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Revealing the Multifunctions of Li₃N in the Suspension Electrolyte for Lithium Metal Batteries

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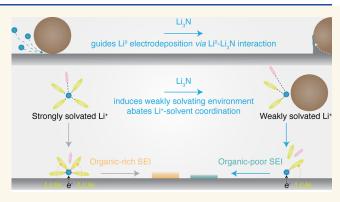
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ABSTRACT: Inorganic-rich solid-electrolyte interphases (SEIs) on Li metal anodes improve the electrochemical performance of Li metal batteries (LMBs). Therefore, a fundamental understanding of the roles played by essential inorganic compounds in SEIs is critical to realizing and developing high-performance LMBs. Among the prevalent SEI inorganic compounds observed for Li metal anodes, Li₃N is often found in the SEIs of high-performance LMBs. Herein, we elucidate new features of Li₃N by utilizing a suspension electrolyte design that contributes to the improved electrochemical performance of the Li metal anode. Through empirical and computational studies, we show that Li₃N guides Li electrodeposition along its surface, creates a weakly solvating



environment by decreasing Li⁺-solvent coordination, induces organic-poor SEI on the Li metal anode, and facilitates Li⁺ transport in the electrolyte. Importantly, recognizing specific roles of SEI inorganics for Li metal anodes can serve as one of the rational guidelines to design and optimize SEIs through electrolyte engineering for LMBs.

KEYWORDS: lithium-metal battery, lithium metal anode, suspension electrolyte, lithium nitride, solid-electrolyte interphase, lithium solvation environment, electrolyte engineering

INTRODUCTION

Reversibly utilizing Li metal (Li⁰) anodes is a primary step in successfully developing practical high-energy Li metal batteries (LMBs). ^{1,2} Although the Li⁰ anode involves a classic electroplating/stripping mechanism, achieving highly reversible and electrochemically stable Li⁺ migration at the Li⁰/ electrolyte interface becomes challenging due to the inevitable formation of solid-electrolyte interphases (SEIs) on Li⁰ anodes with electrolytes. ³ Despite the desirable properties of Li⁰ anodes, such as a high theoretical specific capacity of 3,861 mAh g⁻¹ and a low standard electrode potential of -3.04 V versus standard hydrogen electrodes, the high reactivity of Li⁰ makes almost all the possible electrolytes thermodynamically unstable against Li⁰ that decompose electrolyte species to form SEIs, in which the properties of SEIs largely influence the electrochemical performance of Li⁰ anodes. ⁴⁻⁶

During LMB cycles, solvated Li⁺ must reversibly migrate across the electrolyte and SEIs on Li⁰ anodes, in which characteristics of SEIs predominantly affect Li⁺ transport

behavior.³ Essentially, SEIs on Li⁰ anodes affect Li⁰ electroplating/stripping and Li⁺ desolvation processes, thereby dictating the electrochemical performance of Li⁰ anodes.^{7–9} Despite the critical functions of SEIs on Li⁰ anodes, understanding the roles played by SEI components is still at an early stage to rationally design and manipulate SEIs via electrolyte engineering. As SEI evolutions on Li⁰ anodes are directly linked to the solvation structures of Li⁺ in electrolytes,³ various modifications to the Li⁺ solvation environment and trends have been investigated to correlate SEI properties that positively impact the electrochemical performance of Li⁰ anodes. In particular, weakly solvating electrolytes and

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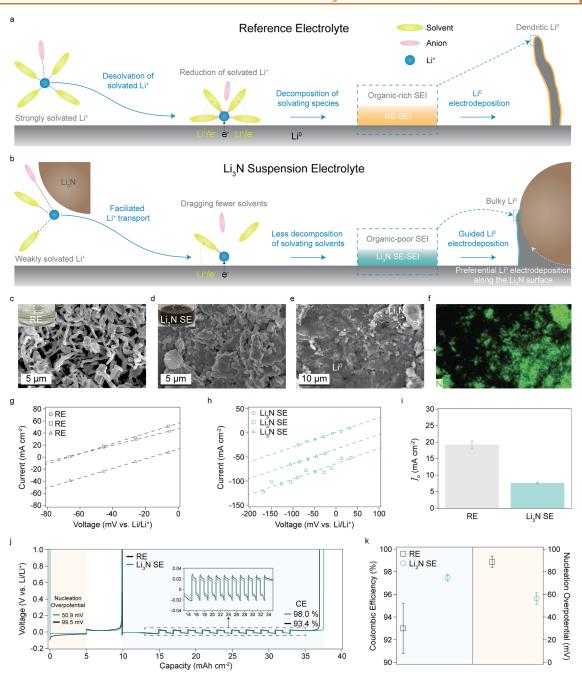


Figure 1. Features of Li₃N for Li⁰ anodes. (a) Schematic illustration of strongly solvated Li⁺ in RE impacting the SEI evolution on Li⁰ anodes and Li⁰ electrodeposition. The first step shows Li⁺ desolvation and Li⁺ reduction processes from the solvated Li⁺ in RE. The next step represents the SEI formation on Li0 anodes by decomposing solvating species that yield organic-rich SEI. The final step delineates the morphology of dendritic Li⁰ electrodeposits influenced by RE-SEI. (b) Schematic illustration of weakly solvated Li⁺ in Li₃N SE impacting the SEI evolution on Li⁰ anodes and Li⁰ electrodeposition. The first step represents the weakly solvated Li⁺ by Li₂N in the electrolyte, in which fewer solvents are coordinated with Li⁺ relative to that in RE. The next step shows facilitated Li⁺ transport by the decreased Li⁺-solvent interaction. Then, the weakly solvated Li* suppresses decomposition of solvents by dragging relatively fewer solvent molecules close to the Li⁰ surface that forms organic-poor SEI. The final step shows bulky Li⁰ electrodeposition allowed by the preferential Li⁰ deposition across the Li₃N surface and Li₃N SE-SEI. (c) SEM image of Li⁰ electrodeposits on Cu from LilCu cell with RE at 1 mA cm⁻² and 1 mAh cm⁻². The inset represents the physical image of RE. (d) SEM image of Li⁰ electrodeposits on Cu from LilCu cell with Li₃N SE at 1 mA cm⁻² and 1 mAh cm⁻². The inset represents the physical image of Li₃N SE (e,f), SEM image (e), and corresponding nitrogen elemental mapping (f) of Li⁰ electrodeposits on Cu from LilCu cell with exposed Li₃N from Li₃N SE. (g,h) Representative kinetically controlled region from the reverse sweep of ultramicroelectrode cyclic voltammograms for RE (g) and Li₃N SE (h). Three measurements were performed for RE and Li₃N SE. The scan rate and voltage window were 20 V s⁻¹ and -1.75 to 2.75 V vs Li/Li⁺. (i) Calculated exchange current density (I_0) from g and h for RE (19.27 mA cm⁻² \pm 1.13 mA cm⁻²) and Li₃N SE (7.64 mA cm⁻² \pm 0.28 mA cm⁻²). (j) Representative voltage profiles of CE measurement from LilCu cells with RE and Li₃N SE. The inset represents the zoomed-in voltage profiles from 13 mAh cm⁻² to 35 mAh cm⁻². The background colors represent where the CE and nucleation overpotential were measured. The applied current density was 0.5 mA cm⁻². (k) Averaged CE and nucleation overpotential values with standard errors calculated from three identical LilCu cells with RE (93.01% ± 2.21% and 88.77 mV \pm 5.11 mV) and Li₃N SE (97.48% \pm 0.31% and 56.43 mV \pm 5.31 mV).

inorganic-rich SEIs were found to be beneficial to the electrochemical performance of ${\rm Li^0}$ anodes. $^{3,6,10-14}$

It has been found that SEIs on Li⁰ anodes can swell with electrolytes, 15 indicating that electrolyte species still exist within the SEI domain. This important outcome further justifies the aging of SEIs on Li⁰ anodes. ¹⁶ In other words, SEIs are still electrolyte penetrable up to a certain degree, and the electrochemical performance of Li⁰ anodes are, therefore, affected by both SEIs and the electrolyte species. Furthermore, a modified Li⁺ solvation environment by the SEI inorganic compound in the electrolyte has been discovered, which sheds light on the specific features of SEI inorganics that affect SEI evolution and the electrochemical performance of Li⁰ anodes.⁶ These combined results suggest that not only can the Li⁺ solvation environment within the SEI region be different from the Li⁺ solvation environment in the electrolyte, but also the electrochemical performance of SEIs on Li⁰ anodes is determined by the distinct SEI inorganic species that sets the specific Li⁺ solvation environment within the SEI layer where the actual Li⁺ desolvation occurs. These insights lead to a critical hypothesis that the Li⁺ solvation shells, not just Li⁺, can migrate across SEIs, in which the solvated Li⁺ in the bulk electrolyte further gets modified by the specific inorganic species present in the SEIs on Li⁰ anodes. Thus, revealing the roles of inorganic compounds in SEIs is considered one of the fundamental studies to design high-performance SEIs via electrolyte engineering for Li⁰ anodes that will potentially lead to the development of advanced electrolytes for developing reliable LMBs.

