

# Solvent-Free Synthesis of Uniform MOF Shell-Derived Carbon Confined SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co Nanocubes for Highly Reversible Lithium Storage

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*Tin dioxide (SnO<sub>2</sub>) has attracted much attention in lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) due to its abundant source, low cost, and high theoretical capacity. However, the large volume variation, irreversible conversion reaction limit its further practical application in next-generation LIBs. Here, a novel solvent-free approach to construct uniform metal-organic framework (MOF) shell-derived carbon confined SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co (SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C) nanocubes via a two-step heat treatment is developed. In particular, MOF-coated CoSnO<sub>3</sub> hollow nanocubes are for the first time synthesized as the intermediate product by an extremely simple thermal solid-phase reaction, which is further developed as a general strategy to successfully obtain other uniform MOF-coated metal oxides. The as-synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes, when tested as LIB anodes, exhibit a highly reversible discharge capacity of 800 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> after 100 cycles at 200 mA g<sup>-1</sup> and excellent cycling stability with a retained capacity of 400 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> after 1800 cycles at 5 A g<sup>-1</sup>. The experimental analyses demonstrate that these excellent performances are mainly ascribed to the delicate structure and a synergistic effect between Co and SnO<sub>2</sub>. This facile synthetic approach will greatly contribute to the development of functional metal oxide-based and MOF-assisted nanostructures in many frontier applications.*

## 1. Introduction

With the advantages of high energy density, long lifespan, nil memory effect, and environmental benignity, lithium-ion

batteries (LIBs) have become the most promising power sources for mobile electronic devices and stationary energy storage systems for green energy.<sup>[1–8]</sup> With the fast consumption of energy, more efficient LIBs with higher rate and capacity are greatly desired. SnO<sub>2</sub> anode is viewed as a potential substitute of graphite to achieve both high specific capacity and superior rate capacity of LIBs, owing to its high theoretical capacity (782 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>), low potential for Li<sup>+</sup> insertion, low toxicity, and low cost.<sup>[9,10]</sup> However, its practical application is hindered by two fatal issues. One is the intrinsically low initial Coulombic efficiency due to the irreversible conversion of SnO<sub>2</sub> to Sn in the first discharge process. The other is the large volume expansion (≈300% upon full lithiation) caused by the formation of the alloy Li<sub>x</sub>Sn (0 < x ≤ 4.4), which eventually results in the pulverization of electrodes and the related fast capacity fading during cycling.<sup>[11]</sup>

Many efforts have been devoted to solving the aforementioned issues. One feasible approach is constructing porous, nanosized, and hollow structures of SnO<sub>2</sub>. Li et al.<sup>[12]</sup>

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reported mesoporous hollow SnO<sub>2</sub> nanococoons with an average size of 20 nm; Lou et al.<sup>[13,14]</sup> designed nanoboxes and hollow nanospheres; Park et al.<sup>[15]</sup> synthesized randomly aligned SnO<sub>2</sub> nanowires with diameters of 200–500 nm. The ultrasmall sizes of SnO<sub>2</sub> or introduced interspaces in these structures are greatly beneficial for reducing the ion diffusion paths and thus enhancing the reaction kinetics, as well as relieving the volume expansion and the accompanying internal stress. Another effective method is compositing SnO<sub>2</sub> with carbon, such as coaxial carbon-coated SnO<sub>2</sub> hollow nanospheres,<sup>[16]</sup> hierarchically porous carbon encapsulated SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals,<sup>[17]</sup> and N-doped carbon-coated SnO<sub>2</sub> sub-microboxes and SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers.<sup>[18,19]</sup> It was confirmed that the carbon shell can prominently enhance the conductivity, stabilize the solid-electrolyte interphase (SEI), and maintain the mechanical integrity. Moreover, to increase the coulombic efficiency and to stabilize the nanostructure of the SnO<sub>2</sub> anodes, hybridizing SnO<sub>2</sub> with nanosized transition metals for a synergistic effect has been used as an efficient strategy.<sup>[20,21]</sup> Hu et al.<sup>[22]</sup> demonstrated that the incorporated metals (M = Fe, Mn, Co) could accelerate the decomposition of Li<sub>2</sub>O because the conversion of M/Li<sub>2</sub>O to MO suffers a much lower energy barrier than that of Sn/Li<sub>2</sub>O to SnO<sub>2</sub>, and concurrently impede the agglomeration of Sn. As a result, the inert Li<sub>2</sub>O wrapped Sn was released so as to promote the conversion of Sn to SnO<sub>2</sub>, and the structural stability was improved. However, it is still a tough challenge to synthesize SnO<sub>2</sub>-based anode materials with both high specific capacity and stable cycling performance. In this regard, a strategy to combine the aforementioned problem-solving approaches to meet this challenge and facilitate the scalable application of SnO<sub>2</sub>-based anodes is of great significance.

