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Lithium Copper Phosphates as High Energy Density Li-Ion Cathodes

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Abstract

Three compositions of lithium copper phosphates: Li₂CuPO₄, Li₂Cu₅(PO₄)₄, and Li₂CuP₂O₇ have been studied as high-voltage cathode materials for Li-ion batteries, following computational predictions of high operating voltages. An assisted-microwave preparation of Li₂CuPO₄, which is otherwise difficult to prepare in nearly-pure form, has been developed. The electrochemical performance of all three compounds has been investigated. The cyclability of these materials is found to be poor due to structural changes, irreversible reduction to metallic copper even at potentials as high as 2.5 V, and the possibility of dissolution into the electrolyte. Some general understanding in regard to the use of Cu compounds in redox electrodes is presented.

Keywords

cathode, lithium-ion battery, lithium copper phosphates, electrochemistry

Introduction

Since the commercialization of lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) in the early 1990s, there has been a continual demand to improve their energy density, which would allow for smaller and lighter portable electronics, and for improved range and performance in electric vehicles. However, the principal chemistry has changed very little since the original LIB; graphite is still employed as the anode, and the most commonly used cathode is a variant of the originally used LiCoO₂, notably Li(Mn, Co, Ni)O₂ (NMC), with the advantage that the use of toxic and geopolitically fraught Co is partially replaced by Mn and Ni.¹ Depending on the precise composition, NMC has an average operating voltage of about 3.7 V and a gravimetric capacity approaching 200 mAh g⁻¹.² New electrode materials, and especially new cathode materials with higher operating voltages and higher capacities are necessary to build cells with increased energy density compared to current technologies.^{2,3} One way to improve the energy density of the cathode is by replacing oxygen anions with polyanions within the crystal structure. For example, phosphates exhibit higher voltages than oxides for the same transition metal redox couples, which can be explained by an inductive effect. Electronegative phosphorous atoms share a common oxygen with the transition metal and attract electrons from the oxygen. Thus, the metal-oxygen bond becomes more ionic, and the voltage of the cathode increases versus lithium.⁴

Olivine-structured transition metal phosphates have been extensively researched as LIB cathode materials. LiFePO₄ was proposed as an inexpensive, nontoxic alternative to LiCoO₂ in 1997.⁵ While initially limited by ionic and electronic conductivity,⁶ the performance was significantly improved through nanostructuring and carbon-coating LiFePO₄.^{7–13} The material has been commercialized, and a capacity of 160 mAh g⁻¹ can be accessed at normal rates.^{9,10} However, the average operating voltage of LiFePO₄ is limited to around 3.45 V by the Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ redox couple, which limits the energy density.^{5,14}

Mn, Co, and Ni are the three transition metals besides Fe that form olivine structures with PO_4^{3-} . Padhi, Nanjundaswamy, and Goodenough originally reported that they were unable to electrochemically extract lithium from LiMnPO₄, LiCoPO₄, or LiNiPO₄ olivines.⁵ Since then, cycling has been demonstrated in LiCoPO₄ and LiMnPO₄.^{15,16} Pure LiNiPO₄ has not been experimentally characterized because of difficulties in sample preparation without major impurity phases like Li₄P₂O₇ and Ni₃P,¹⁷ and because typical carbonate-based electrolytes are not compatible with the predicted high operating voltage of 5.2 V.⁶ LiCoPO₄ has a high discharge voltage of 4.8 V, however it contains Co which is expensive, and demonstrates a low capacity of 70 mAh g⁻¹.¹⁵ LiMnPO₄ is more promising, demonstrating a practical capacity of 140 mAh g⁻¹ and a discharge voltage plateau at 4 V.¹⁶ However, stable cycling was not demonstrated past 50 cycles, and there is still some concern that a Jahn-Teller lattice distortion in Mn³⁺ could lead to capacity fade in longer-term cycling.^{16,18}

