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# Introducing lignin as a binder material for the aqueous production of NMC111 cathodes for Li-ion batteries†

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By enabling water-based cathode processing, the energy-intensive *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) recovery step can be eliminated, reducing the cost and environmental impact of LIBs. Aqueous processing of high capacity Ni-containing  $\text{LiNi}_x\text{Mn}_{1-x-y}\text{Co}_y\text{O}_2$  (NMC) cathodes is problematic due to lithium-ion ( $\text{Li}^+$ ) leaching, corrosion of the aluminum (Al) current collector, and the lack of aqueous soluble bio-derived binders. The present study investigates the potential of substituting and fully replacing the commonly used polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) and carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) binders with abundant, bio-derived kraft lignin. This paper gives a holistic overview of the optimal conditions when employing these binders. For the first time, we demonstrate that NMC111 cathodes of comparable specific capacities to NMP/PVDF-based ones over 100 cycles or at high C-rates (5C) can be formulated in water using lignin or CMC/lignin as binder materials. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) revealed that kraft lignin undergoes a redox reaction with the electrolyte between 2.8 and 4.5 V, which diminishes upon subsequent cycles. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) revealed that lignin is thermally stable up to 152 °C. Rheology measurements showed that replacing NMP with water allows for a solvent reduction. The cathodes fabricated using an aqueous slurry should be dried at 50 °C, as extensive surface cracks detected using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) diminish.  $\text{Li}^+$  leaching from NMC111 and NaOH species from kraft lignin caused an increase in pH during aqueous slurry fabrication. A carbon-coated Al foil (C-Al) prevented Al corrosion and increased the lignin cathode's mechanical strength revealing lignin's exceptional binding abilities to carbon. The electrolyte wettability decreased for calendered lignin-containing cathodes with low porosity and a large carbon black/lignin matrix.

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## 1 Introduction and outline

Efforts to de-carbonize the transport sector are driving the shift from fossil-fuelled vehicles to electric mobility. Being the leading battery technology for mobile devices and battery electric vehicles (BEVs), recent advances in lithium-ion battery (LIB) technology have driven a rise in production demand. However, the carbon footprint of LIB production contributes significantly to the greenhouse gas emissions of BEVs.<sup>1,2</sup> Therefore, the sustainability and cost of production must be improved without compromising the battery energy density.<sup>3</sup>

LIB graphite anodes are usually fabricated using aqueous slurries, whereas cathodes are mainly produced using the toxic *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) solvent. NMP introduces an expensive recovery step and requires high airflow during electrode drying;<sup>4</sup> thus, an aqueous cathode processing route will lower the energy consumption and cost of production.<sup>5</sup> Additionally, replacing the costly polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) cathode binder with water-soluble binders will simplify the recycling process for end-of-life LIBs by mitigating the conversion from solid-coated cathodes to aqueous black mass.<sup>6</sup>

However, several challenges have been reported when transitioning to the aqueous processing of Ni-containing cathodes. Issues are related to the poor water-compatibility of the active material, high basicity of water leading to corrosion of the aluminum(Al)-foil current collector,<sup>7,8</sup> cracking of the cathode coating due to increased capillary pressure during electrode drying,<sup>9</sup> and finding a binder material providing sufficient cohesion and adhesion forces between the coated particles and the Al-foil,<sup>10</sup> respectively. Therefore, the search for aqueous

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compatible and electrochemically inactive binders providing sufficient mechanical strength has become an area of significant scientific interest.<sup>4,10–14</sup>

### 1.1 Aqueous binder materials

Bresser *et al.*<sup>13</sup> reviewed alternative bio-derived aqueous binders for LIB electrodes. A typical example is a water-soluble and/or dispersible carboxymethyl cellulose/styrene-butadiene rubber (CMC/SBR) binder currently used in the production of the graphite anodes and water-compatible olivine structured LiFePO<sub>4</sub> (LFP) cathodes.<sup>13</sup> CMC is a linear polymeric derivative of cellulose and has been widely used as a thickener, binder, and stabilizer in various industries.<sup>15</sup> Furthermore, CMC has contributed to making the slurry homogeneous as it suppresses the re-agglomeration of the dispersed CB particles.<sup>16</sup> Understanding the interaction between the binder and the other electrode components (*i.e.*, the active material and the conductive additive) is vital for the coating's homogeneity, consequently optimizing the electrochemical performance.

Lignin is another promising bio-derived binder material that becomes water soluble when the phenolic hydroxy group (Fig. 1) is activated at high pH.<sup>17</sup> Being a waste material from the pulp industry, it has low cost, and high abundance.<sup>18,19</sup> It has been researched as a precursor in the production of several battery components,<sup>13</sup> including the separator, conductive additive, activated carbon for capacitors,<sup>20</sup> electrolyte,<sup>21</sup> and binder material.<sup>3,22–25</sup> The lignin molecule is complex and consists of the monolignol monomer species shown in Fig. 1.<sup>19,26</sup> The molecular characteristics depend on the pre-treatment method (kraft, soda, or steam exploded) and whether it is derived from softwood (poplar) or hardwood (pine). The molecular masses and glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) of lignin isolated from different resources have been reported to be in the range of 1000–20 000 g mol<sup>-1</sup>, and 91–174 °C, respectively.<sup>19,27</sup> Additionally, it has a higher electrical conductivity than that of the commercial PVDF binder.

Lu *et al.*<sup>22</sup> studied lignin as a binder material for the aqueous production of LFP cathodes and graphite anodes and reported a high reversible capacity of 148 and 305 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Pore removal through calendaring decreased the

cathode's specific capacity due to polarisation.<sup>22</sup> They also emphasized the need for pre-treatment of the lignin to remove small molecular structures which supposedly diffused into the electrolyte.

