

SnS₂/N-Doped Graphene as a Superior Stability Anode for Potassium-Ion Batteries by Inhibiting “Shuttle Effect”

Chuanchao Sheng⁺^[a], Chaofei Zhang⁺^[a], Xiaoxiao Shen^[a], Shulin Zhao^[a], Lijun Fu^[a], Yiping Wu^[a], Jing Wang,^{*[a]} and Yuhui Chen^{*[a]}

Potassium-ion batteries are promising supplements to lithium-ion batteries considering the abundance of potassium. However, the high reactivity of metallic potassium and low capacity of graphite anode are great challenges. A high capacity anode material is desired. Herein, we synthesize a tin sulfide/N-doped reduced graphene oxide composite (SnS₂/N-rGO), in which tin sulfide nanoparticles are dispersed on the N-doped graphene layer. It shows a high reversible capacity of 645.2 mAh g⁻¹ at 50 mA g⁻¹ and 402 mAh g⁻¹ at 1 A g⁻¹. In situ X-ray powder diffraction of the discharge process is carried out. KSn forms as a final product and K₂S₅ forms as an important discharge intermediate. Nitrogen-doping immobilizes the tin sulfide particles and inhibits the loss of polysulfide intermediate. Therefore, 97.3% of discharge capacity remains after 100 cycles. This result sheds light on the rational design of anode materials with large volume change for potassium ion batteries.

Potassium ion battery attracts people's attention as a good supplement to Li-ion batteries and it owns some specific advantages, such as low cost and abundance.^[1] Although K⁺ is heavier than Li⁺, K-ion battery might address the demands for some weight-less-dependent applications like the electric grid system.^[2] K has a low potential close to Li, (100 mV vs Li) and it is approx. 220 mV lower potential than Na, allowing it to deliver a high working voltage and thus high power and specific energy.^[3] However, the reactivity of metallic K anode is a great concern to safety and the low potential of K leads to the risk of dendrite formation during discharge-charge cycles.^[4] Graphite anode in a K-ion battery shows a much lower capacity (278 mAh g⁻¹)^[5] than its capacity in a Li-ion battery (372 mAh g⁻¹).^[6] Among other anode candidates, SnS₂ has a high theoretical capacity (733 mAh g⁻¹) due to the combination of the conversion process and alloying process of forming KSn.^[7] However, its low conductivity and volume change during cycling restricts its capacity and cycling performance.

Due to the low conductivity of SnS₂, it is mixed with some carbon materials like graphene to form a SnS₂/C composite to improve the conductivity.^[8] This kind of simply mixed composites did not solve the problems because SnS₂ particles aggregate during cycling.^[9] As a result, the electrode material detaches from the current collector, and thus the capacity rapidly decreases.

Herein we synthesized the SnS₂/N-doped rGO composite as anode materials for K-ion batteries using a facile hydrothermal process. The SnS₂ nanoparticles were dispersed on the N-doped graphene layer like a lasagne. The graphene structure significantly improves its conductivity and mitigates the volume expansion on the discharge process. The N-doped graphene helps to immobilize the SnS₂ particles on the surface of graphene layers and prevent the aggregation of particles during cycling. Additionally, the polysulfide intermediate K₂S₅ escaped from the surface and remains during discharge and thus leads to a low coulombic efficiency and capacity decay. The N-doping appears to inhibit the shuttling effect of polysulfide species which are important intermediates in the discharging process. The SnS₂/N-rGO composite anode shows a reversible capacity of 645.2 mAh g⁻¹_{SnS2} at 50 mA g⁻¹_{SnS2} and 97.3% of the capacity remains after 100 cycles and a capacity of 335 mAh g⁻¹_{SnS2} after 200 cycles at 1000 mA g⁻¹.