Combining the most electronegative, redox-active, first-row transition metal and a

phosphate polyanion, lithium copper phosphates appear to be the ideal, high-voltage cathode candidate. However, lithium copper phosphates have been largely untested as cathode materials. Some work has been done to study Li_2CuPO_4 , which has a theoretical gravimetric capacity of over 150 mAh g⁻¹ when utilizing the Cu⁺/Cu²⁺ redox couple.^{4,19} As calculated in prior work⁴ and shown experimentally,¹⁹ it is difficult to isolate this phase in the Li_3PO_4 - Cu₃PO₄ quasi-binary system. The structure of the desired compound was modeled from single crystal and powder diffraction data, as represented in Figure 1(a) and (b).¹⁹ These initial results suggest a structure with 1D diffusion pathways for lithium ions. (Note: the structure is quite different from an olivine, and Cu is tetrahedrally coordinated, unlike Fe which is octahedrally coordinated in LiFePO₄.) Some initial galvanostatic cycling results were obtained between 3V and 4V at a rate of *C*/30, and a voltage plateau was observed at a high voltage (about 3.9 V).¹⁹ However, upon further charging, less than one tenth of a lithium ion was extracted per formula unit, and even fewer were reinserted into the structure upon discharge.¹⁹



Figure 1: Reported structures of (a) $\text{Li}_{2.05}\text{Cu}_{0.95}\text{PO}_4$ projected nearly down the *a*-axis and (b) the structure projected nearly down the *c*-axis.¹⁹ The structures of (c) $\text{Li}_2\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_7$ projected nearly down the *b*-axis. (d) The structure of $\text{Li}_2\text{Cu}_5(\text{PO}_4)_4$ projected nearly down the *a*-axis.

Here we study three different compositions of lithium copper phosphates: Li_2CuPO_4 , $Li_2CuP_2O_7$, and $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$. Since the exact cation positions at different degrees of Li insertion are not known *a priori*, we use a general cation insertion algorithm²⁰ to determine the atomic structure at all stages of charge, which enables us to predict the voltage and capacity of the materials using first-principles calculations. We report a new assisted-microwave preparation of Li_2CuPO_4 and investigate the origins of its poor electrochemical

performance. We also synthesize $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ and $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ and investigate their electrochemical properties for the first time.

Experimental methods

Assisted-microwave preparation of Li₂CuPO₄ First, Li₄P₂O₇ was prepared by hand grinding a 1:1 molar ratio of Li₂CO₃ (Sigma, \geq 99%) and NH₄H₂PO₄ (Sigma, \geq 98%) for 20 min in an agate mortar and pestle. A pellet of the mixture was then placed on a powder bed of the same composition in an alumina crucible, heated to 250 °C for 10 h, then to 800 °C for 4 h and ramped down to room temperature in a box furnace.²¹ The powder X-ray diffraction pattern fit of the resulting pure Li₄P₂O₇ is provided in the Supporting Information (SI) in Figure S1.

The microwave preparation of Li₂CuPO₄ was adapted from the solid-state furnace methods described in prior work.¹⁹ Cu₂O (Sigma Aldrich, \geq 99.9%) and Li₄P₂O₇ were ground with an agate mortar and pestle in a 1:1 stoichiometric ratio until the mixture was homogeneous, about 20 min. The powder was then pressed into a 6 mm diameter pellet, approximately 200 mg. The pellet was sealed into an approximately 10 cm long fused silica ampoule under vacuum. The ampoule was placed at the center of an alumina crucible and buried under 78 g of activated charcoal as described by Levin *et al.*²² The entire crucible was enclosed by thermal insulation housing made from alumina fiberboard, and the assembly was placed off-center in a 1200 W Panasonic microwave. Many varying microwave procedures were attempted, and the highest purity product was obtained by heating the sample with a power of 720 W for 9 min, at which point the entire alumina fiberboard housing was removed from the microwave. The ampule was extracted and left to cool in air. The temperature of the charcoal was immediately measured at approximately 700 °C by placing a thermocouple in the center of the crucible where the ampoule was. The sample likely reached higher temperatures inside the microwave, however the temperature

cannot be measured continuously during the reaction because a thermocouple in the microwave could result in a fire or explosion. The reddish color of the product is consistent with the desired Cu^+ oxidation state in the target compound.

