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In Situ Study of Lithiation and Delithiation of MoS₂ Nanosheets Using Electrochemical Liquid Cell Transmission Electron Microscopy

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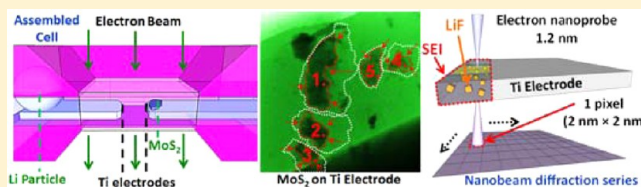
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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: We report the observation of lithiation/delithiation of MoS₂ nanosheets in a LiPF₆/EC/DEC commercial electrolyte for the application of lithium-ion batteries using electrochemical liquid cell transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Upon discharge in a voltage range of 1.8–1.2 V, MoS₂ on the Ti electrode underwent irreversible decomposition resulting in fragmentation of the MoS₂ nanosheets into 5–10 nm MoS₂ nanoparticles. Repeated experiments also show that some MoS₂ nanosheets do not decompose upon lithiation. Instead, lithiation induced structural expansion and deformation has been observed. A solid–electrolyte interface (SEI) was formed on the anode side of the Ti electrode in contact with Li metal. The SEI layer is composed of LiF nanocrystals distributed within the entire layer with the constituent elements C, O, and F. However, no passivation film was observed on the cathode side of the Ti electrode with MoS₂ nanosheets on it. Such an in situ electrochemical liquid cell TEM study sheds light on battery degradation mechanisms.

KEYWORDS: Liquid cell TEM, electrochemical liquid cell, solid electrolyte interface, MoS₂, lithium-ion batteries



Layered MoS₂ is an attractive electrode material for lithium-ion batteries.^{1,2} For example, MoS₂ can be used as an anode material with high theoretical capacity of 1290 mAh g^{−1}.³ Compared to other anode materials, such as silicon,^{4–8} germanium,⁹ or nickel oxides,¹⁰ MoS₂ has less volume expansion¹ (103% as compared with silicon, which has a volume change of 400% upon insertion and extraction of lithium⁸), and consequently lower rates of cycling induced degradation are possible. However, when lithium ions are inserted between the layers of MoS₂, the MoS₂ structure can be exfoliated using ultrasonication treatment of lithiated MoS₂ in H₂O.^{11,12} In addition, electrochemical degradation may be induced by the active material loss when MoS₂ is used as the cathode material.¹³ In situ observation of lithiation and delithiation of MoS₂ as the electrode material provides critical insight regarding the degradation mechanisms of this material for battery applications.

In situ liquid cell transmission electron microscopy (TEM) has enabled imaging of chemical reactions in liquids with high spatial resolution.^{14–17} This technique has facilitated the opportunity to address important questions related to the electrode–electrolyte interfaces in lithium-ion batteries in a number of studies.^{18–23} For example, the lithiation and delithiation of fully submerged Si nanowire electrodes during electrochemical testing has been demonstrated using an

electrochemical liquid cell TEM.¹⁸ It has also been reported, using an in situ graphene liquid cell TEM, that the first lithiation of Si nanoparticle leads to anisotropic volume expansion favoring the <110> directions, followed by isotropic expansion.¹⁹ The preferential volume expansion and fracture are also confirmed by ex situ scanning electron microscopy (SEM) characterization using crystalline Si nanopillars as the investigating object.^{4,5} Lithium insertion and extraction dynamics and the degradation of LiFePO₄ have been observed using a combination of liquid cell TEM imaging, spectroscopy, and theoretical calculations,²⁰ which are very useful supplementary findings to atomic imaging of lithium staging in partially delithiated LiFePO₄²⁴ and random solid solution zone in LiFePO₄ electrode.²⁵ Other studies include the breakdown of a range of inorganic/salt complexes relevant to the state-of-the-art Li-ion battery systems by in situ scanning TEM (STEM)²¹ and the formation of a solid–electrolyte interface (SEI) on graphite and gold using a standard battery electrolyte in a liquid cell under TEM.^{22,23} Recently, with our newly designed electrochemical liquid TEM cells, images of the inhomogeneous lithiation of a Au electrode, dynamic dendritic growth of