X-ray diffraction pattern (XRD) of the SnS₂/N-rGO sample was shown in Figure 1a. SnS₂/N-rGO composite has the same XRD patterns as SnS₂ nanoparticles (JCPDS card no. 23-0677). A small peak at 25.9° is assigned to rGO. SEM images (Figure 1b&c) shows that small SnS₂ particles (~5 nm) were evenly dispersed on the surface of graphene, which is consistent with the TEM image (Figure 1d). Facets (100) and (101) were identified in the TEM image (Figure 1e), which is in accordance with the XRD results. The facet (001) shifts slightly to the positive direction and it is consistent with literature,^[10] which is probably due to the interaction SnS₂ and N-rGO substrate. EDS mapping of N, Sn, and S was carried out to confirm that N-doping and SnS₂ are evenly dispersed in the composite, as shown in Figure 1f. The N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms are shown in Figure S1 and the BET surface area of SnS₂/N-rGO is 180.5 m²/g, which provides large surface for the conversion reactions of SnS₂. Raman spectrum of SnS₂/N-rGO is shown in Figure S2. The ratio of D-band to G-band (I_D/I_G) of SnS₂/N-rGO is 1.38, higher than I_D/I_G of N-rGO (1.17). The formation of composite introduces more surface defects on the N-rGO, and thus immobilizes SnS₂ particles and inhibits the aggregation of nanoparticles.^[11] To quantify the composition of SnS₂ in the

[a] C. Sheng,⁺ C. Zhang,⁺ X. Shen, Dr. S. Zhao, Prof. L. Fu, Prof. Y. Wu, Dr. J. Wang, Prof. Y. Chen
State Key Laboratory of Materials-oriented Chemical Engineering,
School of Energy Science and Engineering,
Nanjing Tech University, Nanjing, Jiangsu, 211816 China
E-mail: cheny@njtech.edu.cn
wjx2015@njtech.edu.cn

[+] These authors contributed equally to this work.

Supporting information for this article is available on the WWW under
<https://doi.org/10.1002/batt.201900104>

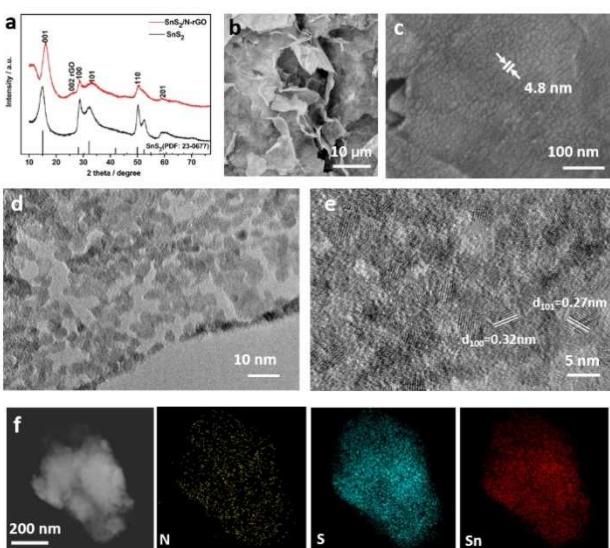


Figure 1. Characterization of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ composite. (a) XRD patterns of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ and SnS_2 ; (b,c) SEM image of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$; (d,e) TEM images of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$; (f) HAADF image and EDS maps of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$.

composite, TGA was performed under air and 82.5 (wt%) of SnS_2 was contained in the composite, Figure S3.

To further understand the surface condition of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ composite, XPS was carried out and spectra are shown in Figure 2. The survey spectra shows four main elements, Sn, N, C, and O in Figure 2a, which is consistent with the results of EDS in Figure 1f. In the N-spectrum, three types of N are identified, which are pyridinic N (398.7 eV), pyrrolic N (399.9 eV), and amino N (401.4 eV). The pyridinic-N and pyrrolic-N introduce numerous active sites and extrinsic defects to graphene, thereby improving the electrochemical performance, consistent with previous results. The C 1s spectrum (Figure 2c) of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ shows four peaks and they are assigned to C–C (284.6 eV),

