

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Implantation of Solid Electrolyte Interphase Stabilizer within High-Capacity Silicon Electrode Enabling Enhanced Battery Performance

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The commercial application of high-capacity silicon (Si) anode in lithium-ion batteries is limited by the marked volume expansion and continuous interface side reactions between the active material and the electrolyte. To address the issues, one popular strategy is to induce functional salt additives to the electrolyte, which could help to construct a robust solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) to resist the undesirable parasitic reactions and fast electrode failure. However, there exists the shortness of the dependency in the solubility of the additive salt and the possible homogeneity of the SEI. In light of this, we propose an innovative method of incorporating an SEI stabilization reagent, exemplified by lithium difluorooxalate borate (LiDFOB), in the Si anode. This approach facilitates the effective utilization of the functional SEI stabilizer and impressively enhances the presence of inorganic compounds within the SEI. The resultant stable SEI effectively impedes interfacial side reactions, mitigates substantial expansion/contraction, and promotes the transport of Li^+ ions. As a result, the Si electrode incorporated with LiDFOB displays superior long cycle life and enhanced rate capability, indicating the advancement of planting LiDFOB in the electrode in promoting the development of advanced high-energy-density lithium-ion batteries.

Introduction

There is an escalating demand for lithium-ion batteries with high energy density to cater to a variety of applications, encompassing portable electronics and electric vehicles [1]. A plausible strategy to augment the energy density of lithium-ion batteries is the advancement of high-capacity electrodes by minimizing the mass utilization of active material [2]. Graphite has traditionally been the anode of choice in commercial lithium-ion batteries, offering a respectable capacity (theoretically $372 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{h}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) and a low working potential ($\sim 0.1 \text{ V}$ versus Li/Li^+ in average). Silicon has emerged as a promising substitute for graphite, owing to its superior theoretical specific capacity ($4,200 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{h}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$), appropriate potential (approximately 0.4 V versus Li/Li^+), and natural abundance [3,4]. However, the practical implementation of silicon anodes in commercial batteries is hindered by challenges including substantial volume expansion and ongoing interface side reactions between the active material and the electrolyte [5,6]. Numerous studies have been undertaken to enhance silicon-based anodes, encompassing material structural design [7–10], electrolyte engineering [11,12], and electrode structure design [13–16]. A crucial strategy among them to improve the electrochemical performance of Si electrodes involves the establishment of a stable solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) with a high content of inorganic species using electrolyte additive reagents [17–19]. In contrast to the utilization of conventional bulk electrolytes, the predominantly

organic SEIs are inherently brittle, prone to fracturing during the charge/discharge cycling, and exhibit relatively low ionic conductivity. Enhancing the proportion of inorganic components within the SEI has been demonstrated to effectively boost electrochemical performance, particularly in terms of rate capability and cycling stability [20]. This strategy of using electrolyte additives in the electrolyte to construct inorganic-rich SEI has, therefore, attracted considerable attention in the scientific community in recent years [21–23]. While the positive effect of many functional salt additives, their utilization and beneficial efficiency hinge on their solubility and physicochemical properties in the electrolyte. Distinct approaches to additive incorporation may also affect interaction with the active material and its utilization ratio, consequently leading to the formation of diverse SEIs. For example, lithium difluorooxalate borate (LiDFOB), a quintessential functional salt additive in the electrolyte, has exhibited the capability to establish a robust SEI enriched with inorganic compounds, which improves the electrochemical cycling stability [24–26]. However, a possible drawback is that functional salt additives dissolved in the electrolyte cannot be often fully consumed, with less than 50% of the additives utilized during the SEI formation [27]. Moreover, some functional additives may exhibit limited solubility in the solvents of the electrolyte, thereby potentially hindering the full manifestation of their effects [18,22,28,29]. Consequently, it is imperative to devise an efficacious strategy to fully harness the potential of these functional salt additives.

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In this study, we investigate a novel approach of directly incorporating a functional salt additive into the electrode, as opposed to dissolving it in the electrolyte. This method substantially enhances its utilization efficiency, constructs a uniform and robust LiF-rich SEI, and subsequently improves the overall electrochemical performance, as exemplified by our use of LiDFOB. Specifically, the decomposition of DFOB⁻ anions into inorganic species within the SEI is amplified, without necessitating an increase in LiDFOB dosage or incurring additional electrolyte costs (Fig. 1). This stands in contrast to the conventional approach of dissolving LiDFOB salt in the electrolyte, as the proposed method facilitates a more extensive reduction of DFOB⁻ anions. Moreover, the efficacy of our functional electrode stabilizer was systematically validated through a variety of characterizations. These induce the formation of a stable SEI, thereby obstructing interfacial side reactions, impeding the formation of crystalline Li₁₅Si₄ (*c*-Li₁₅Si₄), and mitigating significant expansion/contraction during the charge/discharge cycles. This approach delineates a promising strategy for enhancing the efficiency of functional reagents, while concurrently mitigating the associated costs and potential adverse effects that may arise from the introduction of high-content additives.

