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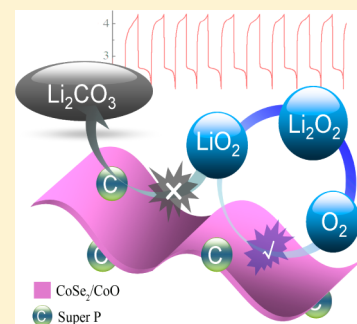
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Insight into Enhanced Cycling Performance of Li–O₂ Batteries Based on Binary CoSe₂/CoO Nanocomposite ElectrodesShanmu Dong,[†] Shan Wang,[†] Jing Guan,[†] Shanming Li,[‡] Zhenggang Lan,[†] Chun Chen,[§] Chaoqun Shang,[†] Lixue Zhang,[†] Xiaogang Wang,[†] Lin Gu,^{*,‡} Guanglei Cui,^{*,†} and Liquan Chen[‡][†]Qingdao Key Lab of Solar Energy Utilization and Energy Storage Technology, Qingdao Institute of Bioenergy and Bioprocess Technology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Qingdao 266101, People's Republic of China[‡]Institute of Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100090, People's Republic of China[§]Department of Chemistry, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing 102488, People's Republic of China

S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: In this study, binary core–shell CoSe₂/CoO nanocomposites are synthesized as cathodic electrodes for the Li–O₂ cell, which exhibits enhanced cycle performance. From theoretical calculations, aberration-corrected scanning transmission electron microscopy observation, and gas chromatography mass spectrum verification, we propose that an enhanced cycle performance can be attributed to the improvement of the compatibility of the cathode/Li₂O₂ interface, which results from preferable interaction between Li₂O₂ intermediates and the CoO “shell” and then reduction of interfacial Li₂CO₃ formation on the carbon surface. Furthermore, our findings demonstrate that the CoSe₂ “core” may impact the electronic structure of surface metal ions, generating a superior cycling performance than that of pristine CoO materials. These results will offer some critical insights into the mechanistic process of Li–O₂ batteries.

SECTION: Energy Conversion and Storage; Energy and Charge Transport



The lithium–air battery, which has a theoretical energy density comparable with that of gasoline, has been considered one of the most promising energy storage devices for electric vehicles.^{1–3} However, high overpotential and short cycle life pose ever-increasing challenges to the currently investigated Li–O₂ cell.^{2–6} Since the cell failure originating from electrolyte decomposition and consequently cathode interfacial passivation has been demonstrated by several groups,^{7–10} substantial research has been carried out to find a more stable electrolyte.^{11–13} Although the desirable discharge product Li₂O₂ has been detected in these electrolytes, the problem of limited cycle life remains unsolved.^{14,15} As pointed out by P. G. Bruce et al., the enhanced lifespan of Li–O₂ batteries relies on the synergy of the electrolyte, discharge products, and cathodic electrode rather than each in isolation.¹⁶ Consequently, the exploration of a cathode with a favorable interface toward electrolyte and discharge products is also of extreme importance to enhance the overall cycle performance.

Recently, the investigation of the electrocatalytic role of a cathodic electrode in the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) in a nonaqueous system has raised controversial arguments. Several authors have reported electrocatalysts exhibiting an excellent property in catalyzing the Li₂O₂ decomposition and lowering the overpotential,^{17–20} while, according to Luntz et al., the reduced overpotential is indicative of the electrocatalysis related to electrolyte decomposition and that a conventional electrocatalyst may be implausible.^{21,22} To bridge the two schools of thoughts, two recent studies offered possible explanations. Yang

