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Designing a highly efficient polysulfide conversion catalyst with paramontroseite for high-performance and long-life lithium-sulfur batteries

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ABSTRACT

Numerous efforts have been made to design the cathode of Li–S batteries to enhance reversible capacity and long-term cycling stability. However, challenges remain in achieving high electronic/ionic conductivity and suppressing the shuttle effect, especially for cathodes with high sulfur loading. Here we report a 3D free-standing hierarchical structure of VO₂(P) (paramontroseite VO₂) nanoparticles grown on nitrogen-doped carbon nanotube (NCNT) arrays as a catalytic host for high-performance sulfur cathodes. In this architecture, the $VO_2(P)$ nanoparticles function as catalysts to oxidize the LiPS to produce thiosulfate due to the strong chemical interaction. Furthermore, thiosulfates act as a mediator to catenate long-chain LiPS together and convert short-chain Li₂S₂/ Li₂S and surface-bound polythionate complexes. Accordingly, the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode exhibits excellent performance with high discharge capacity output (≈ 1200 mA h g⁻¹ at 0.2 C), stable long-term cycling ($\approx 67\%$ retention at 2 C for 500 cycles), and high sulfur loading cycling (initial areal capacity of $10.2 \text{ mA h cm}^{-2}$ at 0.2 Cfor 200 cycles). This nanostructure catalytic cathode with high sulfur loadings, as well as stable cycling performances, is attractive for developing practically useable Li-S batteries.

1. Introduction

The lithium-sulfur (Li-S) battery is one of the most promising alternatives to the prevailing conventional lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) to meet the ever-increasing demands for high energy density, low cost, and high safety of energy storage systems [1,2]. Li-S batteries could supply a high theoretical capacity of $1675 \,\text{mA}\,\text{hg}^{-1}$ (10 times higher than that of LIBs) and a high theoretical energy density of 2567 kW kg⁻¹ (5 times higher than that of LIBs). Meanwhile, elemental sulfur is nontoxic and widely accessible at a low cost which is essential for meeting energy conservation and sustainable development standards. However, the practical application of state-of-the-art Li-S batteries is still hindered by significant challenges such as low sulfur utilization, poor Coulombic efficiency, fast capacity degradation, severe self-discharge, and short cycle life due to the intrinsically low electronic conductivity of sulfur and lithium polysulfide (LiPS) shuttle reactions [3,4].

Different carbon materials have been reported as the host to as hosts

to immobilize sulfur [1,5-8]. However, normal carbon materials always have a nonpolar surface, which is hardly to trap and restrict LiPS shuttle reactions. In contrast, nanostructured inorganic compounds have a strong chemical affinity with LiPS and prevent the diffusion of LiPS more effectively than carbon materials [9]. Even so, both these materials depend on physical or chemical adsorption to prevent LiPS shuttling and are merely palliative solutions which do not address the fundamental problems.

An alternative strategy to suppress the shuttle effect is to convert LiPS into insoluble Li₂S₂/Li₂S to minimize their dissolution and diffusion into the electrolyte [7]. Recent studies have shown that many polar hosts, such as metal oxides [10-16], metal sulfides [17-21], metal nitrides [22-24], metal carbide [25], and some metal-free materials [26-31] not only have a strong affinity to LiPS but also catalytically promote the conversion of LiPS to solid Li₂S₂/Li₂S. Nazar et al. proposed a way to entrap LiPS in the cathode relies on MnO2 nanosheets binding and reacting with higher-order LiPS to convert them on reduction to insoluble lithium sulfide via disproportionation [11].

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Zhang et al. utilized the interface between CoS_2 and the electrolyte, which served as strong adsorption and activation sites for polar polysulfides to accelerate redox reactions of LiPS [17]. Lee et al. demonstrated the effectiveness of MoS_{2-x}/rGO as a catalyst for LiPS conversion in a sulfur cathode, in which the surface sulfur deficiencies participated in the LiPS conversion and improved the kinetics of LiPS redox reactions [18]. Yang et al. reported a twinborn TiO₂-TiN heterostructure electrode that achieves a smooth trapping-diffusion-conversion of LiPS across the interface [22].