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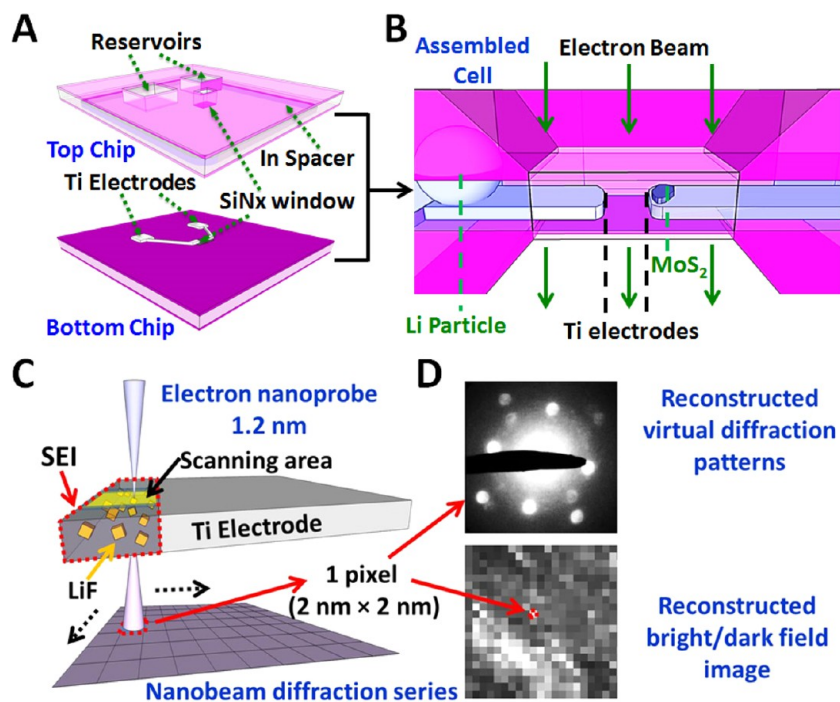


Figure 1. A schematic of the in situ TEM observation of MoS₂ reaction on Ti electrode by using an electrochemical liquid cell. (A) A top microchip patterned with 150 nm thick indium is bonded with the bottom microchip with 90 nm thick titanium electrodes to form a liquid cell for TEM visualization using a homemade TEM holder. (B) The window area in an electrochemical liquid cell shows MoS₂ nanosheets were loaded on the right side Ti electrode, and Li metal was loaded on the left side Ti electrode. The dynamic lithiation/delithiation reaction of MoS₂ nanosheets was captured as the electron beam passed through the SiNx window under TEM. (C) A schematic showing nanobeam diffraction characterization of SEI layer or residual MoS₂ products after the reaction. (D) An example of the reconstructed bright-field image or dark-field image from a nanobeam diffraction series with each pixel corresponding to a reconstructed virtual diffraction pattern.

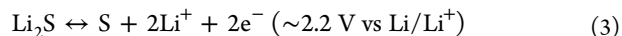
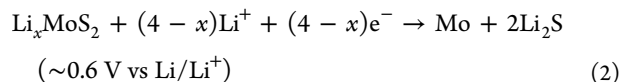
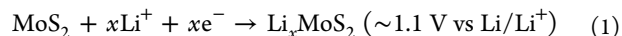
lithium metal, electrolyte decomposition, and SEI formation were captured in real time.^{26,27} Despite the progress that has been made, it is still a great challenge to study real battery systems using in situ liquid cell TEM.

Here we report the study of MoS₂ structures using a modified design of electrochemical liquid cell for TEM. We use Ti electrodes instead of Au to avoid electrode reaction with the electrolyte (LiPF₆/EC/DEC). It is also noted that we reduce the Ti electrode thickness from previous 120 to 90 nm to improve the imaging resolution of the active material on the electrode. Additionally, Ti metal has much lower atomic number than Au metal, which further benefits the image resolution. Most importantly, Li metal particles are loaded on one side of the electrode, which acts as both counter electrode and reference electrode. With MoS₂ introduced on the other electrode, it forms a real nanobattery cell, as shown in Figure 1, panels A and B. A detailed description of the experimental process for the liquid cell preparation can be found in the Supporting Information. Such a nanobattery offers the opportunity to study the reaction mechanism of MoS₂ during battery operation while imaging with TEM. We record movies at the rate of 10–75 frames per second for the in situ experiments. Further characterization, such as elemental analysis using energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) and structural identification with nanobeam diffraction, is conducted after the reaction in the liquid cell is stopped. A schematic of the nanobeam diffraction technique is shown in Figure 1, panels C and D, and more details can be found in a previous publication.²⁸

