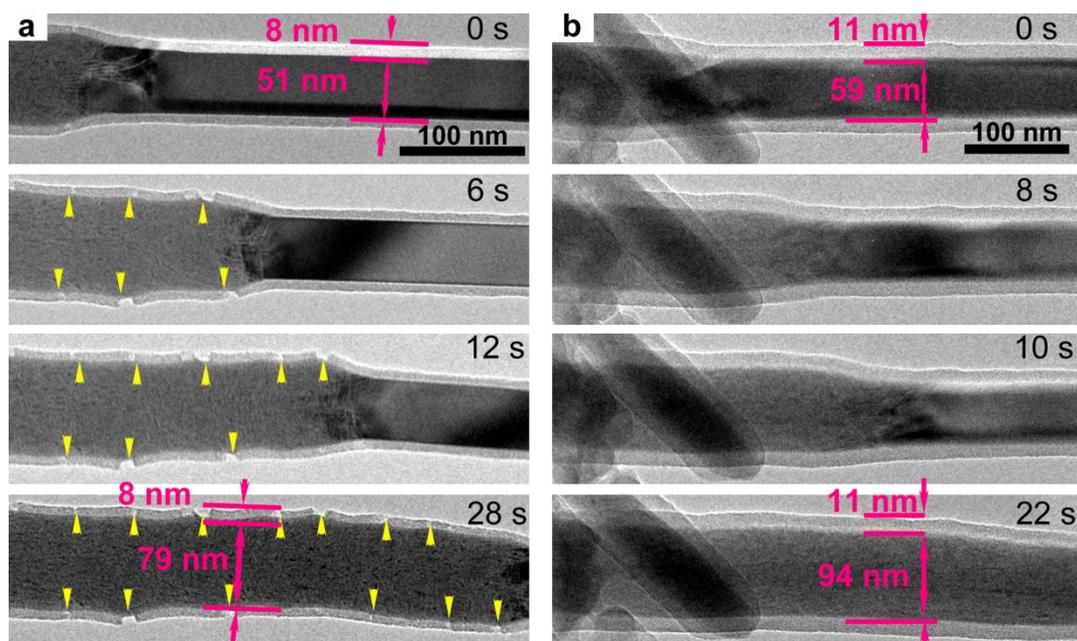
76 half-cell LIB. The $\text{SnO}_2/\alpha\text{-C}$ NW anodes were adhered to a flat-ended gold rod (200 μm
77 in diameter) using silver paste. A piezo-driven tungsten probe, which was covered with Li
78 metals, was used as counter electrode. Since the Li metal was unavoidably exposed to air
79 during handling, the surface layer was oxidized to Li_2O , serving as solid electrolyte for
80 the half-cell LIB configuration. With the aid of TEM observation, a nano contact can be
81 made between the Li metal and a single NW, as shown in Fig. 1d. An external bias (-2 V)
82 was then applied to initiate lithiation (Fig. 1e), leading to long-range diffusion of lithium
83 ions, as followed by solid state amorphization of the crystalline nanowire, nucleation of
84 Sn particles and finally the alloying of the Sn particles into Li_xSn [5].

85 **3. Results and discussion**

86 *3.1. Experimental observation*

87 Fig. 1a shows a typical synthesized SnO_2/C NW. The high resolution TEM image (Fig.
88 1b) reveals that the carbon coating is fully amorphous in contrast to the single crystal
89 SnO_2 core. Lithiation experiments were performed on the fabricated NWs with different
90 core diameters and/or coating thicknesses. Fig. 2a and b show the snapshots of the
91 lithiation process for two SnO_2/C NWs, which have comparable SnO_2 core diameter (51
92 nm in (a) and 59 nm in (b)) but distinct coating thickness (8 nm in (a) and 11 nm in (b)).
93 The lithiation-induced expansions in diameter are 55% and 59% in (a) and (b)
94 respectively, showing similar mechanical constraint of the coatings to the SnO_2 cores.
95 However, the coating in Fig. 2a was fractured near the lithiation front, where the coating
96 was bent due to the diameter transition between the lithiated and the pristine NW. Ring

