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Ilyas Tarhouchi, Philippe Vinatier, Michel Ménétrier, Virginie Viallet. Electrochemical characterization of Li10SnP2S12: An electrolyte or a negative electrode for solid state Li-ion batteries?. Solid State Ionics, 2016, 296, pp.18-25. 10.1016/j.ssi.2016.08.016 . hal-01370993

HAL Id: hal-01370993 https://hal.science/hal-01370993

Submitted on 19 Jan 2021

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Electrochemical characterization of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂: An electrolyte or a negative electrode for solid state Li-ion batteries?

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Keywords: LGPS structure Sulfide Solid electrolyte Electrochemical properties Conversion reaction

ABSTRACT

Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂, the tin analogue of the Li₁₀GeP₂S₁₂ superionic conductor is characterized. Rietveld refinement of cap illary powder XRD confirms that the material provided by NEI Corp. is mainly composed of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ with LGPS structure, with some Li₂SnS₃ impurity. Very strong reactivity at low voltage and vs. Li metal is shown by imped ance measurements using Au and Li electrodes, as well as 3 electrode cyclic voltammetry. Galvanostatic mea surements in half cells with liquid and solid electrolytes confirm that Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ reacts with respectively 16 and 8 lithium per mole of tin below 0.5 V vs. Li⁺/Li, most probably following a conversion/alloying reaction. Mak ing use of this reactivity, we tested the concept of a LiCO₂/Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ cell, were the electrolyte also acts as neg ative electrode at the contact with the negative current collector. 0.5 Li can be deintercalated from such cells, with a non optimized electrode formulation. Although the voltage slowly but strongly relaxes when opening the circuit suggesting propagation of the reaction from the negative electrode to the electrolyte, it does not seem to reach the positive since no short circuit was observed.

1. Introduction

Among all electrical energy storage technologies, Li ion batteries be come more and more favored, since their high energy densities are of first interest for portable devices, electrical vehicles or smart grids de velopment. However, safety issues remain, since organic liquid electro lyte currently used in such batteries can leak (with hydrofluoric acid emission), or ignite [1]. Development of Li all solid state batteries can be considered as a possible alternative, since they are based on non flammable solid electrolytes, in place of organic liquid electrolytes.

The solid electrolyte should exhibit key properties: low electronic conductivity, chemical stability vs. the electrode materials, wide electro chemical stability window and high ionic conductivity. The latter was considered as the main issue for the development of all solid state bat teries, since the best solid electrolytes exhibited an ionic conductivity at room temperature of 10^{-3} S·cm⁻¹, which is less than that of liquid electrolytes (10^{-2} S·cm⁻¹).

Kanno published recently a new solid electrolyte, $Li_{10}GeP_2S_{12}$, exhibiting a room temperature ionic conductivity of $1.2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ S} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$, comparable to or higher than ionic conductivities of organic electrolytes used in Li ion batteries [2]. It crystallizes in a

tetragonal LGPS structure ($P4_2$ /nmc space group) with isolated (Ge/ P)S₄ tetrahedra, where phosphorus occupies 2b sites (or 2a sites de pending on the origin chosen for the space group) with 100% occupancy and share the 4d site with Ge with (nominally) 50% occupancy. This LGPS structure, later confirmed by single crystal XRD [3], is different from the one published a few years before for the Li₁₀GeP₂S₁₂ composi tion: in the Li₄ – _xGe₁ – _xP_xS₄ solid solution with Li₄GeS₄ and Li₃PS₄ end members, Kanno had indeed presented materials which crystallize in an orthorhombic thio LiSICON structure (γ Li₃PO₄ type) with different monoclinic superlattice modifications depending on x [4].

