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Proceedings Paper:

Reeves-McLaren, N. orcid.org/0000-0002-1061-1230, Hong, M., Alqurashi, H. et al. (4 more authors) (2018) The Spinel LiCoMnO₄: 5V cathode and conversion anode. In: Energy Procedia. 3rd Annual Conference in Energy Storage and Its Applications, 11-12 Sep 2018, Sheffield, UK. Elsevier , pp. 158-162.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2018.09.041>

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3rd Annual Conference in Energy Storage and Its Applications, 3rd CDT-ESA-AC,
11–12 September 2018, Sheffield, UK

The Spinel LiCoMnO_4 : 5V Cathode and Conversion Anode

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Abstract

LiCoMnO_4 was made at 550 °C in 2 h using a novel biotemplating synthetic methodology. High temperature heat treatment under flowing N_2 was then used to prepare the cation-disordered rock salt, LiCoMnO_3 . We demonstrate for the first time that both phases can operate as conversion anodes in lithium-ion batteries, operating at ~ 0.7 V with specific capacities of ~ 400 mAh g^{-1} . We also demonstrate that 1,3-propane sultone can be used as an electrolytic additive to provide a modest boost to specific capacity in cells cycled at high potentials with LiCoMnO_4 as the cathode.

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Selection and peer-review under responsibility of the 3rd Annual Conference in Energy Storage and Its Applications, 3rd CDT-ESA-AC.

Keywords: Lithium-ion batteries; high voltage cathode; conversion anode; biotemplating.

1. Introduction

Lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) are ubiquitous in modern society, but to meet future demands higher energy density cathode and anode materials must be developed. There are exciting developments in improving specific capacities, *e.g.* accessing oxygen redox reactions,[1] but an alternative approach is increasing the cell's operational voltage. 'High voltage' materials with the spinel crystal structure reversibly (de)intercalate lithium at, or close to, 5 V vs. Li/Li^+ , significantly higher than commercialized materials, *e.g.* $\text{LiNi}_x\text{Mn}_y\text{Co}_z\text{O}_2$ ('NMC', ~ 3.7 V), or LiFePO_4 (3.2 V). Such spinels are often based on $\text{LiMn}_{2-x}\text{M}_x\text{O}_4$, where M can be *e.g.* Ni (4.7 V), Cr (4.8 V) or Fe (4.9 V). $\text{LiCo}_{0.5}\text{Mn}_{1.5}\text{O}_4$ was the first to breach the 5 V barrier, with deintercalation over two voltage plateaus including 40 mAh g^{-1} at ~ 5.0 V.[2]

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The first ‘5 V’ class material was LiCoMnO_4 , with reported discharge capacity of $\sim 95 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ at 5.0 V; the theoretical maximum achievable capacity for this compound is 145 mA g^{-1} . [3] It is possible to reversibly extract all Li from the crystal lattice, [4] with only $\sim 0.7\%$ change in lattice parameter. [5] This excellent dimensional stability makes LiCoMnO_4 a leading candidate for all-solid-state battery applications, a rapidly growing research area of substantial commercial interest. For adoption of LiCoMnO_4 in current cell designs, two issues must be resolved.

Firstly, synthesis of single-phase fully oxygenated LiCoMnO_4 is problematic, as the material loses significant amounts of oxygen on heating above $600 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to form a cation-disordered LiCoMnO_3 rock salt phase at $\sim 1050 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. [6] Most synthetic approaches require calcination at $\sim 800 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, thus producing partially deoxygenated spinels that exhibit an additional lower voltage redox reaction at $\sim 4 \text{ V}$ and reduced capacity at 5 V. [7, 8] New synthetic approaches are required to maximize available specific capacity and operational voltages in fully oxygenated LiCoMnO_4 .

Secondly, high voltage materials suffer from significant capacity fading when used with liquid electrolytes above $\sim 4.7 \text{ V}$ due to electrolytic decomposition. Some electrolytic additives have been studied, e.g. vinylene carbonate, 1,3-propane sultone (PS) and methylene methane disulfonate. [9-11] Additives can help prevent salt consumption, gas evolution and detrimental increases in cell impedance during cycling. Works have focused on e.g. extending the upper operating potential and preventing capacity fading in NMC and $\text{Li}_2\text{NiMn}_3\text{O}_8$. To our knowledge, their application has not been reported in a 5 V class material, i.e. LiCoMnO_4 .