Vanadium dioxides with a series of different polymorphs such as VO₂(A), VO₂(B), VO₂(C), VO₂(R), and VO₂(M) and mineral phases such as paramontroseite and nsutite-type VO₂ have received great interest in device applications owing to its unique metal-insulator transition with abundant structural phases, low cost, and controllable morphologies [32–34]. Nazar et al. report a metastable VO₂(B) with high chemical reactivity to anchor LiPS, which has a redox potential that lies just above the typical redox potential range (> 2.4 V) of soluble LiPS [35]. Fan et al. construct a VO₂(B)-VN binary host, accomplishing smooth immobilization-diffusion-conversion of LiPS to improve the electrochemical performance of Li–S batteries [36]. However, the VO₂(B) is metastable and tends to transition into the VO₂(A) phase under 160 °C and VO₂(M) under 300 °C [37,38]. Moreover, VO₂(B) shows semiconductor characteristics with low intrinsic electrical conductivity [39], which will hinder the catalytic conversion of LiPS by VO₂(B) [36].

Paramontroseite vanadium dioxide (VO₂(P))_, a minor structure, was first discovered in minerals during the 1950s [40]. The VO₂(P) is composed of infinite chains along the c-axis with nearest V–V distances of 0.293 nm, in which d-orbital electrons would be shared by all of the metal V atoms along the c-axis in paramontroseite similar to that in metallic rutile VO₂(R) [32]. Among the family of VO₂, the VO₂(P) was revealed to have the most promising electrical conducting properties at room temperature from the structural and its calculation results. However, few references have reported its application in energy storage devices due to the hindered synthetic route [41]. To the best of our knowledge, our work is the first to introduce VO₂(P) into a Li-S battery host.

Herein, we present NCNTs vertically grown on carbon paper as a free-standing carbon-based host onto which the VO₂(P) nanoparticles and sulfur are uniformly deposited for use as a cathode material, henceforth abbreviated as the VO₂(P)-NCNT host. The 3D structure with vertically aligned NCNTs have a high surface area and enable uniform distribution of sulfur for high sulfur loading while also facilitating the electron/ion transport between the sulfur and host to improve cathode conductivity. In addition, VO₂(P) nanoparticles are also uniformly distributed and could effectively enhance the charge transfer and redox reaction kinetics as a catalytic mediator. This VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode has stable long-term cycling life (over 500 cycles with 67% retention) under a high rate of 2 C. This cathode with high sulfur loading (up to 9.6 mg cm⁻²) also demonstrates its superior performance. Furthermore, the mechanisms of enhancing redox kinetics and catalysis of LiPS conversion with VO₂(P) are also discussed.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Preparation of free-standing NCNT host

The NCNT free-standing cathode was prepared by using a spray pyrolysis chemical vapor deposition (SPCVD) method, as described previously [42]. A piece of carbon paper (CP) was sputtered with aluminum as the buffer layer. The CP was then fixed inside a vertical quartz tube of a chemical vapor deposition furnace. The furnace was heated up to 850 °C in 20 min under Ar with the flow rate of 240 sccm. After the temperature reached 850 °C, a catalytic solution A (1g ferrocene in 50 mL acetonitrile) was introduced into the tube under an ultrasonic probe sonicator at a flow rate of 250 μ L/min for 6 min. Then, a solution B (10 g imidazole in 50 mL acetonitrile) was introduced into

the tube under the same condition for \sim 35 min. After the SPCVD process, the NCNT arrays were grown vertically on the surface of the CP.

2.2. Preparation of free-standing VO₂(P)-NCNT host

The VO₂(P)-NCNT host was prepared by using a facile hydrothermal method, as described elsewhere [39]. In a typical synthesis, 1.6 mmol Na₃VO₄ and 8 mmol thioacetamide (TAA) were dissolved in 40 mL distilled water with continuous stirring to form a homogeneous solution. And then 4 mmol NH₄F was also added into the as-obtained solution to adjust the pH. Then this solution was transferred into a 50 mL Teflon-lined autoclave together with the free-standing NCNT-CP, which was sealed and heated at 180 °C for 20 h. After the hydrothermal process, the VO₂(P)-NCNT free-standing cathode was alternately washed with ethanol and distilled water 3 times, and finally dried in an 120 °C vacuum oven. To control the morphology of the VO₂(P) nanoparticles, VO₂(P)-NCNT cathodes with different contents of precursors (0.6, 1.1, and 2.1 mmol Na₃VO₄; 3, 5.5, 10.5 mmol TAA) are also prepared.