Computation results on $Li_{10}MP_2S_{12}$ (M = Si, Ge, Sn) with LGPS struc ture predicted these solid electrolytes to decompose into Li_3PS_4 and Li_4MS_4 , and thus the "tetragonal" LGPS structure for $Li_{10}MP_2S_{12}$ compo sition to be metastable, although weakly. However, an ordered structure was necessarily considered for the calculation and resulted in a P1 space group, which is different from the tetragonal LGPS obtained experimen tally [5,6].

Very recently, Kanno reported an $\text{Li}_4 - _x\text{Ge}_1 - _x\text{P}_x\text{S4}$ ($0.5 \le x \le 0.65$) solid solution range for which materials have a pure LGPS structure, with different Ge/P ratios in the 4*d* site depending on the composition [7]. For other $\text{Li}_4 - _x\text{M}_1 - _x\text{P}_x\text{S4}$ (M = Si, Sn), similar solid solution ranges crystallizing in a pure LGPS structure were also reported, but for differ ent compositions [8].

Cyclic voltammetry of selected Ge, Si and Sn LGPS type materials using a pellet with a gold sputtered working electrode facing a lithium

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counter and reference electrode was reported [2,8]. These materials were thus presented to be stable up to 5 V vs. Li⁺/Li (no decomposition peaks being observed), making these solid electrolytes suitable for high energy density batteries application. Nevertheless, the calculation re sults predicted all Li₁₀MP₂S₁₂ with LGPS structure to be unstable at 0 V and 5 V vs. Li⁺/Li [6].

 $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ has been made available commercially by NEI Corp., even before the first preparation report of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ by Bron et al. [9]. In the latter report, X ray diffraction confirms single crystals with this composition crystallizing in the LGPS structure, and the ionic bulk conductivity of 7×10^{-3} S·cm⁻¹ at room temperature is in agreement with previous calculations [6].

n the present study, we describe a characterization of the commercial $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ material. Rietveld refinement of X ray diffractograms confirms the tetragonal LGPS structure with some Li_2SnS_3 impurity; impedance measurements show an unexpected ef fect of the measurements itself; three electrode cyclic voltammetry reveals the narrow electrochemical stability window of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ and especially at low potential. We finally propose the concept of a solid state battery using this material both as solid electrolyte and as negative electrode material. We note that the concept of using an LGPS type material as electrolyte and as active electrode was ac tually very recently proposed by Han et al. while we were investigat ing it independently [10]. These authors even propose that $Li_{10}GeP_2S_{12}$ also act as positive electrode; however, they did not ad dress the behavior upon long relaxation.

2. Experimental

 $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ was purchased from NEI Corporation and is referred to as $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ NEI (nominally >95% purity).

Based on previous studies [11], Li₂SnS₃ was prepared as follows: the precursors Li₂S (Sigma Aldrich, 99.9% of purity), Sn (Sigma Aldrich, 99.8% of purity) and sulfur are mixed and ground in a mortar in stoichio metric proportions. The powder mixture is placed in a vitreous carbon crucible, which is then placed in a silica tube. All these operations are carried out in a glove box under Ar atmosphere. The tube is sealed under vacuum and heat treated at 750 °C during 24 h.

X ray diffraction patterns were obtained using a Panalytical Empirean diffractometer operating with Cu K $\alpha_1\alpha_2$ radiation ($\lambda_1 = 1.5406$ Å and $\lambda_2 = 1.5443$ Å) in capillary configuration (transmis sion) with 0.2 mm diameter capillaries. Le Bail and Rietveld refine ments of the XRD pattern were performed using the Fullprof suite [12].

Impedance measurements were carried out using a Solartron 1260 analyzer on pellets (\emptyset 13 mm 5 tons/370 MPa). Depending on the experiment, a heat treatment (500 °C during 12 h in an evacuated glass ampoule) was applied or not on the pellet, as indicated in each case. Gold blocking electrodes were sputtered on each face of the pellets using a device directly opening into the dry box. Measurements were carried out between 10 MHz and 1 Hz or between 10 MHz and 10 kHz, with an amplitude of 20 mV. For the temperature dependence study, impedance diagrams were measured every 5 °C once the oven temperature was stable (variation lower than 0.5 °C during 10 min) be tween 25 °C and 110 °C. For the Arrhenius plots, the temperature used is the one measured by a sensor in the measuring cell very close to the sample.