97 cracks can be observed with the advance of the reaction front, as indicated by the arrow
98 heads. In contrast, in Fig. 2b the carbon coating deformed conformally with the lithiated
99 SnO₂ core and retained its continuity during the whole lithiation process. **In both cases no**
100 **noticeable change in the thickness of carbon coating and no delamination at the SnO₂/C**
101 **interface was observed during lithiation.**

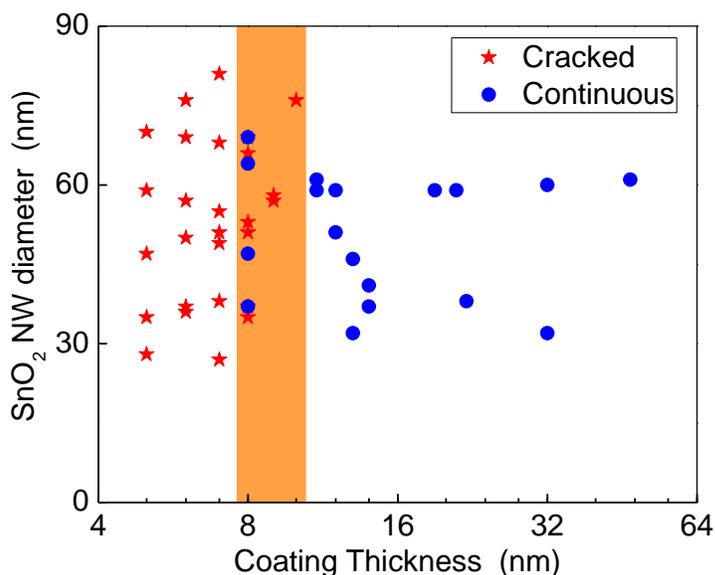


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103 **Fig. 2 -Snapshots of morphology evolution during lithiation of SnO₂/C NWs with different**
104 **coating thicknesses: (a) 8 nm and, (b) 11 nm. The diameters of the SnO₂ cores are**
105 **comparable in both (a) and (b). The advancing speed of lithiation front is estimated to be**
106 **around 10 nm/s.**

107 To shed light on the factors leading to the fracture in carbon coating, Fig. 3
108 summarizes the lithiation consequences for all the SnO₂/C NWs we examined. It can be
109 seen that the fracture of carbon coating exhibits more significant dependence on the

110 coating thickness than on the diameter. Thinner coatings are prone to fracture while the
111 thicker ones can retain the continuity during the lithiation. The marginal range of coating
112 thickness for cracked and continuous cases, as highlighted in Fig. 3, is rather narrow,
113 indicating the existence of a threshold thickness of ~ 9 nm. We also conducted the
114 lithiation-delithiation cycling experiments (3 cycles) with one carbon coated SnO_2
115 nanowire. It is noted that the carbon coating remains continuous if it can survive from the
116 first cycle.



117

118 **Fig. 3 -The dependence of the fracture occurrence of SnO_2/C NWs during lithiation on both**
119 **the NW diameters and the coating thickness. The highlighted region indicates the narrow**
120 **(~ 3 nm) marginal range of coating thickness.**

121 3.2. Theoretical modelling

122 To obtain a deeper insight into the thickness-dependent fracture of carbon coating
123 observed in our experiments, theoretical modeling was carried out. There are two major
124 mechanisms driving the Li^+ diffusion, including the external electrical field and the

125 gradient of Li^+ concentration. The diffusion flux of Li^+ along the axial
 126 direction(x -direction) then is given by[24]

$$127 \quad J = \frac{DCe}{k_b T} E - D \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} \quad (1)$$

