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Edge sulfurized graphene nanoplatelets via vacuum mechano-chemical reaction for lithium–sulfur batteries

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ABSTRACT

Lithium–sulfur batteries have great potential for high energy applications due to their high capacities, low cost and eco-friendliness. However, the particularly rapid capacity decay owing to the dissolution and diffusion of polysulfide intermediate into the electrolyte still hamper their practical applications. And the reported preparation procedures to sulfur based cathode materials are often complex, and hence are rather difficult to produce at large scale. Here, we report a simple mechano-chemical sulfurization methodology in vacuum environment applying ball-milling method combined both the chemical and physical interaction for the one-pot synthesis of edge-sulfurized graphene nanoplatelets with 3D porous foam structure as cathode materials. The optimal sample of 70%S–GnPs–48 h (ball-milled 48 h) obtains 13.2 wt% sulfur that chemically bonded onto the edge of GnPs. And the assembled batteries exhibit high initial discharge capacities of 1089 mAh/g at 0.1 C and 950 mAh/g at 0.5 C, and retain a stable discharge capacity of 776 mAh/g after 250 cycles at 0.5 C with a high Coulombic efficiency of over 98%. The excellent performance is mainly attributed to the mechano-chemical interaction between sulfur and graphene nanoplatelets. This definitely triggers the currently extensive research in lithium–sulfur battery area.

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1. Introduction

Compared with the current commercialized cathode materials based on transition metal oxides and phosphates, sulfur has recently received noteworthy attention for lithium–sulfur batteries (LSBs) due to its high theoretical capacity (1675 mAh/g) and energy density (2600 Wh/kg). Thus, together with its advantages of low cost, simplicity and eco-friendliness, makes sulfur to be the most promising cathode material for practical applications [1,2]. However, sulfur-based cathode materials are still faced with many challenges before large-scale production such as: (a) poor electrical conductivity of sulfur; (b) large volume and morphology changes of sulfur electrodes over lithiation and (c) dissolution and diffusion of the polysulfides intermediate into the electrolyte, which lead to particularly rapid capacity decay and low Coulombic efficiency [3,4]. Over these years, extensive efforts have been paid to solve the above-mentioned problems by encapsulating sulfur with various carbon hosts, such as porous carbon [5–7], conducting polymers [8–10], carbon nanotubes [11–15] and graphene

derivatives [16–23]. Recently, the group of Yi Cui [24] applied hollow carbon nanofibers to improve the cyclic stability, which exhibits improved capacity of 1180 mAh/g at 0.2 C and capacity retention of 80% after 300 cycles at 0.5 C; the group of Yunhui Huang [25] presented an order meso-microporous core-shell carbon material as cathode which shows a capacity of 837 mAh/g at 0.5 C after 200 cycles with a capacity retention of 80%. The group of A. Manthiram [26] applied a sulfur-muti-wall nanotube cathode by a binder/current collector-free fabrication procedure, which exhibits high capacities of 1352 mAh/g at 1 C and 1012 mAh/g at 4 C. Meanwhile, other more materials have been applied to LSBs such as copper-stabilized sulfur–microporous carbon (maintain 600 mAh/g after 500 cycles at 100 mA/g) [27], nanoarchitecture graphene/CNT@porous carbon (809 mAh/g at 10 C with low decay rate of 0.12% per cycle) [28], and 3D interconnected carbonaceous multiscale-cellular foams (maintain 800 mAh/g at 150 mA/cm³ after 50 cycles) [29]. Although many improvements have been made to develop high-performance LSBs, sulfur-based cathode materials are still faced with manifold challenges. As a monolayer carbon material, graphene exhibits excellent performance such as superior electronic conductivity, high surface area and outstanding mechanical properties, making it an optimal material for high performance LSBs. Recently, the group of Hongjie Dai [30] reported a

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42 sulfur–graphene material synthesized by wrapping poly(ethylene
43 glycol) coated sulfur particles with oxidized graphene sheets.
44 Chen and co-workers [31] designed a graphene-based porous
45 carbon material for the immobilization of sulfur. However, all
46 of the reported physical or chemical procedures for S–graphene
47 cathode materials are often complex and even environmentally
48 harmful, and hence are impractical for large-scale produce [32,33].
49 Therefore, it remains challenging to design a new process for the
50 preparation of S–graphene composites.

