Al- and Nb-Comodified Ni-Rich NCM Cathode for High-Performance Lithium-Ion Batteries

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ABSTRACT: Layered cathodes with a high nickel content (Ni \geq 80%) are viewed as the ideal choice for the future of lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) because of their high specific capacity. However, the bad cyclic and thermal stability impedes its promotion because of the increase in the nickel content. Herein, it has been demonstrated that Al- and Nb-codoped LiNi_{0.83}Co_{0.12}Mn_{0.05}O₂ (NCM83-NA) can improve the structural stability and inhibit the release of lattice oxygen. It is found that the introduction of Al and Nb enlarges the interlayer spacing, and Nb ions induce the formation of radially oriented primary particles, which facilitate faster lithium-ion diffusion kinetics. XRD and XPS indicate that Al



and Nb codoping reduces Li^+/Ni^{2+} cation mixing, Ni^{3+} with Jahn–Teller activity, and irreversible phase transition and increases the lattice oxygen content on surface. These endow materials with more stable structures and fewer surface side reactions. Consequently, NCM83-NA exhibits remarkable capacity retention (95.10% for 100 cycles at 1C), along with a notably enhanced rate capability, achieving 145.0 mA h g⁻¹ at 5C. This work provides a hopeful approach for developing cathode materials with high performance.

INTRODUCTION

Lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) are widely used because of their high energy density, low pollution, and other advantages.¹⁻³ However, in recent times, LIBs have struggled to fulfill the increasing energy density requirements.⁴ The performance of LIBs, especially their energy density, is largely dependent on the cathode materials.⁵ The Ni-rich layered oxide cathode is considered the preferred material of power batteries because of its high energy density.⁶ However, the unsatisfied cyclic and thermal stability hinders its large-scale application.^{7,8} The poor performance of the Ni-rich cathode comes from the lattice strain generated during cycling and the release of lattice oxygen.^{9,10} When the voltage exceeds 4.1 V, the lattice of the material undergoes severe anisotropic volume contraction and local stress concentration due to the irreversible phase transition.^{11,12} After long-term cycling, microcracks occur on the particle surface, ultimately leading to the rupture of particles.^{13,14} These increase the cathode surface side reactions, accelerating the aging of the battery.^{15,16} In addition, the release of lattice oxygen in the high lithium removal state not only affects the thermal safety of the battery but also increases the degree of lithium nickel mixing, hindering the transportation of lithium ions.^{17,18}

To suppress the lattice strain and the lattice oxygen release, doping is the most used strategy. Various anions and cations doped at different sites, such as lithium sites $(Na^{+,8}_{} Mg^{2+,19}_{} Zn^{2+20})$, transition metal (TM) sites $(Zr^{4+,21}_{} Ta^{5+,22}_{} W^{6+23})$, and oxygen sites $(F^{-,24}_{} Cl^{-,25}_{} S^{2-26})$, form stronger metal– oxygen bonds and ordering primary particles. The advantages of doping lie in three aspects: (1) replacing unstable Li/Ni/O elements with structurally stable elements; (2) restraining the undesirable phase transition to the rock-salt phase; and (3) forming more stable bonds between transition metals and oxygen (TM-O bonds) to decrease oxygen release. For example, elements with high solubility can improve the bulk phase structural stability of the cathode, but cannot suppress the surface side reactions effectively.²⁷ High valence ions can induce radially oriented primary particles, but it is difficult to diffuse into the bulk phase.²⁸ However, single-element doping cannot comprehensively solve various defects. Therefore, multielement doping is more promising in solving various problems of Ni-rich cathodes simultaneously.^{29,30} Lu et al.³¹ reported a Ni-rich cathode codoped with Al and Zr. The codoped materials exhibit faster lithium-ion migration and less internal strain and cation mixing. Sun et al.³² synthesized bulk/ surface-comodified LiNi_{0.9}Co_{0.09}Mo_{0.01}O₂ (NCMo90) through one-step calcination. This multifunctional structure maintains structural integrity during cycling effectively, exhibiting excellent capacity retention and rate performance.

