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# Mechanistic insight into defective molybdenum carbide as cathode catalyst in Li-CO<sub>2</sub> battery

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#### ABSTRACT

Li-CO $_2$  batteries have significant advantages, including high theoretical capacity and environmental friendliness, making them promising next-generation energy storage device with substantial capacity. However, the lack of efficient cathode catalysts hampers the rate of CO $_2$  reduction/evolution reactions (CRR/CER), significantly impeding its progress. Herein, by means of density functional theory (DFT) calculations, the potential mechanism of defective molybdenum carbide (V $_C$ -Mo $_2$ C) as cathode catalysts in Li-CO $_2$  batteries was systematically investigated. The results reveal that V $_C$ -Mo $_2$ C effectively suppresses the formation of Li $_2$ CO $_3$ , thereby promoting the preferential generation of Li $_2$ CO $_2$ 0 products in the overall reaction. This study aims to offer insight into the development of cathode catalysts for Li-CO $_2$  batteries.

#### 1. Introduction

The extensive utilization of conventional fossil fuels has resulted in significant CO2 emissions, which not only exacerbates the greenhouse effect but also accelerates the depletion of energy resources. Li-CO2 batteries exhibit promising potential for alleviating the energy crisis and reducing environmental pollution due to their distinctive energy storage capacity and carbon sequestration function. Employing lithium metal as the anode, Li-CO<sub>2</sub> batteries facilitate the migration of lithium ions (Li<sup>+</sup>) from the negative electrode during discharge, enabling them to react with CO<sub>2</sub> and generate stable solid products, thereby accomplishing both efficient energy storage and effective CO<sub>2</sub> capture [1]. Boasting advantages such as high theoretical energy density (1876 Wh/kg) and proficient CO2 capture capability, Li-CO2 batteries emerge as prospective candidates for applications in new energy vehicles, aerospace exploration, deep-sea exploration [2-4]. Nevertheless, commercial development of Li-CO2 batteries is severely constrained by sluggish reaction kinetics leading to elevated overpotential and diminished energy efficiency [5,6].

In order to reduce overpotential and enhance the reaction kinetics of Li-CO $_2$  batteries, researchers are actively exploring innovative strategies. Among these strategies, incorporating catalysts on the cathode to

facilitate  $CO_2$  reduction/evolution reactions (CRR/CER) appears most promising in terms of enhancing battery performance [7–9]. Commonly employed catalysts for the cathode include carbon nanomaterials [3,10, 11], platinum group metal catalysts [12,13], oxides [14–17], covalent organic frameworks [18], metal sulfides [19–21]. Ankit K. Chourasia et al. [10] developed a heteroatom-doped hierarchical porous candle soot carbon with exceptional electrochemical performance, a total discharge capacity of 11490 mAh g $^{-1}$  at a high initial discharge voltage of 2.75 V and a current density of 200 mA g $^{-1}$  However, a major challenge arises from the formation of  $Li_2CO_3$  as the final discharge product on the surface of these cathode catalysts.  $Li_2CO_3$  exhibits slow decomposition kinetics during charging (especially at high charging voltages up to 4.3 V relative to  $Li/Li^+$ ), leading to difficulties in  $CO_2$  release on the cathode side of  $Li-CO_2$  batteries [22].

The latest research has revealed that the intermediate product  ${\rm Li_2C_2O_4}$ , found on the surface of cathode catalysts, exhibits lower overpotential and improved decomposability [23,24].  ${\rm Li_2C_2O_4}$  as the final discharge product can significantly enhance the reaction rate of  ${\rm Li\text{-}CO_2}$  batteries. However, only a few catalysts have better selectivity for producing  ${\rm Li_2C_2O_4}$ , such as molybdenum-based catalysts [25]. Hou et al. [23] used  ${\rm Mo_2C/CNT}$  as the cathode catalyst for  ${\rm Li\text{-}CO_2}$  systems and demonstrated its ability to stabilize the intermediate reduction

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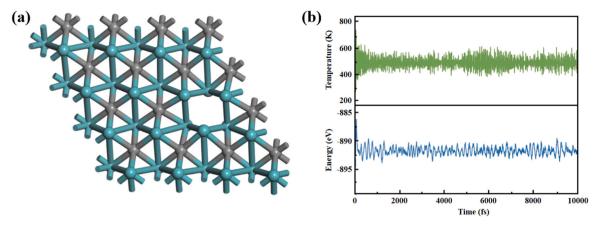


Fig. 1. (a) The optimized V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C structure model; (b) variations of temperature and energy against time for AIMD simulations of V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C.

product Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> during discharge. Zhou et al. [24] show that the intermediate discharge product Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> stabilized by Mo<sub>2</sub>C via coordinative electrons transfer should be responsible for the reduction of overpotential. Yang et al. [26] found that when Mo<sub>2</sub>C is used as a cathode catalyst, Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> can act as the final discharge product and prevents the formation of Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. To enhance catalytic activity, researchers have implemented strategies such as defect introduction [27, 28], metal doping [29], and surface modification [30], yielding certain effects. Carbon defects are structural factors influencing the catalytic activity of transition-metal carbides, which can not only facilitate the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> but also accelerate the transport of Li<sup>+</sup> [31]. Therefore, the introduction of defects is of great significance for improving the activity of the cathode catalyst in Li-CO<sub>2</sub> batteries. This paper explores the influence mechanism and performance of V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C as a cathode catalyst for Li-CO2 batteries, aiming to offer new novel insights and theoretical support for research on V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C cathode catalysts.

### 2. Computational methods and models

All the calculations were performed using the DFT framework, which are implemented in the Dmol<sup>3</sup> code [32,33]. The generalized gradient approximation (GGA) using the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) parameterization was used to describe electronic exchange and correlation effects [34]. The DFT semi-core pseudopotential (DSPP) method was employed to treat the relativistic effect of transition metals by introducing some degree of relativistic corrections to replace the core

electrons using a single effective potential [35]. To accurately describe the weak interactions of CRR species with catalysts, the PBE+D2 method with the Grimme vdW correction was employed [36]. Self-consistent field (SCF) computations were performed with a convergence criterion of  $10^{-6}$  a.u. on the total energy and electronic computations. The Brillouin zone integration was performed with  $5 \times 5 \times 1$  k-points for geometry optimizations. A conductor-like screening model (COSMO) was used to simulate the H<sub>2</sub>O solvent environment throughout the whole process, whose dielectric constant was set as 78.54 [37]. The vacuum space in the z direction was set as 20 Å, which is sufficiently large to avoid the interlayer interaction. The free energy change (G) of each elementary reaction step during CRR was calculated according to the computational hydrogen electrode (CHE) model suggested by Nørskov and co-worker [38,39]. In this method, the free energy change is defined as:  $\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta E_{ZPE} - T\Delta S$ , where  $\Delta E$  is the electronic energy difference directly determined by DFT calculations,  $\Delta E_{\rm ZPE}$  is the change in the zero-point energy, T is the temperature (298.15 K), and  $\Delta S$  is the change in entropy. The zero-point energies and the total entropies of the CRR intermediates were computed from the vibrational frequencies. The entropies and vibrational frequencies of the molecules (including CO<sub>2</sub>, etc.) in the gas phase were taken from the NIST database, while the vibrational frequencies of the adsorbed species to obtain ZPE contribution in the free energy expression were computed. The vibrational modes of the adsorbate were computed explicitly, while the catalyst sheet was fixed (assuming that the vibrations of the substrate are negligible).

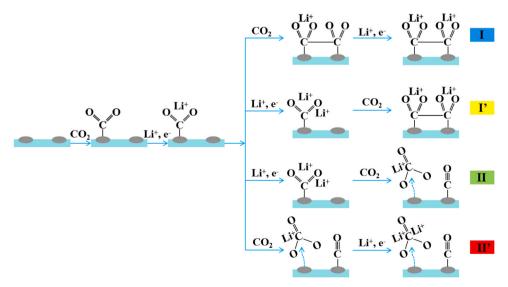


Fig. 2. All possible reaction paths on the surface of V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C catalyst.

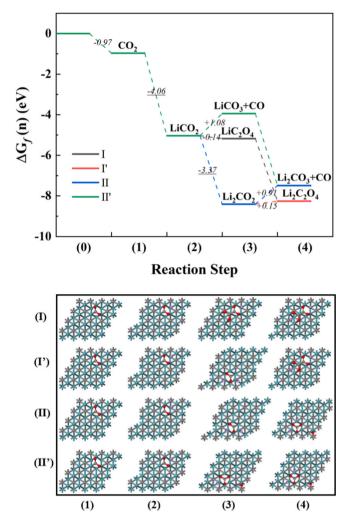


Fig. 3. Gibbs free energy spectra and intermediate product models of all reaction paths on  $V_{C}$ -Mo<sub>2</sub>C.

