Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/nanoscale

Nanostructured porous RuO₂/MnO₂ as highly efficient catalyst for

high-rate Li-O₂ batteries

Guoqing Wang,^a Liliang Huang,^a Wei Huang,^a Jian Xie,^{*ab} Gaohui Du,^c Shichao Zhang,^d Peiyi Zhu,^e

Gaoshao Cao^b and Xinbing Zhao^{ab}

^aState Key Laboratory of Silicon Materials, School of Materials Science and Engineering, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou 310027, P. R. China. E-mail: xiejian1977@zju.edu.cn; Fax: +86-571-87951451; Tel: +86-571-87951451

^bKey Laboratory of Advanced Materials and Applications for Batteries of Zhejiang Province, Hangzhou 310027, P. R. China ^cInstitute of Physical Chemistry, Zhejiang Normal University, Jinhua 321004, China

^dIndustrial Technology Research Institute of Zhejiang University, Hangzhou 310058, P. R. China

^eSchool of Materials Science and Engineering, Beijing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics, Beijing 100191, P. R. China

 $[\]dagger$ Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available: SEM, XPS and XRD of the pristine electrodes, SAED and XPS of the discharge and charge electrodes, SEM images of the discharged electrodes with LiI, SEM images of the electrodes after recharge, voltage profiles of the Li–O₂ battery with graphene catalyst, voltage profiles of the Li–O₂ battery with RuO₂/G catalyst and the SEM image of the discharged electrodes, and voltage profiles of Li–MnO₂/G and Li–RuO₂/G batteries tested in pure Ar. See DOI:

Abstract

Despite recent advancements on Li–O₂ (or Li–air) batteries, great challenges still remain to realize the high-rate, long-term cycling. In this work, a binder-free, nanostructured RuO₂/MnO₂ catalytic cathode was designed to realize the operation of Li–O₂ batteries at high rates. At a current density as high as 3200 mA g⁻¹ (or ~1.3 mA cm⁻²), the RuO₂/MnO₂ catalyzed Li–O₂ batteries with LiI can sustain stable cycling of 170 and 800 times at limited capacities of 1000 and 500 mAh g⁻¹, respectively, with low charge cutoff potentials of ~4.0 and <3.8 V, respectively. The underlying mechanism of the high catalytic performance of MnO₂/RuO₂ was also clarified in this work. It was found that with the catalytic effect of RuO₂, Li₂O₂ can crystallize into a thin-sheet form and realize a conformal growth on sheet-like δ -MnO₂ at a current density up to 3200 mA g⁻¹, constructing a sheet-on-sheet structure. This crystallization behavior of Li₂O₂ not only defers the electrode passivation upon discharge but also renders easy decomposition of Li₂O₂ upon charge, leading to low polarizations and reduced side reactions. This work provides a unique design of catalytic cathodes capable of controlling Li₂O₂ growth and sheds light on the design of high-rate, long-life Li–O₂ batteries with potential applications in electric vehicles.

One of the technical obstacles of current Li-ion batteries is the insufficient energy density, usually below 200 Wh kg⁻¹,¹⁻³ although they have already been used as power sources for electric vehicles. In contrast, Li–O₂ (or Li–air) batteries can afford a much high energy density of 3505 Wh kg⁻¹ via the reaction $2\text{Li} + \text{O}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{Li}_2\text{O}_2$.³⁻⁶ Unfortunately, Li₂O₂ is electrically insulating,⁷⁻¹⁰ and chemically/electrochemically reactive with organic electrolyte,^{11–13} polymer binder^{12–14} and conductive carbon.^{15–18} In addition, the electrodes in Li–O₂ batteries should be specially designed with free space to accumulate Li₂O₂, fairly different from Li-ion batteries with a shuttle mechanism. The disadvantages of Li₂O₂ result in sluggish oxygen reduction/evolution reaction (ORR/OER) kinetics and thus poor battery performance. In recent years, great efforts have been made to improve the battery performance by optimizing electrode structures, developing stable electrolytes, using efficient catalysts, etc.^{19–26}

Despite these efforts, great challenges still remain to develop practical Li–O₂ batteries with satisfactory rate capability and long cycle life at high rates, as generally required by electric vehicles. These obstacles are largely caused by the sluggish ORR/OER kinetics related to the insulating Li₂O₂. One of the effective strategies to enhance ORR/OER kinetics is to crystallize Li₂O₂ into favorable forms. First-principles calculations revealed that the surface of Li₂O₂ is half-metallic whereas the bulk Li₂O₂ is an insulator.²⁷ Theoretical study also indicated that thin Li₂O₂ deposits decompose at low potentials whereas thick Li₂O₂ deposits decompose at high potentials.⁹ This suggests that the formation of low-dimensional Li₂O₂ is desirable to enhance the electrode kinetics. Experimental investigation found that the overall conductivity of Li₂O₂ could be increased by two orders of magnitude by decreasing its crystal size from micrometer to nanometer size.¹⁰ The work by Hu et al. showed that the charge overpotentials of Li–O₂ batteries could be lowered by decreasing particle size of the pre-filled Li₂O₂.²⁸ Therefore, it is anticipated that the overpotentials (particularly charge overpotentials) could be decreased by crystallizing Li₂O₂ into low-dimensional forms during discharge. Recent work proven that noble metals on one-dimensional

Nanoscale Accepted Manuscript

carbon matrix are capable of directing thin-layered Li_2O_2 to grow conformally on the carbon matrices, ^{29–32} in contrast to the discs/toroids morphologies commonly observed on the carbon-based electrodes.^{33,34}

Nevertheless, carbon materials are chemically unstable in contact with Li_2O_2 (or its intermediate LiO_2),^{15–17} especially that with defects and functional groups.¹⁸ Thus, the intimate contact of Li_2O_2 with carbon materials is unfavorable. In this regard, some metal oxides, such as MnO_2 ,^{35–40} spinel-type oxides,^{41–43} TiO₂,⁴⁴ and perovskite-type oxides,^{45–47} are ideal supports for noble metals because of their good chemical/electrochemical stability towards Li_2O_2 (or LiO_2) and high catalytic activity for ORR/OER. Previous work showed that Au nanocrystals could direct the conformal growth of Li_2O_2 on the NiCo₂O₄ nanosheet.⁴⁸ Among various noble-metal-based catalysts, RuO₂ has received a special interest due to its superior catalytic performance for ORR/OER.^{31,49–52} It was found that good catalytic performance can be achieved by loading RuO₂ on some stable oxides such as MnO_2 and TiO₂.^{53–55} For example, $Li-O_2$ battery with RuO₂ catalyst could sustain a stable cycling of 130 times under 1770 mA g⁻¹ at a limited capacity of 1000 mAh g⁻¹,⁵⁴ by loading RuO₂ on a stable TiO₂/Ti support.⁵⁶

However, compared with carbon materials, metal oxides usually show low electronic conductivity which limits the rate capability and high-rate cycling performance of Li–O₂ batteries. In this case, the architecture of the catalytic cathode is important to achieve high performance of Li–O₂ batteries. In this work, a unique design of catalytic cathode was proposed, where RuO₂-modified δ -MnO₂ nanosheets were directly deposited on graphene-coated nickel substrate by a facile hydrothermal route. It was found that RuO₂ is highly efficient in promoting the "wetting" of Li₂O₂ on MnO₂ nanosheets at high current rates. Namely, a conformal growth of Li₂O₂ sheets on MnO₂ sheets can be realized at high rates, which can alleviate and defer the electrode deactivation associated with low-conductive Li₂O₂ and MnO₂. The controlled growth of Li₂O₂ at high current rates is realized through the synergic effect of RuO₂ and MnO₂. RuO₂ is also highly efficient in catalytically decomposing Li₂O₂ at high current rates. The decomposition of Li₂O₂ can be further

promoted by using a soluble catalyst.