et al. suggested that the OER occurs in two distinct stages during the charging process.²³ The first stage at low overpotential with a sloping voltage profile is relatively insensitive to catalysts, while the second stage at high overpotential is lowered significantly with the presence of catalysts. The study by Nazar et al. reported a similar charging process.²⁴ In their work, Co₃O₄/RGO was considered as a so-called “promoter” to change interfacial transport of Li_xO₂ species on cathode materials, rather than as a conventional electrocatalyst to lower the activation energy through electron transfer. However, it is a challenge to provide convincing proof to explain how Co₃O₄ modifies the interfacial transport of Li₂O₂ intermediates. Therefore, further studies are required to elucidate the reaction taking place on the cathode/Li₂O₂ interface during the charge and discharge process. Furthermore, after 20 cycles, the enhanced cycle performance is overwhelmed by the deposition of side products, which suggests that Co₃O₄ may not be the optimal material to enhance the cycling stability. Nowadays, Co₃O₄ has been widely investigated for Li–O₂ battery cathodes,^{24–26} while other chalcogenide materials with a similar electronic structure, such as sulfide and selenide, are rarely explored and could also be expected to deliver better performance.

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Herein, we report an enhanced cycle performance of a Li–O₂ battery based on a binary core–shell CoSe₂/CoO nanocomposite (CSCO) electrode obtained from a cobalt selenide nanobelt. Aberration-corrected scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) is involved to visually characterize the presence of O vacancies on the surface of a CoO shell. In combination with theoretical calculations, our findings suggest that the surface of this nanocomposite may deliver favorable sites for the chemical adsorption of Li₂O₂ intermediates and consequently reduce the accumulation of Li₂CO₃ on carbon materials. This study demonstrates a novel Co-based binary nanocomposite cathode with enhanced interfacial stability and provides new insights into the mechanism of Li–O₂ batteries with enhanced cycling performance.

The binary CSCO was synthesized through in situ oxidation of a cobalt selenide nanobelt, which provided a firm contact of the two compounds.²⁷ By investigating the rechargeability of CSCO with various proportions of Se/O, the optimized annealing time was determined as 4 h. Figure 1a exhibits the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the nanocomposite. The reflections index to a mixture of the cubic CoSe₂ phase (JCPDS 65-3327) and the cubic rocksalt CoO phase (JCPDS 43-1004), suggesting the formation of a binary nanocomposite. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images (Figure 1b) reveal that the CSCO partly maintained the nanobelt morphology of the cobalt selenide precursor (See Figure S1, Supporting Information), while some shrinkage of the smooth surface arising from lattice structure recrystallization was also observed. An image of high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) in Figure 1c displays core/shell structures with the CoSe₂ core nearly fully wrapped by coating the CoO layer. EDX mapping results further confirm this core–shell structure (see Figure S2, Supporting Information). However, the partial oxidation of CoSe₂ results in a nonuniform morphology of the shell layer. The observed and calculated *d*-spacings from regions A and B are 0.340 and 0.148 nm, which matches well with the *d*-spacing of {111} facets of CoO and {210} facets of CoSe₂, respectively.

O vacancies on the surface of electrode materials are critical to the reaction of oxygen electrocatalysis.^{28,29} However, there are still limited reports visually illustrating O vacancies of the cathode for the Li–O₂ cell at atomic resolution through aberration-corrected STEM. As shown in the annular bright-field micrographs of the CoO shell, the long-range order of the CoO crystal is destroyed by the edge of the surface, which is considered as surface reconstructions driven by suboxides (Figure 1d,e). Further evidence is displayed in the line profile along the [100] axis; the O vacancy concentration gradually increases from the inner to outer surface (Figure 1f,g). According to Nazar et al., the oxygen vacancies on the oxides can serve as an active center for binding the Li₂O₂ intermediates and thus facilitating the charging process.³⁰ The results in this study visually demonstrated the presence of O vacancies on the surface of CSCO, which may contribute to a favorable interface for the cathode reaction process.

To investigate the electrochemical performance, the O₂ electrode were prepared by mixing the CSCO with 40% Super P (SP) and 10% binder. The 1 M LiTFSI/triethylene glycol dimethyl ether (TEGDME) was employed as an electrolyte. A lithium metal anode, a glass fiber separator, and the binary nanocomposite cathode were assembled into Swagelok cells. Figure 2a depicts the galvanostatic charge–discharge curves of the CoSe₂/CoO/SP (CSCO/SP) electrode.

