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Breaking the energy density limit of LiNiO₂: Li₂NiO₃ or Li₂NiO₂?

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ABSTRACT The development of next-generation layered oxide cathodes for high-energy-density electrical vehicle Liion batteries (LIBs) is an urgent topic. The existing method is achieved by continuously increasing the Ni contents of Nibased layered oxides, but it has been limited to LiNiO2. To break this limit and attain increased energy densities, a promising strategy, which involves the introduction of excess Li ions into transition metal (TM) layers to form Li-excess compounds Li₂MO₃ (M is a TM cation), has attracted enormous interest recently. However, another strategy, which has been neglected in recent years, involves the insertion of an extra layer of Li ions between the TM and original Li layers to form Li₂MO₂. In this study, typical reversible Li₂NiO₃ and 1T-Li₂NiO₂ were selected as two representative cathodes to break the limit of LiNiO2, thereby availing comprehensive comparison with LiNiO₂ regarding their overall properties as cathodes from a theoretical perspective. Interestingly, dissimilar to the Ni³⁺/Ni⁴⁺ monoelectron cationic redox associated with LiNiO₂, a polaronic anionic redox reaction occurs in Li2NiO3, while a reversible Ni2+/Ni4+ double-electron redox reaction accompanied by insulator-metal transition occurs in Li₂NiO₂. Owing to this double-electron cationic activity, Li2NiO2 exhibits absolute advantages over the other two materials (LiNiO2 and Li₂NiO₃) as cathodes for LIBs in terms of the capacity, energy density, electronic conductivity, and thermal stability, thus rendering it the most promising candidate for next-generation layered oxide cathodes with high energy densities to break the limit of LiNiO2.

Keywords: Li-ion battery, Li₂NiO₃ and Li₂NiO₂, double-electron redox, anionic redox, theoretical perspective

INTRODUCTION

Rechargeable Li-ion batteries (LIBs) are employed to power most recent portable electronics, as well as electrical vehicles (EVs) and grid energy storage. Accounting for the largest components (based on the weight and cost) in state-of-the-art LIB cells, cathode materials mainly determine their cell-level specific energy. Over the last decade, Ni-based layered oxides {Li[Ni_xMn_yCo_z]O₂ (NMC) and Li[Ni_{1-x-y}Co_xAl_y]O₂ (NCA) [1,2]} have solidified their status as the most preferred cathode material for passenger EV batteries, gradually replacing cubic spinel (LiMn₂O₄) and olivine (LiFePO₄). The energy densities of layered oxides can be generally improved by continuously

increasing the Ni contents; LiNiO₂ is the limit for this increase, thus provoking the following interesting question: is it possible to break this limit and attain higher energy density than LiNiO₂?

One strategy that has recently attracted enormous interest involves the introduction of excess Li ions into the transition metal (TM) layers to form Li-excess compounds, such as Li₂MO₃ (M is a TM cation) [3-5]. However, this strategy suffers from capacity fade with cycling owing to the irreversible loss of the lattice O during the anionic redox process. Another strategy, which has been neglected in recent years, involves sandwiching one layer of Li ions between the TM and original Li layers, thus obtaining a Li₂MO₂ composition. For example, Li₂CuO₂ [6], Li₂NiO₂ [7,8], Li₂CoO₂ [9], Li₂FeO₂ [9], and Li₂Ni_xMn_yCo₂O₂ [10] have been experimentally demonstrated as active compounds or additives in cathodes for LIB applications. Moreover, Li₂CuO₂ is a typical Li₂MO₂ material, which exhibits high theoretical capacity [6], although it is susceptible to irreversible phase transitions during cycling. Thus, the incorporation of other metal cations, such as Mn, Fe, Al, or Ni, into Li₂CuO₂ was adopted [11-16] to improve Li-ion migration and stabilize the structure. Li₂NiO₂ was employed as a cathode [7,8] or sacrificing positive additive in some commercial LIBs in which it affords overdischarge protection [17,18]. Previous studies reported that the synthesized Immm phase of Li2NiO2 (I- Li_2NiO_2) would be irreversibly transformed into the P3m1 phase (1T-Li₂NiO₂) during the first cycle and that this phase would remain unchanged, following further reversible cycles [7,8]. Similar to the NMC layered cathode, the Ni cations in Li₂NiO₂ can also be replaced by other TM cations, such as Mn, Co, or Ti, which can increase the reversible capacity and cycling stability of Li₂NiO₂ [10,19], and this provoked another question: which layered oxide is more promising to break the LiNiO2 limit, Li₂MO₃ or Li₂MO₂?