Ponnuchamy *et al.*<sup>23</sup> recently compared the binding ability of lignin, other sustainable cellulose-based binders, and unsustainable binders to graphene sheets. Subsequently, and independently of this work, they reported that lignin offered the highest binding strength amongst all the most common binders. This makes lignin a suitable binder for both the graphite anodes and the cathodes due to the presence of the conductive carbon additive in the latter. Others<sup>10</sup> have reported that the CMC binder binds more strongly to the Al current collector than the PVDF binder. Meanwhile, little research is conducted on lignin's binding ability to the active cathode materials or the Al current collector. However, a protective carbon-coated Al (C-Al) current collector may provide strong adhesion between the current collector and lignin-based electrode coating.<sup>8,13</sup> Such carbon coating may also prevent poor Al-foil wetting caused by the high surface tension of water<sup>28</sup> and protect Al against corrosion<sup>8,13</sup> during the casting step of an aqueous slurry.<sup>8</sup>

### 1.2 Solvent evaporation and crack propagation

When replacing the NMP with water, the slurry's wettability to the Al-foil during coating decreases, creating an electrode coating with lower adhesion and more extensive cracking. According to Du *et al.*,<sup>28</sup> this is caused by the high surface tension of water (72.80 mN m<sup>-1</sup>, 20 °C) compared to NMP (40.79 mN m<sup>-1</sup>, 20 °C). During solvent evaporation, a high capillary pressure build-up leads to crack propagation in the electrode coating.<sup>9,28</sup> Others claim that the extensive cracking of the aqueous processed cathode coatings is a result of H<sub>2</sub> release during drying, owing to the corrosion of the Al current collector.<sup>29</sup> Man and Russel<sup>30</sup> found that the critical pressure for crack onset increased with decreasing electrode thickness. Zheng *et al.*<sup>31</sup> reported that mechanical issues increased proportionally to the coating thickness of NMC111 and LFP cathodes.

Moreover, Buss *et al.*<sup>32</sup> reported that dissolved or dispersed non-volatile species with a larger density than the volatile solvent can migrate during solvent evaporation and form a "sediment" layer at the electrode surface. Inhomogeneity decreases the adhesion strength of the coating and; consequently, its electrochemical performance. This can be avoided by implementing a two-stage NMP evaporation process<sup>33</sup> or lowering the drying temperatures.<sup>28</sup> Therefore, electrode drying should be carefully considered to avoid cracking and particle migration during solvent evaporation.

Crack propagation and fractures in the electrode coating result in poor mechanical strength, isolation of active materials, and disruption of the electronic and ionic conductive network. During cycling, the cracks in these mechanically weak coatings will further propagate and create new surfaces. This allows for more electrode–electrolyte side reactions, further growth of the cathode electrolyte interphase (CEI) or solid



Fig. 1 The monomer species building up a lignin molecule: (a) *p*-coumaryl alcohol (4-hydroxyl phenyl, H), (b) coniferyl alcohol (guaiacyl, G), and (c) sinapyl alcohol (syringyl, S).<sup>19,26</sup>



electrolyte interphase (SEI) surface layers, and surface phase transformations in NMC111 (from layered  $R\bar{3}m$  to disordered spinel  $F\bar{3}m$  and NiO rock salt ( $Fm\bar{3}m$  structure), and dissolution of TMs.<sup>28,34</sup> This inevitably manifests as impedance growth and capacity deterioration over multiple cycles.<sup>34,35</sup> It should be mentioned that a decreasing rate capability with increased mass loading is often ascribed to the  $\text{Li}^+$ -diffusion limitations and not necessarily crack propagation.<sup>36,37</sup>

The term capacity retention varies across scientific papers<sup>38,39</sup> depending on their scope of work. This work defines capacity retention as the fraction of capacity relative to the initial discharge capacity, which is useful when defining the cyclability of real devices.<sup>40</sup>

### 1.3 Li-ion leaching in Ni-containing cathodes

A suitable cathode chemistry for EVs is nickel(Ni)-containing  $\text{LiNi}_x\text{Mn}_{1-x-y}\text{Co}_y\text{O}_2$  (NMC) cathodes due to their high specific capacity. However, additional challenges have been reported when transitioning to aqueous processing of Ni-containing cathodes such as  $\text{LiNi}_{0.33}\text{Mn}_{0.33}\text{Co}_{0.33}\text{O}_2$  (NMC111) and  $\text{LiNi}_{0.8}\text{Mn}_{0.1}\text{Co}_{0.1}\text{O}_2$  (NMC811).<sup>41</sup> During moisture exposure, active oxygen (O) species are generated at the particle surface. These combine with water ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) and carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) before they further react with  $\text{Li}^+$  to form Li hydroxide (LiOH) and eventually Li carbonate ( $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$ ) species at the NMC particle surface.<sup>41,42</sup> Upon water exposure during the slurry processing step,  $\text{Li}^+$  leaches out from the NMC111 surface as displayed in Fig. 2, leaving the outer layers delithiated.

The mechanism related to the charge compensation following the  $\text{Li}^+$ -loss in the near-surface region of the NMC111 is disputed in the literature.<sup>29</sup> Two scenarios have been widely discussed; one suggesting the spontaneous reduction of  $\text{Ni}^{3+}$  to the more thermodynamically stable  $\text{Ni}^{2+}$ ,<sup>43</sup> and the other suggesting a  $\text{H}^+/\text{Li}^+$ -exchange mechanism illustrated in Fig. 2.<sup>29,44</sup> The reduction of Ni-ions is aggravated in more Ni-rich NMC cathodes as the ratio between  $\text{Ni}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Ni}^{2+}$  is high, and recent articles suggest that this type of charge compensation occurs upon long-term humidity exposure (over several months), whereas the  $\text{H}^+/\text{Li}^+$  exchange is dominant during the initial stage of exposure to humidity or water.<sup>29</sup>



Fig. 2 When the NMC material is exposed to water  $\text{Li}^+$  starts leaching out from its structure while  $\text{H}^+$  from the water intercalates with the structure.<sup>44</sup>  $\text{OH}^-$  in the solution steadily increases the pH and combines with  $\text{Li}^+$  to form LiOH as the water evaporates during electrode drying. Furthermore, LiOH reacts with  $\text{CO}_2$  to form  $\text{LiHCO}_3$  and eventually  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$ .

Zhang *et al.*<sup>45</sup> exposed NMC111 particles to water and humidity (ambient atmosphere, 20 °C, 50% relative humidity) and reported that  $\text{Li}^+$  leaching took place during the first 15 minutes, forming a 10 nm thick surface layer of LiOH and  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$ . The humidity-exposed NMC111 was cycled in coin cells (*versus* a Li-metal anode), and the capacity decreased by 10 mA h  $\text{g}^{-1}$  at 1C. The initial discharge capacity and the capacity retention after 30 cycles were 139 mA h  $\text{g}^{-1}$  and 95%, respectively. This capacity loss was confirmed by Cetinel *et al.*<sup>16</sup> during aqueous production of NMC111 tested in full cells using graphite as an anode.

