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# Lithium Nitrate: A Double-edged Sword in the Rechargeable Lithium-Sulfur Cell

**Abstract:** Lithium nitrate ( $\text{LiNO}_3$ ) has been the most studied electrolyte additive in lithium-sulfur (Li-S) cells, due to its known function of suppressing the shuttle effect in Li-S cells, which provides a significant increase in the cell's coulombic efficiency and cycling stability. Previous studies indicated that  $\text{LiNO}_3$  participated in the formation of a passive layer on the lithium electrode and thus suppressed the redox shuttle of the dissolved polysulfides. However, the effects of the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  on the positive electrode materials have rarely been investigated. By combining scanning electron microscopy (SEM), element-selective X-ray absorption spectroscopy, and electrochemical characterizations, we performed a comprehensive study of how the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  altered the properties of the sulfur electrode/electrolyte interface in Li-S cells and thus influenced the cell performance. We found that  $\text{LiNO}_3$  is a double-edged sword in the Li-S cell: on one hand, it increased the consumption of the active sulfur; on the other hand, it promoted the survival of the carbon matrix constituent in the sulfur electrode. These two competitive effects indicated that a proper moderate concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  is required to achieve an optimized cell performance.

**Key Words:** Lithium-Sulfur cell; lithium nitrate; cathode-electrolyte interface; X-ray absorption spectroscopy; double-edged sword effect

## 1. Introduction:

Increasing interest in the electric transportation sector and bulk energy storage systems have fueled a growth in the demand for high-performance rechargeable energy storage devices with high capacity and high specific

29 energy. The lithium-sulfur (Li-S) cell is a promising prospect for  
30 electrochemical energy storage owing to its high theoretical specific capacity  
31 (1675 mAh/g), which is about 10 times higher than that of commercial Li ion  
32 cells using lithiated transition metal oxides and phosphates as cathode  
33 materials. However, there are technical challenges that preclude the  
34 widespread applications of the Li-S cells.[1-4] One of the main obstacles is  
35 that the Li-S cell suffers from a polysulfide shuttle effect that limits the  
36 practical capacity of the sulfur cathodes and causes rapid capacity decay.[5-  
37 8] The notorious shuttle effect originates from the high solubility of lithium  
38 polysulfides (PS), a series of sulfur electrode intermediates, in organic  
39 solvents, and from the high reactivity between the dissolved PS and Li  
40 anode. The dissolution of PS in organic electrolytes is inevitable because  
41 chemical reactions of the sulfur electrode mainly take place at the solid-  
42 liquid (electrode-electrolyte) interface between the electrolyte with dissolved  
43 PS and solid cathode materials. To take full advantage of the Li-S cell, the  
44 polysulfide shuttle effect should be suppressed. A breakthrough in the  
45 protection of the Li-S cell from shuttle effect is the discovery of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  as an  
46 additive in liquid electrolytes.[9-11] The  $\text{LiNO}_3$  salt has been regarded as the  
47 most effective shuttle suppressor.

48 The function of  $\text{LiNO}_3$ , according to the prevailing understanding, is to form a  
49 solid electrolyte interface (SEI) layer on the surface of the Li electrode via a  
50 spontaneous reaction.[12-20] This protective layer, identified as  $\text{Li}_x\text{NO}_y$ ,  
51 efficiently minimizes PS shuttle effect by protecting the lithium anode from  
52 chemical reaction with the dissolved PS and preventing the PS from  
53 electrochemical reduction on the Li surface. Additionally,  $\text{LiNO}_3$  can also act  
54 as a stabilizing additive in the Li-S cell by reducing the generation of  $\text{CH}_4$   
55 and/or  $\text{H}_2$ , which are the major gaseous decomposition products[21]. More  
56 recently, several groups have argued that the function of the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  on the  
57 sulfur electrode should also be considered.

58 Xu et al. found that a Li-S cell containing a pre- $\text{LiNO}_3$ -treated Li anode and a  
59 sulfur cathode cycling in  $\text{LiNO}_3$ -free electrolyte did not suppress the shuttle

60 effect efficiently, indicating that the robust Li passivation layer is not the only  
61 factor causing the enhanced cell performance.[22] Moreover, Zhang et al.  
62 argued that  $\text{LiNO}_3$  plays multi-roles at the sulfur electrode:  $\text{LiNO}_3$  can  
63 adversely affect the cell performance by forming reduction products at  
64 potentials lower than 1.6 V; on the other hand  $\text{LiNO}_3$  can catalyze the  
65 conversion of long-chain PS to elemental S, which is beneficial to the cell  
66 performance.[16, 18, 19, 23]

67 Based on these observations, it is well accepted that adding  $\text{LiNO}_3$  to the  
68 electrolyte can indeed significantly affect the electrode-electrolyte interfacial  
69 properties. While the anode-electrolyte SEI layer has been widely  
70 investigated,[24-26] the cathode/electrolyte interface (CEI) has not been  
71 directly investigated to obtain detailed knowledge on how the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  affects  
72 the cathode material.

73 In this work, we probe directly the CEI layer using X-ray absorption  
74 spectroscopy (XAS). Benefiting from the element-resolved and chemical  
75 environmental-sensitive properties of XAS, various sulfur electrode  
76 constituents can be investigated individually.[27-31] Combining the  
77 spectroscopic investigations and electrochemical characterizations on Li-S  
78 cells with electrolyte containing various concentrations of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  during long-  
79 term cycling we are able to provide new insights on how the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the  
80 electrolyte can alter the properties of the CEI layer and thus influence the  
81 cell performance.