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Here, Al- and Nb-codoped LiNi_{0.83}Co_{0.12}Mn_{0.05}O₂ (NCM83) was synthesized by a solid-state method. Al is the most widely studied dopant, which can significantly improve the structural stability and conductivity. The Al-O bond has a formation energy higher than that of the Ni-O bond, which can inhibit the release of lattice oxygen. Nb5+ is beneficial for the formation of radially arranged primary particles.³³ In addition, Nb doping can reduce Ni³⁺ with Jahn-Teller activity and stabilize the lattice oxygen. Attributed to the bulk-tosurface modification of Al and Nb, modified NCM83 exhibited a better performance. First, the doping formation energy of Al and Nb ions was calculated, which demonstrated that the Al ion tends to enter the bulk, but the Nb ion is more likely to be doped on the subsurface. Subsequently, NCM83 with Al and Nb comodification was synthesized. The introduction of Al and Nb atoms from bulk to surface contributes to the enlarged interlayer space and stronger TM-O and suppresses internal intrinsic stress, thus increasing the lithium-ion diffusion kinetics, reducing the cation mixing and phase transition. Therefore, the NCM83-NA cathode exhibits a comprehensively improved cyclic stability (95.10% retention for 100 cycles at 1C) and rate capability (145.0 mA h g⁻¹ at 5C).

METHODS

Material Preparation. The Ni_{0.83}Co_{0.12}Mn_{0.05}(OH)₂ precursor was purchased from Guangzhou Lige Technology Co., Ltd. All Ni-rich cathodes were prepared by a calcination method with Ni_{0.83}Co_{0.12}Mn_{0.05}(OH)₂, LiOH·H₂O, Al(OH)₃, or/and Nb₂O₅ as raw materials. To obtain the Al- and Nbcodoped material, the precursor was mixed with Al(OH)₃, Nb₂O₅, and LiOH·H₂O (Li:TM:Al:Nb = 1.05:1:0.015:0.005). The mixture underwent a preheating process at 500 °C for 6 h, followed by calcination at 800 °C for 12 h under an O₂ atmosphere. For comparison, pristine NCM83 and Al-doping and Nb-doping NCM83 materials were synthesized by the same method. The products were defined as NCM83-Al, NCM83-Nb, and NCM83-NA, respectively.

Material Characterization. The element content of all cathodes was identified by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Agilent 5800). Microstructures of all cathodes were analyzed by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, Gemini SEM 500) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, FEI Talos F200X). The cross-sectional morphology was characterized by a focused ion beam etching technique (FIB, TESCAN GALA 3). Element distribution was analyzed by SEM equipped with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS). The crystalline structure of all cathodes was characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker D8 Advance), and the results were analyzed with the GSAS Rietveld refinement software. The element oxidation state was characterized by X-ray photoelectron spectrometery (XPS, Thermo Scientific K- α).

Electrochemical Test. The electrochemical performance of all materials was assessed in half-cells (CR2016 coin-type). The materials were combined with Super-P and poly-(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF) in 8:1:1 wt %, using *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) as the solvent. Then, the slurry was applied to aluminum foil and vacuum-dried, achieving a mass loading of 2.0 mg cm⁻². The electrolyte was 1.0 M LiPF₆ in EC:DMC:EMC = 1:1:1 vol %, the counter electrode was lithium plates, and the separator was Celgard 2400 polypropylene. For the full-cells, the counter electrode was replaced by commercial graphite and the N/P areal capacity ratio was controlled to be 1.15-1.20. The LANDCT2001A test system was used to conduct galvanostatic charge– discharge tests of half- and full-cells. The galvanostatic intermittent titration technique (GITT) test was carried out with a 2 h relaxation time after charging/discharging for 20 min at 0.1C (1C = 200 mA g⁻¹). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) with different scan rates was conducted on the CHI604E electrochemical workstations. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was conducted over a frequency spectrum ranging from 100–0.01 kHz. To evaluate the cathodes after cycling, the electrode plates were removed and dried after being washed with dimethyl carbonate.