On the other hand, Jung *et al.*<sup>43</sup> reported that a 10 nm thick surface layer was found on humidity-stored Ni-rich NMC811; however, no significant changes were detected on the NMC111 surface. Shkrob *et al.*<sup>44</sup> reported that the initial capacity loss from  $\text{Li}^+$  leaching was regained during the first few cycles. Doberdo *et al.*<sup>8</sup> also detected an initial capacity decrease, but explained that this was likely caused by the corrosion of the Al current collector since the dissolution of LiOH and  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  raised the slurry pH above the stability window of the Al-foil (pH = 4.5–8.5).

This report investigates lignin as an alternative binder material for the aqueous processing of NMC111 cathodes. First, we gradually replace the standard PVDF/NMP binder/solvent with lignin/NMP, resulting in four cathode coatings with PVDF : lignin binder ratios of 100 : 0, 75 : 25, 50 : 50, and 0 : 100. Thereafter, the NMP solvent is replaced with water, and CMC/lignin or lignin are tested as binders. The electrochemical and thermal stabilities of lignin are revealed through cyclic voltammetry (CV) and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), respectively. The slurry rheology for different powder (NMC111 : binder : CB) to liquid (NMP or water) ratios (P : L) is measured to reveal the dispersion network and ensure a proper viscosity for the coating. Furthermore, two different drying temperatures (50 °C and 90 °C) and doctor blade coating thicknesses (150  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$ ), calendaring pressures, and carbon-coated Al-foil (C-Al) are tested, aiming to obtain a coating with high mechanical strength. The electrochemical performance of aqueous-produced cathodes using CMC/lignin or pure lignin as binders is compared to PVDF/NMP-based cathodes at high discharge C-rates (5C) and over 100 cycles.

## 2 Experimental

Table 1 presents an overview of all parameters tested during slurry fabrication and coating. This includes binders, solvents, different NMC111 : CB : binder ratios, wet coating thickness, and current collectors. The slurry viscosity, electrochemical and thermal stability, surface cracking, binder migration, mechanical strength, specific capacity, and capacity retention were measured.

### 2.1 Cathode preparation

Three pre-mixed binder:liquid solutions of (PVDF:NMP (1 : 20 wt%), lignin : NMP (1 : 10 wt%), or lignin : (water + 10 wt%)





## 2.2 Characterisation methods

**2.2.1 Raw material characterisation.** Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and cyclic voltammetry (CV) were used to test lignin's thermal and electrochemical stability, respectively. CV was performed on different coatings against a Li metal in coin cells using a BioLogic VMP3 Battery Cycler between 2.8 and 4.5 V vs. Li<sup>+</sup>/Li at a scan rate of 1 mV s<sup>-1</sup>, and the corresponding current was measured. The DSC analysis was done with a DSC Q2000 (TA Instruments, USA) with a liquid nitrogen cooling system as a cooler. The calibration of temperature and the heat flow was conducted using indium. The heat capacity was calibrated with sapphire glass in the temperature range between -150.0 °C and 300.0 °C. According to TA's instrument recommendations, helium was used as the purge gas and applied at 25.0 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. The reference sample was an empty, hermetically sealed aluminum pan. The samples with masses between 6.0 mg and 12.0 mg (for conventional DSC) and 10 and 15 mg (for modulated DSC) were placed inside aluminum pans with hermetic lids. The pans were sealed with a Tzero DSC sample encapsulation press (TA instruments, USA). Then the samples were placed by an auto-sampler into the DSC cell. The thermal properties were determined using the TA Universal Analysis 2000 version 4.5A software (TA Instruments, USA).

The conventional DSC scanning used for lignin was conducted in one step. The samples were equilibrated at 30.0 °C for 5 min and heated up to 200 °C at a rate of 10.0 °C min<sup>-1</sup>. The modulated DSC (MDSC) procedure used for the PVDF sample was used to clarify the thermal processes in polymers. The modulation amplitude was ±1.0 °C min<sup>-1</sup>, and the heating rate was 3.0 °C min<sup>-1</sup>. The MDSC method helped clarify the melting and re-crystallization processes and glass transition. This method measured the differences in the heat flow between a sample and a reference as a function of time and temperature, but the heating profile differed from that of conventional DSC. The sample temperature continuously increased with time but in a sinusoidal trend. The total heat flow could therefore be split into the heat capacity component (reversing heat flow) and kinetic component (non-reversing heat flow).<sup>47</sup> The reversing heat flow denoted melting and glass transition, while the non-reversing heat flow denoted the recrystallization or crystalline structure perfection. The comparison between the reversing and non-reversing heat flow allows the splitting of the exothermic recrystallization peaks when overlapping the endothermic melting peaks or glass transition.

The onset ( $T_o$ ) and end ( $T_e$ ) points of melting were defined as the temperatures at which a change in the slope of the heating curve occurs. It should be noted that the glass transition in some substances like cellulose and polymers can be weak. Thus, the inflection point ( $T_i$ ) was determined as a negative peak of the derived heat flow curve. The melting energy was obtained by integrating the DSC melting peaks (the linear baseline function integration), and the glass transition was determined with TA Universal Analysis 2000 version 4.5A software (TA Instruments, USA) and characterized by the  $T_o$ ,  $T_e$ , and  $T_i$ .

**2.2.2 Rheology measurements.** A rheometer (AR-G2, TA Instruments Trios V2.6) with a 40 mm parallel plate geometry

at 22 °C was used to test the rheology of the slurry. The test was carried out using a steady-state flow mode followed by an oscillatory mode. The viscosity of the slurry was measured using a linear sweep with an increasing shear rate from 1–70 s<sup>-1</sup> in the steady-state flow mode. The storage modulus ( $G'$ ) and loss modulus ( $G''$ ) were measured with an increasing angular frequency (680–1 rad s<sup>-1</sup>) in the oscillatory mode. The slurries that were not tested directly after mixing were remixed at 2000 rpm for 10 minutes in a planetary mixer (Thinky-Mixer ARE-250). A 30 second equilibrium soak time was set before the rheology experiment for the slurry to achieve the correct temperature (22 °C) and reach equilibrium.

**2.2.3 Scratch test and pen test.** A micro scratch tester (MST, Anton Paar) was used to investigate the effect of calendaring on the mechanical properties of the cathode surface. A linear progressive scratch test was performed by placing a Rockwell diamond indenter on the cathode coating surface. The non-calendered cathodes had increasing loads from 30 to 200 mN applied, at a loading rate of 28.33 mN m<sup>-1</sup> for a 3 mm scratch. For the calendered cathodes, the load applied increased from 30 to 500 mN, at a loading rate of 94 mN m<sup>-1</sup> in for a 5 mm scratch. A pen test, which works as a simplified T-bend test commonly used for coatings, was conducted to test the cathode coating's mechanical strength by bending the cathode sheet around a pencil with a diameter of 0.5 cm. They were mechanically strong if they resisted cracking when exposed to bending.