## 82 **2. Material and methods:**

### 83 **2.1 Cell assembly and testing**

84 The cell assembly and electrochemical characterization process were  
85 recorded in the supporting information. Basically, the Li-S cells were  
86 constructed by combining the CTAB-modified S-GO nanocomposite with an  
87 elastomeric styrene butadiene rubber /carboxy methyl cellulose (SBR/CMC)  
88 binder as positive electrode, lithium metal foil (99.98%, Cyprus Foote  
89 Mineral) as negative electrode, and an ionic liquid based novel electrolyte

90 containing  $\text{LiNO}_3$  additive as electrolyte. The synthesis of the CTAB-modified  
91 S-GO nano-compositions has been reported in our previous work.[1, 28]  
92 Electrolytes containing 0.1 M, 0.5 M, and 1.0 M  $\text{LiNO}_3$  have been investigated  
93 in each set of experiments. Galvanostatic discharge and charge cycling  
94 between 1.5 V and 2.8 V was performed using a battery cycler (Maccor  
95 Series 4000). The cells were cycled at a discharge rate of 1 C (1C= 1675 mA/  
96 g S), while the charge rates of 0.5 C and 1.0 C have been applied to charge  
97 two sets of cells. Additionally, to check the specific capacity that can be  
98 obtained at a lower C-rate, cells were checked periodically during the long-  
99 term cycling test, the specific capacity of the cells was measured at the  
100 500<sup>th</sup>, 800<sup>th</sup>, and 1000<sup>th</sup> cycle with a charge/discharge rate of 0.05 C/0.05 C.  
101 The cells charged at 0.5 C were denoted as C-0.1, C-0.5 and C-1.0,  
102 respectively, based on the concentrations of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  used in the electrolyte;  
103 while the cells charged at 1.0 C were denoted as CH-0.1, CH-0.5, and CH-1.0.  
104 The cell capacity was normalized by the weight of sulfur, determined by  
105 measuring the TGA weight loss to 600 °C. Before all electrochemical  
106 characterizations, the cells were held at open circuit at room temperature for  
107 24 hrs. All electrochemical characterizations were performed inside a test  
108 chamber (TestEquity TEC1) maintained at 30 °C. After several  
109 charge/discharge cycles, the cells were stopped at the fully charged state at  
110 2.8 V. After that, the cell was disassembled, and the sulfur electrodes were  
111 washed with DOL-DME three times to clean up the surface.

## 112 **2.2 Imaging test**

113 SEM images were taken with a Zeiss Gemini Ultra-55 instrument with an  
114 accelerating voltage of 10 kV using the high vacuum mode at room  
115 temperature.

## 116 **2.3 Surface- and bulk- sensitive X-ray absorption spectra**

117 The cleaned sulfur electrodes were transferred to the vacuum chamber for  
118 the XAS measurements. S K-edge XAS spectra were measured at three  
119 beamlines, namely, BL5.3.1, BL9.3.1, and BL10.3.2 at the Advanced Light  
120 Source, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory. C K-edge XAS spectra were

121 measured at the BL8.0.1. The total electron yield (TEY) and total  
122 fluorescence yield (TFY) signals were recorded simultaneously during the  
123 XAS measurements, providing surface and bulk sensitive characterizations,  
124 respectively. TEY signals were recorded by monitoring the sample drain  
125 current, whereas TFY signals were collected using a channeltron detector at  
126 C K-edge and silicon drift detector at S K-edge, respectively. The energy  
127 scale for the S K-edge was calibrated using elemental S spectra assuming  
128 the white line to be at 2472.2 eV, whereas the energy scale for the C K-edge  
129 was calibrated to the graphene oxide spectra assuming the  $\pi^*$  peak to be at  
130 285.5 eV.

131 Both TEY and TFY XAS spectra were normalized to the incoming photon flux,  
132 represented by the drain current measured from an upstream gold mesh and  
133 ionic chamber for C K-edge and S K-edge, respectively. A linear background  
134 based on the slope in the pre-edge region was subtracted from each flux-  
135 normalized XAS spectrum, which was then normalized again to the post-edge  
136 region. Quantitative deconvolution of spectra was performed by using  
137 software Athena Demeter version 0.9.24.

### 138 **3. Results and Discussion:**

139 Figure 1 (a) and (b) display the discharge capacity and coulombic efficiency  
140 of the S electrode with different electrolytes. The capacities reached the  
141 highest values after tens of charge-discharge cycles and delivered initial  
142 capacities of 724 mA·h/g, 734 mA·h/g, and 794 mA·h/g at charge/discharge  
143 rates of 0.5C/1.0C for cells C-0.1, C-0.5, and C-1.0. The capacities dropped to  
144 293 mA·h/g, 436 mA·h/g, and 262 mA·h/g, respectively, after 1000 cycles.  
145 Figure 1 (b) shows the coulombic efficiency of the Li-S cells containing  
146 different concentrations of  $\text{LiNO}_3$ . For cell C-0.1, the coulombic efficiency  
147 dropped from 100% to 98.2% in the first 50 cycles and then gradually  
148 decreased to 96.5% at the 1000<sup>th</sup> cycle; for the cell C-0.5, nearly 100%  
149 coulombic efficiency was obtained; finally, for the cell C-1.0, the coulombic  
150 efficiency is 100% in the first 800 cycles and then slightly decreased to  
151 99.5% in the last 200 cycles.