# 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Geometric structures and stabilities

To investigate the effect of defect location on the catalytic performance of  $V_C$ -Mo<sub>2</sub>C, we calculated the formation energies of C and Mo defects according to the formula:  $E_f(V_C) = E_{V_C-Mo_2C} - E_{Mo_2C} + n\mu_C$ . According to calculations, the formation energies of C and Mo defects are 8.77 eV and 9.50 eV, respectively. The calculation results indicate that C defects are more likely to form, making them more commonly used in catalysts, which is consistent with previous research findings [40]. The crystal structure of  $V_C$ -Mo<sub>2</sub>C can be considered as a sandwich-like structure, where the atoms of adjacent vacancies are slightly displaced inward due to the introduction of C vacancies. The optimized structure of  $V_C$ -Mo<sub>2</sub>C is illustrated in Fig. 1a. The optimized lattice parameters for  $V_C$ -Mo<sub>2</sub>C are a=b=12.1884/4=3.0471 Å, which is consistent with experimental values (a=b=3.006 Å), indicating the reliability of our methodology [32].

The thermodynamic stability of  $V_C$ -Mo<sub>2</sub>C was further evaluated using Ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulation [41] at 500 K with a time step 1.0 fs for a total 10 ps. The energy and temperature oscillate within small ranges and no significant structural deformation is observed after 10000 steps, indicating  $V_C$ -Mo<sub>2</sub>C has high thermodynamic stability, as shown in Fig. 1b.

#### 3.2. Gibbs free energy changes

The Gibbs free energy of nucleation for all potential reaction pathways on V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C surface (Fig. 2) was computed at open circuit potential (U=0 V), as depicted in Fig. 3. Among these pathways, steps involving Li<sup>+</sup> and concurrent electron transfer exhibit a downhill trend in the Gibbs free energy. Pathways I and I' lead Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> as the ultimate product, whereas pathways II and II' produce Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> as the final product. The adsorption and activation of CO2 on the Vc-Mo2C catalyst substrate represent the initial step in the Li-CO<sub>2</sub> battery conversion reaction [42]. In the subsequent reaction, Li<sup>+</sup> interacts with surface-bound CO<sub>2</sub> on V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C to form an intermediate species denoted as \*LiCO<sub>2</sub>. The third reaction step encompasses three potential pathways: \*LiCO2 undergoes electron transfer and reacts with Li<sup>+</sup> to yield \*Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>2</sub>; alternatively, it can react with  $CO_2$  to generate \*LiC2O4; or, through a reaction between \*LiCO<sub>3</sub> and CO, give rise to both \*LiCO<sub>3</sub> and \*CO. Gibbs free energy changes for pathway I, pathway I', and pathway II in this third step are -0.14 eV, -3.37 eV, -3.37 eV respectively, indicating their favorable occurrence. However, the Gibbs free energy curve for pathway II' exhibits an upward trend due to a higher formation barrier associated with the C=O bond during pathway II'. Pathway I' and pathway II exhibit significantly larger Gibbs free energy changes compared to pathway I due to their involvement of electron transfer processes; consequently, intermediate reactions predominantly occur along pathways I' and II. The nucleation steps of Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> are represented by the fourth step. Yang et al. [26] conducted calculations on the Gibbs free energy changes for each reaction step involved in the formation of Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> on V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C. Their results demonstrate that the Gibbs free energy required for CO<sub>2</sub> to react with Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>2</sub>, forming Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, is smaller compared to that needed for generating Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. Specifically, pathway I' in the fourth reaction step exhibits a change in free energy of + 0.18 eV, while pathway II generates a change in free energy of + 0.91 eV resulting in the production of Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. The higher free energy requirement for generating Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> suggests that it is less likely to form compared to Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. In order to estimate the selectivity of different pathways, the Boltzmann distribution formula  $\exp[(\Delta G)/(k_BT)]$  was adopted on the basis of their free energy difference, where  $\Delta \textit{G} = 0.91/0.18$  eV and T = 298.15 K. The Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>: Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> molar ratio is  $\sim$  (2.133  $\times$ 10<sup>12</sup>): 1 at ambient temperature, indicating a high selectivity toward the Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, so Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> step is not considered.

Under the equilibrium potentials of  $\text{Li}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4$  (U =U<sub>0</sub> ( $\text{Li}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4$ ) = 3.01 V) and  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  (U = U<sub>0</sub> ( $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$ ) = 2.87 V) nucleations, all steps related with both Li and electronall steps related with both Li and electron ransfers are still downhill in all free energy profiles as shown in Fig S1. The rate-determining step at the equilibrium potential is the same as that at U = 0 V. For the formation of lithium carbonate, the rate-determining step is \*Li $_2\text{CO}_2$ -\*Li $_2\text{CO}_3$ + \*CO, with its  $\Delta G_{max}$ = +0.91 eV. While for the formation of lithium oxalate, the rate-determining step is \*Li $_2\text{CO}_2$ -\*Li $_2\text{CO}_2$ -, with its  $\Delta G_{max}$ = +0.15 eV.

