

# Recent progress in first-principles simulations of anode materials and interfaces for lithium ion batteries

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Lithium ion batteries are currently a principal power source for small portable electronics. However, in order to extend their effective use as large-scale energy storage systems for electric vehicles and renewable energy, there is an imminent need to further increase the energy density, power density, and cycle life while retaining safety and cost at an affordable range. This fundamentally represents a knowledge and materials challenge that needs to develop a deeper understanding of electrode and electrolyte materials as well as their interfaces. Here, we briefly review recent progress in first-principles computational studies on the lithiation behavior of anode materials and the structural and chemical evolution of anode/electrolyte interfaces.

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## Introduction

In the past few decades, lithium ion batteries (LIBs) have attracted considerable attention as power sources for portable electronics and electrical vehicles (EVs). They have several advantages over other secondary battery technologies such as nickel-cadmium (NiCd) and nickel metal hydride (NiMH), including high operating voltage, high energy density, light weight, long cycle life, and zero to low memory effect. LIBs are currently one of the most commonly used rechargeable batteries for small portable electronic devices [1]. However, in order to extend their effective use as large-scale energy storage systems for EVs and renewable energy, there is an imminent need to further increase the energy density, power density, and cycle life while retaining safety and cost at an affordable range. This fundamentally represents a knowledge and materials challenge. The challenge needs to develop a firm understanding of the electrode and electrolyte materials

and the structure and chemistry at their interfaces that will allow us to identify and assess alternative energy storage strategies, in addition to improvements of existing technologies [2\*].

Recently with advances in computing power and computational methodology, first-principles based computer simulations have been applied to evaluate the properties and performance of potential candidate materials for both electrodes and electrolytes and better understand the structure, chemistry, and dynamics at electrode/electrolyte interfaces. Computer simulations support and complement experimental studies, and vice versa. They can provide explanations for experimental observations and guidelines for synthesizing and characterizing new materials and developing improved materials systems, while experimental data are used for validating calculation results and testing theoretical predictions. The basic understanding gained from theoretical studies combined with experiments will be crucial for realizing next-generation electrical energy storage systems with long life at an affordable cost. In this article, we briefly review recent progress in first-principles based atomistic simulations of lithiation behavior in carbon-based and silicon-based nanomaterials for LIB anodes and structural and chemical evolution at anode/electrolyte interfaces.

## Anode materials: lithiation processes and properties

At present, graphite-based materials are commonly used as anode materials in commercial LIBs due to their long cycle life, low cost, and abundance, but exhibit relatively low gravimetric and volumetric specific capacity [3]. The theoretical capacity of graphite is 372 mAh/g for  $\text{LiC}_6$  [2\*]. Carbon nanostructures including graphene, reduced graphene oxide (rGO) and carbon nanotubes (CNTs), along with graphene-based composites, have been widely explored as alternatives to graphite. Graphene-based materials have been of particular interest because of their high specific surface area, high electrical conductivity, and excellent mechanical flexibility. The specific capacities and charge rates of carbon-based anodes have been studied using various simulation techniques including density functional theory (DFT) [4], reactive force field based molecular dynamics (ReaxFF MD) [5], and grand canonical Monte Carlo [6].

Although the capacity limitations of carbon-based anodes for use in advanced LIBs need to be overcome, silicon (Si) has emerged as one of the most promising anode materials