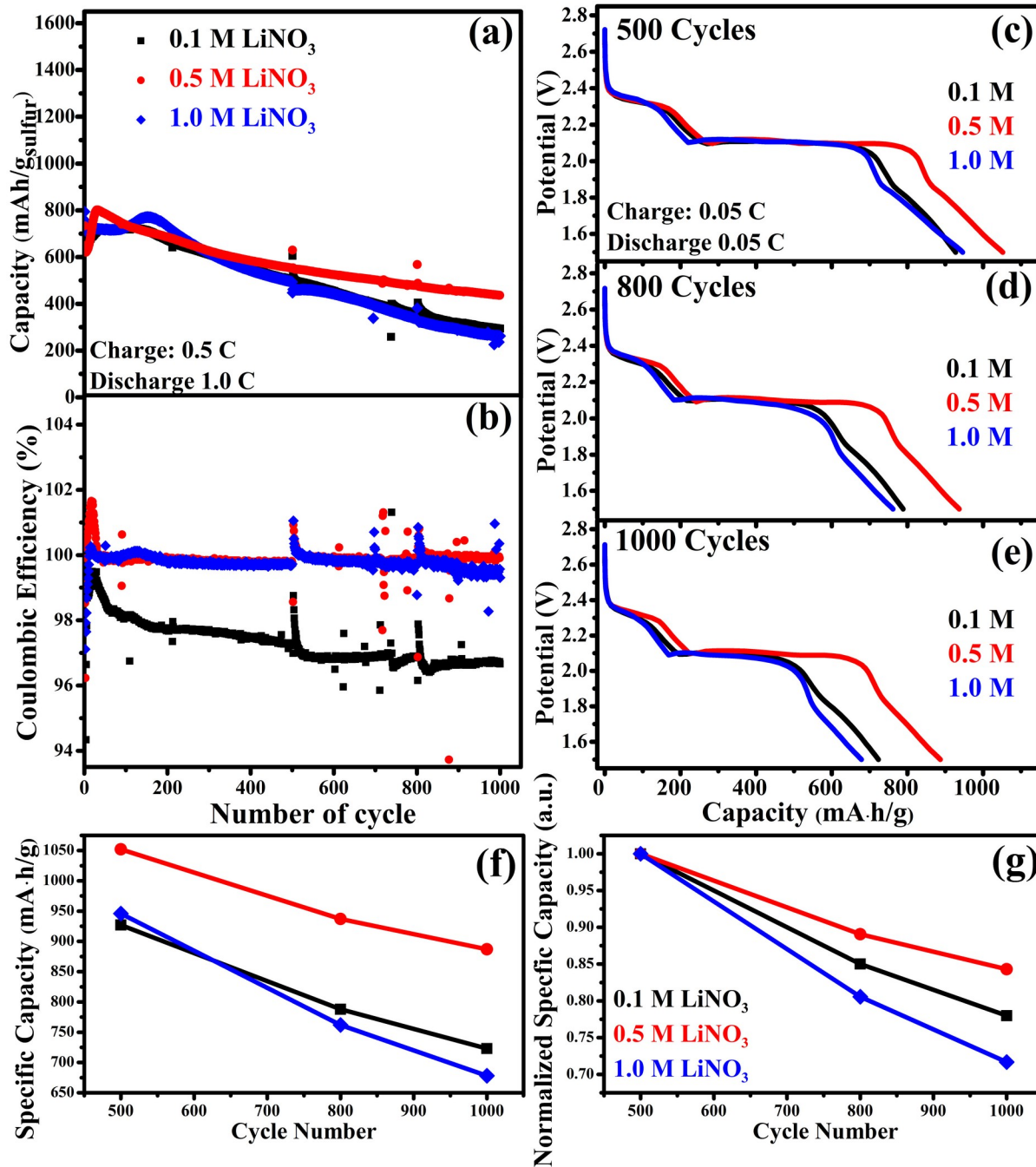
152 Figure 1 (c)-(e) show the representative discharge voltage profiles of Li-S  
153 cells using the electrolytes containing 0.1 M, 0.5 M, and 1.0 M  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the  
154 voltage window of 1.5-2.8 V at the charge/discharge rate of 0.05C/0.05C at  
155 the 500<sup>th</sup>, 800<sup>th</sup>, and 1000<sup>th</sup> cycle, respectively. The voltage-capacity curve of  
156 all the three cells exhibited two discharge plateaus at around 2.3 V and 2.1  
157 V, corresponding to the formation of long chain and short chain polysulfides,  
158 respectively.[1, 5] These results represent a highly reversible sulfur  
159 electrochemical reaction during the cell charge-discharge process, and  
160 indicate that similar reactions occurred during the cell cycling process  
161 regardless of the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  concentration. The specific capacity values of the  
162 cells at different cycles recorded in Figure 1 (f) indicated that the cell C-0.5  
163 delivered the highest specific discharge capacity at the 500<sup>th</sup>, 800<sup>th</sup>, and  
164 1000<sup>th</sup> cycle compared to those of cells C-0.1 and C-1.0. The difference of  
165 the delivered specific capacity between the cell C-0.1 and cell C-1.0 is not  
166 significant in the 500<sup>th</sup> cycle; with further cycling, the cell C-0.1 delivered  
167 higher specific energy compared to that of the cell C-1.0 in the 800<sup>th</sup> cycle;  
168 this difference became more obvious at the 1000<sup>th</sup> cycle. Furthermore, by  
169 normalizing the specific capacity values to the value at the 500<sup>th</sup> cycle  
170 (Figure 1 (g)), the decay rates of the specific capacity of cell C-0.5 and C-1.0  
171 were the slowest and fastest, respectively.

172 In summary, it can be concluded that: (1) a high concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in  
173 the electrolyte helps to retain high coulombic efficiency ( $\sim 100\%$ ); (2) cells  
174 with electrolyte containing a moderate concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  delivered  
175 better cell capacity and cycling stability, while adding either too high (1.0 M)  
176 or too low (0.1 M) amounts of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the electrolyte did not show any  
177 advantages.

178 According to conventional understanding,  $\text{LiNO}_3$  can extensively react with  
179 the lithium electrode and reduce its reaction with the polysulfides to inhibit  
180 the shuttle effect. This procedure led to the continuous consumption of the  
181  $\text{LiNO}_3$  during the cell cycling process, which suggested that the electrolyte  
182 containing high concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  is favored to get good performance,  
183 especially when targeting for a long-term cycle life.[17, 19, 22] This  
184 proposed scheme is contrary to the result that the cell performance  
185 exhibited a volcano-shaped dependence on the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  concentration. Thus,  
186 new insights of how  $\text{LiNO}_3$  influenced the CEI layer structures and cell  
187 performances are needed. As a complement to the current researches,  
188 mostly focusing on the influence of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  on the SEI layer, we want to focus  
189 on the changes of the interfacial layer between the sulfur electrode and  
190 electrolyte as a function of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  concentration in this work.

