

# Journal of Materials Chemistry A

Accepted Manuscript

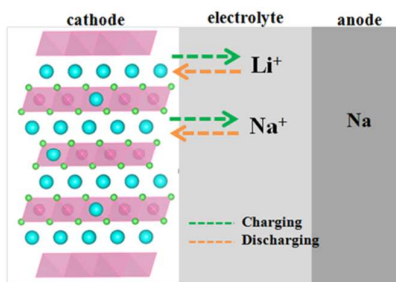


This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

*Accepted Manuscripts* are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



Hybrid-ions battery is established using  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  as cathode, which demonstrates superior rate capability and long-term cycle life.



Journal Name

ARTICLE

## High capacity and rate capability of 4d layered $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$ cathode utilized in the hybrid $\text{Na}^+/\text{Li}^+$ batteries

Ye Yao<sup>a,b</sup>, Peilei Yang<sup>a</sup>, Xiaofei Bie<sup>a,c</sup>, Chunzhong Wang<sup>a,b</sup>, Yingjin Wei<sup>a</sup>, Gang Chen<sup>a,b</sup> and Fei Du<sup>a,\*</sup>

1 Received 00th January 20xx,  
2 Accepted 00th January 20xx

3 DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

4 www.rsc.org/

5

9 A novel hybrid  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Li}^+$  battery is established by using  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  as cathode, 1 M  $\text{NaClO}_4$  in 1:1 EC/PC solution as the  
10 electrolyte and metallic sodium as the anode. In the working voltages between 2.0 and 4.0 V,  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  delivers a high  
11 discharge capacity of 168 mA h  $\text{g}^{-1}$  under the current density of 0.1 A  $\text{g}^{-1}$  and an excellent capacity retention of about 88.1  
12 % after 50 cycles. The cathode also exhibits superior rate capability and long-term cycle life, whose discharge capacity  
13 reaches 85 mA h  $\text{g}^{-1}$  after 300 cycles at the current density of 1 A  $\text{g}^{-1}$ . Importantly, both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Li}^+$  can reversibly  
14 intercalate/deintercalate into  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  in the same manner as in the typical Li-ion half cell. In addition, *ex situ* X-ray  
15 diffraction patterns of the initial charge and discharge processes as well as after long electrochemical cycles are examined  
16 to study its structural evolution. Our studies provide a strong insight into the design and application of novel rechargeable  
17 batteries.

18

### Introduction

20 With the widespread introduction of clean energy such as  
21 wind and solar power, great efforts have been devoted to  
22 develop high performance, low cost and environmentally  
23 benign batteries to meet the urgent requirements of large-  
24 scale energy storage<sup>1,2</sup>. Hybrid batteries depending on two  
25 different kinds of charge-transfer ions attract increasing  
26 research interest owing to its novel mixed-ions transport  
27 processes, and offer the promising application as an energy  
28 storage device<sup>3,4,5</sup>. Currently, a highly reversible hybrid  
29 battery with Mg anode and lithium-ion batteries (LIBs)  
30 cathode is designed to demonstrate the overall performance  
31 among reported Mg-based batteries<sup>3</sup>. Furthermore, an  
32 aqueous hybrid  $\text{Li}^+/\text{Na}^+$  cell is newly built by using  
33  $\text{LiMn}_2\text{O}_4$ (cathode)/ $\text{Na}_{0.22}\text{MnO}_2$ (anode) in conjunction with a  
34  $\text{Li}^+/\text{Na}^+$  dual-salt electrolyte<sup>4</sup>. Its transport processes based  
35 on the ion-selective principle, unlike the traditional “rocking  
36 chair” mechanism<sup>4</sup>, provides a strong supplementary to the  
37 existing intercalation chemistry.

38 Early in 2004, the concept of hybrid ion cells, where a  
39 nonlithium containing cathode is used in conjunction with a

40 conventional graphite anode, was proposed by Barker et  
41 al.<sup>6</sup>. Later, several NASICON-type polyanion compounds,  
42 such as  $\text{Na}_3\text{V}_2(\text{PO}_4)_3$ <sup>7,8</sup>,  $\text{Na}_2\text{FePO}_4\text{F}$ <sup>9</sup> and  $\text{NaVPO}_4\text{F}$ <sup>10</sup>, have  
43 been examined as the cathode materials in Li-ion half cell  
44 (hereafter denoted as LHC) due to their opening  
45 frameworks<sup>2</sup>, whereas, there are few reports on the reverse  
46 process with lithium containing cathode in Na-ion half cell  
47 (hereafter denoted as SHC), possibly related to the larger  
48 radius of  $\text{Na}^+$  (95 pm) in comparison with that of  $\text{Li}^+$  (60 pm).  
49 Recently, layered  $\text{LiMn}_{1/3}\text{Ni}_{1/3}\text{Fe}_{1/3}\text{O}_2$ <sup>11</sup> nanoparticles/fibers  
50 are found to show the dual functionality in both LHC and  
51 SHC, indicating the possibility of  $\text{Na}^+$  to be reversibly inserted  
52 into and extracted from the layered host compound.  
53 Generally, the larger ionic radius of  $\text{Na}^+$  in conjunction with  
54 heavier molecular mass compared with  $\text{Li}^+$  is believed to be  
55 responsible for the inferior performance in terms of specific  
56 capacity, low working voltage, lattice expansion, etc.;  
57 nevertheless, in the sodium-ion batteries, large polarizability  
58 reduces the activation barrier for diffusion in bulk crystal  
59 and weak Lewis acidity reduces desolvation energy at the  
60 electrode/electrolyte interface<sup>1,12</sup>. Hence, fast kinetics can  
61 be realized if  $\text{Na}^+$  is utilized as the mobile carrier<sup>1,12,13</sup>. On  
62 these grounds, a hybrid  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Li}^+$  battery, which take  
63 advantages of their own merits, possesses great potential  
64 application as the next-generation energy storage device.