2.3. Preparation of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode

The sulfur active material was introduced into the free-standing hosts by controlled drop casting sulfur solution in CS₂ (100 mg sulfur in 5 mL CS₂), giving sulfur cathodes of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S and NCNT/S. To uniformly distribute sulfur in the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode, the same process was repeated several times. Finally, the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes were dried in a vacuum oven at 60 °C for 6 h. The regular sulfur loading is about 2.0 mg cm⁻². The cathodes with high areal sulfur loadings of 6.4 and 9.6 mg cm⁻² were also prepared to test the stability of cycling performances.

2.4. Adsorption properties of lithium polysulfides

 $\rm Li_2S_4$ and $\rm Li_2S_6$ solutions were prepared by mixing $\rm Li_2S$ and S with a molar ratio of 1:3 and 1:5, respectively, into a 1:1 (v/v) DOL/DME mixture, and stirred overnight at 60 °C. 4 mg of NCNT or VO_2(P)-NCNT powder was exfoliated from the hosts and added into 2 mL of a 4 mmol $\rm L^{-1}$ $\rm Li_2S_4$ stock solution. Similarly, 6 mg of NCNT or VO_2(P)-NCNT powder were added into 3 mL of a 5 mmol $\rm L^{-1}$ $\rm Li_2S_6$ stock solution. The mixtures were stirred to facilitate adsorptions.

2.5. Preparation of VO₂(P)-NCNT@Li₂S₄

In an Ar-filled glovebox, a piece of $VO_2(P)$ -NCNT host was soaked in a solution containing 1 mmol Li_2S_4 in 5 mL dimethyl ether (DME) for 12 h. The host was then washed and dried in a glovebox.

2.6. Materials characterization

The morphologies were characterized using scanning electronic microscopy (FESEM, Hitachi S-4800) and scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM, FEI Talos F200X). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, ESCALAB 250Xi) with focused monochromatized Al K α radiation (1486.6 eV) was used to analyze the elemental composition and valence state. X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker D8 advanced) with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5415$ Å) and Raman spectroscopy (HORIBA Scientific LabRAM) with 632.8 nm HeNe laser were used to analyze the structure, composition and chemical bonds of these samples. The nitrogen sorption isotherm was recorded on a gas sorptometer (Micromeritics 3Flex 3500). Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA, TA SDT Q600) was performed in air at a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹. X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectra of sulfur K-edge and vanadium K-edge were measured on the Soft X-ray Microcharacterization beamline (SXRMB) at the Canadian Light Source (CLS) in Saskatoon. To avoid the contamination of samples, all the samples were sealed using Kapton tape in an argon-filled glove box.

2.7. Symmetrical cell assembly and measurements

The electrodes for symmetrical cells were fabricated without the presence of elemental sulfur. VO₂(P)-NCNT disks were used as identical working and counter electrode with 60 μ L electrolyte (0.5 mol L⁻¹ Li₂S₆ and 1 mol L⁻¹ LiTFSI dissolved in DOL/DME (v/v = 1/1)). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements of the symmetrical cells were performed at a scan rate of 50 mV s⁻¹ between - 1.0 V and 1.0 V.

2.8. Electrochemical characterization

Standard CR2032-type coin cells were assembled in an Ar-filled glove box with oxygen and moisture content below 1 ppm. The electrolyte was 1.0 M lithium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide (LiTFSI) dissolved in mixed solvent of 1,3-dioxolane (DOL) and DME (v/v = 1:1) with 1 wt% of LiNO₃ as an additive. The amount of electrolyte used in a coin cell is about 80–120 μ L. The galvanostatic charge/discharge tests and galvanostatic intermittent titration technique (GITT) of the cells were measured on a Land T2001A battery testing station with a voltage range of 1.7–2.8 V. Through a VMP3 electrochemical workstation, cyclic voltammetry (CV) was performed at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was tested with a frequency range of 100 kHz to 0.1 Hz.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Materials characterization

The synthesis of the VO₂(P)-NCNT composite host is illustrated in Fig. 1a. The free-standing NCNT collector was prepared on carbon paper (CP) through a two-step method, as described elsewhere [42]. The CP substrate exhibits a 3D structure composed of randomly oriented carbon fibers with a diameter of $\sim 10 \,\mu m$ (Fig. S1). A uniform layer of NCNTs of approximately 40 µm in length is grown on the CP, covering the carbon fibers (Fig. S2), followed by the deposition of uniform $VO_2(P)$ nanoparticles with an average particle size of ~ 120 nm (Fig. 1b-d) via a facile hydrothermal method. The size and amount of the particles are controlled by the concentration of the precursors. The FESEM images of the four samples with increased precursor concentrations resulting in different morphologies are shown in Fig. S3. The free-standing and flexible features of this 3D structured VO₂(P)-NCNT host are also shown in Fig. S4. The elemental mapping images suggested the uniform concentration distributions in large scale (Fig. S5).