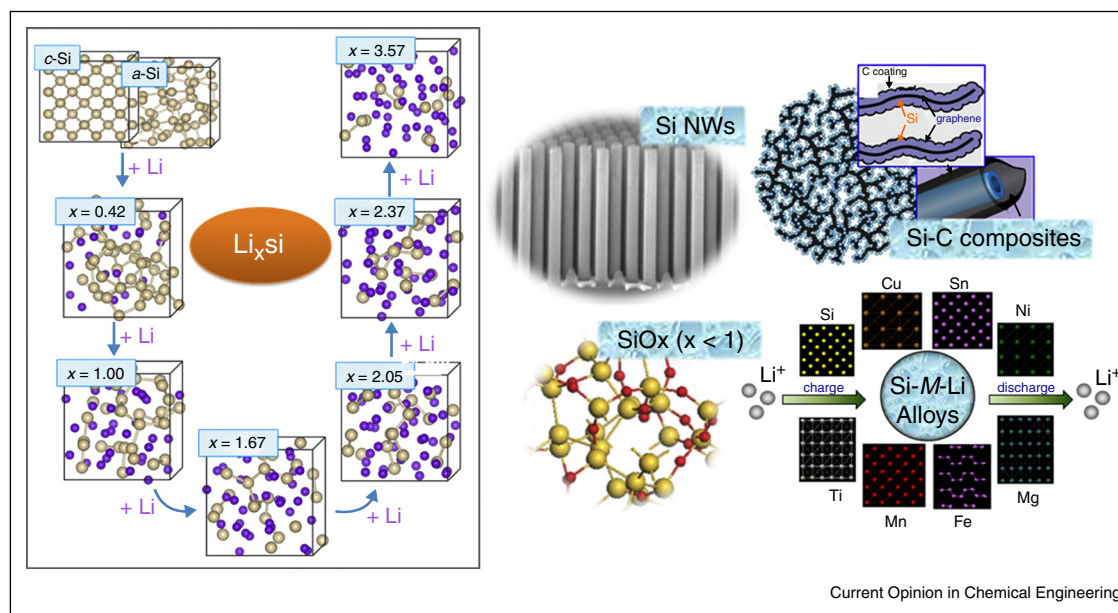
because of its abundance, nontoxicity, desirable electrochemical potential to be coupled with high-voltage cathode materials, and more importantly the highest known specific Li storage capacity (close to 4000 mAh/g for  $\text{Li}_x\text{Si}$ ,  $x \leq 4.4$ ) which is one order of magnitude higher than that of graphite. However, the practical use of Si as an anode material is hampered by its large volume expansion ( $\sim 400\%$ ), causing pulverization, loss of electrical contact, and consequently early capacity fading; for graphite anodes, the only structural change is a  $\sim 12\%$  isotropic expansion. Considerable efforts have been made to overcome these problems, for instance, through structural modifications such as amorphous phases [7,8<sup>\*</sup>] and nanostructured Si [9,10<sup>\*</sup>], combining Si with carbonaceous materials (Si-C) [11–13], alloying Si with active/inactive elements [14,15], and Si oxides ( $\text{SiO}_x$ ,  $x < 2$ ) [16–20]. However, many fundamental aspects regarding the lithiation processes and properties remain unclear since direct characterization of the complex electrochemical systems is rather difficult. Over the last few years, the lithiation mechanisms and electrochemical properties of Si-based nanomaterials have been extensively explored using first-principles based atomistic simulations.

DFT calculations were used to evaluate how Li incorporation affects the electronic structure and bonding nature of the host Si lattice [21,22,23<sup>\*</sup>]. Upon Li incorporation, the bonding strengths among neighboring host atoms are weakened, attributed to the transferred charge from Li. Because of the repulsive interaction, Li cations tend to

remain isolated and well dispersed in the Si matrix. With increasing Li content, the tetrahedrally bonded Si network undergoes disintegration into low-connectivity clusters of various shapes, as shown in Figure 1. Due to the softening of Si network, the bulk modulus is found to decrease almost linearly with increasing Li content. According to DFT calculations, the favorable alloy formation occurs around 71 at.% Li for the crystalline phase and 60–80 at.% Li for the amorphous phase. The crystalline Li–Si alloys are predicted to be about 0.1 eV more favorable than their amorphous counterparts. However, lithiated Si beyond the first charge cycle is most likely to remain in the amorphous phase due to the sizable kinetic barrier for recrystallization at room temperature. The differences in the lithiation behavior between Si and other group IV elements (Ge and Sn) have been also addressed using DFT-based computational approaches [24,25].