The successful loading of MoS₂ nanosheets on the Ti electrode was confirmed by the TEM imaging and diffraction

patterns of MoS₂ in the observatory window area, as shown in Figure S1. The sequential images in Figure 2 show the morphological evolution of MoS₂ under lithiation during discharge (also see Movie S1). The corresponding applied electrical potential and measured electrical current are plotted in Figure 2, panel G. Initially, five nanosheets were located in the window area on the Ti electrode. As the voltage was ramped down to 1.8 V, some structures dissolved, and the MoS₂ particles reacted vigorously with the electrolyte. As a consequence, more than 50% of MoS₂ nanoflakes decomposed in less than 5 s upon lithiation (Figure 2D–F). This can be related to other reports on the dissolution of electrode materials and the shuttling effect of lithium polysulfide in a real battery cell.²⁹ The drastic loss of MoS₂ at the applied voltage of 1.2 V is highlighted in Figure 2, panel F. The change in area of the five MoS₂ nanosheets as a function of time was extracted and plotted in Figure 2, panel H. The drastic decrease of MoS₂ during 12–18 s corresponds to the dissolution of MoS₂ in a voltage range of 1.8–1.2 V.

The discharge/charge reaction can be expressed as below:^{1,13,29}



To identify the reaction products, we did EDS mapping and selected area electron diffraction (SAED) of the reacted MoS₂

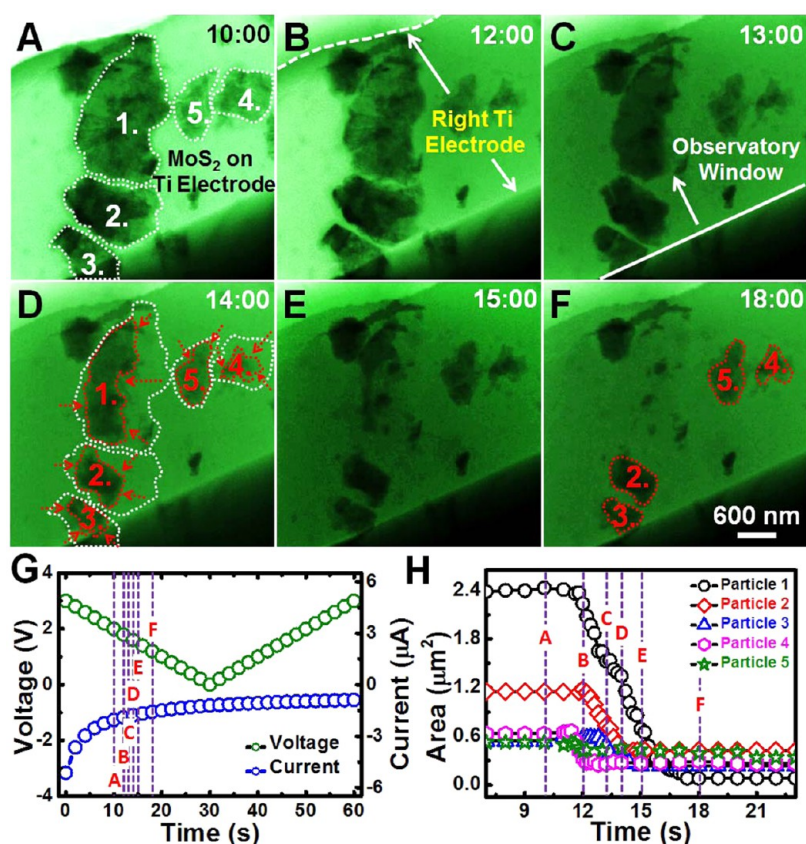


Figure 2. In situ electrochemical reaction of MoS₂ nanosheets with LiPF₆/EC/DEC electrolyte on the right side Ti electrode in a liquid cell. (A–F) Time series of TEM images show the morphological evolution of MoS₂ nanosheets during the first discharge of the cell. (G) The corresponding applied electric potential and measured electric current from panel A to panel F. (H) The change in area of five MoS₂ nanosheets as a function of time during cyclic voltammetry in the voltage range of 3–0 V at a scan rate of 0.1 V/s.