128 where D is the diffusion coefficient of lithium ion in the carbon-coated SnO_2 nanowire
 129 which is assumed constant in our model, C denotes the concentration of lithium ion, e is
 130 the charge of one lithium ion, E is the electric field strength, k_b refers to the Boltzmann
 131 constant, and T stands for the absolute temperature. In Eq. (1) the effect of the possible
 132 stress field on the diffusion of Li^+ is neglected. Taking the derivative of Eq. (1) with
 133 respect to x leads to

$$134 \quad \frac{\partial J}{\partial x} = \frac{DEe}{k_b T} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} - D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} \quad (2)$$

135 On the other hand, conservation of matter implies that

$$136 \quad \frac{\partial J}{\partial x} = - \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} \quad (3)$$

137 Combination of Eqs. (2) and (3) gives rise to

$$138 \quad D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} - \frac{DEe}{k_b T} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} \quad (4)$$

139 which can be further normalized to be

$$140 \quad \frac{\partial^2 \bar{C}}{\partial \bar{x}^2} - \frac{\partial \bar{C}}{\partial \bar{x}} = \frac{\partial \bar{C}}{\partial \bar{t}} \quad (5)$$

141 where $\bar{x} = x/l_0$, $\bar{t} = t/t_0$, $\bar{C} = C/C_s$ with $l_0 = \frac{k_b T}{Ee}$, $t_0 = \frac{1}{D} \left(\frac{k_b T}{Ee} \right)^2$ and C_s

142 being the concentration of Li^+ at saturation of lithiation. As l_0 and t_0 denote the

143 characteristic length and time scales of the system respectively, Eq. (5) allows us to solve
144 the problem in a dimensionless time-space domain.

145 Assuming lithiation starts from $t = 0$, the initial condition of normalized Li^+
146 concentration can be written as

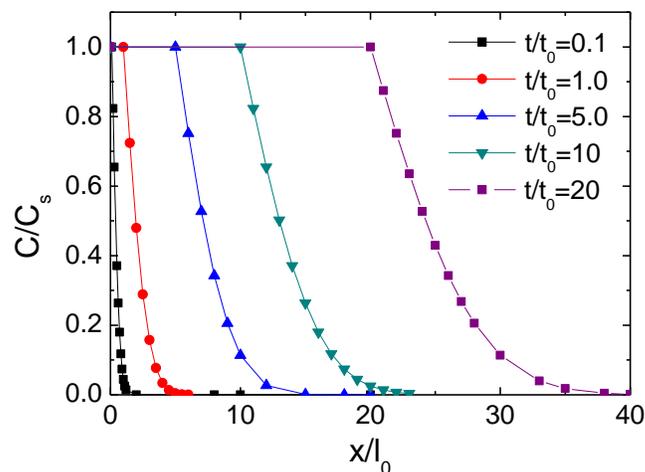
$$147 \quad \bar{C}(\bar{t} = 0) = \begin{cases} 1 & (\bar{x} = 0) \\ 0 & (\bar{x} > 0) \end{cases}$$

148 Solution to Eq. (5) is given by

$$149 \quad \bar{C}(\bar{x}, \bar{t}) = \begin{cases} 1 & (\bar{x} < \bar{t}) \\ 1 - \text{Erf}\left(\frac{\bar{x} - \bar{t}}{2\sqrt{\bar{t}}}\right) & (\bar{x} \geq \bar{t}) \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