51 Here, we designed a simple, low-cost, eco-friendly ball-milling
52 method applied vacuum mechano-chemical interaction for large-
53 scale preparation of S–GnPs cathode materials. This method is
54 effective to exfoliate the graphite to be layered GnPs, and high con-
55 tent of sulfur (as high as 13.2 wt%) is edge-selectively functional-
56 ized to GnPs accompanying with a uniformly adsorption on/within
57 the GnPs, which results to a 3D porous foam structure through
58 self-assembling effect. In this architecture, GnPs acts as conductive
59 intensifier and the polysulfide reservoir to improve the cathode
60 performance. Furthermore, the optimal ball-milling time was stud-
61 ied for S–GnPs preparation. When used for LSBs, the as-prepared
62 S–GnPs materials exhibit excellent electrochemical performance
63 and practical significance.

64 2. Experimental

65 2.1. Synthesis of S–graphene nanoplatelets (GnPs)

66 Predetermined amounts of commercial graphite and pure sul-
67 fur were placed into a steel jar with stainless steel balls and the
68 jar was kept in vacuum environment. Thereafter, the jar was fixed
69 in a planetary ball-mill machine (QM-3SP04, Nanjing) and agitated
70 at 500 rpm for settled time. Finally, the resultant powders were ob-
71 tained and denoted as 70%S–GnPs-*xh* (*x* represents the ball-milling
72 time). The 70%S–GnPs-*xh* samples were further Soxhlet extracted
73 with carbon disulfide (CS₂) to remove physically adsorbed sulfur
74 to produce the samples denoted as 70%S–GnPs-*xh*-CS₂ for charac-
75 terization. Meanwhile, the GnPs-48 h sample was prepared by the
76 same ball-milling procedure as those for the 70%S–GnPs samples
77 at 48 h without sulfur.

78 2.2. Characterization methods

79 The morphology of 70%S–GnPs was characterized by scanning
80 electron microscopy (SEM, Quanta 400/INCA/HKL) equipped with
81 a Centurio EDS detector. Transmission electron microscope (TEM)
82 images were tested on a probe-corrected JEOL ARM200F oper-
83 ated at 300 kV. The phase identification of 70%S–GnPs-*xh* sam-
84 ples was carried out by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) applied
85 an Empyrean X-ray generator. The sulfur contents of the 70%S–
86 GnPs-*xh* samples were determined by thermogravimetric analysis
87 (TGA, TA instruments 2000) under nitrogen with a temperature
88 ramp of 10 °C/min. The element analyses (EA) were performed on
89 the instrument of Element Analyzer (Elementar Analysensysteme
90 GmbH). The samples were oxidized and translated into gaseous
91 substance under high-temperature. The gases were then detected
92 upon entering into the detector. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy
93 (XPS) measurements were operated on VG Scientific ESCALAB 2201
94 XL instrument applied aluminum K α X-ray radiation. Raman spec-
95 tra were measured using a Raman spectrometer (Lab RAM HR,
96 Horiba JobinYvon SAS).

97 2.3. Electrochemical measurements

98 The electrochemical characterizations of the as-prepared sam-
99 ples were carried out by R2025 coin cells using lithium metal as
100 the anode and Celgard 2500 film as separator. The electrodes were

