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Comparisons of heat treatment on the electrochemical performance of different carbons for lithium-oxygen cells

³ Q1 Peng Guan^a, Guixin Wang^{a,*}, Chunhui Luo^a, Kangping Yan^a, Elton J. Cairns^{b,c}, ⁴ Xueshan Hu^d

^a College of Chemical Engineering, Sichuan University, Chengdu 610065, China

- ^b Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, University of California, Berkeley, CA,USA
- ^c Environmental Energy Technologies Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA,USA

^d Novolyte Technologies Co. Ltd., Suzhou Industrial Park, Suzhou 215123, Jiangsu, China

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ABSTRACT

Lithium-oxygen (Li-O₂) cells are a promising power source, and carbons are an attractive non-metal catalyst for air electrodes. To improve the electrochemical performance, various carbons are heated in an inert atmosphere. It is found that heat treatment at 900 °C can differently improve the electrochemical performance of multiwalled carbon nanotubes (CNTs), acetylene carbon black (AB) and activated carbon (AC), but the improvement of CNTs is the most obvious. After heat treatment, the peak current density of the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) and the 1st discharge capacity of CNTs increase ~30% and ~125%, respectively, while the charge transfer reaction resistance and the Warburg diffusion resistance decrease ~7.0% and ~11.1%, respectively. AC has the highest charge capacities and capacity retention ratio in spite of little influence by heat treatment. The possible mechanism and reasons are analyzed using different techniques. Microstructure is superior to conductivity to enhance the rechargeability and the cyclability, and heat treatment is effective for some carbon materials in improving the electrochemical performance of Li-O₂ cells.

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25 1. Introduction

Lithium-air (Li-air) cells have received considerable attention 26 27 ranging from fundamental studies to applications as promising power supplies for electric vehicles (EVs) or mobile devices 28 with high specific energy. These cells have significant advantages 29 over conventional electrochemical energy storage and conversion 30 devices for their high theoretical energy density because they use 31 oxygen from the air instead of storing an oxidizer internally, com-32 parable to traditional gasoline engine systems. Because they work 33 using the reduction of oxygen at the cathode, Li-air cells are also 34 called Li-oxygen (Li-O₂) cells. According to the Faradic law, a Li-O₂ 35 cell can deliver $\sim 5.2 \times 10^3$ Wh kg⁻¹ (including the weight of oxy-36 gen) and 1.1×10^4 Wh kg⁻¹ (excluding the weight of oxygen), 5 37 \sim 10 times more energy than that of state-of-the-art lithium-ion 38 cells [1–9]. However, the development of practical Li-air cells for 39 use in an ambient environment faces many challenges such as the 40 air electrode, the current collector, the electrolyte, the separator 41

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +86 28 85406192. E-mail addresses: guixinwang1@gmail.com, guixin68@yahoo.com (G. Wang).

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.electacta.2014.02.079 0013-4686/© 2014 Published by Elsevier Ltd. and the lithium anode. Air electrodes, where oxygen reduction and evolution reactions take place, are at the heart of the technologies required for rechargeable Li-air cells. Several major obstacles, such as the deposition of discharge products in the pores of air electrodes, passivation by deposits of insulating discharge products, oxygen diffusion transport and reaction kinetic limitations, have to be overcome to achieve higher capacity and longer-life cells [2–12]. Currently, many materials, including Pt and its alloys [2–9,13,14], Au and its alloys [2–9,14], MnO_y [2–9,15–17], FeO_y [2–9,16], CoO_y [2–9,16], LaMn_{0.6}Fe_{0.4}O₃ [18], La_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}CoO_{2.91} [19], conducting PEDOT polymers [2–9,20], carbon black [2–9,12], carbon nanotubes and their composites [2–9,21,22], activated carbons [2–11], graphene oxides [2–10], graphenes and their composites [2–9,23,24], have been explored as possible air electrodes.

The microstructure of air electrode notably affects the electrochemical performance of Li–air cells because pores must supply plenty of microchannels for oxygen diffusion to the three-phase reaction interface and rooms for the storage of product deposition during the discharge process. Carbon materials are interesting as emerging and conceptually new advanced catalysts [25]. Therefore, porous carbons are attractive non-metal materials of choice as air electrodes due to their excellent properties such as highly

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accessible surface area, unique gas diffusion microchannels, chemical stability, electrical and thermal conductivity, mechanical strength, low weight, plentiful raw materials like waste biomateri-66 als, various allotropes, and environmental compatibility. However, 67 the deposition of reaction products makes it possible to block some pores, hindering gas transport during the discharge process [26]. On 60 the other hand, carbon itself generally exhibits a poor ORR activ-70 ity in Li-O₂ cells using non-aqueous electrolytes [27]. In order to 71 improve the electrocatalytic activities, different approaches, such 72 as the use of heteroatom doping [24,25,28–31], graphitization [32], 73 and MnO₂ nanoflake coatings [33], have been extensively inves-74 tigated. Considering the requirements of porous structure and 75 oxygen reduction reaction activity, much research has been con-76 ducted on the surface activation treatment of carbons [34,35]. Heat 77 treatment is one of the effective ways to improve the graphitization 78 degree, and modify the microstructure and surface chemistry of 79 carbons [36–38], but its influence on the electrocatalytic activities 80 of different carbons in a Li-O₂ cell is still not clear.

