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Li₂CO₃: A Critical Issue for Developing Solid Garnet Batteries

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ABSTRACT: Solid garnet electrolytes are promising solid-state electrolytes because of their favorable ionic conductivity and high stability against Li metal anodes. However, their special surface chemistry greatly affects the practical applications whether in the form of garnet ceramic electrolytes (GCEs) or polymer/garnet electrolytes (PGEs). Even though large-scale production of garnet in an ambient atmosphere is possible, the passivated surface due to air exposure can lead to poor interfacial properties of GCEs with electrodes and low ionic conductivities of PGEs. Understanding the effects of air exposure on garnet structure stability, ion mobility, and interfacial configuration is crucial for better applications of solid garnet electrolytes. In this Perspective, we comprehensively recapitulate the reaction mechanisms and influencing factors of air-induced contaminations. Various surface



engineering strategies tailoring garnet particles and/or pellets are reviewed. This Perspective provides insightful guidelines for better storage of garnet electrolytes and construction of solid garnet batteries with enhanced electrochemical performance.

The ever-increasing demands for high-energy-density energy storage strongly promote the development of next-generation lithium-ion batteries (LiBs). Solid-state batteries (SSBs) using high-voltage cathodes, solid-state electrolytes (SSEs), and Li metal anodes are expected to boost the energy density.¹ At the same time, the safety concerns intrinsic to the flammable liquid electrolytes can be eliminated by the replacement of nonflammable SSEs and the integration of SSBs.

As a key component in SSBs, various types of SSEs have been studied for decades. Among them, garnet-type electrolytes are highly promising due to their good chemical and electrochemical stability against Li metal and feasibility of mass production in air.² An ideal garnet structure has a general chemical formula of $A_3B_2C_3O_{12}$, where A (e.g., Ca, Mg, and Y), B (e.g., Ga, Fe, Al, and Ni), and C (e.g., Al, Si, and V) are eight-, six-, and four-oxygen-coordinated cation sites.³ The availability of different coordination sites enables possibilities for different metal ion doping. Thangadurai et al. reported Li-stuffed garnets, $Li_5La_3M_2O_{12}$ (M = Ta and Nb), as promising ion conductors in 2004, showing ionic conductivities in the magnitude of 10^{-6} S cm⁻¹ at 25 °C.⁴ Li₅La₃Ta₂O₁₂ was found to be stable in contact with molten lithium, which is probably because of the weaker reducibility of Ta than other transition metals including Ti and Nb. Li₅La₃M₂O₁₂ (M = Ta and Nb) were the first examples of fast Li^+ conductors possessing garnet structures and gave rise to further investigations of conductivity optimization by chemical substitutions and structural modifications.⁵ In 2007, Murugan et al. proposed a new garnet-type solid electrolyte, Li₇La₃Zr₂O₁₂ (LLZO), showing an ionic conductivity of about 3 \times 10⁻⁴ S cm⁻¹ at 25 °C. The LLZO has a cubic crystal structure similar to that of Li₅La₃M₂O₁₂.⁶ Geiger et al. further discovered that LLZO undergoes a phase transition between cubic and tetragonal phases in a temperature range of 100-150 °C, where the cubic phase exhibits a higher ionic conductivity than the tetragonal phase.⁷ After a decade of intensive research, significant progress has been achieved based on LLZO electrolytes in terms of ionic conductivity

Received: November 4, 2019 Accepted: December 11, 2019 Published: December 11, 2019 improvement, structural characterization, and Li⁺ transport mechanism investigation. In most cases, the solid garnet electrolytes refer to LLZO-based electrolytes.^{8–10}

PGEs are suitable for SSBs in electric vehicles and flexible electronics, while GCEs are more favorable for portable electronic devices.

Solid garnet electrolytes can be divided into two categories. One is the polymer/garnet composite electrolytes (PGEs), where garnet particles are uniformly dispersed in a polymer matrix as a flexible electrolyte membrane. The other is garnet ceramic electrolytes (GCEs), in which pure garnet composition is obtained by sintering at high temperatures. PGEs and GCEs show different typical advantages and drawbacks. PGEs generally stand out for their excellent flexibility to ensure good contact with electrodes, high mechanical strength in the form of a "polymer-in-ceramic" configuration to suppress Li dendrite growth,¹¹ and easy transition for manufacturing based on the matured LiB facilities. However, most PGEs are limited by the low ionic conductivity ($<10^{-4}$ S cm⁻¹ at 25 °C) that hinders room-temperature applications. The electrochemical instability of polymer components at high voltages ultimately restricts the use of high-voltage cathodes.¹² In comparison, GCEs show much higher ionic conductivities and larger electrochemical windows than PGEs. Particularly, effective element doping (e.g., Ta and Nb) into LLZO can further enhance the room-temperature conductivity to over 10^{-3} S cm⁻¹ because of the increased Li⁺ vacancies as hopping sites.¹³ The high thermodynamic stability of GCEs can even enable applications in extreme environments such as aerospace. However, the mechanical stiffness and brittleness of GCEs not only cause interfacial problems with electrodes but also bring extra difficulties in battery fabrication. Nonetheless, PGEs and GCEs with distinct advantages are likely suitable for

different applications with different requirements. PGEs could be a good fit for SSBs in electric vehicles and flexible electronics, while GCEs could be more favorable for portable electronic devices. Further tuning their surface chemistries can potentially minimize the disadvantages for wider and more effective practice.

