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Bimodal Mesoporous Titanium Nitride/Carbon Microfibers as Efficient and Stable Electrocatalysts for Li-O₂ Batteries

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The rechargeable Li-O₂ battery has been considered as a sustainable chemical power source for electric vehicles and grid energy storage systems due to the high theoretical specific energy (~3,500 Wh/kg).¹ The practical performance of Li-O₂ batteries is, however, still far below expectations. This is mainly attributed to the 1) intrinsic sluggish reaction kinetics of the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) and oxygen evolution reaction (OER), 2) passivation of the electrodes by electrical isolation and pore blocking, and 3) chemical instability of the organic cell components, i.e. electrolyte, polymer binder, and carbon electrode, in the presence of O₂^{•-} and Li₂O₂.^{2,3} It is crucial to develop highly porous, three-dimensional, conducting cathode catalyst/gas diffusion layer (GDL) architectures possessing superior catalytic activity and stability with respect to the ORR and the OER in order to address these issues.⁴ All of these requirements prompted us to examine the catalytic performance of porous framework metal nitride electrodes for Li-O₂ batteries.

Non-precious transition metal nitrides have attracted considerable attention as an alternative catalyst to noble metals for electrochemical reactions. Titanium nitride (TiN), in particular, is an interesting material that exhibits excellent thermal, chemical, and mechanical stability, electrical conductivity, and of particular electrocatalytic activity.⁵

TiN is often prepared by the nitridation of titanium oxide using gaseous ammonia or hydrazine as a nitrogen source.⁶ This high temperature synthesis, however, gives a material with low surface area, which is unfavorable for its application in heterogeneous electrocatalysis. Recently, mesoporous TiN/carbon composites with high surface areas have been successfully synthesized by using nanostructured graphitic carbon nitride (g-CN) as a reactive template that plays double roles as an exo-template and as a nitrogen (or carbon) source.⁷⁻⁹ The confined growth enables the formation of small TiN nanoparticles without

agglomeration while the decomposition products of g-CN transform the preformed TiO₂ to TiN. One can expect a wide variety of nanostructured TiN/Cs with different structural properties that might be desirable by using other nanostructured g-CN_s.¹⁰ The high temperature needed for the synthesis of g-CN, however, limits the possible ways of forming nanostructures mostly because of the templating approach using nanostructured silica. This synthesis procedure is costly and requires multiple steps along with the use of harmful chemicals such as hydrofluoric acid to remove the template. It is, therefore, highly desirable to develop a facile synthesis procedure to shape g-CN or its precursors without using an additional nanocasting template for the large-scale applications of nanostructured TiN.

Recently, we reported the molecular cooperative assembly of g-CN macro-/nanostructures using inexpensive triazines as precursors.¹¹ The shape and size of the assembly, and thus the resulting g-CN materials, can be tailored simply by using different precipitation temperatures, solvents, and co-monomers. Furthermore, the assembly develops unique nanostructures during the polycondensation without losing the pristine macrostructures. With this in mind we have examined the synthesis of TiN by a molecular cooperative assembly process using the triazines as reactive templates. Amorphous TiO₂ deposited onto the supramolecular networks of melamine and trithiocyanuric acid (MTCA) is converted into a TiN nanocoating after heating at 800°C. This technique yields bimodal mesoporous TiN/C (bmp-TiN/C) microfibers, which provide a catalyst-membrane architecture appropriate for the accommodation of the Li-O₂ discharge product, Li₂O₂, with sizes of a few hundreds of nanometers. The pores allow the efficient mass-transfer of the reactant species, and in addition result in superior catalytic activities for both ORR and OER in Li-O₂ batteries.

A schematic reaction pathway to synthesize bmp-TiN/C using MTCA is described in Figure 1a. MTCA is formed by mixing equimolar solutions of melamine and trithiocyanuric acid in DMSO with water. The spontaneous precipitation yields rectangular microfibers with a length of $\sim 50 \mu\text{m}$ and a width of $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$. (Figure 1b) The three dimensional structure is constructed *via* hydrogen bonding, electrostatic and π - π interactions between protonated melamine and deprotonated trithiocyanuric acid.

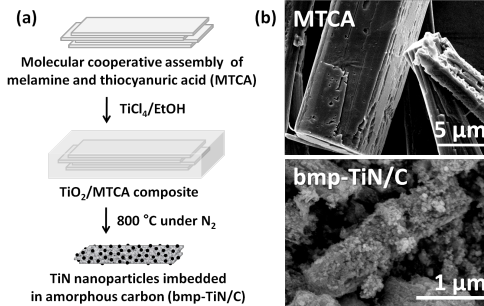


Figure 1 (a) A Schematic reaction pathway to bmp-TiN/C. (b) SEM images of MTCA and bmp-TiN/C.