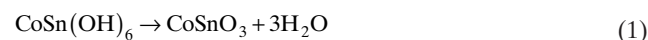
Metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) constructed by metal ions/clusters and organic linkers via coordination bonding show great potential in energy storage because of their homogeneous morphologies, small sizes, porous structures, and large specific surface areas.<sup>[23–25]</sup> When used in energy storage, MOF-derived nanoporous carbon shell can not only enhance the mechanical integrity and the conductivity of the structure but also allow for fast transference of Li<sup>+</sup> and store Li<sup>+</sup> ions via an adsorption mechanism.<sup>[26]</sup> As Zhang et al.<sup>[27]</sup> reported about the ZnO@ZnO quantum dots/C core–shell nanorod arrays on a carbon cloth, the MOF-derived carbon shell greatly contributed to their excellent electrochemical performance in LIBs. However, the adopted solution method is difficult to obtain a uniform MOF shell, and inevitably involves a tedious synthesis process.<sup>[28,29]</sup>

Herein, to avoid the aforementioned deficiencies, we developed a simple two-step, solvent-free heat treatment to synthesize MOF shell-derived carbon confined SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co (SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C) nanocubes. The adopted solid-phase synthesis method is more environment friendly without using a large amount of organic solvent, thus cutting down the cost of production and avoiding the serious pollution. Besides, the operation of solid-phase synthesis is simpler and more time-saving without washing and drying process. In detail, uniform MOF-coated CoSnO<sub>3</sub> (CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF) hollow nanocubes were first synthesized by a thermal solid-phase reaction, and then after carbonization, the obtained CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF nanocubes

were converted into SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes. When tested as an anode material for LIBs, the as-synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes possess a high reversible capacity of 800 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> after 100 cycles at 200 mA g<sup>-1</sup> and a long-term stable capacity of 400 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> after 1800 cycles at 5 A g<sup>-1</sup>. The excellent performance can be attributed to the unique characteristics of SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes including small sizes, abundant interspaces, contained Co, and uniform porous carbon shell. In addition, to our best knowledge, it is the first time to report a uniform MOF-coated metal oxide acquired by a simple thermal solid-phase reaction. To demonstrate the generality of our concept of synthesis, this simple method is further extended to ZnO and Zn<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>.

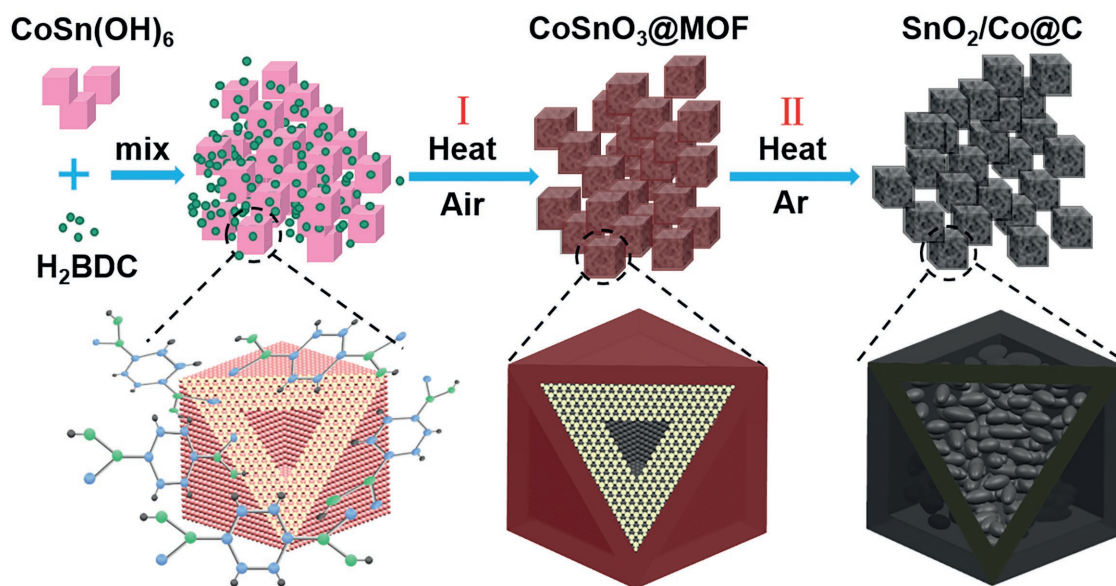
## 2. Results and Discussion

The SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes were synthesized by a solvent-free synthesis process, as the schematic illustration shown in **Figure 1**. First, the mixture of hollow CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> and abundant 1,4-benzenedicarboxylic acid (H<sub>2</sub>BDC) undertook step I heat treatment in air which involves two successive stages: 1 h at 300 °C for a rational coordination reaction; 0.5 h at 320 °C to remove unreacted H<sub>2</sub>BDC. Hollow CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> nanocubes acted as the precursor, which can be easily synthesized by a simple coprecipitation method.<sup>[30,31]</sup> The obtained CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> nanocubes show high crystallinity and homogeneous morphology with the edge length of ≈150 nm (Figure S1a–c, Supporting Information). H<sub>2</sub>BDC was chosen as the organic linker and it can volatilize at 320 °C without melting so that the agglomeration and additional reaction of solid–liquid phase could be avoided. During the Step-I heat treatment, two reactions happened. One is the pyrolysis of CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> at around 200 °C, which is confirmed by the thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) of CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> (Figure S2, Supporting Information). The pyrolysis reaction can be described by the following equation<sup>[32–34]</sup>