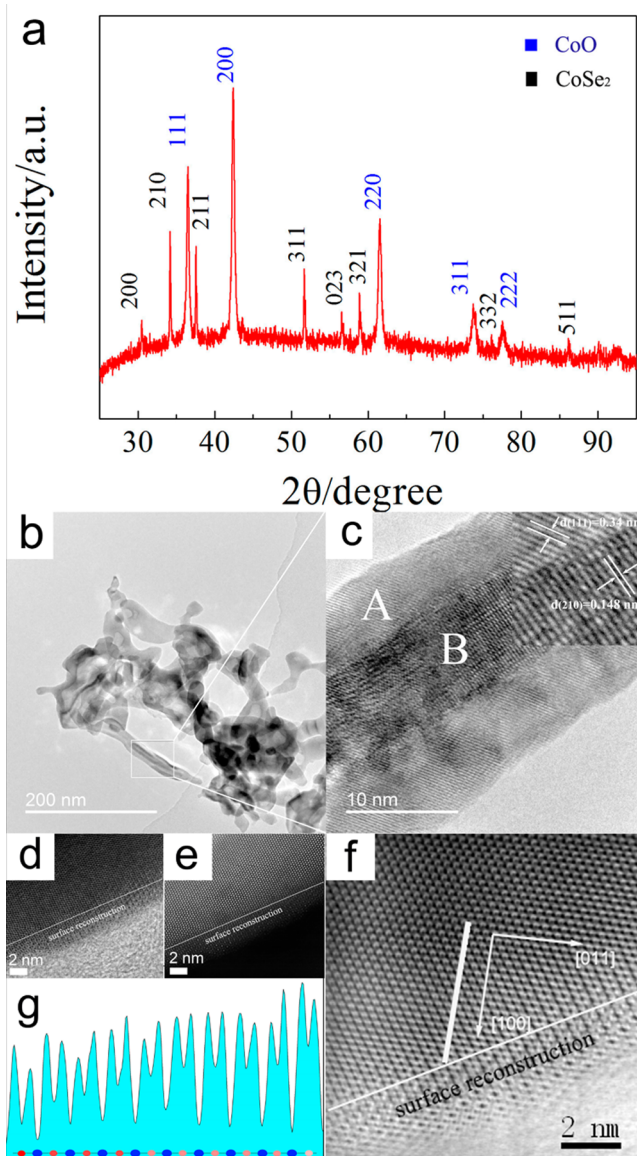


Figure 1. (a) XRD pattern of the as-prepared binary Co-based chalcogenide nanocomposites; TEM (b) and HRTEM (c) images of CSCO. Regions A and B indicate the shell of CoO and the core of CoSe₂ as the *d*-spacings matched well with those of {111} facets of CoO and {210} facets of CoSe₂, respectively. Aberration-corrected STEM images of CSCO; (d) annular bright-field and (e) corresponding high-angle annular dark-field images of the CoO shell layer. (f) The white line indicates where the line profile is located, and the direction of the line profile is taken along the [100] direction. (g) The line profile along the Co–O–Co chains in (f). The blue and red circles indicate Co and O ions, respectively. The lighter red circle indicates the presence of oxygen vacancies.