The TEM micrographs of NCNTs display their characteristic bamboo-like features with a stacked cone structure (Fig. 1e). The uniform growth of spherical VO₂(P) nanoparticles with a diameter of \sim 120 nm on NCNTs can also be observed (Fig. 1b-d.). The TEM images with selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern were used to investigate the VO₂(P) nanoparticles grown on NCNT (Fig. 1f-g). The distances between adjacent lattice planes (d-spacing) were measured to be \sim 0.234 nm, corresponding to the (111) plane of orthorhombic phase of paramontroseite VO₂, which is in good agreement with the SAED pattern (Fig. 1h) [41]. Energy dispersive X-ray (EDS) mapping images (Fig. 1i–m) with the distributions of V, O, and C suggested an atomic concentration gradient of VO₂(P) on the surface of the NCNT arrays with high uniformity. Similarly, the EELS elemental mappings are consistent with this result (Fig. S6).

XRD, Raman, XPS, and TGA/DSC measurements were performed to determine the detailed phase and composition of the VO₂(P)-NCNT sample. Fig. 2a shows the XRD patterns of the pure NCNT and VO₂(P)-NCNT, where the broad diffraction peaks at 26.5° and 43.2° agree well with the (002) and (004) planes of graphitic carbon (JCPDS 75-1621). For VO₂(P)-NCNT, apart from the peaks of NCNT, all the main peaks correspond to the orthorhombic phase of VO₂(P) with a space group of *I*2/*c* (JCPDS 73-0514) [41]. The super-cell structure of orthorhombic

VO₂(P) projected along different orientations are shown in Fig. 2b and Fig. S7. In Fig. 2c, the intense peaks that appear between 150 and 1200 cm⁻¹ are indexed well within the fingerprint region of the paramontroseite minor (RRUFF database: R050391). The D-band and Gband at ~1310 and ~1590 cm⁻¹, derived from NCNT, represent defectinduced vibrations of disordered carbon and vibration of the sp² bonded carbon atoms, respectively [43,44]. The XPS spectra of V 2p and O 1s peaks for the sample are shown in Fig. 2d. The V 2p3/2 and V 2p1/2 peaks at 516.6 and 524.0 eV correspond to V⁴⁺ in paramontroseite, and the corresponding spin-orbit splitting energy is 7.4 eV [45]. The tiny peaks of V 2p at 515.3 and 522.8 eV may derived from the trace amount of V^{3+} in V_2O_3 . The peaks at 531.3, 530.0 and 519 eV are assigned to the O-H, O²⁻ and X-ray satellite groups, respectively [46]. The TGA/DSC curves of pure NCNT, VO₂(P), VO₂(P)-NCNT samples are shown in Fig. 2e. A weight increase of ~8.1 wt% over 300-550 °C in VO₂(P) could be associated with the oxidation process from VO₂ to V₂O₅ [47]. There is an endothermic peak at ~670 °C, which may be due to the melting point of V_2O_5 [38]. For the pure NCNT, there is another exothermic process with a weight loss of ~75 wt % at 350-500 °C (peak at 462 °C), which derives from the burning of NCNT. The nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherm of the NCNT (Fig. 2f) shows a mixed shape of type II (at medium pressures) and type IV (at higher pressures) [42]. The BET surface area and total pore volume of pure CP, pure NCNT, VO2(P)-NCNT hosts were determined to be 0.3, 37.0 and $21.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively. It should be noted that the BET surface area of VO₂(P)-NCNT exhibit more than 70 times than that of pure CP, thus could provide a much larger surface area to load much higher sulfur weight per unit area.