In this study, comparisons of heat treatment on the electrocat-82 alytic performance of various carbon materials have been carried 83 out using different methods, and the possible mechanisms and rea-84 sons have been analyzed using combined techniques.

2. Experimental Section

2.1. Heat treatment of different carbons

High surface area is one of the important properties of a mate-88 rial with a well-developed pore structure that benefits gas diffusion and supply of reaction sites. According to the references [34,38], heat treatment at 900 °C significantly increases the surface area 91 of carbon, so 900 °C was chosen as the heat treatment tempera-92 ture for this work. Three kinds of carbon materials, i.e. multiwalled CNTs produced from methane, commercial AC from coconut shells and AB from acetylene [39], were heat treated in a quartz tube furnace where nitrogen gas was passed through at a flow rate of 100 sccm. With a temperature increase rate of $10 \,^{\circ}$ C min⁻¹, the 97 samples were heated to 900 °C and kept at this temperature for 1.5 h, and then naturally cooled to room temperature in the furnace. 99 These samples were ground in an agate mortar for characterization. 100 The as-obtained heat treated CNTs, AC and AB at high temperature 101 were denoted as HT-CNTs, HT-AC and HT-AB, respectively. 102

2.2. Materials characterization 103

The crystalline structure of the carbons was verified by X-ray 104 diffraction (XRD, Philips X'Pert pro MPD) using Cu-K α radiation 105 in the range from 10 to 70° at a scan rate of 0.04° s⁻¹. The surface 106 functional groups on the carbons were evaluated by Fourier 107 transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) on a thermo Nicolet Magna 108 IR 560 spectrometer in the range of $900 \sim 3800 \,\mathrm{cm^{-1}}$ using the 109 KBr pellet method, and all spectra were obtained using 0.05 cm⁻¹ 110 resolution. Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were deter-111 mined at 77 K on an Autosorb SI surface area & pore size analyzer (Quantachrome instruments, USA). Samples were pretreated at 113 300 °C for 3 h to degas them under vacuum prior to adsorption 114 measurements. The specific surface areas of the samples were 115 calculated with the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) equation in a 116 relative pressure range from 0.06 to 0.35, whereas the pore size 117 distribution (PSD) was obtained by the adsorption branch of the 118 isotherms using the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) model. The total 119 pore volume (V_t) was estimated from the adsorbed amount at a 120 relative pressure (P/P₀) of 0.99. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy 121 122 (XPS) was performed on a Kratos XSAM800 photoelectron spectrometer with Al-Mg X-ray radiation at 12 kV \times 15 mA under 123

vacuum. All the binding energies were corrected based on the internal standard of the C1s peak position at 284.8 eV.