As a result, RuO₂/MnO₂-catalyzed Li–O₂ batteries with a soluble catalyst exhibit excellent rate capability and long cycle life at high rates. At a current density as high as 3200 mA g⁻¹ (~1.3 mA cm⁻²), the battery can demonstrate a low charge cutoff potential (3.84 V) and a high discharge cutoff potential (2.54 V). The battery can sustain a stable cycling up to 170 times at 3200 mA g⁻¹ with a limited capacity of 1000 mAh g⁻¹. When the capacity is limited at 500 mAh g⁻¹, a stable cycling over 800 times can be achieved with a low charge cutoff potential (< 3.8 V). This work will shed light on the design of new catalysts enabling superior rate capability and high-rate cycling stability of Li–O₂ batteries with promising applications in electric vehicles.

Experimental section

Electrodes preparation and characterization

The detailed preparation procedure of δ -MnO₂ nanosheets on graphene-coated nickel foam (Ni/G) was described previously.³⁸ The loading of RuO₂ on MnO₂ nanosheets was performed by a facile solution impregnation approach. Briefly, the Ni/G supported MnO₂ was immersed in a RuCl₃ aqueous solution (0.16 mg mL⁻¹) with magnetic stirring for 3 h at room temperature. After rinsing with distilled water, the obtained product was heated at 300 °C for 2 h in Ar. The loadings of MnO₂ and RuO₂ are around 0.31 and 0.11 mg cm⁻², respectively. For comparison, RuO₂ was directly loaded on Ni/G by a similar route as on δ -MnO₂, where the pH of the RuCl₃ solution was adjusted to 5–6 by adding 0.2 M NaHCO₃ aqueous solution. The loading of RuO₂ on Ni/G is around 0.1 mg cm⁻². The phases present in the electrode were checked by X-ray diffraction (XRD) on a Rigaku D/Max-2550pc diffractometer using Cu K_a radiation ($\lambda = 0.1541$ nm). The chemical states of the electrode components were analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) on a KRATOS AXIS ULTRA-DLD spectrometer using monochromatic Al K_a radiation ($h\nu = 1486.6$ eV). The morphology and microstructure of the electrodes (or electrode components) were observed by scanning electron microscope (SEM) on a FEI-sirion microscope and transmission electron

Nanoscale Accepted Manuscript

microscopy (TEM) on a JEM 2100F microscope. The high-angle annular dark-field (HAADF)-scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) images and the energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDX) mapping were carried out on a FEI Tecnai G² F20 microscope using an acceleration voltage of 200 kV.

Electrochemical measurements

Coin-type Li–O₂ batteries were assembled in an argon-filled glove box using metallic Li foil as anode, Ni/G supported RuO₂/MnO₂ (or MnO₂) as cathode (0.6 cm × 0.6 cm), and 1 M lithium-bis(trifluoromethanesulphonyl)imide (LiTFSI) in tetraethylene glycol dimethyl ether (TEGDME) as electrolyte. In some cases, 0.05 M LiI was added in the electrolyte. The electrodes were dried in a vacuum oven at 80 °C for 3 h before batteries assembly. The assembled coin batteries were purged with O₂ for 20 min and stayed at open voltage circuit (OCV) for 5 h before the electrochemical tests. Constant-current cycling was carried out using a Neware battery cycler (Shenzhen, China) in a voltage window of 2.0–4.5 V (vs. Li/Li⁺). The specific capacity (mAh g⁻¹) and current density (mA g⁻¹) of the RuO₂/MnO₂-catalyzed batteries were normalized by the total mass of MnO₂ and RuO₂. For the MnO₂-catalyzed battery, the current density and specific capacity were normalized by the mass of MnO₂. The electrochemical tests were performed at 25 °C.

Results and discussion

MnO₂ was deposited directly on the skeleton of Ni/G, copying its three-dimensional (3D) interconnected scaffold structure, and the large pores in Ni foam are kept intact (ESI, Fig. S1a). This electrode design allows barrier-free diffusion of oxygen gas and Li ions, and excludes or minimizes the side reactions related to binder and carbon.^{12–18} SEM indicates that the MnO₂ is assembled from nanosized sheets and exhibits a 3D porous structure (Fig. 1a and ESI, Fig. S1b). This 3D porous structure facilitates the diffusion of Li ions and deposition of the lithiation products.^{57–59} As seen in Fig. 1b, the porous structure is preserved after RuO₂ decoration. High-magnification SEM in Fig. 1c shows that the surface of MnO₂ sheets is coated with

floccus-like substance, which is supported by TEM (ESI, Fig. S1d). The decoration of RuO_2 on MnO_2 sheets is more clearly seen in dark-field TEM and the corresponding EDS mapping (Fig. 1d–g). XPS confirms the formation of MnO_2 and RuO_2 (ESI, Fig. S2a–c). XRD patterns in Fig. S2d indicate that the MnO_2 is δ -MnO₂.

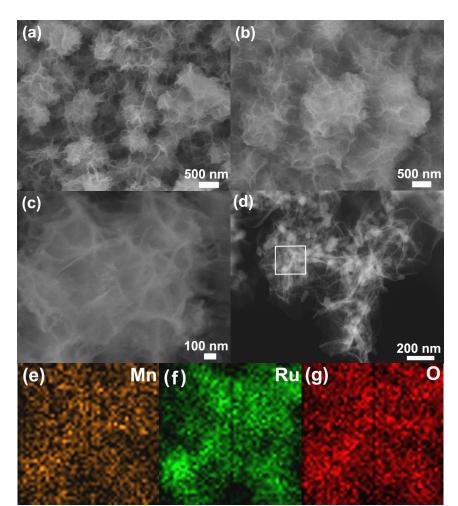
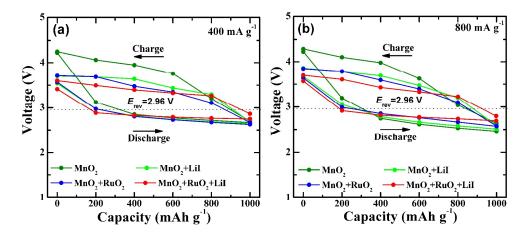


Fig. 1 (a) SEM image of MnO_2 , (b,c) SEM images of RuO_2/MnO_2 , (d) dark-field TEM image of RuO_2/MnO_2 , and (e–f) EDS mapping of the marked domain in (d).