The weight loss of CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> at 110–275 °C is measured to be 19.4%, which is very close to the theoretical mass fraction (19.3%) of the produced water based on Equation (1). The other reaction is the coordination reaction between Co ions and organic ligands in H<sub>2</sub>BDC, which leads to the formation of a MOF layer on CoSnO<sub>3</sub> nanocubes. Owing to the intrinsic slow ion transportation in solid and thus low reaction rate of solid-phase reaction, the coordination just took place on the surfaces/interfaces of the nanocubes. Accordingly, a thin film of amorphous MOF was produced on the surface of the nanocubes. Finally, the generated CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF hollow nanocubes were calcinated at 550 °C in argon in the Step II heat treatment to obtain the SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes. In this step, the organic ligands in the MOF film were *in situ* carbonized and the porous carbon shell was formed.

As shown in the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images (**Figure 2a,b**), the CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF hollow nanocubes well



**Figure 1.** Schematic illustration of the solvent-free synthesis process of SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes.

maintain the cubic shape of the CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> precursor after the step I heat treatment. The hollow interior and a thin shell are clearly observed. The corresponding energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) mapping images (Figure 2c) confirm the coexistence of C, O, Sn, and Co in the CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF nanocubes. The inner part is CoSnO<sub>3</sub> and the outer thin layer is believed to be MOF. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern (Figure S3, Supporting Information) indicates that the CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF is amorphous. In order to confirm the occurrence of the coordination reaction, the Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) analysis was carried out and the FT-IR transmittance spectra of CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>BDC, and CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF are shown in Figure 2d. The vibrational peaks of benzene rings and ester groups are observed in the CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF nanocubes,<sup>[35,36]</sup> suggesting some organic groups originating from H<sub>2</sub>BDC are kept due to the coordination reaction.

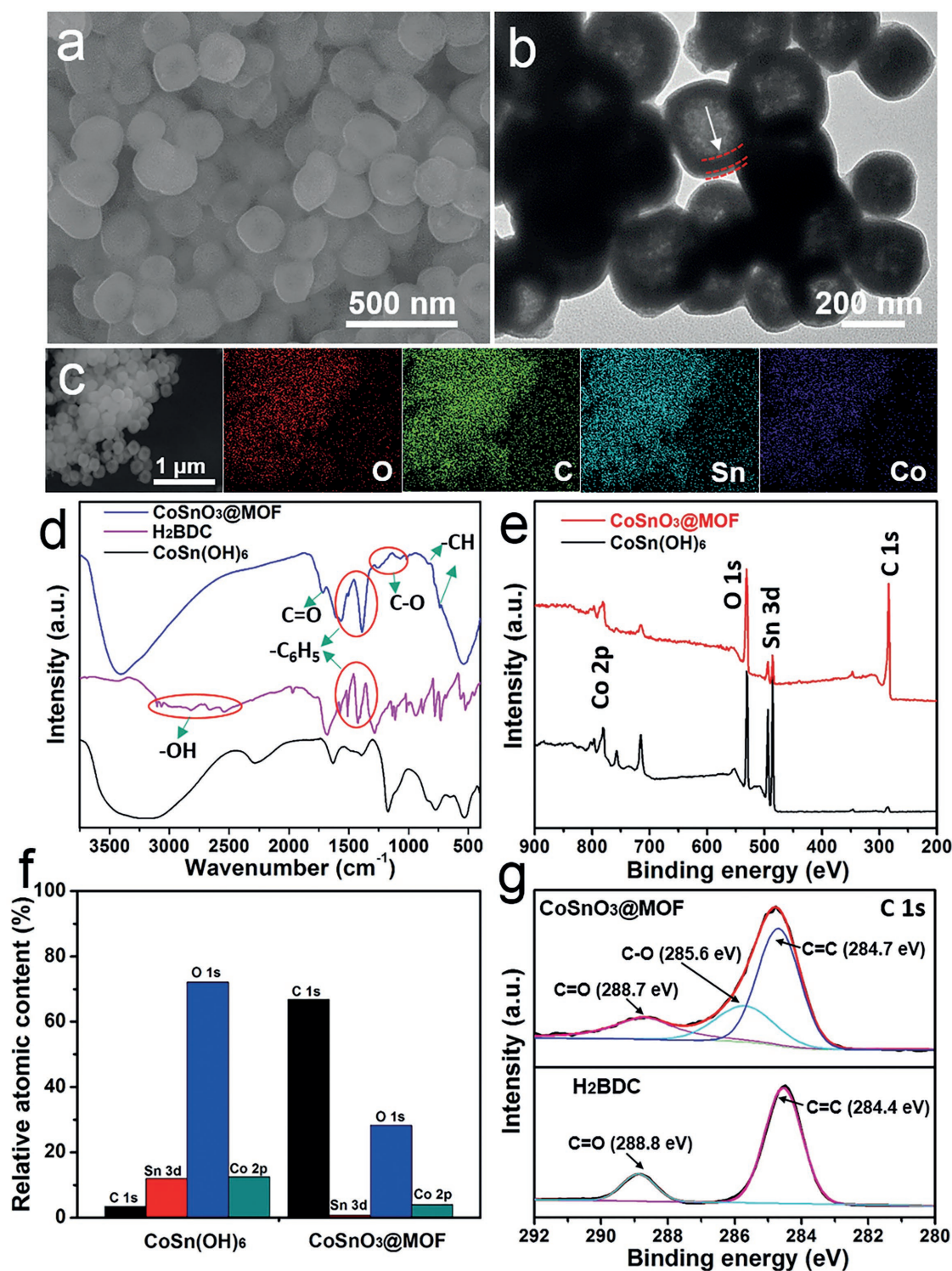
To further confirm the existence of the MOF, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed to characterize the composition within ≈10 nm beneath the surfaces of CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF hollow nanocubes. The XPS spectra of CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> and CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF are shown in Figure 2e. CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF hollow nanocubes exhibit a newly emerged strong peak of C 1s and a relatively stronger peak of O 1s (compared with Sn 3d) than CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub>, corresponding to that abundant organic groups derived from H<sub>2</sub>BDC distribute on the surface of CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF nanocubes.<sup>[37,38]</sup> The detailed relative atomic contents of C, Sn, O, and Co of CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> and CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF are displayed in Figure 2f. The unexpectedly detected trace amount of C in CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> is ascribed to the intrinsically introduced carbon source in XPS tests. The ratio of Sn, O, and Co atomic contents of CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> is close to the theoretical one of 1:6:1. In contrast, the almost disappeared Sn, the abundant carbon, and the rationally diminished Co and O are detected in CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF, suggesting the existence of the MOF which contains C, Co, O and encapsulates CoSnO<sub>3</sub> inside. The result agrees with the sharply gained relative peak intensity of Co in

CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF in Figure 2e, which demonstrates the transport of Co ions from interior to exterior and that Sn ions are kept inside without participating in the coordination reaction. The comparison of high-resolution C 1s spectra between CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF and H<sub>2</sub>BDC is displayed in Figure 2g. The C 1s spectrum of H<sub>2</sub>BDC is resolved into two compounds: the C=C from benzene rings at 284.4 eV and C=O from ester groups at 288.8 eV.<sup>[39,40]</sup> In the C 1s spectrum of CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF hollow nanocubes, the peaks of C=C and C=O are preserved. In addition, a distinct newly generated C–O peak at 285.6 eV is observed, further indicating the occurrence of the coordination reaction where the carboxyls of H<sub>2</sub>BDC break up and link to Co ions with generating C–O bands.

After the Step II calcination, the SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes perfectly retain the morphology of nanocubes. The SEM image of monodispersed SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes with the edge length of ≈180 nm is shown in **Figure 3a**. There is a slight increase in size compared to CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> nanocubes owing to the porous carbon shell. The TEM images of SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes (Figure 3b,c) show that SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co nanoparticles are wrapped in the intact carbon shells. The rich internal cavities are clearly shown by contrast between SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co nanoparticles and hollow interior. The corresponding elemental mappings (Figure 3d) obviously show the distribution of Sn, Co, O in the internal SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co nanoparticles and C in the external carbon shell. The XPS spectrum of SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes (Figure S4a, Supporting Information) shows a very strong peak of C 1s due to the fully encapsulation of carbon layer. The high-resolution C 1s XPS spectrum (Figure S4b, Supporting Information) reveals that the carbon exists in three situations: C=O bond, C–O bond, and graphitic carbon.

The XRD pattern of SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes (Figure 3e) clearly manifests the existence of crystalline SnO<sub>2</sub> and Co. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image (Figure 3f) shows the SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocube encapsulated in porous and amorphous carbon layer with a uniform thickness of ≈11 nm. The