Among the frequently observed SEI inorganic compounds (e.g., Li_2O , Li_2CO_3 , Li_5 , Li_3N , Li_2S , ...), Li_3N was particularly found in almost all the high-performance SEIs of Li^0 anodes. The beneficial features of Li_3N for Li^0 anodes from prior studies include thermodynamic stability, \$^{17,18}\$ high $\text{Li}^+$$ conductivity, 19 and Li^0 dendrite suppression. $^{20-23}$ Although various forms of Li_3N (pinhole-free film, 23 nanoflowers, 24 and nanosheets 25) and electrolyte additives (LiN_3^{20} and LiNO_3^{26} to derive Li_3N) have been applied to improve the electrochemical performance of Li^0 anodes, there is still an inadequate understanding of the functional mechanism of Li_3N for Li^0 anodes. Hence, we aim to investigate the further roles of Li_3N in terms of the Li^+ solvation environment and SEI evolution on Li^0 anodes that rationalize the working mechanism of Li_3N for Li^0 anodes and SEIs.

Herein, we designed a Li₃N suspension electrolyte (Li₃N SE) by mixing 80–100 nm Li₃N nanoparticles with a reference electrolyte (RE) of 1 M LiPF₆ in ethylene carbonate (EC) and diethyl carbonate (DEC) (1:1 v/v) with 10 vol % fluoroethylene carbonate (FEC), in which RE serves as one of the most widely studied electrolytes for the SEI analyses of Li⁰ anodes. 6,8,9,15 Also, the electrolyte blend of RE does not contain any nitrogen species that could form Li₃N through the reduction and/or decomposition of RE species, which will help to closely examine the effect of Li₃N in RE. Moreover, utilizing the suspension electrolyte design allows for revealing the functional mechanism of a particular SEI inorganic compound for LMBs. Thus, Li₃N SE was investigated in detail to identify the Li⁺ solvation environment change, SEI evolution on Li⁰ anodes, and electrochemical performance. By combining the experimental assessments in tandem with first-principles results, we were able to identify new features of Li₃N in the liquid electrolyte for Li⁰ anodes: (i) the surface of Li₃N, especially (001) and (002), is lithiophilic, which guides Li⁰

electrodeposition through a favored Li⁰-Li₃N interaction, (ii) Li₃N creates a weakly solvating environment by decreasing Li⁺solvent interaction in the electrolyte, (iii) Li₃N suppresses solvent decomposition to form organic-poor SEI on Li⁰ anodes, and (iv) Li_3N facilitates Li^+ transport in the electrolyte and Li⁰ interphase. These findings support the progress of comprehending the improved Li⁰ anode performance in connection with the previously reported Li₃N studies and the inorganic-rich SEI concept, particularly having high Li₃N content in the SEIs, of Li⁰ anodes. Significantly, beneficial SEI inorganic compounds induce a weakly solvating Li+ environment by modifying Li⁺-solvent and/or Li⁺-anion coordination,⁶ in which Li₃N is responsible for adjusting Li⁺-solvent coordination, which affects the electrochemical performance of and SEI evolution on Li⁰ anodes. Consequently, understanding the unique features of SEI inorganic species can potentially provide scientific and rational guidelines to control and design SEIs on Li⁰ anodes by optimizing electrolyte chemistries to improve the electrochemical performance of LMBs.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analyses of Li₃N in the Electrolyte. Deriving inorganicrich SEIs by engineering electrolytes became one of the practical approaches to significantly improve the electrochemical performance of Li⁰ anodes for LMBs. ^{12,13,27,28} Since the SEI evolution on Li⁰ anodes is directly associated with the electrolyte, 3,12,13,28-30 especially its Li⁺ solvation environment, understanding the roles played by the major SEI inorganic components, such as Li₂O, Li₂CO₃, LiF, Li₃N, and Li₂S,³ can serve as a bridge to connect the mechanism of SEI species and electrochemical performance of Li⁰ anodes. Furthermore, the swelling of SEIs on Li⁰ anodes has recently been identified.¹⁵ It has been shown that the degree of SEI swelling correlates to the electrochemical performance of Li⁰ anodes, in which inorganic-rich or organic-poor SEIs promote superior electrochemical performance of Li⁰ anodes and less SEI swelling.¹⁵ This discovery also leads to an important hypothesis that electrolytes are still present within the SEI layer, where the inorganic compounds in SEIs play an important role in adjusting the Li⁺ solvation environment at the interphase of and SEI evolution on Li⁰ anodes.⁶ Since Li₃N is a prominent inorganic that exists in the SEIs of many high-performance ${\rm Li}^0$ anodes, $^{3,20,26,31-39}$ this study aims to unveil the important roles of Li₃N in terms of Li⁺ solvation effects as well as Li⁰ electrodeposition stability (Figure 1a,b).

Hypotheses of Li⁺ solvation environment, SEI evolution, and Li⁰ electrodeposition behavior with RE (Figure 1a) and Li₃N SE (Figure 1b) are illustrated to delineate the features of Li₃N. In Figure 1a, the first step represents the desolvation process of strongly solvated Li⁺ by solvents. Then, the solvated Li⁺ in RE gets reduced at the surface of Li⁰ anodes to form organic-rich SEI. Eventually, the SEI derived from RE (RE-SEI) induces dendritic Li⁰ electrodeposition morphology. With Li₃N, the solvated Li⁺ becomes weakly solvated relative to that of RE due to the decrease in the Li+-solvent interaction by Li3N in the electrolyte (Figure 1b). Please note that the Li⁺-anion coordination was not affected by the Li₃N in the electrolyte. The weakly solvated Li⁺ in Li₃N SE facilitates the transport of solvated Li+ through the electrolyte and Li0 interphase. This modified environment of solvated Li+ in Li3N SE then suppresses solvent decomposition to form relatively organicpoor SEI on Li⁰ anodes. Furthermore, the lithiophilic surface of

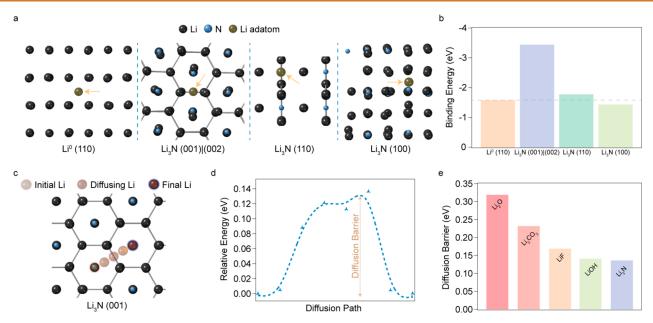


Figure 2. DFT analyses of Li_3N . (a) Li adatom binding sites of Li^0 (110) and Li_3N (001)|(002), (110), (100) surfaces. The arrows indicate surface adsorbed Li adatom onto the corresponding surfaces of Li^0 and Li_3N . The color codes for Li of Li_3N , N, and Li adatom are black, skyblue, and gray, respectively. (b) Calculated Li adatom binding energies for Li^0 (110), Li_3N (001)|(002), Li_3N (110), and Li_3N (100) surfaces. The dashed gray line indicates the binding energy of Li^0 (110). (c) The Li adatom diffusion pathway across Li_3N (001) surface. (d) Relative energies based on the Li adatom diffusion trajectories across Li_3N (001) surface. The diffusion barrier is represented by the magnitude between the highest and lowest relative energies. (e) Li adatom surface diffusion barriers for Li_2O (0.319 eV), Li_2CO_3 (0.232 eV), LiF (0.169 eV), LiOH (0.141 eV), and Li_3N (0.133 eV). The diffusion barriers of Li_2O , Li_2CO_3 , LiF, and LiOH were retrieved from the literature.