Cyclic voltammetry (Biologic BCS-805) was used to investigate the electrochemical stability of the Al-foil, carbon-coated Al (C-Al), carbon black, and carbon black/lignin (50/50 wt%) in coin cells with Li as a counter electrode (two-electrode configuration) and scanned between 2.8 and 4.5 V vs. Li<sup>+</sup>/Li using a sweep rate of 1 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. The carbon black and lignin/carbon black were mixed with water in a 1:1.3 powder:liquid ratio using the frame procedure for the slurry mixing and coated onto a C-Al using a 150 μm doctor blade gap. This resulted in a 30 μm thick carbon black coating with a mass loading of 2.9 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>, and a 20 μm thick lignin/carbon black coating with a mass loading of 10.6 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>.

**2.2.4 SEM/EDS.** Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to investigate the electrode coating's microstructural morphology and topography. The SEM imaging was performed using a Zeiss Ultra 55 apparatus with a working distance (WD) of 10 mm and an Everheart-Thornley secondary electron detector. The accelerating voltage was 10 kV at a scan time of 20.2 seconds per image. ImageJ (version 1.52a) was used to analyze particle migration. A Bruker XFlash EDX detector was used for EDS mapping at a working distance of approximately 10 mm and an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. The mapping was conducted over the electrode surface for 10 minutes (magnification 200×). Bruker software (Version 1.9) was used for elemental mapping analysis.

**2.2.5 XPS.** The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted on dry NMC111 powders to reveal the surface composition of pristine NMC111 particles after being stored (1 year) in dry argon atmosphere (A), humid air (B), and mixed







Fig. 3 Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurement of (a) PVDF and (b) lignin raw materials between 30 and 300 °C.  $\Delta H_{\text{melting}}$  = heat of fusion,  $T$  = temperature,  $T_o$  = onset,  $T_i$  = inflection, and  $T_e$  = end.

peak of lignin was found to be 152 °C, and the glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) expected for the amorphous kraft lignin was 124–174 °C.<sup>19,22</sup> According to Fig. 3a, PVDF had a wide melting temperature with a melting peak at 156 °C, and the heat of fusion ( $\Delta H_{\text{melting}}$ ) was 36.6 J g<sup>-1</sup>. By using  $\Delta H_{\text{melting}}$  for a 100% crystalline PVDF (104.7 J g<sup>-1</sup>),<sup>50</sup> the crystallinity of the PVDF was calculated to be 35%. The crystallinity and melting temperature for PVDF usually vary between 35 and 70%<sup>50</sup> and 150 and 177 °C, respectively.

The drying temperature used for cathode vacuum drying at laboratory-scale is generally between 80 and 130 °C.<sup>3,51–54</sup> The solid components used in these cathodes are, therefore, expected to be thermally stable within the temperature range used in this report (50–120 °C). The PVDF partly melted during the post-drying step at 120 °C; however, such thermal activation has previously been reported to increase the bonding strength between PVDF, NMC, and CB and maintain the electrode's porosity in dry-coated electrodes.<sup>55</sup>

### 3.2 Electrochemical stability of Al, carbon, and lignin

Cyclic voltammetry (CV) is used to investigate the electrochemical stability of the aluminum (Al) current collector, the carbon-coated (1 μm) Al current collector (C-Al), a 2.9 mg carbon black (CB) coating (20 μm thick) on C-Al, and a 10.6 mg CB/lignin (50/50 wt%) coating (30 μm thick) on C-Al. The resulting scans are presented in Fig. 4 and Fig. S14 (ESI<sup>†</sup>). Lignin was mixed with CB as it has an absolute low conductivity. The current peaks ( $I_p$ ) increased with the amount of CB and lignin present, indicating that these species underwent oxidation and reduction (redox) reactions within the potential window of 2.8–4.5 V. The Al current collector in Fig. S14a (ESI<sup>†</sup>) underwent an irreversible oxidation reaction at 4.2 V which contributed to an oxidation current peak ( $I_{po}$ ) of 55 μA at cycle 8, before the oxidation reaction diminished. The same trend was detected for the C-Al-foil in Fig. S14b (ESI<sup>†</sup>); however, the additional 1 μm carbon coating increased the  $I_{po}$  by 10 μA. Additionally, the carbon contributed to a reduction reaction at around 4.1 V.

When increasing the carbon content by coating C-Al with ~2.9 mg CB as shown in Fig. 4a, there was no peak shift which indicated that the same redox reactions took place, but the  $I_{po}$  of the first cycle increased with 50 μA. Thus, the CB contributed with ~17.2 μA mg<sup>-1</sup> to the oxidation peak at 4.3 V during the first cycle. The CB underwent its most extensive oxidation reaction during the initial cycle, and the  $I_{po}$  declined steadily with cycle number.

When introducing lignin into the system by coating C-Al with a 10.6 mg CB/lignin (50/50 wt%) coating, there was a pronounced increase in the overall oxidation current in Fig. 4b and Fig. S14c (ESI<sup>†</sup>). The  $I_{po}$  shifted to >4.3 V insinuating that lignin underwent different oxidation reactions than CB. However, during the first cycle, the  $I_{po}$  for CB and lignin was found at 4.3 V. By deconvoluting the CB current during the first cycle (~17.2 μA mg<sup>-1</sup>), lignin contributed to 10 times the amount of current per mass (~172 μA mg<sup>-1</sup>). The  $I_{po}$  was halved for the second cycle, accompanied by a peak shift to



Fig. 4 The electrochemical activity of the (a) carbon black (CB) coated on C-Al, and (b) lignin/CB (50/50 wt%) coated on C-Al scanned after 1 day wetting. The coin cells were scanned between 2.8 and 4.5 V (vs. Li/Li<sup>+</sup>) using a Li-metal anode, LiPF<sub>6</sub> in ED/DMC/DEC electrolyte, and a scan rate of  $\nu = 1 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  at 22 °C.





Fig. 6 SEM surface crack analysis of an uncalendered PVDF/NMP-based cathode dried at 90 °C (left) and a lignin/water-based (right) cathode dried at 50 °C with a similar mass loading ( $7.4 \text{ mg cm}^{-2} \pm 0.2$ ).