There is also a need for anode materials with increased specific capacity and lower potentials vs Li/Li^+ ; commercial cells currently use graphite with maximum capacities of 372 mAh g^{-1} . Attention has focused on alloying (e.g. Si) and intercalation (e.g. $\text{Li}_4\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{12}$) anodes as potential replacements; a third option is the use of metal oxide conversion anodes. [12-14] In these, lithium insertion causes complete reduction of the metal oxide to form a mixture of metallic nanoparticles and Li_2O ; the lithium can then be extracted during charge, with concomitant reoxidation of the metal. Co_3O_4 and CoO , for example, show initial capacities of ~ 1000 and $\sim 700 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ on first discharge respectively. [12] Conversion anodes typically show a large drop in capacity after first discharge but good retention thereafter.

Here, we highlight new low temperature synthetic pathways for LiCoMnO_4 and LiCoMnO_3 , and report on the use of (i) PS in reducing capacity fading in LiCoMnO_4 as a high voltage cathode, and (ii) LiCoMnO_4 and LiCoMnO_3 as conversion anodes.

2. Experimental

LiCoMnO_4 was made via two different synthetic regimes, based on (i) high temperature solid state reaction (‘SSR- LiCoMnO_4 ’), and (ii) a lower-temperature biotemplating (‘BIO- LiCoMnO_4 ’) regime, similar to that in Zilinskaite *et al.*, [15] to minimize risk of lithium and oxygen loss during reaction. Reagents were from Sigma-Aldrich, 98+% purity.

SSR- LiCoMnO_4 samples were made by mixing stoichiometric amounts of $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, Li_2CO_3 (dried at $180 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and $(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_2\text{Mn} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in an agate mortar and pestle. Samples were heated in an alumina crucible to $210 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ at $0.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ to remove water and acetate/nitrates, decarbonated at $650 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 3 h, then reacted at $800 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 45 h with intermittent regrinding to complete reaction. After the final reaction, samples were annealed at $500 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 72 h to optimize oxygen content. For BIO- LiCoMnO_4 specimens, stoichiometric solutions of $\text{CH}_3\text{COOLi} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2\text{Mn} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2\text{Co} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in water were mixed with 10 wt% dextran. After mixing, the solutions were dried at $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and heated in a muffle furnace in air at $10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ to $550 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and calcined for 2 h.

LiCoMnO_3 was prepared by taking aliquots of BIO- LiCoMnO_4 and heating on gold foil at $950 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 8 h in a horizontal tube furnace under flowing N_2 . Heating / cooling rates of $5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ were used.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) used a Bruker D2 Phaser with $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation. Data analysis used the 2018 ICDD PDF-4+ database and SLeve+ software. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) used a Phillips Inspect F on powder specimens on conductive carbon tape, coated with 15 nm thick Au. Digitized micrographs were analyzed in ImageJ. [16]

Electrodes were prepared by mixing 80 wt% active material with 10 wt% each PVdF binder and Super C45 (Imerys Graphite & Carbon) into a slurry with 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (anhydrous 99.5%, Sigma-Aldrich). This was cast on to carbon coated Al foil, dried, and calendared to $\sim 70 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ thickness. Stainless steel (2032) coin cells were assembled under Ar in a glovebox by layering a stainless steel spacer, a prepared 12 mm electrode disc, an electrolyte-soaked glass fiber separator, and a freshly cut lithium metal disc. For cathode tests, three electrolyte solutions were tested with 1M LiPF_6 dissolved in (i) EC:DEC, (ii) EC:DMC, and (iii) EC:DMC with 2 wt% 1,3-propane sultone (PS, 99%, Sigma-Aldrich). Anode testing used 1 M LiPF_6 in EC:DMC:DEC (99%, Sigma-Aldrich) electrolyte.