MTCA is pre-heated to 350°C under air in order to increase the stability of microfibers in the hydrogen bond breaking solvent. It is then mixed with a TiCl₄ solution in ethanol and dried at room temperature under air to form amorphous TiO₂ layers on the surface (TiO₂/MTCA composite). The abundant functional groups on the surface of MTCA ensure the stable binding of Ti phases. The TiO₂/MTCA composite is then heated to 800°C under N₂. The MTCA within the composite first forms g-CN around 550°C, which is then completely decomposed into NH₃ and CN_x gases above 650°C.¹¹ These reactive species reduce and convert the TiO₂ to the corresponding nitride. The excess g-CN (or MTCA) is converted into amorphous carbon residues. The onset of two events, i.e. thermal decomposition of g-CN and nitridation of TiO₂, are in the same temperature window, inhibiting the structure collapse that might result from the phase transition of TiO₂ from anatase to rutile. Subsequent heating to 800°C under nitrogen completes the conversion of the surface TiO₂ into the TiN nanoparticles (bmp-TiN/C).

The pristine macrostructure of MTCA is preserved despite structural shrinkage of the overall composite dimensions. (Figure 1b) Residual carbon (29 wt% determined by elemental analysis) likely acts as a binder to preserve the morphology. TEM images and the corresponding electron diffraction pattern of bmp-TiN/C reveal that the resulting material consists of highly crystalline nanoparticles with a size of about 10 nm. (Figure 2a) Indeed, the XRD pattern is in good agreement with that of osbornite, a cubic titanium nitride (JCPDS#01-087-0633). (Figure 2b) The crystal size is estimated to be 9 nm by the Scherrer equation analysis of the (200) diffraction peak profile, coinciding well with the TEM observation. A porous structure is observed in both the TEM and SEM images. (Figure 1b and 2a) N₂ sorption analysis exhibits a surface area of 158 m²/g

and a pore volume of 0.3 cm³/g. (Figure 2c) The pore size distribution calculated by the BJH method using the desorption branch is bimodal centered at 4 and 50 nm. (Figure 2d) The 4 nm pores are attributed to the interstitial space between the nanoparticles. The 50 nm pores result from the structure contraction of MTCA along with the sheet direction during the polycondensation.

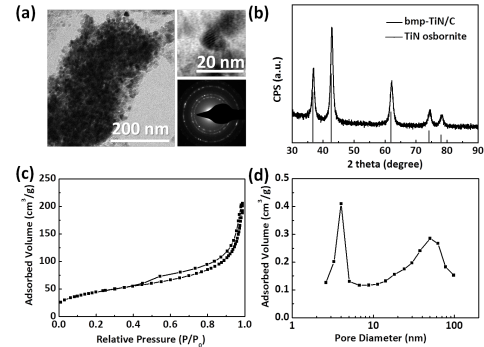


Figure 2 (a) TEM images and the corresponding SAED pattern, (b) XRD pattern, (c) N₂ sorption isotherm, and (d) pore size distribution of bmp-TiN/C.

The electrocatalytic performance of bmp-TiN/C was demonstrated in non-aqueous Li-O₂ batteries using a LiCF₃SO₃-tetraethylene glycol dimethyl ether (TEGDME) electrolyte. bmp-TiN/C was first characterized by potentiodynamic cycling with galvanostatic acceleration (PCGA) technique which determines the polarization of the GDL catalyst for oxygen electrochemistry by using a steady-state potential. Figure S1 shows a PCGA profile at a charge capacity of 1,000 mAh/g Super P. Two clear plateaus were observed around 2.6 V and 3.6 V, corresponding to the reversible formation and dissociation of Li₂O₂, respectively. bmp-TiN/C has an ORR potential comparable to those of Super P and Pt/C. The onset potential of OER is at 3.0 V, 100 and 400 mV lower than those of Super P and Pt/C, respectively. The charge profile shows a small step at 3.2 V related to the O₂ release and then slowly increases to 3.76 V. Super P and Pt/C completely recover the charge capacity at 3.84 V and 3.63 V, respectively. The Pt/C cell has an open circuit voltage higher by 400 mV than Super P and bmp-TiN/C cells due to the decomposition of TEGDME by atomic oxygen dissociated by Pt.¹²