Impedance measurements were also carried out on cold pressed pellets (Ø 13 mm 5 tons/370 MPa), with Li foils as electrodes. The measurements were carried out at different times between $t = t_0$ and $t = t_0 + 94$ h and for frequencies between 10 MHz and 1 Hz with an am plitude of 50 mV.

Electrochemical stability was characterized by cyclic voltammetry using a 3 electrode set up: on one side of the solid electrolyte pellet, a gold working electrode is sputtered on half the surface. On the other side of the pellet, a gold counter electrode is sputtered on the entire surface. A thin piece of a pressed mixture of Ag₃SI (prepared as reported by Takahashi and Yamamota [13] and Ag (Sigma Aldrich, 99.9% of puri ty)) is used as reference electrode and is kept in contact on the non sputtered part of the pellet, next to the working electrode. The mea sured potential of the reference electrode was 2.11 V vs. Li⁺/Li in agree ment with earlier work [14]. Using a VMP galvanostat potentiostat (Biologic), cyclovoltammograms were performed at 20 mV·s⁻¹ be tween -2 V and 5 V vs. Ag₃SI/Ag, starting with anodic or cathodic sweep.

Liquid electrolyte coin cells (14 mm diameter) were built using 1 M LiTFSI in TEGDME/1,4 dioxane (Sigma Aldrich) as electrolyte soaked in a Celgard plus Viledon separator, a Li metal foil as negative, and the pos itive was a mixture of the Li10SnP2S12 or Li2SnS3 active material (80 mass%), Super P carbon (15 wt%) as conducting additive, and PTFE 5 wt%) as binder. All solid state cells with (Sigma Aldrich Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ NEI (or Li₂SnS₃) used as active positive electrode material were built as follows: composite electrodes were prepared by mixing in a mortar 40 mg of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ NEI (or Li₂SnS₃), 5 mg of Vapor Grown Carbon Fiber (VGCF Shoma Denko) and 60 mg of Li₆PS₅Cl pre pared as reported by Boulineau et al. [15]. The batteries were assembled by cold pressing (Ø 10 mm, 5 tons/370 MPa) 10 mg of composite as pos itive electrode (15 mg for Li₂SnS₃), 80 mg of Li₆PS₅Cl as solid electrolyte, and a Li foil as negative electrode. Using a VMP galvanostat potentiostat (Biologic), galvanostatic measurements were carried out at 64 μ A · cm⁻² (starting with discharge) with potential limits at 0.1 V and 5 V vs. Li⁺/Li. The measurements were performed in argon atmosphere using the de vice described in Fig. 1, which maintains a pressure on the all solid state cell while cycling.

For all solid state cells with $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ NEI as negative electrode and electrolyte, composite electrodes are prepared by mixing in a mor tar 40 mg of $LiCoO_2$, 60 mg of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ NEI and 5 mg of VGCF for the positive electrode composite and 100 mg of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ NEI and 5 mg of VGCF for the negative electrode composite. 10 mg of positive electrode composite, 80 mg of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ NEI and 10 mg of negative electrode composite are cold pressed (\emptyset 10 mm, 5 tons 375 MPa) to form an all solid state battery, in the same device as described above. Galvanostatic measurements were carried out at 64 μ A·cm⁻² (starting with charge) with voltage limits at 3.7 V and 2 V.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Structural characterization

Fig. 2 shows the XRD pattern of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂. The sloping baseline is due to the capillary Debye Scherer setup used. The crystal structure published by Bron et al. was used as starting point for Rietveld refine ment of this powder pattern [9]. Global although not perfect agreement was achieved by considering the presence of a second minority phase,



Fig. 1. Device for all-solid state cells.