The catalytic activity of the catalysts for ORR and OER was evaluated by rate capability tests. Li–O₂ batteries with different catalysts were tested at various current densities (400–3200 mA g⁻¹) with the capacity limited at 1000 mAh g⁻¹ as shown in Fig. 2. For comparison, the reversible potential ($E_{rev} = 2.96$ V) of nonaqueous Li–O₂ battery was also plotted. The current density and specific capacity were calculated normalized by the weight of MnO₂ or RuO₂+MnO₂ for the MnO₂

cathode and the RuO₂/MnO₂ cathode, respectively. Soluble catalysts such as LiI and MPT have shown the ability to catalytically oxidize Li_2O_2 with low overpotentials.^{60,61} At a moderate current density of 400 mA g⁻¹, the batteries show similar discharge potentials and the discharge processes all occur at a high potentials (> 2.6 V) (Fig. 2a), indicating that the MnO₂ itself has a high catalytic effect for ORR at the moderate current density. In contrast, for the charge process, the batteries show a sharp difference depending on the catalysts used. The introduction of RuO_2 obviously lowers the charge overpotentials, which can be further lowered by adding LiI in the electrolyte. The charge cutoff potential can be reduced from 4.24 V for battery with MnO₂ catalyst to 3.60 V for battery with RuO₂/MnO₂+LiI catalyst. As seen in Fig. 2b-d, at higher current rates, the Li-O₂ batteries with RuO_2 generally exhibit higher discharge potentials than those without RuO_2 especially at deep discharge states. This suggests that RuO₂ is highly efficient in catalyzing ORR at high current rates whereas bare MnO₂ is insufficient to support high-rate ORR. It seems that the addition of LiI shows minor influence on the ORR kinetics, and that RuO₂ and LiI show a similar ability to catalytically oxidize Li₂O₂. Note that Li–O₂ battery exhibits excellent rate capability with the joint catalytic effects of RuO₂, MnO₂ and LiI. Even at a current density as high as 3200 mA g⁻¹ (~1.3 mA cm⁻²), the battery could exhibit a low charge cutoff potential (3.84 V) and a high discharge cutoff potential (2.54 V). These results demonstrate that RuO_2/MnO_2 is a superior catalyst for high-rate ORR and OER.



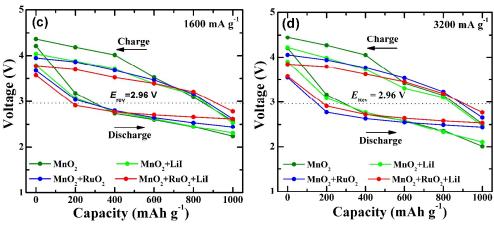
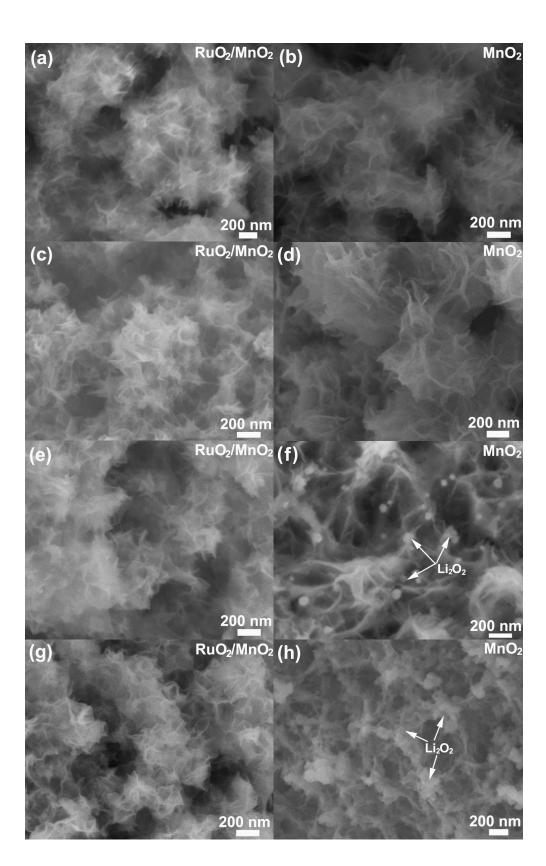


Fig. 2 Voltage as a function of capacity of the Li– O_2 batteries with different catalysts at current densities of (a) 400 mA g⁻¹, (b) 800 mA g⁻¹, (c) 1600 mA g⁻¹, and (d) 3200 mA g⁻¹.

SEM observations on the cycled electrodes were performed to understand the catalyst dependence of rate capability of the Li-O2 batteries. Fig. 3 compares the SEM images of the MnO2 and RuO₂/MnO₂ electrodes in the pristine and discharged states (1000 mAh g⁻¹). Compared with the pristine electrodes, both the MnO₂ and RuO₂/MnO₂ electrodes show minor morphology changes after discharged to 1000 mAh g⁻¹ at 400 mA g⁻¹. Both the electrodes maintain a fluffy porous structure, indicating that Li_2O_2 can generally realize the conformal growth on MnO₂ sheets at this moderate current, agreeing with the rate capability results in Fig. 2a. At 800 mA g⁻¹, some particles form on MnO₂ although its sheet-like structure is still visible, which means that the catalytic activity of MnO₂ cannot fully support the high-rate ORR. For RuO₂/MnO₂, the particles are invisible and the porous structure is well preserved, agreeing well the results of rate performance in Fig. 2b. At higher current rates of 1600 and 3200 mA g⁻¹, particles and particles aggregations are evident on the surface of the MnO₂ electrode. In addition, the pores in the MnO₂ are filled by the particles, suggesting that the crystallization behavior of Li₂O₂ on MnO₂ is greatly affected by the current density. By contrast, for the RuO₂/MnO₂ electrode, the fluffy porous structure can still be retained at a high current density up to 3200 mA g^{-1} . This indicates that Li₂O₂ can realize conformal growth on RuO₂/MnO₂ at high current rates. Selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns and XPS verify the reversible formation/decomposition of Li₂O₂ (ESI, Fig. S3).

