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 VO2(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 (≈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 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 mA h g−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].
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)) is a minor structure, which 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, herein called 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 (1 g ferrocene in 50 mL acetonitrile) was introduced into the tube under an ultrasonic probe sonicator at a flow rate of 250 μL/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 ~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 NaαVO4 and 8 mmol thioacetamide (TAA) were dissolved in 40 mL distilled water with continuous stirring to form a homogenous 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 NaαVO4; 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

Li2S4 and Li2S6 solutions were prepared by mixing Li2S 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 VO2(P)-NCNT host was exfoliated from the hosts and added into 2 mL of a 4 mmol L⁻¹ Li2S4 stock solution. Similarly, 6 mg of NCNT or VO2(P)-NCNT powder was added into 3 mL of a 5 mmol L⁻¹ Li2S6 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 VO2(P)-NCNT host was soaked in a solution containing 1 mmol Li2S4 in 5 mL dimethyl ether (DME) for 12 h. The host was then washed and dried in a glovebox.

2.6. Materials characterisation

The morphologies were characterized using scanning electron 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 Kα radiation (1486.6 eV) was used to analyze the elemental composition and valence state. X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker D8 advanced) with Cu Kα radiation (λ = 1.5415 Å) and Raman spectroscopy (HRIBA 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 (SXMRB) 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 μL electrolyte (0.5 mol L⁻¹ Li2SO4 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 characterisation

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(trifluoromethanesulfonfyl)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 μL. 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 characterisation

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 ~10 μm (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 VO2(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 concentration 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 ~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 ~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 I2/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 (RUFF database: R050391). The D-band and G-band at ~1310 and ~1590 cm⁻¹, derived from NCNT, represent defect-induced 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 V⁵⁺ in VO2, at 515.3, 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 V2O5 [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 m² 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 g⁻¹). For the VO2(P)-NCNT/S cathode, it delivers a stable cycling performance with a high reversible discharge capacity of ~1200 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, 680, 603, and 395 mAh 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 mAh 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 VO2(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 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 mAh 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 mAh g⁻¹, while the capacity of NCNT/S cathode fades to 280 mAh g⁻¹ after only 260 cycles (retaining 28.8% of its capacity of the 2nd 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 S10.
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
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 (Rs). The curve at high frequency is ascribed to Li-ion diffusion through the surface of nanolayers (Rs surf), the curve at medium frequency is assigned to charge transfer (Rs) and double-layer capacitance (Cdl) [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 Ω) shows a smaller charge transfer resistance than those of NCNT/S (51.7/111.8 Ω). More importantly, Rs 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 ω−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 Li2Sx(x < 4) to Li2S in the discharge process and from Li2Sx(x > 6) to Li2S 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 (Li2Sx, 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 Li2Sx/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.
In addition, an S8 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 S8 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 VO2(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 Li2S6 were also compared. For symmetric batteries without Li2S6, the current densities of VO2(P)-NCNT electrodes are negligible, which implied that the polarization profiles were mainly derived from the redox current of Li2S6 (capacitive current caused by the symmetrical electrodes are negligible). For symmetric batteries with Li2S6, 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 electro-chemically interact with LiPS but also catalyze the conversion of LiPS. The increased redox current of VO2(P)-NCNT electrode under a polarization of ± 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 VO2(P)-NCNT host. To

![Figure 3](image-url)
avoid the interference derived from functional groups and charge/discharge products in the electrolyte, we used Li2S4, 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 V4+ in VO2(P) is partly reduced to V3+. 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 (S2O3\(^{2-}\)) [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 S2O3\(^{2-}\) (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 S2O3\(^{2-}\) and form chains of LiPS or polythionate complexes, which is known as the ‘Wackenroder reaction’. In this way, the insoluble S2O3\(^{2-}\) 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\(_x\) (\(x \geq 4\)) 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\(^{3-}\)(S)x\(^{-}\)2\(^{-}\)S2O3] to suppress the LiPS shuttle reactions, resulting in Li-S batteries with superior...
4. Conclusion

A composite host consisting of uniform VO$_2$(P) nanoparticles grown on parallel NCNT arrays result in a 3D free-standing hierarchical structure. In this host, VO$_2$(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 Li$_2$S$_2$/Li$_2$S, thus effectively suppressing the shuttle reaction for stable cycling performance. The VO$_2$(P)-NCNT/S cathodes exhibits excellent performance with high reversible discharge capacity (~1200 mA h g$^{-1}$ at 0.2 C), stable long-term cycling (~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 VO$_2$(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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