



Highlighting a study on the aging mechanism of commercial lithium-ion battery led by Dr. Daniel-Ioan Stroe, Prof. Kjeld Pedersen, Dr. Lenoid Gurevich, Mr. Pengwei Li, and Mr. Jia Guo from Aalborg University, and Dr. Yaolin Xu from Humboldt-University.

Unravelling and quantifying the aging processes of commercial $\text{Li}(\text{Ni}_{0.5}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Mn}_{0.3})\text{O}_2/\text{graphite}$ lithium-ion batteries under constant current cycling

To unveil the battery aging mechanism during constant current cycling, in this work, electrochemical cycling, real-time temperature monitoring, and operando electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of a fresh and an aged battery have been carried out. The polarization is the main reason for the battery capacity fading during operation, and the formation of solid-electrolyte interphase (SEI) and cathode-electrolyte interphase (CEI) is the leading cause of battery degradation.

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Unravelling and quantifying the aging processes of commercial $\text{Li}(\text{Ni}_{0.5}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Mn}_{0.3})\text{O}_2/\text{graphite}$ lithium-ion batteries under constant current cycling†

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Constant current charging and discharging is widely used nowadays for commercial lithium (Li) ion batteries (LIBs) in applications of portable electronic devices and electric vehicles. However, the main battery degradation mechanism during constant current cycling remains unclear. In this work, electrochemical cycling, real-time temperature monitoring, and *operando* electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of a fresh and an aged battery have been carried out to unveil the aging mechanism during constant current cycling. The results of the incremental capacity analysis (ICA) indicate that polarization is the main reason for the capacity fading during operation. Besides, post-mortem analysis of the electrodes reveals that the formation of a solid–electrolyte interphase (SEI) and cathode–electrolyte interphase (CEI) is the leading cause of electrode degradation. The interface formation and evolution over cycling (including thickening and chemical variation) leads to continuous loss of active materials. The presence of a SEI and CEI also increases the impedance for charge transfer and transport and reduces the kinetics of electrochemical Li-ion redox on the electrodes. Moreover, the irreversible Li loss due to Li plating and SEI formation has been quantified, which accounts for 16.8% of the total Li in the battery. This work provides a mechanistic understanding of the degradation mechanism of commercial LIBs, guides the rational design of commercial batteries and inspires the design of charging and discharging protocols toward enhanced cycling stability and prolonged cycle life.

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1. Introduction

Achieving the fast-charging goal without negatively impacting the lifetime and safety is a key challenge nowadays in lithium-ion battery research.^{1,2} Compared with the standard constant current–constant voltage (CC–CV) charging protocol, the constant current (CC) charging mode without the CV segment not only significantly shortens the charging time but also effectively prolongs 20% of the battery service life.^{3–5} Based on the CC charging protocol, a series of optimized charging protocols, such as pulse charging⁶ and multistage constant current charging,⁷ are designed to extend the battery life further or shorten charging time. However, most of these protocols are derived from extensive testing campaigns performed at the full

cell level, rather than being rationally designed based on the degradation mechanism of the battery, due to the very limited understanding of the battery degradation mechanism in CC cycling. Therefore, mechanistic insights into the failure mechanisms of batteries during CC cycling are necessary for designing a more rational battery charging protocol.

Battery degradation involves many possible degradation modes under various aging conditions, which are caused by internal structural changes and/or chemical side reactions. The main issues related to battery degradation include loss of lithium inventory (LLI) and loss of active material (LAM) at both positive and negative electrodes, resulting in capacity fade and resistance increase (RI).⁸ Specifically, the loss of lithium inventory may be caused by the interphase formation and its continuous thickening and Li plating.⁸ The loss of active materials may occur due to transition metal dissolution, graphite exfoliation or structure collapse, and isolation of active materials from ionic or electronic conduction.⁹ In addition, the resistance increase is mainly caused by interphase growth and crack formation.¹⁰ Although all the aforementioned modes arise often in most aging situations, their impact degrees and the primary aging mode vary significantly under different battery operation conditions.