Materials and Methods

Electrode preparation

Si powder used in this investigation was sourced from photovoltaic waste and was used as the anode active material without further treatments. A uniform slurry was subsequently prepared by incorporating Si, carbon black, and polyacrylic acid in a weight ratio of 8:1:1 into *N*-methylpyrrolidone. Subsequently, the slurry was cast on a copper foil, subjected to a drying process at 80 °C for a duration of 12 h under vacuum conditions, and followed by calendaring. The resultant electrode was then cut into discs with a diameter of 10 mm. The aforementioned procedures were meticulously repeated to prepare Si-2DFOB, Si-5DFOB, and Si-DFOB, with the only variation being the incorporation of 2, 5, and 10 wt% of LiDFOB into the Si powder, respectively. Si electrodes with LiDFOB necessitate no special treatments or preservation during the experiment due to its good environmental stability. The typical mass loading of the electrode in our study was ~ 1 mg·cm⁻². The cells for measurements were assembled in a glove box filled with argon (H₂O, O₂ < 1 ppm). During the cell assembly, lithium foils were used as the counter electrodes, and a polypropylene film was functioned as

the separator. The electrolyte was composed of 1 M LiPF₆ with (or without) 0.1 M LiDFOB in a solvent mixture of ethylene carbonate (EC), ethyl methyl carbonate (EMC), diethyl carbonate (DEC), and fluoroethylene carbonate (FEC) (3:3:3:1 vol%). It should be noted that the electrolyte utilized in the battery with the Si-DFOB electrode did not contain LiDFOB and the electrolyte for Si electrode contained 0.1 M LiDFOB.

Electrochemical characterizations

The long-term electrochemical cycling tests were conducted using Land battery testers (Wuhan Land Electronic Co. Ltd., China) at a rate of 1 C (1 C = 2,000 mA·h·g⁻¹) within the voltage range of 0.01 to 1.0 V (versus Li/Li⁺). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were carried out on a biologic electrochemical workstation. The scanning speed ranged from 0.01 to 0.1 mV·s⁻¹ within the potential window of 0.01 to 1.0 V (versus Li/Li⁺). EIS curves were obtained over a frequency range of 10 mHz to 100 kHz with an amplitude of 10 mV.

Physical characterizations

To characterize the phase information of Si, an x-ray diffraction pattern was performed using a PANalytical B. V. instrument (Cu Kα). Morphological characteristics of materials and electrodes were depicted through scanning electron microscopy (SEM; Nova NanoSEM 450) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM; Talos F200X). The electrodes were cycled in the electrolyte without FEC to avoid its influence on the result. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements (Thermo Fisher Scientific ESCALAB 250Xi, USA) were operated to trace the interphase composition and chemical states. Before tests, all the electrodes were washed repeatedly with dimethyl carbonate.

Results and Discussion

Si particles, characterized by an irregular morphology and sizes ranging from 200 nm to 1.5 μm, exhibit a pure phase structure (JCPDS 77-2110) devoid of impurities (Fig. S1). A marginal improvement in cycling performance and a notable optimization in rate capability are observed when the LiDFOB amount is increased from 2 to 10 wt% (Fig. S2). Si-DFOB (10 wt% of LiDFOB) has been selected for further investigation. Within the Si-DFOB electrode, the concentration of LiDFOB, once fully dissolved in the electrolyte, is approximately 0.007 M, a value