Theoretical Calculations. Density functional theory (DFT) was performed using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP).³⁴ Generalized gradient approximation (GGA) within the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE)³⁵ function was employed. The projector augmented wave (PAW)³⁶ method and plane wave basis sets were employed. The GGA + D3³⁷ approach was used to incorporate dispersion corrections. The plane wave cutoff energy was 500 eV. The structures were optimized by minimizing the forces on all of the atoms to <0.03 eV Å⁻¹ and the energy to <10⁻⁵ eV. The K point adopted the density of 4*4*2. To assess the doping energies of pristine and doped LiNiO₂, the 3 × 3 × 1 supercell with appropriate lattice parameters was utilized, and Al and Nb were substituted with nickel sites in the transition layers. The doping formation energy (ΔE) of Al or Nb was defined as

$$\Delta E = E_{\text{doped}} + \mu_{\text{Ni}} - E_{\text{pristine}} - \mu_{\text{A}} \tag{1}$$

where element A could be Al or Nb. E_{doped} and $E_{pristine}$ were the energies of doped and pristine LiNiO₂, respectively. μ_{Ni} and μ_{A} were the chemical potentials of substituted and replaced elements calculated in its most stable bulk form, respectively. The oxygen vacancy formation energy (ΔE) was defined as

$$\Delta E = E_{V_{\rm O}} - E_{\rm pristine} + \frac{1}{2}\mu_{\rm O_2} \tag{2}$$

where E_{V_0} and $E_{pristine}$ were the total energies of the oxygen vacancy and pristine structure, respectively. μ_{O_2} was the chemical potential of O₂. Furthermore, the climbing imagenudged elastic band (CI-NEB) method³⁸ was performed to obtain the Li-ion diffusion energy barrier.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Density functional theory (DFT) was used to evaluate the structural stability of LiNiO₂ doped with different atoms.^{39,40} As indicated in Figure S1, the first layer of the structure is defined as the surface, while the other layers away from the vacuum layer are defined as the bulk phase. The third layer is fixed with the bulk lattice. It clearly shows that Al was doped in the bulk and Nb was doped on the surface. As shown in Figure S2, the Al ions are apt to enter the bulk phase due to the high solubility in LiNiO₂, which exhibits a much lower formation energy of -6.10 eV. In contrast, the Nb ions in the surface layer of LiNiO₂ are structurally stable.⁴¹

As the structure and electrochemical performance are related to surface lattice oxygen, the oxygen vacancy formation energies (ΔEs) have been analyzed (Figure S3a,b). Here, oxygen vacancies are located at the junction vertex of three adjacent MO₆ octahedra. The calculated ΔE values are 1.29, 1.92, and 2.56 eV for LiNiO₂, Al-LiNiO₂, and Nb-LiNiO₂,

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Figure 1. (a) SEM image of NCM83-NA. (b) The corresponding EDS mapping images of NCM83-NA. (c) Cross-sectional SEM image of NCM83-NA. High-resolution TEM images of (d) NCM83 and (e) NCM83-NA.

respectively. The interaction between Al/Nb and O is stronger than Ni and O, which can effectively suppress the irreversible structural transition.³² Furthermore, the Li-ion diffusion energy barrier during the charging process was calculated (Figure S3c,d). Compared to NCM83, the Li⁺ migration energy barrier is reduced by 0.08 and 0.09 eV for Al-LiNiO₂ and Nb-LiNiO₂, respectively. A lower migration energy barrier improves the migration rate of Li⁺ and is propitious to the rate capabilities of the lithium-ion battery.⁴² Therefore, materials codoped with Al and Nb are expected to exhibit an excellent cycling stability and rate performance.

The Al/Nb-doped cathodes were synthesized by a calcination method. Al and Nb in the cathode materials were measured by ICP-OES (Table S1), which is in accord with the target proportion. Figure S4 shows the SEM images of NCM83 and doped materials. It shows that there are no substantial morphology differences before and after doping, both of which are spherical particles of about 5 μ m. As shown in Figure 1a, NCM83-NA maintains the sphere structure with nanoscale primary particles. The corresponding EDS mapping (Figure 1b) indicates that Al and Nb are uniformly doped in NCM83-NA, where Al was supposed to distribute in the bulk, while Nb was on the surface. The cross-sectional SEM image shown in Figure 1c suggests NCM83-NA with radially oriented primary particles, which provides a fast transport channel for lithium ions.^{43,44} In addition, the HRTEM images of NCM83 (Figure 1d) and NCM83-NA (Figure 1e) clearly show that the interplanar interval of the (003) plane increased from 0.479 to 0.482 nm, directly proving the successful introduction of heteroatoms into NCM83. The increased lattice spacing will promote the migration of Li ions.⁴⁵