101 fabricated by uniformly blending 80 wt% active materials (70%S–
102 GnPs-*xh* or 70%S + 30%GnPs-48 h) with 10 wt% of carbon black (Su-
103 per P, Timcal) and 10 wt% of polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) binder.
104 N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) was used as the solvent for the
105 mixture. The obtained working electrodes were cut into circular
106 disks with a diameter of 14 mm. The coin cells with sulfur load-
107 ing of ~ 1.4 mg/cm² were assembled in an Ar-filled glove box us-
108 ing 1 M lithium bis-trifluoromethanesulfonylimide (LiTFSI) in 1,3-
109 dioxolane (DOL)/dimethoxyethane (DME) (1:1, v/v), including 0.1 M
110 LiNO₃ as the electrolyte. And it is 50 μ L of electrolyte that was
111 added per coin cell. Discharge–charge measurements were carried
112 out in a voltage range of 1.7–2.8 V at different current densities by
113 a NEWARE battery tester. The capacities are calculated based on
114 the mass of sulfur (~ 1.4 mg/cm²) in the cathode materials. Then
115 1 C corresponds to 1675 mA/g. Electrochemical impedance spec-
116 troscopy (EIS) was carried out by the Solartron1255 B frequency
117 response analyzer coupled with a Solartron 1287 electrochemical
118 interface in the frequency range from 100 MHz to 0.1 Hz with an
119 applied voltage of 5 mV. The electronic conductivity was carried
120 out using a four-point probe meter (SDY-4, China)

121 3. Results and discussion

122 3.1. Structure and morphology

123 The schematic representation of 70%S–GnPs-*xh* materials prepara-
124 tion applied a mechano-chemical method. Briefly, 70 wt% sulfur
125 and 30 wt% commercialized graphite were placed into a steel jar
126 sealed under vacuum to rotate at 500 rpm for 24, 48, 72 or 96 h
127 in turn. The vacuum environment contributes to reduce the dop-
128 ing of oxygen to GnPs and improves the bonding content of sulfur.
129 The resultant products are denoted as 70%S–GnPs-*xh* (*x* represent
130 the ball-milling time). Furthermore, the as-prepared 70%S–GnPs-*xh*
131 samples were Soxhlet extracted with carbon disulfide (CS₂) solvent
132 to physically remove the sulfur that unbounded to GnPs, and the
133 final products are designed as 70%S–GnPs-*xh*-CS₂. Compared with
134 70%S–GnPs-48 h, the GnPs-48 h sample was prepared without sul-
135 fur under the same conditions (see Fig. 1).

136 The scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of the 70%S–
137 GnPs samples under different ball-milling times from 24 to 96 h
138 are shown in Fig. 2. All the samples exhibit large particles of
139 ~ 2 – 30 μ m for S–GnPs composites. Detailed examination for the
140 sample of 70%S–GnPs-48 h-CS₂ was imaged with TEM. It is ob-
141 served that the 70%S–GnPs-48 h-CS₂ sample reveals a clearly mor-
142 phology of 3D porous foam structure forming from self-assembling
143 of the sulfur functionalized GnPs material (Fig. 3(a)). As expected,
144 the monolayer or multilayer structures of GnPs flakes are clearly
145 obtained in Fig. 3(b) and (c), indicating that the mechano-chemical
146 method is effective to exfoliate the graphite to be layered GnPs.
147 Fig. 3(d) is the high angle annular dark field (HAADF) STEM im-
148 ages for layered structure of 70%S–GnPs-48 h-CS₂ and the energy
149 dispersive X-ray (EDX) was carried out (Fig. 3(e)) at point 1 and
150 point 2 from Fig. 3(d) to measure the distribution of sulfur. It can
151 be proved that the sulfur content around the edge is much higher
152 than that on the inside of mono-layered or multi-layered GnPs,
153 indicating that sulfur is mainly chemically bonded to the edge
154 of GnPs with the formation of C–S bonds and oxygen containing
155 functional groups. The introduction of oxygen is mainly owing to
156 the translation of certain active sulfur and carbon into functional
157 groups by means of spontaneous reaction with oxygen in air af-
158 ter opening the ball-milling jar. The introduced oxygen-containing
159 groups in GnPs can immobilize sulfur and improve the capacity re-
160 tention in the cathode due to the weak binding between the poly-
161 sulfides and the oxygenated framework [34–37]. The energy dis-
162 persive spectroscopic (EDS) mapping for 70%S–GnPs-48 h-CS₂ was
163 further carried out as shown in Fig. S1. Carbon, sulfur and oxygen

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