The phase diagram of the Li₂O-NiO-O region (Fig. 1a) revealed that Li₂NiO₃ and Li₂NiO₂ were the main phases that were identified among the diverse Ni-based lithiation TM layered oxides. Therefore, two typical reversible cathodes, Li₂NiO₃ and 1T-Li₂NiO₂, were selected as two representative materials for developing next-generation TM layered oxide cathodes to break the limit of the energy density (LiNiO₂) and avail comprehensive theoretical comparison with LiNiO₂ regarding their overall properties as cathodes. Dissimilar to the Ni³⁺/Ni⁴⁺ monoelectron cationic redox in LiNiO₂, a polaronic anionic redox was observed in Li₂NiO₃, while a reversible Ni²⁺/Ni⁴⁺ double-electron redox, which was accompanied by an

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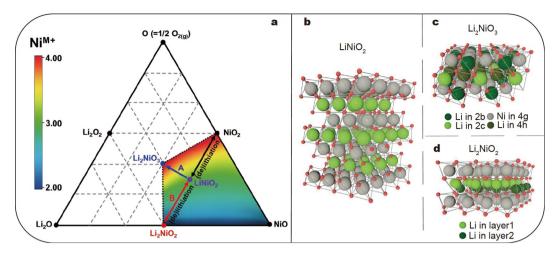


Figure 1 Pseudo phase diagrams of the $\text{Li}_2\text{O}-\text{NiO}-1/2\text{O}_2$ system and Li_2NiO_2 , Li_2NiO_3 , and Li_2NiO_2 crystals. (a) The corners represent typical LNO precursors; the circles indicate relevant compounds. The arrows represent the irreversible reactions, while the double arrows represent the reversible ones. The color scale denotes the Ni oxidation state. (Reproduced from Ref [22]. Copyright 2018, the German Chemical Society.) (b) LiNiO₂. Green: Li, red: O, silver: Ni. (c) Li₂NiO₃. Green: Li, red: O, silver: Ni.

insulator-metal transition, was observed in Li_2NiO_2 . Owing to the double-electron cationic activity, Li_2NiO_2 was considered the most promising candidate among the three materials as cathodes for LIBs for next-generation layered oxide cathodes, which can break the LiNiO_2 limit, owing to its advantages in terms of the capacity, energy density, electronic conductivity, and thermal stability. We expect that these findings can avail the inspiration and basis for developing next-generation layered oxide cathodes with higher energy densities than those of LiNiO_2 .

METHODS

Density functional theory was employed for all our calculations. The electron-core interactions were treated by the projector augmented-wave pseudopotentials with a kinetic energy cutoff of 520 eV.

The calculations were performed with the Vienna *ab initio* simulation package. Structure optimization was performed according to the generalized gradient approximation (GGA). Considering the strong onsite Coulomb repulsion among Ni-3d electrons, the Hubbard correction term, U (GGA + U) [20], was applied. This work uses an effective U value of 6.2 eV for Ni selected based on the Materials Project databases [21]. Geometry optimization was performed with no symmetry constraints, thus allowing all the atoms to relax into their most stable positions until the forces and energy were <0.015 eV Å⁻¹ and <10⁻⁴ eV, respectively. Regarding the structures in which Ni ions exhibited magnetic moment, the difference between the antiferromagnetic and ferromagnetic spin orderings was considered. The difference in the energy between the spin configurations did not exceed 30 meV per Ni ion; thus, ferromagnetic spin ordering was selected.