Electrochemical tests were made on multiple cells for each material at 25 °C using a Maccor Series 4000 Battery Cycler; references to voltage/potential are relative to Li/Li⁺. Tests studied performance of LiCoMnO₄ and LiCoMnO₃ as either cathode or conversion anode materials; comparative tests were conducted using commercial Li₄Ti₅O₁₂ (MTI).

3. Results and Discussion

XRD data, Fig. 1, confirm that single phase specimens of LiCoMnO₄ had been prepared via both solid state and biotemplated routes. In both cases, all observed Bragg peaks were indexed on the Fd $\bar{3}$ m space group. Literature reports[8] show that the lattice parameter for LiCoMnO_{4- δ} is sensitive to small changes in oxygen content, with $a \approx 8.05$ -8.06 Å for fully oxygenated specimens. Lattice parameters of 8.0587 (6) Å and 8.0691 (9) Å were refined for BIO-LiCoMnO₄ and SSR-LiCoMnO₄, respectively, suggesting the latter may be slightly oxygen deficient.

For spinels, the (220) peak is sensitive to cationic occupancy of the 8a tetrahedral site; effectively zero intensity is expected for a fully normal spinel with only weakly scattering Li located at this position. Our data, Fig. 1, show this to be the case for the SSR sample, but the biotemplated specimen shows a small (220) reflection at $\sim 31.5^\circ 2\theta$, suggesting a small amount of cation mixing is occurring, with a heavier scatterer (*i.e.* Co and/or Mn) partially swapping positions with the tetrahedral Li. The Bragg peaks are also considerably broader for the biotemplated specimen, most likely due to reduced crystallite size relative to those produced via SSR.

A sample of BIO-LiCoMnO₄ was extracted and heated at 950 °C under N₂. XRD data, Fig. 1, from the product were indexed on the Fm $\bar{3}$ m space group, $a = 4.0260$ (9) Å, consistent with previous reports on LiCoMnO₃. [6, 8]

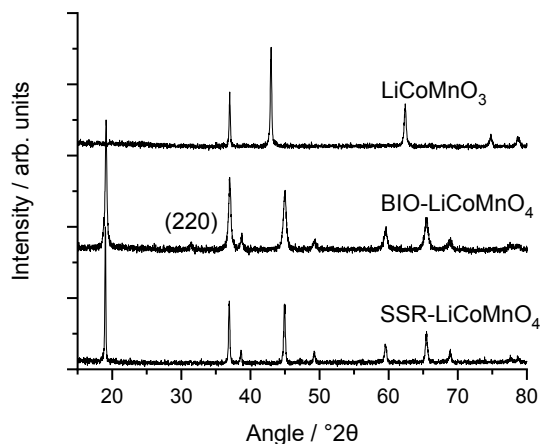


Figure 1. XRD data for SSR-LiCoMnO₄, BIO-LiCoMnO₄, and LiCoMnO₃. The position of the spinel (220) peak is indicated.

SEM images, Fig. 2, showed significant increases in average crystal size from $\sim 0.18 (\pm 40)$ μm in the biotemplated LiCoMnO₄ samples growing to $\sim 1.3 (\pm 0.5)$ μm in LiCoMnO₃ following even a short treatment at high temperatures.

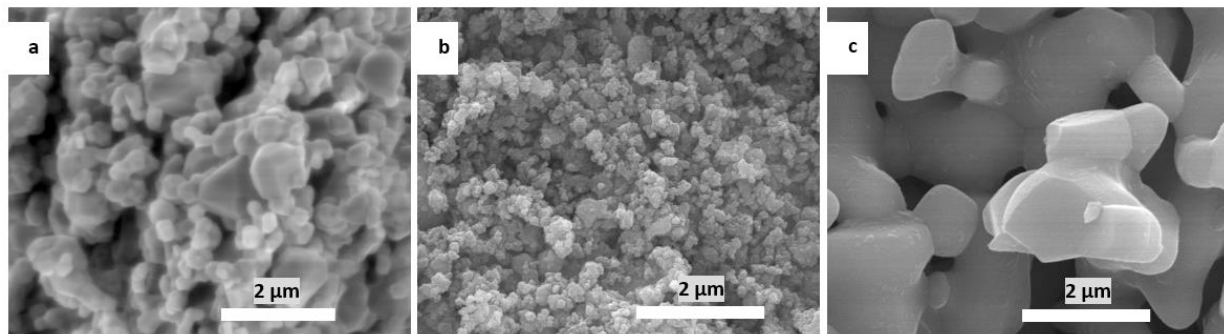


Figure 2. SEM images for (a) SSR-LiCoMnO₄, (b) BIO-LiCoMnO₄, and (c) LiCoMnO₃.