Surface chemistry of SSEs is directly related to the solidsolid interfacial properties and thus significantly affects the electrochemical performance of SSBs. Solid garnet electrolytes were initially believed to be chemically stable in ambient atmosphere, but recently, empirical and computational studies pointed out the harmful formation of Li2CO3 in air upon reactions with moisture and CO₂. The influence of surface Li₂CO₃ coverage on garnets has long been overlooked until the lithiophobic demonstration of the Li2CO3 passivated garnets and the excellent lithiophilicity of pristine garnet surfaces.¹⁴ The surface Li₂CO₃ layer is also related to low ionic conductivity of PGEs and low density of GCEs. So far, various intermediate coatings have been proposed to enhance the interfacial wettability with molten Li but with little comparison between surface coatings and recovery of a pristine garnet surface in terms of interface stability, Li dendrite suppression, and cycling performance.

In this Perspective, we focus on the surface Li_2CO_3 of garnet electrolytes toward GCEs/PGEs fabrication and interfacial construction. The air stability of garnet electrolytes and underlying fundamentals are discussed from reaction mechanisms to determining factors. Different surface engineering strategies are summarized, including rational component design, post-treatment, and efficient conversion. The influence of Li_2CO_3 on both GCE/Li and GCE/cathode is discussed in detail. Answers to the following questions can be found in this Perspective as future design guidelines for garnet electrolytes. Can Li_2CO_3 impurities occur inside of a dense garnet pellet? How is the growth of the Li_2CO_3 layer upon aging? Should any intermediate layers be eliminated when the GCEs are intrinsically lithiophilic? Is a small amount



Figure 1. (a) Reaction pathways of garnet electrolytes with air (using LLZO, for example). (b) Schematic outlining the contamination layers on the surface of a garnet electrolyte; the compositions and layer thicknesses were characterized by XPS analysis and accompanied depth profiling. (Copyright Royal Society of Chemistry, reprinted with permission from ref 19.)

of liquid a good compromise for the cathode interface? On the basis of our recent progress and other valuable reports, we conclude several important design factors for constructing a robust garnet/electrode interface. Practical solid garnet batteries shall be realized in the near future depending on the in-depth understanding and precise control of garnet surface chemistry.

In fact, the Li_2CO_3 contaminants can be difficult to avoid. The protonation might occur as early as during the cooling of garnet samples in the furnace after calcination.¹⁵ Different pathways have been proposed to describe the reactions between air and garnet (Figure 1a). Some studies reported a single-step reaction pathway, where the garnet directly reacts with dry CO_2 to form Li_2CO_3 (eq 1, using LLZO as an example).^{16,17}

$$\operatorname{Li}_{7}\operatorname{La}_{3}\operatorname{Zr}_{2}\operatorname{O}_{12} + x\operatorname{CO}_{2} \to \operatorname{Li}_{7-2x}\operatorname{La}_{3}\operatorname{Zr}_{2}\operatorname{O}_{12} + x\operatorname{Li}_{2}\operatorname{CO}_{3}$$
(1)

Although the direct reaction is a thermodynamically favorable route according to density functional theory (DFT) calculations, this reaction pathway is kinetically slow considering the negligible amount of $\rm Li_2CO_3$ formed on garnet samples after exposure in dry air. A more widely accepted reaction pathway includes two steps. First, the moisture in air reacts with LLZO to form LiOH by Li⁺/H⁺ ion exchange (eq 2).^{14,18}

$$\operatorname{Li}_{7}\operatorname{La}_{3}\operatorname{Zr}_{2}\operatorname{O}_{12} + x\operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O} \to \operatorname{Li}_{7-x}\operatorname{H}_{x}\operatorname{La}_{3}\operatorname{Zr}_{2}\operatorname{O}_{12} + x\operatorname{LiOH}$$
(2)

The LiOH subsequently reacts with CO_2 to form Li_2CO_3 on the surface of the garnet (eq 3).¹⁹

$$LiOH + \frac{1}{2}CO_2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}Li_2CO_3 + \frac{1}{2}H_2O$$
 (3)