RESULTS

Crystal and electronic structures

LiNiO₂ is a layered oxide containing a cubic close-packed array of O atoms [22]. It exhibits a rhombohedral structure, which is isostructural with α -NaFeO₂, crystallizing in the R3m space group. The octahedral interstices, which are separated by O layers, are filled by Ni and Li ions (Fig. 1b and Fig. S1a). Further, LiNiO₂ can be obtained via solid-state synthesis, sol-gel method,

combustion, and coprecipitation methods [22]. Fig. 1c shows that Li₂NiO₃ is still related to the layered LiNiO₂ since they both exhibit layers of close-packed O ions, which separate the layers of pure Li ions from those of [Li_{1/3}Ni_{2/3}]O₂ containing Ni ions in honeycomb ordering [23]. The symmetry of this compound was lowered to monoclinic C2/m, which was isostructural with Li₂MnO₃ exhibiting the C/2m space group. The structure of pristine Li₂NiO₃ exhibits two distinct octahedral sites in each layer, as follows: 4g and 2b sites in the Li/Ni layer and 4h and 2c sites in the Li layer. The Ni ions assumed the 4g position, while the Li ions occupied the 2b, 2c, and 4h sites (Fig. 1c and Fig. S1b). The synthetic procedure of Li₂NiO₃ involves a solidstate reaction between Li₂O₂ and NiO in an oxygen-rich atmosphere at high pressures to stabilize the Li ions in the Ni layers [24,25]. Fig. 1d and Fig. S1c show that 1T-Li₂NiO₂ afforded one layer of Li ions, which was incorporated into LiNiO2 to obtain two-layered Li₂NiO₂ that was isostructural to Li₂VSe₂ [26]. The structure of the Li₂NiO₂ phase was refined in the P3m1 space group according to the 1T phase [7]. The intercalation of additional Li ions ensured the collective transition of all the Li ions from octahedral to tetrahedral positions. The Ni ions filled the octahedral interstices between the close-packed O-planes and the Li ions between the extensively separated and alternate O layers. Thus, 1T-Li₂NiO₂ can be obtained via the overlithiation of layered LiNiO₂ [7].

Further, the electronic structures of LiNiO₂, Li₂NiO₃, and Li₂NiO₂ are shown in Fig. 2. The Ni ions exhibited +3 valence states in LiNiO₂, and only one of its two orbitals in the $e_{\rm g}$ levels was occupied (Fig. S2); thus, the spinup $e_{\rm g}$ band was observed on the Fermi level (Fig. S3a), indicating a conducting behavior (Fig. 2a), which correlates with previous theoretical publications [27]. Conversely, the electrical measurements demonstrated that LiNiO₂ was a semiconductor exhibiting a small bandgap (~0.5 eV) [28]. Thus far, this difference between the theoretical calculation and experimental measurement is yet to be well understood [22] (S2 contains the detailed discussion). In Li₂NiO₃, all the electrons in the Ni-3d- $e_{\rm g}$ orbital were transferred into the O-2p orbital, after which the Ni ions exhibited +4 valence states (Fig. S2). The conduction band (CB) minimum and valence band (VB) maximum were contributed by the Ni-

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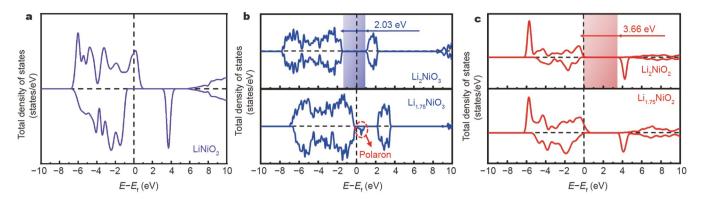


Figure 2 Electronic structures of LiNiO₂, Li₂NiO₃, and Li₂NiO₂. (a) Total DOS of LiNiO₂. (b) Total DOS of Li₂NiO₃ and Li_{1.75}NiO₃. (c) Total DOS of Li₂NiO₂ and Li_{1.75}NiO₂.