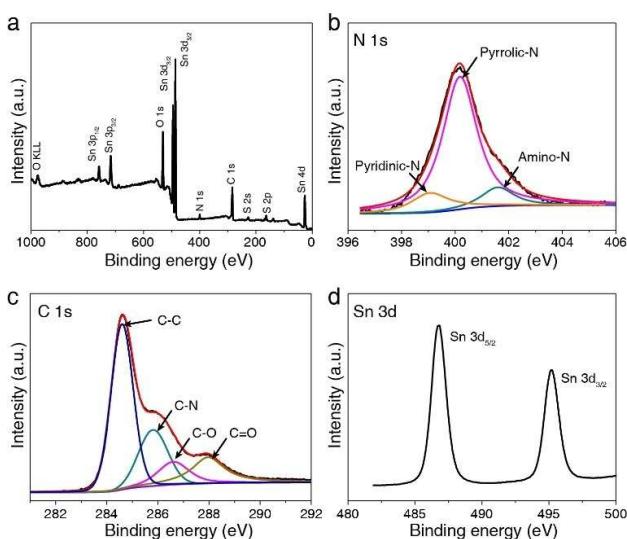


Figure 2. XPS spectra of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ composite. (a) Full spectrum; (b) N; (c) C and (d) Sn spectra of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ composite.

C–N (285.6 eV), C–O(286.6 eV), and O=C=O(288.0 eV). The S 2p spectra of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ and SnS_2 are shown in Figure S4. The peak at 186.5 eV assigned to S-doping on rGO does not appear.^[12] The Sn 3d spectrum in Figure 2d shows two peaks with binding energy at 487.0 and 495.4 eV, assigned to the Sn 3d_{5/2} and Sn 3d_{3/2} respectively, confirm the presence of Sn^{4+} in this composite.^[13]

The electrochemical performance of the $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ composite was tested in a coin cell. The electrode fabrication process was described in the Experimental section. The load curves for discharge and charge were shown in Figure 3a. Two stages were observed on discharge. The first stage is a slope from 1.2 V to 0.5 V and the second stage is from 0.5 V to 0.01 V. These two discharge stages are clearly exhibited in the dQ/dV plot in Figure S5a and this result is consistent with the CV results in Figure S5b. To understand the discharge process, in-situ XRD was carried out and the results were shown in Figure 4. The Schematics of the in-situ XRD cell shows in Figure S6. All XRD results are subtracted with the pristine one to exhibit the change clearly. The negative peak at 17° and 27° is due to the consumption of SnS_2 . XRD patterns distinctly exhibit two stages of discharge process. At stage I (2.5~0.5 V, shadow region in Figure 4), SnS_2 is consumed while K_2S_5 and SnS are formed, suggesting the conversion reaction of SnS_2 to form SnS and K_2S_5 [Eq. (1)].



At stage II (0.5~0.01 V), the peak of SnS gradually disappears, while the peaks assigned to $\alpha\text{-Sn}$ and K_2S increase. K_2S_5 is reduced to K_2S [Eq. (2)]. SnS is further reduced to $\alpha\text{-Sn}$ [Eq. (3)] following the alloying reactions of Sn and K [Eq. (4)–(5)]. As shown in Figure 4a, $\text{K}_{4}\text{Sn}_{23}$ was identified as an intermediate and its peaks grow and then disappear while approaching to the end of discharge. Eventually, KSn was formed as the final product [Eq. (5)].

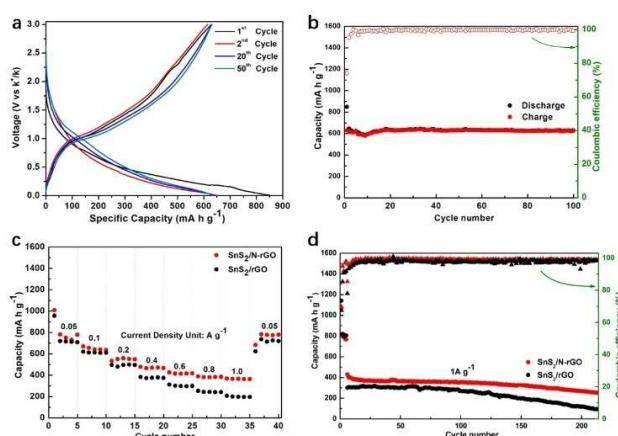


Figure 3. Electrochemical performance of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ composite. (a) Charge-discharge profiles of 1st, 2nd, 20th and 50th cycles at a current density of 50 mA g^{-1} for $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$. (b) Capacity retention and coulombic efficiency during cycling of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$. Current density: 50 mA g^{-1} (c) Rate capability of the $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ and SnS_2/rGO from 0.05 Ag^{-1} to 1 Ag^{-1} . (d) The cycling performance of $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$, SnS_2/rGO at a current density of 1 Ag^{-1} .