Solid-state, furnace synthesis of Li_2CuPO_4 , $Li_2CuP_2O_7$, and $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ In addition to the microwave method, Li_2CuPO_4 was prepared in a box furnace. Following the initial steps of the microwave preparation, the pelletized mixture was sealed under vacuum into a fused silica ampoule and held at 650 °C for 72 h.

Polycrystalline $\text{Li}_2\text{CuP}_2\text{O}_7$ was synthesized from a ground stoichiometric mixture of Li_2CO_3 (Sigma, $\geq 99\%$), $\text{CuC}_2\text{O}_4 \cdot 0.5 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$ (Alfa Aesar 98%), and $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{HPO}_4$ (Sigma, $\geq 98\%$) in a molar ratio of 1:1:2 respectively. The powder was heated at 300 °C for three days under Ar gas flow with two intermediate grinding steps. The powder was then pressed into 6 mm pellets and heated at 600 °C for 24 h under Ar gas flow resulting in a light blue product. This method was adapted from a reported procedure that was used to make polycrystalline $\text{Li}_2\text{CoP}_2\text{O}_7$.²³ A prior attempt to repeat a different synthesis method to make $\text{Li}_2\text{CuP}_2\text{O}_7$ resulted in a lower purity product.²⁴

Polycrystalline $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ was prepared based on a method described in the literature starting from a stoichiometric mixture of Li_2CO_3 (Sigma, \geq 99%), CuO (Aldrich, 99.99%), and NH₄H₂PO₄ (Sigma, \geq 98%) ground with an agate mortar and pestle.²⁵ The powder was placed in a ceramic crucible and heated at 600 °C overnight, reground and heated overnight again at 600 °C, and finally pressed at into 6 mm pellets and heated in the furnace at 800 °C for 48 h. The resultant product showed a blue color, indicative of the desired Cu²⁺ oxidation state.

Microscopy Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) on the pristine and ball milled powders was conducted using an FEI Nova Nano 650 FEG SEM at 5 kV with a spot size of 3. **Electrochemical characterization** The electrochemical performance of the three lithium copper phosphates was characterized using Swagelok-type cells assembled in an argon-filled glovebox ($H_2O \le 0.1$ ppm, $O_2 \le 0.1$ ppm) using polished Li foil as a combined counter and reference electrode. Active material was ball milled with carbon black (TIM-CAL Super P) for 20 min in a 7 cm³ stainless steel ball mill canister and then hand-ground with polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE with average particle size of 1 μ m from Sigma Aldrich) such that the final electrode composition was 60% active material, 30% carbon black, and 10% PTFE binder. 10 mm diameter thick film electrodes were prepared by pressing pellets from this mixture using a hydrostatic pressure of 1.5 tons. Whatman GF/D glass microfiber filters were used as the separator, and cells were flooded with 1 M LiPF₆ in ethylene carbonate and dimethylcarbonate (EC/DMC 50/50 ν/ν , Sigma Aldrich) electrolyte.

Cells were cycled using a BioLogic VMP1 potentiostat predominantly at a slow rate of *C*/60, an exception being the faster cycling that was required during the *operando* X-ray diffraction experiments described below. Rates were calculated for a full charge and discharge defined as one Li exchanged per Cu atom in the cathode. For Li₂CuP₂O₇, this would correspond to all the Cu²⁺ ions becoming Cu³⁺ upon charging, and for Li₂CuPO₄ and Li₂Cu₅(PO₄)₄ reacting fully between Cu⁺ and Cu²⁺ and vice versa.

Operando X-ray diffraction was collected using a custom Swagelok-type cell with a Be window approximately 120 μ m thick, which allows X-ray penetration. The active material was ground with SuperP and PTFE (60% active material, 30% SuperP, and 10% PTFE) and pressed into a thin 15 mm pellet which was placed directly onto the Be window. Li₂CuP₂O₇ was cycled against Li foil using a BioLogic SP-200 poteniostat at a *C*/10 rate with a Whatman glass fiber separator flooded with 1 M LiPF₆ in EC/DMC (Sigma Aldrich). A pattern was collected every 20 minutes during the charge and discharge.