Li₃N and the organic-poor SEI derived from Li₃N SEI (Li₃N SE-SEI) allow bulky Li⁰ electrodeposition. The rest of the discussions are devoted to corroborating these features of Li₃N for Li⁰ anodes.

Observing Li⁰ electrodeposition morphologies became a convenient way to anticipate electrochemical characteristics, such as Coulombic efficiency (CE) and Li nucleation overpotential, of Li⁰ anodes. 1,40,41 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were examined first to analyze morphological features of Li⁰ electrodeposits with RE and Li₃N SE (Figure 1c-f). High surface area and dendritic Li⁰ morphologies were observed with RE (Figure 1c). On the other hand, the Li⁰ electrodeposits with Li₃N SE exhibited nondendritic morphology (Figure 1d). Notably, Li₃N in Li₃N SE were embedded into the Li⁰ electrodeposits, alluding to preferential Li⁰ electrodeposition along the surfaces of Li₃N (Figure 1d,e). The elemental mapping of nitrogen shown in Figure 1e via energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXS) confirmed that the observed particles were Li₃N as Li₃N was the only nitrogen-containing species in Li₃N SE (Figure 1f). To justify the guided Li⁰ electrodeposition toward Li₂N, the low-magnification SEM image of the electrodeposited Li⁰ with Li₃N SE is shown in Figure S1a. Figure S1a vividly depicts rough surface features due to the Li₃N network formed by the Li₃N SE, in which the nitrogen mapping indicates that the topmost part is Li₃N (Figure S1b). The carbon and oxygen mapping in Figure S1c,d indirectly illustrate Li⁰ electrodeposits, as they are the major elements for SEIs on Li⁰. Based on Figure S1a-d, the region that exhibits the height variation due to Li₃N was selected and shown in Figure S1e, in which the rough surface region was purposefully chosen to demonstrate the preferred Li⁰ electrodeposition toward Li₃N. Figure S1e evidently shows that Li⁰ was electrodepositing along the surfaces of Li₃N as the bottommost surface was free

of Li dendrites, and the Li₃N was well covered by Li⁰ electrodeposits. Hence, the SEM/EDXS analysis suggest that Li⁰ tends to get electrodeposited along the surfaces of Li₃N.

To electrochemically probe possible Li⁰-Li₃N interactions in Li_3N SE, the exchange current densities (J_0) for RE and Li_3N SE were measured with the ultramicroelectrode under a fast scan (20 V s⁻¹) cyclic voltammetry (CV) (Figure 1g-i). The fast scan CV with ultramicroelectrode allows for closely investigating electron transfer kinetics of Li with respect to a particular electrolyte by minimizing the effect of mass transports across electrolytes and SEIs on Li⁰ electrode.⁴² Since I_0 reflects the intrinsic rate of electron transfer at the Li⁰/ electrolyte interface, any changes in J₀ for Li₃N SE would clearly indicate the existence of Li⁰-Li₃N interaction, mainly due to the identical liquid electrolyte used for RE and Li₃N SE. By analyzing the kinetically controlled region⁴² in the voltammograms of RE (Figure 1g) and Li₃N SE (Figure 1h), the averaged J₀ for RE and Li₃N SE were calculated as 19.27 mA cm⁻² \pm 1.13 mA cm⁻² and 7.64 mA cm⁻² \pm 0.28 mA cm⁻², respectively (Figure 1i). The noticeable changes in J_0 for Li₃N SE compared to that of RE confirmed the Li⁰-Li₃N interaction, in which the electron transfer was also occurring at the Li⁰/Li₃N interface for Li₃N SE. Also, the Li⁰-Li₃N interaction probed by the J_0 supports the lithiophilic feature of Li₃N, which is discussed further in the later section. Moreover, the lower value of J₀ for Li₃N SE signifies that the rate of electron transfer with Li₃N SE was slower compared to that with RE. This is obvious due to the additional electron transfer happening at the Li⁰/Li₃N interface that should intrinsically be slower than that at the Li⁰/electrolyte interface. Since Li₃N is a good Li⁺ conductor, ¹⁹ the charge transfer occurring at the Li⁰/Li₃N interface further suggests that Li⁰ can be electrodeposited and grow from the surfaces of Li₃N once Li₃N is in contact with Li⁰. In other words, the heterojunction

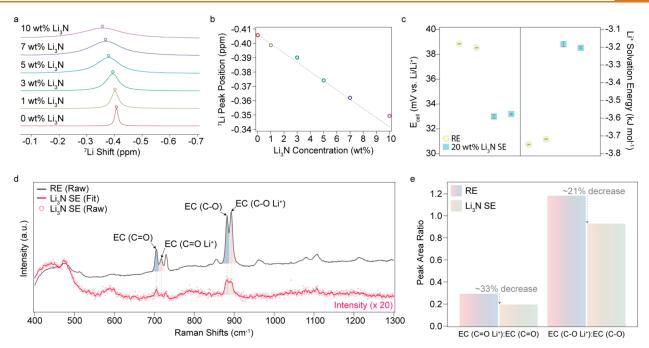


Figure 3. Li⁺ solvation environment of Li₃N SE. (a) ⁷Li NMR spectrum of 0–10 wt % Li₃N in RE. ⁷Li NMR peaks for the corresponding weight content of Li₃N in RE are indicated by the hexagonal symbols. (b) ⁷Li NMR peak positions based on 0–10 wt % Li₃N in RE. The dashed gray line represents the linear fit of the peaks. (c) The cell potential (E_{cell}) and Li⁺ solvation energy measurements for RE and 20 wt % Li₃N SE. Two measurements were taken for each of the electrolytes. The averaged E_{cell} and solvation energy values with standard errors for RE (1st measurement: 38.850 \pm 0.024 mV vs Li/Li⁺ | -3.748 ± -0.002 kJ mol⁻¹ and 2nd measurement: 38.540 \pm 0.037 mV vs Li/Li⁺ | -3.719 ± -0.003 kJ mol⁻¹) and 20 wt % Li₃N SE (1st measurement: 32.992 \pm 0.139 mV vs Li/Li⁺ | -3.183 ± -0.013 kJ mol⁻¹ and 2nd measurement: 33.197 \pm 0.061 mV vs Li/Li⁺ | -3.203 ± -0.006 kJ mol⁻¹) were obtained by recording the measurements up to 3 s after the cell potentials were stabilized. (d) Raman spectrum for RE and Li₃N SE. Four major peaks were assigned for EC (C=O), EC (C=O Li⁺), EC (C-O), and EC (C-O Li⁺). (e) Raman peak area ratios of RE and Li₃N SE for EC (C=O):EC (C=O Li⁺) and EC (C-O):EC (C-O Li⁺) retrieved from (d).

formed at the ${\rm Li^0/Li_3N}$ interface can be depicted as the current collector (${\rm Li^0}$ as the electron conductor) and solid electrolyte (${\rm Li_3N}$ as the ${\rm Li^+}$ conductor) model, in which the charge transfers occurring at the heterojunction allow electrodeposition of ${\rm Li^0}$ on the surfaces of ${\rm Li_3N}$. Hence, the J_0 measurement substantiates the ${\rm Li^0}$ electrodeposition at the ${\rm Li^0/Li_3N}$ heterojunction (as observed in Figure 1d,e) by electrochemically probing the ${\rm Li^0-Li_3N}$ interaction. We note that this outcome was particularly crucial as this serves as the first demonstration that J_0 can also be impacted by the suspension electrolyte design, meaning the J_0 of a particular liquid electrolyte can still be modified without changing the liquid components.