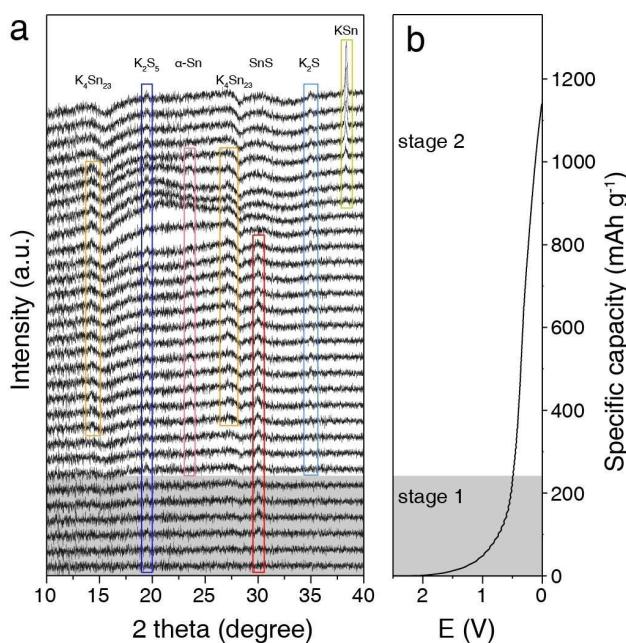


Figure 4. In situ XRD patterns of the SnS₂/N-rGO composite electrode during discharge. (a) XRD patterns and (b) corresponding discharge load curve.



Interestingly, unlike other intermediates such as SnS, α -Sn, and K_4Sn_{23} , the signal of K_2S_5 did not fully disappear at the end of discharge, which suggests an incomplete conversion of K_2S_5 to K_2S [Eq. (2)]. It could be due to the sluggish kinetics of further reduction of K_2S_5 and its nonnegligible solubility in the electrolyte. The images of the separators after 100 cycles for SnS₂/rGO electrodes was shown in Figure S7a. We found that the separator exhibited a yellowish color, similar to situation in a Li–S battery. For analysis, the residue at the separator was rinsed with 2 ml of EC/DEC mixture solvent and the UV-vis spectrum of the latter was recorded in Figure S8. Two absorbance bands at 360 nm and 430 nm, assigned to S_6^{2-} and S_4^{2-} ,^[14] are identified in the separator for SnS₂/rGO. The UV-vis result is consistent with the formation of polysulfide K_2S_5 and polysulfide diffuses away from electrode surface, leading to a capacity decay during cycling. The N-doping at cathode could help to immobilize the polysulfide and inhibit its shuttling. The separator of SnS₂/N-rGO shows little yellowish color in Figure S7b. Dissolved S_6^{2-} and S_4^{2-} intermediates are not identified in the sample from SnS₂/N-rGO because of the strong interaction between N-doping and polysulfide. The XPS spectra of the composite electrodes after 100 cycles were collected and shown in Figure S9. The band of SnS₂ disappears at very outer surface of SnS₂/rGO electrode after cycling, indicating that the SnS₂ at the outer surface is consumed during the discharge/

charge cycling. In contrast, the band of SnS₂ at SnS₂/N-rGO electrode remains. The N-doping could effectively immobilize polysulfide and enhance capacity retention and cyclability, as same as the strategy in Li–S batteries.^[15]