Powder X-ray diffraction Powder X-ray diffraction and *operando* X-ray diffraction data were collected using a laboratory-source Panalytical Empyrean diffractometer with Cu-

 $K\alpha$ radiation in reflection geometry. Rietveld analysis was performed using Topas Academic v6.²⁶ Patterns were refined against previously experimentally determined structures for Li₂CuPO₄,¹⁹ Li₂CuP₂O₇,²⁴ and Li₂Cu₅(PO₄)₄.²⁵ Crystal structures are depicted using VESTA.²⁷

Computational approach First-principles density-functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed using the Vienna *Ab initio* Simulation Package (VASP).²⁸ The exchange-correlation contribution to the total energy was calculated using the generalized-gradient approximation functional of Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE).²⁹ The determination of the exact simulation settings, the orchestration of the calculations, and the aggregation of the results are carried out using the atomate computational framework.³⁰ The stable Li positions in the crystal structure at all states of charge are determined using a charge-density based cation insertion algorithm.²⁰ The voltage is given by the change of the total energy of the electrode material with lithium content.^{31,32} Using the DFT total energies from our collection of Li inserted structures, the voltage is defined between any two stable lithium concentrations (x_1 and x_2) as:

$$V(x) = -\frac{E(\text{Li}_{x_2}\text{Electrode}) - (\text{Li}_{x_1}\text{Electrode}) - (x_2 - x_1)E(\text{Li})}{(x_2 - x_1)F}$$
$$\forall x_1 < x < x_2, \qquad (1)$$

Where $E(\text{Li}_{x_i}\text{Electrode})$ is the DFT total energy of an entry on the convex hull of the subset of materials where the host lattice was not significantly perturbed by the insertion of Li.

Results and discussion

Inspiration to study these particular phosphate compositions came from DFT predictions specifically targeting high-voltage, high-capacity electrode materials. Table 1 gives the predicted average insertion voltage and theoretical gravimetric capacity for Li₂CuP₂O₇ and

 Li_2CuPO_4 . In contrast, it was calculated that five Li ions (corresponding to a Cu^{2+} to Cu^+ reaction) could not be stably inserted into the $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ structure. This likely indicates that the material undergoes a conversion mechanism instead of intercalation.

Table 1: Computational predictions for energy density, average operating voltage, and gravimetric capacity of lithium copper phosphate compounds.

compound	theoretical	predicted	theoretical
	gravimetric energy	average	gravimetric
	density (Wh kg $^{-1}$)	insertion	capacity
		voltage (V)	$(mAh g^{-1})$
$LiCu^{ }P_2O_7 - Li_2Cu^{ }P_2O_7$	490	4.60	107
$LiCu^{ }PO_4 - Li_2Cu^{ }PO_4$	606	3.90	156
$\operatorname{Li}_2\operatorname{Cu}_5^{ }(\operatorname{PO}_4)_4 - \operatorname{Li}_7\operatorname{Cu}_5^{ }(\operatorname{PO}_4)_4$	N/A	N/A	188

$Li_2CuP_2O_7$

The structure of $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ is shown in Figure 1(c), exhibiting an open structure with tunnel-like cavities.²⁴ This is the first demonstration of synthesizing $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ via solid-state methods using copper oxalate, lithium carbonate, and diammonium phosphate as precursors (see Figure 2(a) for the powder X-ray diffraction pattern fit). Using this method resulted in sub-micron to 10 micron diameter particles as shown in Figure 2(b). $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ is an electronically-insulating material (light blue in color), so the material was ball milled with carbon black prior to electrochemical testing (see Figure 2(c)).