Fig. 2. Capillary XRD pattern of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂-NEI and Rietveld refinement based on the tetragonal LGPS structure proposed by Bron et al. [9].



3.2. Ionic conductivity

Since pressed pellets are required to measure the ionic conduc tivity of the material, we have first investigated the effect of anneal ing of pellets obtained by room temperature pressing at $3.77 \text{ t} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$.



Fig. 3. AC impedance diagrams for pristine and annealed pellets of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ with sputtered gold electrodes (1 MHz–1 Hz frequency sweep).

Annealing at 500 ° C for 12 h does not modify significantly the com pactness which is 75% based on the theoretical density of ideal Li10.03Sn1.03P1.97S12 with the cell parameters obtained by our Rietveld refinement. Fig. 3 shows the room temperature impedance diagrams (1 MHz 1 Hz frequency sweep) of unannealed and annealed pellets with sputtered blocking gold electrodes. For the annealed pellet, only the capacitive effect of the electrodes is ob served even at 1 MHz, leading to a conductivity of $5 \cdot 10^{-3} \, \text{S} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$ at RT, consistent with the room temperature data reported by Bron et al., and with the calculations by Ong et al. [6,9]. However, the dia gram for the unannealed pellet exhibits in addition a depressed semi circle, the beginning of which is consistent with the resistance for the annealed pellet, although high frequency measurements (>1 MHz in the present case) are always perturbed by artifacts from the experimental setup. It therefore appears that an additional contribution from intergrain effects exists before annealing. This contribution is no longer visible at room temperature in our frequen cy range after annealing, which suggests that, although the compact ness of the pellet was not modified, annealing improves the intergrain contacts. However, we note that by decreasing the tem perature, Bron et al. were able to observe an intergrain phenomenon in their annealed pellets of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ [9]. We note also that in most reports of LGPS type materials, annealing of the pellets is carried out before conductivity measurements, whereas Kato et al. state that an nealing does not change significantly the conductivity for Li₁₀GeP₂S₁₂, but impedance diagrams are not shown [17].

The temperature dependence of the impedance diagrams was stud ied on annealed pellets in the 25 °C \leq T \leq 110 °C range. The diagrams measured during the temperature increase (Fig. 4a) show only the

Table 1

Atomic positions and Rietveld refinement parameters of the Li10SnP2S12-NEI XRD pattern based on the tetragonal LGPS structure proposed by Bron et al. [9].

Li ₁₀ SnP ₂ S ₁₂ P4 ₂ /nmc		Radiation: Cu			$\lambda_1 \!= 1.54056 \: \text{\AA}$	$\lambda_2 = 1.54439 \text{ \AA}$
			$R_{Bragg} = 5.14\%$		$\chi^2 = 2.72$ V = 972.43(2) Å ³	
a = b = 8.730(13) Å		c = 12.760(17) Å		Z = 2		
Atom	Wyckoff position	Occupancy	x / a	y / b	z/c	$B_{iso}(Å^2)$
Sn1	4d	0.515(1)	1/4	1/4	1.06364(12)	2.43(5)
P1	4d	=1 occ.(Sn1)	=x/a (Sn1)	= y / b (Sn1)	=z/c (Sn1)	$=B_{iso}$ (Sn1)
P2	2a	1	3/4	1/4	3/4	1.68(13)
S1	8g	1	0.56046(18)	1/4	0.84162(17)	2.96(8)
S2	8g	1	1/4	0.4651(2)	0.65570(17)	2.70(7)
S3	8g	1	1⁄4	0.4551(2)	0.95734(15)	2.52(8)



Fig. 4. a) Selected impedance diagrams of an annealed $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ pellet with sputtered gold electrodes between room temperature and 110 °C b) Selected impedance diagrams of an annealed $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ pellet with sputtered gold electrodes between 110 °C and room temperature c) resulting global conductivities in Arrhenius coordinates.