191





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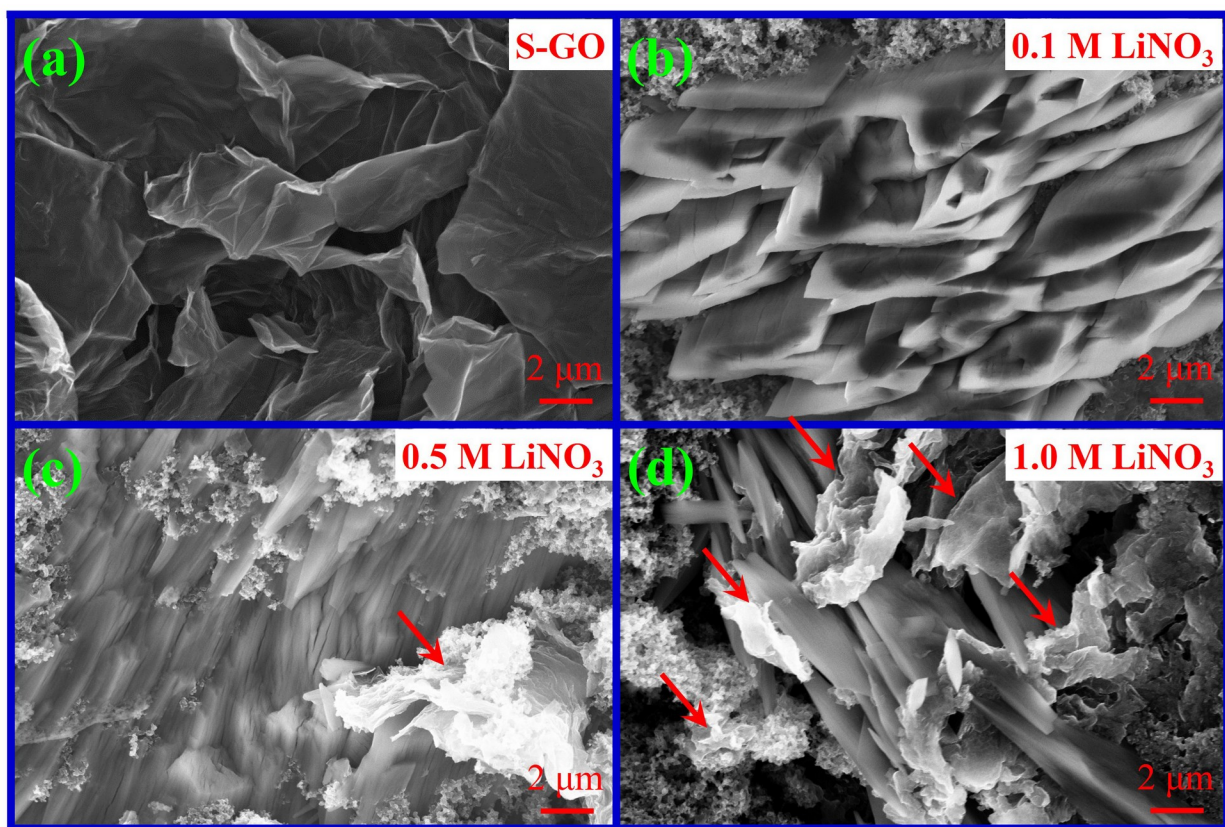
193 **Figure 1:** The electrochemical characterization of the Li-S cells with different  
 194 concentrations of LiNO<sub>3</sub> in the electrolyte. (a) Cycling performance and (b)  
 195 Coulombic efficiency of Li-S cells with 0.1 M, 0.5 M, and 1.0 M LiNO<sub>3</sub> containing  
 196 electrolyte at charge/discharge rate of 0.5 C/1.0 C. (c)-(e) Discharge voltage  
 197 profiles at different cycles of the three cells at 0.05 C. (f) The specific capacity  
 198 and (g) normalized specific capacity values of the three cells at the 500<sup>th</sup>, 800<sup>th</sup>,  
 199 and 1000<sup>th</sup> cycle. The corresponding electrochemical data for the cells with

200 electrolytes containing 0.1 M, 0.5 M, and 1.0 M LiNO<sub>3</sub> are recorded in black, red,  
201 and blue, respectively.

202 To better understand the influence of the LiNO<sub>3</sub> on the cathode side,  
203 scanning electron microscope (SEM) was employed to obtain the morphology  
204 of the cycled cathode materials. Figure 2 displayed the SEM images of the  
205 (a) GO-S, and (b)-(d) the cathode materials in the cells C-0.1, C-0.5, and C-  
206 1.0 cycled for 1000 cycles and stopped at charged states, respectively. The  
207 layer-like conjugated structure with highly developed porous flaky structure  
208 of the pristine GO-S has been described in our previous studies.[28, 32] The  
209 layer-like conjugated structure of the carbon matrix in the cathode materials  
210 showed special advantages, including (1) providing the ability to supply good  
211 electrical contact between the electrode constituents, (2) accommodating  
212 the large volume expansion/shrinkage caused by S-Li<sub>2</sub>S conversation during  
213 the cell discharge/charge process, and (3) trapping the polysulfides with the  
214 porous structure to reduce the shuttle effect.[1, 33-39] These unique  
215 properties make the GO a promising candidate as a support and conductive  
216 agent in the sulfur electrode. However, GO flakes diminished with cycling  
217 and new structures showed up in the cycled materials. Specifically, we found  
218 that the sharp porous surface became blurry and the microporous structure  
219 of the cathode materials became smoother and less porous. Besides these  
220 common structural changes, SEM images also showed some remaining flaky  
221 structure of GO, whose amounts are connected to the LiNO<sub>3</sub> concentration  
222 applied to the cells. In the cathode C-0.1, no or little such layer-like flaky  
223 structure was observed; while in the cathodes C-0.5 and C-1.0, obviously  
224 more flaky structures were retained; and the cell C-1.0 presented the highest  
225 amount of GO persevered. For clear comparison, the GO flakes are pointed  
226 out with red arrows in Figures 2 (c) and (d).

227 The SEM results led to a conclusion that a high concentration of LiNO<sub>3</sub> in the  
228 electrolyte is essentially beneficial to retain the conjugated structure of the  
229 GO in the cathode, which helped to enhance the electrochemical behavior of

230 the Li-S cells. However, the question why the Li-S cell with electrolyte  
231 containing 0.5 M  $\text{LiNO}_3$  delivered better cell performance compared to the  
232 one with higher concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  still remains. Generally, the  
233 morphological change is associated with the changes of the surface chemical  
234 properties, which is beyond the information we can get from SEM results.  
235 Thus, we employed element-resolved and chemical environment-sensitive  
236 spectroscopic technique to gain more details on the cycled sulfur electrodes.  
237



238

239 **Figure 2: SEM images of the S-GO nano-composites and cathode materials of**  
240 **cycled cells with electrolyte containing (b) 0.1 M, (c) 0.5 M, and (d) 1.0 M**  
241  **$\text{LiNO}_3$ . The GO flakes have been labeled in the figures with red arrows.**

242 XAS, which probes the transition from the core level to the conduction band,  
243 is a powerful technique to investigate the electronic structure and chemical  
244 environment of materials. In addition, by recording the absorption signals in

245 different detection modes, different probing depths can be achieved  
246 simultaneously.[40-42] In this work, the TEY and TFY modes, which probe the  
247 depths of ~5 nm and ~100 nm layer, respectively, were employed to  
248 investigate the sulfur electrodes.[28, 41] The depth profile information  
249 provided detailed information on the CEI layer. Taking advantage of the  
250 element specificity, different S and C species in the electrodes were  
251 separately investigated by measuring the C K-edge and S K-edge signals,  
252 respectively.