Figure 2a is the structural diagram of NCM83-NA with Al and Nb doped on the surface and bulk. The stable configuration of Al and Nb doped at the Ni position did not alter the layered structure of LiNiO₂. Figure 2b–e are the XRD results of the materials. Obviously, both NCM83 and codoped NCM83-NA exhibit a α -NaFeO₂ structure. The intensity of

(003) and (104) peaks is high, and (006)/(102) and (018)/ (110) peaks clearly split, demonstrating that the doped material maintains a high degree of crystallinity.⁴⁶ Specifically, the (003) peak of NCM83-NA shifts to a smaller angle, indicating the enlargement of the interlayer spacing. As depicted in Figure 2e, the intensity ratio of the (003)/(104) peak increases as Al and Nb are introduced, indicating the reduction of cation mixing.⁴⁷ The corresponding XRD Rietveld refinement data given in Figures 2f and S6 and Table S2 show that the c lattice parameters are conspicuously enlarged and the Li/Ni disorder reduces significantly. In addition, due to the embedding of Al and Nb, the TM layer shrinks and the Li layer expands. After doping, the interlayer spacing of the TM layer decreased from 2.12A to 2.11A, while the interlayer spacing of Li layer increased from 2.58A to 2.68A.⁴⁸

The oxidation state of elemental materials was characterized by XPS (Figures 2g-j and S7 and S8). The peaks at 855.28 and 872.88 eV correspond to Ni $2p_{3/2}$ and Ni $2p_{1/2}$, respectively (Figure 2g). The Ni 2p_{3/2} peak can split to Ni³⁺ at 856.28 eV and Ni2+ at 854.98 eV. Compared to that of NCM83, the proportion of Ni²⁺ for NCM83-NA increases because of charge compensation. It is worth noting that Ni³⁺ is an ion with Jahn-Teller activity, and the increase in Ni³⁺ will lead to irreversible structural transformations in the material. Among all of the samples, the NCM83-NA material has the least Ni³⁺ content, indicating the best structural stability.⁴⁹ For Nb 3d (Figure 2h) and Al 2p (Figure 2i) XPS spectra, the main peaks at 208.98, 206.18, and 72.18 eV are identified as Nb 3d_{5/2}, Nb 3d_{3/2}, and Al 2p, revealing that Al and Nb exist as Al³⁺ and Nb⁵⁺ in the material, respectively. Figure 2j exhibits the spectra of O 1s of NCM83 and NCM83-NA. The peaks at 531.58 and 528.98 eV correspond to the reactive oxygen and lattice oxygen bonds on the surface, respectively.⁵⁰ The peak intensity of TM-O in NCM83-NA is significantly stronger than that in NCM83, indicating that Al/Nb can suppress the formation of oxygen vacancies. $^{51-53}$ In addition, the doping of Al and Nb ions decreases the amount of surface residual



Figure 2. (a) Structure diagram of NCM83-NA. (b) XRD patterns of NCM83 and NCM83-NA with the magnification region of (c) (006)/(102) and (d) (018)/(110) peaks. (e) (003) and (104) XRD peaks of NCM83 and NCM83-NA after normalizing the (104) peak. (f) Rietveld refinement results for NCM83-NA. XPS results of (g) Ni 2p, (h) Nb 3d, (i) Al 2p, and (j) O 1s for NCM83 and NCM83-NA.

lithium compounds. The peaks at 780.28 and 795.18 eV are associated with Co $2p_{3/2}$ and Co $2p_{1/2}$, respectively.⁵¹ The peaks at 642.18 and 654.68 eV are associated with Mn $2p_{3/2}$ and Mn $2p_{1/2}$, respectively.⁴⁹ There are no obvious changes in the Co 2p and Mn 2p spectra, indicating that Al and Nb doping has no effect on Co and Mn ions.