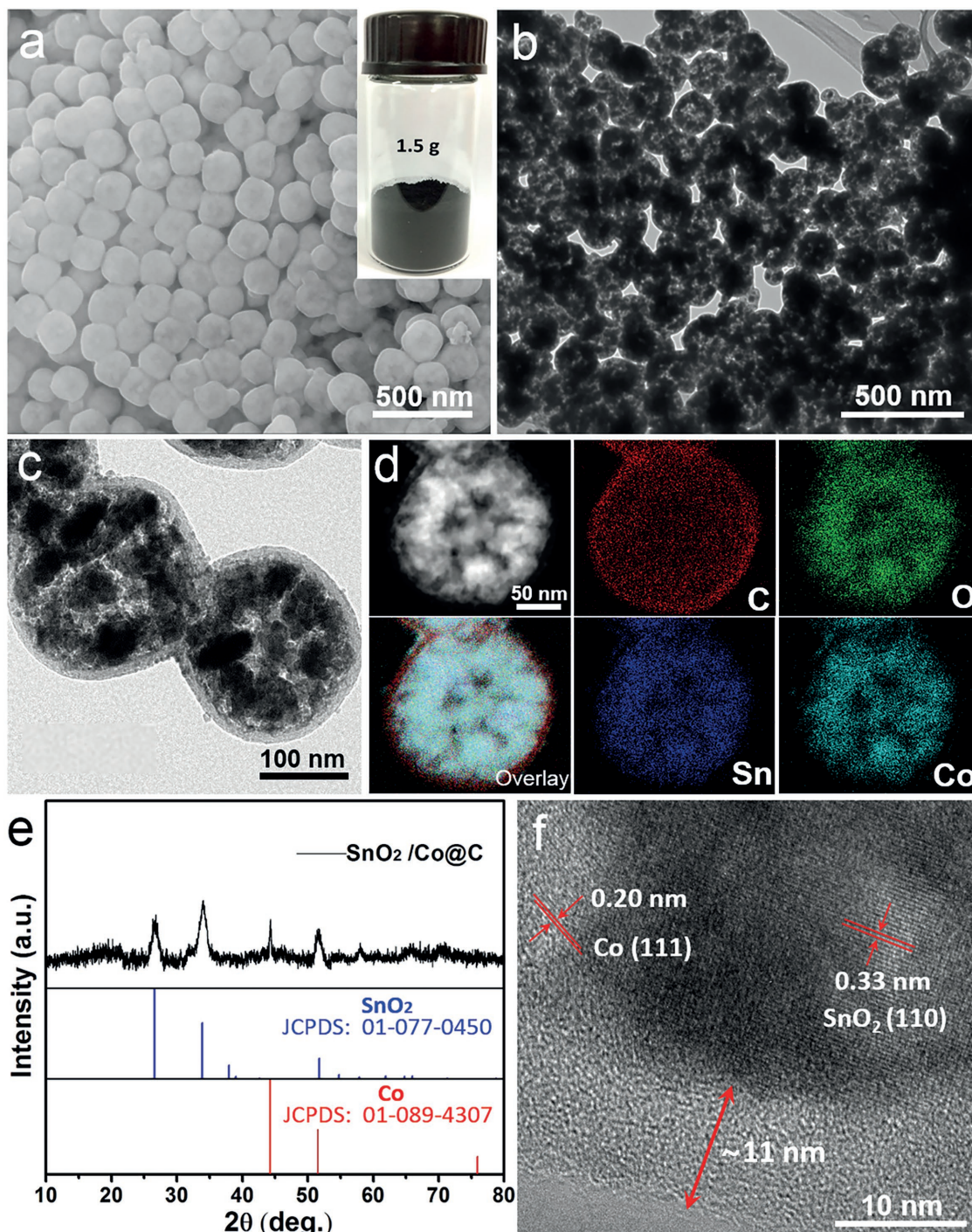


**Figure 2.** a) SEM image, b) TEM image, and c) EDX mapping images of CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF hollow nanocubes. d) FT-IR spectra of CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>BDC, and CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF. e) XPS spectra and the corresponding relative atomic contents of C, Sn, O, and Co within ≈10 nm beneath the surfaces of CoSn(OH)<sub>6</sub> and CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF nanocubes, respectively. f) Bar chart showing relative atomic content (%). g) Comparison of C 1s spectra of CoSnO<sub>3</sub>@MOF and H<sub>2</sub>BDC.

measured interlayer distances of ≈0.33 and ≈0.20 nm are in agreement with the (110) plane of rutile SnO<sub>2</sub> and (111) plane of cubic Co, respectively. According to TGA of SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes (Figure S5a, Supporting Information), the weight fraction of the carbon shell is as low as 8.66%, suggesting a low content of the inactive component. Two broad peaks

in the Raman spectrum of SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C (Figure S5b, Supporting Information) located at around 1349 and 1585 cm<sup>-1</sup> are assigned to the D (corresponds to disordered carbon or defective graphitic structures) and G (refers to graphitic carbon) bands of the carbon shell, respectively, further substantiating the partly graphitic nature of the carbon shell.<sup>[41]</sup>