 $3d-e_g$ and Ni- $3d-t_{2g}$ states, respectively (Fig. S3b). The total density of states (DOS) exhibited a semiconducting behavior with a bandgap of 2.03 eV (Fig. 2b). Following the partial extraction of Li ions, polaronic states appeared in the bandgap and were detrimental to the electrical conductivity [29]. This finding is consistent with the inferior electronic conductivity of Li₂MO₃ that was previously reported [30-32]. In Li₂NiO₂, two electrons were transferred from the Ni-3d- $e_{\rm g}$ orbital to the O-2p orbital, imparting Ni ions with the +2 valence state (Fig. S2). The CB minimum, as well as the highest VB maximum states, were contributed by the Ni-3d-eg orbitals (Fig. S3c), which also exhibited a semiconductor behavior with a bandgap of 3.66 eV (Fig. 2c). Similar to LiCoO₂, an insulator-metal transition accompanied by slight Li-ion extraction was also observed [33], and it indicated the superior electronic conductivity of Li₂NiO₂. These results indicated that LiNiO2 and Li2NiO2 exhibited outstanding electrical conductivities as cathodes, while Li₂NiO₃ had poor conductivity.

Charge compensation during delithiation

The charge compensation mechanisms in the three materials during delithiation were analyzed. The projected DOS (PDOS) is shown in Fig. 3. The evolution of PDOS for the partially delithiated $\text{Li}_{(1-x)}\text{NiO}_2$ (x = 0, 0.25, 0.5, and 1) is shown in Fig. 3a. It was observed that the Ni-3d PDOS above the Fermi level shifted to higher energy with hole doping induced by Ni⁴⁺ (the green dashed area in Fig. 3a) as x increased from 0 to 1, indicating the significant contributions from the oxidation reactions of Ni (from Ni³⁺ to Ni⁴⁺). Concurrently, the magnetic moments of all the Ni cations changed from 1.427 to 0 μ_B by sequence (from x =0 to 1), indicating the existence of the redox couple Ni³⁺($t_{2g}^{6}e_{g}^{1}$)/ $Ni^{4+}(t_{2g}^{6}e_{g}^{0})$ during delithiation (Table S1). Indeed, the literature reported that anionic redox had been experimentally observed in layered oxides [34,35]. In our work regarding $Li_{1-x}NiO_2$, it was observed that the magnetic moments of O were not strictly equal to zero and that the maximum magnetic moment did not exceed 0.2, indicating the slight charge transfer of the oxygen ions. Therefore, in this work, the slight anionic redox activity was neglected, whereas the cationic redox was considered the main charge compensation process in LiNiO₂ upon delithiation.

Considering the possible anionic redox activity in Li_2NiO_3 , the hybrid functional in the form of the Heyd–Scuseria–Ernzerhof (HSE06) screened hybrid functional was applied to correct the notorious self-interaction error [36,37]. Fig. 3b shows that the O-2p behavior crossed the Fermi level upon delithiation from

x = 0 up to x = 1.25, indicating that the O anion played an active role. Moreover, our results for the magnetic moments also demonstrated that with the extraction of Li up to a critical state (x = 1.25), the magnetic moments of the Ni ions remained unchanged while the magnetic moments of the O ions increased from 0 to nearly 1 μ_B , further proving that Ni ions did not participate in the redox process and that the charge, following the extraction of Li, was only compensated by the oxidation of the O ions (Table S2). When the delithiation content exceeded x= 1.25, the O-2p PDOS continued to shift to higher energy levels with additional hole doping; the magnetic moments of the O ions nearly dropped to zero (Fig. 4a and Table S2). These results demonstrated that a further extraction of Li ions (x > 1.25) triggered the O ions in the zero-valence states. Simultaneously, we noticed that some of the O-O distances had decreased to <1.4 Å (Fig. S4b), indicating the formation of O dimers [38].

Convex hulls, voltage profiles, and energy densities

Next, the ground-state Li/vacancy configurations and voltage profiles *vs.* Li concentrations of the three materials were studied (the details of the method are presented in S1). The convex hulls obtained from the formation energies, as well as corresponding averaged voltage profiles, are presented in Fig. 4a–c.