65  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  crystallizes in the monoclinic layered structure, as  
66 presented in Fig. 1b, where the transition metal layer  
67 occupied by 1/3  $\text{Li}^+$  and 2/3  $\text{Ru}^{4+}$  forms the honeycomb-type  
68  $[\text{LiRu}_6]$  superlattice ordering.<sup>14</sup> The electrochemical  
69 properties of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  were once tested as the cathode  
70 material of LIBs in the early 21<sup>st</sup> century. The cathode  
71 exhibits two obvious working plateaus at around 3.7 V and

<sup>a</sup> Key Laboratory of Physics and Technology for Advanced Batteries (Ministry of Education), College of Physics, Jilin University, Changchun, 130012, People's Republic of China

<sup>b</sup> State Key Laboratory of Superhard Materials, Jilin University, Changchun, 130012, People's Republic of China

<sup>c</sup> Elements Strategy Initiative for Catalysts and Batteries (ESICB), Kyoto University, Kyoto 615-8520, Japan

1 4.2 V in the first charging process, with high reversible  
 2 capacity of nearly 270 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>.<sup>15</sup> Though it could deliver the  
 3 best overall performance in those years, the high cost of  
 4 ruthenium hampers its further application as the commercial  
 5 cathode for LIBs. Recently, Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> has attracted renewed  
 6 attention owing to its novel anionic reversible redox  
 7 processes<sup>16</sup>. Further, thanks to similarity in the crystal  
 8 structure between Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> and Li-rich compounds  
 9 (Li<sub>1+x</sub>Ni<sub>y</sub>Co<sub>z</sub>Mn<sub>(1-x-y-z)</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)<sup>17,18,19</sup>, studies on the Li<sup>+</sup> storage  
 10 mechanism provide a unique opportunity to solve some key  
 11 problems of Li-rich compounds, such as voltage decay and  
 12 large capacity loss for the first cycle<sup>20,21,22</sup>, without  
 13 considering the inherent composition complexity. *Ex situ* XPS  
 14 of Li<sub>2</sub>Ru<sub>0.5</sub>M<sub>0.5</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (M = Mn, Sn and Ti) indicates only  
 15 Ru<sup>4+</sup> → Ru<sup>5+</sup> transition is responsible for the charge  
 16 compensation when Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> being charged to 4.0 V, while  
 17 anionic O<sup>2-</sup> → O<sub>2</sub><sup>2-</sup> redox contributes to the specific capacity  
 18 at high working voltage (at 4.6 V)<sup>16,23,24</sup>. Though there are no  
 19 direct studies on the Li<sup>+</sup> storage mechanism of Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub>,  
 20 similar initial charge profiles between Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> and its doped  
 21 compounds strongly suggested the identical Li<sup>+</sup>  
 22 intercalation/deintercalation processes. Moreover, owing to  
 23 the high conductivity of Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub>, an improvement in the  
 24 volumetric energy density is achieved when using it as the  
 25 additive for lithium-ion capacitors<sup>14,25</sup>.

26 In this study, a novel hybrid Na<sup>+</sup>/Li<sup>+</sup> battery is assembled  
 27 by using Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> as cathode, 1 M NaClO<sub>4</sub> in 1:1 EC/PC  
 28 solution as the electrolyte and metallic sodium as the anode.  
 29 The reason for selecting Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> as the lithium containing  
 30 cathode in the SHC lies in its unique structural characteristics,  
 31 which can accommodate both Li<sup>+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup>. Our proposed  
 32 SHC demonstrates excellent performances in terms of high  
 33 reversible capacity, superior rate capability and long cycle  
 34 life. Interestingly, both Li<sup>+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> can be reversibly inserted  
 35 into and extracted from monoclinic Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> lattice.  
 36 Furthermore, the structural evolutions of the cathode in the  
 37 first 1.5 cycle and after long-term cycling are studied on the  
 38 basis of *ex situ* X-ray diffraction patterns.