2.3. Electrochemical evaluation

To increase the cell operating voltage and thus the energy density, the electrocatalytic performance of the carbons were evaluated in an organic electrolyte with a wide electrochemical potential window using self-made two-electrode Li-air cells with gas channels. The working electrode was prepared by coating a carbon slurry onto a clean nickel foam using a doctor blade, and being dried at 100 °C in a vacuum oven before being cut into wafers of 1.9 cm diameter. The carbon slurry with a composition of 90 wt.% carbon and 10 wt.% polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) was prepared by stirring and grinding the mixture of carbon powder and PTFE emulsion (solid content = 60 wt.%, Shanghai 3F New Material Co.) diluted with an appropriate amount of deionized water. In order to test its own performance of each carbon, no conductive carbon was added to make the slurry. Porous nickel foam was used as not only the support for the active materials, but also the storage for the discharge products, current collector, and gas channels for oxygen transfer. These wafers with a loading density of \sim 0.57 mg (carbon materials)/cm⁻² (apparent surface area of nickel disc) were further dried at 100 °C for 12 hours in a vacuum drying oven for use as working electrodes. Pure lithium foil was used as the counter and reference electrodes. 1.0 M LiPF₆ dissolved in tetraethylene glycol dimethyl ether (Novolyte Technologies Co. Ltd., China) solution was used as the non-aqueous electrolyte, and its amount in each electrode was controlled around 0.08 ml using a precision graduated syringe. The cells were assembled by sandwiching a Celgard 2300 microporous separator between the working electrode and the metal lithium in an argon-filled glove box. The side of the cell with open vent holes is adjacent to the carbon cathode to allow for oxygen transfer, and the other side is adjacent to the lithium foil with air tightness to prevent lithium corrosion. The electrochemical performance of the cells was evaluated in a dry oxygen atmosphere at room temperature using different techniques, including galvanostatic discharge/charge method, cyclic voltammetry (CV), and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The discharge/charge tests were conducted on a battery testing instrument (Neware Technologies Co. Ltd., China) with a constant current density of 70 mA (g carbon)⁻¹ in a potential window of 2.0 \sim 4.2 V vs. Li⁺/Li. CV measurements of the Li-O₂ cells were carried out at a scan rate of $0.2 \, \text{mV} \, \text{s}^{-1}$ between 2.0 and 4.2 V vs. Li⁺/Li on a PAR 273A potentiostat/galvanostat (Princeton Applied Research, USA). EIS measurements of the fresh Li-O2 cells were performed over a frequency range of 10 mHz $\sim 100\,\text{kHz}$ with a sinusoidal excitation voltage amplitude of 10 mV on an electrochemical workstation consisting of the PAR273A and a signal recovery model 5210 lock-in-amplifier controlled by Powersuite software. The impedance curves were fitted using Zsimpwin and Zview software [40,41].

3. Results and discussion

In order to understand the influence of heat treatment on the electrochemical performance of carbon materials and to improve the energy density of Li-O₂ cells beyond that available with aqueous electrolytes, these carbons were evaluated using an organic electrolyte with a wide electrochemical window. Fig. 1 shows the galvanostatic discharge/charge curves of the Li-O₂ cells prepared with different carbon materials, and the key values are summarized in Table 1. From the testing results, heat treatment differently improves the discharge/charge capacities and capacity retention of all carbons in the organic electrolyte. The sequence of the initial

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Table 1

Comparisons of heat treatment on the capacities of different carbon materials.

Materials	1 st discharge (mAh/g)	1 st charge (mAh/g)	2 nd discharge (mAh/g)	2 nd charge (mAh/g)
CNTs	1001	140	174	69
HT-CNTs	2255	341	245	128
AB	1839	74	73	36
HT-AB	1974	77	74	37
AC	1592	677	323	258
HT-AC	1770	781	365	306

ORR activity of the pristine carbons is AB > AC > CNTs, but it changes 185 to CNTs>AB>AC after heat treatment. HT-CNTs have the high-186 est initial discharge capacity, but the charge capacity and the 2nd 187 discharge capacity are low, which may be from the dead-lithium 188 189 during the 1st discharge process. No matter how much heat treating is done, the sequence of the charge capacity and the capacity reten-190 tion of the carbons is AC>CNTs>AB. Under the same conditions, 191 heat treatment increases the initial discharge capacity of CNTs from 192 1000 to 2254 mAh g^{-1} , and the initial charge capacity of CNTs from 193 140 to 341 mAh g^{-1} , as shown in Fig. 1a. At the same time, the ini-194 tial discharge capacities of AB and AC have been increased ${\sim}7.3\%$ 195 to reach 1974 mAh g^{-1} and \sim 11.2% to reach 1770 mAh g^{-1} , respec-196 tively, as shown in Fig. 1b and c. The discharge capacity retention 197 ratios of the 2nd cycle to the 1st cycle of the heated CNTs, AB and 198 AC are \sim 10.9%, \sim 3.7% and \sim 20.1%, respectively. The fade reasons 199 are very complex, and one of them may originate from the blocked 200 microstructure by the product of lithium oxides which have not 201 completely decomposed during the charge process because of the 202 low coulombic efficiency. On the other hand, these carbons have 203 definite rechargeable properties despite the large fade between 204 the first two cycles. Heat treatment differently decreases all the 205 charge potential plateaus of various carbons, and increases the dis-206 charge potential plateaus of CNTs, but has little influence on that of 207 AB and AC, indicating heating treatment differently decreases the 208 medium potential difference between discharge curves and charge 209 210 curves. The heated samples all have the stable discharge potential plateaus at ~2.6 V during the 1st discharge process, similar to that of 211 the lithium-O₂ cells using carbon black [12], CNTs [21], SWNT/CNF 212 buckypapers [22] or graphene [22,23], corresponding to the reac-213 tion of O₂ with Li⁺ ions to form lithium oxides. Noticeably, the 214 potential plateaus are much stable and higher than that of CNTs 215 for lithium-ion batteries besides the higher discharge capacity [42], 216 indicating the energy storage mechanism of lithium-oxygen cells 217 is different from the lithium insertion/extraction mechanism of 218 lithium-ion batteries. The capacity retention and the charge behav-219 ior of AC are better than that of CNTs or AB in spite of the low initial 220 discharge capacity and little influence by heat treatment, which 221 may be from the developed microstructure with a high specific 222 surface area of 2000 m² g⁻¹ [39]. 223