nanosheets on the Ti electrode. The composition of the residual lithiated MoS₂ nanosheets is confirmed by SAED patterns as shown in Figure S2B–F. High-angle annular dark-field (HAADF) imaging of the reacted MoS₂ nanosheets shows that some of the nanosheets have dissolved (Figure 3A). The EDS maps show evidence of Mo and S elements in the residual MoS₂ nanoflakes but not in the rest of areas (Figure 3B,C). It is noted that since the Mo L-series peak is overlapping with S K-series peak, we chose the Mo K-series (17.480 keV) to identify the presence of Mo and then applied the deconvoluted Mo L-series/S K-series peak to confirm the presence of sulfur. The EDS maps of F K-series and Ti K-series elements clearly show that F is homogeneously distributed in the whole observation window area, and the strong Ti signal coincides with the morphology of the Ti electrode in the HAADF image (Figure 3D,E). The EDS spectrum of reacted MoS₂ nanosheets from the dried liquid cell is shown in Figure S3. Figure 3, panel F shows the magnified HAADF image of the reacted MoS₂ nanosheet on the Ti electrode, and as marked with white dashed box in Figure 3, panel A, the white lamellar structures are residual MoS₂ nanosheets. In Figure 3, panel F, the area “G” marked with red dashed line is the region with a MoS₂ nanosheet on Ti electrode, and “H” is the region without MoS₂ nanosheet. Figure 3, panels G and H are the corresponding deconvoluted Mo L-series/S K-series spectra from the two regions after discharge. We can see that the intensity of Mo and S signals is decreased significantly in the region without MoS₂ nanosheets, which suggests that the MoS₂ nanosheets were decomposed and dissolved into the electro-

lyte. Although there is no obvious contrast at the regions without MoS₂ nanosheets in the HAADF STEM images, nanoparticles with diameters of 5–10 nm are visible in bright-field (BF) and low-angle annular dark-field (LAADF) using a long camera length (770 mm) in STEM to include diffraction contrast, Figure 3, panels I and J.

To identify the origin of the Mo and S signal in the region without obvious MoS₂ nanosheets, we did nanobeam diffraction in STEM mode by acquiring a series of diffraction patterns at each pixel in the scanned area. From the diffraction series (Figure 3K), we reconstructed the BF image (Figure 3L). We chose a region with 16 pixels from one of the nanoparticles marked by the red box “M” and reconstructed a virtual diffraction pattern from these pixels shown in Figure 3, panel M. The lattice spacings of 2.72 and 1.61 Å are achieved, which are assigned to {100} and {110} planes of MoS₂, respectively. Therefore, the residual nanoparticles are MoS₂. We also chose another region outside of nanoparticle, which is marked by the red box “N” and reconstructed a virtual diffraction pattern (Figure 3N). The lattice spacing of 2.33 Å was obtained, which matches Ti {110} lattice. In addition, by selecting a single diffraction spot marked in Figure 3, panels M and N, we can create virtual dark field images, as shown in Figure 3, panels O and P. It is clear that Ti electrode has a small grain size and may have polycrystalline regions, as evident from the diffraction pattern. This analysis indicates that even if the MoS₂/Li cell undergoes a deep discharge process at 0 V, the detectable residual is only MoS₂. As to why Mo or Li₂S is not detected (see eq 2 as a reference), we propose two possibilities. (1) The