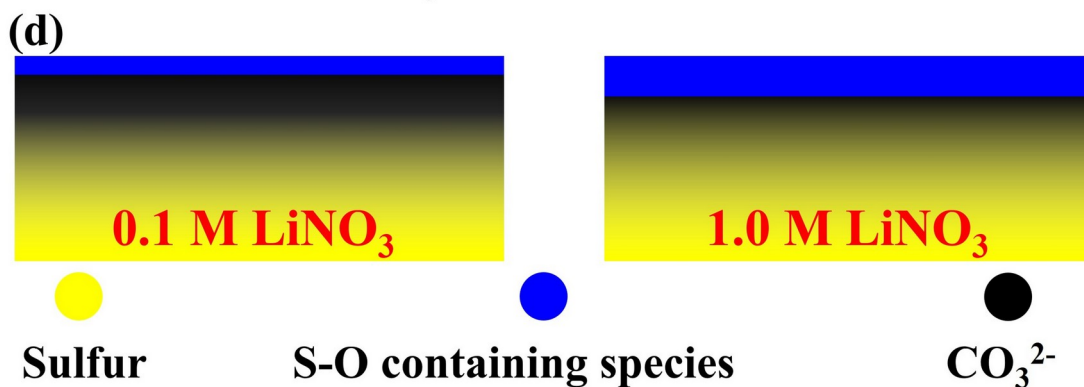
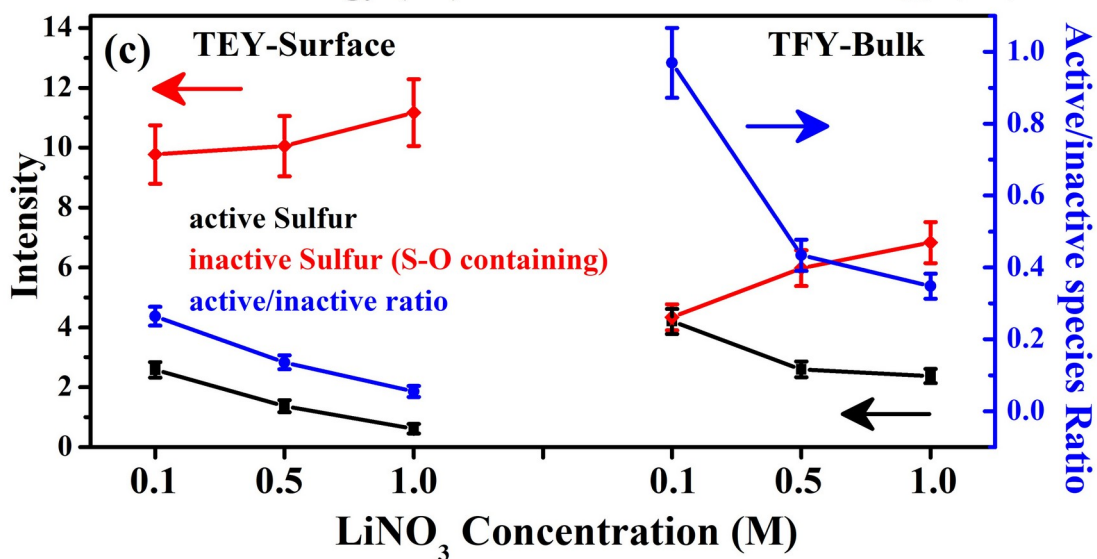
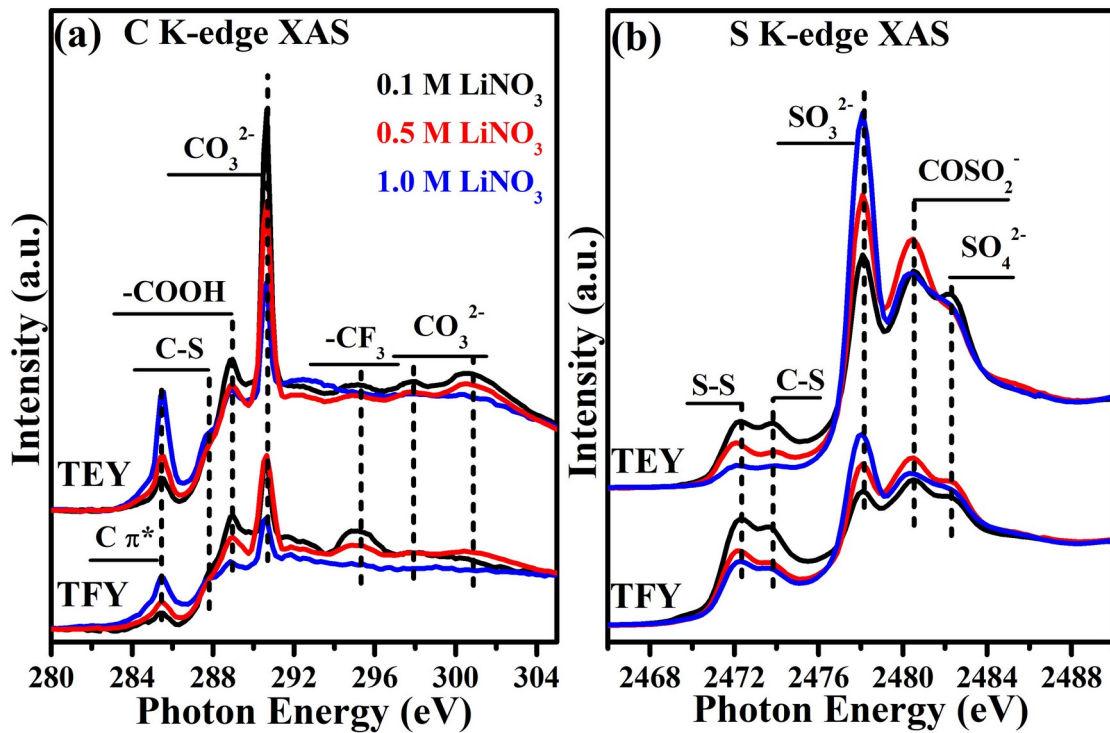
253 The SEM images indicated that the GO structure has been damaged during  
254 the cell cycling, which is one of the main reasons for the degradation of the  
255 cell performances. The C K-edge XAS (Figure 3(a)) tracks the changes of the  
256 graphene oxide electronic structure, which will help to reach further  
257 understanding of the changes that take place in the sulfur electrode during  
258 cycling.