To investigate the influence of heat treatment on the interface 224 behavior of the carbons, the EIS curves of the fresh cells are com-225 pared under the same conditions with an open circuit potential 226 of ~3.1 V. The Nyquist plots of various carbons, along with the 227 equivalent circuit model used for EIS data fitting are presented 228 in Fig. 2. All curves consist of a depressed semicircle in high-to-229 medium frequency region and an oblique line in low frequency 230 231 region, indicating a similar electrode reaction process. The intercept of the curve on the Z' real axis in high frequency region reflects the 232 Ohmic resistance. The depressed semicircle in the high-to-medium 233 234 frequency corresponds to the interface film and charge transfer reaction impedances, which is related to the electrode reaction 235 kinetics. The oblique line in the low frequency region is associated 236 with the Warburg impedance, which is relevant to the semi-infinite 237 diffusion and mass transport process of lithium ions. Except that of 238 AB, the knee frequency at the mixed-control region of the charge 239 transfer reaction and mass transport of CNTs or AC increases after 240

heat treatment, indicating that the electrode reaction kinetics have been improved. The EIS experimental data, subjected to a nonlinear least-square fitting procedure, can be fitted well by the equivalent circuit model of $R_s(Q_iR_i)(Q_d(R_{ct}W))$ supplied in Fig. 2d, and the theoretical impedance plots match exactly with the experimental curves. Considering the nonhomogeneity such as porosity, roughness and geometry in the electrode system, constant phase element (CPE) Q is used to substitute for capacitance C [17,40,41]. A depressed semicircle will be formed when the CPE is placed in parallel with a resistor, as shown in Fig. 2a-c. In the equivalent circuit, R_s is the solution Ohmic resistance which follows the Ohm's law, including the contributions from electrolyte, temperature and the geometry of the area in which current is carried; R_i is the interfacial resistance between active material particles and other adjacent substances (such as particles, electrolyte, current collector, and binder), and Q_i is the constant phase element of the interface film; R_{ct}, Q_d, and W are the charge transfer reaction resistance of electrode, the constant phase element of the three-phase interface of O_2 , electrolyte and active material, and the general Warburg diffusion impedance which concerns the semi-infinite chemical diffusion of lithium ions and gas in the air electrode, respectively. R_{ct} and W share one constant phase element Q, indicating that charge transfer reaction and diffusion take place at the three-phase interface. The fitted results of the EIS curves are summarized in Table 2. The high R_i, R_{ct} and W values of CNTs and HT-CNTs may be from the complex microstructure, the electron jump between different layers and the long diffusion path because CNTs are made of many cylinder layers with a long length [17,21,39,41]. The low diffusion resistance of AC is from its developed microstructure with plenty of microchannels for gas transport. Heat treatment can decrease the charge transfer reaction impedance of these carbons to different degrees, and the values of R_{ct} of CNTs, AB and AC decrease \sim 7.0%, \sim 7.8% and \sim 2.3%, respectively, which further confirms the improvement of reaction kinetics of different carbons by heat treatment.

From above results, it can be seen that heat treatment has a significant influence on the electrochemical performance of CNTs. To further investigate the ORR activity of the carbon in the organic electrolyte, cyclic voltammetry measurements of the Li-O₂ cells were conducted, as shown in Fig. 3. The CV curves of the CNTs have no quasi-rectangular capacitive properties, and the shape is similar to that of carbon black in the lithium-oxygen cells using organic electrolyte [43], different from that in aqueous electrolyte (See Figure S1, Supporting Information), that of the lithium-ion batteries [42] or that of the supercapacitors using the similar carbon

Table 2	
Influence of heat treatment on the impedances of different carbon mate	rials.