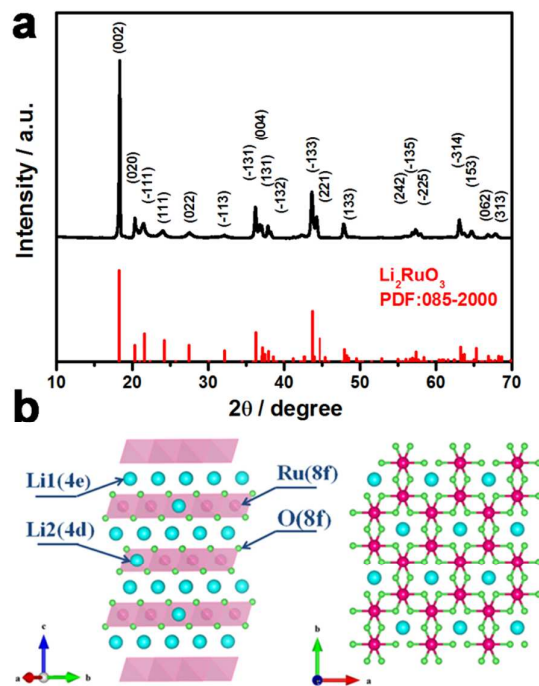
## 39 Experimental

40 Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> was prepared by the conventional solid state  
 41 reaction according to the previous reports<sup>23,25</sup>. The  
 42 stoichiometric amount of Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (Aldrich 99%) and RuO<sub>2</sub>  
 43 (Aldrich 99.9%) on the mole ratio of Li : Ru = 2 : 1. The  
 44 starting materials were mixed using ethanol in agate mortar  
 45 for 2 h and pressed into a pellet. After sintered at 950 °C for  
 46 24 h in alumina crucible, the resulting black powder of  
 47 Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> was acquired.

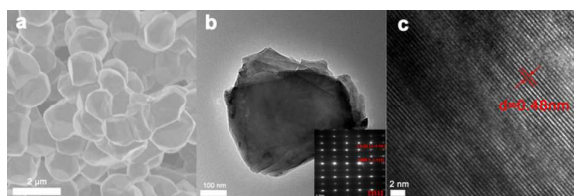
48 X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded with a  
 49 Rigaku AXS D8 diffractometer with Cu Kα radiation. The  
 50 microstructure was studied using a field emission scanning  
 51 electron microscope (FESEM, JEOL JSM-6700F) and  
 52 transmission electron microscope (TEM, FEI Tecnai G2 F20 S-  
 53 TWIN). Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) was  
 54 employed to determine the atomic ratio. Before  
 55 measurement, the electrodes were thoroughly washed with

57 dimethyl carbonate (DMC) for several times in the glove box  
 58 to get rid of the electrolyte.

59 The electrochemical properties of the as-prepared Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub>  
 60 were examined by assembling coin-type half cells with  
 61 sodium foil and lithium foil as the counter electrode. The  
 62 working electrodes were prepared by coating slurry, in  
 63 which the Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> active materials, Super-P conductive and  
 64 polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) binder dissolved in N-  
 65 methylpyrrolidone (NMP) were mixed in a weight ratio of 7 :  
 66 2 : 1 on a Al foil current conductor. The electrode films were  
 67 dried in a vacuum oven at 120 °C for 10 hours in succession.  
 68 After dividing the electrode film into 0.8×0.8 cm<sup>2</sup> square, the  
 69 coin cells were assembled in glove box. The separators of  
 70 the cells were glass fiber filter (Whatman GF/A). The  
 71 electrolyte for sodium ion batteries was 1M NaClO<sub>4</sub>  
 72 dissolved into the solution of ethylene carbonate (EC) and  
 73 propylene carbonate (PC) with the volume ratio of 1:1. The  
 74 electrolyte for lithium ion batteries consisted of a solution of  
 75 1 M LiPF<sub>6</sub> dissolved in ethylene carbonate (EC),  
 76 dimethylcarbonate (DMC), and ethyl methyl carbonate  
 77 (EMC) with EC : DMC : EMC = 1 : 1 : 8 by volume ratio. Pure  
 78 lithium foil (Aldrich) was used as the counter electrode.  
 79 Galvanostatic charge-discharge cycling was then evaluated  
 80 on a Land-2001A (Wuhan, China) automatic battery tester.  
 81 Cyclic voltammetry (CV) were performed on a VSP  
 82 multichannel potentiostatic-galvanostatic system (Bio-Logic  
 83 SAS, France).



84 Fig.1 Powder XRD for the as-prepared Li<sub>2</sub>RuO<sub>3</sub> (a) with its schematic  
 85 crystal structure (b)  
 86



**Fig.2** SEM (a), TEM (b) and HRTEM (c) images for the as-prepared  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$ ; the inset of b shows its corresponding SAED pattern.