electrode capacitive effect, although with a slight degradation of the blocking effect upon heating (less vertical low frequency branch). Even though the extrapolated dc resistance results from bulk and intergrain contributions, the corresponding global conductivity follows an Arrhenius behavior as shown in Fig. 4c with an activation energy of 0.26 eV, typical of fast ionic conductors, in agreement with previous re ports [6,9]. However, the impedance diagrams shown in Fig. 4b record ed during the temperature decrease clearly show the appearance of a new phenomenon for temperatures lower than 60 °C. Obviously, a strong intergrain or interfacial phenomenon takes place before the elec trode blocking effect. Therefore, if we plot a global conductivity deter mined at the intercept of the latter, the data no longer follow an Arrhenius behavior (Fig. 4c), as expected considering that the resistance measured in such a way includes different phenomena, and the global conductivity appears much lower at lower temperatures. No change however was observed in the XRD signature of the material after this measurement.

In order to assess whether the impedance measurements can be the cause of the degradation, we have carried out a similar series of variable temperature measurements in a narrower (10 MHz 10 kHz) frequency range on a fresh pellet. As shown in Fig. 5, the room temperature imped ance diagram before heating is of course identical to that discussed above, except that the blocking electrode branch is interrupted at 10 kHz instead of extending to much lower frequency (1 Hz). More in terestingly, the diagram recorded after the heating/cooling process shows appearance of a similar phenomenon, but with a significantly smaller magnitude than when sweeping to lower frequencies. These data thus reveal that the AC voltage with 20 mV magnitude applied to the cell at temperatures ranging from RT to 110 °C creates this new intergrain/interface phenomenon. It is therefore logically stronger for the lower frequency sweep since the AC voltage is then applied for a much larger number of periods, each lasting in addition much longer. The temperature at which this phenomenon actually appears cannot re ally be determined, since in any case is it not visible at temperatures higher than 70 °C (Fig. 4b). The frequencies at which it can be observed at these temperatures probably exceed the capabilities of our experi mental setup (1 MHz). However, it is clear that this reaction is signifi cant only at elevated temperature since no change was detected when carrying out repeated impedance diagrams at room temperature.

We also recorded impedance diagrams using Li metal non blocking electrodes for unannealed pellets. Fig. 6 shows the repeated room tem perature impedance diagrams of such a Li/Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂/Li cell upon time (from t = 0 to t = 94 h). The initial diagram shows at least two



Fig. 5. Room temperature impedance diagrams of an annealed Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ pellet with sputtered gold electrodes before (red) and after (blue) the temperature cycle (RT-110 °C-RT) for two frequency sweep ranges (1 MHz–1 Hz open symbols; and 1 MHz–10 kHz solid symbols).



Fig. 6. Room temperature impedance diagrams of a Li/Li10SnP2S12/Li cell vs. time.

phenomena resulting into merging semicircles, one of them being the intergrain phenomenon discussed above (see Fig. 3), and the other most probably resulting from the interface with the Li electrode. The lat ter contribution suggests that this interface is not purely non blocking as it should be for a Li + ion conductor. The striking feature is that this contribution grows very fast upon time, clearly showing that a reaction develops at this interface, and suggesting that Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ is not stable against Li even at room temperature.

3.3. Electrochemical stability

In all recent reports on sulfide solid electrolytes, the electrochemical stability is characterized by cyclic voltammetry using a pellet of solid electrolyte with a sputtered gold working electrode facing a lithium counter/reference electrode [2,4,15,18 21]. However, since the material is very likely to react with Li, the latter should be avoided as electrode.

We have therefore used a 3 electrode setup (Fig. 7a), with a sputtered gold working electrode and an Ag_3SI/Ag mixture reference electrode on one side and a larger sputtered gold counter electrode on the other side. The Ag^+/Ag^0 mixture thus realized was shown to act as a suitable comparison electrode with Li⁺ conducting oxide glasses, de spite the existence of a junction potential [22]. It was further satisfacto rily used as such a reference electrode with polymeric or sulfide solid electrolytes [14,23,24]. The voltage of the reference electrode measured vs. Li metal is 2.11 V, in agreement with literature [14].