Spontaneous Li⁺/H⁺ ion exchange was reported for various garnet oxides in aqueous solutions, such as Li₅La₃M₂O₁₂ (M = Nb, Ta) and Li₇La₃M₂O₁₂ (M = Zr, Sn).^{20,21} Such reactions do not change the cubic garnet structure but weaken the Li⁺ transport.^{22,23} Alternatively, Cheng et al. reported the formation of Li-decent garnet and LiOH by hydration (eq 4), without Li⁺/H⁺ ion exchange.²⁴

$$\operatorname{Li}_{7}\operatorname{La}_{3}\operatorname{Zr}_{2}\operatorname{O}_{12} + x\operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O} \to \operatorname{Li}_{7-2x}\operatorname{La}_{3}\operatorname{Zr}_{2}\operatorname{O}_{12-x} + 2x\operatorname{LiOH}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

However, Williams and Miller proposed that $LiOH \cdot H_2O$ is a necessary intermediate and required precursor for the subsequent formation of Li_2CO_3 after Li^+/H^+ ion exchange (eq 5).

$$LiOH + H_2O \rightarrow LiOH \cdot H_2O$$
(5)

The amount of water should be sufficient to form a LiOH- H_2O layer prior to or simultaneously with the CO₂ reaction.²⁵ Although details of the sub-Li₂CO₃ surface chemistry and its related structural evolution remain unknown at the moment, the possible distributions of LiOH and Li₂CO₃ in the contaminant layer are depicted in Figure 1b (LLZO samples exposed for up to 240 h in ambient air; relative humidity: ~50%).^{19,26} Therefore, it is of great significance to develop in situ probing methods to understand the structural and chemical evolutions of the LLZO subsurface, thus promoting precise tuning of the surface properties by process designs.

On the basis of the fact that the grain boundaries and inner pores are more air-sensitive than the bulk, highly dense GCEs (relative density: >99%) are expected to suppress Li₂CO₃ generation inside of the ceramic pellets.^{16,27} However, GCEs are difficult to densify. Even with high-temperature treatment over 1000 °C (at the risk of impurity formation by Li loss), it is difficult to achieve dense garnet ceramic pellets without the quality control of garnet powders. To obtain the green body before calcination, garnet powders are usually crushed by ball milling with a solvent (e.g., ethanol or isopropanol) and then dried in an oven. Such pretreatments often lead to a Li₂CO₃ coating layer on the surface of garnet particles, but the surface Li₂CO₃ contaminants are usually not taken into consideration because of the complete removal at high temperatures during calcination. In fact, the core-shell structure of garnet powders with a proton-rich garnet shell and a Li₂CO₃ outer layer is opposed to the densification process due to the high surface reactivity.²⁸ In addition, an Al₂O₃ crucible is commonly used as the container during the sintering process of garnet pellets. It was found that the pyrolytic Li₂O from Li₂CO₃ can react with Al₂O₃ at high temperatures, forming Li–Al–O impurities that hinder Li⁺ conduction.²⁹ Alternatively, fabrication of garnet pellets by the hot-pressing method is recommended because of the good control of powder quality and facile densification by high pressure.¹³ The graphite mold instead of Al₂O₃ crucible can avoid the formation of Al-containing impurities. The hot-pressed GCEs with a relative density over 99.5% show merged crystals. Fractured sections are mostly transgranular, evidencing the excellent grain boundary adhesion.³⁰ With little Li₂CO₃ in the dense GCEs, a high ionic conductivity over 10^{-3} S cm⁻¹ can be achieved at room temperature (RT).

Despite the efforts to simplify the garnet pellet fabrication by solid sintering at atmospheric pressure, the low relative density (<95%) and small grains with many grain boundaries could pose risks of reactions with air. Nevertheless, there are also conflicting reports about the effects of grain size on the air stability of LLZO. Cheng et al. pointed out that largegrained LLZO pellets can more easily form Li₂CO₃ contaminants than the small-grained ones due to the distribution differences of Al and Li contents on the surface of Al-doped LLZO.^{16,31} The higher Al and lower Li contents at small-grained sample surfaces lead to less Li₂CO₃ formation upon air exposure, which is consistent with the experimental observations made by Janek et al.³² In addition to the effects of materials microstructure, humidity and aging time are also key factors determining the amount of contaminants. Unlike artificially dense coating layers, the native Li₂CO₃ layer is loose and susceptible to continuous Li⁺/H⁺ ion exchange with humidity. The thickness of the Li₂CO₃ layer on the LLZO pellet surface could increase from ~100 nm to ~1 μ m by extending the aging time from 1 day to 6 months.¹⁶