Si nanostructures can accommodate larger strain and provide better mechanical integrity because their dimensions would limit the size and propagation of cracks, which typically initiate the fracture process. It has been reported that Si nanowires (NWs) and thin films exhibit excellent capacity retention and rate capability. To better understand the underlying reasons, DFT studies were performed to examine the surface effects on the composition, structural evolution, energetics, and Li mobility in amorphous  $\text{Li}_x\text{Si}$  alloys ( $0.42 \leq x \leq 3.57$ ) [26]. When the Li content is sufficiently low, Li atoms tend to be

Figure 1



Various Si-based anode materials have been proposed and examined for next-generation Li-ion batteries. Upon Li incorporation, the bonding strengths among neighboring Si atoms are weakened, attributed to the transferred charge from Li. With increasing Li content, the Si lattice undergoes disintegration into low-connectivity clusters of various shapes, accompanied by significant volume expansion ( $\sim 400\%$ ).

enriched in the surface layer for stabilization. As the Li content is further increased, the near-surface structure and alloy composition appears to be similar to that in the bulk, except for the reduction in Si–Si connectivity within the outermost surface layer. The surface effects are predicted to be very shallow and only extend to the first couple of atomic layers. Nonetheless, *ab initio* MD (AIMD) based on DFT highlights the improved Li mobility in the near-surface region. Additionally, Li mobility is predicted to be very sensitive to the alloy composition, and Li diffusivity is enhanced by orders of magnitude in the highly lithiated stage. ReaxFF MD simulations were also employed to demonstrate the lithiation of Si NWs, which occurs favorably along the (1 1 0) direction [27,28]. Facet-dependent lithiation behavior in crystalline Si was also examined using DFT calculations [29]. It was shown that despite the anisotropic expansion during lithiation, the strain generated by the lithiation of the outer layers tends to further suppress Li diffusion [28].

Si suboxides  $\text{SiO}_x$  ( $x < 2$ ) have also been recognized as a promising anode material for LIBs, especially when the O content is relatively low. It was reported that Si thin films with homogeneous O incorporation ( $\approx 13$  at% O) in combination with surface oxidation exhibit an excellent capacity ( $\approx 2200$  mAh/g) with nearly no capacity loss for the first 120 cycles, and 80% of the initial reversible capacity was retained after 300 cycles [20]. The lithiation mechanisms of partially oxidized Si has been examined using first-principles computational approaches [30–33]. From AIMD simulations, with lithiation amorphous  $\text{SiO}_{1/3}$  was found to gradually disintegrate as Li atoms were accommodated by both Si and O atoms [30]. The AIMD study also predicts the formation of  $\text{Li}_6\text{O}$  complexes in which the four  $sp_3$ -hybridized orbitals of an isolated  $\text{O}^{2-}$  anion directed to the corners of a tetrahedron are surrounded by six Li cations each sitting over an edge. Li incorporation in the  $\text{SiO}_{1/3}$  matrix was also predicted to be highly favorable with a capacity comparable to that of fully lithiated Si (Li:Si ratio  $\approx 4$ ). This computational study highlights the importance of controlling the Si:O ratio as well as O spatial distribution in order to tailor the desired lithiation properties. A later study varied the oxygen content over a much wider range and showed the volume expansion was inversely related to the O content in the  $\text{SiO}_x$  system [31]. It was also shown that very thin films of hydroxylated  $\text{SiO}_2$  could be lithiated up to 3.48 Li per Si [32], however the volume expansion was not addressed due to the 2D nature of the material. SiCO was reported to exhibit similar lithiation properties to  $\text{SiO}_{1/3}$ , in that it does not form  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$ , but exhibits less volume expansion even than  $\text{SiO}_2$  [33]. Besides oxygen atom incorporation, the effects of other chemical impurities on Si lithiation have been also examined [34].