TEM observation was performed to further reveal the different crystallization habits of Li_2O_2 on MnO_2 and RuO_2/MnO_2 . As shown in Fig. 4a, a thin, fluffy Li₂O₂ layer forms on the surface of RuO₂-decorated MnO₂ sheets, forming a sheet-on-sheet structure. On the bare MnO₂ sheets, large, thick Li₂O₂ particles appear, forming a particle-on-sheet structure (Fig. 4b). The sharp difference should be closely related to the presence of RuO_2 , which may act as the catalytically active sites for the nucleation/crystallization of Li₂O₂ due possibly to the relatively high binding energy of noble metal Ru with oxygen.⁶² The synergic catalytic effect of MnO₂ then directs the conformal growth of Li₂O₂ sheets on MnO₂ sheets, realizing the "wetting" of Li₂O₂ on MnO₂ sheets. Note that the addition of LiI shows little influence on the morphology of the discharged electrodes (ESI, Fig. S4). Fig. 4 shows the schematic illustration of the different crystallization habits of Li_2O_2 on the two electrodes at a high current density. The conformal growth of thin sheet-like Li2O2 is favorable since thin-layer structure allows its easy decomposition at low overpotentials.^{9,10,27,28} The conformal growth also renders intimate contact of Li₂O₂ with RuO₂/MnO₂ which promotes a rapid oxidation decomposition of Li₂O₂ due to its superior OER catalytic activity. SEM images (ESI, Fig. S5) show that Li₂O₂ can be completely decomposed on the RuO₂/MnO₂ electrode after charged to 1000 mAh g^{-1} . The decomposition of Li₂O₂ becomes easier with the co-catalytic effect of LiI through the reaction $I_2 + Li_2O_2 \rightarrow 2Li^+ + 2I^- + O_2$, where I_2 was generated from I^- during the charge process.⁶⁰ In contrast, on the MnO₂ electrode, Li_2O_2 particles are still visible after the recharge process. Even in the presence of LiI, the pores of MnO_2 are still clogged although the Li₂O₂ particles on the surface have been removed. These results suggest that RuO_2 does play a critical role in catalyzing both ORR and OER, and that the synergic effect of MnO₂ and RuO₂ is important to realize the excellent rate capability of the Li-O₂ batteries.



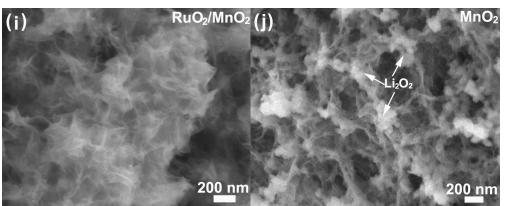


Fig. 3 SEM images of RuO₂/MnO₂ and MnO₂ electrodes at pristine states (a,b) and after discharged to 1000 mAh g^{-1} at (c,d) 400 mA g^{-1} , (e,f) 800 mA g^{-1} , (g,h) 1600 mA g^{-1} and (i,j) 3200 mA g^{-1} .

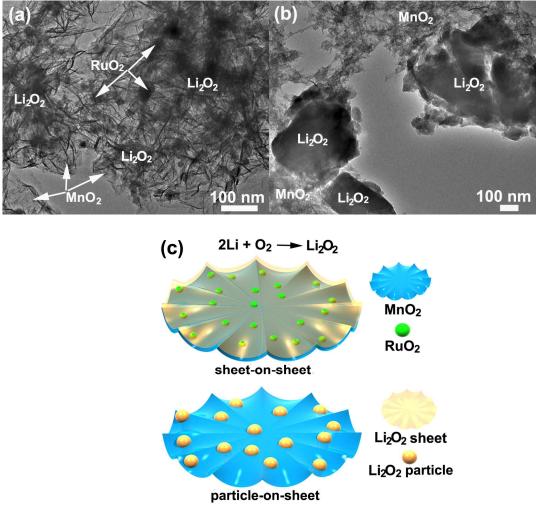


Fig. 4 TEM images of the (a) RuO_2/MnO_2 and (b) MnO_2 electrodes discharged to 1000 mAh g⁻¹ at 3200 mA g⁻¹, and (c) formation mechanism of Li_2O_2 thin sheets or large particles on MnO_2 sheets with or without RuO_2 at high current density.

As discussed above, catalyst exerts great influence on the ORR especially at high current density. However, the intrinsic OER catalytic activity of the individual catalyst is unclear yet since besides catalyst, the morphology of the discharge product also affects the charge characteristics of the batteries. Therefore, the batteries were first discharged at a low current density of 200 mA g^{-1} to ensure similar morphology of Li₂O₂. At this low current density, the discharge curves are almost overlapped with a high potential plateau (~2.8 V), suggesting that MnO₂ itself can well support the ORR at low current rate (Fig. 5a). The charge behaviors, however, exhibit obvious catalyst dependence as seen in the figure. The OER catalytic activity is in the order of $RuO_2/MnO_2+LiI >$ $MnO_2+LiI > RuO_2/MnO_2 > MnO_2$, roughly similar to the order in Fig. 2. With the synergic catalysis of RuO₂, MnO₂ and LiI, the Li-O₂ battery displays a rather low polarization with a mid-capacity overpotential of only 0.5 V. Besides rate capability, high-rate cycling stability is another important factor in determining the practical applications of Li-O2 batteries. Before the capacity-limited cycling tests, the batteries were first fully discharged under 3200 mA g⁻¹ to check the full capacities they can deliver at a high current density. It can be seen in Fig. 5b that $Li-O_2$ batteries with RuO₂/MnO₂+LiI, MnO₂+LiI, RuO₂/MnO₂ and MnO₂ catalysts deliver capacities of 1063, 1068, 1396, 1523 mAh g⁻¹, respectively. The battery with RuO₂ catalyst yields a higher capacity than that without RuO₂, due probably to the fact that the conformal growth of thin-layer Li₂O₂ on RuO₂-decorated MnO₂ sheets has deferred the deactivation of the electrodes, allowing more Li_2O_2 to be deposited.

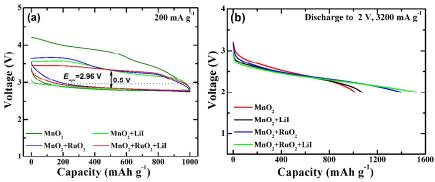


Fig. 5 The first voltage profiles of the Li– O_2 batteries with different catalysts tested (a) at 200 mA g^{-1} to 1000 mAh g^{-1} and (b) at 3200 mA g^{-1} discharged to 2 V.

The durability of the catalytic activity of the catalysts for ORR and OER at high rates was evaluated by cycling the Li-O₂ batteries at a high current rate. Fig. 6 shows the cycling performance of the Li–O₂ batteries with various catalysts at 3200 mA g⁻¹ with the capacity limited at 1000 mAh g⁻¹. As seen in Fig. 6a, the Li–O₂ battery with MnO₂ catalyst can only sustain 30 cycles with high polarization (charge potential >4.3 V, discharge potential ~2.0 V). The poor cycling performance is attributed to the electrolyte decomposition at high potentials in the presence of Li₂O₂ (or LiO₂) and the accumulation of the byproducts, for instance LiRCO₃.^{15,63} By adding soluble LiI catalyst, the cycling performance of MnO₂-catalyzed battery is much improved (Fig. 6b). After 170 cycles, a capacity of 989 mAh g^{-1} can be maintained, where the charge cutoff potential is below 4.2 V. The enhancement in cycling performance is due to the low oxidization potential of Li₂O₂ promoted by LiI (ESI, Fig. S5). The low oxidization potential of Li₂O₂, in turn, reduces electrolyte. Compared with the MnO₂-catalyzed decomposition of battery, the RuO₂/MnO₂-catalyzed battery also shows improved cycling performance (Fig. 6c). The improvement in battery performance can be ascribed to high catalytic ability of RuO_2 and the easy decomposition of thin-layer Li₂O₂. With the co-catalysis of RuO₂/MnO₂ and LiI, the cycling performance of the battery can be further improved (Fig. 6d). The stable cycling of the battery can last 170 times with a low charge cutoff potential (~4.0 V). After that, the performance degradation of the battery is probably due to the gradually weakened catalytic activity of the catalyst and/or the accumulation of inert byproducts that deactivate the electrode. As seen in Fig. S6, bare graphene on Ni shows rather low capacity and poor cycling performance, and can only be considered as the conductive substrate for RuO₂/MnO₂. For comparison, the catalytic activity of RuO₂ on grapheme (RuO₂/G) was also investigated. The RuO₂/G-catalyzed Li-O₂ battery can sustain a stable cycling of only 30 times with high overpotentials even at a low current density of 200 mA g^{-1} (ESI, Fig. S7a). SEM image in Fig. S7c shows that large Li_2O_2 particles form on the RuO₂/G electrode, indicating that the RuO₂ on graphene cannot induce the controlled growth of Li_2O_2 into thin-sheet form, in contrast to the case on MnO_2 sheets. The results suggest that both component and structure