150 where $\text{Erf}(z)$ is the error function defined by $\text{Erf}(z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^z e^{-y^2} dy$. Fig. 4 shows the
151 distribution of Li^+ concentration along the axial direction at different moments of time.
152 According to the Li^+ concentration, the NW can be divided into three parts. In the region
153 of $\bar{x} \leq \bar{t}$ (or $x \leq l_0 t / t_0$), Li^+ concentration is uniform and equal to C_s . This part
154 therefore can be termed as the “saturation region” with front located at $x = l_0 t / t_0$,
155 suggesting that the advancing speed of the front is l_0 / t_0 . On the other hand, in the
156 region that is unreachable for Li^+ in time t , Li^+ is deficient. This region is termed as the
157 “unlithiated region”. Taking 1% C_s as the cut-off of zero Li^+ concentration, the lower
158 bound of the unlithiated region can be estimated, from Eq. (6), to be
159 $x = l_0 \left(t / t_0 + 4.6 \sqrt{t / t_0} \right)$. In the transition region between $x = l_0 t / t_0$ and
160 $x = l_0 \left(t / t_0 + 4.6 \sqrt{t / t_0} \right)$, Li^+ concentration decays from C_s to 1% C_s . Fig. 4 indicates that
161 with lithiation proceeding the saturation region extends at constant speed of l_0 / t_0 and

162 meanwhile the transition region widens at speed of $2.3\sqrt{l_0^2/t_0t}$. The expansion of
 163 saturation region is essentially attributed to the diffusion driven by the electrical field,
 164 while the widening of transition region is due to the Li^+ diffusion caused by concentration
 165 gradient.



166
 167 **Fig. 4 -Distribution of Li^+ concentration at different moments predicted by**
 168 **theoretical modeling**
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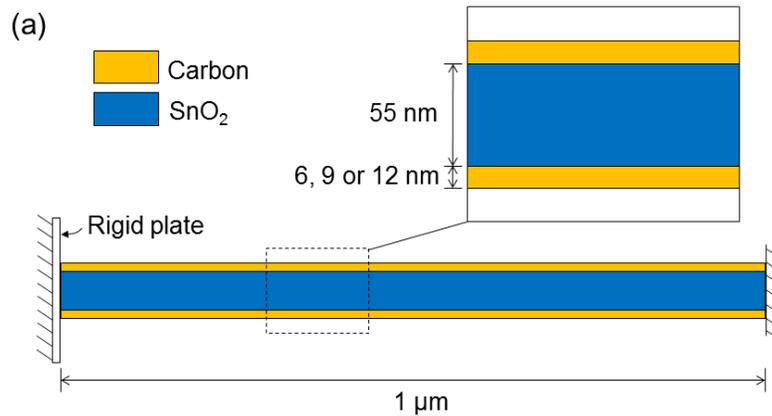
170 With the knowledge of the distribution of Li^+ concentration obtained above, now we
 171 are able to predict the volume expansion of the SnO_2 NW as well as the resulting stress
 172 field developed in the SnO_2/C system. Assuming that the volume expansion of SnO_2 due
 173 to lithiation is proportional to the Li^+ concentration, the stress in the SnO_2/C system
 174 resulting from lithiation-induced expansion of SnO_2 is analogous to “thermal” stress
 175 caused by a “temperature” increment numerically equal to \bar{C} with the thermal
 176 expansion coefficient being the strain of unconstrained SnO_2 at full lithiation. Such
 177 “thermal” stress problem can be readily solved by finite element analysis (FEA).