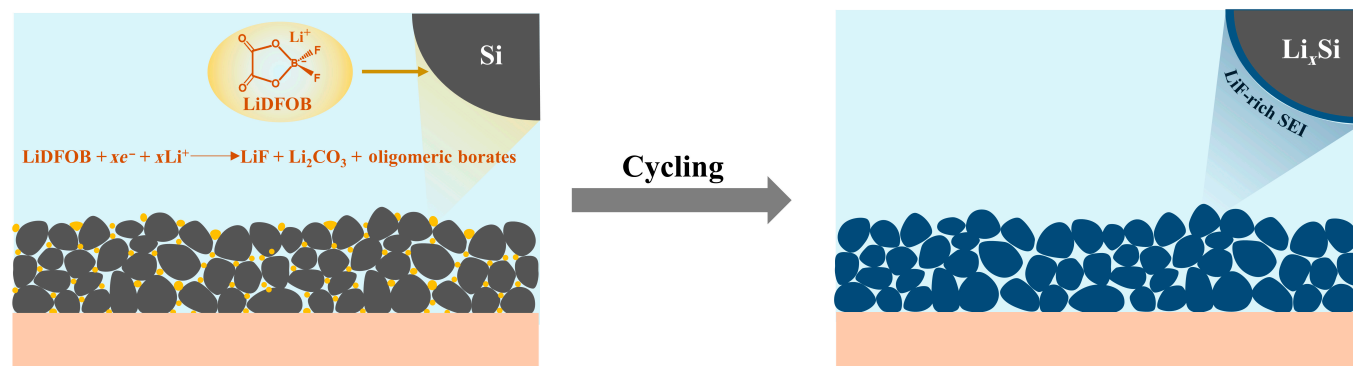


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the embedment of the functional LiDFOB salt in the electrode for stabilizing Si-based anode.

markedly lower than 0.1 M observed in other studies by directly dissolving LiDFOB into the electrolyte before its use [25,26]. The Si and Si-DFOB electrodes demonstrate reversible capacities of 2,609.9 and 2,665.6 $\text{mA}\cdot\text{h}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ for the first charge/discharge cycle, respectively, with initial coulombic efficiencies (ICEs) of 77.9% and 81.6% (Fig. 2A and B). Remarkably, after 100 cycles at 1 C, the Si-DFOB electrode delivers a capacity of 1,392.2 $\text{mA}\cdot\text{h}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ($1.33 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{h}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$), surpassing 976.4 $\text{mA}\cdot\text{h}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ($1.0 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{h}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$) achieved by the Si electrode (Fig. S3). The mid-voltage difference (ΔV) during charge and discharge processes for Si-DFOB is lower than that of Si (0.28 and 0.31 V after 100 cycles, respectively), indicating reduced polarization (Fig. 2C). Concurrently, while Si exhibits minimal capacity at 5 C, Si-DFOB retains 361.6 $\text{mA}\cdot\text{h}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ at the same current density (Fig. 2D and Fig. S4). Si-DFOB demonstrates a considerable performance compared to many reported Si-based materials/electrodes (Table S1). The high ICE, stable cycle performance, and enhanced rate capability of the Si-DFOB electrode can be ascribed to the uniform distribution and effective decomposition of LiDFOB and the formation of a robust SEI on the Si surface.

The chemical characteristics of SEIs of electrodes were elucidated using XPS (Fig. 3). The C 1s peaks correspond to C-C (284.8 eV), C-O (286.6 eV), C=O (288.3 eV), and Li_2CO_3 (~290 eV), while the O 1s peaks are attributed to Li_2O (528.5 eV), C=O (531.6 eV), and C-O (533.6 eV) (Fig. 3B and C), respectively, signifying the decomposition products of the electrolyte [30–33]. Moreover, the high-resolution F 1s spectrum exhibits a distinct peak at 684.7 eV, indicative of LiF, with a higher prevalence observed on the Si-DFOB surface based on atomic percentage (Fig. 3A and D) [17,30,32]. The presence of B-O (190.8 eV) and B-F (193.2 eV) peaks in the B 1s spectrum confirms the reduction of DFOB[−] (Fig. 3E) [34,35]. The comparable B atomic ratios on both Si and Si-DFOB surfaces suggest a similar contribution of DFOB[−] anions from the electrolyte and the electrode to the SEI formation, despite the low concentration of LiDFOB in the electrode. Consequently, the integration of LiDFOB into the electrode enhances its utilization efficiency. The uniform distribution and effective reduction of LiDFOB in the Si electrode contribute to the formation of a thin and homogeneous SEI rich in inorganic compounds [21,25,34]. This result