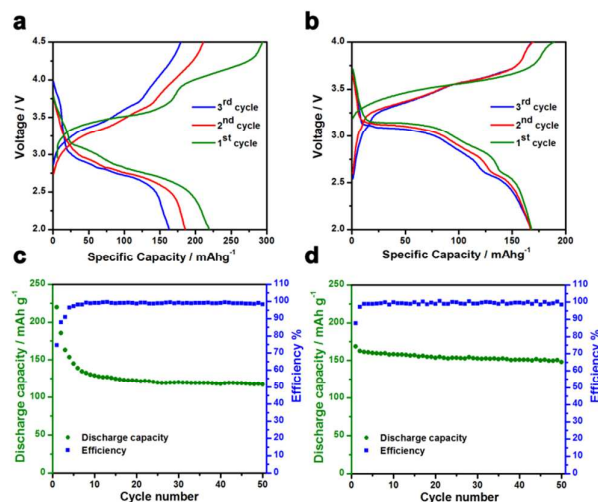
## Results and discussion

The crystallographic structure of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  is firstly examined by powder XRD, as presented in Fig. 1a. All the diffraction peaks can be indexed on the basis of monoclinic symmetry (space group of C2/c) with no detectable impurity phases. By employing the least-square fitting, the lattice parameters of  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $\beta$  are calculated to be 4.9343(0) Å, 8.7790(2) Å, 9.8754(6) Å, and 99.99(5)°, respectively, consistent with the previous reports<sup>25</sup>. The morphology of the as-prepared  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  is analyzed by SEM images showing cubic type morphology with the particle size ranging from 500 nm to 1.5 μm, as displayed in Fig. 2. The selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern (inset of Fig. 2b) reveals that  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  has a single crystalline structure with a high crystalline. The HRTEM images (Fig. 2c) exhibits clear lattice fringes of 0.48 nm, corresponding to the (002) planes of the monoclinic  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$ .

$\text{Na}^+$  ions storage properties are examined by establishing the SHC as [ $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  1 M  $\text{NaClO}_4$  in EC:PC = 1:1 Na]. Figure 3a shows the galvanostatic charge-discharge profiles at the current density of 100 mA  $\text{g}^{-1}$  between 2.0 and 4.5 V. Also, the charge-discharge profiles and cycle performance of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  in the LHC under the same test conditions are presented in Fig. S1. The initial charge profile in the SHC exhibits two voltage plateaus at around 3.4 and 4.0 V, which resembles the first charge behavior in the LHC (Fig. S1a), indicative of the identical delithiated process from  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$ . However, the working voltage is different due to the lower redox potential of sodium compared with lithium<sup>11</sup>. The initial charge and discharge capacities in SHC reach ca. 294 and 212 mAh  $\text{g}^{-1}$ , respectively, with the coulombic efficiency of 72.1%. Whereas, both charge and discharge capacity fades with increasing cycle numbers and the capacity retention equals to 55.2% after 50 cycles. Compared with the cycle performance in the LHC (Fig. S1b), both reversible capacity and capacity retention after 50 cycles in SHC are lower due to the heavier molecular mass of  $\text{Na}^+$  and larger structural change when  $\text{Na}^+$  inserting into lithium-containing compound  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$ . To improve the cycle performance in the SHC, the electrochemical properties of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  in the voltage window of 2.0 - 4.0 V is also evaluated, as presented in Fig. 3b (charge-discharge profiles) and Fig. 3d (cycle performance). The cathode delivers an initial charge and discharge capacities of 189 and 168 mAh  $\text{g}^{-1}$ , respectively, with an improved initial coulombic efficiency of 88.9%. Accordingly, excellent capacity retention is acquired as about 88.1% after experiencing 50 cycles. The possible

explanation for the enhanced capacity retention and coulombic efficiency by decreasing the initial charge voltage is that the control of  $\text{Li}^+$  extraction can greatly avoid the structure transition induced by the anionic redox process at high working voltage (above 4.0 V)<sup>16,23,24</sup>.

To evaluate the contributions of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Li}^+$ , EDX measurements are performed for the samples before cycle and at the end of different charge and discharge processes, as shown in Fig. S2, and the normalized results are listed in Table 1. Firstly, it can be seen that a little amount of  $\text{Na}^+$  can be detected before electrochemical cycling which comes from the residual  $\text{Na}^+$  in the electrolyte, since the mole ratio of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Li}^+$  is roughly estimated to be 20:1 according to the number of moles of solvent ( $\text{NaClO}_4$ ) and active cathode materials ( $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$ ). Furthermore, after initially being charged to 4.0 V (the lithiated process), some  $\text{Na}^+$  can be found at the similar value as before cycling. At the end of initial discharge process, the increasing  $\text{Na}^+$  concentration strongly suggests that part  $\text{Na}^+$  are inserted into the monoclinic lattice. Importantly, the relative ratios of sodium and ruthenium are nearly the same at the different



**Fig.3** Galvanostatic charge-discharge profiles for the first three cycles in the voltage region of 2.0 - 4.5 V (a) and 2.0 - 4.0 V (b) at the current density of 0.1 A  $\text{g}^{-1}$ , and their corresponding cycle performance and coulombic efficiency for 50 cycles are displayed in c and d, respectively.