should be taken into consideration to design highly efficient catalytic electrodes.

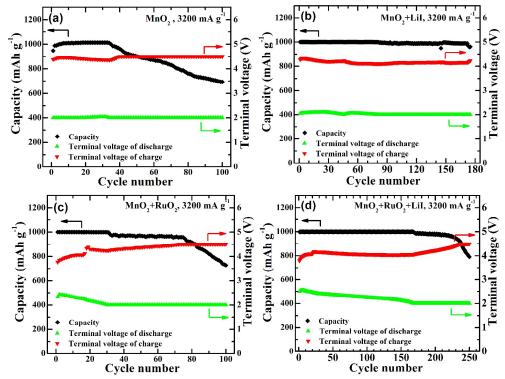


Fig. 6 Capacity and terminal voltage as a function of cycle number of the Li–O₂ batteries with different catalysts.

The cycling performance of the Li–O₂ battery with RuO₂/MnO₂+LiI catalyst was also evaluated at 800 mA g⁻¹ with the capacity limited at 1000 mAh g⁻¹ (Fig. 7a,b). At this current density, the battery shows a low overpotential in the initial cycles (Fig. 7a) and keeps a stable cycling of 180 times (Fig. 7b). As expected, the battery shows an obviously lower polarization compared with that operated at 3200 mA g⁻¹. After 180 cycles, the charge cutoff potential is still below 3.8 V, indicative of superior catalytic ability of RuO₂/MnO₂+LiI for Li₂O₂ oxidization. The battery was also cycled at a lower limited capacity of 500 mAh g⁻¹ under 3200 mA g⁻¹ (Fig. 7c,d). In this case, the battery can keep a stable cycling up to 800 times with a low charge cutoff potential (<3.8 V). After 1000 cycles, a capacity of 492 mAh g⁻¹ is still retained with a relatively low charge cutoff potential (<4.0 V). The excellent high-rate cycling stability can be attributed to the optimized design of the catalytic cathode: (1) RuO₂/MnO₂ catalyzes the conformal growth of thin-layer Li₂O₂

on MnO₂ sheets; (2) thin-layer Li₂O₂ is easily oxidized by RuO₂/MnO₂+LiI at low potential with reduced electrolyte decomposition; (3) the side reactions related to binder and conductive carbon with Li₂O₂ (or LiO₂) can be totally excluded or largely minimized. Table 1 summaries the cycling performance of the Li–O₂ batteries with various catalysts, including MnO₂ and other metal oxides, RuO₂, and RuO₂-based mixed catalysts. The data in Table 1 represent the best ones reported most recently. The electrochemical performance of our RuO₂/MnO₂-catalyzed batteries is among the best ones when comparing the applied current density, terminal voltage, capacity and cycle life comprehensively. It should be stressed that the RuO₂/MnO₂ electrode is capable of controlling Li₂O₂ growth at high current density although its components (RuO₂, MnO₂) have been well studied as catalysts for Li–O₂ batteries. As a result, this work provides a unique design of catalytic cathode aiming at high-rate Li–O₂ batteries.

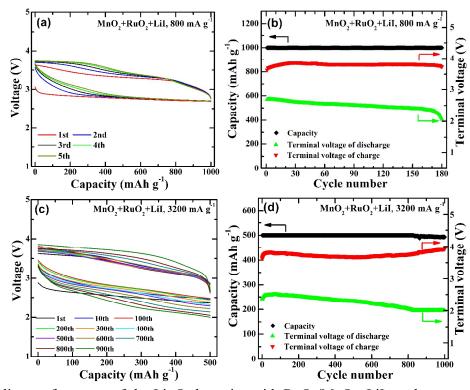


Fig. 7 Cycling performance of the Li–O₂ batteries with RuO_2/MnO_2 +LiI catalyst tested (a) at 800 mA g⁻¹ with a limited capacity of 1000 mAh g⁻¹ and (b) at 3200 mA g⁻¹ with a limited capacity of 500 mAh g⁻¹.