The electrochemical performance of all materials is evaluated by coin-type half- and full-cells. The initial charge–discharge curves at 0.1C within 2.7–4.3 V for all samples are shown in Figure 3a. NCM83-NA displays a discharge capacity of 195.1 mA h g⁻¹ and a higher initial Coulombic efficiency (ICE) of 96.21%. The ICEs are 91.87, 95.92, and 96.02% for NCM83, NCM83-Al, and NCM83-Nb, respectively. The increased ICE indicates that NCM83-NA has a more stable structure and a suppressed side reaction on the surface. As shown in Figure 3b, after 100 cycles at 1C, the capacity retention ratio of Al- or/and Nb-doped NCM83 has significantly improved. Specially, NCM83-NA exhibits the highest capacity retention rate of 95.10%. The Nyquist plots of electrochemical impedances at the fully charged state (4.3 V) are provided in Figure 3c. The solution resistance (R_u) for all samples was approximately 5 Ω. NCM83-NA shows the smallest surface-film impedance (R_{sf}) of 9.83 Ω and charge-transfer impedance (R_{ct}) of 19.52 Ω, illustrating that Al and Nb doping is beneficial to forming more stable cathode–electrolyte interface (CEI) films because of reduced parasitic reactions. The rate performance of all materials at 0.1–5C is shown in Figure 3d. The discharge capacities of doped materials have a slight decrease at 0.1C. However, NCM83-NA shows a higher specific capacity than that of NCM83 with the



Figure 3. (a) Initial charge–discharge curves. (b) Cycling stability. (c) Nyquist plots of electrochemical impedances at 4.3 V. (d) Rate performance at 0.1-5C. (e) Lithium-ion diffusion coefficient of charging curves according to GITT data. (f) CV curves at 0.1 mV s^{-1} . (g) Relationship between the peak current and the scanning rate. (h) Cycling stability of full-cells.

increase of current densities. Peculiarly, NCM83-NA displays a superior capacity of 145.0 mA h g⁻¹ at 5C, while NCM83 delivers a lower capacity of 133.5 mA h g^{-1} . The specific capacity of Al- or Nb-doped NCM83 at 5C is around 140 mA h g^{-1} . Besides, the discharge capacity of NCM83-NA can instantly recover to 197.2 mA h g⁻¹ once the current density reduces back to 0.1C. To further understand the better rate performance of NCM83-NA, GITT tests are conducted to measure the diffusion coefficient of lithium ions (Figures 3e and S10). NCM83-NA possesses the fastest Li⁺ diffusion kinetics, thereby leading to a superior rate capability. Meanwhile, the CV curves at 0.1-1.0 mV s⁻¹ and the linear relationship between the peak current (i_p) and the square root of the scan rate $(v^{1/2})$ for all materials are given (Figures 3f,g and S10). As shown in Figure 3f, all materials have good symmetry in their CV curves. NCM83-NA shows the largest slope of 6.20, indicating the significantly enhanced Li⁺ diffusion rate and reaction kinetics, which is consistent with the GITT results.^{62,63} It is because Al and Nb introduction enlarged the lattice parameters, which can facilitate the Li⁺

diffusion.^{64,65} To better assay the electrochemical performance of NCM83-NA, full-cells were tested. As shown in Figure 3h, the capacity retention ratio of NCM83-NA remains at 85.0% after 100 cycles at 1C, which is much higher than that of NCM83 (72.7%). Compared with the research published in recent years, NCM83-NA exhibits an excellent capacity retention after 100 cycles (Table 1).

Figures 4a and S11 compare the charge–discharge curves of all materials from first to 100th cycles. Obviously, NCM83-NA shows an excellent capacity retention ratio and voltage profile stability. The CV curves at 0.1 mV s⁻¹ of the second and 100th cycles are shown in Figure S12, which show that the curve evolution of NCM83-NA is nearly negligible, indicating a significantly enhanced structural stability.^{66,67} The Nyquist plots of electrochemical impedances after first and 100th cycles are provided in Figure 4b, and the corresponding $R_{uv} R_{sp}$ and R_{ct} values are displayed in Table S3. After 100 cycles, the changes in R_u were negligible. The R_{ct} for NCM83, NCM83-Al, NCM83-Nb, and NCM83-NA are 314.7, 103.1, 101.6, and 60.7 Ω, respectively, illustrating that NCM83-NA inhibits