(19% NMC111 surface coverage), which was close to values expected for the standard PVDF/NMP cathodes (22%) with the same NMC:CB:binder ratio. The solubility of lignin molecules was higher in water relative to NMP, and the undissolved particles migrated more extensively during NMP solvent evaporation.<sup>59</sup>

The number of micro-cracks on the cathode's surface was higher for lignin/water-based cathodes compared with the PVDF/NMP-based cathodes in Fig. 6. Although the cracks diminished on the surface of the lignin/water-cathodes by lowering the drying temperature from 90 °C to 50 °C (Fig. S2a, ESI<sup>†</sup>), more cracks were still detected when using water as the solvent. Du *et al.*<sup>28</sup> also reported extensive crack formations at drying temperatures  $> 50$  °C for aqueous processed electrodes. This was caused by the high surface tension of water relative to that of NMP, which increased the capillary pressure build-up during drying.<sup>9,28</sup>

Scratch tests (Fig. S3, ESI<sup>†</sup>) and pen tests were used to reveal the cathode sheet's mechanical strength. Generally, the above-mentioned binder migration and cracking decreased the cathode coating's adhesion to the Al current collector and its overall mechanical strength.<sup>60</sup>

Interestingly, all lignin-based cathode coatings delaminated from the Al current collector in flakes (Fig. S2a, ESI<sup>†</sup>), which indicated that lignin formed sufficiently strong cohesion forces to NMC111 and CB. This was confirmed when replacing the plain Al current collector with a carbon-coated Al (C-Al) current collector. Fig. S2b (ESI<sup>†</sup>) shows an image of the cathode surface after cutting out the electrode discs from a PVDF/NMP cathode coated on a pure Al-foil, and a lignin/water-based cathode

coated on an Al-foil or a C-Al-foil. The C-Al increased the lignin/water-based cathode's mechanical strength.

Lignin has several functional groups,<sup>61</sup> and the classification of the chemical bonds between lignin-CB-NMC111 is out of the scope of this paper and should be further investigated elsewhere.<sup>23,62</sup> Additionally, the problems associated with a poor wetting of the Al-foil during the coating-step due to the high surface tension of water,<sup>63,64</sup> and the corrosion of the Al-foil,<sup>49</sup> was eliminated when using C-Al as current collector.

**3.4.1 Calendering pressure.** Fig. S2c (ESI<sup>†</sup>) shows that the calendering magnified the nature of the cathode's initial mechanical strength. For a lignin/water-based slurry coated onto a pure Al-foil, the coating was delaminated from the Al-foil in one large flake after calendering. Thus, the calendering intensified the poor adhesion forces between the coating and the Al-foil, and the strong cohesion between particles. For the lignin/water-based slurry coated onto a carbon-coated Al-foil (C-Al) the calendering pressure improved the mechanical strength, revealing exceptional binding abilities between lignin and carbon.<sup>23</sup> Fewer surface cracks were observed after calendering these cathodes, and less delamination occurred during electrode disc cutting as illustrated in Fig. S5 and S2b (ESI<sup>†</sup>), respectively.

A SEM analysis of uncalendered and calendered cathode surfaces under different calendering pressures is presented in Fig. 7. These cathodes were fabricated using water as the solvent and lignin as a binder and dried at 50 °C. The uncalendered cathodes show extensive surface cracking and a poor connection between the NMC111 and the CB/binder-matrix. By applying medium ( $P_{\text{medium}} = 60\text{--}80 \mu\text{m}$  calendering gap) and high ( $P_{\text{high}} = 40\text{--}45 \mu\text{m}$  calendering gap) calendering pressures, the surface cracks were removed and a good NMC111-to-CB/binder matrix connection was provided. However, at high calendering pressures ( $P_{\text{high}}$ ), NMC111 particle deformation occurred. Therefore, the medium calendering pressure was preferred to provide a mechanically strong coating with good electronic conduction, while maintaining the NMC111 particle integrity.

To conclude, the reduction of surface cracks through calendering (Fig. 7), drying temperature (from 90 to 50 °C), and the application of a C-Al current collector provided lignin/water-cathodes with high mechanical strength. The calendered



Fig. 7 SEM surface analysis of lignin/water cathode coatings with a similar mass loading ( $7.4 \pm 0.3 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ ) which was uncalendered, calendered at medium pressure using a  $60 \mu\text{m}$  calendering gap ( $P_{\text{medium}}$ ), or calendered at high pressure using a  $45 \mu\text{m}$  calendering gap ( $P_{\text{high}}$ ) (magnitude:  $1000\times$ ). The NMC111 particles are shown in the top right corner (magnitude:  $10000\times$ ). The rate capability of these cathodes is shown in Fig. 10b.







**Fig. 9** The average rate capability of three cells with aqueous produced NMC111 cathodes using CMC/lignin (green diamond) coated on plain Al-foil (empty) or carbon coated-Al-foil (C-Al) (filled).  $T$  = electrode coating thickness,  $P$  = porosity. The cathodes were cycled at different [C-rates] at  $1C = 160 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  between 3.0 and 4.3 V (vs.  $\text{Li}^+/\text{Li}$ ) using a coin cell and Li-metal anode at  $22^\circ\text{C}$ . Calendered at  $P_{\text{medium}}$ .

cathodes coated on plain Al and C-Al current collectors. At high C-rates (5C), the capacity retention for both the Al and C-Al was as high as  $\sim 60\%$ . This indicated that the combination of the CMC/lignin binder mix might provide sufficient electronic and ionic pathways and a proper electrical connection to the Al-foil.

The long-term cycling, rate capability, and coulombic efficiency (%) for these (CMC/lignin)/water-based cathodes are shown in Fig. S12 (ESI<sup>†</sup>). The cathode using C-Al as a current collector obtained a higher long-term cyclability compared with the cathode coated onto a plain Al-foil. This can be explained by the larger cracks found for the water-based coatings coated on the Al-foil relative to the C-Al-foil in Fig. S5 (ESI<sup>†</sup>), and the more extensive corrosion taking place when using plain Al-foil (Fig. S17, ESI<sup>†</sup>).

Pastor-Fernández *et al.*<sup>69</sup> systematically summed up the aging mechanisms within a cell, and pointed to the binder decomposition, contact loss, and corrosion of the Al-foil as

influential factors for impedance growth and capacity loss over multiple cycles.

We conclude that although 2% CMC contributed to improved adhesion to Al for the lignin/water-cathodes, it was not enough to compensate for the poor adhesion forces between lignin and Al when exposed to volume changes over multiple cycles. This, in combination with the corrosion of the Al-foil, contributed to the decrease in the long-term cycling performance of the aqueous-produced lignin/CMC-based cathodes. Thus, a carbon-coated Al-foil was preferred as the current collector and will be used for the lignin/water-based cells presented in the next section.