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To fill up the cells, we used 1 M LiPF₆ in the solution of dimethyl carbonate (DMC)/diethyl carbonate (DEC) with a volume ratio of 1 : 1. The capacities of the assembled coin cells were measured using a Land CT 2001A battery tester, in the voltage range from 2.75 V to 4.2 V for the NMC 532/Li cell and from 0.001 V to 1.0 V for the graphite/Li cell. Furthermore, their impedance was measured by means of EIS using a Palmsens potentiostat.

2.3 Materials characterization

A Zeiss EVO 60 scanning electron microscope (SEM) was employed to image the morphologies and measure the thicknesses of the positive and negative electrodes. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed using a Specs XR50 with a non-monochromated Al K α (1487 eV) X-ray source and a Phobos 150 1D-DLD electron detector. The crystalline structure of the electrode materials was characterized at 40 kV with X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a device manufactured by Panalytical and was also measured with Raman spectroscopy using a 532 nm laser.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Aging of the full cell

ICA and cte-OCV techniques were employed to preliminarily diagnose the battery degradation mechanisms. The charging/discharging curves from eleven RPTs are presented in Fig. 1a. With the battery aging evolution, the charging plateau shows an increasing trend, whereas the discharge plateau becomes lower.

Then, the voltage gap between the charging and discharging plateaus, which is associated with the battery impedance, is gradually increasing. Meanwhile, the voltage plateau is significantly shortened, corresponding to a decrease in capacity. To further clarify the process of voltage plateau evolution, ICA was applied to the charging–discharging curves in Fig. 1a, and the obtained results are shown in Fig. 1b. The IC curves are associated with the phase transitions of active materials during the Li⁺ shuttle, corresponding to the a and b peaks in the charging process and c peak in the discharging process. Along with cycling, the IC peaks in the charging process show an obvious shift toward a higher voltage, implying a polarization increase.²⁰ Usually, the shift of the higher voltage peak a may be related to a disproportionate loss of the active material at the positive and negative electrodes.²¹ In this work, we choose the shift of the b peak at a lower potential to quantify the increase in polarization, as shown in Fig. 1c. The progression of the capacity fade (expressed as SOH) is clearly related to the increase in polarization.

A close-to-equilibrium open-circuit voltage (cte-OCV) measurement was carried out to analyze the OCV behavior with battery aging, as shown in Fig. 1d. The discharging cte-OCV increases gradually, due to the increase in polarization. As expected, the charging cte-OCV did not increase, instead a slightly decreasing trend is observed. This will lead to a decreased charging OCV range as well as a decreased charging capacity.

The polarization was evaluated by performing an *operando* electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) test. As shown in Fig. 2a and b, the measured results are Nyquist plots, which are