259 Figure S1 shows the C K-edge XAS spectra of the pristine GO-S sample,  
260 which showed spectra similar to those reported previously.[43, 44] After  
261 cycling, the C K-edge XAS spectra of the sulfur electrode materials changed,  
262 mainly evident as the appearance of a new peak at 290.6 eV, and the  
263 decrease of the GO peaks. The intensity of the new peak, assigned to  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ,  
264 [27, 32] is associated with the amount of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the cell. Both the surface  
265 and bulk signals indicated that the higher concentrations of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  added to  
266 the electrolyte, the smaller amount of  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  formed on the cathode materials.  
267 The formation of the  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  layer probably hindered the transportation of the  
268 Li ions between the electrolyte and the sulfur during cell operation, which is  
269 detrimental to the cell performance.[32] The appearance of the  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  species  
270 on the cycled sulfur electrode is an indication of the damage to the GO  
271 structure. Hence, the changes of  $\pi^*$  peak at 285.5 eV representing the  
272 conjugation of the GO structure[44] are detailed.

273 Figure 3(a) shows that a stronger intensity of the  $\pi^*$  peak was observed on  
274 both the surface and bulk of the cathode materials as a result of adding  
275 higher concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  to the electrolyte, implying the degradation

276 degrees of the GO conjugated structure is determined by the  $\text{LiNO}_3$   
277 concentration. From the peak intensity changes, it is clear that more GO  
278 conjugated structure survived during the cell cycling with the presence of  
279  $\text{LiNO}_3$  of high concentration in the electrolyte, which is consistent with what  
280 we obtained from the SEM data. This is understandable due to the catalytic  
281 properties of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  on the transformation from long chain PS to elemental S  
282 during the cell charging process.[19] The decreased energy barrier for the  
283 reaction reduced the local ion diffusion driven force and hence protected the  
284 charge transfer framework, i.e. GO conjugated structure.  
285





287 **Figure 3: XAS characterization of sulfur electrodes by using (a) C K-edge XAS and**  
288 **(b) S K-edge XAS in both TEY and TFY detection modes. The scale for the TEY**  
289 **spectra was expanded for easy comparison. The sulfur electrodes from the cells C-**  
290 **0.1, C-0.5, and C-1.0 are presented in black, red, and blue lines, respectively. The**  
291 **peaks representing different species are labeled with dashed lines. (c) Intensities**  
292 **of the active S-S and C-S containing species, inactive S-O containing species, and**  
293 **intensity ratio of the active/inactive on the cathode materials of the three cells at**  
294 **both the surface and bulk. The active species, inactive species, the ratio of the**  
295 **active/inactive species were recorded in black, red, and blue, respectively. (d) The**  
296 **schemes representing the distribution of the active sulfur (S-S, C-S), inactive**  
297 **sulfur ( $\text{SO}_3^{2-}$ ,  $\text{COSO}_2^-$ , and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ), and insulation carbon containing component**  
298 **( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) on the cathode materials with 0.1 M and 1.0 M  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the electrolyte,**  
299 **respectively. The active sulfur components, insulating S-O containing sulfur**  
300 **components, and insulating  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  layer were displayed in yellow, blue, and black,**  
301 **respectively.**

302 Figure 3(b) shows the S K-edge XAS of the sulfur electrodes in cells cycled  
303 with electrolyte containing different concentrations of  $\text{LiNO}_3$ . Five peaks can  
304 be observed at 2472.2 eV, 2473.7 eV, 2478.2 eV, 2480.6 eV, and 2482.2 eV,  
305 respectively, in the S K-edge XAS spectra. The first two peaks, originating  
306 from the S-S and C-S species,[30, 45, 46] represented the recyclable sulfur  
307 sources that can participate in the electrochemical reaction. These two  
308 peaks are also observed in the spectra of the pristine GO-S sample, shown in  
309 Figure S1. After cycling the cell, three peaks, representing  $\text{SO}_3^{2-}$ ,  $\text{COSO}_2^-$ , and  
310  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , respectively,[27, 28, 47, 48] have appeared up in the high photon  
311 energy region, which correspond to species of high valence state. The high  
312 valence state species don't participate in the following electrochemical  
313 reaction, causing a losses of the cell capacity. These S-O containing  
314 compounds are electrical insulators, which are detrimental to the cell  
315 performance. It should be noted that the formation of these S-O containing  
316 species and the  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  layer as well as the loss of the conjugated structure are  
317 observed in Li-S cells with different electrolyte systems, including the classic  
318 DOL/DME based electrolyte[27, 32]. The CEI evolution observed in this work

319 should apply to most Li-S cells. Figure S2 shows the direct comparison of  
320 surface- and bulk- sensitive S K-edge spectra of the cathode materials,  
321 providing direct observations of the distribution of the S species across the  
322 sulfur electrode. It is found that the loss of active recyclable S as well as the  
323 accumulation of the inactive S-O containing insulating species were much  
324 more obvious on the CEI layer than on the cathode bulk, causing a negative  
325 influence on the cell performance.[32] Based on these concepts, the means  
326 whereby  $\text{LiNO}_3$  altered the sulfur electrode, especially the CEI layer, has been  
327 quantified by use of the S K-edge XAS spectra.