Materials	R _s (ohm)	R _i (ohm)	R _{ct} (ohm)	W (ohm)
CNTs	25.7	120.8	178.2	329.5
HT-CNTs	12.5	111.6	165.7	292.9
AB	40.8	17.2	170.3	315.7
HT-AB	16.6	16.9	157.1	293.2
AC	14.7	28.2	196.1	148.8
HT-AC	35.5	52.6	191.5	147.6

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Fig. 1. Influence of heat treatment on the galvanostatic discharge/charge curves of different carbons in the organic electrolyte.

materials [39]. According to the references [44,45], O_2 reduction proceeds in a stepwise fashion to form O_2^- , O_2^{2-} , and O^{2-} intermediates in Li⁺-containing electrolytes, and the product is a mixture of Li₂ O_2 and Li₂O. The insulative lithium oxides cover the surface of carbon electrode to decrease the Helmholtzs layer between electrolyte and active materials, so the energy storage based on electric double-layer mechanism is not obvious, which results in no visible



Fig. 2. (a) Nyquist plots of the Li-O $_2$ cells using (a) CNTs and HT-CNTs, (b) AB and HT-AB, (c) AC and HT-AC, and (d) corresponding equivalent circuit model.

capacitance behavior in the CV curves using organic electrolyte. This also indicates the energy storage of carbon air electrodes in lithium-oxygen cells using organic electrolyte is mainly based on redox reactions, i.e. ORR and oxygen evolution reaction (OER) [2–9]. The reduction peak of the pristine CNTs is not sharp, but the peak becomes very obvious after heat treatment. The reduction peak position of the HT-CNTs is at \sim 2.2 V, and the reduction current density increases \sim 30%, indicating that the ORR activity of CNTs has been improved by heat treatment, which is consistent with above results. Carbons have interesting catalytic performance [2–12,20–23,30], and the potentials of the catalytic peaks can be given in 3 ways [46]: 1) the onset, 2) the half-wave, and 3) the pinnacle of the peaks. After heat treatment, the half-wave potential and the pinnacle potential move positively if we consider the smooth transition of the ORR peak of the pristine carbon, but the onset

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Fig. 3. Comparisons of the CV curves of the $Li-O_2$ cells using CNTs and HT-CNTs in the organic electrolyte.

potential of the carbon has no visible positive movement, similar 308 to that of the N-doped graphene catalysts [24]. The different ORR 309 310 activities are attributed to the carbon catalysts because the other conditions are same. Therefore, heat treatment can improve the 311 ORR activities of carbon materials, especially for CNTs, which will be 312 analyzed with regard to the possible aspects affected by heat treat-313 ment, such as conductivity, surface chemistry, N elemental doping 314 and microstructure 315

The influence of heat treatment on the XRD patterns of different 316 carbon materials is shown in Fig. 4. The curves of the heat treated 317 carbons almost coincide with that of the pristine one, indicating 318 that heat treatment at 900 °C has few effects on the crystalline 319 structure and interlayer spacing of various carbons. Compared to 320 AB, AC and their heated samples, CNTs and HT-CNTs have an exces-321 sive (004) peak at \sim 53°, and the (002) peak is sharp and outstanding 322 besides the slight shift of the (002) and (100) peak positions, indi-323 cating that the crystalline structure of these carbons is different. 324 CNTs and HT-CNTs have characteristics including an obvious sharp 325 peak at $\sim 26^{\circ}$, weak peaks at $\sim 43^{\circ}$ and at $\sim 53^{\circ}$, respectively cor-326 responding to the (002), (100) and (004) faces of the hexagonal 327 graphitic carbon, which indicates a high graphitization degree that 328 corresponds to a good electronic conductivity [47]. However, the 329 (002) peak of AB and HT-AB becomes broad and the (002) peak of 330 AC and HT-AC becomes almost no visible besides the absence of the 331 (004) peak, implying the breaking of the inter-planar bonds of car-332 bon, which indicates AC and HT-AC are inferior to AB and HT-AB to 333 have a low graphitization degree which results in poor conductivity 334 [39,47]. The (002) peak intensity of AB shows a small increase after 335 heat treatment, indicating that heat treatment slightly improves 336 the conductivity. The significant decrease in the intensity of the 337 (002) peak compared to that of CNTs or AB shows that an amor-338 phous structure is dominant for AC, and the (002) peak will increase 339 until the heating temperature is over 1800 °C [38,48]. On the other 340 hand, no visible shift of (002) peak indicates that there is no N 341 doping to the carbon during the heat treatment process in N₂ atmo-342 sphere, which is further demonstrated by XPS latter. Therefore, the 343 electric conductivity sequence of the carbons and their heat treated 344 samples is CNTs>AB>AC, and the improvement of the graphiti-345 zation degree of carbons is not obvious after heat treatment at 346 900°C. 347

Surface functional group will affect the electrochemical performance of carbons by changing the dispersion, conductivity and wettability of electrolyte [49]. In order to identify the changes of the surface functional group of carbons after heat treatment, the typical FTIR spectra are shown in Fig. 5. All carbons show strong and broad peaks at around 3430 cm⁻¹ and 1120 cm⁻¹, which correspond to the stretching mode of O-H and C-O, respectively. The weak peaks