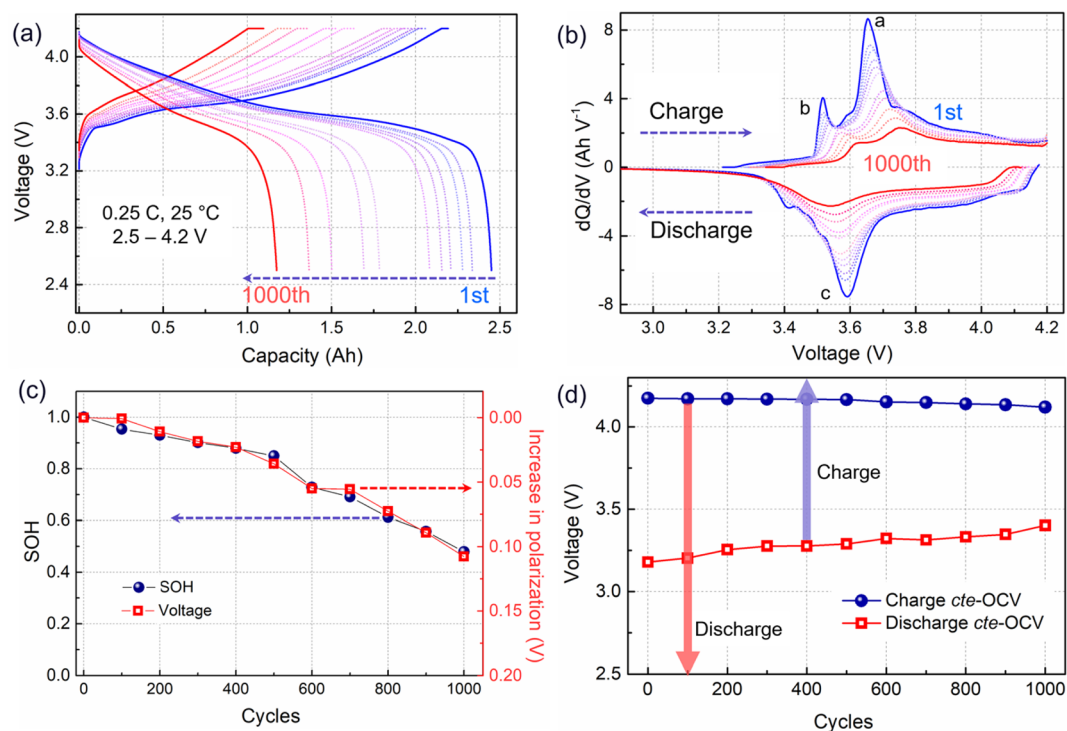


Fig. 1 Electrochemical behavior from the reference performance test (RPT) after every one hundred cycles at 0.25C (0.55 A) and 25 °C. (a) Charge and discharge curves, (b) IC curves, (c) SOH and polarization evolution (shift of the b peak in (b)) over cycling, and (d) charging and discharging cte-OCV. The arrows represent the real voltage window of discharging/charging.