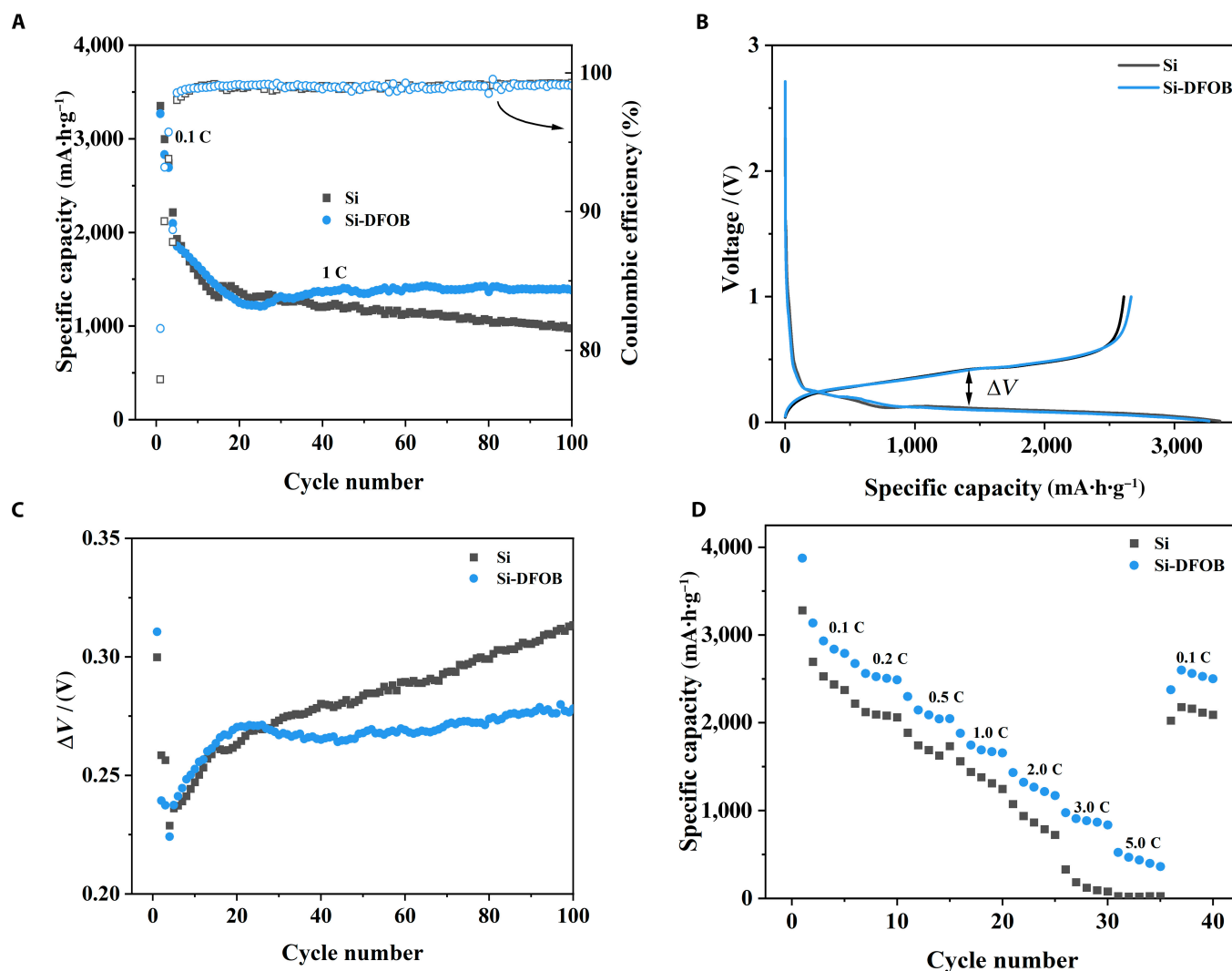


Fig. 2. Electrochemical charge/discharge performance of Si and Si-DFOB electrodes. (A) Electrochemical cycling performance of the 2 electrodes at 1 C after 3 cycles at 0.1 C between 0.01 and 1.0 V. (B) Galvanostatic voltage curves of the first cycle at 0.1 C. (C) Difference between charge and discharge mid-voltage for different cycles. (D) Rate capability from 0.1 to 5.0 C.

