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Revisiting the origin of cycling enhanced capacity of Fe₃O₄ based nanostructured electrode for lithium ion batteries

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ABSTRACT

We identify that reversible formation/decomposition of lithium oxide, pulverization of Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles, and electrolyte reactions, are contributors to the enhanced capacity observed in the Fe_3O_4 electrode upon long cycling. Introducing three-dimensional graphene foam to form a composite with Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles largely increases the capacity (~ 1220 mA h g⁻¹ vs. ~ 690 mA h g⁻¹) and promotes the cycling induced capacity enhancement (an earlier capacity rise and a faster rising rate) of the Fe_3O_4 electrode. Together with Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles, the presence of graphene effectively promotes the electrolyte reactions and reversible formation/ decomposition of lithium oxide. At the same time, activation of GF also occurs in the presence of Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles, further increases the capacity of the nanocomposite.

1. Introduction

Magnetite (Fe₃O₄) is a promising electrode material for lithium ion batteries (LIBs) due to its high theoretical capacity (924 mA h g⁻¹), abundant material supply, environmental benignity, and low cost [1–6]. As Fe₃O₄ has a low electronic conductivity, it is commonly composited with conductive materials [4,5,7–14], for which graphene based materials are among the best choices. Examples include grafting bicontinuous mesoporous Fe₃O₄ nanostructure onto graphene foam (GF) [10] and Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles (NPs) anchored onto GF [13]. These electrodes exhibited high reversible capacity (800 mA h g⁻¹ at 1 C [10]), fast charging and discharging capability (300 mA h g⁻¹ at 20 C [13]), and good cycling stability (785 mA h g⁻¹ at 1 C up to 500 cycles [10]).

It has been found that the capacity of the Fe_3O_4 -based electrode usually shows a decrease during the initial cycles [10,13]. The capacity fading has been commonly attributed to the formation of unstable SEI layer [15]. On the other hand, cycling induced capacity increase has also been found in the Fe_3O_4 -based electrode [10,13,14] after long cycles. Similar phenomenon has also been widely observed in other metal oxide electrodes upon long cycles [16–20]. The cycling enhanced capacity increase can be significant and stable [16], and its origin arouses much scientific interest. Much effort has been devoted to the search for possible reasons for the cycling dependent capacity change. Nevertheless, consensus has not been reached and the origin of the capacity change along with cycling remains unclear. One of the possible reasons is the lack of dynamic information directly related to the changes within the cells, due to the limited access to in-situ/operando experiments in many places. On the other hand, Fe₃O₄-based electrodes are usually composited with other additives, possible contribution from multiple factors makes it difficult to identify the origin.

In the present work, we first study the electrochemical performance of pure Fe₃O₄ trying to understand its cycling induced capacity change when excluding contribution from other material components. We have found that pure Fe₃O₄ electrode suffers from capacity fading in the first dozens of cycles, but experiences a capacity recovery/further rise then the capacity rises at a rate of ~ 1.4 mA h g⁻¹ per cycle until it eventually stabilizes at ~ 690 mA h g⁻¹. Comprehensive study of the microstructure, electronic structure, and electrochemical characteristic evolution of the pure Fe₃O₄ electrode as a function of cycling reveals the origin of the capacity change as observed in pure Fe₃O₄ electrode. By introducing three-dimensional (3D) GF to form a nanocomposite with Fe₃O₄, we found further enhancement in the capacity and the cycling performance, that is, a rising rate of ~ 2.2 mA h g⁻¹ per cycle,

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Fig. 1. (a) SEM image of the Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu sample. (b) WAXS line integration of the original Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu. (c) Cyclic voltammogram of Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V vs. Li⁺/Li. (d) Specific capacities of Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu samples at different rates.

and eventually stabilizing at ~ 1220 mA h g⁻¹. Multiple contribution of graphene as well as the synergistic effect of graphene and Fe₃O₄ in contributing to the cycling enhanced reversible capacity are elaborated.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Preparation of pure Fe₃O₄ electrode and GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite

Fe₃O₄ was deposited on Cu foil by an electroplating process. A mixture consisting of 2 M NaOH, 0.09 M Fe₂(SO₄)₃:5H₂O and 0.1 M triethanol-amine was used as electrolyte [21]. The Fe₃O₄ NPs were produced under stirring at 70 °C and a three-electrode set-up was used. A piece of Cu foil acted as the working electrode, whereas a Pt electrode served as the counter electrode. All potentials were quoted against an HgO/Hg° reference electrode. A current density of -5 mA cm^{-2} was applied to ensure coating of Fe₃O₄ on the Cu foil. After electroplating, the sample was carefully washed with deionized water to remove excess electrolyte and then dried in a vacuum oven overnight. The mass of deposited Fe₃O₄ was obtained by the weight difference of the samples before and after electroplating.

Graphene (6 carbon technology) was grown on Ni foam by chemical vapor deposition (CVD). Freestanding GF was obtained via etching off most of the Ni backbone in 2 M FeCl₃ solution at 50 °C and then washed by deionized water. In order to well control the GF during the electroplating process, 10 wt% of Ni was retained for obtaining the mechanically stable GF. The GF was vacuum dried overnight to remove the residual water. To determine the mass of the GF, the samples were weighed before and after CVD deposition.

 $\rm Fe_3O_4$ was deposited on GF by a similar electroplating process. A square-wave pulse current density of -5 mA cm⁻² with a period of 0.25 s and a duty ratio of 0.625 was applied to ensure conformal coating of Fe₃O₄ on the GF.

2.2. Structure and morphology characterization

The morphology of the samples was characterized by a field-emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, Quanta 200, FEI). TEM measurements were also carried out with a Tecnai F20 (FEI) microscope operating at 200 kV. Raman analysis was performed using a Micro Raman spectrometer (RM-1000, Renishaw Co., Ltd.) with a 10 mW helium-neon laser at 514 nm. The near edge X-ray adsorption fine structure (NEXAFS) experiments at the carbon K edge and oxygen K edge were conducted at the Beamline BL09A2 of the National Synchrotron Radiation Research Center located in Hsinchu, Taiwan. The NEXAFS experiments at the iron $L_{2,3}$ edge were conducted in X-ray fluorescence yield (FLY) mode on the BL27SU Beamline at SPring-8 in Japan. The Synchrotron wide angle X-ray scattering (WAXS) experiments were carried out at the BL23A1 X-ray Diffraction Beamline at National Synchrotron Radiation Research Center. The wavelength of incident beam was 0.0827 nm.

2.3. Electrochemical characterization

The electrochemical properties of the pure Fe_3O_4 electrode and GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite were characterized by using CR2032 coin-type cells with Li foil as a counter electrode. The liquid electrolyte was 1.0 M LiPF₆ in the mixture of 1:1 (by volume) ethylene carbonate and diethyl carbonate (Novolyte Co.). In order to better understand the capacity contribution of GF in the GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite, pure GF was also assembled to coin-type cells for measurement of the electrochemical properties. No binder or conducting additive was used in all of the electrodes. CV was conducted at a scanning rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ between 0.01 and 3.0 V vs. Li⁺/Li (CHI660, Shanghai CH Instrument Co., Ltd.). Galvanostatic charging/discharging cycles were tested between 0.01 and 3.0 V vs. Li⁺/Li at different rates on a multichannel battery test system (CT2001A, Wuhan Kingnuo Electronic Co., Ltd.).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Pure Fe_3O_4 electrode

Pure Fe₃O₄ electrode is fabricated via electroplating of Fe₃O₄ on Cu foil. The sample is denoted as Fe₃O₄-on-Cu. The SEM image discloses dense faceted particles of \sim 100 nm on the surface of copper (Fig. 1a). Synchrotron WAXS measurement of the same sample shows the diffraction signals of both Cu and Fe₃O₄ (Fig. 1b).