Since lower surface area and more compact Li⁰ electrodeposition morphologies indicate high CE and low Li nucleation overpotential, 1,40,41 CE and Li nucleation overpotential were measured from LilCu cells with RE and Li₃N SE to cross-validate the features attained from Figure 1c-f (Figure 1j,k). Figure 1j shows the representative voltage profiles of CE and Li nucleation overpotential measurements for RE and Li₃N SE. From the voltage profile analyses, it is apparent that Li₃N SE exhibited a higher CE and lower Li nucleation barrier than those of RE. Moreover, the inset of Figure 1j showed reduced overpotentials for Li₃N SE, suggesting facilitated Li⁺ transport. Duplicate measurements were taken with three identical LilCu cells containing each of the electrolytes to calculate averaged CE (97.48% \pm 0.31% for Li₃N SE and $93.01\% \pm 2.21\%$ for RE) and Li nucleation overpotentials $(56.43 \text{ mV} \pm 5.31 \text{ mV} \text{ for Li}_3\text{N SE and } 88.77 \text{ mV} \pm 5.11 \text{ mV})$ for RE) with standard errors (Figure 1k). Based on the

morphological and electrochemical analyses from Figure 1c-k, three noticeable features of Li_3N were observed: (i) guided Li^0 electrodeposition along the surface of Li_3N , (ii) existence of Li^0 - Li_3N interaction in Li_3N SE, (iii) improved electrochemical performance of Li^0 anodes, and (iv) facilitated Li^+ transport with Li_3N in the liquid electrolyte.

Analyses of Li₃N via First-Principles Calculations. To construe the guided Li⁰ electrodeposition along the surfaces of Li₃N (Figure 1d,e), binding energies and diffusion barriers were computed for Li₃N via density functional theory (DFT). Based on X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) of Li₃N, four orientations were found: (001), (100), (002), and (110), of which (001) was the dominant surface of Li₂N (Figure S2). To relatively compare Li adatom binding energies and diffusion barrier of Li₃N, the same analyses were executed with Li⁰ (110) as (110) surface is most commonly observed for Li⁰ anodes. 34,43 Figure 2a shows thermodynamically favorable Li adatom binding sites on Li⁰ (110), Li₃N (001)I(002), Li₃N (110), and Li₃N (100) surfaces with the corresponding binding energies of -1.59 eV, -3.44 eV, -1.78 eV, and -1.44 eV, respectively (Figure 2b). The Li adatom binding energy trend in Figure 2b suggests that Li₃N (001)I(002) surfaces (please note that the (002) surface is equivalent to the (001) surface of Li₃N) were the most favorable Li adatom binding surfaces. This means that Li thermodynamically prefers to get adsorbed onto Li₃N (001)I(002) surfaces instead of the Li⁰ (110) surface. The favored Li adsorption onto Li₃N surfaces further justifies the change in J_0 observed for Li₃N SE (Figure 1i), as the DFT results (Figure 2b) indicate that it is thermodynamically more favorable for Li to

bind with Li₃N rather than with Li⁰. Thereby, the results in Figure 2b rationalize the Li⁰-Li₃N interaction, illustrating favored Li growth at the Li⁰-Li₃N heterojunction. Additionally, the binding energies of Li₃N (001)I(002) surfaces were significantly higher, about two folds, than that of Li⁰ (110), Li₃N (110), and Li₃N (100) surfaces, in which the binding energies of Li₃N (110) and (100) were comparable to that of Li⁰ (110). Since the Li₃N (001) surface was experimentally found to be the primary surface (Figure S2), ^{34,43} this supports the claim that Li₃N, specifically Li₃N (001)I(002) surfaces, is lithiophilic, which explains the guided Li⁰ electrodeposition along the surfaces of Li₃N.

With the aim of further supporting the stabilized Li⁰ electrodeposition with Li₃N, the surface diffusion barrier of Li adatom on the Li₃N (001) surface was calculated as the low diffusion barrier which facilitates surface diffusion of Li to promote uniform Li⁰ electrodeposition (Figure 2c).^{43–45} In Figure 2c, Li was diffusing from the nitrogen to the adjacent nitrogen. From this diffusion trajectory, a total of eight relative energies, which represent threshold energies needed to adsorb Li adatom across the diffusion pathway, were computed to figure out the diffusion barrier. The diffusion barrier of Li adatom on Li₃N (001) surface was 0.133 eV (Figure 2d). Then, the diffusion barrier of Li₃N (0.133 eV) was compared with other prominent SEI inorganic compounds, such as Li₂O (0.319 eV), Li₂CO₃ (0.232 eV), LiF (0.169 eV), and LiOH (0.141 eV), to comparatively understand the diffusion barrier for Li₃N. 44 According to Figure 2e, Li₃N has the lowest diffusion barrier, claiming Li₃N as the most favorable SEI inorganic in terms of Li surface diffusion characteristics. We note that the low diffusion barrier would be an important parameter for ionically conductive inorganics, such as Li₃N, stabilizing the Li⁰ electrodeposition at the Li⁰/inorganic heterojunction. Furthermore, the surface energy of Li₃N (001) surface (3.60 meV atom⁻¹ Å⁻²) was higher than that of Li⁰ (110) surface (2.58 meV atom⁻¹ Å⁻²), in which the higher surface energy of Li_3N at the Li^0/Li_3N heterojunction suppresses dendritic Li⁰ growth (Figure S3).⁴⁶ Hence, the high binding energy, low diffusion barrier, and high surface energy of Li₃N support the observed guided and stabilized Li⁰ electrodeposition along the surface of Li₃N observed in Figure 1d,e and Figure S1.

Li⁺ Solvation Environment of Li₃N. ⁷Li nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), relative Li⁺ solvation energy, and Raman analyses were performed to investigate the Li⁺ solvation environment influenced by Li₃N in the electrolyte (Figure 3). Figure 3a shows ⁷Li NMR spectra of RE (0 wt % Li₃N) and Li₃N SE (1–10 wt % Li₃N in RE). ⁷Li NMR peaks were shifted in the downfield direction, meaning the peaks were moving to the higher parts per million (ppm), as the Li₃N content increased. The peak shifts directly reflect the changes in the Li⁺ solvation environment, in which the downfield peak shifts signify decreased electron density around the nuclei of solvated Li⁺ in the electrolyte.⁴⁷ As the solid particles in the liquid sample agitate the magnetic field during the NMR measurement, the retrieved signals become heterogeneous, which broadens the ⁷Li NMR peak. This means that the peak becomes broader as the suspension concentration increases as shown in Figure 3a. Despite the peak broadening as a function of suspension content, all the peak shapes are symmetric, which confirms that the peak position is shifting with respect to the changes in the suspension content. To verify the ⁷Li shift stems from dissociated Li⁺ from LiPF₆, not Li₃N, the ⁷Li

NMR spectrum of RE without LiPF₆, supernatant of Li₃N SE without LiPF₆, and Li₃N SE without LiPF₆ were measured (Figure S4). The spectra in Figure S4 do not exhibit any peaks, meaning that the dissociated Li⁺ from Li₃N was too low to be detected by the ⁷Li NMR. Therefore, the ⁷Li shift observed in Figure 3a is due to the change in the electron density of dissociated Li⁺ nuclei from LiPF₆, validating that Li₃N is modifying the solvation environment of Li⁺ in the suspension electrolyte. The downfield peak shifts observed in Figure 3a illustrate that the solvated Li⁺ in Li₃N SE became less coordinated with solvating electrolyte species. Since the peak position varied with respect to the Li₃N contents, the peak positions were plotted in Figure 3b. The peak positions as a function of the Li₃N content were almost linear up to 7 wt %. Then above 7 wt % Li₃N, the peak shift was less in magnitude. Based on the suspension electrolyte design, the dispersity of the suspension also matters to obtain reliable electrochemical performance. Despite the ⁷Li downfield peak shift observed for 10 wt % Li₃N in Figure 3b, particle aggregation above 7 wt % was observed (see Figure S4). Since the ⁷Li peak shift depends on the surface area to volume ratio of the Li₃N suspension, Figure 3b correctly shows that the peak shift becomes nonlinear and shifts less above 7 wt %, indicating that the suspension starts to aggregate (reducing the surface area to volume ratio of the suspension) as observed in Figure S5. Hence, 7 wt % Li₃N content was used to analyze the electrochemical performance, as this weight content was the most reliable for making Li₃N SE. Please note that optimizing the suspension content for the suspension electrolytes depends on several parameters (i.e., suspension types, dimensions, geometries, electrolyte formulations, and so on), in which the reported optimized content can be changed when the parameters vary.