In order to explore whether the results are sensitive to the concentration of the C defects, the catalytic activities of one to four C defects in  $Mo_2C$  were investigated by calculating the free energy changes of  $^*\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow ^*\text{Li}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $^*\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow ^*\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3 + ^*\text{CO}$ , corresponding to -0.49 and -1.68 eV, -1.10 and -2.30 eV, -0.07 and -1.40 eV, respectively, as shown in Table S1. The higher free energy requirement for generating Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> suggests that increasing the C defects will reduce selectivity of Mo<sub>2</sub>C for Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

# 3.3. Electronic structure

# 3.3.1. Bader charge analysis

Bader charges can analyze the charge density around atoms, determine the number of valence electrons, and study the characteristics of charge transfer. The surface charge distribution of  $\rm Li_2C_2O_4$  and  $\rm Li_2CO_3$  on the  $\rm V_C\text{-}Mo_2C$  surface was investigated using Bader charge analysis in this study. The Coulomb interaction between  $\rm Li_2C_2O_4$  and the  $\rm V_C\text{-}Mo_2C$ 

Fig. 4. The charge transfer situation of (a) Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and (b) Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> on V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C.

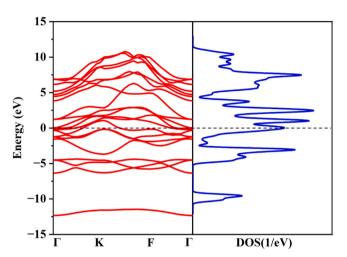


Fig. 5. Band structure and DOS for V<sub>C</sub>-Mo<sub>2</sub>C.

surface layer is a crucial determinant of the stability of  ${\rm Li_2C_2O_4}$  and the catalytic activity of  ${\rm V_C\text{-}Mo_2C}$  [43,44]. The Bader charge analysis results for  ${\rm Li_2C_2O_4}$  and  ${\rm Li_2CO_3}$  on the  ${\rm V_C\text{-}Mo_2C}$  configuration, are shown in the Fig. 4. Blue color indicates atoms with high electron affinity, while yellow color represents atoms prone to electron loss. As carbon is more electronegative than Mo, electrons tend to transfer from Mo atoms to C atoms. A significant charge interaction is observed between  ${\rm Li_2C_2O_4}$  and  ${\rm V_C\text{-}Mo_2C}$  surfaces, indicating a strong interaction between them. Conversely, weak electron transfer occurs between  ${\rm Li_2CO_3}$  and  ${\rm V_C\text{-}Mo_2C}$ , suggesting that nucleation of  ${\rm Li_2CO_3}$  on  ${\rm V_C\text{-}Mo_2C}$  surface is challenging.

# 3.3.2. Band analysis

The band structure of  $V_C$ -Mo $_2$ C was computed in this study, and its band structure and DOS in Fig. 5a.  $V_C$ -Mo $_2$ C exhibits a complete absence of a band gap and possesses a zero bandgap width. This signifies that electrons can transfer from the valence band to the conduction band without encountering any energy barrier, thereby showcasing the exceptional electron transport capability of  $V_C$ -Mo $_2$ C. With its elevated carrier concentration and conductivity at room temperature,  $V_C$ -Mo $_2$ C emerges as a promising catalyst for Li-CO $_2$  batteries to facilitate CRR.

#### 4. Conclusions

In this study, we employed density functional theory (DFT) to compute the Gibbs free energy changes of intermediate steps involved in the cathode reaction of Li-CO<sub>2</sub> batteries. Our research findings demonstrate that the free energy barrier for  $V_C$ -Mo<sub>2</sub>C catalyst in generating Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> is higher compared to that for Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, indicating a greater selectivity in producing Li<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> as a product. The presence of C defects results in an increased exposure of Mo active sites, thereby enhancing

the adsorption capability of  $V_C$ -Mo $_2$ C on  $Li_2C_2O_4$  and reducing the free energy associated with the generation of  $Li_2C_2O_4$  through its reaction pathway. Furthermore,  $V_C$ -Mo $_2$ C exhibits excellent conductivity and thermodynamic stability, ensuring both sustainability and efficiency throughout the catalytic process. Consequently,  $V_C$ -Mo $_2$ C holds significant potential as an efficient cathode catalyst for Li-CO $_2$  batteries.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

Yan Lixiang: Writing – original draft. Zhao Tingting: Writing – original draft, Funding acquisition. Yan Likai: Writing – review & editing. Su Yukang: Investigation. Li Ao: Investigation. Xiong Yiyu: Conceptualization. Nie Yanmei: Funding acquisition. Song Liubin: Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. Qiu Xueying: Funding acquisition.

#### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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# Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.fub.2025.100058.

# Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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