Fig. 1c shows the cyclic voltammetry (CV) of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu samples at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V vs. Li⁺/Li. A well-defined peak is observed at ~ 0.6 V in the first discharge cycle. The peak is generally ascribed to reduction of Fe³⁺ or Fe^{2+} to Fe° ($Fe_3O_4 + xLi^+ + xe^- \rightarrow Li_xFe_3O_4$, $Li_xFe_3O_4 + (8-x)Li^+$ + $(8 - x)e^- \rightarrow 4Li_2O + 3Fe)$ [5] and possible reaction with the electrolyte. Cathodic lithium insertion at ~ 0.8 and 1.4 V, and the anodic lithium extraction at 1.6 V are observed in the second and third cycles of Fe₃O₄-on-Cu samples, originated from electrochemical reduction/oxidation (Fe₃O₄↔Fe) during lithiation/delithiation. To investigate the electrochemical performance of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample, we conducted the galvanostatic discharge-charge measurements at various current densities (Fig. 1d). The Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample exhibits a discharge capacity of $\sim~593.6~mA~h~g^{-1}$ at low discharge rate of 0.5 A g^{-1} . Upon increasing discharge-charge rates to 1, 2, and 5 A g⁻¹, the reversible capacities are maintained at about 508.3, 413.4 and $265.3 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$.

The discharge-charge cycling was performed at 1 A g^{-1} rate for 500 cycles (Fig. 2a). The Fe₃O₄-on-Cu electrode suffers from capacity fading

in the first dozens of cycles. The specific capacity decreases from 501.4 (at the second cycle) to 412.5 mA h g⁻¹ (at the 56th cycle). After that, the capacity of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu electrode rises at a rate of ~ 1.4 mA h g⁻¹ per cycle from ~ 180th cycle to ~ 320th cycle and eventually stabilizes at ~ 690 mA h g⁻¹. Fig. S1a (Supplementary material) presents the coulombic efficiency of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu electrode during charge/discharge cycling. The coulombic efficiency of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu in the first cycle is 77.59%. After the first few cycles, the coulombic efficiency of Fe₃O₄-on-Cu rises to 98.12–99.96%.

In order to understand the cycling induced capacity changes, Fe Ledge NEXAFS was performed in X-ray FLY mode on Fe₃O₄-on-Cu processed for different numbers of cycles, as shown in Fig. 2b. Fe L-edge NEXAFS spectra are dominated by a set of peaks around 709 eV (L₃, Fe $2p_{3/2}$ to Fe 3d transitions) and another set of peaks around 721 eV (L₂, Fe $2p_{1/2}$ to Fe 3d transitions). Due to the self-absorption effect, the L₃ peaks are highly distorted and we focus our discussion on L₂ line profiles. The L_2 peak is split into two peaks (the two labeled A_1 and A_2), due to the p-d Coulomb and exchange interactions, which represents the coordination of the Fe. Peak A1 and peak A2 appear at 721.6 and 723.1 eV, respectively. After the first discharge (sample 1 D), reduced Fe^{3+} or Fe^{2+} to Fe° leads to the disappearance of L₂ splitting and energy red shift to 720.9 eV, which is characteristic of Fe°. The split feature reappears after the first cycle (sample 1 C) and peak A₁ and A₂ are then blue-shifted to 721.4 and 723.4 eV, respectively, indicating oxidation of Fe° back to Fe³⁺ or Fe²⁺. However, after 50 cycles (sample 50 C), splitting of the L_2 peaks become less obvious and a red-shift to 721.2 eV is observed. This suggests incomplete Fe° oxidation to Fe³⁺ or Fe^{2+} at 50 cycles. The presence of Fe° at the end of 50 cycles charged samples of Fe₃O₄-on-Cu suggests the incomplete redox reaction of Fe₃O₄ at early stage of the cycling, and thus provides an explanation to



Fig. 2. (a) Cycling stability of Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu cycled at a rate of 1 A g⁻¹. (b) Fe L-edge NEXAFS spectra for Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu at different cycling stages. (c) Cyclic voltammogram of Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu sample at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V vs. Li⁺/Li after the 5, 50, 225, and 500 charge/discharge cycles. (d) Line integration of WAXS measurement of discharged Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu and charged Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu sample after 300 cycles.