During initial galvanostatic cycling, as shown in Figure 3(a), Li₂CuP₂O₇ was charged to 4.8 V and then discharged to 1 V at a very slow rate of *C*/60, resulting in a long discharge plateau between 1.75 V and 1.6 V. This plateau likely corresponds to a conversion reaction during which the copper is reduced to its metallic form as more lithium is incorporated into the cathode. Subsequent cycling failed, indicating that the low voltage reaction is irreversible. Figure 3(b) shows cycling between 4.8 V and 1.7 V at a rate of *C*/60. A high-voltage oxidation plateau is present at the predicted voltage of 4.6 V (as given in Table 1). The detrimental low voltage plateau was not totally eliminated, so the lower potential



Figure 2: (a) Rietveld refinement fit of the powder X-ray diffraction pattern of the $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ synthesized via solid-state methods. (b) Scanning electron micrograph of assynthesized $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ particles ranging in size from sub-micron to 10 microns in diameter. (c) Scanning electron micrograph of $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ after ball milling with carbon black prior to electrochemical testing. Ball milled particles range in size from sub-micron to 1 micron in diameter.



Figure 3: (a) Galvanostatic cycling of ball milled $\text{Li}_2\text{CuP}_2\text{O}_7$ between and 4.8 V and 1 V at a *C*/60 rate, (b) between 4.8 V and 1.7 V at a *C*/60 rate, and (c) between 4.8 V and 2 V at a *C*/30 rate.



Figure 4: *Operando* X-ray diffraction measured every 20 min during a galvanostatic charge to 4.8 V and discharge to 2 V of ball milled $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ at a C/10 rate. Below the incremental XRD scans, which peaks correspond to the $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ active material and which peaks correspond to the beryllium window of the operando cell are displayed. The most obvious changes during cycling are shaded.

was further limited to 2V as shown in Figure 3(c). Figure 4 shows XRD spectra measured every 20 minutes during a charge and discharge cycle of $Li_2CuP_2O_7$. Upon charging, two new XRD peaks emerge, one near 15 degrees and the other near 25 degrees. These peaks diminish but do not disappear completely upon discharge, indicating structural irreversibility. A heat map highlighting the changes in X-ray diffraction pattern peak intensity during cycling is provided in the SI (Figure S2). $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ did not achieve a meaningful reversible capacity during any of the cycling experiments. By charging first, Li is removed from $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ corresponding to Cu^{2+} becoming Cu^{3+} , an oxidation state of Cu which is difficult to reach through electrochemical cycling. Cu^{3+} containing compounds are rare, and often require very oxidizing conditions during preparation.^{33,34}

Li₂CuPO₄

The approximate structure of Li₂CuPO₄ is given in Figure 1(a) and (b).¹⁹ Motivation for using microwave preparation arose from the reported difficulty of isolating different stable phases in a furnace.¹⁹ The highest purity, 90%, was achieved with 9 min of microwave



Figure 5: (a) Rietveld refinement of microwave-prepared Li₂CuPO₄. (b) Scanning electron micrograph of assisted-microwave-prepared Li₂CuPO₄ particles ranging in size from submicron to 10 μ m in diameter, and (c) the same particles after ball milling with carbon black prior to electrochemical testing. Ball milled particles range in size from sub-micron to 3 μ m in diameter.



Figure 6: Galvanostatic cycling of (a) ball milled, microwave-prepared Li_2CuPO_4 at a rate of *C*/60 and (b) ball milled, furnace-prepared Li_2CuPO_4 at a rate of *C*/60.

heating at 720 W, and the Rietveld refinement is shown in Figure 5(a). SEM images of the microwave product before and after ball milling with carbon black are given in Figure 5(b) and (c). Before milling, the particles range in diameter from sub-micron to $10 \,\mu$ m, and after ball milling with carbon black the particles range in size from sub-micron to $3 \,\mu$ m in diameter. The most successful furnace synthesis attempt yielded 73% purity, with 17% of the sample identified as a related phase with higher lithium content, Li_{2.6}Cu_{0.4}PO₄.¹⁹ The Rietveld refinement fit of the furnace product is given in the SI (Figure S3), along with SEM images before and after ball milling with carbon black.