178 Fig. 5a shows the FEA model we established, in which the carbon coating was

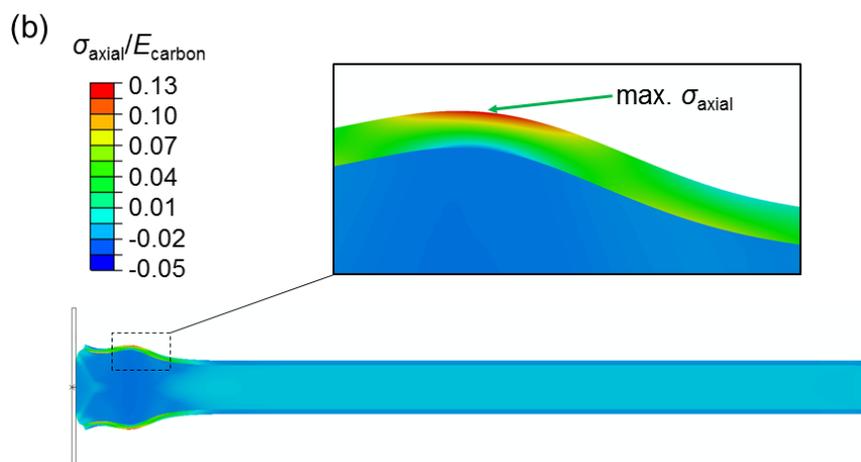
179 assumed as elastic material with Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio being 300 GPa and
180 0.25 [25, 26]. In our model, lithiation of the carbon coating was not taken into account for
181 two reasons. First, lithiation of carbon causes only 12% volume expansion
182 (corresponding to strain < 4%) [27], which is much smaller than that of the SnO₂.
183 Secondly, it was reported that lithiation has little impact on the tensile stiffness of carbon
184 fibers and results in ~20% drop in its tensile strength [28, 29]. Considering that SnO₂
185 core would turn to be amorphous Li₂O, Sn and Li_xSn after lithiation [30], the NW core
186 was assumed as elastic-perfectly-plastic material with Young's modulus, yielding stress
187 and Poisson's ratio being 150 GPa, 7 GPa and 0.3 [31]. From the *in situ* TEM observation,
188 it can be seen that the radial expansion of the nanowire is around 60%, resulting in
189 comparable expansion in circumference. Such high strain definitely cannot be sustained
190 by the amorphous carbon whose fracture strain is less than 15% [26]. Therefore, most
191 probably fracture happens and cracks form along the longitudinal direction due to the
192 high hoop stress/strain even though they cannot be observed in our *in situ* TEM
193 observation due to the limitation of experimental setup. Suppose longitudinal cracks
194 occur. The hoop stress in the carbon coating would be released greatly. In that case, it is
195 appropriate to simplify the problem to be a two-dimensional plane stress problem as we
196 did in our simulation. Two-dimensional 4-node plane stress thermally coupled
197 quadrilateral bilinear displacement-temperature element (CPS4T in ABAQUS, Dassault
198 Systèmes) was adopted for both core and coating even though the expansion of the
199 coating was neglected in our simulation [20, 27]. The "thermal" expansion coefficient of

200 NW core was constantly taken as 0.5 per unit degree of “temperature” increment,
 201 corresponding to 50% expansion at full lithiation. To shed light on the effect of coating
 202 thickness on the stress developed by lithiation, coating thicknesses of 6, 9 and 12 nm
 203 were considered.

204 Since our solution to the Li^+ concentration distribution in Eq. (6) is given in terms of
 205 normalized coordinate, in order to apply it to the FEA model as the analogous
 206 “temperature” increment, knowledge of the characteristic length scale l_0 is needed.
 207 Considering that the length of NW used in our experiment was $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ and the magnitude
 208 of the applied voltage was $\sim 2 \text{ V}$, the electrical field intensity, which equals the gradient of
 209 electrical potential, can be estimated to be around $E = 2 \times 10^6 \text{ V/m}$. Taking temperature T
 210 $= 293 \text{ K}$, $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$ and $k_b = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$, the characteristic length scale
 211 $l_0 = \frac{k_b T}{Ee}$ then is estimated to be around 12.8 nm. Dividing l_0 by the advancing speed of
 212 the saturation region, which from the TEM observation was estimated to be around 10
 213 nm/s, the characteristic time scale t_0 in our problem is estimated to be 1.28 s.