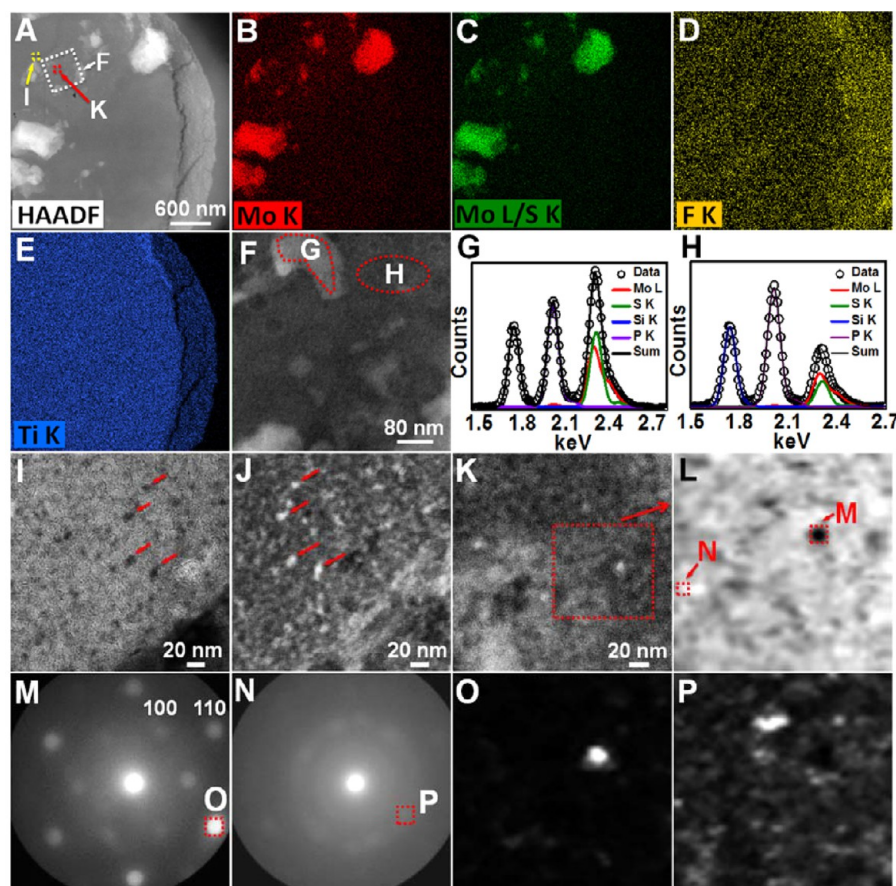


Figure 3. More detailed characterization of the residual MoS₂ on the right side Ti electrode. (A) HAADF image showing the reacted MoS₂ nanosheets and the corresponding elemental distribution from EDS mapping. (B–E) EDS maps using different elemental edges: (B) Mo K-series; (C) Mo L-series/S K-series; (D) F K-series; (E) Ti K-series. (F) Magnified HAADF image of as indicated with the white dashed box in panel A. (G) Deconvoluted spectra of Mo L-series/S K-series peak in the region with MoS₂ nanosheets and (H) a region without visible MoS₂ nanosheets. (I) BF TEM image of the residual particles on Ti electrode with particle size of 5–10 nm showing the darker contrast compared with Ti electrode background. (J) The corresponding STEM image using a long camera length (770 nm) to include diffraction contrast, and particles appear to be lighter. (K) Long camera length (770 nm) STEM image with nanobeam diffraction series acquired in the marked red dash box area. (L) The reconstructed BF image obtained from the diffraction series. (M) Reconstructed virtual diffraction patterns from the marked region with 16 pixels in panel L. (N) Reconstructed virtual diffraction patterns from the marked region with 9 pixels in panel L. (O) Virtual dark-field image reconstructed by selecting single diffraction spot marked in panel M. (P) Virtual dark-field image reconstructed by selecting single diffraction spot marked in panel N.

MoS₂ nanosheets break into small MoS₂ nanoparticles because of lithium ion intercalation induced stress during fast discharging/charging process. On the basis of the previous experimental results,¹¹ when the discharge cutoff voltage was set at 0.9 V (close to the discharge plateau at 1.1 V, as shown in Figure S15), the discharge reaction only proceeded to the first step, that is, $\text{MoS}_2 + x\text{Li}^+ + xe^- \rightarrow \text{Li}_x\text{MoS}_2$ (1.1 V vs Li/Li⁺). After ultrasonication in deionized water, the product was exfoliated into single layers of MoS₂ nanosheets. Therefore, under the first step discharge reaction, the gap between two layers of MoS₂ has intercalated enough lithium ions to increase the layer distance and weaken the van der Waals force between the layers. It is clear that it is much easier to break a thin layer of MoS₂ into particles than bulk form of MoS₂. In this respect, the reaction of $\text{MoS}_2 + x\text{Li}^+ + xe^- \rightarrow \text{Li}_x\text{MoS}_2$ (1.1 V vs Li/Li⁺) plays a critical role in the particles breaking up. (2) MoS₂ nanosheets can also decompose into amorphous Mo and Li₂S, which has been observed for a range of conversion electrodes both during lithiation and sodiation.^{29–32} However, only the former scenario can be detected using nanobeam diffraction.