3.2. Electrochemical performance

Standard CR2032-type coin cells with Li metal as a counter electrode were assembled to measure the electrochemical performance of the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode. In Fig. 3a, the cycling performances of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S and NCNT/S were examined at a current density of 0.2C (1C = 1672 mAh^{-1}). For the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode, it delivers a stable cycling performance with a high reversible discharge capacity of $\sim 1200 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$. The capacity retention is above 94% after 100 cycles (compared to the 2nd cycle). For the pure NCNT/S cathode, the discharge capacity fades gradually and the capacity retention is only 63.3% after 100 cycles (compared to the 2nd cycle). To further compare the electrochemical performances, the rate capabilities of the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S and NCNT/S cathodes were measured under a stepwise current density program from 0.1 C to 2 C (Fig. 3b). The corresponding galvanostatic charge/discharge tests were shown in Fig. S8. The average reversible capacities of NCNT/S are 1030, 790, 765, 775, 680, 603, and $395\,mA\,h\,g^{-1}$ at rates of 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1 and 2 C, respectively. However, the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode shows significant high-rate improvement, with average reversible capacities of 1100, 982, 910, 886, 875, 864, and 760 mA h g^{-1} at rates of 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1 and 2 C, respectively, which is stable at the same current density. When the current density is returned to 0.2 C, the capacity can recover to a similar value of the initial step at 0.2 C. The better rate performance of $VO_2(P)$ -NCNT/S indicates that the VO₂(P) nanoparticles play a key role in improving the rate performances due to the high conductivity in the composite host.

The cycling stability of the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode was also investigated at 2 C for 500 cycles in Fig. 3c. The cathode maintains stable cycling performance with a reversible discharge capacity of ~880 mA h g⁻¹, which corresponds to a capacity retention of ~67% from the 2nd cycle. Even after 500 cycles, the cathode still delivers a high reversible discharge capacity of 780 mA h g⁻¹, while the capacity of NCNT/S cathode fades to 280 mA h g⁻¹ after only 260 cycles (retaining 28.8% of its capacity of the 2th cycle). The higher reversible capacity and capacity retention of the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode confirm the important role of the VO₂(P) in this 3D architecture. Figs. S9 and



Fig. 1. (a) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of the VO₂(P)-NCNT host; (b–d) FESEM images (e–g) TEM images and SAED pattern; (h) FFT pattern corresponding to (g); (i–m) STEM EDX mapping images of the VO₂(P)-NCNT host.

S10 show the FESEM images and corresponding EDX mapping images of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode after 500 cycles at 2.0 C. The VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode after long-term cycling still maintain the original morphology of VO₂(P) nanoparticles on NCNT, suggesting high structural stability of the VO₂(P)-NCNT host.

Despite the remarkable progress made on cycling stability, it should be noted that almost all the long-term cycling performance is achieved with low areal loading sulfur cathodes (usually < 2.0 mg cm^{-2}) [48]. Thus, it is important to attain cathodes with high areal loading (> 4.0 mg cm^{-2}) and long-term cycling life (> 500 cycles) to meet real applications of Li-S batteries. In Fig. 3d, the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode with a sulfur loading of 4.8 mg cm^{-2} shows a high reversible capacity of ~ 450 mg cm^{-2} and stable cycling performance with a decay rate of about 0.09% per cycle. The electrochemical performance of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes with high areal loading of 6.4 and 9.6 mg cm^{-2} were also tested (Fig. 3e and Fig. S11). The corresponding galvanostatic charge/discharge tests were shown in Fig. S12. The VO₂(P)-NCNT with sulfur loadings of 6.4 and 9.6 mg cm^{-2} at 0.2 C show high initial areal capacities of 7.8 and 10.2 mAh·cm⁻², respectively. It worth noting that the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode of 6.4 and 9.6 mg cm⁻² maintain high areal capacities of 4.8 and 5.7 mAh·cm⁻² even after 200 cycles, which are larger than the standard for commercial Lithium-ion batteries (4 mA h cm⁻²). Performance comparisons with recent work on vanadium-based cathodes in Li-S batteries are shown in Fig. 3f [23,24,35,49–54]. Our work shows as one of the best results reported to date (Table S1). The high sulfur loading VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode with high cycling stability and large areal capacity demonstrates its excellent electrochemical performance as a composite host for Li-S batteries.

3.3. Redox kinetics characterizations

Fig. 4a and Fig. S13 display the cyclic voltammograms (CV) of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S and NCNT/S with the same sulfur loading at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹, which exhibit the characteristic lithiation/delithiation features of sulfur cathodes. Compared to the NCNT/S cathode, VO₂(P)-NCNT/S shows an obvious shift to a higher potential in the



Fig. 2. (a) XRD patterns; (b) schematic illustration of orthorhombic paramontroseite VO_2 projected along [001]; (c) Raman spectra; (d) XPS spectra; (e) TGA/DSC curves, and (f) N_2 adsorption-desorption curves and analysis of the VO_2 (P)-NCNT host.

lithiation (discharge) sweep and a negative shift to a lower potential in the delithiation (charge) sweep, indicating a decrease of cell polarization [55]. The potential shifts in charge/discharge sweeps suggest that the redox kinetics reactions in the Li-S battery have been improved by the VO₂(P). The Tafel plots (Fig. S14) and corresponding onset potentials and exchange current densities (Fig. 4b) are determined by potentiostatic polarization experiments [55,56]. The higher onset potential values in the lithiation process and lower values in the delithiation process indicate more favorable reaction kinetics occurring in the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes. Additionally, the larger exchange current densities of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes also indicates that the VO₂(P) nanoparticles could effectively accelerate the charge transfer and redox reaction.