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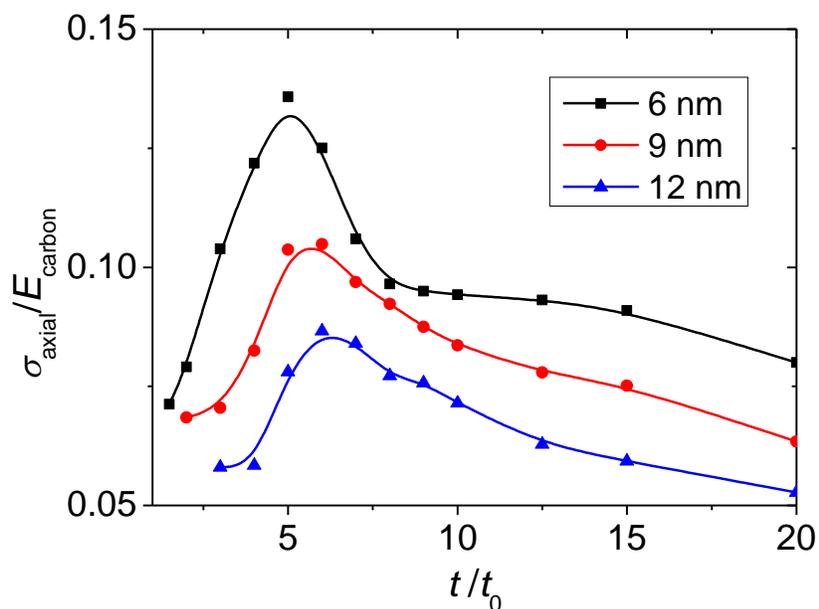
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216 **Fig. 5 -(a) Schematics of finite element model and, (b) Calculated axial stress in the**
 217 **SnO₂/C NW due to lithiation-induced volume expansion at $t = 5t_0$.**

218

219 Upon the application of analogous “temperature” increment, the displacement and
 220 stress field were immediately calculated. For example, Fig. 5b shows the axial stress field
 221 at $t = 5t_0$ for the case with coating thickness equal to 6 nm. The calculated expansion in
 222 diameter in the saturation region is 56-71%, which agrees well with the experimental
 223 observation. As expected, the axial stress induced by lithiation is tensile in the carbon
 224 coating while compressive in the SnO₂ core. The maximum axial stress in the carbon
 225 coating occurs near the lithiation front of SnO₂, where the deformed profile exhibits
 226 significant curvature resulting in substantial bending stress in addition to the membrane
 227 one. It is noticed that the magnitude of the maximum axial stress is not constant but
 228 varies with time. Fig. 6 shows the evolution of the maximum axial stress as a function of
 229 time for carbon coatings with different thicknesses. It can be seen that during lithiation
 230 the maximum axial stress in the carbon coating initially increases with the time. When
 231 $t \approx 5t_0$, it reaches the peak value and then decreases. More importantly, the axial stress in
 232 the carbon coating exhibits strong dependence on its thickness. The larger the thickness,
 233 the lower the stress. This result agrees well with the thickness-dependent fracture (ring
 234 cracking) of carbon coating observed in our *in situ* TEM observation. Recalling that the
 235 critical thickness of carbon for fracture was around 9 nm as shown by Fig.3, the fracture

236 strength of the carbon which, according to the maximum-tensile-stress criterion (also
237 known as Rankine criterion) [32] of fracture, can be equated to the peak stress
238 experienced by the carbon coating with the critical thickness, is estimated from Fig. 6 to
239 be around $0.1E_{\text{carbon}} = 30$ GPa, which agrees well with the calculated result reported in
240 literature [26, 28, 29].



241

242 **Fig. 6 -Evolution of the maximum stress in carbon coatings of different thicknesses.**

243

244 **4. Conclusions**

245 In summary, in this paper we fabricated carbon-coated SnO₂ NWs and used them as

246 electrodes for *in situ* TEM study of lithiation. It was found that carbon coatings with

247 thickness less than 9 nm will fracture during lithiation, resulting in ring cracks. Such

248 critical coating thickness then was elucidated by theoretical modeling, which indicated

249 that the maximum axial stress developed in the carbon coating during the lithiation of

250 SnO₂ was dependent on the coating thickness. The thicker the coating, the lower the stress.

251 Our results provide a minimum thickness of carbon coating for electrode materials with
252 large volume expansion so as to achieve higher durability and higher capacity at the same
253 time.

254

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262

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