**Table 1** The normalized molar ratios of Na: Ru at different charge/discharge depths obtained by the EDX spectra.

Different charge/discharge stages	Na : Ru
before cycling	0.52 : 1
1 <sup>st</sup> charged to 4.0 V	0.50 : 1
1 <sup>st</sup> discharged to 2.0 V	1.08 : 1
2 <sup>nd</sup> charged to 4.0 V	0.59 : 1
2 <sup>nd</sup> discharged to 2.0 V	1.14 : 1
10 <sup>th</sup> charged to 4.0 V	0.52 : 1
10 <sup>th</sup> discharged to 2.0 V	1.09 : 1
11 <sup>th</sup> charged to 4.0 V	0.54 : 1
11 <sup>th</sup> discharged to 2.0 V	1.03 : 1



Journal Name

ARTICLE

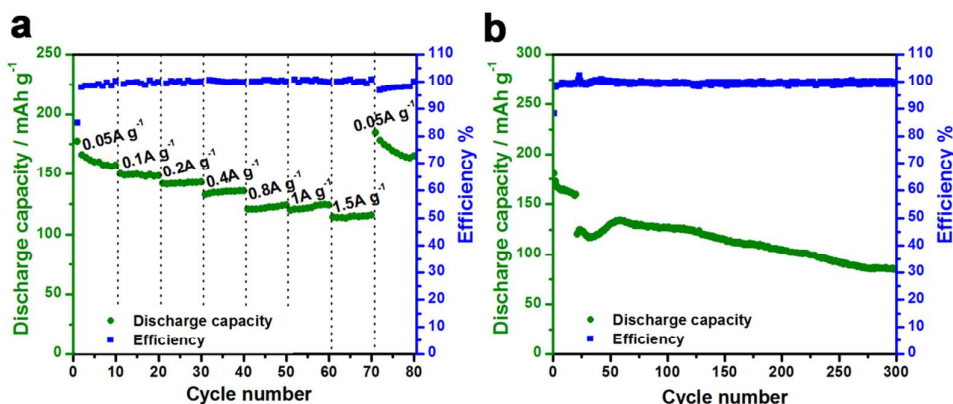
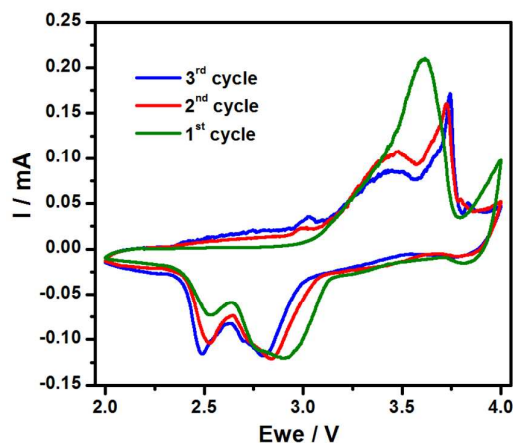


Fig.4 Rate performance of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  electrode in the SHC at various rate (a); Long-term cycle stabilities at the current density of  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  (b)

1  
2  
3  
4 charge/discharge stages of the subsequent 2<sup>nd</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup>  
5 cycle. This phenomenon indicates the highly reversible  $\text{Na}^+$   
6 inserted/extracted processes in the proposed SHC.  
7 Unfortunately, the change of  $\text{Li}^+$  concentration at different  
8 charge-discharge stages can hardly be accurately  
9 determined by EDX measurement due to its detection  
10 limit<sup>11,26</sup>. Neither can inductively coupled plasma-optical  
11 emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) present a reliable ratio for  
12 the impossibility of dissolving ruthenium-based compound in  
13 the strong acid<sup>27</sup>.  $\text{Li}^+$ , however, is considered to be involved  
14 in the electrochemical ion-transfer reactions. As indicated by  
15 the EDX, only 0.5 mol  $\text{Na}^+$  per formula can contribute to ions  
16 migration and deliver nearly  $82 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  based on the  
17 molecular weight of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  ( $163 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ ). Hence, the extra  
18 capacity of about  $86 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  for the first discharge stage  
19 should come from the intercalation of  $\text{Li}^+$  back to the  
20 monoclinic lattice.

21 Further, the rate performance is evaluated under various  
22 current densities for every successive ten cycles, as  
23 presented in Fig. 4.  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  electrode delivers the average  
24 reversible capacities of 160, 148, 142, 134, 122, 122 and 113  
25  $\text{mA h g}^{-1}$  under the current densities of 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.8,  
26 1 and  $1.5 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ , respectively. When the current density  
27 returns to  $0.05 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  after 70 cycles, the capacity can even  
28 reach an average of  $180 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$ , higher than the initial  
29 capacity owing to the gradual activation of some cell  
30 components. Compared with monoclinic  $\text{Na}_2\text{RuO}_3$  as the  
31 cathode of sodium-ion batteries (SIBs)<sup>12</sup>,  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$   
32 demonstrates better cycle stability and rate capability, which  
33 are closely related to the difference in the crystal and

34 electronic structures. Moreover, the excellent rate  
35 performance of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  in the SHC is very competitive  
36 among various layered cathode materials of SIBs,<sup>28,29,30</sup>  
37 because of its good electronic conductivity. Though  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$   
38 shows a typical semiconducting behavior whose resistivity  
39 increases with decreasing temperature as shown in Fig. S3,  
40 its electronic conductivity at room temperature is estimated  
41 to be around  $0.18 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ . Encouraged by the excellent rate  
42 capability, the long-term cycling under high current density  
43 is also tested, as displayed in Fig. 4b. After the  
44 electrochemical activation of the battery for 20 cycles at the  
45 current density of  $0.1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ , the discharge capacity reaches  
46  $85 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  after 300 cycles under the high current density  
47 of  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ .



48  
49 Fig.5 Cyclic voltammograms of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  electrode in the SHC at a scan rate  
50 of  $0.1 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  between 2.0 and 4.0 V

Fig. 5 demonstrates the cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  in the SHC at a scan rate of  $0.1 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  between 2.0 and 4.0 V vs.  $\text{Na}/\text{Na}^+$ . One broad peak located at 3.6 V is obviously observed in the first anodic scan due to the oxidation of resruthenium from +4 to +5<sup>16</sup>, while the other peak at 4.0 V appears in the initial scan and disappears in the subsequent scans, which can be ascribed to unaccomplished anionic redox process when the charge voltage is cut off at 4.0 V. After the 1<sup>st</sup> anodic scan, the major CV features are the two couples of redox peaks at 2.9/3.7 V and 2.5/3.5 V. To compare the electrochemical behaviour of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  electrode in LHC, the CV profiles between 2.0 and 4.0 V vs.  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}^+$  are also measured and shown in Fig. S4. Besides the manifested three pairs of redox reactions in LHC (3.3/3.5 V, 3.5/3.7 V and 3.65/3.77 V), the CV profiles differs much from those tested in SHC after initial cycle, because only  $\text{Li}^+$  is responsible for the electrochemical cycles in LHC, while the electrochemical inserted/extracted processes in SHC involve two kinds of ions transfer ( $\text{Li}^+$  and  $\text{Na}^+$ ).

Finally, *ex situ* XRD is utilized to emphasize the phase transformation at different charge/discharge depths. As displayed in Fig. 6, a splitting of (002) peak is clearly observed at around  $18.5^\circ$  during the initial charge process. Beside this peak splitting, several peaks in two different angle regions of  $20^\circ\sim 25^\circ$  and  $35^\circ\sim 40^\circ$  merge together, which suggests the formation of a second phase in the initial delithiated process. It should be mentioned here that it is hard to index the second phase due to the limited diffraction peaks. Nevertheless, symmetry change from monoclinic into rhombohedral might be related to this transition, because rhombohedral  $\text{Li}_{0.9}\text{RuO}_2$  (space group R-3) has been reported as the intermediate product of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  in the LHC during the initial charge process<sup>31</sup>. The calculated lattice parameters from stage A to E on the basis of monoclinic symmetry, as demonstrated in Fig. 7, present an apparent increasing tendency in the *c*-value, closely related to the increasing of the repulsion force between  $\text{O}^{2-}$  ions after  $\text{Li}^+$  at 4*e* sites (in the lithium layers) extraction, while the variation of the *a*- and *b*-value can be attributed to the changes of  $[\text{LiRu}_6]$  superlattice when part  $\text{Li}^+$  move from the 4*d* site into the 4*e* site. In the initial discharge process (from stage E to L), the originally split two peaks at around  $18.5^\circ$  merge into one. And the corresponding diffraction peaks at the end of discharge process (stage L) belong to the monoclinic symmetry, indicative of a reversible structural evolution for the initial cycle. Moreover, the lattice parameters at the end of initial discharge process (stage L) are larger than those values at open circuit voltage (stage A), which also suggests part of  $\text{Na}^+$  will be inserted into the monoclinic lattice. Notice that the structural evolution and lattice parameters changes of the 2<sup>nd</sup> charge process resemble the tendencies of the 1<sup>st</sup> lithiated charge process, though the 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle involves both  $\text{Li}^+$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  migration. After experiencing 300 cycles, a symmetry transformation from monoclinic C2/c into rhombohedral R-3 is observed because the *ex situ* XRD pattern after the long-term cycles can be indexed based on

the rhombohedral  $\text{Na}_{1+z}\text{Ru}_{1-z}\text{O}_2$ <sup>12,32</sup>. This transition is ascribed to the replacement of  $\text{Li}^+$  by gradual inserting  $\text{Na}^+$  into the monoclinic lattice because the proposed SHC provides a high concentration of  $\text{Na}^+$  in the electrolyte and metallic sodium anode compared with  $\text{Li}^+$ . Note that the electrochemical mechanism of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  in the SHC involving both  $\text{Li}^+$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  transfer reactions is rather complex. To fully understand this issue, *in situ* synchrotron measurement on the  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  in the SHC is on the way.