Regarding $\text{Li}_{(1-x)}\text{NiO}_2$, Fig. 4a shows that three stable intermediate ground states were predicted at x=0.25, 0.5, and 0.75, and the corresponding Li/vacancy configurations without apparent lattice structural transformation are shown in Fig. S5a. The lattice volume of $\text{Li}_{(1-x)}\text{NiO}_2$ shrunk by ~8% after full delithiation (Fig. S6). The LiNiO₂ cathode material exhibited an averaged potential window of 3.3–4.3 V (Fig. 4a), which is consistent with the reported experimental and theoretical results [8,39]. Regarding $\text{Li}_{(2-x)}\text{NiO}_3$, two stable intermediate ground states were predicted at x=0.5 and 1, and the corresponding Li/vacancy configurations are depicted in Fig. S5b. The Li ions

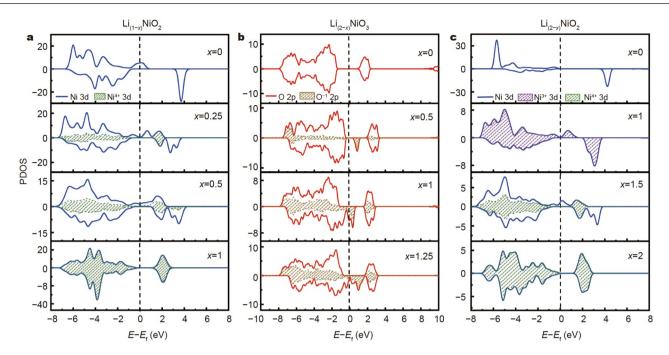


Figure 3 Projected DOS (PDOS) of the Ni-3d (blue lines) and O-2p (red lines) orbitals in $\text{Li}_{(1-x)}\text{NiO}_2$, $\text{Li}_{(2-x)}\text{NiO}_3$, and $\text{Li}_{(2-x)}\text{NiO}_2$, respectively. The dashed area indicates the PDOS of the oxidized ions.

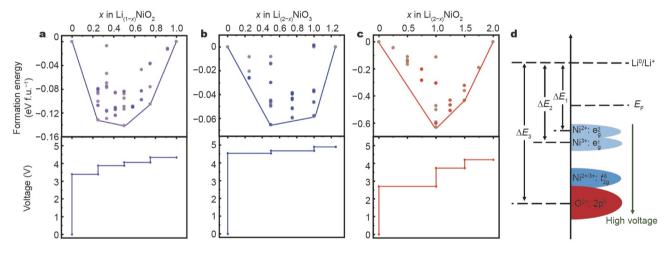


Figure 4 Formation energies of the ground-state configurations, convex hull, and average voltage profiles of (a) LiNiO₂, (b) Li₂NiO₃, and (c) Li₂NiO₂. (d) Schematic of the electronic structure. Δ*E* is the energy gap between the energy level of the electrons participating in the redox reaction and the Li⁺/Li⁰ energy level.

preferred to be removed from the 4h sites at x = 0.5 and the 4h and 2c sites at lowered Li ion concentrations (x = 1), indicating that the Li ions in the 4h sites would be extracted first during delithiation. The volume of the $\text{Li}_{(2-x)}\text{NiO}_3$ lattice first increased with x < 1 before decreasing with x > 1 (Fig. S6), and the degree of the volume reduction did not exceed 2.5% during delithiation (0.0 < x < 1.25). At x > 1.25, the appearance of the O dimers induced structural transformation with serious volume change. Additionally, the Li_2NiO_3 cathode exhibited an averaged potential window of 4.5–4.9 V with slight differences between the three voltage plateaus (Fig. 4b). Regarding $\text{Li}_{(2-x)}\text{NiO}_2$, two stable intermediate ground states were predicted at x = 0.5 and 1 (Fig. 4c), and the corresponding Li/vacancy configurations are shown in Fig. S5c. At x = 1 (with the composition of LiNiO_2), the structure exhibited the C2/m phase with a collaborative Jahn-

Teller distortion that was different from the R3m phase of the synthesized LiNiO₂. Fig. S6 shows that Li_(2-x)NiO₂ exhibited a large volume shrink (by ~25%) after full delithiation (x = 0-2); this was mainly facilitated by the first half-round of delithiation (~20% drastic volume shrink from x = 0 to 1). This large volume shrink was mainly due to the shrinking of the c-axis after the extraction of one layer of Li ions and the shrinking of the TM layers with a reduced Ni–O bond length after the oxidation of Ni²⁺ into Ni³⁺. The Li₂NiO₂ cathode material exhibited an averaged potential window of 2.7–4.2 V, which is consistent with previous experimental results [8]. At the initial delithiation stage (0 < x < 1), the voltage plateau increased to 2.7 V, and an evident two-phase transition process occurred from 1T-Li₂NiO₂ to C2/m LiNiO₂.