Charge/discharge data were collected for cells containing SSR-LiCoMnO₄ and three different electrolyte solutions. Cells were cycled at C/10 rate in the voltage range 3.0 to 5.3 V for 20 cycles. Example data for cells constructed using EC:DMC with 2 wt% PS electrolyte solution are shown in Fig. 3. The charge-discharge profiles can be divided into three regimes. Firstly, a small plateau of < 10 mAh g⁻¹ centered at ~ 4.0 V can be attributed to a small degree of oxygen non-stoichiometry correlated with the introduction of an additional Mn³⁺ component. We then observe two plateaus centered at ~ 5.0 V, separated by a small step function likely related to some structural reorganization during lithium (de)intercalation. Specific capacities attributed to these high voltage phenomena showed small and reproducible changes depending on the electrolyte solution used: 102.5 mAh g⁻¹ for cells using EC:DEC, 108 mAh g⁻¹ with EC:DMC, and the highest, 110 mAh g⁻¹, for EC:DMC with 2 wt% PS. Coulombic efficiencies improved from 54 % for cells using EC:DEC to 73 % for the other electrolyte solutions; further work to improve cycling performance is ongoing, but it is apparent that careful selection of electrolyte components is crucial in the development of cells employing high voltage cathode materials.

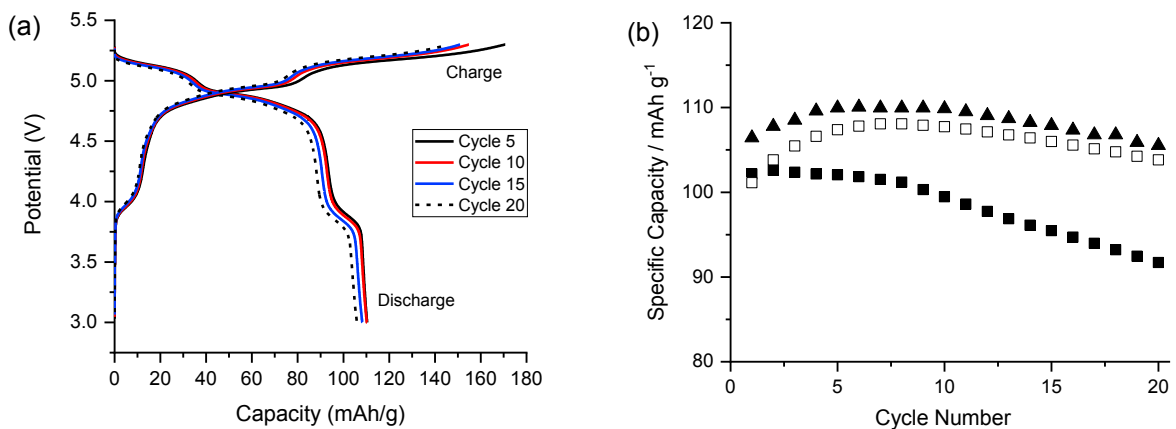


Figure 3. (a) Charge-discharge profile for LiCoMnO₄ with 1:1 EC:DMC with 2 wt% PS electrolyte, and (b) discharge capacities for SSR-LiCoMnO₄ with 1:1 EC:DEC (■), 1:1 EC:DMC (□), and 1:1 EC:DMC with 2 wt% PS (▲) cycled in the range 3.0 – 5.3 V at C/10