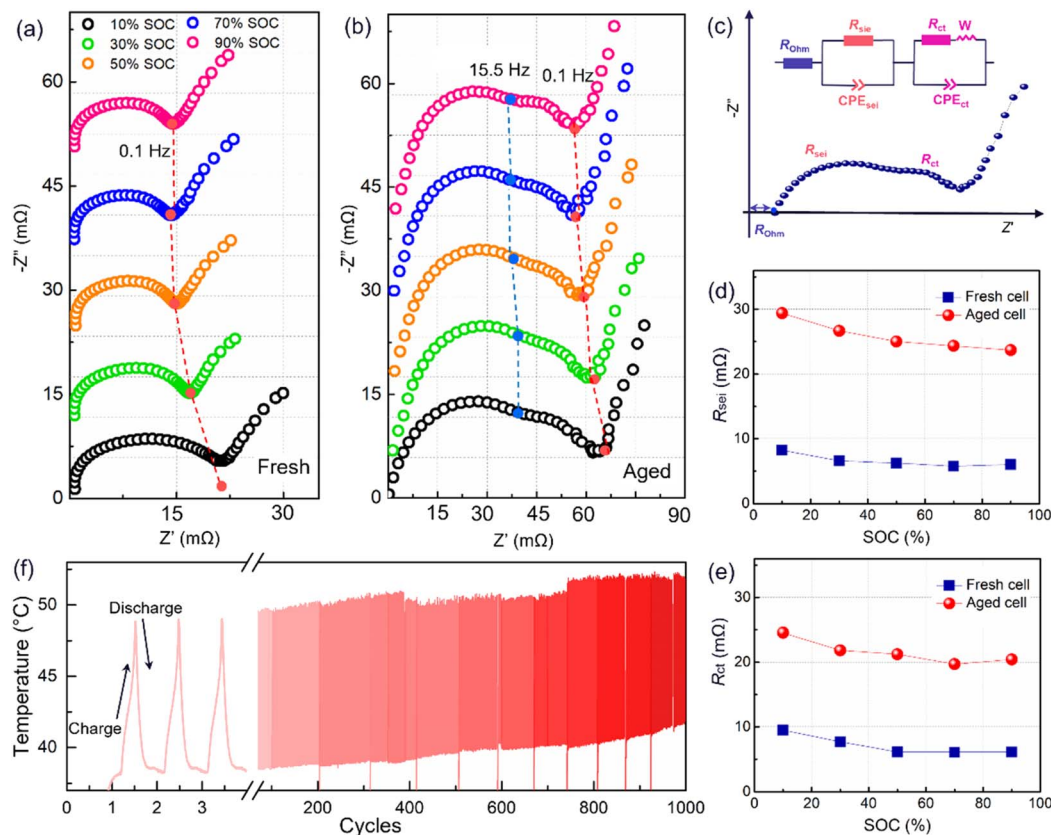


Fig. 2 EIS spectra at different SOC for (a) fresh cell and (b) an aged cell; (c) schematic illustration and an equivalent circuit used to fit the EIS Nyquist plots; the fitted results for (d) R_{sei} , and (e) R_{ct} . (f) the temperature tested using a temperature sensing probe on the outer surface of the cell.

composed of three parts with different frequency ranges, representing the bulk resistance (R_{ohm}), the solid electrolyte interface resistance (R_{sei}), and the charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}), respectively.³ The inserted equivalent circuit was employed to fit the Nyquist plots, as shown in Fig. 2c. The obtained results are presented in Fig. 2d and e. Here, the R_{ohm} will not be adopted due to an unstable ohmic impedance caused by the connector of the electrochemical workstation, and this always shows little change in battery aging.^{3,12} Therefore, the Nyquist plots were translated to the origin of the coordinates. After 1000 cycles, a four-fold increase in the R_{sei} from below 8 mΩ to about 30 mΩ is observed (Fig. 2c). Besides, R_{ct} has increased to over 20 mΩ (Fig. 2d), indicating an overall degradation at the electrode interface and charge transfer. Furthermore, R_{sei} and R_{ct} decrease with the battery charging. R_{sei} is related to the diffusion of Li ions at the interface and the R_{ct} is linked to the electrochemical reaction.²² As reported in ref.²² the SEI film is partially ruptured at high SOC due to the increased volume of lithiation graphite, and recovers in the followed discharge process. So, the R_{sei} decreased with battery charging. Furthermore, a high SOC is linked to a high voltage as well as an active state of the electrochemical reaction, resulting in a lower R_{ct} . The temperature of the battery surface was detected in the aging process, as shown in Fig. 2f. The temperature changes periodically with the charge–discharge cycle. Besides, the temperature

range fluctuates, due to an uncontrollable change in the sticking position or tightness of the thermal probe on the battery surface. With the increase in the cycle number, the temperature of the battery surface gradually increases (varying from a low temperature of 42 °C to a high temperature close to 55 °C). The temperature increment will lead to a series of side reactions inside the battery during electrochemical cycling, for example, the rupture and reformation of the interfacial film at high temperatures, resulting in a continuous increase of the internal impedance. This is consistent with the discharge cte-OCV trend, further illustrating that the internal impedance continues to increase with battery cycling.

It can be concluded from the above *operando* diagnosis that the battery capacity fade during operation is dominated by the internal resistance in constant current cycling, especially for the R_{sei} increase. For further quantifying the degradation, a post-mortem analysis is necessary to be performed.

3.2 Post-mortem analysis

The aged cell and fresh cell were disassembled to evaluate the loss of lithium, loss of active materials, and increase of impedance in a qualitative or quantitative way. Upon opening the battery, liquid electrolyte was present in the disassembled cell and the electrodes were wet, suggesting that the consumption of electrolyte is not the major factor for battery