The operating voltages of the electrodes were primarily

determined by the local electronic structure and states of the electrons that participated in the redox reaction (irrespective of the TM 3d-electrons or 2p-electrons of the anions) [40]. The 3d orbitals of TM generally overlap with the 2p orbitals of O, forming TM-O bonds with particular ionic and covalent characteristics that are determined by the types of metals and anions, as well as the crystal structure. From the crystal-field theory, the Ni and O atoms displayed octahedral coordination (a NiO₆ octahedral structure) in those three materials, and the energy levels of the five 3d orbitals of the Ni ions were split into a high energy, $e_{\rm g}$ ($d_{x^2-y^2}$ and d_{z^2}), and low energy, $t_{\rm 2g}$ orbitals (d_{xy} , d_{yz} , and d_{xz}). Considering the possible redox couples of Ni²⁺($t_{2g}^{\ 6}e_g^2$)/Ni³⁺($t_{2g}^{\ 6}e_g^1$), Ni³⁺($t_{2g}^{\ 6}e_g^1$)/Ni⁴⁺($t_{2g}^{\ 6}e_g^0$), and O²⁻(2p⁶)/O¹⁻(2p⁵), the transfer of electrons only involved the outer e_g level for the Ni ions and the 2p orbital electrons of the O ions. Consequently, the energy (ΔE), which was required to remove an electron that was participating in the redox reaction from its energy level to the Li⁺/Li⁰ energy level, determines the redox potentials [41]. Fig. 4d schematically shows that ΔE varied with different valences and elements. Therefore, the energy (ΔE_3) required to remove an electron from the O-2p levels was significantly larger than that required to remove an electron from the e_{g} levels of the octahedrally coordinated Ni ions (ΔE_1 or ΔE_2). Thus, Li₂NiO₃ with sequent O redox exhibited the highest redox potential among the three materials. The Ni³⁺/Ni⁴⁺ monoelectron cationic redox occurred in LiNiO₂, and the Ni²⁺/Ni⁴⁺ double-electron redox was observed in Li₂NiO₂. The energy of the Ni²⁺/Ni³⁺ redox couple (ΔE_1) was smaller than that of the Ni³⁺/Ni⁴⁺ redox couple (ΔE_2) . Thus, LiNiO2 exhibited higher voltage profiles than Li2NiO2 at the initial delithiation stage; they exhibited similar potentials after the oxidation of Ni²⁺ into Ni³⁺ in Li₂NiO₂.

The theoretical energy densities can be estimated based on the redox potentials and theoretical specific capacities (see details in S1). The theoretical specific capacity of LiNiO₂ was 274.45 mA h g⁻¹. Compared with LiNiO₂, although excess Li ions could be stored in Li₂NiO₃, only 62.5% of Li ions (1.25 Li per formula) could be extracted during electrochemical cycling. The remaining Li ions could not be extracted owing to the appearance of the O dimers and rapid phase transition. Thus, the theoretical specific capacity of Li₂NiO₃ was 277.78 mA h g⁻¹,

indicating almost no improvement in the capacity compared with LiNiO₂. Contrarily, Li₂NiO₂ exhibited impressive improvement, achieving the highest theoretical specific capacity (512.46 mA h g⁻¹) owing to the double-redox activity. Although LiNiO₂ and Li₂NiO₃ exhibited approximate theoretical specific capacities, the theoretical energy density of Li₂NiO₃ (1297.11 W h kg⁻¹) was 26% larger than that of LiNiO₂ (1074.95 W h kg⁻¹) owing to the higher potential of Li₂NiO₃ with the anionic redox. Particularly, the double-redox activity endowed Li₂NiO₂ with the highest theoretical energy density (1708.94 W h kg⁻¹), which represented a great improvement over LiNiO₂ and Li₂NiO₃.

