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## COMMUNICATION

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Direct Evidence of Conversion Mechanism in NiSnO<sub>3</sub> Anode for Lithium Ion Battery Application

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Recently, the ternary NiSnO<sub>3</sub> was first reported as an anode for Li-ion battery, presenting superior electrochemical performance to that of the NiO/SnO<sub>2</sub> mixture. This was proposed to be due to the 'self-matrix' function of the discharge products that enables buffering the volume change and preventing the aggregation upon cycling. In this article, direct evidence of the 'self-matrix' mechanism of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> has been observed via *ex-situ* transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and selected area electron diffraction (SAED).

The aim to achieve higher energy densities of lithium ion batteries triggered enormous research activities not only with respect to new materials, but also with respect to different lithium storage mechanisms, such as intercalation, phase transformation or conversion reaction<sup>1</sup>. In contrast to materials with intercalation and phase transformation mechanisms, such as graphite<sup>2.3</sup>, LiCoO<sub>2</sub><sup>4</sup>, LiFePO<sub>4</sub><sup>5, 6</sup>, Li<sub>4</sub>Ti<sub>5</sub>O<sub>12</sub><sup>7, 8</sup>, which offer limited structural space for lithium (de)intercalation, the materials with conversion reaction deliver higher capacity, by utilizing all oxidation states of transition metals, such as CoO<sup>9</sup>, Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sup>9</sup>, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>10</sup>, RuO<sub>2</sub><sup>11</sup>. However, these materials are far from being used commercially, intrinsically due to their large volume change during conversion reaction, large voltage hysteresis, low round-trip energy density loss and low coulombic efficiency, particularly in the first cycle <sup>12</sup>.

Several strategies were reported to address these issues, especially for maintenance of the structural ability and hence the cycle performance, such as design of porous structured materials<sup>13</sup>, and adding inactive<sup>14</sup> or active materials (e.g. carbon<sup>15</sup>) as a buffer matrix. However, either inactive or active addition as matrix would decrease the total energy density of the electrode, thus the advantage of conversion reaction would be less distinctive. Another strategy was to use mixed metal oxides containing two transition metals with a AB<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> spinel structure, such as CoMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>16</sup>, MFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (M = Zn, Co, Ni)<sup>17, 18</sup>, FeCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>19-21</sup>, NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>22, 23</sup>. These spinels show a single plateau during the lithiation process due to mixed Femi level, which is different from the expected two individual reduction potentials. In the case of FeCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>19</sup>, only a small plateau appears prior to the main reduction plateau during the first discharge, which is due to the formation of an intermediate CoO-like phase, while the spinel bond are still maintained confirmed by Infrared (IR) spectroscopy observation.

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Recently, two of us demonstrated a nickel tin oxide (NiSnO<sub>3</sub>, denoted as NSO) as a potential anode material for the lithium-ion battery<sup>24</sup>. Different from typical spinel mixed metal oxides, NSO presents multiple plateaus during the first lithiation process. Specific capacity and cycle performance of NSO are superior to that of simple mixture of NiO and SnO<sub>2</sub> (denoted as NAS). To explain this, a 'self-matrix' mechanism was suggested, according to which, the resultant discharge products after electrochem-decomposition act as buffer matrix for each other, alleviating the volume change and enhancing cycle performance without sacrificing specific capacity. However, direct evidence hasn't been obtained in our previous study. TEM is an attractive, efficient and powerful tool to detect structure and phase changes during the electrochemical conversion reaction<sup>22</sup>. Unlike simple oxides<sup>25, 26</sup>, in convention reactions involving multiple cations<sup>12</sup>, as here, it is significantly important to directly observe their structural changes during lithiation/delithiation via TEM.

Hereby, the reaction pathway of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> anode is observed via *exsitu* SAED and TEM. We confirmed that the electrochemical decomposition of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> into NiO and Sn occurs during the first discharge process, followed by decomposition of NiO and Sn-Li alloying process. The initial decomposition products NiO and Sn act as the counter buffer matrix for each other, which enhance the electrochemical performance of NiSnO<sub>3</sub>.



**Fig. 1.** (a) The cyclic voltammogram (first cycle) of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s<sup>-1</sup>; (b) The 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> galvanostatic discharge/charge profiles of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> at a current density of 100 mA  $g^{-1}$ .