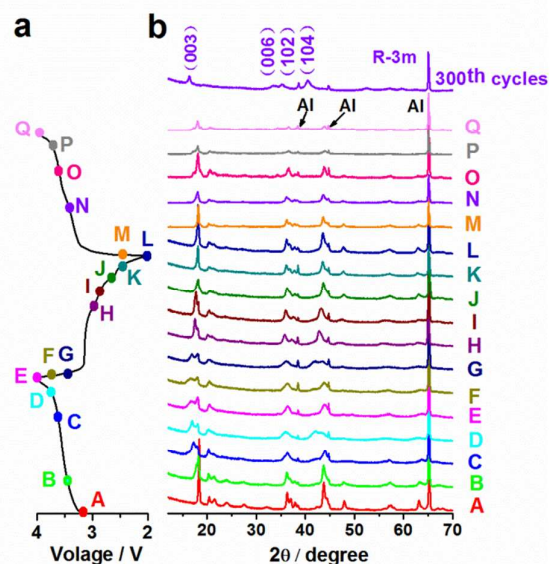


Fig. 6 (a) Charge/discharge profiles of  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  in the SHC; (b) *ex situ* XRD patterns at various charge/discharge state

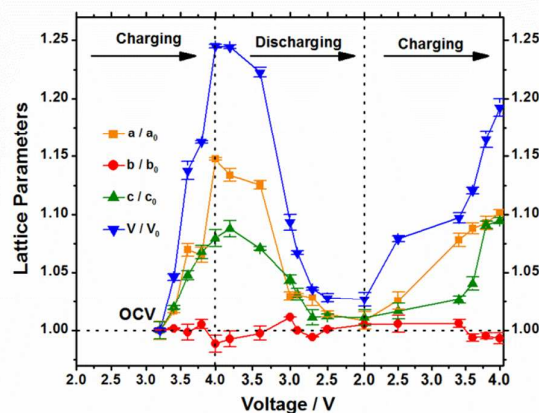


Fig. 7 Change of lattice parameters at various charge/discharge stages

## 1 Conclusions

2  $\text{Li}_2\text{RuO}_3$  is, for the first time, studied as the cathode for  
 3 hybrid  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Li}^+$  battery. By adjusting the working potentials, a  
 4 high reversible capacity of  $168 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  and excellent  
 5 capacity retention of 87.8% for 50 cycles are acquired under  
 6 the current density of  $100 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  between 2.0 and 4.0 V. The  
 7 cathode also demonstrates a superior rate capability nearly  
 8  $85 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  under the current density of  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  for 300  
 9 cycles. In addition, both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Li}^+$  will transfer across the  
 10 interface between the cathode and electrolyte, contributing  
 11 to the high specific capacity. Though there is no structural  
 12 transition for the initial cycle, a symmetry change from  
 13 monoclinic into rhombohedral is observed after 300 cycles.

## 15 Acknowledgements

16 This work was supported by funding from "973" project  
 17 (2015CB251103); NSFC (51472104, 21473075 and  
 18 51272088); Defense Industrial Technology Development  
 19 Program (No. B1420133045); Development Program of  
 20 Science and Technology of Jilin Province, China  
 21 (No.20140101093JC). The author also would like to thank for  
 22 the support from National Found for Fostering Talents of  
 23 Basic Science (No. J1103202) and Project 2015002  
 24 Supported by Graduate Innovation Fund of Jilin University.

## 26 Notes and references

- 27  
 28 1. B. Dunn, H. Kamath and J.-M. Tarascon, *Science*, 2011, 334, 928-935.  
 29 2. X. Wu, Y. Cao, X. Ai, J. Qian and H. Yang, *Electrochemistry*  
 30 *Communications*, 2013, 31, 145-148.  
 31 3. T. Gao, F. Han, Y. Zhu, L. Suo, C. Luo, K. Xu and C. Wang, *Advanced*  
 32 *Energy Materials*, 2015, 5, n/a-n/a.  
 33 4. L. Chen, Q. Gu, X. Zhou, S. Lee, Y. Xia and Z. Liu, *Scientific reports*,  
 34 2013, 3, 1946.  
 35 5. L. Chen, L. Zhang, X. Zhou and Z. Liu, *ChemSusChem*, 2014, 7, 2295-  
 36 2302.  
 37 6. J. Barker, R. K. B. Gover, P. Burns and A. J. Bryan, *Electrochemical and*  
 38 *Solid-State Letters*, 2006, 9, A190-A192.  
 39 7. W. Song, X. Ji, C. Pan, Y. Zhu, Q. Chen and C. E. Banks, *Physical*  
 40 *chemistry chemical physics : PCCP*, 2013, 15, 14357-14363.  
 41 8. W.-J. Wang, H.-B. Zhao, A.-B. Yuan, J.-H. Fang and J.-Q. Xu, *Acta*  
 42 *Physico-Chimica Sinica*, 2014, 30, 1113-1120.  
 43 9. W. Song, X. Ji, Z. Wu, Y. Zhu, Y. Yao, K. Huangfu, Q. Chen and C. E.  
 44 Banks, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2014, 2, 2571-2577.  
 45 10. J. Zhao, J. He, X. Ding, J. Zhou, Y. o. Ma, S. Wu and R. Huang, *Journal*  
 46 *of Power Sources*, 2010, 195, 6854-6859.  
 47 11. S. Kalluri, W. K. Pang, K. H. Seng, Z. Chen, Z. Guo, H. K. Liu and S. X.  
 48 Dou, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2015, 3, 250-257.