To further support the changes in the Li⁺ solvation environment of Li₃N, relative Li⁺ solvation energies were potentiometrically probed for RE and 20 wt % Li₃N SE. With symmetric Li⁰ electrodes and asymmetric electrolytes configured in H-cell, it became possible to electrochemically measure the relative Li⁺ solvation energies of electrolytes (Figure 3c). 11 The reason for the high weight content of Li₃N used in the Li⁺ solvation energy measurement was to vividly observe the direction of the Li+ solvation energy change for Li₃N SE. From Figure 3c, 20 wt % Li₃N SE exhibited lower cell potential (E_{cell}) and more positive Li^+ solvation energy than those of RE. These results were critical as the lower $E_{\rm cell}$ and higher Li⁺ solvation energy cross-check the changes in the Li⁺ solvation environment with Li₃N in the electrolyte as observed from ⁷Li NMR measurements (Figure 3a).^{6,11} Also, the lower E_{cell} and higher Li⁺ solvation energy of 20 wt % Li₃N SE translate to the weakly solvating Li+ environment.11 This interchangeably means that the interaction between solvated Li⁺ and solvating electrolyte species has been weakened by the presence of Li₃N in the electrolyte, which agrees with ⁷Li NMR analysis in Figure 3a. Thereby, we concluded that Li₃N in the electrolyte modifies Li⁺ solvation environment by decreasing the interaction between Li⁺ and solvating electrolyte species, which creates a weakly solvating environment. Also, it is worth mentioning that the weakly solvating environment allows facilitated Li⁰ electrodeposition and Li⁺ desolvation kinetics, demonstrating beneficial features of Li₃N.⁴²

To verify the decreased interaction between Li⁺ and the solvating electrolyte species observed in ⁷Li NMR and the relative Li⁺ solvation energy analyses in Figure 3a-c, Raman

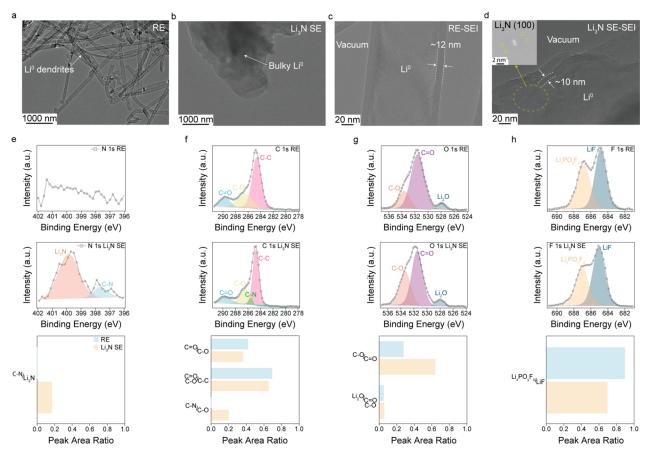


Figure 4. Li⁰ interphases with RE and Li₃N SE. (a) A low magnification cryo-TEM image of Li⁰ electrodeposits on Cu TEM grid with RE. The arrow indicates dendritic Li⁰ electrodeposits with RE. (b) A low magnification cryo-TEM image of Li⁰ electrodeposits on Cu TEM grid with Li₃N SE. The arrow indicates bulky Li⁰ electrodeposits with Li₃N SE (c) A high magnification cryo-TEM image of Li⁰ dendrite and RE-SEI, indicated by the arrows. (d) A high magnification cryo-TEM image of bulky Li⁰ and Li₃N SE-SEI, indicated by the arrows. The inset shows the fast Fourier transform pattern of the image. From the inverse fast Fourier transform of the inset, the dashed yellow circle indicates the position of Li₃N lattice. (e) N 1s XPS spectra of 1 mAh cm⁻² electrodeposited Li⁰ on Cu at 1 mA cm⁻² from LilCu cells with RE and Li₃N SE. The bottom plot represents the peak area ratio of C—N:Li₃N based on N 1s XPS spectra of RE and Li₃N SE. (f) C 1s XPS spectra of 1 mAh cm⁻² electrodeposited Li⁰ on Cu at 1 mA cm⁻² from LilCu cells with RE and Li₃N SE. The bottom plot represents the peak area ratio of C—O:C—O, C—O C—O:C—C, and C—N:C—O based on C 1s XPS spectra of RE and Li₃N SE. (g) O 1s XPS spectra of 1 mAh cm⁻² electrodeposited Li⁰ on Cu at 1 mA cm⁻² from LilCu cells with RE and Li₃N SE. The bottom plot represents the peak area ratio of C—O:C—O and Li₂O:C—O C—O based on O 1s XPS spectra of RE and Li₃N SE. (h) F 1s XPS spectra of 1 mAh cm⁻² electrodeposited Li⁰ on Cu at 1 mA cm⁻² from LilCu cells with RE and Li₃N SE. The bottom plot represents the peak area ratio of C—O:C—O and Li₂O:C—O C—O based on O 1s XPS spectra of RE and Li₃N SE. (h) F 1s XPS spectra of 1 mAh cm⁻² electrodeposited Li⁰ on Cu at 1 mA cm⁻² from LilCu cells with RE and Li₃N SE. The bottom plot represents the peak area ratio of C—O:C—O and Li₂O:C—O C—O based on O 1s XPS spectra of RE and Li₃N SE. The bottom plot represents the peak area ratio of Li₂PO_yF_z:LiF based on F 1s XPS spect

spectra of RE and Li₃N SE were examined to understand Li⁺ to solvent coordination (Figure 3d). Due to the solid nanoparticles in the liquid electrolyte (Li₃N SE), the retrieved intensity for Li₃N SE was relatively lower than that for RE. Despite the low signal, reliable peaks for alkoxy, EC (C-O), and carbonyl, EC (C=O), groups for EC were observed for Li₃N SE (Figure 3d). The peaks around 892 cm⁻¹, 882 cm⁻¹, 718 cm⁻¹, and 705 cm⁻¹ represent solvated alkoxy groups of EC with Li⁺, EC (C-O Li⁺), nonsolvated alkoxy groups of EC, EC (C-O), solvated carbonyl groups of EC with Li $^+$, EC (C=O Li⁺), and nonsolvated carbonyl groups of EC, EC (C=O), respectively. 48,49 To qualitatively compare the Li⁺-EC coordination between RE and Li₃N SE, the corresponding peaks were integrated and normalized to investigate the relative Li⁺-EC coordination, which was denoted as the EC (C=O Li⁺):EC (C=O) and EC (C-O Li⁺):EC (C-O) ratios. By calculating the peak area ratios in Figure 3e, the decrease in Li+-EC coordination was clearly observed for Li₃N SE, in which both EC (C=O Li^+):EC (C=O) and EC (C-O Li^+):EC (C-O) ratios for Li₃N SE showed approximately 33% and 21% relative

decrease compared to those for RE. The decrease in Li⁺-EC coordination for Li₃N SE cross-validates the results from ⁷Li NMR (the decrease in electron density around the nuclei of solvated Li⁺ in Li₃N SE) and the relative Li⁺ solvation energy (weakly solvating Li⁺ environment for Li₃N SE) measurements. Thusly, these results reveal the essential roles of Li₃N in terms of the Li⁺ solvation environment: Li₃N changes Li⁺ solvation environment by decreasing the interaction between Li⁺ and solvating electrolyte species, and specifically Li₃N weakens the Li⁺-solvent coordination that induces the weakly solvating environment in the electrolyte.