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> is shown in Fig. S1, which is in agreement with our previous result <sup>24</sup>. The particle size of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> is ranging from 50 to 100 nm, judging from the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image (Fig. S2). The TEM images of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> are shown in Fig. S3a and S3b, the d-spacing values observed from high-resolution TEM are consistent with the XRD results. The results obtained from cyclic voltammetry (CV) shown in Fig. 1a indicates that at first cycle three peaks can be observed for the NiSnO<sub>3</sub> during the cathodic process, located around 1.0, 0.6 and 0 V vs. Li<sup>+</sup>/Li, corresponding to the reduction reaction of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> with lithium, while four peaks are located around 0.5, 1.0, 1.5 and 2.2 V in the anodic process, ascribed to the extraction of lithium from the discharge products. Consistent with the CV results, during the first discharge process of the galvanostatic charge-discharge measurement, the potential drops from 3 to 1.3 V vs. Li<sup>+</sup>/Li, followed by three plateau-like regimes, ranging from 1.3-0.9, 0.9-0.6 and 0.6-0 V, leading to a capacity of 1555 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>. The charge process shows two distinguishable regimes ranging from 0-1 V and 1-2.2 V. The first charge capacity is 832 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 1b). Compared to the first discharge profile, the second discharge profile shows relatively lower lithiation potential, while the charge profiles of the following cycles are pretty similar to the first charge cycle,



with small polarization, indicating a similar de-lithiation process. The  $20^{\text{th}}$  charge-discharge profile is similar to that of the  $2^{\text{td}}$  cycle, yet with capacity fading. The discharge-charge capacities at  $20^{\text{th}}$  cycle are 527 and 480 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

The discharge and charge products at different states of discharge (SODs) and charge (SOCs) were examined by bright-field TEM (Fig. S3c-S3g). Since NiSnO<sub>3</sub> shows a unique feature during its first discharge process, i.e., exhibiting multiple reduction plateaus rather than one (Fig. 1), compared to other mixed transition metal oxides <sup>16-</sup> <sup>22</sup>, it is essential to understand the reaction pathway of its first reduction process. When discharged NiSnO<sub>3</sub> to 0.9 V, particles with two main size distributions are observed, i.e., bimodal distribution, ~ 5 and ~ 30 nm (Fig. 2 and S3c, typical particles are marked with yellow and red circles, respectively). With the increase of state of discharge (SOD) to 0.6 V, a remarkable decrease of particle size to less than 5 nm can be observed, which indicates a further decomposition of discharge products (Fig. 2 and S3d). In contrast, when discharging to 0.02 V, the particle size increases (Fig. 2 and S3e). At the meantime, some of the particles remaining its small particle size can be observed as depicted with brown circles in Fig. S3e, which can play a role as volume buffer during the alloying procedure. The morphologies of charge products at different SOCs have also been examined by bright-field (BF) TEM imaging. When charging up to 1.0 V, the particle size of the sample is 5-10 nm (Fig. 2 and S3f), and decreases dramatically compared with that of at 0.02 V. At 2.2 V, the particle size of the part of the products increased to be 40-100 nm (Fig. 2 and S3g). The primary TEM observation, especially change of particle size, indicates that NiSnO<sub>3</sub> experiences Journal Name

an electrochemically milling process during the first discharge process. For detailed information, SAED and HRTEM are applied for further investigation.

The SAED patterns of discharge and charge products during the first cycle at different SODs and SOCs are shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4. Since the high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images of products at different potentials during the first cycle show only a low grade of crystallinity, which usually gets better during cycling <sup>27</sup>, the HRTEM images of reaction products for the 20th cycle were examined for comparison. The SAED patterns of the reduced product at 0.9 V in the 1<sup>st</sup> cycle (Fig. 3b) show the polycrystalline nanostructures of the sample with multiple concentric rings which can be ascribed to Sn (200), (220), (301), Li<sub>2</sub>O (111) (220) (311) and NiO (200) (111). The correlated *d*-spacing values of each substance are shown in Table S2. Overlap of the rings can be observed from the SAED pattern, while the representative diffraction rings of NiO (111), Sn (200) and  $Li_2O$  (111) confirm that when discharging NiSnO<sub>3</sub> to 0.9 V, it decomposes into Sn, NiO and Li<sub>2</sub>O. The HRTEM images of the discharged products at 0.9 V for the 20<sup>th</sup> cycle demonstrate the existence of NiO in the composites with typical lattice d-spacing of NiO (200) (111), as shown in Fig. 3a. For the discharge products at 0.6 V in the 1<sup>st</sup> cycle, the SAED patterns (Fig. 3d and 3e) reveal that beside the existence of Li<sub>2</sub>O, Sn and NiO, Ni metal is also appearing in the resulted products after discharging NiSnO<sub>3</sub> to 0.6 V, indicating a decomposition of NiO to Ni and Li<sub>2</sub>O upon lithium intercalation occurs at the potential of 0.6 V. However, the decomposition is not