When starting the voltage sweep toward anodic values (Fig. 7b), a relatively slow current increase is observed with a leveling off until the upper limit is reached (7 V vs. Li⁺/Li). During the return sweep, a very weak positive current is still measured, with no sign of reduction of what was oxidized. If one considers the often used criterion of $10 \,\mu\text{A} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$ current density for similar sweep speeds, the anodic stabil ity of the material is only up to 2.5 V vs. Li⁺/Li.

When starting with a cathodic sweep (Fig. 7c), the current density was found to increase rather fast up to $200 \,\mu\text{A} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$ at about $-0.2 \,\text{V}$ vs. Li⁺/Li where the sweep was reversed. During the reverse sweep, a very sharp (re)oxidation reaction appears at a still cathodic voltage (vs. the initial rest voltage of 2.1 V vs. Li⁺/Li) but significantly higher than that of the corresponding previous reduction. Upon reduction, the current density criterion is thus reached for a working electrode po tential of 1.5 V vs. Li⁺/Li, with a clearly more severe reactivity than in the anodic region. When the voltage sweep is then carried on in the an odic region, an oxidation phenomenon is recorded, similar (though with lower currents) to the one observed for an initial anodic sweep (Fig. 7b). Similarly, when exploring the cathodic region after a first anodic sweep (Fig. 7b), a strong reduction phenomenon again appears, but with



Fig. 7. a) 3-Electrode setup for electrochemical stability characterization and cyclic voltammograms of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ -NEI starting b) with an anodic sweep and c) with a cathodic sweep. Sweep speed: 20 mV s ⁻¹.



Fig. 8. Galvanostatic discharge of a Li/liquid electrolyte/Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂-NEI cell (38.75 μ A i.e. 1 Li in 9 h). The first discharge of Li₂SnS₃ scaled to the amount this impurity known to be present in the Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂-NEI sample is also reported in green.

characteristics (in particular for the reverse sweep) somewhat different from those of an initial cathodic sweep of Fig. 7c. The last two observa tions are not surprising considering that the material at the working electrode is irreversibly altered by the initial reaction corresponding to the initial voltage sweep.

In order to evaluate the contribution of the Li_2SnS_3 impurity, we car ried out similar cyclic voltammetry measurements on the pure sample we have synthesized. This led to very weak currents, negligible vs. the overall response of the $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ NEI sample.

Altogether, the voltammetry investigation thus reveals a very severe reduction activity of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ at potentials below 1.5 V vs. Li^+/Li , with a reverse oxidation suggesting a different reaction. On the anodic side, oxidation starts as low as 2.5 V vs. Li^+/Li but seems to be kinetically lim ited, with no reverse reduction phenomenon observed.

Considering the electrochemical activity of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ at low poten tial, the use of this material as an active negative electrode material is conceivable.

Liquid electrolyte coin cells were first built for $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ and Li_2SnS_3 against Li metal using 1 M LiTFSI in TEGDME/1,4 dioxane as elec trolyte. Fig. 8 shows the first discharge at 38.75 μ A (1 Li in 9 h) of such cells, with a scaling that allows to show the expected contribution of the known 6 wt% of Li_2SnS_3 in the $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ NEI sample. Both mate rials appear to react with a considerable amount of Li: 8 Li per Sn for Li_2SnS_3 and 16 Li per Sn for $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ (after deduction of the contribution from the former as impurity). This would correspond to part of the following conversion alloying reactions:

$$\begin{split} \text{Li}_2\text{SnS}_3 &\xrightarrow{\text{4Li}} 3\text{Li}_2\text{S} + \text{Sn} \quad \text{Sn} \xrightarrow{\text{-4Li}} \text{Li}_{22}\text{Sn}_5 \\ \\ \text{Li}_{10}\text{SnP}_2\text{S}_{12} &\xrightarrow{\text{20Li}} 12\text{Li}_2\text{S} + 2\text{Li}_3\text{P} + \text{Sn} \quad \text{Sn} \xrightarrow{\text{-4Li}} \text{Li}_{22}\text{Sn}_5 \end{split}$$