to be due to interface compositions, and this was tested by XPS as shown in Section 3.2.3. The cracks are also reflected in the Raman spectrum (Fig. 4f), where NMC can be thought of as a solid solution of LiNiO_2 , LiMnO_2 , and LiCoO_2 . Among them, layered LiNiO_2 and LiCoO_2 contribute only two Raman-active modes, one is the A_{1g} mode at 609 cm^{-1} and the other is the E_g mode at 503 cm^{-1} , corresponding to the out-of-plane M–O stretch and in-plane O–M–O band, respectively.²⁹ The additional weak bands were contributed by LiMnO_2 . After aging, the increased E_g mode means an increase in the amount of the in-plane O–M–O band, which is consistent with the crack formation and inside-surface exposure as shown in Fig. 4e. As reported, the HF from electrolyte decomposition is easy to penetrate into cathode particles and induce serious side reactions, causing the transition metal to dissolve in the electrolyte and then deposit on the negative electrode surface. EDS point scans were performed to verify the presence of transition metal elements Ni, Co, and Mn, as shown in Fig. 4g. Furthermore, Ni, Co, and Mn elements can also be observed by XPS from the surface of the aged negative electrode (Fig. 4h). As reported in ref.³⁰ and ³¹, the Co deposits on the graphite surface can also accelerate the exfoliation of graphite, leading to a severe degradation of the full cell.

The factors of particle cracks, increase in grain volume, Li/Ni mixing, and transition metal dissolution have an impact on

electrode capacity degradation, which can be evaluated using coin cells. As shown in Fig. 4i, the aged positive electrode shows a higher charge plateau and a lower discharge plateau, which are caused by polarization. Furthermore, there is no evident constant-voltage charging segment for the aged positive electrode, which means that the positive electrode has been fully charged before the constant-voltage charging period with a 0.05C current. In contrast, the battery voltage of the aged positive electrode prematurely reaches the upper cut-off voltage during charging due to a high internal resistance, resulting in a long constant-voltage charging period as well as a decreased battery capacity. However, over 86% of the initial capacity is still maintained.

Similarly, the negative electrode also becomes thicker after aging. The thickness of the fresh negative electrode is $200\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 5a), which increased to $271\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (*i.e.*, 30.5% increase) after aging (Fig. 5b). There are a lot of cracks and exfoliated pieces in the aged negative electrode, which is a key reason for the thickening of the negative electrode. Besides, the materials are stripped from the current collector, leading to an increase in R_{ct} , as illustrated in Fig. 2e. From the top view, the surface film, which has a thick and cracked surface, can be observed on the top of the aged negative electrode (Fig. 5d), and a surface film also can be observed from the edges of the graphite particles in the SEM image (Fig. 5f), which is the main reason for surface