complete since there is still remaining NiO in the nanocomposites. The HRTEM image of the discharge product at 0.6 V for 20<sup>th</sup> cycle shows a clear existence of Sn particle with a particle size of ~ 10 nm (Fig. 3c). When discharging NiSnO<sub>3</sub> to 0.02 V, the particle size of the discharged product increases, together with the fact that there is no alloy reaction between lithium and nickel <sup>28</sup>, the cathodic peak around 0 V (slope regime below 0.5 V in first discharge profile, Fig. 1) is mainly ascribed to lithium-tin alloy (Table S1). The SAED patterns show that the resulting nanocomposite exhibit a polycrystalline nanostructure (Fig. 3f), the SAED circles of Sn, Ni, NiO, Li<sub>2</sub>O in the SAED pattern are overlapped with those of Li<sub>x</sub>Sn<sup>29</sup>, which makes it difficult to identify the separate phases.

For the charge process, consider the similarity of the de-lithiation process between first and following cycles  $^{24}$  (Fig. 1b), the charge products between 1<sup>st</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> cycles are comparable in terms of components. When charging to 1.0 V, the particle size shrinks (Fig. 2), indicating a de-lithiation process of Li-Sn alloy, which is consistent with the previous reports (Table S1). The SAED patterns at 1.0 V (Fig. 4b) present the typical diffraction rings of Ni (111) (200) (220), NiO (111), Sn (101) (301) and Li<sub>2</sub>O (111) (220) (311), confirming that the charged nanocomposites at 1.0 V contain Ni, NiO, Sn and Li<sub>2</sub>O. HRTEM images show the *d*-spacing value of 0.240 nm, which should be corresponding to the crystal lattice of NiO (111) (Fig. 4a). The NiO results from the incomplete conversion reaction during the discharge process. When charging up to 2.2 V, the SAED patterns reveal that the resulted nanocomposite consists of



**Fig. 3.** HRTEM of discharge products at different SODs after 20 cycles (a) 0.9 V; (c) 0.6 V; and SAED patterns of discharge products at different SODs during the first discharge process (b) 0.9 V; (d-e) 0.6 V; (f) 0.02 V.



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**Fig. 4.** HRTEM of charge products at different SOCs after 20 cycles (a) 1V; (c-d) 2.2 V and SAED patterns of charge products at different SOCs during the first discharge process (b) 1 V; (e) 2.2 V.

NiO and Li<sub>2</sub>O (Fig. 4e). HRTEM image (Fig. 4d) of samples charge up to 2.2 V after 20 cycles show clearly the crystal lattice of Sn (101), besides, the crystal lattice of NiO (111) and (200) can be observed via the inverse fast Fourier transform (IFFT) (Fig. 4c). It confirms that when charging up to 2.2 V, the nanocomposites contain NiO, Sn and Li<sub>2</sub>O.

**Table 1.** Discharge/charge products at different SOD/SOC duringthe first cycle.

Products at different SOD/SOC	Li <sub>2</sub> O	Li <sub>x</sub> Sn	Sn	NiO	Ni
0.9 V	1		1	1	
0.6 V	1		1	1	1
0.02 V	1	1		1	1
1.0 V	1	1	1	1	
2.2 V	1		1	1	

From the TEM and SAED results, the components of the reduction products at different SODs and SOCs are listed in Table 1. The conversion reaction mechanism of  $NiSnO_3$  can be confirmed and illustrated in Scheme 1 and Eq. (1-3):

$NiSnO_3 + 4Li^+ + 4e^- \rightarrow NiO + Sn + 2Li_2O$	(1)
$NiO + 2Li^+ + 2e^- \leftrightarrow Ni + Li_2O$	(2)
$\operatorname{Sn} + x\operatorname{Li}^+ + xe^- \leftrightarrow \operatorname{Li}_x\operatorname{Sn}$	(3)