Negative electrodes were prepared for electrochemical testing using either LiCoMnO₄ or LiCoMnO₃ as the active material and coin cells cycled at C/5 rate in the potential range 0.25 – 2.5 V. Experimental charge/discharge data for the first two cycles are shown in Fig. 4. During the initial lithiation step, plateaus at ~ 0.7 – 0.8 V were observed with associated capacities of 1154 and 815 mAh g⁻¹ for LiCoMnO₄ and LiCoMnO₃ respectively. Based on previous studies of cobalt manganese conversion anodes, the reactions occurring at this stage will involve full reduction of the metal species, likely following the reaction $\text{LiCoMnO}_x + (2x-1)\text{Li} \rightarrow x \text{Li}_2\text{O} + \text{Co} + \text{Mn}$. Theoretical capacities, assuming

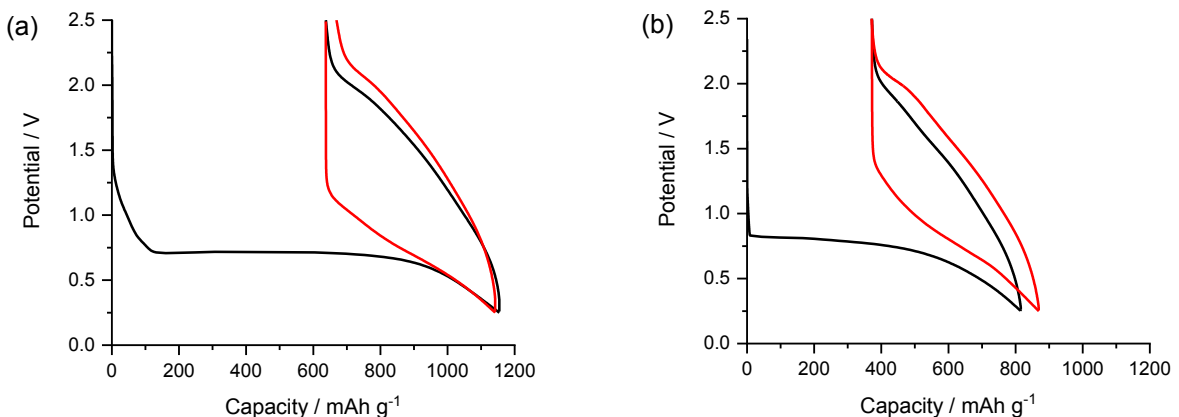


Figure 4. Charge-discharge profiles for (a) LiCoMnO₄ and (b) LiCoMnO₃ over first (black) and second (red) cycles in the range 0.25 – 2.5 V.

complete reduction can be achieved, would be 1015 mAh g^{-1} for LiCoMnO_4 , and 790 mAh g^{-1} for LiCoMnO_3 ; excess Li is taken up during first discharge due to SEI formation. A large portion of this initial capacity is irreversible, but on further charge-discharge cycles *ca.* 400 mAh g^{-1} is reversibly cycled with reasonable retention on a more inclined potential plateau centered at $\sim 0.7 \text{ V}$. Capacities over 10 cycles are well in excess of those observed for $\text{Li}_4\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{12}$, Fig. 5, though further work is planned to optimize performance and improve capacity retention on cycling.

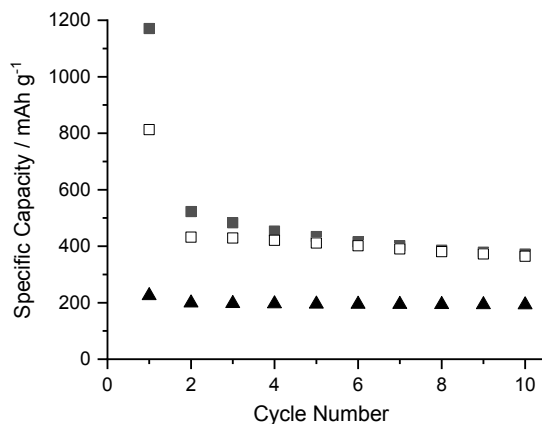


Figure 5. Discharge capacity retention for compositions BIO-LiCoMnO₄ (■), LiCoMnO₃ (□), and commercial Li₄Ti₅O₁₂ (MTI, ▲).

Acknowledgements

RB acknowledges that this project was supported by the Lloyd's Register Foundation and Royal Academy of Engineering under the Research Fellowships scheme.

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