On the following charge process, two oxidation peaks appear at 1 V and at 1.7 to 2.3 V, Figure 3a, which are assigned to the depotassiation process of KSn alloy and K_2S . This result is consistent with the CV curve of the charging process in Figure S5b. Since the 2nd cycle, both galvanostatic curves and CV curves of the following cycles become identical, suggesting good reversibility and cyclability of the cell after initial activation. Figure 3b exhibits the cycling profile and capacity retention of cycling of SnS₂/N-rGO. For SnS₂/N-rGO, the initial discharge capacity is 848.7 mAh g⁻¹, slightly higher than theoretical capacity due to some side-reactions, *i.e.* SEI formation. The capacity decreased to 645.2 mAh g⁻¹ after a short activation process and it remains at 630 mAh g⁻¹ after 100 cycles. This capacity is about 86% of the theoretical capacity (733 mAh g⁻¹). It shows no significant capacity decay after 100 cycles. After the SEI formation at the first cycle, the capacity retention from the 2nd to 100th cycles is 97.3%. As shown in Figure S10, the capacity of N-rGO itself is less than 30 mAh/g and it is inert for K⁺ storage, therefore the capacity in the SnS₂/N-rGO is mainly contributed by SnS₂. However, the pristine SnS₂ electrode shows a poor cyclability as shown in Figure S11. Its initial capacity is 320.9 mAh g⁻¹ and it rapidly reduces to 50 mAh g⁻¹ after 10 cycles. When SnS₂ is coupled with rGO, the discharge capacity increases to 842.9 mAh g⁻¹ in Figure S12. RGO improves the conductivity of the composite and it also separates SnS₂ particles and thus inhibits the aggregation of SnS₂ particles to some extent but not completely. However, the capacity decays steadily and the capacity is below 400 mAh g⁻¹ after 50 cycles. The capacity decay is attributed to aggregation of SnS₂ particles and dissolution of polysulfide. This comparison between SnS₂/rGO and SnS₂/N-rGO distinctly confirms the effect of N-doping on improving the capacity and cyclability by immobilizing SnS₂ particles and polysulfide intermediate at cathode. EIS results before and after 20 cycles are consistent with the effect, Figure S13. Their initial impedance spectra before cycling are similar. After 20 cycles, the impedance of SnS₂/N-rGO is much smaller than the rest. TEM images of the SnS₂/N-rGO and SnS₂/rGO electrodes after 100 cycles are shown in Figure S14. The SnS₂ remains small nanoparticles dispersed on the N-doped graphene layer for SnS₂/N-rGO, however, the aggregation of particles happens for SnS₂/rGO after cycling.

The well-dispersed SnS₂ morphology also resulted in good rate capability. The electrochemical performance at various current was carried out, Figure 3c. SnS₂/N-rGO delivered a higher capacity than SnS₂/rGO. For SnS₂/N-rGO from 0.05 to 1.0 Ag⁻¹, remaining 729.1 mAh g⁻¹ to 365.5 mAh g⁻¹. When the current density returns to 50 mA g⁻¹, the capacity increases to approx. 800 mAh g⁻¹ close to the initial capacity exhibiting an impressive rate capability. At a high current density of 1 Ag⁻¹ (approx. 1.36 C), the capacity of SnS₂/N-rGO is 402 mAh g⁻¹, approx. 2-fold than that of SnS₂/rGO (200 mAh g⁻¹). The good rate capacity is attributed to the improved conductivity of SnS₂/N-rGO, and the suppression of escape of polysulfides. By

dispersing SnS_2 nanoparticles evenly between N-rGO layers, electron can be easily passed on to the SnS_2 from graphene layers and the conductivity of the composite is improved. For high rate cycling at a current density of 1 A g^{-1} , $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ shows a capacity 355 mAh g^{-1} after 200 cycles, Figure 3d.

In summary, we synthesized the $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ composite for the anode materials for a K-ion battery using a facile hydrothermal method. The N-rGO improves the conductivity of the composite and N-doping immobilizes the SnS_2 particles and polysulfide intermediate on the rGO and thus successfully inhibits the consequence of the volume change and capacity decay. $\text{SnS}_2/\text{N-rGO}$ composite shows a high reversible capacity of $645.2 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}_{\text{SnS}_2}$ at 50 mA g^{-1} and $402 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}_{\text{SnS}_2}$ at 1 A g^{-1} . In situ XRD shows that KSn forms as a final product and the soluble polysulfide intermediate might be the species that restrict the electrochemical performance. N-doping graphene might effectively alleviate the polysulfide shuttling effect and reduces the charge-transfer resistance thus it has a high capacity, superior high-rate capability, and long term cycling stability. This strategy allows people to improve and optimize the design of anode materials based on conversion and alloying reaction, which owns high capacity but low conductivity or high volume change during cycling.