During the first discharge process,  $NiSnO_3$  is electrochemically decomposed into NiO, Sn and Li<sub>2</sub>O (Discharge 1, 0.9 V), followed

by the decomposition of NiO into Ni / Li<sub>2</sub>O nanocomposites (Discharge 2, 0.6 V), and lithium alloying with Sn (Discharge 3, 0.02 V), the appearance of Sn can not be clearly identified, due to the overlap of diffraction rings of Li<sub>x</sub>Sn and Sn. In the charge process, Li<sub>v</sub>Sn is dealloyed first when the potential is below 1.0 V (Charge 1), when charging up to 2.2 V, Ni metal is oxidized and NiO is reformed (Charge 2). This is different from our previous hypothesis of the charge process (marked with dashed arrow in Scheme 1)<sup>24</sup>. The decomposition of NiO is not completed during the discharge process, thus the NiO appears in each of the following step (Scheme 1 and Table 1). This reaction pathway can also explain the particle size changes of the discharge/charge products shown in Fig. 2. For the product at 0.9 V, the particles with a particle size of  $\sim 5$ nm are supposed to be Sn nanoparticles and those with a size of ~ 30 nm might be NiO (Fig. S3c), which then decomposes further into much smaller particles Ni and Li<sub>2</sub>O (~ 5 nm) during the further reduction, observed in Fig. S3d. The expansion and shrinkage of particles at 0.02 V (Fig. S3e) and 1V (Fig. S3f) are mainly due to the alloying/de-alloying process of Sn, respectively. The charged products at 2.2 V are NiO, Sn and Li<sub>2</sub>O. Similar as the other ternary spinel oxides  $^{16-22}$ , the reformation of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> is not realized. This could explain the difference of discharge/charge profile between the first and following cycles (Fig. 1b), in which the decomposition of NiO occurs at ~ 1.2 V (Table 1)  $^{30}$ . The incomplete decomposition of NiO results in the capacity fading during cycling, in spite of the superior capacity retention ability of NSO to NAS. Compared to NAS, the distribution of the electrochemical production of NSO (NiO and Sn) during the first cycle is more homogeneous (Fig. S4 and S5), resulting in better 'self-matrix' buffer function and electrochemical performance<sup>24</sup>.

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Scheme 1 Conversion reaction mechanism of NiSnO3 anode as 'selfmatrix' in lithium ion batteries; the dashed arrow indicates the demonstration of charge process in our previous report  $^{24}$ . (The dash circle around Sn particles shows the possibility of Sn in the discharged product at 0.02 V).

### Conclusions

In conclusion, the conversion reaction mechanism of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> has been studied via TEM and SAED methods. Different from other mixed transition metal oxides, NiSnO<sub>3</sub> exhibits multiple reduction plateaus during its initial discharge process, which are due to the decomposition of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> and formation of NiO, Sn and Li<sub>2</sub>O at 0.9 V, decomposition of NiO at 0.6 V, and followed by the alloy process of Sn. Opposite reaction pathway is confirmed during charge process, and results in NiO and Sn as the products when charge up to 2.2 V. The electrochemically formed NiO and Sn during the first discharge process can act as 'self-matrix' buffer for each other during the subsequent reactions, besides the widely recognized buffer effect from Li<sub>2</sub>O, resulting in superior energy density and better cycle performance, compared to the bare nanocomposites of NiO and SnO<sub>2</sub> (NAS). However, incomplete reaction of NiO during discharge could be the main reason for the slow degradation of the storage capacity. Replacement of the commercial NiSnO<sub>3</sub> with a sample controlled porosity and size distribution could further improve its cycling performance.

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### Notes and references

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<sup>†</sup> Dr. Lijun Fu and Mr. Kepeng Song contributed equally to this work. † Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: [Experimental section, XRD patterns of NiSnO<sub>3</sub>, SEM image of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> before cycling, Assignment of redox peaks of NiO and Sn during reactions with lithium, Assignment of the Bragg reflections based on d-values for Sn, Li<sub>2</sub>O, Ni, and NiO from SEAD patterns]. See DOI: 10.1039/c000000x/

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'Self-matrix' function of NiSnO<sub>3</sub> as anode in Li-ion battery has been investigated via ex-situ TEM and SAED.