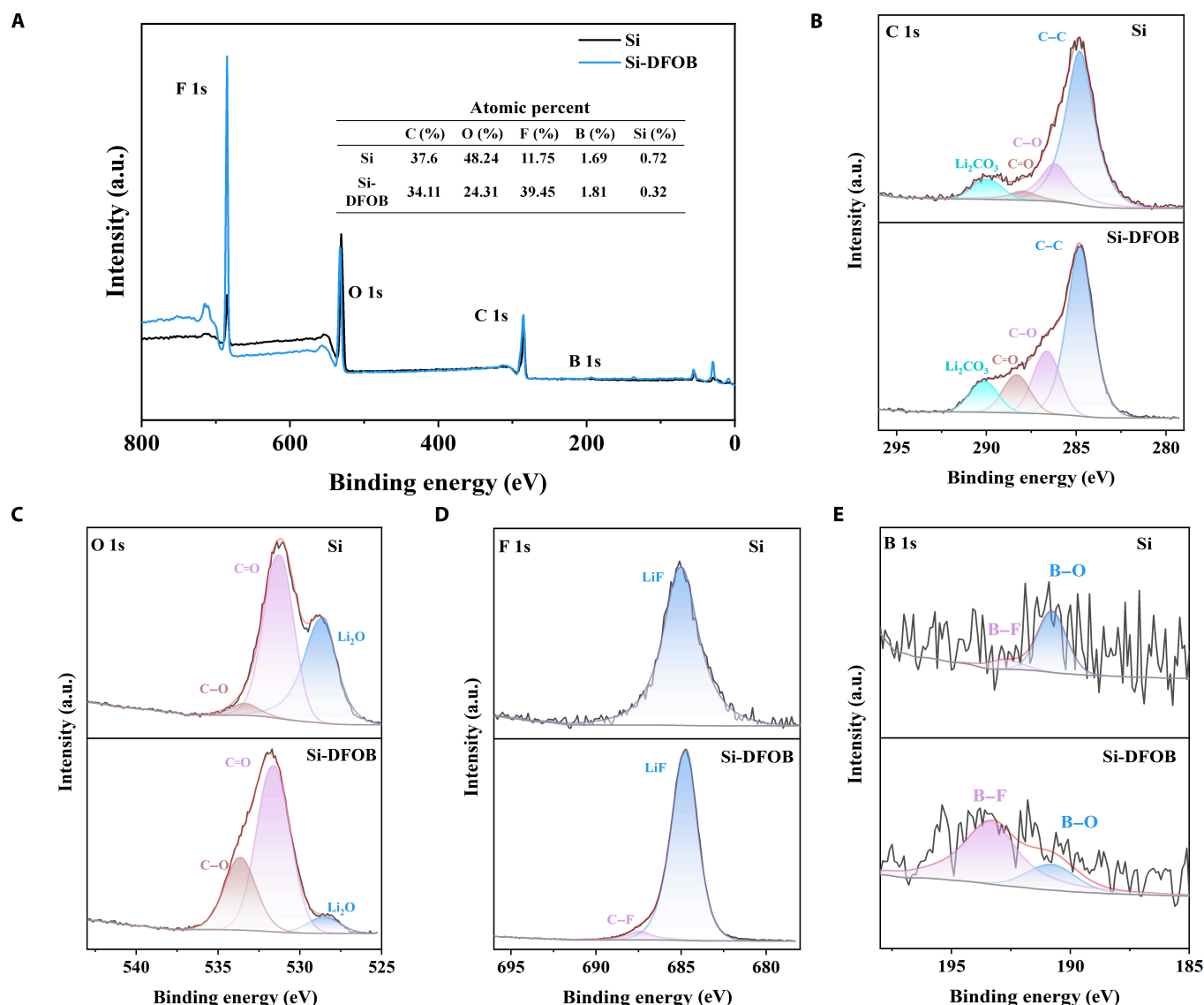


Fig. 3. Surface characteristics of Si and Si-DFOB electrodes after 100 cycles. (A) Survey scan, high-resolution (B) C 1s, (C) O 1s, (D) F 1s, and (E) B 1s XPS spectra. a.u., arbitrary units.

is also verified by HR-TEM investigation (Fig. S5). The composition facilitates the movement of Li^+ ions and enhances the rate performance. In summary, these findings suggest that the incorporation and effective reduction of LiDFOB in the Si electrode play a pivotal role in the formation of a conductive SEI for improved electrochemical performance.