- 49 12. M. Tamaru, X. Wang, M. Okubo and A. Yamada, *Electrochemistry*  
 50 *Communications*, 2013, 33, 23-26.  
 51 13. S. Liu, J. J. Hu, N. F. Yan, G. L. Pan, G. R. Li and X. P. Gao, *Energy &*  
 52 *Environmental Science*, 2012, 5, 9743-9746.  
 53 14. H. Kobayashi, R. Kanno, Y. Kawamoto, M. Tabuchi, O. Nakamura and  
 54 M. Takano, *Solid State Ionics*, 1995, 82, 25-31.  
 55 15. G. J. Moore, C. S. Johnson and M. M. Thackeray, *Journal of Power*  
 56 *Sources*, 2003, 119-121, 216-220.  
 57 16. M. Sathiyaa, G. Rousse, K. Ramesha, C. P. Laisa, H. Vezin, M. T.  
 58 Sougrati, M. L. Doublet, D. Foix, D. Gonbeau, W. Walker, A. S.  
 59 Prakash, M. Ben Hassine, L. Dupont and J. M. Tarascon, *Nature*  
 60 *materials*, 2013, 12, 827-835.  
 61 17. Q. Fu, F. Du, X. Bian, Y. Wang, X. Yan, Y. Zhang, K. Zhu, G. Chen, C.  
 62 Wang and Y. Wei, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2014, 2,  
 63 7555-7562.  
 64 18. D. Mohanty, A. Huq, E. A. Payzant, A. S. Sefat, J. Li, D. P. Abraham, D.  
 65 L. Wood and C. Daniel, *Chemistry of Materials*, 2013, 25, 4064-  
 66 4070.  
 67 19. C. H. Shen, L. Huang, Z. Lin, S. Y. Shen, Q. Wang, H. Su, F. Fu and X. M.  
 68 Zheng, *ACS applied materials & interfaces*, 2014, 6, 13271-  
 69 13279.  
 70 20. E.-S. Lee and A. Manthiram, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2014,  
 71 2, 3932-3939.  
 72 21. X. Yang, D. Wang, R. Yu, Y. Bai, H. Shu, L. Ge, H. Guo, Q. Wei, L. Liu  
 73 and X. Wang, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2014, 2, 3899-  
 74 3911.  
 75 22. J. Zheng, M. Gu, J. Xiao, P. Zuo, C. Wang and J. G. Zhang, *Nano letters*,  
 76 2013, 13, 3824-3830.  
 77 23. M. Sathiyaa, K. Ramesha, G. Rousse, D. Foix, D. Gonbeau, A. S.  
 78 Prakash, M. L. Doublet, K. Hemalatha and J. M. Tarascon,  
 79 *Chemistry of Materials*, 2013, 25, 1121-1131.  
 80 24. M. Sathiyaa, A. M. Abakumov, D. Foix, G. Rousse, K. Ramesha, M.  
 81 Saubanère, M. L. Doublet, H. Vezin, C. P. Laisa, A. S. Prakash, D.  
 82 Gonbeau, G. VanTendeloo and J. M. Tarascon, *Nature*  
 83 *materials*, 2014, 14, 230-238.  
 84 25. M.-S. Park, Y.-G. Lim, J.-W. Park, J.-S. Kim, J.-W. Lee, J. H. Kim, S. X.  
 85 Dou and Y.-J. Kim, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2013,  
 86 117, 11471-11478.  
 87 26. A. Innocenti, *Stoichiometry and Materials Science - When Numbers*  
 88 *Matter*, InTech, 2012.  
 89 27. C. Soderquist and B. Hanson, *Journal of Nuclear Materials*, 2010, 396,  
 90 159-162.  
 91 28. H. Yu, S. Guo, Y. Zhu, M. Ishida and H. Zhou, *Chemical*  
 92 *communications*, 2014, 50, 457-459.  
 93 29. S. Komaba, N. Yabuuchi, T. Nakayama, A. Ogata, T. Ishikawa and I.  
 94 Nakai, *Inorganic chemistry*, 2012, 51, 6211-6220.  
 95 30. D. Yuan, W. He, F. Pei, F. Wu, Y. Wu, J. Qian, Y. Cao, X. Ai and H. Yang,  
 96 *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2013, 1, 3895-3899.  
 97 31. H. Kobayashi, R. Kanno, Y. Kawamoto, M. Tabuchi and O. Nakamura,  
 98 *Solid State Ionics*, 1996, 86-88, 859-863.  
 99 32. M. Tamaru, X. Wang, M. Okubo and A. Yamada, *Electrochemistry*  
 100 *Communications*, 2013, 34, 360.