To investigate the reversibility of such processes, a careful electrode formulation would clearly be required, but this clearly confirms the strong electrochemical reactivity of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ at low voltages. In passing, Li_2SnS_3 is also revealed to show a potentially quite interesting behavior as a conversion negative electrode, although it had been suggested to be usable as an electrolyte, despite its poorer conductivity [25].

3.4. Solid state cells

Solid state batteries were then prepared using Li_6PS_5Cl as electrolyte, which is stable vs. Li [26], a composite electrode in which $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ NEI or Li_2SnS_3 act as active material, and Li metal as negative electrode,



Fig. 9. Galvanostatic discharge of an Li/Li₆PS₅Cl/Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂-NEI all-solid state cell (64 μ A·cm⁻² i.e. 1 Li in 3 h). The first discharge of Li₂SnS₃ scaled to the amount this impurity known to be present in the Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂-NEI sample is also reported in green.



Fig. 10. Galvanostatic cycling of an $\rm Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ -NEI/LiCoO2 all-solid state cell (64 μ A \cdot cm 2 - 1 Li in 20 h).

with a pressure maintaining setup described above (Fig. 1). Fig. 9 shows the first discharge of the cells at $64 \,\mu A \cdot cm^{-2}$. Like above, the contribu tion of Li₂SnS₃ was plotted scaled to its amount as impurity in the Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ NEI sample. In this case, after subtracting the 0.3 mA · h con tribution corresponding to the Argyrodite electrolyte and VGCF as de termined in [26], the reactions correspond respectively to 5 Li per Sn for Li₂SnS₃ and to 7.5 Li per Sn for Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ NEI. Logically, stronger polarization restricts the reaction in the solid state compared to the liq uid electrolyte case.

Finally, we assembled an all solid state battery using a $LiCoO_2/Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}/VGCF$ composite as positive electrode, $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ as solid electrolyte and a $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}/VGCF$ composite as negative electrode. First, we checked that no detectable reaction occurs between $LiCoO_2$ and the electrolyte in the composite positive electrode: the X ray diffractogram of the mixtures shows only the lines of the components (Appendix A Fig. A2). Even though $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ is not electrochemically stable at the voltage of $LiCoO_2$, the reaction at room temperature is ap parently restricted, in agreement with the shape of the voltammogram discussed above.

Fig. 10 shows that deintercalation of 0.5 lithium from LiCoO₂ was achieved during the first charge. If one assumes that only the part of $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$ mixed with carbon (forming the potential negative elec trode) reacts, this would correspond to 1.3 Li per Sn atom. This balancing of electrodes was chosen so as to investigate the concept of this in situ formed negative electrode, without pushing it to its limit of possible lithiation.

However, the subsequent discharge is clearly not possible, which is in line with the fact that such a conversion/alloying reaction cannot be expected to be reversible in the solid state considering the volume changes it must entail, at least without an elaborate electrode formula tion/processing development.

Nevertheless, it is clear that the cell does not short circuit, meaning that the reaction does not propagate throughout the Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ elec trolyte. Indeed, one would expect the reaction products of the lithiation, be it Li Sn alloys or more complex lithiated materials with reduced tin, to exhibit some electronic conductivity. To investigate this point more closely, we have followed the relaxation of a similar cell by opening the circuit after the charge cut off voltage was reached as shown in Fig. 11. Relaxation starts with a rapid voltage decay, but not a vertical ohmic drop type one, and continues more smoothly, which must arise from a simultaneous homogenization of the lithiation in both elec trodes, and in particular to the propagation of the reaction from the neg ative electrode part (in contact with the current collector) to the Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ electrolyte part. Clearly, the phenomena occurring in such a cell are rather complex and not understood at this stage, but it is strik ing that the propagation of this reaction does not lead to short circuit as would be expected, maybe because the positive voltage of the LiCoO₂ electrode prevents the reaction to reach it.