Fig. 4. XRD patterns of different carbon materials (a) CNTs and HT-CNTs, (b) AB and HT-AB, and (c) AC and HT-AC.

at around 2920 cm⁻¹ and 1410 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the stretching vibrations of asymmetric CH₂ and C-OH, respectively. The peaks ranging from 1580 cm⁻¹ to 1640 cm⁻¹ are the characteristic C = C stretching [50]. From the FTIR peak intensities and positions, the type and amount of the surface functional groups of CNTs and AC are similar, which are much more than that of AB. Compared to the pristine samples, the heat treated samples have no obvious peak changes, indicating the type and amount of surface functional group remain stable. Therefore, the dispersion, the conductivity and the wettability of carbons are similar after heat treatment at 900 °C.

N-doping can improve the catalytic activity of carbon [23,24,27–30], so XPS was conducted to determine whether N

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Fig. 5. FTIR spectra of different carbon materials (a) CNTs and HT-CNTs, (b) AB and HT-AB, and (c) AC and HT-AC.

dopes the carbons for enhancing the electrochemical performance 367 since the heat treatment was carried out in a N2 atmosphere. 368 Because the improvement of the electrochemical performance of 369 CNTs is the most obvious, the composition and elemental chemical 370 state of the heated CNTs were examined by XPS, and the full-scale 371 spectrum is shown in Fig. 6. Noticeably, no nitrogen peak can be 372 detected in the XPS curve, indicating that there is no N doping to the 373 carbon during the heat treatment in N2 atmosphere at 900 °C, which 374 is due to the chemically extremely unreactive nitrogen molecule. 375 The O is from the surface group of the pristine CNTs which were 376 377 purified by refluxing with a hot HCl solution, agreeing with above FTIR results. From the semi-quantitative analysis result of XPS, 378



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the atomic contents of C and O are 97.4% and 2.6%, respectively. Therefore, there is no contribution of N doping to the improved performance.

According to the above analysis results, the great improvement of the ORR activities is mainly from the improved microstructure because the conductivity and surface functional groups change little as well as there is no N-doping contribution. As for the CNTs with the greatest improvement of performance, the microstructure was evaluated by the BET method at 77 K. The adsorption/desorption isotherms and pore size distribution of CNTs and HT-CNTs are compared in Fig. 7, and the physical and structural parameters are summarized in Table 3. From Fig. 7(a), both samples exhibit typical type-IV N₂ sorption isotherms with distinct H3 hysteresis loops that relate to slit-shaped pores, indicative of a mesoporous characteristic [19,51]. From Fig. 7(b), the pore size distributions of both CNTs and HT-CNTs focus on around 3.8 nm which is in the mesoporous range. The curves show that heat treatment changes the sorption isotherms from $P/P^0 = 0.45$ as well as the BJH pore size distributions. HT-CNTs exhibit a slight adsorption hysteresis phenomenon that is due to the capillary condensation of nitrogen in the mesopores of carbon, indicative of the increase of mesopores. A vertical rise in the location of isothermal curve suggests a volume increase of nitrogen gas adsorption for the pristine CNTs, indicating a decrease in pore volume of the heat-treated carbon. The microporous volume ratio and mesoporous volume ratio were calculated using the α_s -method from desorption and integration from the pore size distribution curve [51], respectively, and the calculated ratios are summarized in Table 3. The value of dV/dD in the pore size range from 3 to 16 nm of heat treated carbon is significantly higher than that of pristine CNTs, indicating that heat treatment improves the mesoporous ratio, which is confirmed by the increased ratio of mesopore volume to total pore volume from 61.11% to 66.81% after heat treatment. Therefore, heat treatment at 900 °C improves the pore microstructure of CNTs, and the ratio of mesopore volume to total pore volume and the BET surface area increase \sim 5.7% and \sim 24.7%, respectively, while the total pore volume, the ratio of micropore volume to total pore volume, the ratio of macropore volume to total pore volume, and average pore width decrease $\sim 13\%$, \sim 0.1%, \sim 5.6% and \sim 31%, respectively. The improvement of the pore microstructure of CNTs by heat treatment is from the collapse of some macropores and the breakdown of some micropores because of the increase of mesoporous ratio and surface area as well as the decrease of pore volume, pore size, microporous ratio and macroporous ratio. At the same time, heat treatment may open some dead pores and increase the defects to enhance the adsorption surface area and the reaction active sites. The balance of micropores,

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Influence of heat treatment on the textural properties of different carbon materials.