Figure 6 compares galvanostatic cycling behavior of the microwave-prepared Li_2CuPO_4 to the furnace-prepared Li_2CuPO_4 . Differences in capacity achieved by these cells can be explained by the difference in purity of the active material that was achieved with the microwave versus in the furnace. Li_2CuPO_4 could not be cycled above a potential of 3.5 V: cells regularly failed to charge above this potential. Thus, the computationally predicted average voltage of 3.9 V (given in Table 1) could not be reached. Cell failure occurs when a build up of internal resistance causes the potentiostat to stop charging the cell. Failure above a potential of 3.5 V could be due to a side reaction forming a resistive electrodeelectrolyte interface layer, or breakdown at the surface of the cathode material, such as Cu dissolution into the organic electrolyte in the form of Cu⁺ which has been shown to occur in this same voltage range.^{35–37}

$Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$

 $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ is a known material that is closest in composition to delithiated Li_2CuPO_4 . LiCuPO₄ has never been directly synthesized, however the composition of $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ is close, and still has Cu in a 2+ oxidation state. The structure of $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ is shown in Figure 1(d), and a Rietveld refinement fit of the solid-state synthesized polycrystalline material is shown in Figure 7(a). SEM images of the particles before and after ball milling with carbon black are given in Figure 7(b) and (c), and show as-synthesized $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ particles ranging in size from 5 μ m to almost 50 μ m in diameter. After ball milling with carbon black, particles range in size from sub-micron to 5 μ m in diameter.

Galvanostatic cycling of $\text{Li}_2\text{Cu}_5(\text{PO}_4)_4$ is shown in Figure 8. The first discharge shown in Figure 8(a) exhibits an impressive gravimetric capacity of over 300 mAh g⁻¹. However, capacity fades significantly on subsequent cycles. 300 mAh g⁻¹ exceeds the theoretical capacity of 188 mAh g⁻¹ calculated for single electron redox, so it is probable that Cu²⁺ is being reduced to metallic copper at around 2.25 V. A conversion reaction is consistent with our computational prediction that Li would not intercalate into the Li₂Cu₅(PO₄)₄ structure. When discharging CuF₂, a one-step lithiation reaction forming Cu⁰ and LiF occurs at a potential as high as 3.25 V, which further supports that metallic Cu could be forming at 2.25 V in Li₂Cu₅(PO₄)₄.^{35,38} The additional capacity could also be due to side reactions or degradation of the electrolyte.

The voltage profile of $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ is similar to that of Li_2CuPO_4 , which makes sense due to their similar compositions. They both show a local voltage minimum around 2.25 V, at least in the first discharge, which could correspond to the nucleation of metallic copper.

Conclusions

Three compositions of lithium copper phosphate: $Li_2CuP_2O_7$, Li_2CuPO_4 , and $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ were evaluated as high-voltage cathode materials for Li-ion batteries. An assistedmicrowave preparation of Li_2CuPO_4 was developed, as well as a solid-state, furnace synthesis for $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ using copper oxalate as a precursor. $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ and $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ were electrochemically cycled for the first time. A few complications prevented useful electrochemical cycling of these materials. Li could not be significantly deintercalated from $Li_2CuP_2O_7$ likely because an oxidation state of Cu^{3+} could not be stabilized in the structure. Discharging to lower voltages and attempting to insert more Li resulted in an irreversible conversion reaction below 2 V. Li_2CuPO_4 could not be cycled much higher than 3.5 V, above



Figure 7: (a) Rietveld refinement fit of the powder X-ray diffraction pattern of the $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ (b) Scanning electron micrograph of as-synthesized $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ particles ranging in size from 5 μ m to almost 50 μ m in diameter. (c) Scanning electron micrograph of $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ after ball milling with carbon black and prior to electrochemical testing. Particles range in size from sub-micron to 5 μ m in diameter.