Oxygen thermal stability

Finally, since improved thermal stability and rapid oxygen release are required in cathode materials for high energy and power density applications in EV LIBs, the oxygen thermal stabilities of the three materials were also considered. Fig. 5a shows a comparison between the variations in the O-vacancy formation energy vs. delithiations of LiNiO₂ (purple line), Li₂NiO₃ (blue line), and Li₂NiO₂ (red line) (see details in S1). It was observed that all the materials tended to form O vacancies after delithiation since the vacancy formation energies were lowered in their delithiated states. The original Li₂NiO₃ exhibited the smallest vacancy formation energy among the three materials, and the negative O-vacancy formation energies of delithiated Li₂NiO₃ indicated that the formation of the Ovacancy was thermodynamically favorable. The vacancy formation energies of LiNiO₂ were much smaller than that of Li₂NiO₂ in the initial delithiation state and similar to that of Li₂NiO₂, following further delithiation because Li2NiO2 was converted into C2/m LiNiO2 after half extraction of the Li-ion layer, which permitted the double-electron cationic charge-transfer process and prevented the compound from utilizing the oxygen redox to trigger oxygen loss. Therefore, Li₂NiO₂ exhibited the best oxygen thermal stability.

DISCUSSION

Fig. 5b shows an all-around comparison of the above results obtained for LiNiO₂ (purple line), Li₂NiO₃ (blue line), and

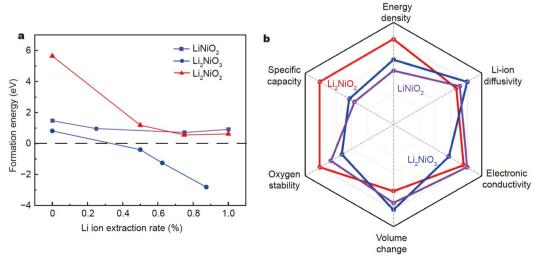


Figure 5 (a) Evolution of the O-vacancy formation energies of LiNiO₂ (purple line), Li₂NiO₃ (blue line), and Li₂NiO₂ (red line) upon delithiation. (b) Radar plot of the all-around comparison of the properties of LiNiO₂ (purple line), Li₂NiO₃ (blue line), and Li₂NiO₂ (red line) as cathodes.

Li₂NiO₂ (red line). Owing to the existence of the [Li_{1/3}Ni_{2/3}]O₂ layers, Li₂NiO₃ exhibited the best Li-ion diffusivity, as well as the least volume change (only 2.5% at x < 1.25) during delithiation, although it suffered from poor oxygen thermal stability owing to the anionic redox activity and poor electronic conductivity, which were induced by the 2.03-eV bandgap and the formation of polarons following delithiation. Since an additional Li layer would reduce the open space for Li diffusion, the diffusivity of the Li ions in Li₂NiO₂ was more challenging at the initial delithiation stage than at other stages (details on the diffusivity are presented in S3), although it became easier as more Li ions were extracted. Although Li₂NiO₂ is a semiconductor exhibiting a large bandgap (3.66 eV), the insulator-metal transition occurred immediately, following the slight extraction of Li-ion. Thus, the excess Li ions in Li₂NiO₂ lowered the valence state of Ni ions to the lowest state, Ni²⁺, resulting in the best oxygen thermal stability, as well as a slightly lower early redox potential. Li₂NiO₂ exhibited a reversible Ni²⁺/Ni⁴⁺ double redox and an impressive energy density value (1708.94 W h kg⁻¹). Thus, the absolute advantages (capacity, energy density, electronic conductivity, and thermal stability) of Li₂NiO₂ as cathodes for LIBs owing to the Ni²⁺/Ni⁴⁺ double redox rendered it the most promising candidate for next-generation layered oxide cathodes. However, Li₂NiO₂ suffered great volume reduction (by ~25%), which was its only disadvantage. This would damage its cycling stability (Fig. S6). Great efforts must be invested in developing Li₂NiO₂based cathodes in the future.