The formation of Li₂CO₃ is harmful to GCEs in terms of both ionic conductivity and interfacial contact. Since Li₂CO₃ preferentially forms along the grain boundaries because of the high interfacial energy,³³ the ultralow ionic conductivity (~10⁻⁸ S cm⁻¹ at 200 °C) of Li₂CO₃ severely hinders Li⁺ mobility across grain boundaries and thus decreases the overall ionic conductivity.³⁴ Duan and Liu et al. reported an obvious drop in ionic conductivity of the Al-doped LLZO (relative density: 89%) from 1.81×10^{-4} to 2.39×10^{-5} S cm⁻¹ after 3 month of air exposure.²⁷ Considering the GCE/Li interface, the area-specific resistance (ASR) needs to be smaller than 100 Ω cm² to achieve comparable electrochemical performance to traditional liquid-based LiBs.³⁵ Due

to the lithophobic nature and low conductivity of Li₂CO₃, even a thin Li₂CO₃ layer of 10–100 nm can increase the interfacial resistance by an order of magnitude.²⁴ The large interfacial resistance (>1000 Ω cm²) and poor interfacial contact often lead to Li dendrite growth and rapid capacity decay of SSBs. Moreover, the presence of Li₂CO₃ can also interrupt the cathode/GCE interface due to its reaction with conductive carbon above 3.2 V (eq 6), causing a deteriorated interface at the cathode side.³⁶

$$2Li_{2}CO_{3} + C \to 4Li^{+} + 3CO_{2} + 4e^{-}$$
(6)

Acknowledging that the large interfacial resistance originated from the Li_2CO_3 contaminant, some recent studies focus on constructing a Li_2CO_3 -free interface for Li anodes. A Li_2CO_3 -free garnet surface is proved to be lithiophilic, rendering good wettability with molten Li. Sakamoto et al. first quantified the relationships between different interfacial chemistries and Li wettability.¹⁴ The large contact angles of Li with Li_2CO_3 and LiOH are calculated by DFT as 142 and 125°, respectively, demonstrating poor wettability. The contact angle of 62° between Li_2CO_3 -free LLZO and Li indicates intrinsic lithiophilicity of garnet electrolytes (Figure 2). Guo et al. later experimentally observed the excellent



Figure 2. Calculated work of adhesion (W_{ad}) , contact angle (θ) , and atomic structure for the (a) Li/Li₂CO₃ and (b) Li/LLZO interfaces. (Copyright American Chemical Society, reprinted with permission from ref 14.)

wettability between LLZO and Li.³⁷ Ga-, Al-, and Ta-doped LLZO electrolytes show similarly small contact angles of 56, 59.5, and 65°, respectively, in the absence of surface contaminants. Therefore, Li₂CO₃-free garnet electrolytes are generally considered lithiophilic despite of element doping. In addition, the theoretical ASR of the GCE/Li interface is as low as 0.01 Ω cm^{2,38} The activation energy (E_a) of the GCE/Li interface is 0.33 eV, which is close to the E_a of the LLZO bulk ionic conductivity.^{24,39} The low E_a is beneficial for the Li⁺ rapid migration across the interface at an elevated current density. Therefore, removal of surface Li₂CO₃ contaminants is an excellent strategy to address the interfacial contact issue with Li metal anodes in SSBs.

Figure 3 summarizes the different surface engineering strategies to achieve a Li_2CO_3 -free garnet/electrode interface. For the Li anode interface, one strategy is introduction of inorganic additives (e.g., LiF and Li_3PO_4) into the GCE pellets to prevent the formation of Li_2CO_3 (Figure 3a).^{40,41} These additives are mixed with garnet powder and do not change the garnet structure after calcination. Zhou and

Goodenough et al. reported that adding 2 wt % LiF into Tadoped LLZO (LLZTO) can effectively suppress the Li₂CO₃ formation because of the excellent hydrophobicity of LiF with a strong ionic bonding. As a result, the LLZTO/Li interfacial resistance decreased from 1260 to 345 Ω cm⁻² at 25 °C.⁴⁰ However, it is difficult to select a hydrophobic inorganic additive that does not interrupt the garnet structure nor lower the ionic conductivity. Machine learning and automated reaction screening may be a direction to guide the rational selection of additives before doping experiments in the future.

Another strategy is based on post-treatment to remove the formed Li₂CO₃. Common practices include mechanical polishing under an inert atmosphere and high-temperature treatment. However, mechanical polishing cannot completely remove the Li₂CO₃ (especially those buried along grain boundaries) and may bring additional contaminations from the polishing paper. As for high-temperature treatments, annealing over 750 °C is required for complete removal of the Li₂CO₃ and LiOH contaminants in forms of CO₂ and H₂O.⁴² A main drawback is the possible Li loss due to Li₂O evaporation at 600 °C, which can lead to impurity phase formation and poor Li⁺ conductivity.⁴³ When Guo et al. calcined the LLZO pellets at 900 °C in air for 24 h to remove Li₂CO₃, subsequent polishing was still required to avoid side effects from the Li-deficient impurity coatings.³⁷ It is favorable to develop an annealing method at lower temperatures that prevents Li loss while maintaining the cleaning effect. Goodenough et al. introduced carbon to react with Li₂CO₃ in Ar at 700 °C, which perfectly eliminated Li₂CO₃ contaminants for a lithiophilic surface.³⁶ Dasgupta and Sakamoto combined wet polishing and annealing at 500 °C to achieve an intrinsic GCE surface with an interfacial resistance as low as 2 Ω cm² at RT.¹⁴ Recently, Cheng et al. reported that heating LLZO at 250 °C under an inert atmosphere can reverse the surface degradation caused by air exposure and obtain a lowered interfacial resistance of 178 Ω . $cm^{2.44}$ The Li components of Li₂CO₃ were able to recover back into the LLZO structure together with reversed Li⁺/H⁺ ion exchange, given that these reverse reactions occurred more readily on the outer surface than at the subsurface. Feasible recovery of a Li₂CO₃-free lithiophilic interface at low temperatures may simplify the manufacturing processes by less stringent moisture and CO₂ controls. However, the origin of the lithiophilic interface retrieved by thermal treatments remains a pending question. Ingenious characterizations and computational simulations are needed to trace the conversions between Li₂O and LiOH/Li₂CO₃.