Figure 8: (a) Galvanostatic cycling of ball milled $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ at a *C*/60 rate between 1.5 V and 4.2 V.

which more significant redox activity was expected. In the literature reported cycling of CuF_2 , much of the irreversibility was attributed to the dissolution of Cu^+ into organic electrolyte.³⁵ Li₂Cu₅(PO₄)₄ was then prepared as the closest known composition to that of delithiated Li₂CuPO₄. Upon initial discharge, a very large capacity of over 300 mAh g⁻¹ was observed. However, because the observed capacity was significantly greater than the theoretical capacity of 188 mAh g⁻¹, it is likely that much of the observed capacity is due to reduction of the Cu²⁺ to metallic copper at a potential of 2.5 V. Reduction to metallic copper would also explain the continued capacity fade observed on subsequent cycling. A conversion reaction of this nature is consistent with the computational prediction that Li intercalation is unlikely in the Li₂Cu₅(PO₄)₄ structure.



Figure 9: (a) The crystal structure of $CuLaO_2$, in which Cu^+ has linear coordination.³⁹ (b) The crystal structure of La_2CuO_4 , in which Cu^{2+} sits in highly Jahn-Teller distorted octahedra.⁴⁰ (c) The crystal structure of AgCuO₂, in which Cu^{3+} has square planar coordination.³³

Another important challenge with utilizing copper redox in an intercalation compound (as opposed to a conversion compound) is that the different oxidation states of Cu favor different coordination. Cu⁺ has a d¹⁰ electron configuration and prefers tetrahedral coordination [Figure 1(a) and (b)] or linear coordination [Figure 9(a)], while Cu²⁺ is d⁹ and prefers square planar [Figure 1(c) and (d)], or highly Jahn-Teller distorted octahedral coordination [Figure 9(b)]. Cu^{3+} is d⁸ and also prefers square planar coordination [Figure 9(c)]. The different coordination preferences can contribute to structural degradation and irreversible cycling, as shown for Li₂CuPO₄ and Li₂Cu₅(PO₄)₄ in Figures 6 and 8 respectively. Similar degradation mechanisms have been shown to contribute to the irreversibility of redox compounds containing Mn³⁺, most notably LiMn₂O₄ spinels.^{41,42}

Supporting Information Available

Rietveld refinement fit of the powder X-ray diffraction pattern of Li₄P₂O₇, a precursor prepared *via* solid-state methods for the reaction to form Li₂CuPO₄. Rietveld refinement and microscopy of the furnace prepared Li₂CuPO₄. Heat map of Li₂CuP₂O₇ operando XRD measured during galvanostatic cycling.

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Graphical TOC Entry



Supporting Information: Prospects for Employing Lithium Copper Phosphates as High-Voltage Li-Ion Cathodes

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Figure S1: Rietveld refinement of the powder X-ray diffraction pattern of the $Li_4P_2O_7$ synthesized via solid state methods, precursor to Li_2CuPO_4 .



Figure S2: Heat map of the intensity of diffraction peaks during *operando* X-ray diffraction experiment. The scale bar is given in arbitrary units of X-ray diffraction peak intensity. An X-ray diffraction pattern was collected every 20 minutes during a galvanostatic charge to 4.8 V and discharge to 2 V of ball milled Li₂CuP₂O₇ at a *C*/10 rate.



Figure S3: (a) Rietveld refinement of the powder X-ray diffraction pattern of the furnace prepared Li₂CuPO₄. (b) Scanning electron micrograph of furnace prepared Li₂CuPO₄ particles ranging in size from sub-micron to 5 μ m in diameter, and (c) the same particles after ball milling with graphitic carbon prior to electrochemical testing - particles range in size from sub-micron to 2 μ m in diameter.



Figure S4: *Operando* X-ray diffraction measured every 20 min during a galvanostatic discharge to 2 V of ball milled $\text{Li}_2\text{Cu}_5(\text{PO}_4)_4$ at a C/10 rate. Below the incremental XRD scans, which peaks correspond to the $\text{Li}_2\text{Cu}_5(\text{PO}_4)_4$ active material and which peaks correspond to the Li_3PO_4 secondary phase are indicated.



Figure S5: Galvanostatic cycling of ball milled $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ at a C/60 rate between 2.5 V and 4.2 V. Essentially no capacity is demonstrated.



Figure S6: Galvanostatic cycling of ball milled $Li_2Cu_5(PO_4)_4$ at a C/60 rate between 2V and 4.8V.