

Extended Chemical Flexibility of Cubic Anti-Perovskite Lithium Battery Cathode Materials

Kwing To Lai,^{†,‡,§} Iryna Antonyshyn,^{†,§} Yurii Prots,^{†,§} and Martin Valldor^{*,†,§,§}

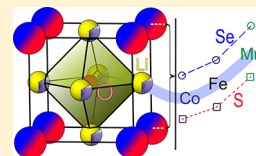
[†]Max Planck Institute for Chemical Physics of Solids, Nöthnitzer Straße 40, DE-01187 Dresden, Germany

[‡]Department of Physics, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shatin, Hong Kong

[§]Leibniz Institute for Solid State and Materials Research, Helmholtzstraße 20, DE-01069 Dresden, Germany

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Novel bichalcogenides with the general composition $(\text{Li}_2\text{TM})\text{ChO}$ (TM = Mn, Co; Ch = S, Se) were synthesized by single-step solid-state reactions. These compounds possess cubic anti-perovskite crystal structure with $Pm\bar{3}m$ symmetry; TM and Li are disordered on the crystallographic site 3c. According to Goldschmidt tolerance factor calculations, the available space at the 3c site is too large for Li^+ and TM^{2+} ions. As cathode materials, all title compounds perform less prominent in lithium-ion battery setups in comparison to the already known TM = Fe homologue; e.g., $(\text{Li}_2\text{Co})\text{SO}$ has a charge density of about 70 mAh g^{-1} at a low charge rate. Nevertheless, the title compounds extend the chemical flexibility of the anti-perovskites, revealing their outstanding chemical optimization potential as lithium battery cathode material.



1. INTRODUCTION

The improvement of lithium battery electrode materials is challenging because of the many parameters that have to be considered: high specific charge capacity, maximum charge rate, chemical stability, safety, cost, and the environmental aspect. Simultaneously, the demand for enhanced lithium battery performance is steadily increasing because (i) petrol engines are being replaced by rechargeable batteries and (ii) alternative energy storage for solar and wind energies is necessary to bridge the energy need and availability. Of all parts in lithium batteries, primarily the cathode material requires improvements to reach higher battery energy storage capacity.^{1,2} Today, we use cathode materials like olivine $\text{Li}_{1-x}\text{FePO}_4$,³ delafossites $\text{Li}_{1-x}\text{TMO}_2$ (TM = Co,⁴ Mn,⁵ Ni⁶), and spinel $\text{Li}_{1+x}\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_4$.⁷ The first two materials have been subjected to vast chemical substitutions in the search of more stable cathodes. In olivine, Fe can be partly or fully substituted for Mn, Co, and Ni, but the cathode performances only decrease.³ Extended work was made on $\text{Li}_{1-x}\text{CoPO}_4$ (see, for example, ref 8); however, the working potential is too high (4.8 V vs Li^+/Li) for commercial electrolytes. Chemical alterations of the delafossites have been more successful for their performances as cathodes: the most well-known, chemically optimized compositions (commercial abbreviations) are $\text{Li}_{1-x}(\text{Ni}_{0.8}\text{Co}_{0.15}\text{Al}_{0.05})\text{O}_2$ (NCA)⁹ and $\text{Li}_{1-x}(\text{Ni}_{1/3}\text{Mn}_{1/3}\text{Co}_{1/3})\text{O}_2$ (NMC).¹⁰ According to estimations, these two compounds, together with the parent compound LiCoO_2 , constituted a U.S. market value of about USD 20 billion in 2016.¹¹ Hence, improving already existing materials or finding alternative materials would be highly valued.

By chemical substitutions in the cation-vacancy-ordered anti-perovskite $(\text{Fe}_2\Box)\text{SeO}$ (\Box = vacancy),¹² new lithium battery cathode materials $(\text{Li}_2\text{Fe})\text{ChO}$ (Ch = S, Se) with cubic

anti-perovskite structures were discovered.¹³ These materials are cheap, can be easily produced, and withstand high charging rates, making them competitive for commercial use. To make this group of materials even more attractive, it is important to widen the chemical flexibility of bichalcogenide anti-perovskites. In crystalline solid-state compounds, Fe^{2+} can usually be substituted for other transition metals, of which divalent Mn and Co have very similar coordination preferences. Here, we present the first successful and complete replacement of Fe by both Mn and Co in the cubic anti-perovskites, opening up a wide field for chemical optimizations.

2. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

2.1. Synthesis. All quaternaries were synthesized by the following reaction: $\text{Li}_2\text{O} + \text{TM} + \text{Ch} \rightarrow (\text{Li}_2\text{TM})\text{ChO}$, using Li_2O (Alfa Aesar, 99.5%), TM = Mn (Alfa Aesar, 4 N) or Co (Alfa Aesar, 3 N), and Ch = S (Alfa Aesar, 99.5%) or Se (Alfa Aesar, 5 N). The constituents were mixed in an agate mortar and pressed into pellets, which were placed in corundum crucibles inside silica ampules. The ampules were melt-sealed after the inner pressure was lowered to $p < 10^{-4}$ mbar. All samples were heated up to about 750 °C at a rate of 50 °C h^{-1} . This temperature was held for 2–10 h before each ampule was quenched in water. All preparations and sample handling were done in an Ar-filled glovebox (MBraun) with O_2 and H_2O levels below 1 ppm.

2.2. X-ray Diffraction Investigations. Powder X-ray diffraction measurements were performed using Guinier cameras (Huber) equipped with an image-plate detector using a $\text{Cu K}\alpha_1$ (TM = Mn) or a $\text{Co K}\alpha_1$ (TM = Co) X-ray source. The software JANA2006¹⁴ was applied to compare observed diffraction data with structural model patterns generated by the Rietveld method.

2.3. Elemental Analyses. Elemental analyses were done by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) on a matrix-matched calibrated Vista RL spectrometer (Varian). A

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well-defined amount of each sample was dissolved in a solution of ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (3.5 mL, 0.02 M) and an acid mixture (2.5 mL of HCl:HNO₃ = 1:1) in a turboWAVE (MLS-GmbH) at 120 °C for 15 min. All solutions were then transferred to 50 mL volumetric flasks and filled with ultrapure water.

2.4. Electrochemical Investigations. Aluminum and copper plates were used as current collectors for the cathode and anode, respectively. The slurries of each battery cathode material [(Li₂TM)-ChO; TM = Mn, Co; Ch = S, Se] and graphite (Alfa Aesar, 99.8%, ~325 mesh) anode were prepared by mixing them with carbon black (Alfa Aesar, acetylene compressed, 99.9+%, *S* > *A*, 75 m² g⁻¹, bulk density 80–120 g L⁻¹) and poly(vinylidene fluoride) (Sigma-Aldrich) in mass ratio of 85:5:10 inside the organic solvent *N*-methylpyrrolidone (NMP; Sigma-Aldrich, anhydrous, 99.5%). Each slurry was homogeneously distributed on the respective metallic plate (~25 cm²). The coated plates were treated at 100 °C for 1–2 h for the removal of organic solvent (NMP). For each trial battery assembly, ~0.3 g of active materials was used. The nonwoven separator (Freudenberg FS2226) was wetted with a mixture of 1.0 M LiPF₆ in ethylene carbonate (EC) and ethyl methyl carbonate (EMC) (50:50 by volume, Sigma-Aldrich) prior to placing it between the coated and dried current collectors. Each battery assembly was placed in a plastic bag with a surplus amount of electrolyte. All preparations and electrochemical measurements were performed in an Ar-filled glovebox (MBraun). The charge/discharge experiments were carried out and evaluated using a BioLogic SP300 potentiostat and *EC-Lab* (version 11.01) software, respectively.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. X-ray Diffraction Data. The obtained powders were either dark green (Mn) or dark brown (Co). Single-step syntheses result in highly crystalline materials of at least 90% purity, as estimated from powder X-ray diffraction data (Figures 1 and S1). Importantly, all samples contained fewer secondary phases (e.g., Li₂Ch and TM oxides) if the heating procedure was suddenly interrupted by quenching, i.e., by dropping the hot ampules in ice water.