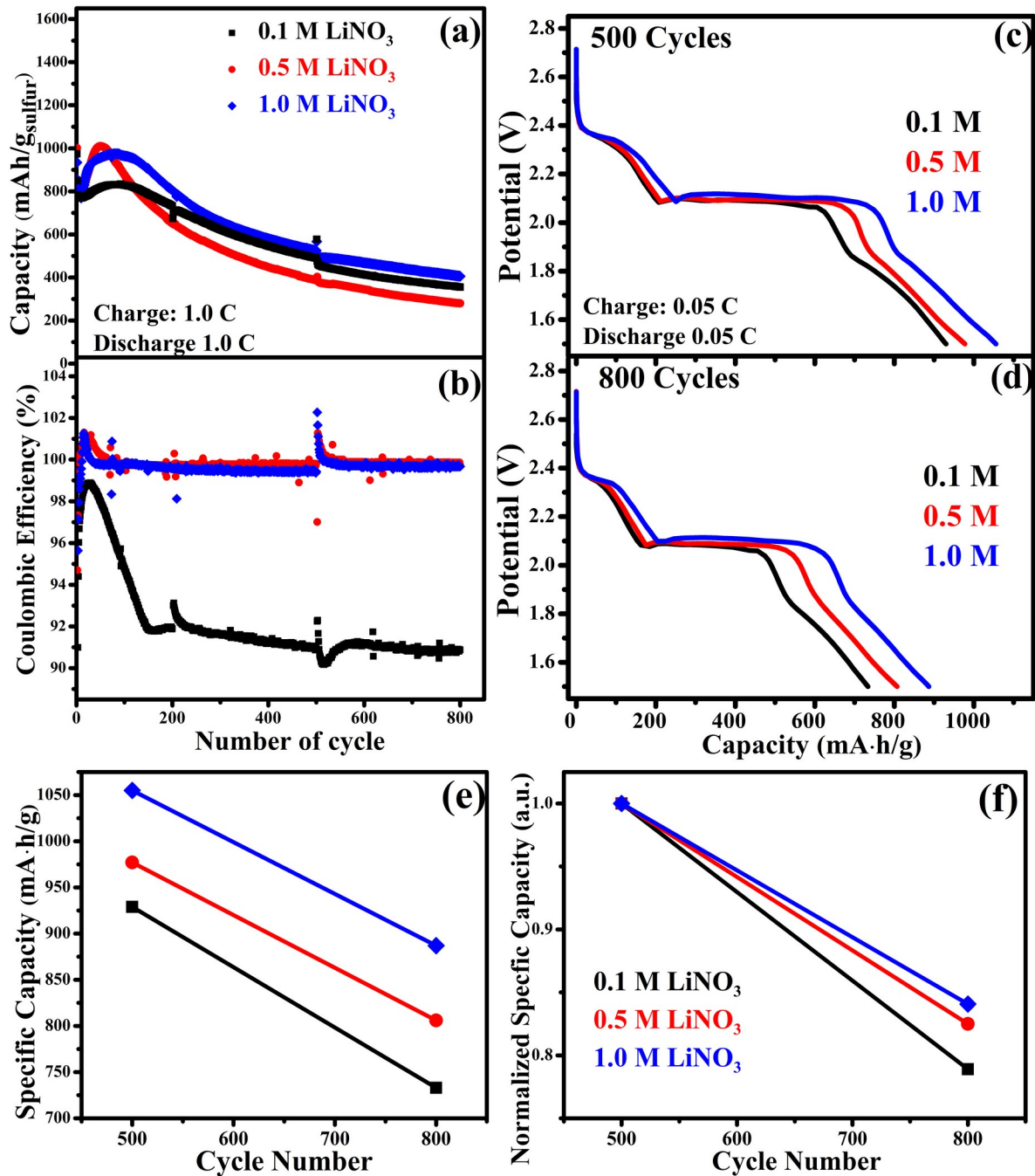
328 After subtracting an arctangent background, the spectrum was fitted with  
329 several Gaussian peaks, as shown in the Figure S23. To get clear  
330 comparisons, Figure 3(c) displayed the peak intensity of each compound as a  
331 function of the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  concentrations in the electrolyte. Clearly, the  
332 rechargeable S compounds containing S-S and C-S bonds decreased on both  
333 the surface and bulk when higher a concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  was in the  
334 electrolyte. On the contrary, the inactive high valence states S species peaks  
335 increased with higher concentrations of  $\text{LiNO}_3$ . The promoted side reaction  
336 occurring at the CEI layer with high  $\text{LiNO}_3$  concentration may be connected to  
337 the reaction associated with a pronounced additional plateau at the end of  
338 the discharge cycle reported previously[49]. In addition, the reported higher  
339 over-potential with high  $\text{LiNO}_3$  concentration can be explained by the  
340 formation of more insulating layer at the CEI[49]. Accordingly, it is inferred  
341 that high concentrations of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the electrolyte significantly promoted  
342 the consumption of the rechargeable S and the formation of insulating  
343 species on the CEI layer, which are not beneficial to the cell performance.  
344 [50]

345 Combining the structural changes of C based and S based cathode  
346 constituents caused by adding  $\text{LiNO}_3$  to the electrolyte, how the  $\text{LiNO}_3$   
347 changed the CEI layer and bulk of the sulfur electrode is schematically  
348 presented in Figure 3(d). Essentially,  $\text{LiNO}_3$  is regarded as a double-edged  
349 sword in Li-S cells: (1) on one hand, increasing the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  concentration



350 decreased the utilization of S, which is detrimental to the cell performances;  
351 and (2) on the other hand, increasing  $\text{LiNO}_3$  concentrations helped the  
352 survival of the GO conjugated structure, which is beneficial to the cell  
353 performance. These two competitive effects complicated the understanding  
354 of the influence of the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  on the sulfur electrode. The work reported here  
355 helped to rationalize our understanding of the electrochemical behavior of  
356 cells with different concentrations of  $\text{LiNO}_3$ . First, the cells C-0.5 and C-1.0  
357 showed the significantly higher coulombic efficiency values, which is due to  
358 the strongly promoted retention of the GO conjugated structures due to the  
359 higher concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the cell electrolyte. Second, the cell C-0.5  
360 apparently delivered the best capacity stability compared to the other two  
361 cells. This is because its sulfur electrode reached a balance state, wherein  
362 the conjugated structure of GO was retained while the rechargeable active  
363 sulfur was not severely consumed and the inactive sulfur was not  
364 significantly accumulated. On the contrary, the other two cells' sulfur  
365 electrodes suffered from either the loss of active sulfur species and the  
366 accumulation of inactive sulfur species or strongly damaged GO conjugated  
367 structure, caused by either high or low concentrations of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the cell  
368 electrolyte. To summarize, our study implies that: (1) the coulombic  
369 efficiency of the cell during long-term cycling is more related to the structure  
370 of the carbon matrix wherein the S is incorporated than the structure of the S  
371 species; (2) the real (specific) capacity of the cell is determined by both the  
372 structure of the carbon matrix and structure of the S species in the cathode  
373 materials.