Analyses of Li⁰ Interphase. Li⁰ electrodeposition morphologies and SEIs with RE and Li₃N SE were investigated via cryogenic transmission electron microscopy (cryo-TEM) to consolidate observed features of Li₃N in Figures 1–3 (Figure 4a–d). With RE, dendritic Li⁰ electrodeposition morphology was observed (Figure 4a), as seen in Figure 1c. On the contrary, a bulky Li⁰ electrodeposit was observed with Li₃N SE (Figure 4b), indicating a more compact Li⁰ electrodeposition with Li₃N in the electrolyte (Figure 1d,e and Figure S1). To

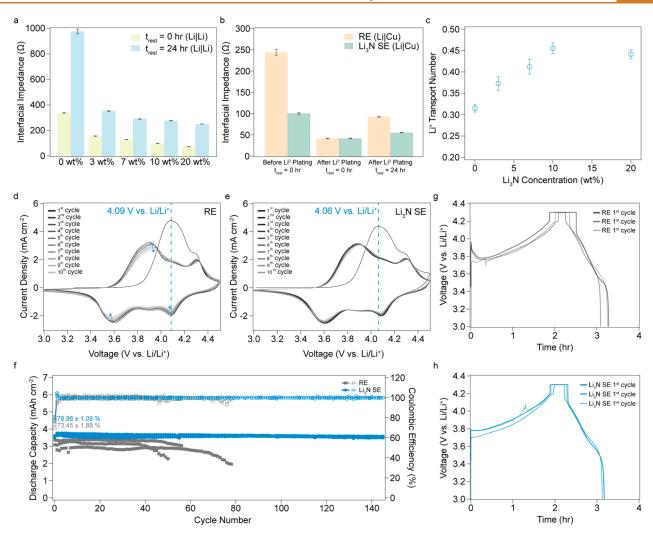


Figure 5. Electrochemical characteristics of Li₃N SE for Li⁰ anodes. (a) Measured interfacial impedances from LilLi cells with 0–20 wt % Li₃N in RE with respect to the aging time ($t_{\rm rest}$ = 0 and 24 h). Three identical LilLi cells were used for each electrolyte to obtain the averaged interfacial impedances with standard errors. (b) Measured interfacial impedances from LilCu cells at $t_{\rm rest}$ = 0 h and after Li⁰ electrodeposited on Cu at $t_{\rm rest}$ = 0 and 24 h with RE and Li₃N SE. Three identical LilCu cells were used for each condition to obtain the averaged interfacial impedances with standard errors. The current density of 1 mA cm⁻² and capacity of 1 mAh cm⁻² were used for plating Li⁰. (c) Li⁺ transport number measured from LilLi cells with 0–20 wt % Li₃N in RE. Three identical LilLi cells were used for each electrolyte to obtain the averaged Li⁺ transport number with standard errors. (d) First 10 cycle cyclic voltammograms of the LilLi₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} cell with RE. The voltage window and scan rate used are 3.0 to 4.5 V vs Li/Li⁺ and 0.1 mV s⁻¹. The dashed line indicates the peak position during the first charge cycle of the LilLi₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} cell with Li₃N SE. The voltage window and scan rate used are 3.0 to 4.5 V vs Li/Li⁺ and 0.1 mV s⁻¹. The dashed line indicates the peak position during the first charge cycle of the LilLi₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} cells with RE and Li₃N SE. The filled and open symbols represent discharge capacity and CE. The cell cycling was performed using 0.5C charging (0.5C) and 1C discharging (1D) with the voltage window of 3.0–4.3 V vs Li/Li⁺. Three identical LilNMC811 cells were measured with RE and Li₃N SE, and the averaged first cycle CE with each electrolyte is shown with the standard error. (g) The first cycle voltage profiles of LilLi₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} cells with Li₃N SE.

look closely into the SEIs on Li⁰ with RE (RE-SEI) and Li₃N SE (Li₃N SE-SEI), the thickness of RE-SEI (Figure 4c) and Li₃N SE-SEI (Figure 4d) was estimated with the high magnification cryo-TEM images. The measured SEI thicknesses of RE-SEI and Li₃N SE-SEI were about 12 and 10 nm. Furthermore, the fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern in the Figure 4d inset exhibits the lattice of Li₃N, indicating the presence of Li₃N in the Li⁰ electrodeposits. From the inverse FFT of the Figure 4d inset, the observed Li₃N lattice was mapped in Figure S6 for visualization, in which the detected Li₃N lattice spot is demarcated by a dashed yellow circle in Figure 4d. Therefore, embedded Li₃N into the Li⁰ electrodeposit was found for Li₃N SE, in which the presence of

embedded $\text{Li}_3 \text{N}$ in Li^0 electrodeposits further confirmed guided Li^0 electrodeposition behavior along the $\text{Li}_3 \text{N}$ surface as observed in SEM (Figure 1d,e) and DFT (Figure 2) analyses.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was performed to analyze chemistries of Li⁰ interphases formed by RE and Li₃N SE (Figure 4e-h). Based on N 1s narrow XPS scans, Li₃N and C-N were detected on the Li⁰ interphase derived from Li₃N SE, whereas no N 1s signals were retrieved from the Li⁰ interphase derived from RE as RE contains no nitrogen species (Figure 4e). The existence of Li₃N can be explained by the guided Li⁰ electrodeposition along the surface of Li₃N that gets engulfed during the Li⁰ plating (Figure 1d,e, Figure S1, and

Figure 4d). We hypothesize that C-N bonds were formed during the reduction of solvent species at the interface junction between Li₃N and Li⁰, at which the electrolyte should also be reduced at the surface of Li₃N due to the plating potential below 0 V vs Li/Li⁺. The ratio of C-N to Li₃N (C-N/Li₃N) was calculated to understand which species were dominantly present at the Li⁰ interphase. The C-N/Li₃N ratio was around 0.18, indicating that Li₃N more dominantly existed at the Li⁰ interphase formed by Li₃N SE (Figure 4e). From C 1s narrow XPS scans (Figure 4f), there were three distinct differences observed between the Li⁰ interphase formed by RE and Li₃N SE: (i) a relative increase of C-O, (ii) lower C-C to C-O + C=O ratio (C-C/C-O C=O), and (iii) C-N species for the Li⁰ interphase of Li₃N SE. It has been found that enrichment of C-O (alkoxides and ethers) over C=O (carbonates) groups in the organic parts of the SEIs on Li⁰ provides improved passivity, enhanced Li+ transport, and physicochemical stability, implying beneficial features of C–O over C=O species in the SEIs. $^{50-53}$ Also, C=O + C–O over C-C ratio (C-O C=O/C-C) represents a relative solvent decomposition at the interphase of Li⁰ anodes, in which C-C and C-O C=O contents should increase and decrease, respectively, upon a more solvent decomposition and complete reduction of solvent molecules to form Li bound species from C-O and C=O groups. 50-52 The presence of C-N and the low C-N/C-O ratio in Figure 4f also cross-check the observed C-N in Figure 4e. Hence, the lower C=O/C-O and C=O C-O/C-C ratios for Li₃N SE than those for RE suggest a better SEI passivity and a less solvent decomposition on Li⁰ anodes. O 1s narrow XPS scans (Figure 4g), which exhibited higher C-O/C=O and Li₂O/C=O C-O ratios for Li₃N SE, showed the same aspects of Li⁰ interphase formed by Li₃N SE as observed in Figure 4f. Moreover, a lower Li_xPO_yF_z/ LiF ratio for Li₃N SE than that for RE was observed from F 1s narrow XPS scans (Figure 4h). The lower Li_xPO_yF_z/LiF ratio for Li₃N SE indicates a reduced solvent decomposition as the oxygen in the Li_xPO_vF_z complex originates from the solvent decomposition with anions. To further verify the reduced solvent decomposition at the Li⁰ interphase of Li₃N SE, elemental ratios of P/C, F/C, and O/C were calculated (Figure S7). The lower P/C, F/C, and O/C ratios were achieved for Li₃N SE than those for RE, meaning reduced solvent-derived species for the Li⁰ interphase formed by Li₃N SE. Overall, XPS analyses manifest that less solvent decomposition and better Li⁰ interphase passivation characteristics were achieved with Li₃N SE. This also confirms the impact of the modified Li⁺ solvation environment by Li₃N as observed in Figure 3, in which the decrease in the Li⁺-solvent coordination of solvated Li+ with Li3N in the electrolyte suppressed solvent decomposition and promoted a complete solvent decomposition.