The crystal structures of (Li₂TM)ChO (TM = Mn, Co; Ch = S, Se) can be described as cubic anti-perovskites (Figure 2)

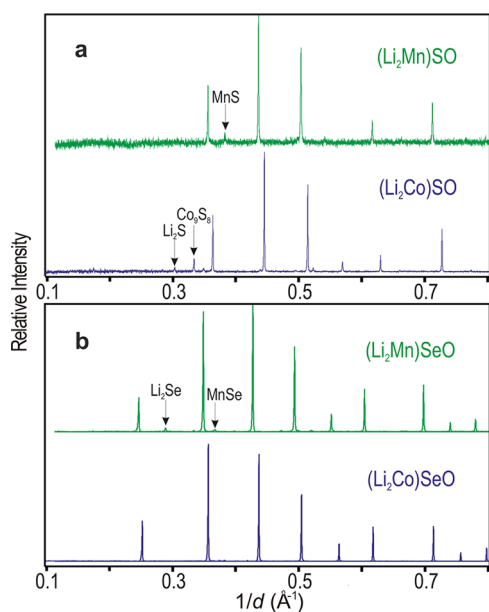


Figure 1. Powder X-ray diffraction data of (a) (Li₂TM)SO and (b) (Li₂TM)SeO (TM = Mn, Co). The strongest intensities of the secondary phases are marked.

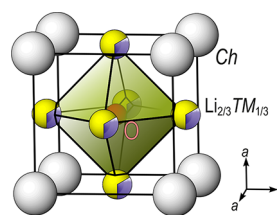


Figure 2. Unit cell content of cubic anti-perovskites (Li₂TM)ChO (TM = Mn, Co; Ch = S, Se) with an emphasized octahedron around the O ion.

with the space group $Pm\bar{3}m$. Refinement details can be found in Table S1. Li⁺ and TM²⁺ are randomly distributed on the same positions on the atomic lattice. On the contrary, the anions O²⁻ and Ch²⁻ are perfectly ordered in a CsCl-like manner without intermixing. As expected for an anti-perovskite structure, (Li, TM) and Ch together form a cubic close-packing where O²⁻ ions occupy octahedral voids of cations. The corresponding Niggli notation for a generalized structure is $\infty^3[\text{O}(\text{Li}_{2/3}\text{TM}_{1/3})_{6/2}]^{2+}\text{Ch}^{2-}$, where Ch can be regarded as a guest in the Li–TM–O host network. In a comparison also with the Fe homologues, the unit cell sizes of (Li₂TM)ChO (TM = Mn, Fe, Co; Ch = S, Se) increase expectedly from S to Se and from Co to Mn (Figure 3).

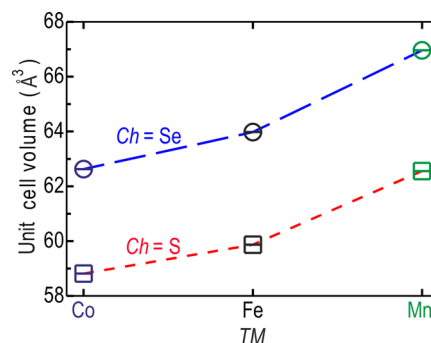


Figure 3. Unit cell volumes presented as a function of the content at the TM and Ch sites. For TM = Fe, data are taken from ref 13.

3.2. Chemical Compositions. To verify the relative atomic compositions, including electron-poor Li, ICP-OES analyses were performed, revealing that the bulk sample compositions are close to the nominal ones (Table 1). No other elements were observed in the spectroscopic data.