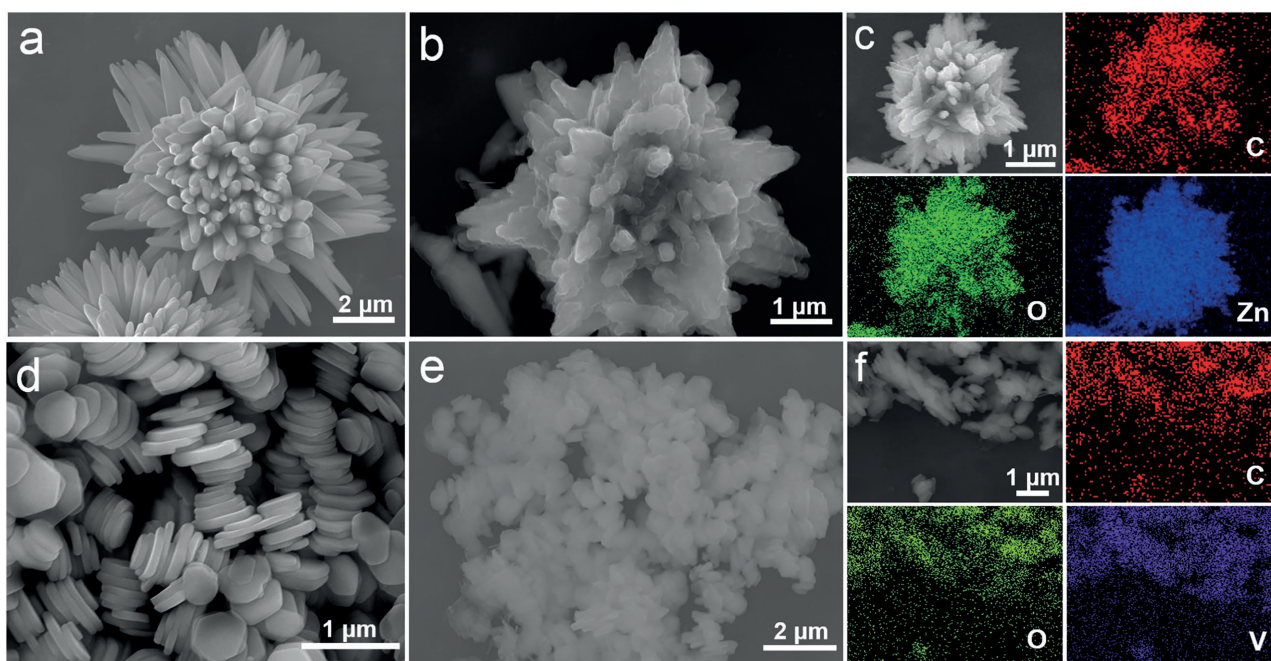
**Figure 3.** The characterizations of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes: a) SEM image, the inset is the optical image; b,c) TEM images together with d) the corresponding elemental mappings; e) XRD pattern compared with those of standard  $\text{SnO}_2$  and Co; and f) HRTEM image.

The  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption/desorption isotherm and the corresponding pore size distribution of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes based on the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) model are shown in Figure S5c,d (Supporting Information). The  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes exhibit a relatively large Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area of  $84 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and the BJH pore volume of  $0.15 \text{ m}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ . The pore sizes mainly distribute in the mesopore range of 10–40 nm, while the larger pores could be ascribed to the continuous pore channels inside

the nanocubes. The abundant void spaces provide rich reactive sites and effectively accommodate the volume expansion during  $\text{Li}^+$  insertion.

It is worth mentioning that it is the first time to report a MOF-coated metal oxide acquired by a simple and scalable thermal solid-phase reaction, to our best knowledge. In this work, we further extend this method to synthesize  $\text{ZnO}@MOF$  and  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_8@MOF$ . First, the precursors of ZnO microflowers and  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$



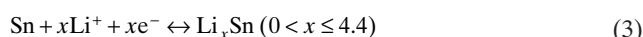
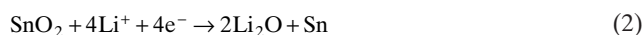


**Figure 4.** a) SEM image of ZnO microflowers; b,c) SEM image and the corresponding EDX mapping images of ZnO@MOF. d) SEM image of  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  nanoplates; e,f) SEM image and the corresponding EDX mapping images of  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_8$ @MOF.