Fig. 3. Photographs of (a) Ni foam; (b) graphene deposited on Ni foam; (c) GF after 90 wt% Ni being etched off, and (d) Fe_3O_4 deposited on GF shown in Fig. 3c. (e) SEM image of CVD GF after 90 wt% Ni being etched. The high magnification image can be found in the inset. (f) SEM image of the GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite. The high magnification image is in the inset. (g) TEM image taken from the GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite sample. (h) SAED patterns of single Fe_3O_4 nanoparticle. (i) Carbon K edge NEXAFS spectra of GF and GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite. (j) Oxygen K edge NEXAFS spectra of GF-Fe₃O₄ and Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu samples. (k) Cyclic voltammogram of GF-Fe₃O₄ sample at scan rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V vs. Li⁺/Li. (l) Specific capacities of GF-Fe₃O₄ samples at different rates.

the observed capacity decay recognized in the first dozens of cycles. Interestingly, a recovery of the L_2 edge line profile to that of the first cycle appears afterwards (sample 300 C).

The CVs (scanning rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} in the voltage range of 0.01-3.0 V) of Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample were also conducted at different cycles, aiming at disclosing the correlation between the cycling dependent electrode performance and the specific chemistry taking place. Fig. 2c compares the CV profiles of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample taken after

5, 50 (before capacity increases), 225 (the beginning of the capacity rise), and 500 cycles. Compared to the CV profile of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample after 5 cycles, the shape of the CV file after 50 cycles does not change significantly. However, an additional reduction peak below 0.02 V and an oxidation peak around 2.8–3.0 V appear at 225 charge/ discharge cycles. These features become more prominent in the CV of Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample after 500 cycles.

The large downturn below 0.02 V observed in the CVs of Fe₃O₄-on-

Cu sample after 500 cycles may result from the electrolyte reactions [22,23] or the Li plating, contributing to the capacity increase of the electrodes after long cycling. Nevertheless, SEM characterization of the discharged Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample after 300 cycles does not suggest Li plating (Fig. S2, Supplementary material). This is consistent with the WAXS data obtained by synchrotron radiation (Fig. 2d)-no signal of Li metal (q = ~ 2.53) presents. Instead, the WAXS data reveals the presence of Li₂O and Fe, both of which are the expected products of the complete redox reaction at the end of discharge (Fe₃O₄ + 8Li⁺ + 8e⁻ \rightarrow 4Li₂O + 3Fe). Therefore, the possibility of Li plating can be excluded.

The reaction corresponding to the upturn at $\sim 2.8-3.0$ V observed in the CVs of Fe_3O_4 -on-Cu sample in Fig. 2c also contributes to the capacity increase after long cycling. This voltage range coincides with the oxidation voltage of lithium oxide decomposition $(2Li_2O \rightarrow Li_2O_2 +$ $2Li^+ + 2e^-$, E = 2.87 V [24]). The reaction of Li_2O to Li_2O_2 usually does not happen because Li₂O₂ can be highly insulating [25], automatically shut down the reaction. In fact, the WAXS pattern taken from the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample after 300 cycles does reveal the presence of Li₂O₂ at the end of charging (Fig. 2d). The experimental results suggest that the Fe₃O₄ acts as catalyst for such a reaction. The persistent and stable capacity increase after long cycling, as well as the corresponding CV data indicate the electrochemical reversibility of the lithium oxide formation/decomposition and the electrolyte reactions, serving as an important contributor to the cycling enhanced capacity of the Fe₃O₄ electrode. Comparing to the WAXS line integration of the as-fabricated Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample (Fig. 1b), the peaks corresponding to Fe₃O₄ in Fe₃O₄-on-Cu after 300 cycles (Fig. 2d) broaden and decrease in intensity. This indicates that the Fe₃O₄ is pulverized, becoming nanocrystalline after 300 charge-discharge cycles. It is possible that the pulverization of Fe₃O₄ increases the surface area of the electrode and thus may release more active sites for lithium storage, as argued in the literature [10]. Nevertheless, similar observation of obvious capacity increase has been made in other materials systems [16-20], such as ultrafine MoO_2 nanoparticles (< 2 nm) based composite [18] and ultrafine MnO nanocrystals (< 3 nm) based composites [19], in which cases further pulverization of the crystals, if there is any, would not make significant change to the nanocrystals. In this regard, although we cannot completely exclude its contribution, pulverization of Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles is not likely to be a direct contributor that largely enhance the capacity of the electrode, that is to say, the capacity increase does not mainly come from the "newly generated reaction sites" on Fe₃O₄ due to its increased surface area as a result of particle pulverization. On the other hand, the large surface area associated with small nanoparticles can also promote its catalytic properties in enabling the reversible lithium oxide formation/decomposition.