To analyze the VO₂(P) on the improvement of the redox kinetics during cycling, the Nyquist plots before/after cycling are measured (Fig. 4c). The Nyquist plots were fitted with an equivalent circuit (inset of Fig. 4b) and the fitting results are summarized in Table S1. The first intercept (at high frequency) corresponds to the electrolyte resistance $(R_{\rm s})$. The curve at high frequency is ascribed to Li-ion diffusion through the surface of nanolayers (R_{surf}), the curve at medium frequency is assigned to charge transfer (R_{ct}) and double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) [57]. The Ohmic resistance of VO2(P)-NCNT/S and NCNT/S cathodes before/ after cycling are similar. In addition, the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S before/after cycling $(41.8/87.1 \Omega)$ shows a smaller charge transfer resistance than those of NCNT/S (51.7/111.8 Ω). More importantly, R_{surf} of the VO₂(P)-NCNT/S (23.6 Ω) after cycling is much smaller than that of the pure NCNT/S (75.2 Ω), demonstrating that the VO₂(P) facilitates Li-ion diffusion from the electrolyte to the electrode surface. The slope of the linear fitting plot of Z' versus $\omega^{-1/2}$ defines the Warburg factor, which reflects the solid-state diffusion of ions inside the electrode materials (see Supporting information for details) [43]. Before cycling, both VO₂(P)-NCNT/S and NCNT/S show similar slopes in Fig. 4d. After cycling, the increased slope of the NCNT/S cathode indicates the decreased ion diffusion coefficient. In contrast, VO₂(P)-NCNT/S still has a small slope. Therefore, it can be concluded that VO₂(P) plays a key role in maintaining fast ion diffusion kinetics.

To operate the cell under almost quasi-equilibrium conditions, the GITT curves are measured for the 1st cycle (Fig. 4e). In a typical process, a current pulse of 0.05 C was applied for 30 min to measure the

closed-circuit-voltage (CCV), and then resting for 1 h to obtain the quasi-open-circuit-voltage (QOCV). Compared with the pure NCNT/S, the charge/discharge plateaus of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S are longer and flatter, thus demonstrating larger capacities. In addition, VO₂(P)-NCNT/S shows lower oxidation voltage plateaus and decreased hysteresis (ΔE , voltage gap between oxidation and reduction plateaus), which further reveal the accelerated redox kinetics of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode. To analyze detailed variations during the charge/discharge process, the reaction resistances (R.R.) at different lithiation/delithiation stages were evaluated from the difference between CCV and QOCV (Fig. 4f) [45]. The R.R. of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S are much lower than those of pure NCNT/S and are ascribed to the transfer reactions of Li₂S_x(x < 4) to Li₂S in the discharge process and from Li₂S_x(x > 6) to S₈ in the charge process. These results suggest that VO₂(P) accelerate the redox kinetics of LiPS conversions in VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathode.

To further identify the redox reaction mechanisms of the cathodes during the charge/discharge process, ex-situ XANES of S K-edge for NCNT and VO₂(P)-NCNT hosts at different states of charge/discharge during the first cycle is shown in Fig. 5. For the S K-edge of NCNT, the intensity of the XANES peak corresponding to S₈ at 2471.5 eV is decreased in the discharge process, which represents the transformation from S₈ to LiPS (Fig. 5a). When discharged to 1.7 V, a low energy peak appears which is derived from the presence of LiPS (Li₂S_x, x > 2) and there is no evidence of the formation of insoluble Li₂S. The accumulation of LiPS in electrolyte causes severe shuttle movement to the anode to form non-reusable solid Li₂S₂/Li₂S and thus leads to the irreversible loss of active materials [58].