Acknowledgments

This project is financially supported by 1000 Youth Talents Plan of National Natural Science Foundation of China (21603209, 51773092, 21975124), Research Foundation of State Key Lab (ZK201717), Youth Project of the Natural Science Foundation of Jiangsu Province, China (BK20171008), the China Postdoctoral Science Foundation (2019 M651813).

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords: potassium-ion batteries • tin sulfide • nitrogen-doped graphene • X-ray powder diffraction

- [1] a) T. Li, Q. Zhang, *J. Energy Chem.* **2018**, *27*, 373–374. b) H. Gao, T. Zhou, Y. Zheng, Q. Zhang, Y. Liu, J. Chen, H. Liu, Z. Guo, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* **2017**, *27*, 1702634. c) K. S. Huang, Z. Xing, L. C. Wang, X. Wu, W. Zhao, X. J. Qi, H. Wang, Z. C. Ju, *J. Mater. Chem. A* **2018**, *6*, 434–442. d) X. P. Wang, X. M. Xu, C. J. Niu, J. S. Meng, M. Huang, X. Liu, Z. Liu, L. Q. Mai, *Nano Lett.* **2016**, *17*, 544–550.
- [2] a) Y. Hironaka, K. Kubota, S. Komaba, *Chem. Commun.* **2017**, *53*, 3693–3696. b) S. Komaba, T. Hasegawa, M. Dahbi, K. Kubota, *Electrochim. Commun.* **2015**, *60*, 172–175. c) I. Sultana, M. M. Rahman, Y. Chen, A. M. Glushenkov, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* **2018**, *28*, 1703857. d) J. Y. Hwang, S. T. Myung, Y. K. Sun, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* **2018**, *28*, 1802938.