We found that some MoS₂ nanosheets decompose upon lithiation, while the others remain and experience structural changes, that is, swelling or deformation. The variation of the MoS₂ nanosheets during lithiation may result from the MoS₂ thickness difference or inhomogeneity during lithiation. Figure 4, panel A shows another representative structure change of MoS₂ during first discharge/charge process on the right side working electrode (also see Movie S2 and Figure S4). Upon lithiation, a reaction front is introduced, which is marked with a red arrow, as indicated in Figure 4, panel A; the reaction front propagates fast and sweeps across two large and thick MoS₂ layered nanosheets. The surrounding area of MoS₂ nanosheets becomes dark and blurry, which may result from the generation and diffusion of reaction products into the surrounding area. Eventually, the reacted areas of two MoS₂ nanosheets are merged in a cloud of reaction zone. The expansion of the MoS₂ nanosheets as a function of lithiation time has been plotted in Figure S4F. Additionally, we have also captured the dynamic movement of a wavy front of MoS₂ nanosheets in Figure 4, panel B (marked in the sequential images in Figure S5, also see Movie S3). These wavy surfaces in the reaction front indicate

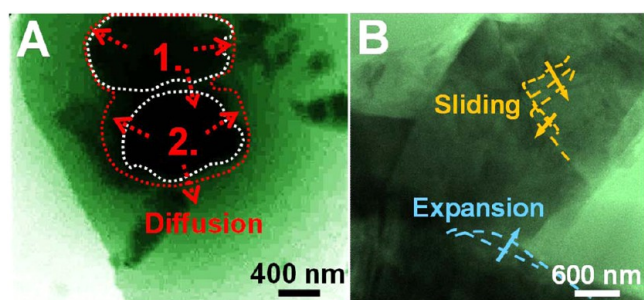


Figure 4. Other two representative structure changes of MoS₂ during first discharge/charge process on the working electrode. (A) Diffusion and (B) swelling deformation.

structural deformation during lithiation, which can result from sliding motion of slabs with respect to each other, changing of sites of the Mo atoms associated with Fermi surface nesting, and the John-Teller effect.^{33–35}

In addition to the reactions of MoS₂ on the right side Ti electrode, which acts as the working electrode, we have also characterized the reactions on the left side Ti electrode, which is in contact with Li metal as the counter and reference electrode. From the extracted time series of TEM images shown in Figure 5, panels A–D (see more details in Movie S4), the thickness of SEI layer on the leading edge of the Ti electrode or MoS₂ nanosheets is observed to slowly increase as the voltage program proceeds (Figure 5F). This observation is consistent with our previous work on the lithiation of Au.²⁶ Figure 5, panel E is the corresponding applied electrical potential and measured electrical current from panel A to panel D. To analyze the components of SEI on the Ti electrode in contact with the Li anode, we did EDS mapping on the edge of the patterned rectangular Ti strip on the left side Ti electrode. The SEI layer has a thickness of 200 nm. The EDS maps show that besides the Ti signal from the electrode, there are signals from the elements C, O, and F in the SEI film (Figure 6B–E). In Figure 6, panel F, the EDS line scan shows raw X-ray counts from the different elements (C, O, Ti, F) as a function of distance into the SEI film on this Ti anode.