Upon the integration of LiDFOB into the electrode, the decomposition of DFOB^- transpires not only on the surface but also intrinsically. A novel insight reveals that the presence of FEC facilitates the introduction of LiF into the bulk phase, thereby mitigating the formation of $c\text{-Li}_{15}\text{Si}_4$, reducing the volume effect, and alleviating Li-trapping [36]. The synergistic effect of DFOB^- and FEC results in an increased content of LiF in the bulk. LiDFOB, when incorporated into the electrode, may exhibit a superior ability in mitigating the volume effect compared to when it is merely dissolved in the electrolyte. The pristine Si and Si-DFOB electrodes depicted in Fig. 4A and C reveal no substantial difference between them, suggesting the negligible effect of LiDFOB on the primary

morphology. The top-view SEM images demonstrate that the surface of the cycled Si-DFOB electrode remains largely intact (Fig. 4D), while the surface of the cycled Si electrode is noticeably damaged (Fig. 4B). The cross-sectional SEM images of both the Si electrode and Si-DFOB electrode before and after 100 cycles, as illustrated in Fig. 4E to H, indicate that the thickness of the Si-DFOB anode ranges from 8 to 15.8 μm , with a lower volume change rate. Therefore, the integration of LiDFOB into the electrode effectively diminishes the expansion and maintains interface stability. In addition, the EIS test was used to evaluate the transport of Li^+ ions within the SEI (Fig. 4I to K). Prior to cycling, the SEI resistance (R_{SEI}) of the Si-DFOB electrode surpasses that of the Si electrode (Fig. S6). R_{SEI} of Si-DFOB is 26.3 Ω after 5 cycles and 32.3 Ω after 50 cycles, which is lower than that of the Si anode (30.3 Ω after 5 cycles and 38.8 Ω after 50 cycles). This suggests that the homogeneous SEI of the Si-DFOB, rich in inorganic compounds, can reduce the interface resistance and promote the migration of Li^+ ions.