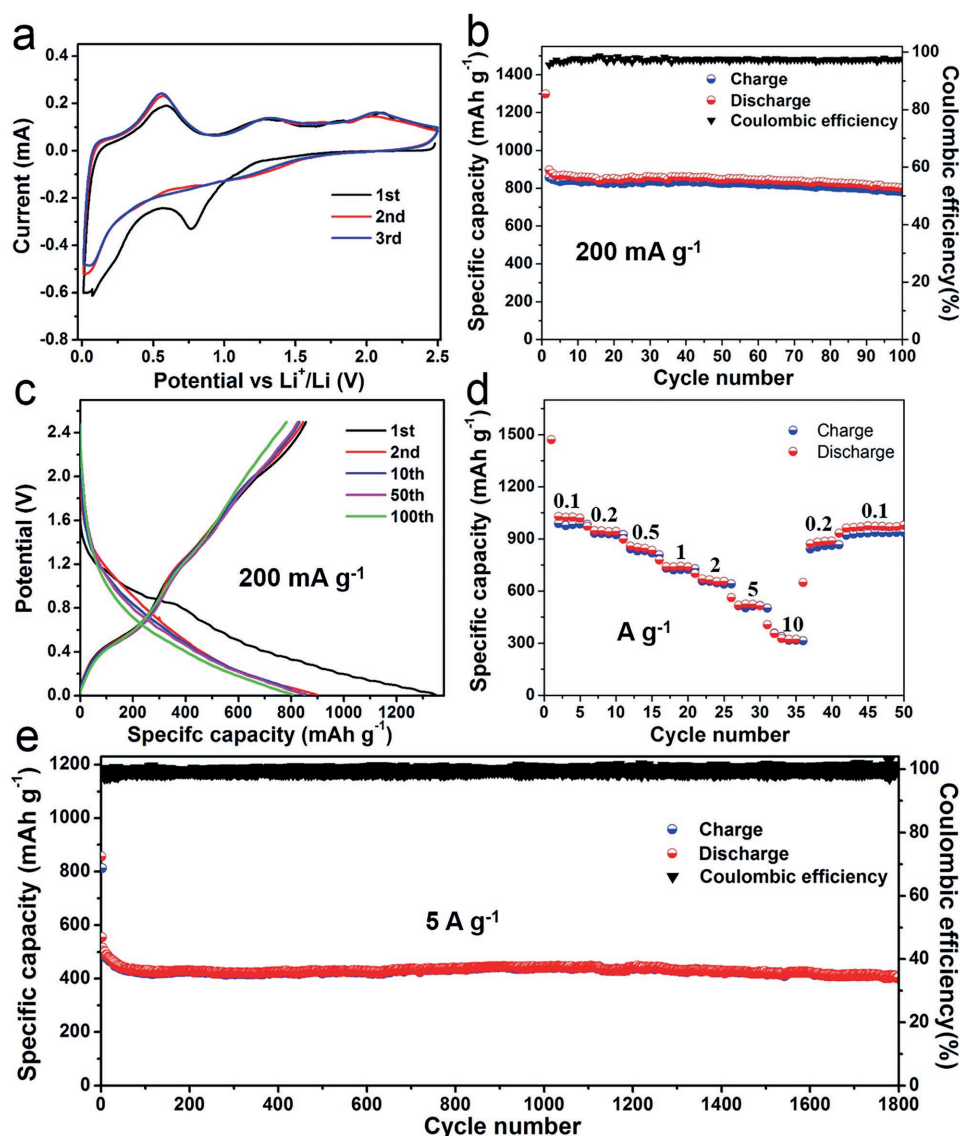
nanoplates with smooth surfaces and angular edges are synthesized (**Figure 4a,d**). Second, the ZnO microflowers and  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  nanoplates are mixed with abundant  $\text{H}_2\text{BDC}$  followed by the same heat treatment as  $\text{CoSn}(\text{OH})_6$  to obtain ZnO@MOF and  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_8$ @MOF, respectively. As the XRD patterns presented in Figure S6a,b (Supporting Information), both ZnO and  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  exhibit high crystallinity. Apart from reacting with  $\text{H}_2\text{BDC}$  via the coordination between Zn ions and organic ligands on the surfaces,  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was partially pyrolyzed generating  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_8$ ,<sup>[42]</sup> which is slightly different to ZnO which has a better thermostability. There are several weak peaks at small angles in the XRD pattern of  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_8$ @MOF, which may be due to a slight crystallization of MOF. The SEM images of ZnO@MOF and  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_8$ @MOF are displayed in Figure 4b,e. Their edges become blurry and surfaces turn to be hazy after the reaction, and the corresponding EDX mapping images (Figure 4c,f) indicate that the carbon elements homogeneously distribute in ZnO@MOF and  $\text{Zn}_3\text{V}_2\text{O}_8$ @MOF, respectively. The existing carbon element originated from  $\text{H}_2\text{BDC}$  confirms the coordination between metal ions and organic groups. This new and simple strategy to introduce a MOF coating layer may be applied to other materials for different applications.

The electrochemical performance of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes as an anode material for LIBs has been evaluated. The cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves (**Figure 5a**) of the first three cycles were measured at a scan rate of  $0.2 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  within the voltage window of 0.01–2.5 V. In the cathodic process, the representative unrepeatable peak at  $\approx 0.76 \text{ V}$  is caused by the initial conversion of  $\text{SnO}_2$  to Sn, as described by Equation (2); the clearly discerned reductive peaks below 0.03 V can be assigned to the generation of  $\text{Li}_x\text{Sn}$  alloy according to Equation (3); a slight sharp peak at  $\approx 0.07 \text{ V}$  that

disappears in the following cycles may be owing to the occurrence of side reactions between the anode and the electrolyte.<sup>[43,44]</sup> In contrast, the anodic peaks of  $\text{Li}_x\text{Sn}$  dealloying process at 0.58 V and the oxidation of Co (Equation (4)) to generate CoO at 2.06 V show excellent reversibility.<sup>[45]</sup> A wide and Laigh peak at  $\approx 1.28 \text{ V}$  unveils a partial reversibility of Sn transforming to  $\text{SnO}_2$ .<sup>[46–48]</sup>