374



375

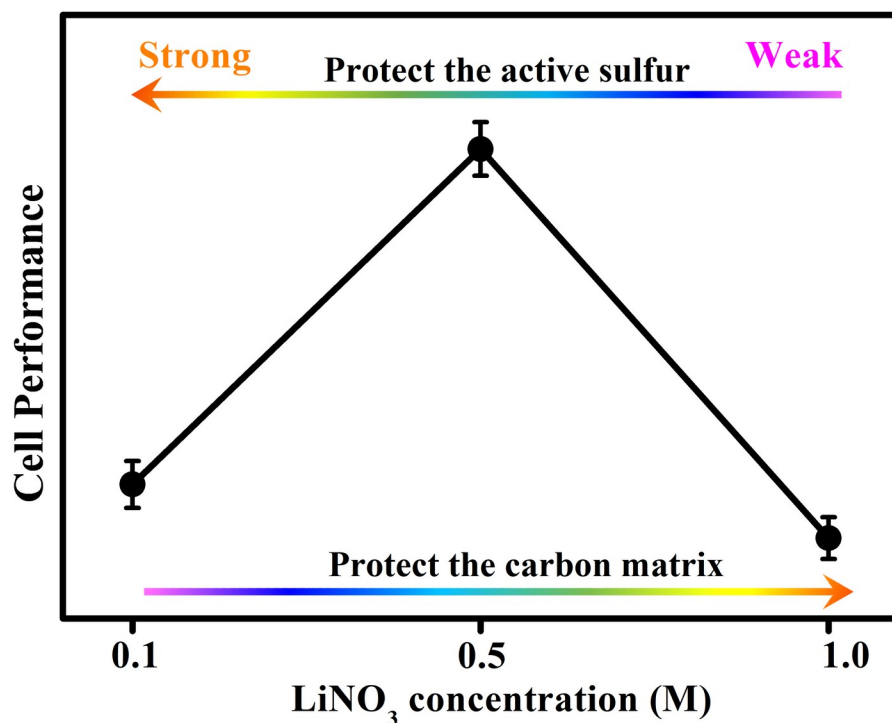
376

377 Combining the electrochemical behavior, morphological characterization and  
 378 the XAS investigations, we propose a detailed mechanism of how  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in  
 379 the electrolyte influenced the properties of the CEI layer and sulfur electrode  
 380 and thus influenced the cell performance. As shown in Figure 4, adding  $\text{LiNO}_3$

381 to the electrolyte can simultaneously consume the active sulfur, accumulate  
382 the inactive sulfur components and protect the carbon matrix conjugated  
383 structure. Thus, an optimal concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  should be a balance  
384 between consuming active sulfur and maintaining the carbon matrix  
385 structure.

386 Finally, we want to point out that the cell activation process is also  
387 connected to the  $\text{LiNO}_3$  concentration in the electrolyte. The normalized  
388 capacities (using the initial capacities) of the cells shown in Figure S4  
389 indicated that cells with electrolyte containing 0.5 M  $\text{LiNO}_3$  showed the  
390 earliest activation, while the cells with electrolyte containing 1.0 M  $\text{LiNO}_3$   
391 demonstrated the longest activation process. In the set of cells C, the cell C-  
392 0.5 showed the best activation result, while the cells C-1.0 and C-0.1 showed  
393 similar results; in the set of cells CH, the cell CH-1.0 showed the fastest  
394 activation, while CH-0.5 and CH-0.1 showed slightly slower activation. All the  
395 activation results in the first 100 cycles showed a trend similar to that of the  
396 cell performances, which may indicate the activation of the cathode  
397 materials may also be controlled by the effects of the consuming of active  
398 sulfur and protecting the carbon matrix structure caused by adding  $\text{LiNO}_3$  to  
399 the electrolyte. The detailed mechanism of the activation process of the Li-S  
400 cell may need more investigation.

401



402

403 **Figure 4: The mechanism of how the LiNO<sub>3</sub> in the electrolyte altered the sulfur**  
 404 **electrode properties and thus influenced the cell performance.**

405 More broadly, some quintessential information can be obtained to guide the  
 406 future design of an improved electrolyte for Li-S cells. First, a low LiNO<sub>3</sub>  
 407 concentration is not favorable for cell operation, due to the damage of the  
 408 carbon matrix structure, which cannot be fully compensated for by the well  
 409 protected active sulfur. For the use of LiNO<sub>3</sub> in Li/S cells, we need to seek an  
 410 optimum balance concerning the well- retained carbon matrices and the  
 411 sulfur consumption that produces S-O species. We propose that this balance  
 412 point is determined by the charge rates as high charge rate requires high  
 413 charge carrier mobility that is achievable by well- retained carbon matrix  
 414 conjugated structure. Thus we propose the following possible scenarios: (1)  
 415 at moderate charge rate, a moderate LiNO<sub>3</sub> concentration is desired as the  
 416 carbon matrix structures are well preserved by using a not too high  
 417 concentration of LiNO<sub>3</sub> and the consumption of the active sulfur should be  
 418 taken into consideration; (2) at high charge rates, a higher LiNO<sub>3</sub>

419 concentration is desired as the carbon matrix structures is preserved, and it  
420 is beneficial to the cell performance to protect the carbon matrixes even at  
421 the cost of consuming some active sulfur. We believe this strategy may  
422 provide some guidance to the advanced cell design and deserve some  
423 further investigation.

#### 424 **4. Conclusions:**

425 We have characterized the properties of sulfur electrode materials especially  
426 the CEI layer in Li-S cells and the cells' electrochemical behavior to explore  
427 the role of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the Li-S cell. We found that  $\text{LiNO}_3$  can increase the  
428 consumption of the active sulfur and help to protect the carbon matrix  
429 structure. These competitive effects on the cell performance determined that  
430 a proper concentration of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  is required to achieve the most optimized  
431 cell performance. Our study reported new and direct evidence of how the  
432  $\text{LiNO}_3$  in the electrolyte changes the properties of the sulfur electrode and  
433 thus influences the cell performance. The results provide new insight on the  
434 effect of  $\text{LiNO}_3$  on the Li-S cell, establishing a possibility of providing a new  
435 strategy to explore and develop better  $\text{LiNO}_3$ -containing electrolytes for  
436 advanced Li-S cells that can be used for scaled-up applications. This work  
437 also illustrated the capability of synchrotron X-ray techniques to provide  
438 unique information regarding the electronic structure and its potential to  
439 help understand the properties of the materials.

440

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