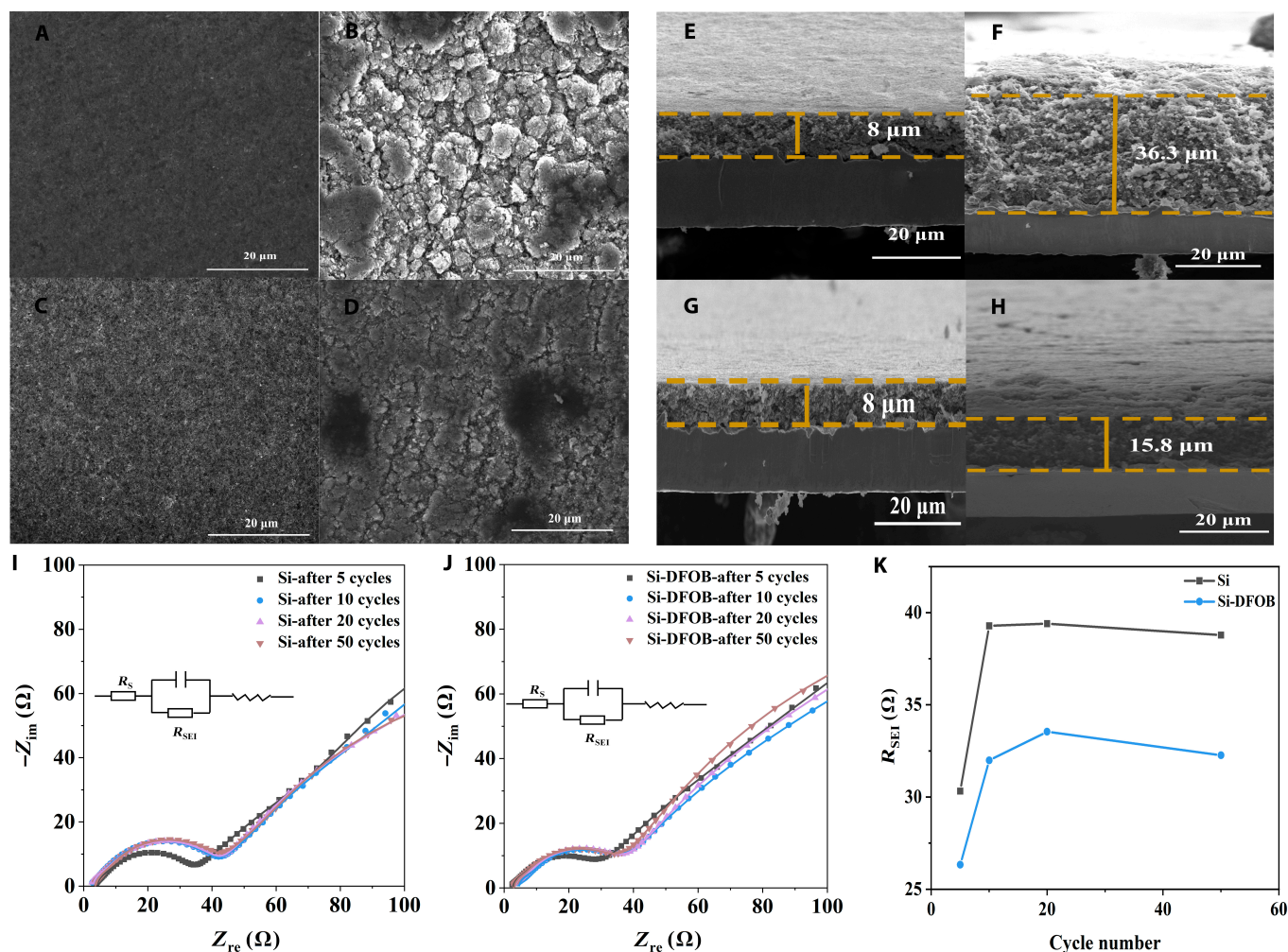


Fig. 4. Variations in thickness and R_{SEI} of Si and Si-DFOB electrodes. Top-view SEM images of pristine (A) Si and (C) Si-DFOB electrodes. Top-view SEM images of (B) Si and (D) Si-DFOB electrodes after 100 cycles. Cross-sectional SEM images of pristine (E) Si and (G) Si-DFOB electrodes. Cross-sectional SEM images of (F) Si and (H) Si-DFOB electrodes after 100 cycles. Nyquist plots of (I) Si and (J) Si-DFOB electrodes after 5, 10, 20, and 50 cycles. (K) Variation of R_{SEI} during cycling.

To investigate the diffusion of Li^+ ions within the bulk phase, we used CV tests to evaluate the kinetic performance (Fig. 5). The peaks at 1.6 and 1.1 V are attributed to the decomposition of LiDFOB and FEC, respectively (Fig. S7) [37–39]. The reduction peaks at 0.05 and 0.2 V, denoted as i_{pa1} and i_{pa2} , correspond to the lithiation of the Si anode. The oxidation peaks at 0.3 and 0.45 V, denoted as i_{pc1} and i_{pc2} , are associated with the dealloying process (Fig. 5A) [8,40,41]. It is observed that i_{pa1} , i_{pa2} , and i_{pc1} are linearly correlated with $v^{1/2}$ (Fig. 5C). The apparent diffusion coefficient (D) can be calculated using the equation $i_p = 2.69 \times 10^5 A n^{3/2} C_0 D^{1/2} v^{1/2}$ [42–44], where A , n , and C_0 represent the geometric area of electrodes, the charge transfer number, and the concentration of Li^+ ions, respectively. The results suggest that the diffusion of Li^+ ions in the Si-DFOB anode is rapid (Table). However, i_{pc2} (~ 0.45 V), associated with the dealloying of $c\text{-Li}_{15}\text{Si}_4$, is not linearly correlated with $v^{1/2}$ (Fig. 5C) [36,45,46]. As the scanning rate increases, the lithiation capacity decreases, and less $c\text{-Li}_{15}\text{Si}_4$ is formed. The percentage of i_{pc2} in the sum of i_{pc1} and i_{pc2} can be used to roughly estimate the proportion of $c\text{-Li}_{15}\text{Si}_4$ (Fig. 5D). Despite the Si-DFOB electrode delivering more capacity, the ratio of $c\text{-Li}_{15}\text{Si}_4$ decreases, attributable to the homogeneity of the alloying reaction and the suppression

Table. D of Li^+ ions in Si and Si-DFOB

	D_{pa1} ($\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$)	D_{pa2} ($\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$)	D_{pc1} ($\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$)
Si	1.87×10^{-11}	4.23×10^{-12}	2.88×10^{-12}
Si-DFOB	2.80×10^{-11}	1.06×10^{-11}	5.53×10^{-11}

of the formation of $c\text{-Li}_{15}\text{Si}_4$. This result aligns with the dQ/dV (Fig. 5E and F). The decomposition products of LiDFOB incorporated into the Si electrode inhibit the formation of $c\text{-Li}_{15}\text{Si}_4$, alleviate expansion, and enhance the diffusion of Li^+ ions [36,45–48].