Electrochemical Performance Analyses. To understand the electrochemical properties of Li⁰ interphase formed by RE and Li₃N SE, interfacial impedances were measured for RE (0 wt % Li₃N) and 3–20 wt % Li₃N SE from LilLi cells before and after aging¹⁶ the cell for a day (Figure 5a, Figure S8, and Table S1). The interfacial impedances of Li⁰ with Li₃N SE electrolytes were much lower than that with RE, which can be expected from the weakly solvating environment and organic-poor Li⁰ interphase³ with Li₃N. Also, the temporal characteristics of the interfacial impedance changes for Li₃N SE were more stable than that for RE. Moreover, the interfacial stability of electrodeposited Li⁰ with RE and Li₃N SE was

investigated by measuring the interfacial impedances before and after Li⁰ plating as well as aging the electrodeposited Li⁰ for a day from LilCu cells (Figure 5b, Figure S9, and Table S2). The magnitude of the interfacial impedance changes before and after Li⁰ plating as well as after aging was lower for Li₃N SE, demonstrating stable electrodeposition of Li⁰ with and temporally stabilized Li⁰ interphase formed by Li₃N SE. The altered Li⁺ solvation environment with Li₃N in the electrolyte contributes to the stabilized temporal characteristics of Li⁰ interphase with Li₃N SE, as the decrease in Li⁺-solvent interaction helps to create organic-poor SEI that mitigates SEI swelling.^{3,15} Remarkably, the Li⁺ transport number of Li₃N SE increased with the presence of Li₃N in the electrolyte (Figure 5c and Table S3). Having a higher Li⁺ transport number can reduce the overpotential, as a larger fraction of the applied current is getting used to migrate Li⁺. To cross-validate the effect of the improved Li+ transport number, the ionic conductivity was measured for RE (0.272 \pm 0.008 mS cm⁻¹) and Li₃N SE (0.261 \pm 0.013 mS cm⁻¹), see Figure S10. The ionic conductivities of RE and Li₃N SE were comparable to each other, indicating that the improved Li+ transport number with Li₃N SE enables reducing the cell overpotential as the electrolyte conductivity remains similar for RE and Li₃N SE. Accordingly, the decrease in interfacial impedance, increase in Li⁺ transport number, and no change in electrolyte ionic conductivity justify the reduced Li⁰-plating/stripping cell overpotential with Li₃N SE, as observed in Figure 1j.

To verify the electrochemical activity of Li₃N in Li₃N SE, cyclic voltammetry scans (from 3 to 4.5 V vs Li/Li⁺) and linear sweep voltammetry (LSV, from 3 to 5 V vs Li/Li+) were performed with LilLi₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} and LilAl cells (Figure 5d,e, Figure S11, and Figure S12). By comparing the representative cyclic voltammograms of LilLi₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} cells with RE (Figure 5d) and Li₃N SE (Figure 5e), a lower first charging redox potential and less cyclic voltammogram hysteresis, 43,54 signifying facilitated Li+ transport and reversible redox reactions in the full cell with Li₃N SE, were observed for Li₃N SE than those for RE. Additional cyclic voltammograms are shown in Figure S11. LSV measurements in Figure S12 revealed that the Li₃N in the electrolyte remains electrochemically stable as no current overshoot was observed. Also, the cyclic voltammograms of LilNMC811 with Li₃N SE in Figure 5e did not exhibit additional redox peaks up to 4.5 V vs Li/Li⁺. We hypothesize that oxidizing dispersed Li₃N in the liquid electrolyte may require a higher voltage to oxidize Li₃N as the surfaces of Li₃N are well-wetted by the liquid electrolyte, which can hinder direct contact of dispersed Li₃N with the cathode materials. To confirm the cycling characteristics of Lil Li₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} full cells with RE and Li₃N SE, cycling and corresponding voltage profiles are illustrated in Figure 5fh. The full cells with Li₃N SE yielded prolonged cycle life with a higher first cycle CE (Figure 5f). By comparing the first cycle voltage profiles of RE (Figure 5g) and Li₃N SE (Figure 5h) retrieved from Figure 5f, a smaller voltage overshoot at the beginning of the first charging was observed for the Li₃N SE, demonstrating better Li+ transport and stabilized electrochemical reactions in the full cells.

CONCLUSIONS

By combining empirical and first-principles calculation analyses of Li₃N SE, we showed that Li₃N guides Li⁰ electrodeposition along its surface via thermodynamically favored Li⁰-Li₃N interactions, creates the weakly solvating Li⁺ environment by

decreasing the interaction between Li⁺ and solvating electrolyte species, suppresses solvent decomposition on Li⁰ anodes, induces organic-poor SEI on Li⁰ anodes, facilitates Li⁺ transport in the electrolyte, and promotes reversible electrochemical reactions in the full cells. The outcome of this study can potentially serve as one of the scientific guidelines (i.e., inorganics that promote the weakly solvating Li⁺ environment) to rationalize the roles played by inorganic compounds in the SEIs on Li⁰ anodes. Importantly, it is crucial to realize that SEIs on Li⁰ anodes are still electrolyte permeable, as evidenced by SEI swelling properties, 15 in which solvated Li+ electrolyte species are present within the SEI layer. Therefore, we must understand how the Li⁺ solvation environment is influenced and controlled by SEI inorganic species at the SEI/Li⁰ interface that dictates Li+ transport as well as charge transfer behavior and impacts SEI evolution on Li⁰ anodes. We believe that the systematic revealment of SEI inorganic features would ultimately allow sophisticated electrolyte engineering strategies that contribute to designing high-performance SEIs on Li⁰ anodes for realizing reliable yet practical energy-dense LMBs.

METHODS

Materials. The electrolytes were prepared and handled in an Arfilled glovebox with an O_2 concentration below 0.2 ppm and H_2O concentration below 0.01 ppm. The reference electrolyte (RE) was made with 1 M LiPF₆ in EC:DEC (1:1 v/v) (Gotion LP40) with 10 vol % FEC (Gotion). The Li₃N suspension electrolyte (Li₃N SE) was prepared by mixing indicated amount (3–20 wt %) of Li₃N nanoparticles (80–100 nm in diameter, Nanoshel) with RE. The default weight content of Li₃N for Li₃N SE was 7 wt %, otherwise indicated. High purity Li foil (750 μ m thick, 99.9%, Alfa Aesar), Cu foil (Pred Materials), 11 μ m thick polyethylene separator (W-Scope), and ~4 mAh cm⁻² NMC811 (Targray) were used to make 2032-type coin cells for LilLi and LilCu, and LilLi₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} configured cells.

DFT Calculation. The calculations were performed with the DFT code GPAW. 55-57 The electron exchange-correlation was described by Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof functional within the generalized gradient approximation.⁵⁸ The valence electrons are expressed in plane wave basis sets and the core electrons with projector augmented wave (PAW) method. The energy cutoff of 500 eV was applied to all the calculations. The k-point grid of $3 \times 3 \times 1$ was used for all Li₃Nslab calculations, and $5 \times 3 \times 1$ was used for Li slab calculations. The energy and forces per atom were converged to within 10⁻⁴ eV and 10^{-3} eV/Å, respectively. For the slab calculations, the vacuum of 15 Å thickness is used to reduce periodic artificial interactions. The Li₃Nslab consists of six layers of unit cells (spanning approximately 15 Å) in the z-direction. During geometry optimization, the top 4/5/4/4layers are allowed to relax for Li (110)/Li₃N (001)l(002)/Li₃N (100)/Li₃N (110) adsorption calculations. The diffusion pathways were calculated via the machine-learning nudged elastic band (ML-NEB) using the CatLearn package, 59 with nine images between the initial and the final configurations.

XRD. X-ray diffraction (PANalytical Empyrean with a $Cu(K\alpha)$ X-ray source) was used to examine the crystal structural of Li_3N nanopowder. The Li_3N nanopowders were placed on a glass slide followed by Kapton taping to seal the nanopowders. Then, the diffraction patterns were collected from 10° to 70° using a step size of 0.01.