Fig. 11. Open circuit voltage evolution of a LiCoO₂/Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂-NEI all-solid state cell after a first charge up to 3.7 V (64 μ A·cm² - 1 Li in 20 h).

4. Conclusion

In the present study, the commercial Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ was characterized by capillary XRD. Rietveld refinement of XRD pattern shows that the material is mainly composed of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ with the tetragonal LGPS structure, with 6 wt% of Li₂SnS₃ impurity. The refined P/Sn site occupan cies correspond to a Li_{10.03}Sn_{1.03}P_{1.97}S₁₂ composition.

Impedance characterizations showed that annealing of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ pellets improves the intergrain contacts, although not changing the pel let compactness. Furthermore, an interfacial or intergranular degrada tion was shown to result from the impedance measurements themselves, in particular at elevated temperature (110 °C) and when lower measuring frequencies are used.

Instability of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ vs. Li was proved through impedance mea surements of a Li/Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂/Li cell, with a sharp increase of its resis tance with time.

A narrow electrochemical stability window was determined using cyclic voltammetry with a 3 electrode set up. Using the Ag₃SI/Ag mix ture as reference electrode, we proved that Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ is unstable elec trochemically especially at low potentials, contradicting very recent results by Kanno's group, based on a 2 eletrode set up with a lithium counter electrode [8,17].

Based on the instability at low potentials, we showed that Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ reacts with at least 7.6 lithium per mole according most likely to conversion and alloying reactions. Complementary Mössbauer characterization experiments are underway, which show the presence of Li Sn alloys within the Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂/C electrode when submitted to voltages lower than 0.5 V vs. Li⁺/Li. The Mössbauer investigation will be published elsewhere. In any case, these reactions however do not appear to be reversible in the solid state with our cell design.

Considering these ambiguous characteristics, we have also inves tigated the use of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ both as negative electrode and as elec trolyte, leading to a complex behavior that requires further investigation, but rather interesting in that the reaction occurring from the negative electrode side does not propagate throughout the electrolyte, and does not lead to a short circuit, at least after about 60 days.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by the French National Research Agency, Grant No. ANR 10 LABX 0076 (Labex STORE EX).

The authors thank S. Goma for technical assistance and S. Boulineau for providing the Li₆PS₅Cl electrolyte.

Appendix A

2 Phase Le Bail refinement of Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ NEI based on a hypothetical Thio LiSICON model

Fig. A1A Le Bail full pattern matching in the Full prof suite, based on a thio LiSICON Ge type II structure ($P2_1/m$, a = 13.396(3) Å, b =22.947(6) Å, c = 18.2009(15) Å, $\beta = 92.562(14)^{\circ}$ [4].



2 Phase Le Bail refinement of LiCoO₂/Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ NEI composite after 1 month

The two phases used for the refinement are Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ with LGPS structure and LiCoO₂.

After 1 month, no change in the lattice parameters of the 2 phases is detected ($\chi^2 = 1.29$):

 $Li_{10}SnP_2S_{12}$: $P4_2/nmc$, a = b = 8.734(2) Å and c = 12.784(6) Å $(R_{Bragg} = 3.18\%)$ LiCo O_2 : R 3m, a = b = 2.8155(2) Å, c = 14.044(1) Å, and $\gamma = 120^{\circ}$ $(R_{Bragg} = 3.65\%).$

Fig. A2Two phase Le Bail refinement of a LiCoO₂/Li₁₀SnP₂S₁₂ NEI com posite electrode after one month.



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