However, the S K-edge of VO₂(P)-NCNT host shows a typical Li-S reaction process corresponding to the typical 2-plateau charge/discharge voltage profile of Li-S batteries in ether-based electrolytes (Fig. 5b). When discharged to 2.0 V, a typical LiPS peak appears at lower energy of S₈ peak. After the voltage is discharged to 1.7 V, clear Li₂S peaks at 2471.6 and 2473.3 eV [57] form at higher energy of S₈ peak (IV in Fig. 5b). These results indicate that the VO₂(P) accelerate the transformations from the LiPS to insoluble Li₂S. In the charge process, the Li₂S retransform to LiPS at 2.3 V. It should be known that the transformation of insoluble Li₂S back to LiPS also requires a large activation energy because the aggregation during their formation process always leads to the slow reaction kinetics and low energy efficiency



Fig. 3. (a) Cyclic performance at 0.2 C for 100 cycles; (b) Rate capability curves at various current densities from 0.1 C to 2 C; (c) Long-term cycling performance at 2 C for 500 cycles of NCNT/S and VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes; (d) Long-term cycling performance at 1 C for 500 cycles of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes with a high sulfur loading of 4.8 mg cm⁻²; (e) Areal capacities of VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes with high sulfur loadings of 6.4 and 9.6 mg cm⁻²; (f) Comparison of recent work on vanadium-based cathodes in Li-S batteries.

[9,59]. In addition, an S_8 peak with strong intensity was reformed when charged to 2.8 V, which suggests low consumption of active material and superior cycling performance. Even after 300 cycles, the S_8 peak could still be identified.

3.4. Polysulfides conversion characterizations

As LiPS shuttle reactions are the chief culprit for capacity fading and even the failure of Li-S batteries, constructing redox mediators to propel soluble LiPS conversion is one of the best choices to maintain stable electrochemical performance of Li-S batteries [9]. To test the interaction between VO₂(P) and LiPS, Li₂S₄/DME and Li₂S₆/DME solutions were used to test LiPS adsorptions (Fig. 6a). After 30 min, the NCNT appeared to have no observable effect on the Li₂S₄/DME or Li₂S₆/DME solutions since the color remained the same level. However, VO₂(P)-NCNT completely dissolved Li₂S₄ or Li₂S₆ and the solutions became transparent. The obvious contrast suggests a strong affinity between Li₂S₄/Li₂S₆ and VO₂(P) with chemical bonding. Additional visual observation tests in terms of disassembled separators further verify that LPS dissolution into the electrolyte was effectively mitigated by the $VO_2(P)$ -involved cathode. (Fig. S15).

To further identify the LiPS conversion catalyst with VO₂(P), symmetrical cells with two identical electrodes were designed (Fig. 6b). The electrolytes without the addition of Li_2S_6 were also compared. For symmetric batteries without Li_2S_6 , the current densities of VO₂(P)-NCNT electrodes are negligible, which implied that the polarization profiles were mainly derived from the redox current of Li_2S_6 (capacitive current caused by the symmetrical electrodes are negligible). For symmetric batteries with Li_2S_6 , it can be clearly observed that the current density of VO₂(P)-NCNT electrodes were much larger with obvious redox peaks, demonstrating that VO₂(P) not only electrochemically interact with LiPS but also catalyze the conversion of LiPS. The increased redox current of VO₂(P)-NCNT electrode under a polarization of \pm 1.0 V was in good accordance with the EIS results (Fig. S16).

We used X-ray absorption near-edge spectroscopy (XANES), electron energy-loss spectra (EELS), and XPS to determine the variations in the catalyzed polysulfide chains produced by the $VO_2(P)$ -NCNT host. To



Fig. 4. (a) Cyclic voltammetry curves at a scanning rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} ; (b) Comparison of the onset potentials and the derived exchange current densities for lithiation/delithiation reactions. (c) EIS curves; (d) The relationship between Z' and $\omega^{-1/2}$ with frequency range between 1 and 0.01 Hz before/after cycling (symbols, real data; lines, fitting curves) (e) GITT curves for first charge/discharge process; (f) reaction resistances during the charge/discharge process of NCNT/S and VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes.