We have done further measurements to identify the composition and structure of SEI on the anode. It has been assumed that the SEI on the negative electrode of the Li-metal and Li-ion cells is composed of two distinct layers:^{36–38} a compact inner layer with polycrystalline or heteromorphous inorganic products (e.g., Li₂CO₃, LiF, Li₂O) adjacent to the electrode material, and an outer layer with porous and amorphous partially reduced organic products (e.g., (CH₂OCO₂Li)₂, ROLi, ROCO₂Li). The inner layer was expected to be at least 1.5–2 nm in thickness, and the outer layer could be on the order of 100 nm thick.³⁶ However, our nanobeam diffraction experiments show that the whole SEI is amorphous matrix with distributed LiF nanocrystals. Figure 6, panel G shows HAADF image of Ti electrode with SEI layer and the red dash box indicating the nanobeam scanning area of SEI. Figure 6, panel H is the reconstructed BF image originating from the acquired nanobeam diffraction series. The reconstructed diffraction patterns corresponding to the regions marked with “I” and “J” in Figure 6, panels I and J indicate the presence of LiF nanocrystals with different zone axis indexed as [110] and [001]. In addition, by selecting a single diffraction spot marked in Figure 6, panels I and J, we can create virtual dark-field images (Figure 6K,L), and the results confirm that the LiF nanocrystals are distributed within the whole SEI layer. It is also noted that there might be other inorganic components (e.g., Li₂CO₃, Li₂O), which could be amorphous or crystalline but not oriented in a diffracting condition, and thus would be invisible in the nanobeam diffraction experiment. It is noted that since the Ti electrode is not reactive to the LiPF₆/EC/DEC electrolyte, the formation of SEI should be stepwise from preferential reduction of certain electrolyte components.³⁹ On the contrary, the lithium metal electrode appears to react with the electrolyte, and SEI forms instantaneously. Consequently, the reduction of electrolyte components should be indiscriminate to all species.⁴⁰ The detection of protective films on the cathode surface has not been as straightforward as that of the SEI on the anode.³⁹ Our observation provides the direct evidence for the formation of SEI on the anode instead of the cathode, which is valuable for the understanding of the electrochemical process in general.

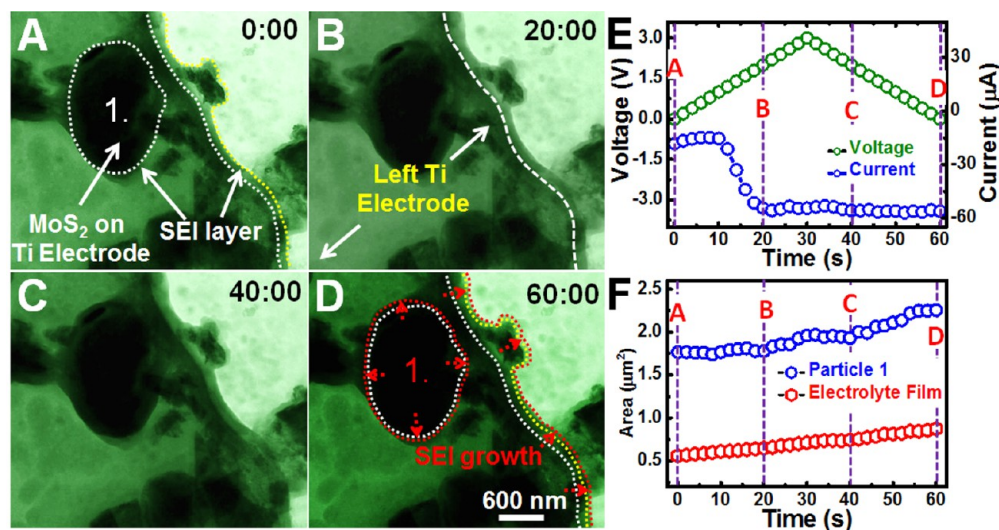


Figure 5. SEI formation on the left side Ti electrode, which is in contact with the Li metal. (A–D) Time series of TEM images showing the growth of SEI film on MoS₂ nanosheets and at the edge of the Ti electrode. (E) The corresponding applied electric potential and measured electric current from panel A to panel D. (F) Change in area of SEI layer.