3.2. $GF-Fe_3O_4$ nanocomposite electrode

Further enhancement in the capacity and the cycling performance of the Fe₃O₄ electrode can be achieved by introducing 3D GF to form a nanocomposite with Fe₃O₄. In such a sample, Fe₃O₄ is electrodeposited on 3D GF under the same experimental conditions as Fe₃O₄-on-Cu. The sample is denoted as GF-Fe₃O₄. Fig. 3a-d shows the morphology of the samples during the GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite fabrication, from Ni foam (Fig. 3a) to graphene on Ni foam (Fig. 3b), to GF by etching off Ni (Fig. 3c), and to GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite by electroplating Fe₃O₄ on GF (Fig. 3d). The mass loading of Fe₃O₄ is ~ 1.54 mg cm⁻² and it takes 79.4% of the total mass of the nanocomposite.

The SEM image shown in Fig. 3e discloses the morphology of GF after etching off the Ni foam. It inherits the structure of the pristine Ni foam – a 3D porous network. After electroplating, the surface of GF becomes rough and dense particles can be seen on the surface (Fig. 3f). These particles can be seen in the high-magnification SEM image in the inset of Fig. 3f. Detailed structural characterizations of Fe₃O₄ NPs in the GF-Fe₃O₄ sample was carried out using TEM. Fig. 3g exhibits a

representative TEM image of a piece of GF and Fe₃O₄ NPs. The sizes of the Fe₃O₄ NPs range from ~ 20 to ~ 180 nm, average at ~ 95 nm. The electron diffraction pattern taken from a single nanoparticle demonstrates the single-crystalline nature of individual Fe₃O₄ nanoparticle in the composite (Fig. 3h).

The structure of graphene has been examined using Raman spectroscopy, which data displays the degree of graphitization of carbon. As shown in Fig. S3 (Supplementary material), Raman spectrum of GF shows three typical peaks of graphene, centered at 1580, 2450, and 2720 cm⁻¹, corresponding to its G, G*, and 2D bands [26]. The G band is indicative of ordered graphitic crystallites of carbon (sp²). Both the G* and 2D bands come from a two-phonon double resonance Raman scattering process. As a comparison, an additional peak centered at 667 cm⁻¹ is observed in the Raman spectrum of the GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite. It corresponds to the A_{1g} mode of Fe₃O₄ [10,13], originating from the symmetrical stretch of oxygen atoms along Fe-O bonds [27]. The disorder-induced D band at 1350 cm⁻¹ does not appear in the Raman spectrum of either GF or GF-Fe₃O₄, owing to the high quality of the GF grown by CVD method.