Conclusion

We adopted a strategy of incorporating LiDFOB into the Si electrode to ensure its efficient reduction and enhancement in electrochemical performances. This methodology is distinguished by its simplicity, cost-effectiveness, and ease of integration with

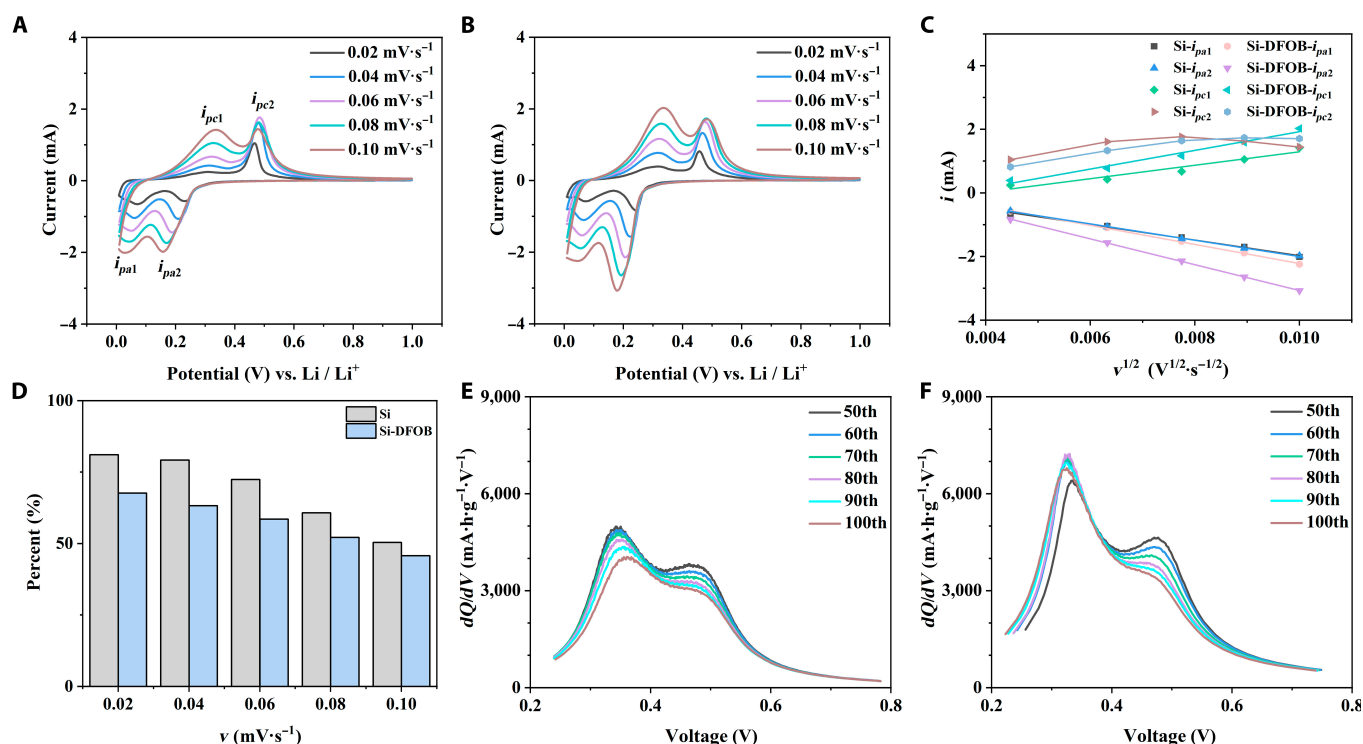


Fig. 5. Kinetic performance of Si and Si-DFOB electrodes. CV tests of (A) Si and (B) Si-DFOB electrodes at 0.02, 0.04, 0.06, 0.08, and 0.1 $\text{mV}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. (C) Relationship of i_p and $v^{1/2}$. (D) Percentage of i_{pc2} in i_{pc2} and i_{pc1} at varied scan rates. dQ/dV curves of (E) Si and (F) Si-DFOB electrodes at different cycles.

existing electrode production processes. The utilization rate of LiDFOB, when incorporated into the electrode, exceeds that of LiDFOB when directly dissolved in the electrolyte. The complete reduction of LiDFOB results in the formation of a uniform and durable SEI, which mitigates continuous side reactions, alleviates expansion, and enhances the diffusion of Li^+ ions. Consequently, Si-DFOB exhibits a high ICE, low polarization, stable cycling performance, and enhanced rate capability.

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Author contributions: X. W. performed conceptualization, methodology, data curation, and writing the draft. C. L. conducted the SEM tests. Z. C. was responsible for the schematic drawing. Y. S. performed supervision, conceptualization, writing-review and editing. All authors discussed and contributed to the final manuscript.

Competing interests: The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data Availability

The online version contains supplementary materials available free of charge.

Supplementary Materials

Figs. S1 to S7
Table S1

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