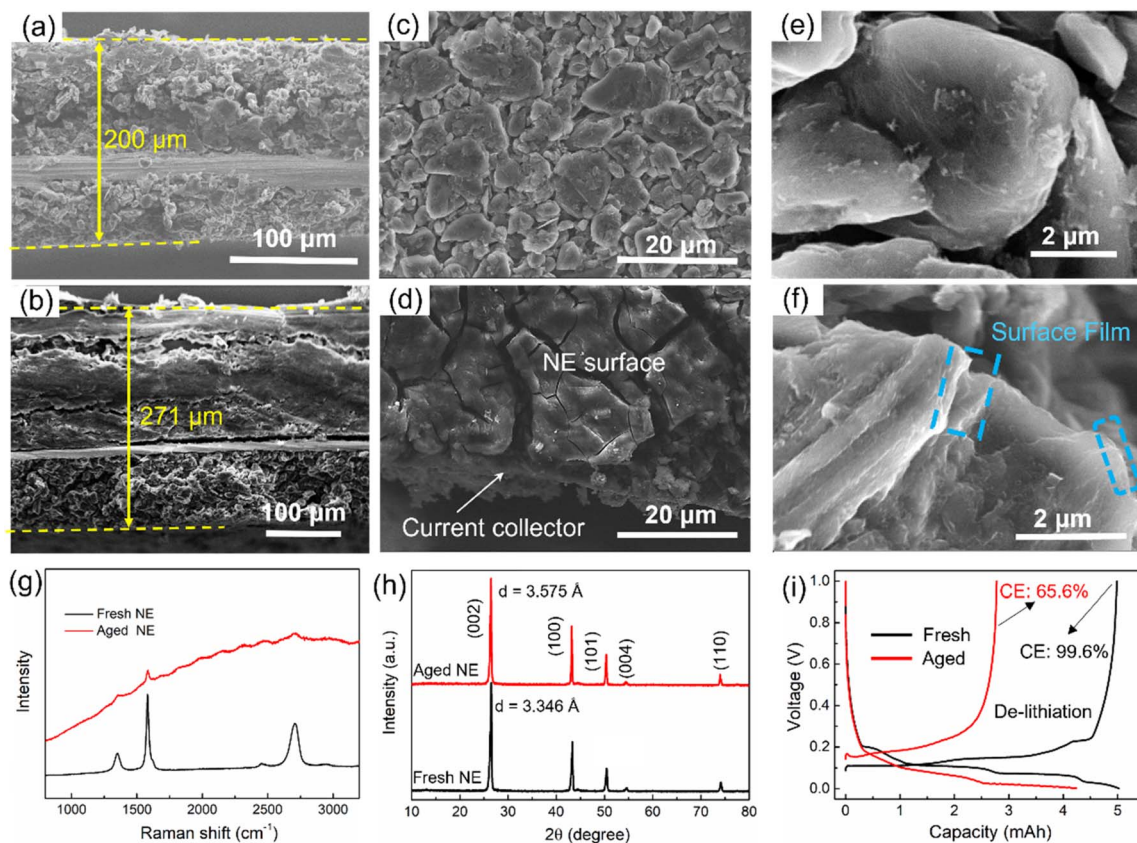


Fig. 5 Cross-section SEM images of (a) fresh negative electrode and (b) aged negative electrode; top surface SEM images of (c) fresh negative electrode and (d) aged negative electrode; SEM images of (e) fresh graphite particles and (f) aged graphite particles; (g) Raman spectra of the fresh and aged negative electrodes; (h) XRD patterns of aged and fresh negative electrodes; (i) charge and discharge voltage curves obtained by testing against Li in coin cells in a voltage range of 0.001–1.0 V at 0.05C.