In galvanostatic cycling with potential limitation (GCPL) tests of the data shown in Figure 3b, the ORR at a current density of 100 mA/g Super P occurs at nearly the same potential as that observed in the PCGA analysis. The OER potential is, however, substantially increased mainly due to a large amount of insulating Li₂O₂ being deposited in the pores of the GDL upon discharge. Since the full discharge to 2.0 V deactivates the subsequent charge procedure due to the pore blocking of cathode and thus high polarization resistance (data not shown), the lower cut off potential was set to 2.4 V. The GCPL discharge-charge profile reveals that bmp-TiN/C has a much higher discharge capacity of 19,100±500 mAh/g Super P compared to

Super P ($11,900 \pm 600$ mAh/g_{Super P}) and Pt/C ($8,100 \pm 400$ mAh/g_{Pt/C}). (Figure 3) It is also notable that bmp-TiN/C alone enables the full discharge-charge cycle with a capacity of $7,100 \pm 300$ mAh/g _{bmp-TiN/C} even without including Super P, the ORR catalyst in the final composition. (Figure S2) This strongly suggests that bmp-TiN/C is indeed an efficient catalyst for OER as well as ORR in Li-O₂ battery.

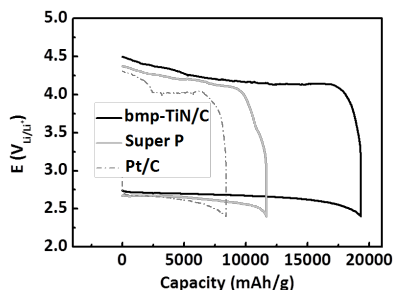


Figure 3 GCPL profiles of bmp-TiN/C, Super P, and Pt/C.

SEM, XRD, and XPS investigations during the discharge-charge cycle confirm the reversible formation of Li₂O₂. (Figure S3) Using bmp-TiN/C without compositing with Super P as a catalyst indicates the target catalyst's ability to achieve the desired electrochemical activity of the ORR and OER. The homogeneous distribution of Li₂O₂ spheres (~700 nm) was observed in the SEM image of GDL after the initial discharge (D₁, 25% discharge depth). Furthermore, the peaks in the XRD patterns corresponding to Li₂O₂ systematically increased as the cell was discharged from D₁ and D₂ (50%) to D₃ (80%). Li₂O₂ then mostly disappeared in the SEM image, XRD patterns, and XPS spectra during the subsequent charge procedure. Meanwhile, no oxidation of bmp-TiN/C to TiO₂ was observed in the XRD patterns. These results suggest that the capacity of Li-O₂ cells is mainly through the formation of Li₂O₂.

The cycling stability of bmp-TiN/C was further tested at a lower discharge depth (12%) and higher current density (200 mA/g _{bmp-TiN/C}). Steady cycling is maintained for 35 cycles followed by a rapid fade profile in the bmp-TiN/C cells. (Figure S4) bmp-TiN/C is shown to be chemically and structurally stable after 35 cycles as confirmed by the TEM images, SAED patterns, and XRD peaks. (Figure S5) FT-IR and XPS spectra, however, show that some carbonates are always formed after cycling probably due to the decomposition of amorphous carbon within bmp-TiN/C.³ (Figure S3c and S6) The increase in the peak intensity at 859 cm⁻¹ and 1402 cm⁻¹ of FT-IR spectra and 290.4 eV of the XPS spectra implies that the electrode contains carbonates after charging.

In conclusion, bimodal mesoporous TiN/C (bmp-TiN/C) microfibers were successfully synthesized by molecular cooperative assembly using triazines. bmp-TiN/C was characterized by PCGA and GCPL techniques. It was found that bmp-TiN/C forms a catalyst-membrane archi-

ture appropriate for the accommodation of a large amount of Li₂O₂ ($19,100 \pm 500$ mAh/g _{Super P}) and for the efficient mass-transfer of the electrolyte and oxygen without severe passivation by Li₂O₂. Additionally the catalyst is stable against O₂⁻ and Li₂O₂ and efficient for both ORR and OER in Li-O₂ cells as compared to the commercial catalysts, Super P and Pt/C. Although residual carbon within bmp-TiN/C is potentially decomposing during cycling, the carbon content can be varied easily as it depends on the TiO₂/g-CN ratios.¹³ Future works will focus on the formation of TiN macro-/nanostructures without the residual carbon through further synthetic design.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. bmp-TiN/C synthesis methods, electrochemical analysis, discharge-charge curve, cyclability test, SEM/TEM images, XRD patterns, FT-IR and XPS spectra of bmp-TiN/C cathodes. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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