- [3] a) W. C. Zhang, J. F. Mao, S. A. Li, Z. X. Chen, Z. P. Guo, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2017**, *139*, 3316–3319. b) Z. L. Jian, W. Luo, X. L. Ji, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2015**, *137*, 11566–11569. c) J. C. Pramudita, D. Sehrawat, D. Goonetilleke, N. Sharma, *Adv. Energy Mater.* **2017**, *7*, 1602911.
- [4] a) N. Xiao, W. D. McCulloch, Y. Y. Wu, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2017**, *139*, 9475–9478. b) H. Fei, Y. Liu, Y. An, X. Xu, G. Zeng, Y. Tian, L. Ci, B. Xi, S. Xiong, J. Feng, *J. Power Sources* **2018**, *399*, 294–298.
- [5] a) W. Luo, J. Y. Wan, B. Ozdemir, W. Z. Bao, Y. N. Chen, J. Q. Dai, H. Lin, Y. Xu, F. Gu, V. Barone, L. B. Hu, *Nano Lett.* **2015**, *15*, 7671–7677. b) Y. Liu, F. F. Fan, J. W. Wang, Y. Liu, H. L. Chen, K. L. Jungjohann, Y. H. Xu, Y. J. Zhu, D. Bigio, T. Zhu, C. S. Wang, *Nano Lett.* **2014**, *14*, 3445–3452.
- [6] a) T. Ohzuku, Y. Lwakoshi, K. Sawai, *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **1993**, *140*, 2490–2498.
- [7] a) T. Ramireddy, R. Kali, M. K. Jangid, V. Srihari, H. K. Poswal, A. Mukhopadhyay, *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **2017**, *164*, 2360–2367. b) Q. N. Wang, X. X. Zhao, C. L. Ni, H. Tian, J. X. Li, Z. Zhang, S. X. Mao, J. W. Wang, Y. H. Xu, *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2017**, *121*, 12652–12657. c) D. S. Bin, S. Y. Duan, X. J. Lin, L. Liu, Y. Liu, Y. S. Xu, Y. G. Sun, X. S. Tao, A. M. Cao, L. J. Wan, *Nano Energy* **2019**, *60*, 912–918.
- [8] a) V. Lakshmi, Y. Chen, A. A. Mikhaylov, A. G. Medvedev, I. Sultana, M. M. Rahman, O. Lev, P. V. Prikhodchenko, A. M. Glushenkov, *Chem. Commun.* **2017**, *53*, 8272–8275. b) Y. Jiang, M. Wei, J. Feng, Y. Ma, S. Xiong, *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2016**, *9*, 1430–1438. c) B. H. Qu, C. Z. Ma, G. Ji, C. H. Xu, J. Xu, Y. S. Meng, T. H. Wang, J. Y. Lee, *Adv. Mater.* **2014**, *26*, 3854–3859. d) C. Zhu, X. Mu, P. A. van Aken, Y. Yu, J. Maier, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2014**, *53*, 2152–2156. e) J. Wang, C. Luo, T. Gao, A. Langrock, A. C. Mignerey, C. Wang, *Small.* **2015**, *11*, 473–481. f) Z. C. Liu, X. H. Yuan, S. S. Zhang, J. Wang, Q. H. Huang, N. F. Yu, Y. S. Zhu, L. J. Fu, F. X. Wang, Y. H. Chen, Y. P. Wu, *NPG Asia Mater.* **2019**, *11*, 12.
- [9] a) X. Yang, L. Zhang, F. Zhang, Y. Huang, Y. S. Chen, *ACS Nano* **2014**, *8*, 5208–5215. b) Z. Wang, Y. Dong, H. Li, Z. Zhao, H. B. Wu, C. Hao, S. Liu, J. Qiu, X. W. Lou, *Nat. Commun.* **2014**, *5*, 5002. c) X. Zhou, L. J. Wan, Y. G. Guo, *Adv. Mater.* **2013**, *25*, 2152–2157.
- [10] B. Luo, Y. Fang, B. Wang, J. S. Zhou, H. H. Song, L. J. Zhi, *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2012**, *5*, 5226–5230.
- [11] a) K. Share, A. P. Cohn, R. Carter, B. Rogers, C. L. Pint, *ACS Nano* **2016**, *10*, 9738–9744. b) C. Chen, Z. Wang, B. Zhang, L. Miao, J. Cai, L. Peng, Y. Huang, J. Jiang, Y. Huang, L. Zhang, J. Xie, *Energy Storage Mater.* **2017**, *8*, 161–168. c) Z. Li, Q. He, X. Xu, Y. Zhao, X. Liu, C. Zhou, D. Ai, L. Xia, L. Mai, *Adv. Mater.* **2018**, *30*, 1804089.
- [12] a) W. Shen, C. Wang, Q. Xu, H. Liu, Y. Wang, *Adv. Energy Mater.* **2015**, *5*, 1400982. b) W. Luo, F. Li, J.-J. Gaumet, P. Magri, S. Diliberto, L. Zhou, L. Mai, *Adv. Energy Mater.* **2018**, *8*, 1703237. c) J. Bai, B. Xi, H. Mao, Y. Lin, X. Ma, J. Feng, S. Xiong, *Adv. Mater.* **2018**, *30*, 1802310. d) G. Zhou, E. Paek, G. S. Hwang, A. Manthiram, *Nat. Commun.* **2015**, *6*, 7760.
- [13] a) H. Hu, Z. B. Zhao, W. B. Wan, Y. Gogotsi, J. S. Qiu, *Adv. Mater.* **2013**, *25*, 2219–2223. b) Y. Zhang, P. Zhu, L. Huang, J. Xie, S. Zhang, G. Cao, X. Zhao, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* **2015**, *25*, 481–489.
- [14] G. Bieker, J. Wellmann, M. Kolek, K. Jalkanen, M. Winter, P. Bieker, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* **2017**, *19*, 11152–11162.
- [15] a) X. Lu, M. E. Bowden, V. L. Sprengle, J. Liu, *Adv. Mater.* **2015**, *27*, 5915–5922. b) Q. Zhao, Y. Hu, K. Zhang, J. Chen, *Inorg. Chem.* **2014**, *53*, 9000–9005. c) Q. Zou, Z. Liang, G. Y. Du, C. Y. Liu, E. Y. Li, Y. C. Lu, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2018**, *140*, 10740–10748. d) S. S. Zhang, *J. Power Sources* **2013**, *231*, 153–162.

Manuscript received: July 25, 2019
Revised manuscript received: September 15, 2019
Accepted manuscript online: September 25, 2019
Version of record online: October 21, 2019