Sample/electrode preparation method	Current density	Terminal voltage range in the last cycle [V]	Charge/ discharge mode	Specific capacity	Cycle number	Reference
RuO ₂ /δ-MnO ₂ directly grown on Ni	$ \begin{array}{c} 3200 \text{ mA } {\rm g}_{\rm catalyst} & {}^{-1} \\ {\rm (\sim} 1.3 \text{ mA } {\rm cm}^{-2}) \end{array} $	2.05 - 3.76 /2 - 4.07	Capacity limited	500 mAh g _{catalyst} ⁻¹ /1000mAh g _{catalyst}	800 /170	This work
α -MnO ₂ /G paste coating	0.09 mA cm^{-2}	2.8 - 4.0	Capacity limited	580 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	25	[35]
α -MnO ₂ /C paste coating	0.06 mA cm^{-2}	2.2 – 4.3	Capacity limited	500 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	60	[36]
ε-MnO ₂ directly grown on Ni	500 mA $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	2.2 – 4.3	Capacity unlimited	>1000 mAh g _{catalyst} ⁻¹	>120	[37]
δ-MnO ₂ /G directly grown on Ni	0.333 mA cm^{-2}	2.0 - 4.3	Capacity limited	492 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	132	[38]
δ -MnO ₂ aerogel paste coating	$200 \text{ mA } g_{catalyst}{}^{-1}$	~2.3->4.5	Capacity limited	667 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	25	[39]
ε-MnO ₂ directly grown on Ni	500 mA $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	2.2 - 4.0	Capacity limited	800 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	190	[40]
Co ₃ O ₄ /G directly grown on Ni	0.1 mA cm^{-2}	>2.0 - ~4.5	Capacity limited	580 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	62	[41]
Co-Mn-O nanocubes paste coating	0.16 mA cm^{-2}	> 2.0 - ~4.5	Capacity limited	500 mAh $g_{electrode}^{-1}$	100	[42]
mesoporous Co ₃ O ₄ paste coating	0.1 mA cm^{-2}	>2.5 -~4.2	Capacity limited	1000 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	60	[43]
TiO ₂ nanowires directly grown on carbon textiles	$100 \text{ mA } \text{g}_{\text{catalyst}}^{-1}$	>2.0 in discharge	Capacity limited	500 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	>356	[44]
macroporous LaFeO ₃ paste coating	0.15 mA cm^{-2}	2.0 - ~4.75	Capacity limited	$2000 \text{ mAh } g_{catalyst}{}^{-1}$	124	[45]
LaNiO ₃ nanocubes paste coating	0.08 mA cm^{-2}	-	Capacity limited	500 mAh $g_{electrode}^{-1}$	75	[46]
porous La _{0.5} Sr _{0.5} CoO _{2.91} paste coating	$400 \text{ mA } g_{catalyst}{}^{-1}$	2.0-~4.75	Capacity limited	$2000 \text{ mAh } g_{catalyst}{}^{-1}$	85	[47]
RuO ₂ /CNT paste coating	0.05 mA cm^{-2}	<2.5->4.0	Capacity limited	$680 \text{ mAh } g_{\text{catalyst}}^{-1}$	20	[31]
RuO ₂ /G paste coating	500 mA $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	~2.7 - ~3.9	Capacity limited	5000 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	30	[49]
RuO ₂ /CNT paste coating	500 mA $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	2.65 - 3.62	Capacity limited	$300 \text{ mAh } g_{\text{catalyst}}^{-1}$	100	[50]
RuO ₂ /porous carbon paste coating	$\frac{250 \text{ mA}}{\text{g}_{\text{catalyst+carbon}}^{-1}}$	~2.5 - ~4.75	Capacity limited	$\frac{1000 \text{ mAh}}{g_{catalyst+carbon}}^{-1}$	300	[51]
RuO ₂ hollow spheres paste coating	500 mA $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	2.3 - 4.0	Capacity unlimited	${\sim}1000 \text{ mAh } g_{catalyst}{}^{-1}$	100	[52]
γ -MnO ₂ /RuO ₂ paste coating	0.1 mA cm^{-2}	>2.0 in discharge	Capacity limited	1344 mAh $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	50	[53]
TiO ₂ /RuO ₂ directly grown on Ti	1770 mA $g_{catalyst}^{-1}$	~1.25 - ~3.5	Capacity limited	1000 mAh g _{catalyst} ⁻¹	130	[54]
α-MnO ₂ /RuO ₂ paste coating	0.1 mA cm^{-2}	>2.5-4.0	Capacity limited	$300 \text{ mAh } g_{\text{catalyst}}^{-1}$	50	[55]

Table 1 Comparison of cycling performance of some metal oxides, RuO₂ and RuO₂-loaded oxides.

Note: G=graphene, CNT=carbon nanotube

XPS characterization was performed to clarify the excellent cycling stability of the $Li-O_2$ batteries catalyzed by RuO_2/MnO_2+LiI . Fig. 8a gives the C1s XPS of the electrodes cycled at different states. The broad peak at 283–286 eV can be assigned to C–C and C=C configurations in graphene.⁶⁴ After

Nanoscale Accepted Manuscript

repeated cycling, the peak keeps almost unchanged, indicating that it is stable in the battery system. Note that after 180 cycles, some peaks related to carboxylate, Li_2CO_3 , and ethers become obvious but not significant, which is related mainly to electrolyte decomposition reactions.^{15,44} The formation of these byproducts can explain the performance degradation of the battery after long-term operation. However, the byproducts from the reactions between Li_2O_2 (or LiO_2) and carbon (graphene)^{15–18} should be minor with our optimized electrode design. In addition, the catalyst-enabled low charge potentials in our case also reduce the electrolyte decomposition. It is expected that the cycling stability of the battery can be further improved by using stable electrolyte.

The intrinsic catalytic mechanism of RuO₂/MnO₂ during cycling was further investigated by XPS. It was found that the shape and position of Mn 2p peaks show minor changes upon discharge and charge and long-term cycling (Fig. 8b). This indicates that δ -MnO₂ is chemically/electrochemically stable against the attack of Li₂O₂ or LiO₂. Li–MnO₂/G battery tested in pure argon yields a small capacity even at a low current density (Fig. S8a), which indicates that only a small amount of lithium would be inserted into MnO_2 at high current density under O_2 atmosphere, agreeing with the XPS result. It is thus anticipated that a slight lithiation of MnO_2 should not exert obvious influence on the catalytic activity of MnO_2 , although pre-lithiated MnO_2 has proved to show enhanced catalytic activity compared with the pristine one.⁶⁵ The position of Ru 3d peaks also show a minor change upon discharge and charge (Fig. 8c), indicating that the RuO₂ phase has been retained during charge and discharge. Li-RuO₂/G battery tested in pure argon also shows a small capacity even at a low current density (Fig. S8b), which suggests that the conversion reaction from RuO₂ to Ru is not obvious, in support of the XPS result. It is reasonable since the conversion reaction from RuO₂ to Ru occurs dominantly below 2.0 V.⁶⁶ These results suggest that RuO₂/MnO₂ itself exhibits intrinsically high catalytic activity.

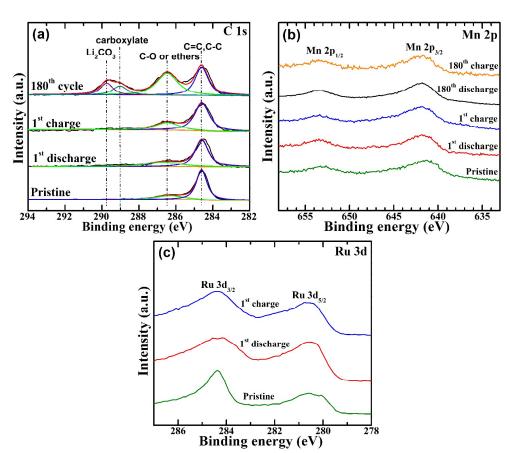


Fig. 8 (a) C1s, (b) Mn2p and (c) Ru3d XPS of the RuO₂/MnO₂ electrodes at different charge and discharge states.