NEXAFS was employed to probe possible changes in electronic structure of graphene and/or Fe₃O₄ before and after the nanocomposite was formed. Fig. 3i shows the carbon K edge NEXAFS spectra of the GF and GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite. In a typical NEXAFS spectrum of GF, the peak at \sim 285.03 eV corresponds to the π^* transitions and those at 291.17 and 292.14 eV result from σ^* transitions [28–30]. The peak at 288.11 eV, corresponding to a 1s- π^* transition of carboxylic C, suggests the presence of a carboxylic group [29,31]. When the nanocomposite is formed, a similar carbon K edge spectrum is obtained. However, higher absorption intensity of the 288.11 eV transition is observed, implying charge transfer between the graphene and Fe₃O₄, via carboxylic groups. Consistent results are obtained when examining the oxygen K edge (Fig. 3j). Two peaks appear in the oxygen K edge spectra. The peak at 531.6 eV (A) is due to the electron transition from O 1s to the O 2p states hybridized with Fe 3d states [32]. The peak at 541.6 eV (B) is attributed to the transition to O 2p states hybridized with Fe 4sp states [32]. In the oxygen K-edge NEXAFS of GF-Fe₃O₄, an obvious decrease in unoccupied O 2p-Fe 3d hybridized state (peak A) is observed. This further confirms the presence of electron transfer from the carbon to the oxide via oxygen atoms in the GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite [33].

The electrochemical performances of GF-Fe₃O₄ were investigated using half cells with lithium foils as counter electrodes. Fig. 3k show CV of the GF-Fe₃O₄ samples at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} in the voltage range of 0.01-3.0 V vs. Li⁺/Li. Apart from the redox reaction peaks for Fe₃O₄ which is also observed in the CV of Fe₃O₄-on-Cu (Fig. 1c), the CV profiles of GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite show other pairs of redox peaks located at ~ 0.15 and ~ 0.20 V, which corresponds to the lithiation and delithiation of GF [10]. This pair of redox peaks are also observed in the cyclic voltammetry of the pure GF (Fig. S4, Supplementary material). To investigate the electrochemical performance of the GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite, we conducted the galvanostatic discharge-charge measurements at various current densities (Fig. 31). The GF-Fe₃O₄ sample delivers a discharge capacity of 991.8 mA h g^{-1} (based on the total mass of the GF-Fe₃O₄) at low current density of 0.5 Ag^{-1} . A slight decrease in the discharging capacity is observed when the rate is increased to 1 A g⁻¹, and is kept at \sim 700.0 and \sim 500.0 mA h g⁻¹ at further rate increase to 2, and 5 A g^{-1} , respectively. It is worth noting that GF also contributes to the measured capacity of GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite at all rates. As shown in Fig. S5 (Supplementary material), GF exhibits a discharge capacity of $\sim 280.9 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$ at 0.5 A g⁻¹. Even when the discharge current density increases to 5 Ag^{-1} , GF still delivers a capacity of ~ 104.2 mA h g⁻¹. It is obvious that the GF-Fe₃O₄ sample exhibits much higher discharge capacity at various rates than Fe₃O₄-on-Cu. The introduction of GF contributes to the capacity enhancement of GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite.

The introduction of GF is also found to bring additional improvement in the cycling enhanced capacity of Fe_3O_4 . The discharge-charge



Fig. 4. (a) Cycling stability of GF-Fe₃O₄ cycled at a rate of 1 A g⁻¹. (b) Cyclic voltammogram of GF-Fe₃O₄ sample at scan rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V vs. Li⁺/Li after the 5, 50, 125, and 500 charge/discharge cycles.

cycling of GF-Fe₃O₄ was performed at 1 A g^{-1} rate for 500 cycles (Fig. 4a). Similar to Fe₃O₄-on-Cu electrodes, the GF-Fe₃O₄ electrodes suffer from capacity fading in the first dozens of cycles and the capacity fading is attributed to incomplete redox reaction of Fe₃O₄ in the corresponding cycling rounds (Fig. S6, Supplementary material). After that, the capacity of the GF-Fe₃O₄ electrode rises at a rate of ~ 2.2 mA h g⁻¹ per cycle from ~ 100th cycle to ~ 330th cycle, then stabilizes at ~ 1220 mA h g⁻¹. The occurrence of the capacity rise is earlier than that of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample, and the rising rate is also greater when the GF is incorporated. The coulombic efficiency of the GF-Fe₃O₄ electrode during charge/discharge cycling is shown in Fig. S1b (Supplementary material). The coulombic efficiency of the GF-Fe₃O₄ in the first cycle is 71.60%. After the first few cycles, the coulombic efficiency of GF-Fe₃O₄ rises to 98.15–99.97%.