In the first cycle, a discharge capacity of about 1500 mA h g^{−1} could be delivered with a plateau between 2.7 and 2.6 V at a current density of 0.1 mA cm^{−2}. This capacity seems to be moderate compared with those in recent studies. However, high capacities reported in recent studies were always obtained with low loading amount (less than 1 mg/cm² and some of them even lower than 0.5 mg/cm²), which are less than 25% of that in our studies (4 mg/cm²). XRD patterns (Figure 2b) of the discharged electrode demonstrate the formation of Li₂O₂. Furthermore, toroid-shaped particles were found on the

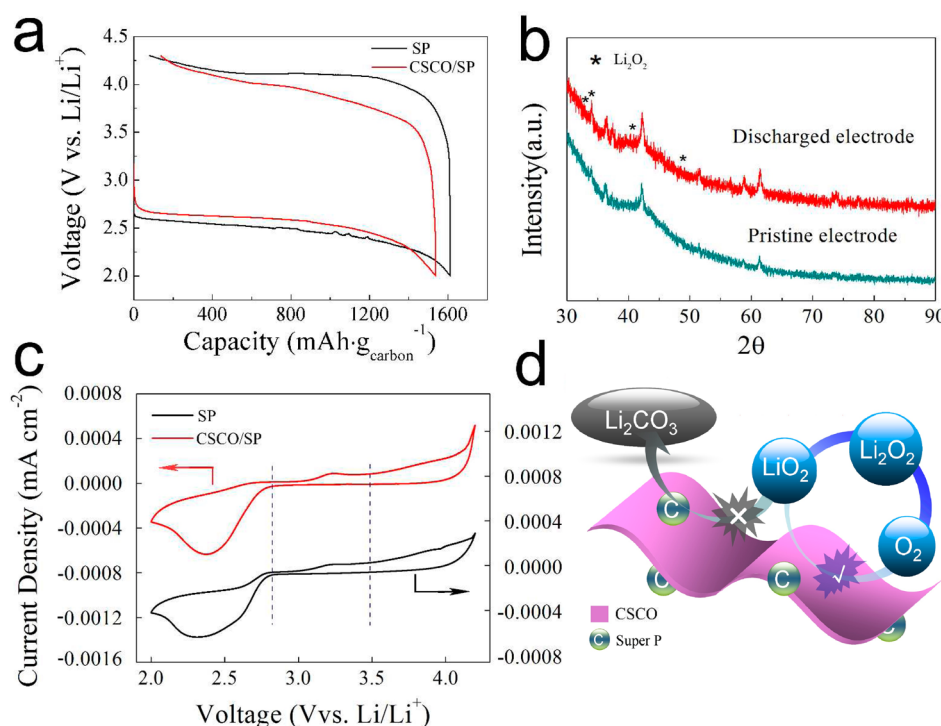


Figure 2. (a) The first cycle discharge–charge profiles of SP (black) and CSCO/SP (red) electrodes at a current density of 0.1 mA/cm². (b) XRD patterns of the pristine CSCO/SP electrodes (blue) and after first discharge (red). Reflections of Li₂O₂ are marked. (c) CV curves of SP (black) and CSCO/SP (red) at a scan rate of 0.5 mV s⁻¹. (d) Schematic illustration of the proposed CSCO/SP reaction mechanism in Li–O₂ batteries. The CSCO may offer a favorable site for the chemical adsorption of Li₂O₂ intermediates during the charging process and limit the contact of Li₂O₂ intermediates with carbon materials, which facilitates the cycle of Li₂O₂ reversible decomposition and limits the accumulation of Li₂CO₃ caused by carbon oxidation.

electrode surface, which are recognized as typically shaped of Li₂O₂ (see Figure S3, Supporting Information). It should be noted that the discharge profile of CSCO/SP is similar to that of the SP cathode (based on the mass of carbon), indicating a comparable electrocatalytic activity of both cathodes toward O₂ reduction. Cycle voltammetry (CV) curves in Figure 2c also confirm this finding. During the charging process, the CSCO distinctly impacts the O₂ OER in galvanostatic charge–discharge analysis as the CSCO/SP electrode exhibits a lower charge plateau than that of the SP electrode. On the other hand, the onset potential in CV for recharging is similar for both cathodes. These results are in accordance with the findings reported by Nazar et al.²⁴ However, up to now, it is still a challenge to confirm the exact location of Li₂O₂ on the cathode surface (see Figure S4a, Supporting Information).