Materials	$S_{BET} (m^2 g^{-1})^a$	$V_{total} (cm^3 g^{-1})^b$	V_{mic}/V_{total} (%) ^c	V_{mes}/V_{total} (%) ^d	V_{mac}/V_{total} (%)	Average pore diameter (nm) ^e
CNTs	149.50	0.54	0.16	61.11	38.73	14.55
HT-CNTs	186.40	0.47	0.05	66.81	33.14	10.12

Apparent surface areas were calculated by multipoint BET method at the relative pressure range of 0.06~0.35.

^b Total pore volume from adsorption isotherms at $P/P_0 = 0.99$.

 c α_{s} -method from desorption

^d integration method from the pore size distribution curve

^e BJH method from desorption

mesopores and macropores play an important role in enhancing the 425 electrochemical performance, and more mesopores can effectively 426 improve the discharge capacity of lithium oxygen cells because 427 more mesopores can act as more available gas channels and provide 428 more spaces for the storage of discharge products to allow free 429 oxygen transfer. Furthermore, highly accessible surface area will 430 effectively supply plenty of adsorption and reaction sites for oxy-431 gen molecules, which are significant for the improvement of the 432 electrochemical performance of air electrodes and their Li-O₂ cells 433 [12]. Therefore, the pore microstructure of carbon plays a critical 434 role in the storage and distribution of lithium oxide product, inten-435 sification of mass and heat transport, enhancement of gas diffusion 436 and active sites for electrode reaction. 437

As for the air electrode reaction of Li-O₂ cells, O₂ must firstly diffuse into the electrolyte and adsorb to the surface of wetted porous
carbons, and then get electrons from the lithium anode under the
electromotive force of the potential difference between Li metal
and carbon to form oxygen anion intermediates that will further
react with lithium ions to produce lithium oxides of Li₂O₂ and Li₂O



Fig. 7. (a) N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms curves, and (b) pore size distributions of CNTs and HT-CNTs.

during the discharge process [44,45,52]. When the cell is charged, the product will decompose to form Li and O_2 for cycling. Hard-soft acid-base theory has been used to elucidate the observed behavior of oxygen reaction [45], and the possible electrode reaction mechanism has been provided as follows [44,45,52].

Anode :
$$\operatorname{Li} - \stackrel{discharge}{\underset{charge}{\rightleftharpoons}} \operatorname{Li}^+$$
 (1) 44

Cathode :
$$O_2^g \stackrel{dissolution}{\underset{evolution}{\overset{elec}{\sim}}} O_2^{\text{elec}} \stackrel{adsorption}{\underset{desorption}{\overset{elec}{\sim}}} O - O_{(ads)} + e \stackrel{discharge}{\underset{charge}{\overset{discharge}{\overset{elec}{\sim}}}} O_2^-$$
 (2) 4:

$$D_2^- + Li^+ \to LiO_2 \tag{3}$$

$$\text{LiO}_2 + \text{Li}^+ + e \rightarrow \text{Li}_2\text{O}_2 \tag{4}$$

$$2\text{LiO}_2 \rightarrow \text{Li}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2(\text{disproportionation reaction})$$
 (5)

$$\mathrm{Li}_2\mathrm{O}_2 + 2\mathrm{Li}^+ + 2e \rightarrow 2\mathrm{Li}_2\mathrm{O}$$

Therefore, the whole cathodic reaction can be expressed as

$$2xLi^{+} + O_{2} + 2xe \stackrel{discharge}{\approx} 2Li_{x}O(1 < x < 2)$$
(7)

When x = 1, the product is Li_2O_2 , so the reaction is $O_2 + 2Li^+ + \frac{discharge}{arge}$ $Ze \rightleftharpoons Li_2O_2$;

When x = 2, the product is Li₂O, so the reaction is $O_2 + 4Li^+ + 4e \stackrel{discharge}{\approx} 2Li_2O$.

e ← ∠L charge

charge

Thus, proper pore size distribution is necessary for oxygen diffusion, and a high accessible surface area is needed to supply more adsorption and reaction sites. At the same time, the produced lithium oxides will deposit on the surface of the carbon or accumulate in the pores to limit the oxygen diffusion and accessibility to the electrode surface for further reaction, which will result in the incomplete utilization of the carbon cathode to decrease the electrochemical performance (even terminate the electrode reaction under serious conditions). Therefore, large size pores are required for lithiation product storage and oxygen diffusion. However, there is a conflict between large size pores and high surface area. So, available pores with proper size distribution and high accessible surface area should compromise to reach a balance for enhancing the electrochemical performance of the porous air electrode, which can be realized by the optimization of pore microstructure using heat treatment.