### 3.6 Lignin binder/water solvent

Fig. 10 shows the rate capability of lignin/water cathodes with mass loadings of  $7.4 \pm 0.4 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$  (Fig. 10a and b) and  $9.7 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$  (Fig. 10c).

First, Fig. 10a shows the rate capability of the uncalendered lignin/water cathodes coated onto a C-Al-foil and an Al-foil with similar thickness and porosities. The carbon-coated Al-foil (C-Al) current collector presented high mechanical strength compared with the plain Al-foil (Subsection 3.4). This created a higher electronic conductivity to the Al-foil which was crucial for rate capability. Due to the superior rate performance and mechanical stability, all other lignin/water-based cathodes in this section were coated onto a carbon-coated Al-foil.

The capacity decrease for the Al-foil cathode could also partly be caused by the pit corrosion of the Al (Fig. S7, ESI<sup>†</sup>). However, the CMC/lignin in Fig. 9 showed no particular difference in rate capability when comparing C-Al and Al, although corrosion also occurred for these cathodes. Thus, we believe the Al corrosion was not the main issue for a low rate performance at elevated C-rates, but rather during the long-term cycling. It is noteworthy that the lower rate capability of the lignin/water-cathodes ( $7.4 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ ) compared to the CMC/lignin ( $5.1\text{--}5.5 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ ) cathodes was likely caused by differences in the cathode coating's density and mass loading.

When increasing the mass loading from 7.4 shown in Fig. 10b to  $9.7 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$  shown in Fig. 10c, the rate capability decreased despite the degree of porosity. For the high mass



**Fig. 10** The rate capability (%) and coulombic efficiency (%) of uncalendered and calendered lignin/water-based NMC111 cathodes with (a), (b) low and (c) high mass loading, resulting in different thicknesses ( $T$ ) and porosities ( $P$ ). An SEM analysis of the cathode surfaces in (b) is presented in Fig. 7. The cathodes were cycled at different [C-rates] ( $1C = 160 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ ) in coin cells at  $22^\circ\text{C}$  between 3.0 and 4.3 V (vs.  $\text{Li}^+/\text{Li}$ ) using a Li-metal anode. The plots with deviation bars show the average and of three cells deviation of three cells.





compared to understand how the carbon/lignin-matrix influenced the electrolyte wettability. The porosity was kept constant ( $\sim 45\text{--}50\%$ ).

**3.6.2 Electrolyte wetting.** A three-electrode PAT cell was used to separate the capacity responses from the lignin/water-based 80:11:9 cathode and the Li-metal anode and is presented in Fig. 11. The potential plateau indicating  $\text{Li}^+$ -(de)intercalation was initially short but extended over multiple cycles. This feature was assigned to the cathode since the cathode's capacity curve featured the same response as the total cell ( $E_{\text{cell}}$ ). The poor wetting of the cathode prevented the pores in the cathode coating from being filled with the electrolyte which hindered  $\text{Li}^+$ -(de)intercalation and activation of the NMC111 close to the Al-foil. This resulted in a low cell capacity during the first cycles.

The poor wetting behavior became apparent when comparing the soaking time of a  $10\ \mu\text{L}$  drop of electrolyte on a lignin-based 80:11:9 and PVDF-based 90:5:5 cathode. The former showed  $>12$  times slower wetting (Fig. S1b, ESI<sup>†</sup>).

To understand the influence of the wetting and CB/lignin-matrix on the long-term cyclability, lignin/water-cathodes with 80:11:9 and 90:5:5 wt% NMC111:CB:lignin were soaked in the electrolyte for 1, 3, 6, or 35 day(s) before being cycled. The corresponding discharge capacities and coulombic efficiencies are shown in Fig. 12.



**Fig. 11** The galvanostatic cycling performance of a PAT cell using Li metal as the anode and the reference electrode. The response from the Li-metal anode (red  $E_{\text{anode}}$ ), NMC111 working cathode (blue  $E_{\text{cathode}}$ ), and both (black  $E_{\text{cell}}$ ) was measured. The lignin/water-cathode (80:11:9 wt% NMC111:CB:lignin) was coated on C-Al-foil, with  $7.4\ \text{mg cm}^{-2}$  mass loading and calendered at  $P_{\text{medium}}$ . The cell was cycled after a 8 days wetting period for 5 cycles at C/10, 21 cycles at C/2 (light colour), 5 cycles at C/10, and 21 cycles at C/2 (dark colour) between 3.0 and 4.3 V vs.  $\text{Li}^+/\text{Li}$  ( $1\text{C} = 160\ \text{mA g}^{-1}$ ) at  $22\ ^\circ\text{C}$ . Arrows represent an increasing cycle number. The cathode surface area used for PAT cells was larger ( $2.54\ \text{cm}^2$ ) compared to the coin cells ( $1.78\ \text{cm}^2$ ) and the separator was glass fiber.



(a)



(b)

**Fig. 12** The average specific discharge capacity ( $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$ ) and coulombic efficiency (%) of three coin cells and their standard deviation. The lignin/water cathodes were coated onto a C-Al current collector with 80:11:9 wt% NMC111:CB:binder unless specified. The days refer to the mass loading for all cathodes was  $7.4 \pm 0.3\ \text{mg cm}^{-2}$ . An 85:10:5 PVDF/NMP-based cathode with comparable mass loading ( $6.6 \pm 0.6\ \text{mg cm}^{-2}$ ) coated onto a plain Al-foil and wetted for 1 day (blue circles) was used as the baseline. The cathodes were cycled in coin cells between 3.0 and 4.3 V (vs.  $\text{Li}^+/\text{Li}$ ) using a Li-metal anode. The C-rate was C/10 for the first 3 or 5 cycles and C/2 for the following 100 cycles.