To approach the possible mechanism for the OER catalytic activity of CSCO, the recent study on carbon cathode (Bruce et al.) may offer major implications.¹⁶ According to their report, during the charging process, carbon materials decompose to form Li₂CO₃ arising from a reaction involving the intermediate of Li₂O₂, which is generally proposed as LiO₂.^{16,23,31–33} Because the superoxide is a strong nucleophile, hydrophilic carbon with a more polar surface (such as C–O, COOH) is more reactive for nucleophilic attack. These results inspire us to theoretically investigate the interfacial stability of the CSCO/SP electrode. Using the density functional theory (DFT) method, the chemical adsorption of the superoxide on the surface of carbon materials and binary Co-based nanocomposites is investigated. Because CoO exists in the shell of the CSCO, the analysis of LiO₂ surface adsorption behavior is carried out by calculating the optimum adsorption mode and strength of

interaction of LiO₂ onto CoO and an SP surface. We calculate the optimum adsorption mode and strength of interaction of LiO₂ onto various cobalt oxide surfaces, including Co–CoO(111), O–CoO(111), CoO(100), and CoO(110). As demonstrated in Figure 3, the adsorption of molecular LiO₂ follows some general patterns, in which LiO₂ oxygen atoms interact with surface Co cations and the Li atom interacts with surface basic O²⁻ sites. On the basis of our DFT calculations, it is observed that the exothermicity for LiO₂ adsorption on various surfaces increases in the order of Co–CoO(111) >

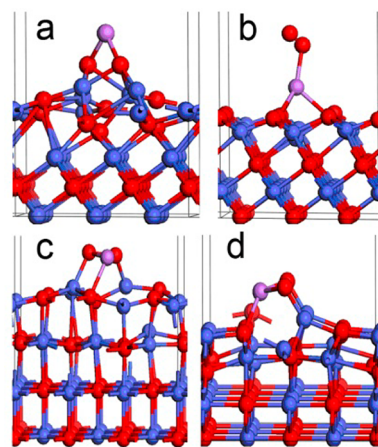


Figure 3. Side views of the most stable adsorption configurations of LiO₂ on Co–CoO(111) (a), O–CoO(111) (b), CoO(100) (c), and CoO(110) (d) surfaces.

CoO(110) > CoO(100) > O–CoO(111) (detailed information of the computational calculations is shown in the Supporting Information section S6.3). The Super P carbon black is comprised of a chain-like structure of interconnected carbon particles. Within each particle, a carbon-like nanostructure composed mainly of sp^2 -hybridized carbon atoms is observed. In this study, the graphite model is used to mimic the frameworks of Super P carbon black and systematically investigate the adsorption of LiO_2 onto the Super P surface. To demonstrate the high selectivity of cobalt oxide for LiO_2 adsorption, the adsorption energies of LiO_2 on both pristine and OH-functionalized graphite sheets are calculated and compared with the adsorption of LiO_2 on these cobalt oxides (see Figure S7, Supporting Information). We found that the binding energy of LiO_2 onto the CoO surface (-2.7 to -13.4 eV) is significantly higher than the corresponding value for carbon materials (0.1 to -0.3 eV). Furthermore, the O vacancies on the surface of CoO (illustrated in Figure 1d–g) may also serve as the binding center for superoxide.^{29,30} These results of theoretical calculation and experimental observation make us believe that LiO_2 may tend to bind with the CSCO compared to the carbon material (this supposition is different from previous reports by Nazar et al., which regard carbon as a more “sticky” material for superoxide than metal oxide²⁴). Therefore, a more stable interface is obtained on the CSCO/SP cathode as carbon materials can be protected from being preferentially oxidized by the strong nucleophilic superoxide, and thus, the interfacial formation of Li_2CO_3 by carbon decomposition can be limited (as shown in Figure 2d). Because the Li_2CO_3 layer on the cathode surface enhances the interfacial resistance,^{34,35} the presence of CSCO decreasing the amount of Li_2CO_3 can lower the overpotential during galvanostatic charging. To further demonstrate this proposal, GC-MS analyses were performed to measure the composition of the gas released at the end of the first charging cycle. Compared with the SP electrode, the presence of CSCO lowers the proportion of CO_2 that is produced by Li_2CO_3 and electrolyte decomposition with a potential above 4 V (Table 1).^{23,24,36}