The cycling performance of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes was performed using the charge/discharge galvanostatic cycling test from 0.01 to 2.5 V. As shown in Figure 5b, the first discharge capacity is  $\approx 1300 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  and the first charge capacity is  $\approx 857 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  at a current density of  $200 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ , corresponding to the pretty high initial Coulombic efficiency of 66%. After cycling for 100 times, the reversible discharge capacity is  $800 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ , which equals to 93.3% of the first charge capacity. The 1st, 2nd, 10th, 50th, and 100th cycle charge–discharge voltage profiles of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes at the current density of  $200 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  are shown in Figure 5c. Distinct capacity decrease is only perceived in the first discharge process, and the following discharge profiles from 2th to 100th cycle remain almost unchanged, showing a good reversibility. The rate capability of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes was measured by alternately discharging and charging at various current densities (Figure 5d). The corresponding charge–discharge voltage profiles are shown in Figure S7 (Supporting Information). Strikingly high reversible specific capacities of



**Figure 5.** Electrochemical performance of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes as an anode material for LIBs: a) CV curves of the first three cycles at the scan rate of  $0.2 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ ; b) cycling performance and corresponding Coulombic efficiency at the current density of  $200 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ ; c) charge–discharge voltage profiles for the 1st, 2nd, 10th, 50th, and 100th cycle at the current density of  $200 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ ; d) rate performance successively conducted at the current densities of 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, and  $10 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ ; e) long-term cycling performance and corresponding Coulombic efficiency at a galvanostatic measurements of a current density of  $5 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . All tests were measured at the voltage range of 0.01–2.5 V, and all specific capacities are calculated based on the mass of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$ .

$\approx 1030, 950, 850, 740, 650, 520,$  and  $350 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  are delivered at the current densities of 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, and  $10 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ , respectively. Moreover, the capacity quickly recovers to as high as  $980 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  when the current density is finally reduced back to  $100 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ , suggesting extraordinary stability of the anode. The long-term cycling performance of the  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes and the corresponding Coulombic efficiency at a high current density of  $5 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  are displayed in Figure 5e. The noticeable decay only appears in the first 50 cycles, which may be ascribed to the SEI film stabilization and irreversible trapping of some lithium in the lattice. As seen from the cycling performance, the anode shows fabulous cycling stability and a high retained capacity of  $\approx 400 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  after 1800 cycles.

$\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes as an anode material for LIBs exhibit superior electrochemical performance compared with

some recently related reports (Table S1, Supporting Information), which results from their unique structure. On one hand, the nanosized structure and rich pores of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes shorten the ion diffusion paths, accelerate the reaction kinetics, and effectively accommodate volume changes during cycling. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) plot (Figure S8, Supporting Information) indicates the charge-transfer resistance of the electrode based on  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes is  $\approx 140 \Omega$ , implying fast transportation of electrons and ions. On the other hand, the porous carbon shell with a close contact to the interior active materials not only enhances the conductivity but also confines  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}$  nanoparticles within carbon shells and thus stabilizes the structure of the anode. The SEM image (Figure S9, Supporting Information) of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{Co}@C$  nanocubes after cycling for 100 times at

200 mA g<sup>-1</sup> shows the monodispersed nanocubes with a clearly identified carbon layer and rounded edges. The well-retained mechanical integrity is consistent with the superb cycling stability. What's more, except for promoting the conduction of electrons, the Co interspersed in SnO<sub>2</sub> prevents the migration and subsequent agglomeration of Sn during electrochemical cycling process, which enhances the structural stability and sustains the activity of Sn. The Co also consumes superfluous Li<sub>2</sub>O with providing extra capacity, and releases the unavailable Sn wrapped by inert Li<sub>2</sub>O to promote the reversible conversion of Sn. All these strategies together contribute to the high specific capacity, the extraordinary cycling performance, and the excellent rate capacity of the SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes.

### 3. Conclusions

In summary, a facile and scalable solvent-free approach has been developed for the first time to construct uniform carbon-confined SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co nanocubes via a two-step heat treatment. The formation mechanism is clearly revealed and it mainly includes the formation of uniform MOF shell on metal oxides and *in situ* carbonization, which can be widely extended to other nanostructured metal oxides. As demonstrated, the as-prepared SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes possess excellent lithium storage property as an anode material in LIBs. Specifically, even tested at 5 A g<sup>-1</sup> after 1800 cycles, these SnO<sub>2</sub>/Co@C nanocubes displayed a long-term reversible capacity of 400 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> with the capacity retention of ≈77%. This synthetic approach and proposed mechanism will open new avenues for the development of functional inorganics-carbon coupled materials for high-performance energy storage.

### Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

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### Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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