Both Fig. 12a and b show a decreasing initial discharge capacity (at C/10) and capacity retention (after 100 cycles at C/2) with shorter electrolyte wetting times for the lignin/water-cathodes. When the electrolyte exposure time was short, the cathodes with an 80:11:9 ratio in Fig. 12a showed a decreasing capacity in the first  $\sim 25$  cycles. The capacity drop gradually became less prominent by increasing the electrolyte wetting time from 1 to 6 days before cycling the cell. This phenomenon is also often recognized in silica-based anodes as poor



It should be mentioned that the cation mixing is generally more prominent in Ni-rich NMC materials (NMC811), as the ratio between  $\text{Ni}^{3+}/\text{Ni}^{2+}$  is higher.<sup>74</sup> There are more  $\text{Ni}^{3+}$  available for reduction, which explains why an increase in cation mixing was detected in the XRD scans for water-exposed Ni-rich NMC in earlier reports,<sup>74</sup> and not for NMC111 particles.<sup>29</sup>

**3.7.2 The electrochemical performance.** There is some disagreement in the literature as to what extent the electrochemical performance is affected by  $\text{Li}^+$  leaching and the  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  and  $\text{LiOH}$  surface layers when NMC111 particles are exposed to humidity and water.

First, the electrodes were dried at 120 °C under vacuum to remove all moisture before cell assembly. The voltage profiles of the water-based NMC111 cathodes assembled in half-cells showed a delithiation voltage peak at the beginning of the first charge Fig. 13. This initial potential peak completely disappeared from the profile in the subsequent cycles (Fig. S11, ESI<sup>†</sup>) and was not present for the NMP/PVDF-based cathodes. It is generally attributed to the dissolution of the insulating species formed at a humidity-exposed NMC particle surface, and usually increases with thicker  $\text{LiOH}$  and  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$ -layers for Ni-rich electrodes.<sup>43</sup> This surface impurity acts as a resistive film around the NMC111 particles, and must be partially decomposed before delithiation can occur.<sup>43</sup> Since it decreases for 90:5:5 cells, it indicates that the higher lignin content promoted this peak. We believe that there is a surface layer on the NMC particles in the lignin cathodes that dissolve upon delithiation, which may be a combination of  $\text{LiOH}$  or  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  from the water-NMC111 reaction and  $\text{NaOH}$  or  $\text{N}_2\text{S}$  residuals deposited from the lignin-binder.

Studies report an absence of such a peak during the first charge of full cells,<sup>29,43</sup> implying that such decomposition reaction occurs between the insulating surface compounds and the Li metal anode, rather than at the cathode. However, it should be mentioned that in the case of a graphite anode, the reactive surface area increases, and the compounds formed on the water-based cathode can be diluted at the graphite surface.<sup>29</sup>

At a low rate of C/10, the lignin/water-based cathodes did not face any significant loss in capacity due to the water treatment of NMC111, Fig. 13. Most studies report little to no difference in the capacity at low C-rates ( $<C/2$ ) when comparing water-exposed NMC111 cathodes with those exposed to NMP.<sup>41,64,74</sup> According to Memm *et al.*<sup>64</sup> only 0.63% of  $\text{Li}^+$  per formula unit  $\text{Li}_{1.034}\text{Co}_{0.33}\text{Mn}_{0.33}\text{Ni}_{0.33}\text{O}_2$  were lost from the NMC111 surface due to  $\text{Li}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange, and were considered negligible for the performance.<sup>41,64,74,75</sup>

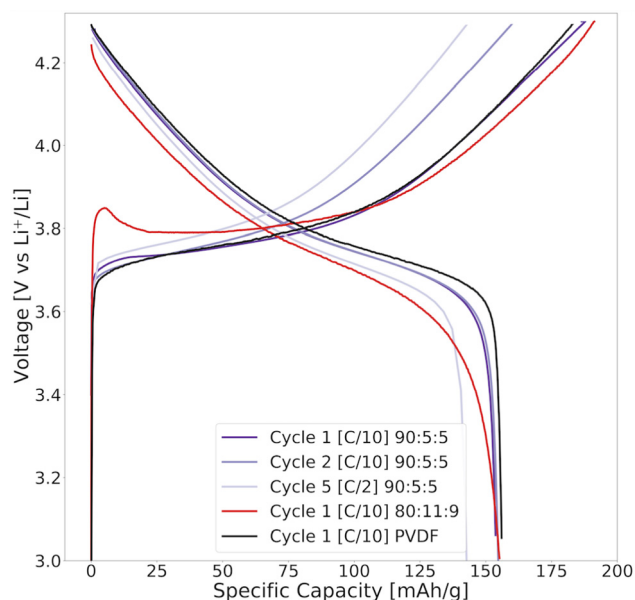
Such small  $\text{Li}^+$ -depletion in the NMC111 surface was negligible for the capacity and was likely compensated for already in the first charge cycle as the cells were cycled in excess  $\text{Li}^+$  using a Li metal anode. However, since we assume that the main charge compensation for the  $\text{Li}^+$  leaching in the surface layer of the NMC111 lattice was  $\text{H}^+/\text{Li}^+$ -exchange, the  $\text{H}^+$  may react with fluorine (F) in the electrolyte and form HF during cycling. This reaction directly dissolves the metal ions in the cathode lattice leading to gas evolution, and phase transformation from the layered to spinel at the charged state.<sup>34</sup> This reaction is therefore known to be detrimental to the battery capacity upon subsequent cycles and is likely causing more damage to these half-cells rather than the loss of  $\text{Li}^+$ .<sup>76</sup>

It should, however, be mentioned that the charge capacity is highest for the lignin/water cathodes relative to the PVDF/NMP cathodes. The additional charge capacity in the first cycle (at high voltages  $>4.2$  V) could potentially be attributed to the large oxidation current peak provided by lignin in the CV scan (Fig. 4b). Both features disappeared upon cycles indicating that these were irreversible depletion reactions.

When increasing the C-rate to C/2 in Fig. 13, there was a more prominent capacity loss for the lignin/water-based NMC111 cathodes compared with the PVDF/NMP-based cathodes with similar mass loading. There was also a higher polarization for the water-exposed NMC111 cathode indicating a higher resistance, which can be caused by the poor wetting of the lignin binder, the oxidation of the binder, or the presence of alkali residuals. This was in agreement with other studies looking at cathodes with water- or humidity-exposed NMC111 particles.<sup>16,41,45,74</sup> Looking at the subsequent cycles with the same C-rate (Cycle 10 and 15 in Fig. S10b, ESI<sup>†</sup>), the polarization decreased.

Most studies agree that the  $\text{Li}^+$ -diffusion limitation restricts the (de)intercalation of  $\text{Li}^+$  and is the main reason for a larger capacity loss at high C-rates when comparing water- and NMP-exposed NMC111 particles. However, the mechanism behind the  $\text{Li}^+$ -diffusion limitation varies across scientific articles.