Table 1. Analysis of Gas Products after First Charge Using GC-MS for Li–O₂ Batteries Based on CSCO/SP and SP Cathodes

	O ₂ (%)	CO ₂ (%)	O ₂ /CO ₂
SP	14.40	0.64	22.5
CSCO/SP	13.84	0.23	60.2

Although the side reaction of the electrolyte and LiO_2 cannot be excluded,³⁴ this result further indicates that CSCO/SP can provided a more stable interface by reducing the accumulation of Li_2CO_3 from carbon oxidation during the charge process.

According to Luntz et al., even only a layer of Li_2CO_3 accumulated on the cathode interface results in an augment of potential during the charging process and consequential electrolyte stability issues, which finally lead to cycle degradation.³⁴ Therefore, a better cycling of Li_2O_2 for CSCO/SP electrodes can be expected by lowering the amount of Li_2CO_3 at the carbon interface. Figure 4a displays charge/discharge profiles of CSCO/SP electrodes for 30 cycles. Although a gradual fading of capacity was observed, the capacity retention of $\sim 50\%$ for 30 cycles still represented a notable enhancement over SP cathodes (sharp capacity fading with less than 30% retention for 5 cycles). This result is

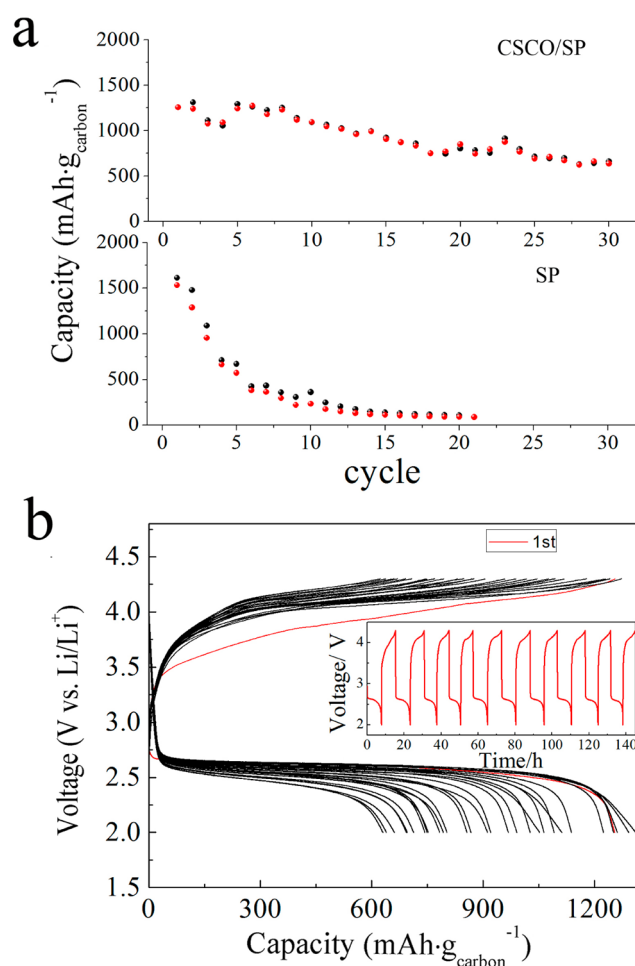


Figure 4. (a) The cycle performance of the SP cathode and CSCO/SP. (b) discharge/charge profiles of the Li–O₂ cell with CSCO/SP for 30 cycles at a current rate of 0.1 mA/cm². (Inset) Voltage–time curves of the initial 10 cycles.