Ex-situ TEM characterizations of the GF-Fe₃O₄ samples were carried out at different cycles. TEM images taken from the GF-Fe₃O₄ samples after 1, 50, and 300 cycles (at the end of charging) are shown in Fig. S7a–c (Supplementary material). Compared to the TEM image (Fig. 3g) of the as-prepared GF-Fe₃O₄ sample (before cycling), the size of the Fe₃O₄ particles after 1 cycle and 50 cycles does not change significantly. Nevertheless, porous like structure starts to form right at the end of the first cycle. When the samples have been cycled for 300 runs, obvious reduction of the Fe₃O₄ particles size to ~ 20 nm can be observed, although these small sized particles remain crystalline (as shown in Fig. S7d, Supplementary material). Pulverization of the Fe₃O₄ is obvious after 300 charge-discharge cycles.

CV of GF-Fe₃O₄ were also conducted after 5, 50 (before capacity increase), 125 (the beginning of the capacity increase), and 500 cycles (Fig. 4b). After 50 cycles, the shape of the CV file remains similar to the result of after 5 cycles. Similar to that of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample, an additional reduction peak below 0.02 V and an oxidation peak around 2.8-3.0 V are observed after 125 cycles. At the end of 500 cycles, these features become more prominent. Similar chemistry holds for reactions correlated with the large downturn below 0.02 V (likely due to electrolyte reactions), and the upturn at ~ 2.8–3.0 V ($2Li_2O \rightarrow Li_2O_2$ + $2Li^+$ + 2e⁻). Evidence of the Li_2O presence is also found in the line integration of WAXS measurement of discharged GF-Fe₃O₄ after 300 cycles (Fig. S8a, Supplementary material). The signal of Li₂O₂ is observed in both the selected area diffraction (Fig. S9, Supplementary material) and the line integration of WAXS measurement of charged GF-Fe₃O₄ after 300 cycles (Fig. S8b, Supplementary material), suggesting that reversible formation and decomposition of lithium oxide occur during the charge-discharge cycles. Such changes are absent in the CV of the pure GF electrode after cycling (Fig. S10b, Supplementary material), further confirming the important role of Fe₃O₄ in the electrolyte reactions and decomposition of lithium oxide. The fact that such reactions appear earlier in the GF-Fe₃O₄ (after 125 cycles) than in the $\rm Fe_3O_4$ -on-Cu (after 225 cycles), reveals the participation of GF (together with $\rm Fe_3O_4)$ in promoting the corresponding reaction.

On the other hand, a distinctive difference exists between the CV profiles of the GF-Fe₃O₄ and that of the Fe₃O₄-on-Cu sample. A significant current increase appear in both the reduction peak around 0.15 V (due to the lithiation of GF) and the oxidation peaks around 0.2 V (due to the delithiation of GF) after 500 cycles in the GF-Fe₃O₄ sample. Although the fact that the 0.15 V peak residing on the slope of the large downturn below 0.02 V makes it arguable on the actual magnitude of the reduction current increase associated with the GF lithiation process, a distinctive > 2 time increase in the oxidation current associated with the GF delithiation suggests activation of GF in the cycling in the presence of Fe₃O₄. It also contributes to the larger capacity increase rate of GF-Fe₃O₄ sample as compared to Fe₃O₄-on-Cu. It is noted that such high increase does not appear in the long cycling of pure GF (Fig. S10a, Supplementary material) and a distinctive increase in the oxidation/reduction current associated with the GF delithiation/ lithiation is absent in the CVs of GF after 500 cycles (Fig. S10b, Supplementary material), suggesting the activation of GF only takes place in the GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite.