Conventional thermal treatments using a furnace usually require several hours to ramp the temperature, which is timeconsuming and energy-inefficient for practical battery manufacturing. Hu et al. demonstrated a novel thermal pulsing technique for rapid surface processing, which can clean the garnet surface contaminations in less than 2 s (Figure 3b).⁴⁵ The LLZO pellets were placed on top of a carbon-felt heater in an argon-filled glovebox, and the carbon felt strip was rapidly powered through Joule heating. The LLZO pellets were rapidly heated up from RT to 1250 °C in about 1 s, held at the temperature for about 0.4 s, and quenched in 0.3 s. The thermal pulsing treatment can effectively remove the Li2CO3 impurity, leading to an increased critical current density from 0.1 to 0.5 mA cm⁻² at 25 °C (Figure 3d). This approach is also suitable for garnet powders to minimize Li loss. In addition to the decomposition



Figure 3. Schematics of novel strategies of surface engineering to eliminate Li_2CO_3 contaminants by (a) inorganic additives, (b) rapid thermal treatment, and (c) conversion reactions. (d) Voltage profiles of the Li symmetric cells cycled at different current densities. The blue curve is the cell with the untreated garnet, and the red curve is the cell with the thermal pulse-treated garnet. (Copyright Elsevier, reprinted with permission from ref 45.) (e) Raman mappings of the aged LLZTO pellet and LLZTO after rapid acid treatment (Copyright Elsevier, reprinted with permission from ref 30.)

of Li_2CO_3 at high temperatures, Guo et al. proposed rapid acid treatment to chemically etch the Li_2CO_3 passivation layer.³⁰ Even after aging the LLZTO pellets in air for 1 month, merely 30 s of HCl (1 M) treatment is enough to clean the surface Li_2CO_3 without damaging the bulk pellets (Figure 3e).

A Li₂CO₃-free GCE surface solves the contact issue with Li metal anodes, but other challenges (e.g., high rate performance) remain unsettled. The interfacial resistance of a Li_2CO_3 free interface is comparable to that using various intermediate layers. However, at high current densities above 1.0 mA cm^{-2} , short circuit due to metallic Li penetration still occurs. Various recent studies have tried to understand the relevant mechanisms and seek possible solutions. Han et al. revealed that the residual electronic conductivity of LLZO ceramic is the origin of dendrite formation in SSBs using neutron depth profiling (NDP).⁴⁶ The study by Guo et al. agrees that the injection of electrons could cause precipitation of metallic Li in polycrystalline garnets.⁴⁷ Therefore, an ionic conductive but electronic insulating intermediate layer is required at the GCE/Li interface to achieve comprehensive functionalities of preventing Li₂CO₃ contaminant regeneration, blocking electron injection, and suppressing Li dendrite growth.

In addition to constructing a favorable initial GCE/Li interface, the interfacial stability is highly important because of the constantly changing interface upon plating and stripping of Li metal during repeated charge/discharge cycles. The

inflexible GCEs could easily detach from the fluctuating volume of Li metal and create hot spots for Li dendrite growth. Inspired by the three-dimensional Li metal anodes in liquid electrolytes, Hu et al. proposed a garnet-based bilayer structure with a dense layer as the separator and a porous extension layer accommodating Li metal to alleviate the volumetric influence.⁴⁸ As illustrated in Figure 4, an ideal GCE/Li interface should lead to a small interfacial resistance, high ionic conductivity, negligible electronic conductivity, and mechanical stability during electrochemical cycles.

 Li_2CO_3 is commonly formed on the surface of lithiated cathode materials after air exposure. However, the effects of the Li_2CO_3 layer on the electrochemical performance of cathodes are still elusive. On the one hand, the low ionic and electronic conductivities of the Li_2CO_3 layer can hinder the ion/electron transport between cathode particles, thus decreasing the capacity and hindering the rate performance.⁴⁹ On the other hand, Li_2CO_3 coatings were demonstrated as an artificial cathode–electrolyte interphase (CEI) for impeding the formation of unstable native CEIs and preserving the capacity retention.⁵⁰ Therefore, comprehensive assessments are required for different electrolytes and cathode materials.