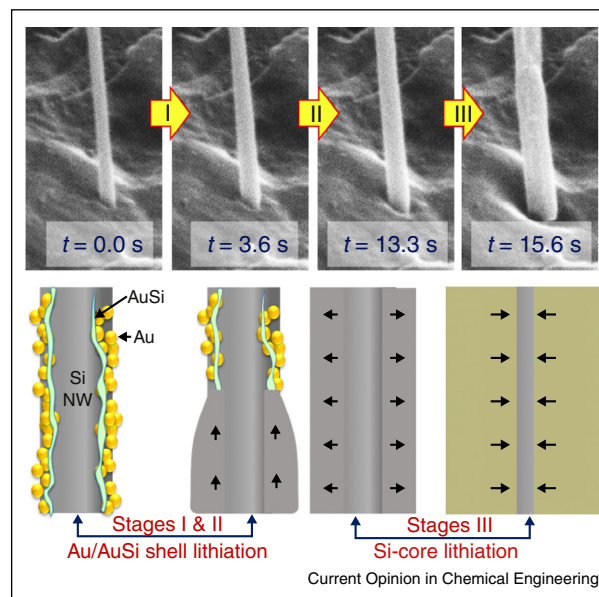
First-principles computational approaches have also been utilized to study the lithiation mechanisms and

electrochemical properties of Si-based composites and coated Si NWs, with particular attention to the effects of interfaces [36–38]. As shown in Figure 2, a recent combined *in situ* characterization and first-principles study demonstrated an intriguing stagewise lithiation behavior in gold-coated Si nanowires (Au-SiNWs) in which Li atoms are incorporated preferentially in the Au shell while the AuSi interface tends to serve as a facile diffusion path along the nanowire axial direction, followed by the prompt lithiation of the Si core in the radial direction [35]. Despite the recent theoretical efforts, there is still lack of fundamental understanding of the lithiation of Si-based and C-based nanocomposites as anode materials in LIBs, warranting further investigations.

### Anode/electrolyte interfaces: structural and chemical evolution

In order for the LIB to safely operate, the electrolyte must be stable under the reductive and oxidative conditions of the anode and cathode, respectively, or upon decomposition, a solid insulating layer can be formed to prevent further electron transfer. This layer at the electrode/electrolyte interface has been known as the solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) since it was discovered by Peled and co-workers at the Li metal surface [39]. Since then, a wide variety of compositions and structures have been

Figure 2



(Upper panels) Temporal microstructure evolution of an [1 1 1] Au-SiNW in direct contact with Li metal, demonstrating a stagewise lithiation behavior. (Lower panels) Proposed stagewise lithiation of an individual Au-SiNW. Stages I & II: axial lithiation of the Au shell with progressive and slow expansion while the AuSi interface layer may serve as a facile diffusion path. Stage III: radial lithiation of the Si-core with uniform and rapid expansion.

Source: Adapted from [35].

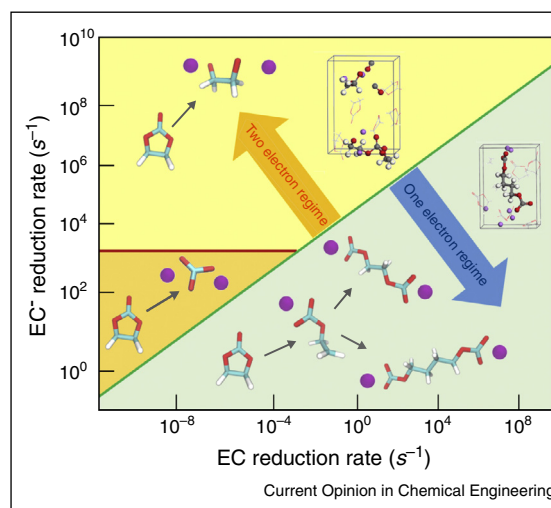
described in the literature, often in conflict with one another [40]. The ideal SEI layer should be thin, permit  $\text{Li}^+$  ion transport at rates comparable to the electrolyte, and form with minimal electron transfer, thus minimizing capacity loss [41]. The electrolyte decomposition directly affects the capacity loss by determining the structure of the SEI and the requisite amount of sacrificial Li to form it. Additionally, further capacity losses may occur by decomposed electrolyte diffusing away from the anode and not contributing to the passivating film. Next, we will highlight how molecular simulations have been utilized in the study of these processes.