Cycling induced capacity increase has been reported in Fe₃O₄ based electrode materials as well as in some other metal oxide systems [10,16–20]. Efforts have been paid to understand the cycling dependent capacity change for possible applications in a broader range, and a few hypotheses were made, including enhanced conductivity of the electrode due to the generation of Fe nanoparticles, the increased surface area resulted from the pulverization of Fe₃O₄, and the decomposition of the electrolyte [10]. Nevertheless, conflicts exist in the literature and the origin of the capacity increase remains arguable. In the present work, we exclude the presence of Fe° as a contributor to the capacity increase after long cycles, as the presence of Fe° actually coincides with a drop in the capacity after 50 cycles and it eventually disappears after 300 cycles (suggested by the Fe L-edge NEXAFS taken from Fe₃O₄-on-Cu and GF-Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite processed for different numbers of cycles (Figs. 2b and S6)). The observation of the large downturn below 0.02 V in the CVs of the sample (Figs. 2c and 4b) supports the hypotheses of electrolyte reactions. The broadened diffraction signal of the Fe₃O₄ particles after 500 cycles (Fig. 2d) and the obvious reduction of the Fe₃O₄ particles size after 300 cycles (Fig. S7c) support the hypotheses of Fe₃O₄ pulverization as a possible contributor to the capacity increase. Nevertheless, experimental evidence of increased capacity of ultrafine MoO₂ nanoparticles (< 2 nm) based composite [18] and ultrafine MnO nanocrystals based composites [19] have been shown in literature, In these cases, further pulverization makes little change to the nanoparticles. The results suggest direct contribution from pulverization of Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles to the capacity enhancement of the electrode is low. Thus, there are other contributors to the capacity

increase after long cycling. In the present work, we give experimental evidence of reversible formation and decomposition of lithium oxide as well as activation of GF in the cycling of GF-Fe₃O₄, which factors serve as important contributors to the capacity increase after long cycling.

Although electrolyte reaction is not encouraged in a battery, the observed reversible formation and decomposition of Li_2O_2 upon cycling is a key issue for the Li-O₂ cells [34]. Much effort has been made to develop effective electrocatalysts that enable the reaction reversibility, which is critical to the development of rechargeable Li-O₂ cells. The present study suggests that the Fe₃O₄ NPs contribute to the reversible formation/decomposition of Li₂O₂, and the participation of GF (together with Fe₃O₄) further promotes such reactions. These findings will inspire the mechanistic study of the above-mentioned catalytic reaction, leading to new designs/development of the electrocatalysts for the Li-O₂ cells.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, we show that pure Fe₃O₄ electrode suffers from capacity fading in the first dozens of cycles, after which the capacity rises at a rate of \sim 1.4 mA h g⁻¹ per cycle until it eventually stabilizes at \sim 690 mA h g⁻¹. Experimental evidence suggests that reversible formation/decomposition of lithium oxide serves as a major contributor to the enhanced capacity upon long cycling. More significant capacity increase (a climbing rate of ~ 2.2 mA h g $^{-1}$ per cycle) upon cycling are obtained when 3D GF is introduced to form a nanocomposite with Fe₃O₄. We find that participation of GF (together with Fe₃O₄) effectively promotes the electrolyte reactions and decomposition of lithium oxide. At the same time, activation of GF is achieved in the presence of Fe₃O₄, further contributing to the capacity increase of GF-Fe₃O₄ sample as compared to that of pure Fe₃O₄ electrode. Our finding will shed new light on understanding the electrochemistry of nano-scale metal-oxide, guiding new architecture design of nano metal-oxides based electrodes. The discovery of GF-Fe₃O₄ promoting the reversible formation and decomposition of Li₂O₂ may inspire research and development of electrocatalysts for the Li-O2 cells.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nanoen.2017.10.001.

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