Azhari *et al.*<sup>74</sup> reported that  $\text{LiOH}$  and  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  surface layers increased the surface resistance on the NMC111 particles,



**Fig. 13** The voltage profile of the first and second cycles at C/10 and the fifth cycle at C/2 for NMC111 cathodes fabricated using 80:11:9 (red) or 90:5:5 (purple) lignin/water ( $7.4 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ ), and 85:10:5 PVDF/NMP-fabricated cathodes (black) ( $6.9 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ ). The cathodes were cycled in coin cells between 3.0 and 4.3 V (vs.  $\text{Li}^+/\text{Li}$ ) at different [C-rates] at 22 °C using a Li metal anode.  $1\text{C} = 160 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ .





Since the maximum content of lignin in any lignin/water-cathode was 9 wt%, only a trace amount of the alkali species was assumed to be present in the lignin/water-based 80:11:9 cathodes. EDS scans in Table S2 (ESI<sup>†</sup>) reveal that sodium (Na) ( $2.72 \pm 0.84$  wt%) and sulphur (S) residuals ( $0.35 \pm 0.18$  wt%) were present in the uncycled lignin/water-cathodes, and their presence decreased to  $0.28 \pm 0.02$  and  $0.25 \pm 0.04$  after 54 cycles, respectively. These species were not found in the PVDF/NMP-based cathode's EDS and XRD spectra in Fig. S6 and S16a (ESI<sup>†</sup>), respectively. An additional XRD scan of the lignin raw material confirmed their origin (Fig. S16b, ESI<sup>†</sup>).

The cycling curve generally obtained the typical NMC111 shape, and no apparent signs of the S and Na species were observed in the cycling curves. However, the impact of these species on the electrochemical performance should be further investigated before the commercialization of kraft lignin as a binder material. Interestingly, Na is often used as an additive in Na-CMC binders,<sup>3,16,77–79</sup> and its presence is not considered harmful to the battery. S was present in such a small amount and was neglected in this study.

The corrosion of the Al can be avoided by using acids such as phosphoric acid (PA) as an additive; however, a high pH was needed for lignin to dissolve in water. Furthermore, the NaOH in the slurry during lignin/water-slurry fabrication may undergo neutralization reactions with the PA additive to form  $\text{Na}_3\text{PO}_4$ , and a protective carbon-coated Al-foil (C-Al-foil) was, therefore, the focus of this paper. An additional study on the use of PA as a pH controller during slurry fabrication and the use of a PA coating to eliminate the surface residuals ( $\text{LiOH}$  and  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$ ) can be found in Subsection 5.4.

## 4 Conclusions

Cyclic voltammetry (CV) revealed that lignin undergoes an oxidation reaction during the first cycle with the electrolyte between 2.8 and 4.5 V, but stabilized over multiple cycles. Irreversible oxidation reactions contributed to an overall higher charge capacity and lower average coulombic efficiency over 100 cycles for lignin/water-cathodes (98.2%) compared with PVDF/NMP cathodes (99.2%). Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) reveals that lignin was thermally stable at temperatures up to 152 °C. When replacing the PVDF/NMP with lignin/water during slurry fabrication, rheology measurements revealed that a lower liquid content was needed to obtain the same optimal viscosity for tape casting.

When gradually replacing the PVDF/NMP with lignin/NMP, the lignin accumulated at the surface at high evaporation rates (90 °C), the adhesion to Al decreased, and the initial specific discharge capacity dropped. By decreasing the drying temperature to 50 °C, a more controlled NMP evaporation occurred, the accumulation of lignin at the cathode surface diminished, and its mechanical strength and specific capacity increased accordingly. By replacing the NMP solvent with water, the accumulated surface layer of lignin diminished and the capacity

increased. The high surface tension of water relative to NMP caused a higher capillary pressure in the vacuum drying processes of aqueous slurries, which led to extensive cracking in the coating at 90 °C. Electrode drying at 50 °C and calendaring reduced surface cracks. The calendaring magnified the nature of the initial mechanical strength, intensifying a poor adhesion of the coating to the Al-foil and strong cohesion between particles. Pen and scratch tests confirmed that the lignin binder provided strong cohesion forces to carbon black. By replacing the Al current collector with a carbon-coated Al current collector (C-Al), the aqueous processed lignin-based NMC111 cathodes obtained mechanical stability compared to the PVDF/NMP baseline cathodes.

Calendaring cathodes with a large binder matrix decreased the thickness and porosity, induced pore blocking, and created a barrier for  $\text{Li}^+$ -transport, which eventually lowered the rate capability. While calendaring and pore removal improved the rate capability for PVDF/NMP-based cathodes, the rate capability of lignin/water-based cathodes decreased with lower porosity and higher mass loading ( $9.7 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ ).

The NMC111 cathode using pure lignin as a binder, coated onto a carbon-coated Al (C-Al) current collector, dried at 50 °C, with a mass loading of  $7.4 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$  obtained 63% capacity retention at 5C. The cathodes using a CMC/lignin binder and a mass loading of  $5.1\text{--}5.6 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$  obtained 60% capacity retention at 5C, independent of the current collector (Al or C-Al).

The aqueous-produced NMC111 cathodes with lignin binder obtained poor electrolyte wetting compatibility with the organic 1 M  $\text{LiPF}_6$  in the EC/DMC/DEC electrolyte. The cycling performance of the lignin-based cathodes improved with longer electrolyte wetting exposure before cycling, additional formation cycles at C/10, higher porosity, and a smaller CB/lignin matrix. Consequently, the 90:5:5 wt% lignin/water-cathodes wetted for 35 days with 5 formation cycles at C/10 showed similar initial discharge capacity and capacity retention ( $154 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  and 89%) as to 85:10:5 PVDF/NMP-cathodes ( $153 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  and 93%) after 100 cycles at C/2.

During the first charge cycle, lignin underwent an oxidation reaction that diminished over subsequent cycling. This caused a large charge capacity detected in the voltage curve during the first galvanostatic cycle. This current contribution was almost undetectable in the second cycle and diminished over multiple cycles.

The electrochemical, thermal, and mechanical stabilities of lignin suggest high applicability to other high Ni-containing NMC cathodes. Since the aqueous production of CMC-based NMC811 cathodes with minimal  $\text{Li}^+$  leaching has been reported,<sup>41</sup> the electrolyte wettability of lignin needs to be improved before its commercialization as a binder.

The pH measurements and XRD confirmed the presence of  $\text{Li}^+$  leaching from the NMC111 particle surface during water exposure and slurry fabrication. The aqueous processing of NMC111 cathodes did not decrease the initial capacity of the cells at a low rate (C/10) but decreased the rate capability and long-term cyclability at higher C-rates.