The cathode/garnet interface in SSBs is currently less investigated compared to the Li/garnet interface. Not only intimate interfacial contacts but also high ionic and electronic conductivities are required for the cathode/SSE composites to achieve complete electrochemical reactions. Some attempts



Figure 4. Schematic of an excellent garnet/Li interface for Li dendrite suppression.

have been made to minimize the interfacial resistance based on thin-film cathodes.^{39,51} For example, Shingo Ohta et al. coated the LiCoO₂ (LCO) cathode on the surface of Nb-doped LLZO by pulsed laser deposition.³⁹ The ASR at the cathode interface was 170 Ω cm² after charging to 3.95 V vs Li⁺/Li, which is comparable to the liquid-based batteries. It is believed that Li₂CO₃ removal can further decrease the cathode/garnet interfacial resistance.

To increase the cathode loading for practical application, co-sintering is a common approach to enhance interfacial contact. LCO is a favorable cathode material to co-sinter with garnet particles and sintering additives (e.g., Li_3BO_3) because the high electronic conductivity of LCO enables fast lithiation/delithiation without extra electronic conductive additives. However, the undesired surface Li_2CO_3 on the garnet electrolyte and LCO not only impedes the Li^+ transportation in composite cathodes but also decreases the wettability between garnet/LCO and sintering additives. The partial contact of LCO and garnet due to incomplete coverage leads to severe side reactions between each other during sintering at high temperature, thus the low capacity of the all-solid-state garnet batteries. Han et al. proposed an innovative approach to address the Li_2CO_3 issue by introducing a low-

Garnet electrolytes are not stable with conventional carbonate-based liquid electrolytes due to Li⁺/H⁺ exchange. The decomposition of liquid electrolytes may lead to capacity fading of the batteries.

melting-point $Li_{2,3}C_{0,7}B_{0,3}O_3$ intermediate phase (Figure 3c). The Li_{2.3}C_{0.7}B_{0.3}O₃ can react with Li₂CO₃ to form $Li_{2,3-x}C_{0,7+x}B_{0,3-x}O_3$ (LCBO), which shows a higher Li^+ conductivity than that of Li2CO3 by several orders of magnitude and even higher than that of the traditional Li₃BO₃ additive. The thermal soldered LCO and LLZO by LCBO showed uniform distribution with a strong wetting property at the cathode interface. The interphase-engineered all-ceramic LCO/LLZO/Li cell delivered a stable capacity of 83 mAh g^{-1} after 100 cycles under 0.05 C at 25 °C. Conversion of the Li₂CO₃ layer during co-sintering is proved to be effective for addressing the cathode interface issue. Higher ionic/electronic conductivities of the sintered interface at RT are expected to deliver better electrochemical performance for all-ceramic garnet batteries. Seeking other suitable sintering additives shall be an ongoing direction.

As a transition period from liquid batteries to all-solid-state batteries, a small amount of liquid is generally added to wet the interface between the cathode and garnet to demonstrate a working battery. Various liquids have been reported, including liquid electrolytes, ionic liquids, and low-melting-point plasticizers. The LiFePO₄/LLZTO/Li cell with an interfacial wetted cathode interface can deliver a high specific capacity of 142.7 mAh g⁻¹ at 0.1 C and a high capacity retention of 82.1% after 150 cycles at RT.³⁰ However, Xu et al. reported that LLZO is not stable with the conventional carbonatebased liquid electrolytes due to Li⁺/H⁺ exchange.⁵² They further pointed out that the decomposition of liquid electrolytes may lead to the capacity fading of the batteries, while the superbase *n*-BuLi can effectively stabilize the LLZO/ liquid electrolyte interface. Further understanding of the underlying interfacial reaction mechanisms is required, especially during the development of solid/liquid hybrid batteries.

The development of organic/inorganic hybrid solid-state membranes is highly dependent on the choice and properties



Figure 5. (a) Effect of Li_2CO_3 on the interfacial resistance between PEO-LiTFSI and LLZTO at 30 °C. (Copyright Electrochemical Society, reprinted with permission from ref 56.) Schematics presenting (b) highly conductive interfacial pathways in "ceramic-in-polymer" PGEs and (c) highly conductive garnet bulk pathways in "polymer-in-ceramic" PGEs by removing surface Li_2CO_3 of the garnet particles.

of fillers, where conductive electrolyte fillers are relatively attractive. A practical hybrid electrolyte should meet the following requirements: (1) ionic conductivity above 10^{-4} S cm^{-2} at RT, (2) a large electrochemical window over 5 V, (3) a stable and robust interface between SSEs and electrodes for smooth Li⁺ transport, and (4) be mechanically strong to suppress Li dendrite proliferation.¹² Rationally designed PGEs can take advantage of the merits of both polymer electrolytes and garnet-type SSEs. An appropriate proportion of garnet particles can decrease the crystallinity by interrupting the polymer chains for enhanced ionic conductivity while maintaining the mechanical strength for lithium dendrite suppression. Various polymers have been studied as the matrix for PGEs, including poly(ethylene oxide) (PEO),⁵³ poly-(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF),⁵⁴ and poly(propylene carbonate) (PPC).53