avoid the interference derived from functional groups and charge/discharge products in the electrolyte, we used Li_2S_4 , a probe species that represents a polysulfide at an average depth of discharge, to investigate the products. In Fig. 6c, V K-edge peaks shift to a lower energy after soaking in Li₂S₄-DME solution. The enlarged Fig. (inset of Fig. 6c) shows that the pre-edge peak shifts from 5468.46 to 5467.75 eV, indicating that the V^{4+} in VO₂(P) is partly reduced to V^{3+} . The V K-edge of standard commercial V₂O₃ is shown in Fig. S17, which is consistent with the peak position of VO₂(P)-NCNT/Li₂S₄. Similarly, the V L₃-edge of EELS shifts from 524.9 to 523 eV, indicating that the valance of vanadium shifts to a lower state (Fig. 6d) [45]. Compared with the pristine state, two new peaks appear at 2478.8 and 2479.9 eV in the sulfur K-edge curves, which correspond to the thiosulfate $(S_2O_3^{2-})$ [60]. These two peaks are adequately verified by the curve of standard commercial Na₂S₂O₃ (inset in Fig. 6e). Similarly, the S 2p peaks of VO₂(P)-NCNT/Li₂S₄ (2p3/2 at 168.2 eV, 2p1/2 at 167.1 eV) are also attributed to $S_2O_3^{2-}$ (Fig. 6f) [61]. In this case, VO₂(P) particles that are attached to conductive NCNT arrays provide access for electric charge to reach the VO₂(P)-LiPS interface and to trigger LiPS redox reactions. As reported by the previous references [11,35], elemental sulfur undergoes nucleophilic attack by $S_2O_3^{2-}$ and form chains of LiPS or polythionate complexes, which is known as the 'Wackenroder reaction'. In this way, the insoluble $S_2O_3^{2-}$ that forms on the surface acts as an internal mediator to anchor long-chain LiPS from solution and to trigger conversion to low-order Li₂S₂/Li₂S [35].

The schematic illustration of VO₂(P) driving LiPS conversion by thiosulfate–polythionate with appropriate redox potentials are summarized in Fig. 6g. First, VO₂(P) nanoparticles act as catalysts to oxidize the LiPS to produce thiosulfate due to the strong interaction between VO₂(P) and LiPS. Second, thiosulfates act as a mediator to catenate long-chain Li₂S_x ($x \ge 4$) and produce short-chain Li₂S₂/Li₂S and surface-bound polythionate complexes. Thus, the VO₂(P) plays a vital role in LiPS conversion to polythionate [O₃S₂–(S)_{x–2}–S₂O₃] to suppress the LiPS shuttle reactions, resulting in Li-S batteries with superior



Fig. 5. Ex-situ XANES of S K-edge for (a) NCNT/S and (b) VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes at certain states of charge/discharge during the first cycle, (i) pristine, (ii) first discharge to 2.1 V, (iii) first discharge to 2.0 V, (iv) first discharge to 1.7 V, (v) first charge to 2.3 V, (vi) first charge to 2.8 V, and (vii) after 300 cycles at 2.8 V.



Fig. 6. (a) Adsorption properties of NCNT and $VO_2(P)$ -NCNT in Li_2S_4 and Li_2S_6 solutions; (b) Cyclic voltammograms of symmetric cells with identical electrodes of NCNT and $VO_2(P)$ -NCNT electrodes in electrolytes with/without Li_2S_6 at 50 mV s⁻¹. (c) The XANES of V K-edge (d) EELS of V L-edge; (e) The XANES of S K-edge curves; (f) XPS of S 2p peaks of pristine and $VO_2(P)$ -NCNT/ Li_2S_4 samples; (g) Schematic illustration of trapping polysulfides by thiosulfate–polythionate conversion for $VO_2(P)$ with appropriate redox potentials.

performance.

4. Conclusion

A composite host consisting of uniform VO₂(P) nanoparticles grown on parallel NCNT arrays result in a 3D free-standing hierarchical structure. In this host, VO₂(P) nanoparticles not only accelerate the charge transfer and ion diffusion with fast redox kinetics but also catalyze the conversion of soluble long-chain LiPS to insoluble polythionate complexes and short-chain Li₂S₂/Li₂S, thus effectively suppressing the shuttle reaction for stable cycling performance. The VO₂(P)-NCNT/S cathodes exhibits excellent performance with high reversible discharge capacity (\approx 1200 mA h g⁻¹ at 0.2 C), stable longterm cycling (\approx 67% retention at 2 C for 500 cycles), and high sulfur loading cycling (initial areal capacity of 10.2 mA h cm⁻² at 0.2 C for 200 cycles). This study demonstrates that the introduction of VO₂(P) enables the design of high loading sulfur-based cathodes with high performance by catalyzing the conversion of LiPS, and has potential applications for the development of practical Li-S batteries.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.nanoen.2018.12.020.

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air batteries.

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