consistent with our supposition that CSCO offers favorable sites for the binding of LiO_2 species and reduces the amount of Li_2CO_3 formed by carbon decomposition. Although the cycle number of this Li–O₂ cell is still limited, two aspects of the improved cycle performance deserve special highlights. First, a high Coulombic efficiency during cycles is achieved by CSCO/SP, demonstrating a stable formation/decomposition cycling process. Second, cycling was done with a deep discharge to 2 V under no restriction of charge/discharge capacity. Compared with recent studies displaying the cycling performance under no restriction of capacity, this CSCO-based Li–O₂ cell exhibited superior cycling ability.^{37–44} The high cycle numbers reported in recent studies are generally obtained by restricting the capacity. The restricted capacity is generally less than 50% of the total capacity (capacity discharged to 2 or 2.2 V). Therefore, with a low loading amount of electrode, these cycling tests can be completed in a very short period. In our case, the cycling tests were discharged to 2 V with no restricting capacity. As shown in Figure 4b, 10 cycles last for more than 140 h, which is comparable with that of some recent studies for 100 cycles.

The results displayed in Figure 5a indicate that the CoSe₂ “core” inside of the nanocomposites also impacts the interfacial stability, resulting in a superior overall cycleability. As shown in the electron energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS) spectra, the L₃/

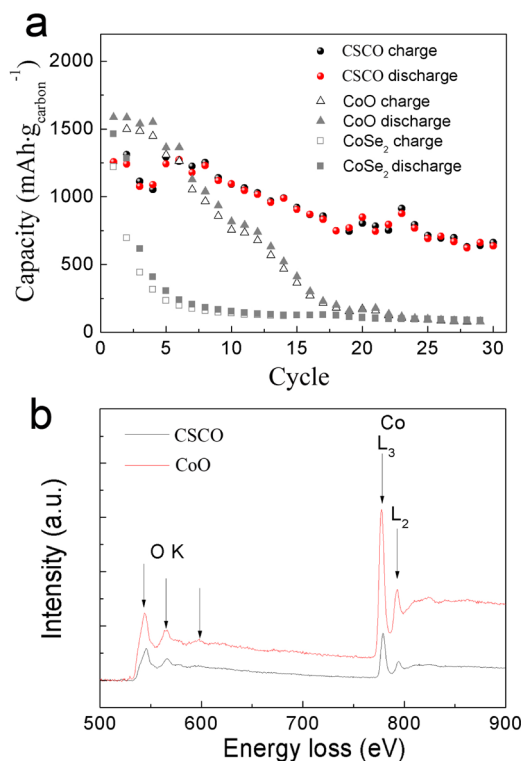


Figure 5. (a) The cycle performance of CoO-, CoSe₂-, and CSCO-based cathodes. (b) The EELS spectra of CoO and CSCO materials.

L₂ intensity ratios of Co are 1.947 and 2.438 for CoO and CoSe₂/CoO, respectively. This clear difference demonstrates a variation of the valence state of surface Co ions. Because the partial oxidation of CoSe₂ results in a nonuniform shell layer of CoO, the shell of CoO can be very thin at certain sites. Therefore, the electron may transfer from CoSe₂ to CoO, modifying the electronic structure of surface metal ions. This unique electronic structure of CSCO may offer a more favorable interface for the chemical adsorption of the intermediate of Li₂O₂ than that of simply CoO materials, reducing the accumulation of Li₂CO₃ on carbon materials and hence improving the cycle performance. Our findings indicate that the optimization of the electronic structure of surface transition-metal ions is definitely important for enhancing the interface stability and improving cycle performance of the chalcogenide-based electrode in the Li–O₂ cell.