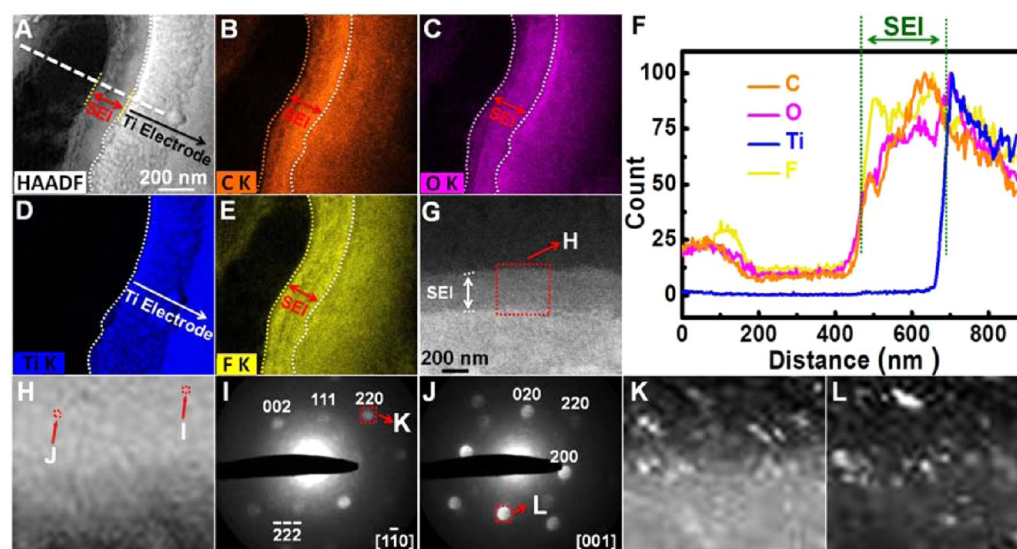


Figure 6. More detailed characterization of the SEI layer on the left side Ti electrode. (A) HAADF image of the Ti electrode with SEI film passivated on it. (B–E) The corresponding EDS maps of different elements using different EDS edges: (B) C K-series; (C) O K-series; (D) Ti K-series; (E) F K-series. (F) EDS line scan starting from SiNx membrane across the SEI layer and ending on the Ti electrode, marked in panel A. (G) HAADF image of the SEI layer formed on Ti electrode with red dash box indicating nanobeam diffraction acquiring area. (H) Reconstructed BF image obtained from the diffraction series. (I, J) Reconstructed virtual diffraction patterns selected from regions marked “I” and “J” in panel H. (K) Virtual dark-field image reconstructed using the selected single diffraction spot in panel I. (L) Virtual dark-field image reconstructed using the selected single diffraction spot in panel J.

Lastly, we note that electron beam effects are unavoidable in TEM experiments.^{21,41} Nevertheless, beam damage can be minimized with reduced total electron dose during imaging. Our control experiments confirm that the irreversible decomposition of MoS₂ and dissolution of reaction products generated during lithiation reaction is not caused by e-beam. For all experiments, we make sure that without an applied cyclic voltammetry, there is no change in the MoS₂ nanosheets or other observable reactions.

In summary, we have performed a systematical study of MoS₂ lithiation reaction using electrochemical liquid cell TEM. A nanobattery cell with the commercial battery electrolyte LiPF₆/EC/DEC and Li metal on one electrode as counter and reference electrode was achieved. Dynamic dissolution and lithiation induced deformation of MoS₂ during charge in the voltage range of 1.8–1.2 V were captured. Irreversible decomposition near 1.1 V was observed, where MoS₂ nanosheets broke down into 5–10 nm MoS₂ nanoparticles as confirmed by nanobeam diffraction experiments. We also observed the SEI formation on the Ti anode in contact with Li metal during charge/discharge process. The composition and structure of SEI were characterized using EDS and nanobeam diffraction, which show that the SEI layer is composed of C, O, and F species with LiF nanocrystals distributed in the entire SEI layer. This in situ study of MoS₂ decomposition during lithiation in battery operation provides insights on improving the battery design and applications of transition metal dichalcogenides in related energy devices.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

● Supporting Information

Materials and methods. TEM images and SAED patterns of MoS₂ nanosheets loaded on Ti electrode in electrochemical liquid cell. EDS spectrum from an area with the reacted MoS₂ nanosheets on Ti electrode in electrochemical liquid cell. Time-lapse of TEM images showing the reaction and dissolution of

thick MoS₂ nanoflakes on Ti electrode, and showing morphological evolution of MoS₂ nanosheets during the initial reaction with the electrolyte. Movie of lithiation of MoS₂ nanosheets under cyclic voltammetry. Movie of the reaction and dissolution of thick MoS₂ nanosheets on Ti electrode under cyclic voltammetry. Movie of the reaction and phase transition of MoS₂ nanosheets involves a slipping of slabs in the MoS₂ crystal during lithiation/delithiation. Movie of slow growth of SEI film on Ti electrode and MoS₂ nanosheets under cyclic voltammetry. The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.nanolett.5b02483.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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