Computer simulations have been conducted across a spectrum of time and length scales to better understand how electrode surface, bulk electrolyte, and operating conditions affect the resultant SEI in order to better understand the origin of these variations. First-principles approaches based on DFT have been employed to screen electrolyte additives [42–44] that have lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) energy levels lower than standard electrolyte molecules such as ethylene carbonate (EC) and dimethyl carbonate (DMC). Additives commonly used such as fluoroethylene carbonate (FEC) and vinylene carbonate (VC) [41] exhibit lower LUMO levels, suggesting that they would react before EC and thus could control SEI formation. However, such quick screening does not account for the effects of solvation and interface structure which would be essential in describing accurately the structural and chemical evolution at the interface. For example, vinylene carbonate (VEC) also has a LUMO energy lower than EC, but has been found to not form a stable SEI layer leading to large capacity fades [45].

AIMD simulations have been used to a great extent in an attempt to identify the reaction pathways involved in electrolyte decomposition at the anode. For EC at a graphitic carbon surface, it has been shown that two-electron pathways yielding either  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  or  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2^{2-}$  tend to be preferred [46], despite the expectation of lithium ethylene dicarbonate ( $\text{Li}_2\text{EDC}$ ) as the primary SEI component [41]. Later, based on rigorous first-principles calculations, Leung suggested that the electrolyte decomposition pathway may depend upon electron transfer rate (Figure 3), while demonstrating the possibility of  $\text{Li}_2\text{EDC}$  or lithium butylene dicarbonate ( $\text{Li}_2\text{BDC}$ ) formation at slow electron transfer rates [47]. A later AIMD study utilized thermodynamic integration techniques to establish an absolute potential scale to study the effects of voltage on electrochemical processes at a  $\text{LiC}_6/\text{electrolyte}$  interface [48]. Electrolyte decomposition in this study was found to be slower than the timescale utilized at potentials where SEI formation has been observed to begin experimentally.

The decomposition pathway of EC at a liquid Li metal anode has been also evaluated using AIMD simulations,

Figure 3



The decomposition products of EC are predicted at various electron transfer rates for both the initial electron received by EC as well as the second electron received. Adapted from [47].

showing a preference toward  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2^{2-}$  formation. ReaxFF MD simulations have been performed to investigate decomposition of multiple electrolyte mixtures at a Li metal surface at various temperatures, demonstrating the formation of primarily  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  at the electrode/electrolyte interface [49].

Although there has been a push in the community to move toward Si anodes, the electrolyte decomposition at the Si surface has begun to be studied. The effects of lithiation and surface termination on the reduction of EC were studied [50]; the results have been found to significantly differ from decomposition on Si clusters with a single  $\text{Li}^+$  adsorbed, as predicted by DFT studies [51]. The reduction of FEC, a common additive, was also studied at Si surfaces [52]. Recently, the effects of other additives and co-solvents were studied as well [53]. The importance of explicit description of the Si/electrolyte interface was also highlighted by demonstrating the different reduction pathways for VC between in the electrolyte [54] and at the interface [52]. Alternatively, room temperature ionic liquid based electrolytes have also been shown to undergo similar decomposition pathways at a Si surface [55].