Garnet powders are more sensitive to moist air than the dense GCE pellets. However, the polymer matrix can resist Li₂CO₃ formation at the PGEs/electrode interfaces. The flexible polymers can also achieve good interfacial contact with low resistance. Therefore, the presence of Li₂CO₃ mainly affects the Li⁺ conduction within the PGEs. Sakamoto et al. studied ionic transport through the PEO-LiTFSI/LLZTO interface with the effect of Li2CO3.56 The untreated LLZTO pellets showed interfacial ASR over 10 k Ω cm² at 30 °C due to the Li₂CO₃ surface layer as a barrier of charge transfer between PEO-LiTFSI and LLZTO (Figure 5a). The uncontrollable initial thickness of the Li2CO3 layer also led to the large ASR variability (2.38 k Ω cm²) for the untreated LLZTO samples. It was observed that the higher the heattreatment temperature, the lower the interfacial ASR of the cell. The lowest interfacial ASR (180 Ω cm²) was achieved by a heat treatment of 700 °C, which is close to the decomposition temperature of Li₂CO₃. It indicates that a Li₂CO₃-free polymer/garnet interface has faster Li⁺ transportation capability. The ionic conductivity of PGEs can be increased if the Li₂CO₃ layers are removed from the surface of garnet particles.

In fact, the Li⁺ conductive mechanism in PGEs is much more complicated than that of the simple model, where PEO-LiTFSI is coated on the LLZTO pellets. The introduction of garnet particles into polymers can result in various interactions among garnet, Li salt, and the polymer matrix, such as dissolution improvement of Li salt, crystallinity decrease of the polymer, and acid-base interactions between each other.⁵⁴ Identifying the Li⁺ migration pathways can not only be beneficial for understanding the effect of Li2CO2 but also guide the rational design of advanced PGEs with excellent ionic conductivity. In general, there are three Li⁺ conductive pathways in PGEs, including the polymer, polymer/garnet interface, and garnet bulk. The different Li⁺ migration pathways can be changed or show a synergistic effect when various amounts of garnet particles are introduced into the PGEs. It is generally acknowledged that the Li⁺ is mainly transported in the polymer phase when the content of garnets is low in polymer-rich PGEs, while Li⁺ mainly migrates in the garnet bulk when a large content of garnets makes up ceramicrich PGEs. The controversy focuses on the polymer/garnet interfacial conduction. Many groups reported the ionic conductivity threshold of PGEs based on nonconductive fillers (e.g., Al_2O_3 and SiO_2) or conductive electrolyte fillers (e.g., LLZO).^{57,58} They attributed the optimized conductivity to the highly conductive interfacial conduction beneficial from

the percolation effect. The interfacial conduction has some positive effects on the ionic conductivity. For example, the LLZTO with smaller size or nanofiber shape exhibited higher ionic conductivity due to the increased interfaces between LLZTO and PEO.^{58,59} The finite-element simulations also confirmed the possibility of Li⁺ transport at the interface.⁶⁰ However, some researchers argued that the continuous interfacial pathway, as the key factor of the percolation effect, is hard to construct, considering the tendency of filler agglomeration in PGEs; even if the continuous interfacial pathway is formed, the connected garnet particles can also conduct Li⁺ from the bulk pathway. Li nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) further indicated a preferential Li⁺ pathway through the ceramic phase in a PEO/LLZO-based PGE rather than the PEO/LLZO interface.⁶¹

Figure 5b,c shows the possible effects of Li₂CO₃ on the PGEs. Due to its much lower ionic conductivity compared with that of the garnet electrolyte, Li₂CO₃ may hinder the Li⁺ rapid migration along the polymer/garnet interface in the "ceramic-in-polymer" PGEs, while Li₂CO₃ may impede the Li⁺ conduction through garnet bulk in "polymer-in-ceramic" PGEs. Further investigation by advanced characterization techniques is required, such as NMR, neutron diffraction, and STXM (synchrotron scanning transmission X-ray microscopy). To remove the Li_2CO_3 on the surface of garnet particles, traditional high-temperature treatments show little effect due to the Li2CO3 formation again during natural cooling. The rapid thermal pulse method (Figure 3b) is recommended because the rapid cleaning process prevents the garnet phase decomposition and Li₂CO₃ formation again. The PGEs using LLZO fillers with or without Li₂CO₃ should be assessed in terms of the ionic conductivity, electrochemical window, Li⁺ transference number, and capability of Li⁺ dendrite suppression. It is highly expected that something new will be obtained in the near future.

Interference of Li₂CO₃ at the polymer/ garnet interface makes the Li⁺ conduction mechanism in PGEs much more complicated, where advanced characterization techniques are required for further investigation.