SEM/EDXS. All the samples were rinsed with pure diethyl carbonate (DEC) and dried inside the Ar glovebox before microscopy. SEM was performed using a Thermo Fisher Scientific Apreo S LoVac Scanning Electron Microscope. Micrographs were taken at a potential of 5 kV and beam current of 50 pA, and the electron signal was collected via the Everhart—Thornley Detector (ETD). Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy data was collected with

a Bunker XFlash 6-60 detector at a potential of 10 kV and beam current of 800 pA.

Cryo-TEM. Cu TEM grids were utilized as the working electrode for Li⁰ electrodeposition from LilCu TEM grid cells. 0.1 mAh cm⁻² amount of Li was electrodeposited galvanostatically at 1 mA cm⁻². After the electrodeposition of Li⁰, the coin cells were disassembled in an argon-filled glovebox. Then, the electrodeposited TEM grids were rinsed with 60 μ L of DEC and dried before freezing the sample with liquid nitrogen. After, the sample was instantly submerged in liquid nitrogen to rapidly expose the sample to cryogen without the ambient exposure. For cryo-TEM characterization, while immersed in liquid nitrogen, the sample was loaded into the Gatan side-entry cryotransfer holder (Gatan model 626) and inserted into the TEM column. The cryo-TEM holder uses a specialized cryoshutter to prevent air exposure and ice condensation onto the sample. Once inside the TEM column, the temperature was maintained at approximately -178°C. Cryo-TEM experiments were performed on a Thermo Fisher Titan 80-300 environmental scanning transmission electron microscope operated at an accelerating voltage of 300 kV. The instrument was equipped with an aberration corrector in the image-forming lens, which was tuned before each sample analysis. Cryo-TEM images were acquired by a Gatan K3 IS direct-detection camera in the electroncounting mode. The images were taken with an electron dose rate of around 100 e⁻/Å²/s, a total of 5 frames were taken with 0.1 s per frame for each image.

 ${\sf Li}^+$ Solvation Energy Measurements. The ${\sf Li}^+$ solvation energies of RE and ${\sf Li}_3{\sf N}$ SE were probed by Biologic VMP3 using H-cell that contains control electrolyte (1 M LiFSI in DEC)|salt bridge (1 M LiFSI in DME/DOL)|testing electrolytes (RE and 20 wt % ${\sf Li}_3{\sf N}$ SE) with submerged Li metal into the control electrolyte and testing electrolytes. The cell potentials and solvation energies for each of the testing electrolytes were recorded for 3 s to obtain averaged values. The detailed apparatus setup can be found in the literature. 11

⁷Li NMR. An NMR tube with a coaxial insert was used for 1D ⁷Li NMR experiments. The outer tube contained freshly prepared RE and (1−10 wt %) Li₃N SE. The inner tube contained deuterated solutions as external references. ⁷Li NMR was performed on a Varian Inova 500 MHz NMR spectrometer, and the chemical shifts were referenced to 1 M LiCl in D2O at 0 ppm.

Raman. Raman spectra were collected with a 532 nm green laser at a Horiba XploRA+ confocal microscope. The electrolytes, RE and Li₃N SE, were sealed in quartz cuvettes under Argon environment.

XPS. The XPS scans were performed on a PHI Versaprobe I with a monochromatized Al K α X-ray source. The XPS chamber was kept at a pressure of about 10^{-7} Pa during the measurements. For the sample preparation, electrodeposited Li⁰ on Cu with the capacity and current density of 1 mAh cm⁻² and 1 mA cm⁻² was rinsed with 60 μ L of DEC in an Ar filled glovebox. A vacuum transfer vessel was used to transfer the samples directly from the Ar glovebox to the vacuum transfer chamber of the instrument to prevent air exposure. High-resolution spectra were calibrated using the C 1s peak at 284.6 eV.

Electrochemical Measurements. The RE (1 M $LiPF_6$ in EC:DEC (1:1 v/v) with 10 vol % FEC) and Li₃N SE (1-20 wt % Li₃N in RE) were used for the electrochemical measurements. Twenty μL of specified electrolytes were used for LilCu, LilLi, Lil $\text{Li}_1 \text{Ni}_{0.8} \text{Co}_{0.1} \text{Mn}_{0.1}$ cells. The cyclic voltammetry with ultramicroelectrodes for measuring the exchange current density of RE and 20 wt % Li₃N SE was measured by following the literature. 42 In brief, three electrodes were used: Li metal as the reference/counter electrodes and Cu ultramicroelectrode as the working electrode. The scan rate was 20 V s⁻¹. The voltage window was -1.75 to 2.75 V vs Li/Li⁺. Three measurements were performed to measure averaged exchange current density with statistics. The exchange current density of RE and Li₃N SE was calculated by analyzing the kinetically controlled region in the cyclic voltammograms.⁴² The interfacial impedances were measured by Biologics VMP3 with the frequency ranging from 100 mHz to 7 MHz. For the Li⁺ transport number measurements, Lil Li symmetric cells were precycled at 0.5 mA cm⁻² current density and 1 mAh cm⁻² areal capacity for 5 cycles. A constant voltage bias of 10 mV was applied for 1 h to obtain initial (I_0) and static (I_s) currents.

The interfacial impedance measurements were carried out before and after the constant voltage step to obtain interfacial resistance before (R_0) and after (R_s) . The ionic conductivity of electrolytes was measured by Biologics VMP3 with the frequency ranging from 1 MHz to 100 MHz using symmetric stainless-steel (SS) cells with the 11 μ m thick separator (SSISS cells). The area of 2 cm², distance of 11 μ m, and measured solution resistance were used to calculate the ionic conductivity of specified electrolytes. For cycling LilCu, LilLi, and Lil Li₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} cells, the measurements were recorded by Arbin and Land instruments. For CE and nucleation overpotential measurements with LilCu cells, current density of 0.5 mA cm⁻² was applied with cutoff voltage of 1 V. For cyclic voltammetry, Lil Li₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} full cells were cycled at 0.1 mV s⁻¹ with the voltage window of 3.0 to 4.5 V vs Li/Li⁺ with Biologics VMP3. For the linear sweep voltammetry, the current profiles were obtained from LilAl cells with RE and Li₃N SE, in which the used voltage window and sweep rate were 3.0-5.0 V vs Li/Li⁺ and 1 mV s⁻¹. For cycling Lil Li₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} full cells, specified charging and discharge C rates were applied with the voltage window of 3.0-4.3 V, where the constant current goes up to 4.2 V and the constant voltage was held at 4.3 V with the cutoff current value of 0.05 C.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsnano.2c12470.

Morphologies of electrodeposited Li⁰, XRD measurements of Li₃N suspension, surface energies of Li₃N (001) and Li⁰ (110) surfaces, ⁷Li NMR spectra of RE and Li₃N SE without LiPF₆, pictures of 7, 10, and 20 wt % Li₃N SE, overlaid inverse FFT cryo-TEM image of Figure 4d inset, calculated P/C, F/C, and O/C ratios from XPS for electrodeposited Li⁰ with RE and Li₃N SE, Nyquist plots of LilLi and LilCu cells, ionic conductivities of RE and Li₃N SE, cyclic voltammograms of LilLi₁Ni_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1} cells with RE and Li₃N SE, linear sweep voltammetry of RE and Li₃N SE, averaged values of the interfacial impedances for LilLi and LilCu cells, and averaged Li⁺ transport numbers (PDF)

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Author Contributions

M.S.K. and Y. Cui conceived the idea and conceptualized the work. M.S.K. performed the experiments and analyzed the data with the guidance from Y. Cui. M.S.K. and Y.Cui wrote the manuscript. Z.Z. performed cryo-TEM analysis. J.W. performed DFT calculations. S.T.O. performed XPS analysis. Z.Y. measured the transport number of the electrolytes. Y. Chen performed ⁷Li NMR of the electrolytes. S.C.K. measured the solvation energy of the electrolytes. D.B. performed transient voltammetry measurements with ultramicroelectrodes. Y.Y. helped electrochemical measurements. Z.H. performed Raman characterization. W.Z. took SEM images. R.X. performed XRD measurements. P.S. provided helpful discussions. S.F.B. reviewed the manuscript. Y. Cui, Z.B., and J.Q. supervised the overall studies. All the authors discussed the manuscript and provided comments.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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