Here, we proposed two approaches for reducing the volume change in Li₂NiO₂ during delithiation. One of the approaches involved the insertion of large-radius ions into the Li slab to reduce the shrinking of the c-axis; the other approach involved doping in Ni layers to reduce the shrinking of TM layers. For example, we calculated the volume evolution of partial Na-ions that were inserted in the Li slab (Li₂Na_{0.25}NiO₂) and Mo ions substituting the half Ni ions (Li₂Ni_{0.5}Mo_{0.5}O₂) (Fig. S7), and the structure evolutions of Li₂Na_{0,25}NiO₂ and Li₂Ni_{0,5}Mo_{0,5}O₂ are shown in Fig. S8. The volume-reduction rate with delithiation decreased sequentially from 25% to 16% in Li₂Na_{0.25}NiO₂. Regarding Li₂Ni_{0.5}Mo_{0.5}O₂, the volume shrank by 10% after the extraction of one layer of Li ions (from x = 0 to 1), while the volume expanded by 1% during the second half delithiation (from x = 1 to 2), resulting in a total volume-reduction rate of 9% after full delithiation.

CONCLUSION

In summary, we selected typical reversible Li₂NiO₃ and 1T-Li₂NiO₂ as two representative materials for developing nextgeneration layered TM oxide cathodes to break the LiNiO₂ limit, after which we comprehensively compared them with LiNiO₂ regarding their overall properties as cathodes from a theoretical perspective. Owing to the cationic double-redox activity, Li₂NiO₂ exhibited several absolute advantages regarding the capacity, energy density, electronic conductivity, and thermal stability over the other materials as cathodes for LIBs, revealing that the cationic M²⁺/M⁴⁺ double redox (M denotes a TM) is a promising material beyond the M³⁺/M⁴⁺ mono redox or anionic redox for next-generation layered oxide cathodes with highenergy-density and oxygen stability. The high throughput screening approach based on ab initio calculations or machine learning methods could be employed to develop or design new cathode materials with multiple cationic redox to develop nextgeneration alternative lithium-ion cathode materials.

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Author contributions Jia Y, Pan F and Zheng J conceived the idea and designed the project. Jia Y performed all the calculations. Ye Y wrote the programs to process the data. Liu J, Zheng S, Lin W, Wang Z, and Li S analyzed the results and participated in the discussion of mechanism. Jia Y and Zheng J wrote the manuscript and all authors edited the manuscript.

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Supplementary information Details for the calculations and supporting data are available in the online version of the paper.



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打破LiNiO2的能量密度极限: Li2NiO3还是Li2NiO2?

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摘要 开发新一代层状氧化物阴极,是发展高能量密度电动汽车锂离 子电池迫切关注的问题. 目前有一种方法是不断提高镍基层状氧化物 中的镍含量,但这一方法的极限是LiNiO₂. 为了突破这一极限,获得更 高的能量密度, 近年来备受关注的一种方法是在过渡金属层中引入过 量的锂离子, 形成Li2MO3 (M是过渡金属阳离子). 然而, 还有一种一直 被忽视的方法是在过渡金属层和原始Li层之间插入一层额外的Li离子, 形成 Li_2MO_2 . 本研究中, 我们选择了典型的 Li_2NiO_3 和1T- Li_2NiO_2 作为代 表,从理论角度综合比较了Li₂NiO₃、1T-Li₂NiO₂和LiNiO₂的各项电化 学性能. 我们发现,不同于LiNiO2中发生的Ni3+/Ni4+单电子阳离子氧化 还原,在Li₂NiO₃中存在着伴有极化子的阴离子氧化还原.而在Li₂NiO₂ 中,则发生了伴有绝缘体到金属转变的Ni²⁺/Ni⁴⁺双电子氧化还原.在这 三种材料中,由于Li₂NiO₂具有双电子氧化还原活性,其在容量、能量密 度、电导率和热稳定性等方面都表现优异,是最有希望突破LiNiO2极 限的下一代层状氧化物阴极材料. 虽然Li2NiO2具有脱锂过程中的体积 变化较大的缺点,但我们提出了两种可能的解决方法:在Li层中掺杂Na 和在TM层中掺杂Mo,都获得了不错的效果.这一工作为如何突破Li-NiO₂的能量密度极限,开发下一代具有高能量密度的层状氧化物阴极 提供了新的思路.