Solid garnet batteries are very promising for next-generation energy storage systems due to the enhancement of energy density and guarantee of safety. However, various critical issues have hindered their commercialization, such as Li dendrite growth, high interfacial resistance, and poor rate performance. The mechanisms behind are complex and require special assessments. Formation of surface Li₂CO₃ due air exposure is reported as a common impurity coating on the garnet electrolytes. Its effects on solid garnet batteries have been discussed in detail in this Perspective from electrolyte fabrication to interface construction. Here, we provide our perspectives regarding the Li₂CO₃ issue for better constructing solid garnet batteries (Figure 6):

(1) In order to improve the air stability and suppress the Li_2CO_3 formation, abundant experiences can be learned from sulfide electrolytes. In fact, sulfide electrolytes are much more air-sensitive compared with garnet electrolytes. However, their air stability can be greatly



Figure 6. Perspectives of developing solid garnet batteries based on the Li_2CO_3 issue. (Copyright Elsevier, reprinted with permission from ref 45; Copyright American Chemical Society, reprinted with permission from refs 52 and 63.)

improved by rational element doping based on the hard and soft acids and bases theory. It is highly expected that element doping can also enhance the air stability of garnet electrolytes and suppress the formation of Li_2CO_3 . Further understanding the reaction mechanisms and finding targeted strategies are critically important for rational selection of doping elements.⁶² Machine learning and automated reaction screening may be a direction to guide the element selection before doping experiments in the future.

- (2) The first step of Li_2CO_3 formation is the reaction between H_2O and garnet electrolytes by Li^+/H^+ exchange. Therefore, controlling the moisture content to a low level is important for storing garnet electrolytes. A dry room or a glovebox is usually used to store garnet electrolytes. However, the Li_2CO_3 still gradually forms on the surface of garnet electrolytes due to the inevitable H_2O in the dry room or volatile organic electrolytes in the glovebox. Surface polishing in an inert atmosphere may be required before the use of GCEs. Some weak acids can be added during ball milling of garnet powder to protect it against air corrosion.
- (3) The high electronic conductivity of GCEs was reported as the origin of Li dendrite proliferation.⁴⁶ The grain boundaries as inner defect sites can easily trap electrons compared to the garnet bulk, thus guiding the isolated Li nucleation inside of the GCEs and proliferation along the grain boundaries. On the other hand, Li_2CO_3 preferentially forms along the grain boundaries upon air exposure. It is generally acknowledged that the grainboundary Li_2CO_3 leads to the decreased ionic conductivity of GCEs due to its ultralow ionic conductivity. However, Li_2CO_3 is also an electronic insulator. Whether the grain-boundary Li_2CO_3 can suppress the Li dendrite nucleation inside of the GCEs is an interesting question. Precisely controlled

growth of grain-boundary Li_2CO_3 could be a promising approach to achieve both high ionic conductivity and excellent capability of Li dendrite suppression for the GCEs.

- (4) Recent publications indicate that the interface kinetics and its morphological stability during cycling can affect the Li dendrite growth and not only the interfacial wettability at an initial stage.^{63,64} Although both Li₂CO₃-free garnet/Li interfaces and garnet/Li interfaces with lithiophilic coatings (e.g., Al₂O₃, Si, and Sn) show similarly low interfacial resistances before cycling, the different effects on long-term interface stability upon repeated cycling remain unclear. Operando techniques are helpful for studying the relationship between the interface evolution and dendrite growth during cycling, such as in-operando electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and in-operando scanning electron microscope (SEM). In addition, combining surface coating of an ion-conductive but electronicinsulating layer with surface Li₂CO₃ removal may be a promising strategy to realize excellent interfacial stability and Li dendrite suppression.
- (5) The stability between garnet electrolytes and various liquid electrolytes should be studied in detail because a small amount of liquid electrolyte is usually added to wet the garnet/cathode interfaces. It may be a complex chain reaction from the Li⁺/H⁺ exchange to the decomposition of liquid electrolytes.⁵² For the solid/ liquid hybrid cells, a balance between the decrease of the liquid content as much as possible and feasible electrochemical performance remains challenging. More studies are expected to pave the way for all-solid-state batteries.
- (6) Studies on the Li⁺ conduction mechanism in PGEs are important for PGE designs. However, the polymer/ garnet interface as a highly conductive Li⁺ migration pathway by a percolation effect remains controversial.

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The interference of the Li_2CO_3 passivation layer at the interface makes the Li^+ conduction mechanism much more complicated. Advanced characterization techniques such as NMR, neutron diffraction, and STXM are powerful tools to investigate the interfacial Li^+ transport. It is believed that a Li_2CO_3 -free polymer/garnet interface can enhance the ionic conductivity to some extent. In addition, the essential electrochemical properties need to be revisited when Li_2CO_3 is removed in the PGEs, including the electrochemical window and Li^+ transference number.

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