Table 1. ICP-OES Data of the Title Compounds^a

starting composition	spectroscopic result
(Li ₂ Mn)SO	Li _{1.97(1)} Mn _{1.008(5)} S _{0.98(2)} O _{1.043(4)}
(Li ₂ Co)SO	Li _{2.03(5)} Co _{1.02(2)} S _{1.02(1)} O _{0.933(8)}
(Li ₂ Mn)SeO	Li _{1.98(3)} Mn _{1.01(2)} Se _{1.001(7)} O _{1.01(1)}
(Li ₂ Co)SeO	Li _{1.97(2)} Co _{1.04(2)} Se _{1.05(2)} O _{0.93(1)}

^aThe results are scaled to a sum of about 5.

In air, all as-prepared powders readily decompose into binaries (Figure S2); the more ionic character with sulfide oxides compared to selenide oxides could explain why compounds with Ch = S seem to decompose faster than those with Ch = Se. Further, compounds with TM = Mn decompose faster than those with TM = Co, which might correlate with the more negative formation enthalpy of

Mn(OH)₂ ($H_f \approx -700 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) compared to that of Co(OH)₂ ($H_f \approx -540 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$); this agrees with the observation of Mn(OH)₂ in the diffraction patterns (Figure S2). Note that under inert conditions none of the prepared compounds seems to decompose at room temperature.

To get an indirect hint on the mobility of Li⁺ ions in these anti-perovskites, the Goldschmidt tolerance factors (t)¹⁵ were calculated using an average ionic radius for the Li₂TM site according to $t = \frac{r_{\text{Ch}} + r_{\text{Li}_2\text{TM}}}{\sqrt{2}(r_{\text{O}} + r_{\text{Li}_2\text{TM}})}$ and the ideal cubic unit cell parameter according to $a = \sqrt{2}(r_{\text{Ch}} + r_{\text{Li}_2\text{TM}}) \text{ \AA}$ [$r(\text{O}^{2-}) = 1.26$, $r(\text{S}^{2-}) = 1.70$, and $r(\text{Se}^{2-}) = 1.84 \text{ \AA}$].¹⁶ The calculated tolerance factors and ideal cubic cell parameters are much smaller than observations (Table 2). This is suggestive of

Table 2. Goldschmidt Factors for (Li₂TM)ChO (TM = Co, Mn; Ch = S, Se)

	TM, Ch			
	Mn, S	Co, S	Mn, Se	Co, Se
$r(\text{Li}_2\text{TM}) \text{ [\AA]}$	0.9233	0.895	0.9233	0.895
t	0.850	0.852	0.895	0.898
ideal $a \text{ [\AA]}$	3.7093	3.6693	3.9073	3.8673
obsd $a \text{ [\AA]}$	3.9697(1)	3.8889(1)	4.0608(1)	3.97119(8)

relatively large voids for the cations to occupy, which is a prerequisite for extraordinary Li⁺ mobility. The distance between cation sites, ~ 2.8 or $a/\sqrt{2} \text{ \AA}$, is also similar to that in delafossites Li_{1-x}TMO₂ (TM = Co, Mn, Ni),⁴⁻⁶ which exhibit relatively high Li⁺ migration rates. Theoretical model calculations support high migration rates in cubic anti-perovskites; the Li⁺ diffusion barrier in (Li₂Fe)SO was estimated to be about 0.35 eV,¹⁷ which is comparable with that of superionic Li conductors like Li₃ClO,¹⁸ where its Li diffusion mechanism has been theoretically predicted to be driven by Li⁺ partly occupying interstitial sites.¹⁹⁻²¹

Similar to delafossites Li_{1-x}TMO₂ (TM = Co,⁴ Mn,⁵ Ni⁶),^{9,10} the cubic anti-perovskite title compounds exhibit a vast chemical diversity, forming with TM = Mn, Fe,¹³ and Co. However, an important difference is that the anti-perovskites have the pristine formal oxidation state 2+ of TM, while it is 3+ in delafossites. Hence, the working potentials are relatively lower for anti-perovskite cathodes with redox pairs Mn²⁺/Mn³⁺, Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺,¹³ and Co²⁺/Co³⁺. Fortunately, all of these 2+/3+ redox pairs are found within the potential window where the standard constituents of a battery are stable. This means that the anti-perovskites can be charged/discharged with less risk for the irreversible decomposition of anode materials or electrolytes compared to high-voltage cathodes, like Li_{1+x}Mn₂O₄,²² where deteriorations shorten the battery lifetime.