Conclusions

In summary, we grew nanostructured RuO₂/MnO₂ catalyst directly onto graphene-coated nickel foam without using polymer binder. This electrode design totally avoids or largely excludes the side reactions between binder/carbon and Li₂O₂ (or LiO₂), allowing the revelation of the intrinsic catalytic performance of the catalysts. The RuO₂ nanocrystals on MnO₂ nanosheets show the ability to promote the conformal growth of thin-layered Li₂O₂ on MnO₂ at high current rates. The decomposition of thin-layer Li₂O₂ can be easily achieved by the excellent catalytic effect of RuO₂/MnO₂ and the promotion effect of LiI, leading to superior rate capability of the Li–O₂ batteries. At a current rate as high as 3200 mA g⁻¹ (~1.3 mA cm⁻²), the battery can demonstrate a low charge cutoff potential of 3.84 V and a high discharge cutoff potential of 2.54 V at a limited capacity of 1000 mAh g⁻¹. The Li–O₂ batteries also exhibit superior high-rate cycling stability,

Nanoscale Accepted Manuscript

sustaining a stable cycling of 170 times under 3200 mA g^{-1} at 1000 mAh g^{-1} with a relatively low charge cutoff potential (~4.0 V). A long cycle life over 800 times at 3200 mA g^{-1} can be achieved when the capacity is limited at 500 mAh g^{-1} . The superior high-rate cycling stability can be attributed to the controlled growth of Li₂O₂ at high rates catalyzed by RuO₂/MnO₂, the easy catalytic decomposition of Li₂O₂ by RuO₂/MnO₂+LiI at low potentials with reduced electrolyte oxidization, and minimized or excluded side reactions related to binder and carbon. The high catalytic activity of RuO₂/MnO₂ makes it a promising catalyst for high-rate Li–O₂ batteries.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Basic Research Program of China (2013CB934001), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 51572238), Zhejiang Provincial Natural Science Foundation of China under Grant No. LY15E010004, the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (2014XZZX002–03), Key Science and Technology Innovation Team of Zhejiang Province under Grant Number 2010R50013, Program for Innovative Research Team in University of Ministry of Education of China (IRT13037), and Open Research Fund of Top Key Discipline of Chemistry in Zhejiang Provincial Colleges and Key Laboratory of the Ministry of Education for Advanced Catalysis Materials (Zhejiang Normal University). We acknowledge the access to the microscope facilities provided by the Center for Electron Microscopy of Zhejiang University.

Notes and references

- 1 F. T. Wagner, B. Lakshmanan and M. F. Mathias, J. Phys. Chem. Lett., 2010, 1, 2204-2219.
- 2 M. M. Thackeray, C. Wolverton and E. D. Isaacs, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2012, 5, 7854–7863.
- 3 P. G. Bruce, S. A. Freunberger, L. J. Hardwick and J. M. Tarascon, Nat. Mater., 2012, 11, 19–29.
- 4 K. M. Abraham and Z. Jiang, J. Electrochem. Soc., 1996, 143, 1–5.
- 5 T. Ogasawara, A. Débart, M. Holzapfel, P. Novák and P. G. Bruce, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2006, **128**, 1390–1393.

- 6 G. Girishkumar, B. McCloskey, A. C. Luntz, S. Swanson and W. Wilcke, J. Phys. Chem. Lett., 2010, 1, 2193–2203.
- 7 V. Viswanathan, K. S. Thygesen, J. S. Hummelshøj, J. K. Nørskov, G. Girishkumar, B. D. McCloskey and A. C. Luntz, J. Chem. Phys., 2011, 135, 214704.
- 8 O. Gerbig, R. Merkle and J. Maier, Adv. Mater., 2013, 25, 3129-3133.
- 9 M. D. Radina and D. J. Siegel, Energy Environ. Sci., 2013, 6, 2370-2379.
- 10 A. Dunst, V. Epp, I. Hanzu, S. A. Freunbergera and M. Wilkening, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2014, 7, 2739–2752.
- 11 K. R. Ryan, L. Trahey, B. J. Ingram and A. K. Burrell, J. Phys. Chem. C, 2012, 116, 19724–19728.
- 12 R. Younesi, M. Hahlin, M. Treskow, J. Scheers, P. Johansson and K.Edström, J. Phys. Chem. C, 2012, 116, 18597–18604.
- R. Younesi, M. Hahlin, F. Björefors, P. Johansson and K. Edström, *Chem. Mater.*, 2013, 6, 77–84.
- 14 R. Black, S. H. Oh, J. H. Lee, T. Yim, B. Adams and L. F. Nazar, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2012, **134**, 2902–2905.
- 15 B. D. McCloskey, A. Speidel, R. Scheffler, D. C. Miller, V. Viswanathan, J. S. Hummelshøj, J. K. Nørskov and A. C. Luntz, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, 2012, 3, 997–1001
- 16 M. M. Ottakam Thotiyl, S. A. Freunberger, Z. Q. Peng and P. G. Bruce, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2013, 135, 494–500.
- 17 B. M. Gallant, R. R. Mitchell, D. G. Kwabi, J. G. Zhou, L. Zuin, C. V. Thompson and Y. Shao Horn, J. Phys. Chem. C, 2012, 116, 20800–20805.
- 18 D. M. Itkis, D. A. Semenenko, E. Y. Kataev, A. I. Belova, V. S. Neudachina, A. P. Sirotina, M. Hävecker, D. Teschner, A. Knop Gericke, P. Dudin, A. Barinov, E. A. Goodilin, Y. Shao Horn and L. V. Yashina, *Nano Lett.*, 2013, 13, 4697–4701.
- 19 Y. Y. Shao, S. Park, J. Xiao, J. G. Zhang, Y. Wang and J. Liu, ACS Catal., 2012, 2, 844-857.

- 20 Y. C. Lu, B. M. Gallant, D. G. Kwabi, J. R. Harding, R. R. Mitchell, M. S. Whittingham and Y. Shao Horn, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2013, **6**, 750–768.
- 21 F. J. Li, T. Zhang and H. S. Zhou, Energy Environ. Sci., 2013, 6, 1125-1141.
- 22 M. Balaish, A. Kraytsberg and Y. Ein Eli, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys., 2014, 16, 2801-2822.
- 23 Z. L. Wang, D. Xu, J. J. Xu and X. B. Zhang, Chem. Soc. Rev., 2014, 43, 7746–7786.
- 24 A. C. Luntz and B. D. McCloskey, Chem. Rev., 2014, 114, 11721-11750.
- 25 D. G. Kwabi, N. Ortiz Vitoriano, S. A. Freunberger, Y. Chen, N. Imanishi, P. G. Bruce and Y. Shao Horn, *MRS Bull.*, 2014, **39**, 443–452.
- 26 J. Lu, L. Li, J. B. Park, Y. K. Sun, F. Wu and K. Amine, Chem. Rev., 2014, 114, 5611-5640.
- 27 M. D. Radin, J. F. Rodriguez, F. Tian and D. J. Siegel, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2012, 134, 1093–1103.
- 28 Y. X. Hu, X. P. Han, F. Y. Cheng, Q. Zhao, Z. Hu and J. Chen, Nanoscale, 2014, 6, 177–180.
- 29 J. J. Xu, Z. L. Wang, D. Xu, L. L. Zhang and X. B. Zhang, Nat. Commun., 2013, 4, 2438.
- 30 H. D. Lim, H. Song, H. Gwon, K. Y. Park, J. Kim, Y. Bae, H. Kim, S. K. Jung, T. Kim, Y. H. Kim, X. Lepro, R. Ovalle Robles, R. H. Baughman and K. Kang, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2013, 6, 3570–3575.
- 31 E. Yilmaz, C. Yogi, K. Yamanaka, T. Ohta and H. R. Byon, Nano Lett., 2013, 13, 4679-4684.
- 32 X. Huang, H. Yu, H. T. Tan, J. X. Zhu, W. Y. Zhang, C. Y. Wang, J. Zhang, Y. X. Wang, Y. B. Lv, Z. Zeng, D. Y. Liu, J. Ding, Q. C. Zhang, M. Srinivasan, P. M. Ajayan, H. H. Hng and Q. Y. Yan, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2014, 24, 6516–6523.
- 33 R. R. Mitchell, B. M. Gallant, Y. Shao Horn and C. V. Thompson, J. Phys. Chem. Lett., 2013, 4, 1060–1064.
- 34 B. M. Gallant, D. G. Kwabi, R. R. Mitchell, J. G. Zhou, C. V. Thompson, Y. Shao Horn, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2013, 6, 2518–2528.
- 35 Y. Cao, Z. K. Wei, J. He, J. Zang, Q. Zhang, M. S. Zheng and Q. F. Dong, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2012, 5, 9765–9768.