A large portion of the literature on SEI details the reductive decomposition of the electrolyte, however it is also important to study the structural evolution at the interface. Classical MD has been largely employed to examine the structural reorganization of organic electrolytes and SEI components near the electrode or SEI layer. For instance, Jorn *et al.* [56] studied the structure of the



electrode/SEI/electrolyte interface through analysis of density distributions of EC,  $\text{Li}^+$  and  $\text{PF}_6^-$  in the presence and absence of the SEI under applied voltages. The interfacial structure and dynamics of SEI components, such as dilithium ethylene dicarbonate ( $\text{Li}_2\text{EDC}$ ) and dilithium butylene dicarbonate ( $\text{Li}_2\text{BDC}$ ), in contact with a mixed carbonate electrolyte, EC:DMC (3:7) doped with  $\text{LiPF}_6$  were also evaluated using MD simulations with the many-body polarizable APPLE&P force field [57]. There was also an attempt to directly simulate electrolyte decomposition and SEI formation for different electrolytes and temperatures using ReaxFF MD simulations [49]. There still exists a gap in the literature currently in regards to the electrolyte structure near the electrode before its decomposition and how this structure changes, not only with electrolyte composition, but with structural and operating factors such as applied voltage, temperature, and electrode surface chemistry.

The electrolyte decomposition products must be insoluble in the bulk electrolyte and adsorb onto the electrode surface for the SEI to form. To gain additional understanding of this process, classical MD simulations have been utilized to show the relative solubilities of various products in EC, DMC, and a mixture of the two [58]. A more recent AIMD paper expresses that perhaps the desolvation and adsorption of decomposition products occurs through a collective process following aggregation near the electrode surface [59]. In the case of intermediate species neither adsorbing, nor reacting to completion, the resulting charge loss is partly responsible for coulombic inefficiency. To better understand this, the fate of radical intermediate species must be further studied. ReaxFF MD simulations have been also utilized to discern the fate of  $\text{EC}^-$  radical ions in solution at various concentrations.  $\text{Li}_2\text{BDC}$  was shown to be more favorable than  $\text{Li}_2\text{EDC}$  [60], despite the latter being a frequently observed SEI component. A recent DFT study also suggests that additives are critical to preventing further reactions beyond SEI formation [61].

$\text{Li}^+$  ion transport through the SEI layer greatly impacts the cell impedance and thus the overpotential required in charging. The SEI is often assumed to be crystalline in nature. Classical MD simulations have been performed to evaluate Li transport rates in organic crystalline  $\text{Li}_2\text{EDC}$  [62], while DFT calculations utilizing the nudged elastic band (NEB) method have been conducted to predict transport rates in often-observed organic and inorganic crystalline SEI components [63,64] as well as potential artificial SEI layers [65,66] that could possibly be formed to limit capacity loss. There is still a large disconnect between the decomposition of electrolyte and the formation of a crystalline SEI layer which needs to be further investigated. Using enhanced sampling techniques, such as the NEB method, the first-principles computational

approach can reliably predict relevant transport barriers responsible for the rate limitations in charging of LIBs.

## Summary and outlook

Over the last decade, there has been significant progress in first-principles modeling of anode materials and anode/electrolyte interfaces by virtue of rapid advances in computing power and computational methodology. First-principles simulations have been extensively used to explore the lithiation mechanisms of carbon-based and silicon-based nanomaterials for LIB anodes as well as the behavior of reductive decomposition of carbonate-based solvent molecules during SEI formation on Li metal, graphite, or Si-based anodes. First-principles based force fields have also been developed for use in large-scale MD simulations to examine the lithiation/delithiation process in anode materials and the structural and chemical evolution at anode/electrolyte interfaces. Despite recent progress, there is still considerable lack of fundamental investigations on the formation and growth of SEI layers and the lithiation behavior of Si-based nanocomposites such as carbon scaffold Si nanoparticles and Si/metal oxide composites. First-principles based computer simulations will continuously play a key role in the detailed mechanistic study of electrode materials and electrode/electrolyte interfaces. The improved understanding gained from computational studies combined with experiments will be crucial for realizing next-generation electrical energy storage systems with long life at an affordable cost.

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