In summary, a binary CoSe₂/CoO core–shell nanocomposite-based electrode significantly improves the cycle performance of Li–O₂ batteries, which leads to some insights into cathode processes. It is proposed that this nanocomposite might provide a more compatible interface by facilitating the chemical adsorption of Li₂O₂ intermediates. Corroborated by DFT computation, a more favorable interaction of LiO₂ with CoO than that with carbon material is demonstrated. The O vacancies are confirmed on the surface of CoO through an aberration-corrected STEM, which may also serve as the active sites for the binding of superoxide. Moreover, GC-MS analysis at the end of the charge process shows that the presence of CSCO lowers the proportion of CO₂, suggesting a reduction of the accumulation of Li₂CO₃. Owing to the “core” of CoSe₂ materials impacting the valence state of surface Co ions, CSCO-based electrodes deliver more stable interfaces and superior cycle performance than simply CoO materials. On the

basis of these investigations, we suggested that the optimization of the surface electronic structure of Co-based oxides is of vital importance for constructing a cathode reaction interface with good reversibility and cycleability. These insights will provide some implications for further fundamental research on the charging reaction process of Li–O₂ batteries.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Synthesis of CoSe₂/CoO Composites. The synthesis scheme for CSCO involved a solvothermal synthesis of cobalt selenide nanobelts and subsequent oxidation. Cobalt selenide/diethylenetriamine (DETA) nanobelts were synthesized first by a solvothermal strategy reported by Shu-Hong Yu et al.²⁷ Na₂SeO₃ and Co(Ac)₂·4H₂O were used as reactants, and a mixed solution of DETA and deionized water was used as the reaction solvent. During the heating process, DETA molecules were protonated by the water and then acted as a template to induce the growth of a 1D nanostructure (as evidenced by the SEM images Figure S1, Supporting Information). The CSCO's were obtained by treating the cobalt selenide nanobelts at 450 °C for 4 h under flowing 0.1% O₂ containing a high-purity Ar atmosphere. For comparison, CoSe₂ and CoO were synthesized by the same procedure but annealed under 100% Ar and 1% O₂ + 99% Ar, accordingly.

Physical Characterization. The XRD pattern was recorded on a Bruker-AXS Microdiffractometer (D8 ADVANCE) from 10 to 85°. Morphological and structural information were obtained from scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (HITACHI S-4800) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, JEOL 2010F). Scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) was performed on a ARM 200F transmission electron microscope (JEOL; double spherical aberration correction) operating at 200 kV. STEM images were recorded with a high-angle annular dark-field (HAADF) detector (70–250 mrad) and an annular bright-field (ABF) detector (12–25 mrad). Electron energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS) was acquired using a Gatan Imaging Filter system attached to a Tecnai F20 microscope.

Li–O₂ Cell Assembly and Tests. The cathodic electrodes (typically 1.0 mg) were prepared by mixing 50 wt % CoSe₂/CoO with 40 wt % SP and 10 wt % polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) binders or 90 wt % SP with 10 wt % PTFE. The samples were rolled into slices and cut into square pieces of 0.5 cm × 0.5 cm and then pasted on a stainless steel current collector under a pressure of 5 MPa. Electrochemical experiments were carried out by using a swagelok cell with a hole drilled only on the cathode of the current collector to enable oxygen flow in. The Li–O₂ cells were assembled inside of the glovebox under an argon atmosphere (<1 ppm H₂O and O₂) by using a clean lithium metal disk (8 mm diameter) as the anode, a glass fiber and polypropylene (Celgard 2400) as separators, and 1 M LiTFSI in TEGDME as the electrolyte. Galvanostatical discharge–charge experiments were tested in a LAND battery testing system. For the analysis of gaseous products generated during the charging step, as described by Liu et al.,¹⁹ the test cells were first discharged in an O₂ atmosphere, and then, the oxygen was completely flushed out by ultrahigh-purity Ar. A gas sample was taken from the cell to make a baseline before the charging process. Gas samples for the background analysis and produced during the charging step were analyzed by gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC-MS, ITQ1100, Thermo Fisher).

Theoretical Calculations. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP). Computational details are provided in the Supporting Information.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

■ Supporting Information

SEM image of CoSe₂/DETA, SEM image of the electrode after discharging, and computational details. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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