- 36 Y. Qin, J. Lu, P. Du, Z. H. Chen, Y. Ren, T. P. Wu, J. T. Miller, J. G. Wen, D. J. Miller, Z. C. Zhang and K. Amine, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2013, 6, 519–531.
- 37 X. F. Hu, X. P. Han, Y. X. Hu, F. Y. Cheng and J. Chen, Nanoscale, 2014, 6, 3522–3525.
- 38 S. Y. Liu, Y. G. Zhu, J. Xie, Y. Huo, H. Y. Yang, T. J. Zhu, G. S. Cao, X. B. Zhao and S. C. Zhang, *Adv. Energy Mater.*, 2014, 4, 1301960.
- 39 S. Chen, G. X. Liu, H. Yadegari, H. H. Wang and S. Z. Qiao, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2015, 3, 2559–2563.
- 40 X. F. Hu, F. Y. Cheng, X. P. Han, T. R. Zhang and J. Chen, Small, 2015, 11, 809-813.
- 41 J. K. Zhang, P. F. Li, Z. H. Wang, J. S. Qiao, D. Rooney, W. Sun and K. N. Sun, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2015, 3, 1504–1510.
- 42 J. Zhang, L. J. Wang, L. L. Xu, X. M. Ge, X. Zhao, M. Lai, Z. L. Liu and W. Chen, *Nanoscale*, 2015, **7**, 720–726.
- 43 F. Wang, Z. Y. Wen, C. Shen, K. Rui, X. W. Wu and C. H. Chen, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2015, **3**, 7600–7606.
- 44 Q. C. Liu, J. J. Xu, D. Xu and X. B. Zhang, Nat. Commun., 2015, 6, 7892.
- 45 J. J. Xu, Z. L. Wang, D. Xu, F. Z. Meng and X. B. Zhang, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2014, 7, 2213–2219.
- 46 J. Zhang, Y. B. Zhao, X. Zhao, Z. L. Liu and W. Chen, Sci. Rep., 2014, 4, 6005.
- 47 P. F. Li, J. K. Zhang, Q. L. Yu, J. S. Qiao, Z. H. Wang, D. Rooney, W. Sun and K. N. Sun, *Electrochim. Acta*, 2015, **165**, 78–84.
- 48 F. F. Tu, J. Xie, S. C. Zhang, G. S. Cao, T. J. Zhu and X. B. Zhao, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2015, **3**, 5714–5721.
- 49 H. G. Jung, Y. S. Jeong, J. B. Park, Y. K. Sun, B. Scrosati and Y. J. Lee, *ACS Nano*, 2013, 7, 3532–3539.
- 50 Z. L. Jian, P. Liu, F. J. Li, P. He, X. W. Guo, M. W. Chen and H. S. Zhou, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, 2014, **53**, 442–446.

- 51 Z. Y. Guo, D. D. Zhou, H. J. Liu, X. L. Dong, S. Y. Yuan, A. S. Yu, Y. G. Wang and Y. Y. Xia, *J. Power Sources*, 2015, **276**, 181–188.
- 52 F. J. Li, D. M. Tang, T. Zhang, K. M. Liao, P. He, D. Golberg, A. Yamada and H. S. Zhou, Adv. Energy Mater., 2015, 5, 1500294.
- 53 K. Guo, Y. Li, J. Yang, Z. Q. Zou, X. Z. Xue, X. M. Li and H. Yang, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2014, **2**, 1509–1514.
- 54 G. Y. Zhao, Y. N. Niu, L. Zhang and K. N. Sun, J. Power Sources, 2014, 270, 386-390.
- 55 H. Jang, A. Zahoor, J. S. Jeon, P. Kim, Y. S. Lee and K. S. Nahm, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, 2015, 162, A300–A307.
- 56 G. Zhao, R. Mo, B. Wang, L. Zhang and K. N. Sun, Chem. Mater., 2014, 26, 2551-2556.
- 57 X. J. Lin, X. Lu, T. Huang, Z. L. Liu and A. S. Yu, J. Power Sources, 2013, 242, 855–859.
- 58 N. Ding, S. W. Chien, T. S. Andy Hor, R. Lum, Y. Zong and Z. L. Liu, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2014, 2, 12433–12441.
- 59 N. Ding, Y. W. Lum, S. F. Chen, S. W. Chien, T. S. Andy Hor, Z. L. Liu and Y. Zong, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2015, 3, 1853–1857.
- 60 H. D. Lim, H. Song, J. Kim, H. Gwon, Y. Bae, K. Y. Park, J. Hong, H. Kim, T. Kim, Y. H. Kim,
 X. Lepro, R. Ovalle Robles, R. H. Baughman and K. Kang, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, 2014, 53, 3926–3931.
- 61 N. N. Feng, P. He and H. S. Zhou, ChemSusChem, 2015, 8, 600-602.
- 62 Y. C. Lu, H. A. Gasteiger and Y.Shao Horn, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2011, 133, 19048–19051.
- 63 B. D. McCloskey, D. S. Bethune, R. M. Shelby, G. Girishkumar and A. C. Luntz, J. Phys. Chem. Lett., 2011, 2, 1161–1166.
- 64 H. J. Shin, K. K. Kim, A. Benayad, S. M. Yoon, H. K. Park, I. S. Jung, M. H. Jin, H. K. Jeong, J. M. Kim, J. Y. Choi and Y. H. Lee, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2009, **19**, 1987–1992.
- 65 Y. X. Hu, T. R. Zhang, F. Y. Cheng, Q. Zhao, X. P. Han and J. Chen, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, 2015, **54**, 4338–4343.

66. Y. Kim, S. Muhammad, H. Kim, Y. H. Cho, H. Kim, J. M. Kim and W. S. Yoon, *ChemSusChem*, 2015, **8**, 2378–2384.

Table of contents entry

RuO₂/MnO₂ catalyzed Li–O₂ batteries show excellent high-rate performance due to nano-RuO₂

enabled fast wetting of Li_2O_2 on MnO_2 nanosheets.