Consequently, the enhanced electrochemical performance of CNTs is mainly a result of the improvement of mesopore volume and accessible surface area by heat treatment at 900 °C. Heat treatment can produce positive effects like opening the closed dead-end pores produced during the carbon production process, creation of new voids on the surface and pore walls, growth of surface defects and intrinsic lacunae in size and quantity on the tube walls and thinning of the walls [33]. The increase of mesopores and surface area provides additional oxygen diffusion channels for improving oxygen transport as well as spaces for the electrode reaction and

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storing the solid discharge products on the cathode to enhance 187 the ORR activities, in good agreement with other results [12,53]. 488 Furthermore, heat treatment will also benefit the atomic arrange-489 ment to enhance electron flow, break a portion of the C-C bonds to 490 cause carbon atoms dissociation and tube compartments breakage 491 (even result in the creation of interlinks and the surface recon-492 struction [54]). On the other hand, the lithium product of Li_2O_2 is 403 insulating [44], which will increase the charge transfer resistance 404 to produce a high electrochemical reaction polarization. CNTs with 495 good conductivity can decrease the disadvantages of the insulat-496 ing intermediate products. In addition, CNTs are superior to perfect 497 hexagonal carbon rings in absorbing O2 and lithium ions at the edge 498 and other imperfections in the sidewalls [55,56], which leads to 499 numerous activated reaction sites for ORR at the edges or defects 500 of the carbon surface. Therefore, heat treatment will enhance the 501 ORR activities of carbons, and the improvement of CNTs is the 502 most obvious. Further work on optimizing carbon post treatment 503 (such as heat treatment temperature, time and atmosphere, proper 504 pore size distribution, accessible surface area, surface chemistry, 505 conductivity and heteroatom doping) and carbon composites to 506 improve the cycle performance of the Li-oxygen cells is under 507 508 investigation.

509 4. Conclusion

In summary, different carbons, including CNTs, AB, and AC, have 510 exhibited specific rechargeable performance as the cathodes of Li-511 O₂ cells, and heat treatment at 900 °C can differently improve their 512 electrochemical performance. As for the heated samples using the 513 organic electrolyte, the 1st discharge capacities of CNTs, AB and 514 AC increase \sim 125%, \sim 7.3%, and \sim 11.2%, respectively, while the 515 charge transfer reaction resistances of CNTs, AB and AC decrease 516 \sim 7.0%, \sim 7.8% and \sim 2.3%, respectively. HT-CNTs have the highest 517 initial discharge capacity, while AC without/with heat treatment 518 has the highest charge capacity and the best cyclability in spite of 519 the slight enhancement by heat treatment. The discharge/charge 520 properties, EIS, crystalline structure and surface chemistry of the 521 heated carbons were compared, and the possible reasons for the 522 improvement by heat treatment have been analyzed from differ-523 ent aspects. After heat treatment, XRD results show that the crystal 524 structure of the carbons changes little, FTIR spectra indicate that the 525 surface functional groups on the carbons have no visible changes, 526 and XPS result confirms that there is no N doping. As for the CNTs 527 528 with the most obvious improvement, the ratio of mesopore volume to total pore volume and the BET surface area increase \sim 5.7% 529 and \sim 24.7%, respectively, while the total pore volume, the ratio of 530 macropore volume to total pore volume, and average pore width 531 decrease ~13%, ~5.6% and ~31%, respectively. The experimental 532 results show that ORR activities are mainly affected by the pore 533 microstructure and conductivity of the carbons, and microstruc-534 ture is much more important than conductivity to enhance the 535 rechargeability and cyclability of carbons in spite that conductivity 536 enhances the ORR activities. The capacity retention is determined 537 by the microstructure which favors the adsorption and the reaction 538 of O₂ and allows the compatibility between gas diffusion and stor-539 age of discharge products, and initial discharge capacity is affected 540 by the graphitization degree that is closely related to conductivity. 541

The experiments demonstrate that the selection of carbons with 542 proper heat treatment appears to be a key factor for enhancing 543 the ORR activities, and pore microstructure as well as graphiti-544 zation degree is of extreme significance for them. In spite of the 545 specific rechargeable properties of carbons, the electrocatalytic 546 performance of carbons need to be further improved by optimizing 547 548 the microstructure, graphitization degree, surface chemistry, 549 heteroatom doping, surface coating and forming composites. Consequently, carbons will become competitive as a green catalyst, and heat treatment is a feasible and effective way to enhance the ORR activities by improving the microstructure, which is beneficial to the exploration and applications of promising non-metal catalysts in enhanced energy conversion of Li-O₂ cells.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.electacta.2014.02.079.

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