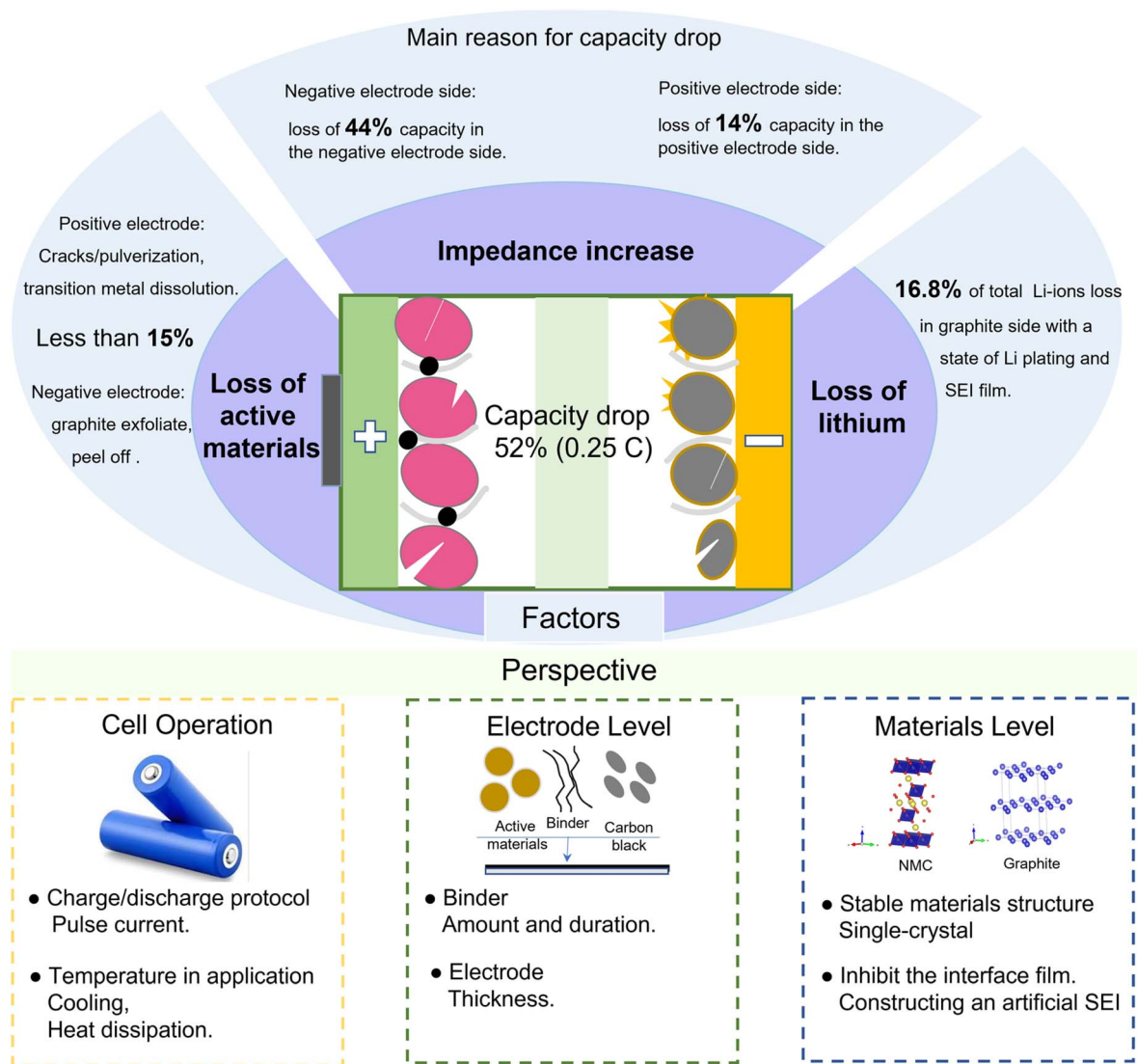


Fig. 7 Overview of the processes related to battery capacity fade and perspectives for extending the cycle life.

ratio of the negative electrode capacity and positive electrode capacity, *i.e.*, the *N/P* ratio. A high *N/P* ratio means excess graphite as well as SEI film formation, while a lower *N/P* will lead to the formation of Li-plating.⁸ Therefore, the thickness of electrodes (*N/P*) can be optimized to reduce the loss of active materials and inhibit the impedance increase.

At the material level, the pulverization and volume expansion of the cathode particles are serious, which will enlarge the transfer path of Li-ions, resulting in an increased impedance. The cathode materials with a single-crystal structure will effectively inhibit pulverization and volume expansion. Besides, the lower specific surface area of single-crystal particles also inhibits the amount of interface film and the dissolution of transition metals.⁴¹ For the interface film, constructing an artificial SEI on the graphite surface can inhibit the deposition derived from electrolyte decomposition and the anion solvation effect, resulting in a stable electrode/electrolyte interface as well as superior cycling stability.⁴²

4. Conclusions

This study identifies the dominant aging mechanism of commercial $\text{Li}(\text{Ni}_{0.5}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Mn}_{0.3})\text{O}_2/\text{graphite}$ batteries under CC cycling conditions at the full cell, electrode and material levels. After a controlled aging test for 1000 cycles, the cell capacity drops by 52% (0.25C), which is mainly caused by the increased internal impedance. In particular, both the positive and negative electrodes show a significant increase in impedance, especially the interface resistance ascribed to the formation of the EEI films, which leads to more rapid voltage collapse to cut-off voltage and hence reduced capacity. Moreover, the increased internal impedance aggravates the heat generation during battery operation which exacerbates the parasitic reactions and accelerates the battery degradation. At the material level, the cracking/pulverization of NCM particles and transition metal dissolution are the main degradation processes on the positive electrode side, while the >35% capacity drop of the negative



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