3.3. Electrochemical Investigations. To enable a direct comparison between the Mn- and Co-based anti-perovskites, presented here, with the previously known Fe-based ones,¹³ a graphite anode was used, which notably lowers the working potential of the battery setups. According to preliminary charging/discharging experiments (Figures 4 and S3–S5), most of the materials presented here perform reasonably in a lithium battery but not as outstanding as (Li₂Fe)ChO (Ch = S, Se) do. (Li₂Co)SO can be reversibly cycled at low charge rates (Figure 4) with a reasonable charge capacity of $\sim 70 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ in the potential range of 1.1–2.5 V versus graphite, which proves to be a suitable potential range for all anti-perovskites.

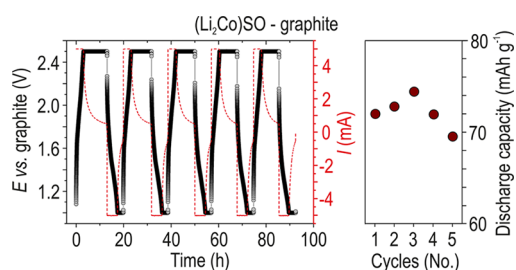


Figure 4. Five cycles of charging/discharging of a (Li₂Co)SO–graphite cell (left panel) with the corresponding specific discharge capacity at a charge rate of about C/15 (right panel).

Much higher charge rates up to 1.7C were tested for the battery with a (Li₂Co)SeO cathode (Figure S4), revealing relatively low charge capacity ($\sim 25 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$), of which 24% is lost after 100 cycles at the highest charge rate. The fact that relatively high charge rates can be used agrees with the exceedingly high Li⁺ migration rates that have been reported in anti-perovskite structures.¹⁸⁻²¹ In a wider comparison, commercial intercalation oxide cathode materials exhibit relatively higher charge densities ($140\text{--}170 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$) and broader working potential windows.²³ However, we anticipate that synthesized anti-perovskites with TM = Fe/Mn/Co admixtures in (Li₂TM)SO are very promising for improving especially the charge density and chemical stability of this family of novel lithium battery cathode materials. For example, the solid solution (Li₂Fe_{0.5}Mn_{0.5})SO might have a better cathode performance than (Li₂Fe)SO¹³ and (Li₂Mn)SO do. A similar case can be found in the delafossite solid solution Li(Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.15}Al_{0.05})O₂⁹ with an electrode performance that surpasses those of end members LiNiO₂ and LiCoO₂.²³

4. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the cubic anti-perovskites (Li₂TM)ChO can be synthesized by a single solid-state reaction at low temperatures and short reaction times. They exhibit an extraordinary chemical flexibility where TM can be Mn, Fe, and Co and Ch can be S and Se; their cubic unit cell parameters scale with the sizes of the involved ions, in accordance with Vegard's law. The anti-perovskites with TM = Mn or Co, presented here, perform only satisfactorily in comparison to the outstanding lithium battery cathode performance found with TM = Fe. However, these chemical extensions offer chemical optimization to synthesize solid solutions of Mn/Fe/Co at TM that might result in cathode materials for lithium-ion batteries with improved properties compared to all “end members” with TM = Mn, Fe, or Co.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.inorgchem.8b01850.

Powder X-ray diffraction data, crystal structure models based on Rietveld simulations, powder X-ray diffraction data of samples exposed to air, charge/discharge curves, different charge rates and discharge capacities, and (Li₂Mn)SeO–graphite battery (PDF)

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: m.valldor@ifw-dresden.de.

ORCID

Kwing To Lai: 0000-0001-9935-202X

Iryna Antonyshyn: 0000-0002-7652-0630

Yurii Prots: 0000-0002-7418-9892

Martin Valldor: 0000-0001-7061-3492

Author Contributions

All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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