Table 1. Half-Cell Performance of Ni-Rich Cathodes

reference	rate	cutoff voltage	number of cycles	capacity retention
ref 1 ¹ 54	0.5C	3.0-4.3 V	100	90.4%
ref 2 ² 41	1C	2.75-4.3 V	100	91.10%
ref 3 ³ 55	0.5C	2.7–4.3 V	100	91.9%
ref 4 ⁴ 56	1C	2.7–4.3 V	100	88.5%
ref 5 ⁵ 57	0.5C	3.0-4.3 V	100	86.3%
ref 6 ⁶ 58	0.5C	2.7–4.3 V	100	95.44%
ref 7 ⁷ 59	0.5C	3.0-4.3 V	100	91.40%
ref 8 60	0.33C	3.0–4.3 V	100	91.00%
ref 9 ⁹ 61	0.5C	2.8–4.3 V	100	89.77%
this work	1C	2.7–4.3 V	100	95.10%

interface side reactions during continuous cycling effectively. In addition, dQ/dV is conducted to clarify the structure evolution after cycling (Figures 4c and S13). During the charge process, both NCM83 and NCM83-NA take a series of phase transitions: from the hexagonal phase (H1) to the monoclinic phase (M) and two other hexagonal phases (H2 and H3). The

phase between H2 and H3 is closely related to the contraction or expansion of the Li–O layer, which may lead to intergranular cracking of cathode particles.⁶⁸ NCM83-NA shows a much better reversibility of the phase between H2 and H3, explaining its obviously improved cycling stability.

To investigate the dynamic crystal structure evolution during the delithiation/lithiation process, ex situ XRD for NCM83 and NCM83-NA is conducted. The variation of the (003), (101), (102), (104), and (110) peaks in both materials is shown in Figure 4d,e. When the voltage increased to 4.1 V, the (003) peak shifted to a lower 2θ accompanied by the delithiation process and phase transition from H1 to M and H2, illustrating the lattice expansion along with the *c*-axis. As the voltage increased to 4.3 V, the (003) peak quickly shifted to a higher 2θ because of the phase transition from H2 to H3, indicating the lattice contraction in the *c*-axis direction.^{31,50} During the lithiation process, the phase underwent a reverse transition. The shift angles of the H2–H3 phase transition are 0.32 and 0.2° for NCM83 and NCM83-NA, respectively, which means the doped Ni-rich cathode has a smaller volume



Figure 4. (a) Charge–discharge profiles of NCM83 and NCM83-NA with different cycles at 1C. (b) Nyquist plots of electrochemical impedances at the fully charged state (4.3 V) after different cycles. (c) Calculated dQ/dV curves of NCM83-NA by differentiating charge–discharge curves. Ex situ XRD contour plots of (003), (101), (102), (104), and (110) peaks with the corresponding charge–discharge curves for (d) NCM83 and (e) NCM83-NA.

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Figure 5. SEM images of (a) NCM83 and (b) NCM83-NA after 100 cycles. (c) XRD patterns of NCM83 and NCM83-NA after 100 cycles. XPS spectra of (d) C 1s, (e) F 1s, and (f) O 1s for NCM83 and NCM83-NA after 100 cycles.

change and a better structural stability. In addition, the (101), (102), (104), and (110) peaks gradually shift to a higher 2θ with increasing voltage. The angles of transformation also decrease, illustrating the improvement of the structural stability during cycling after Al and Nb ions are introduced.

To explore the deterioration mechanism of the cathodes, the postmortem analyses including SEM, XRD, and XPS were conducted. The SEM images of NCM83 and NCM83-NA after 100 cycles are shown in Figures 5a,b and S14 to visually detect the particle integrity. For NCM83, a large number of particle fractures are observed. In contrast, particles of NCM83-NA maintain well, indicating Al and Nb ion doping enhances the connection between primary particles and the cycling stability. It is noted that particle fracture increases the contact area between the active material and the electrolyte, thus increasing side reactions on the surface. In the XRD spectra (Figure 5c), the $I_{(003)}/I_{(104)}$ ratios are 0.79 and 1.24 for NCM83 and NCM83-NA, respectively, suggesting the more severe irreversible phase transitions and the structure destruction for NCM83. In addition, the (018) and (110) peaks of NCM83 almost blend together, indicating the collapse of its layered structures. The obvious splitting of (018)/(110)peaks of NCM83-NA was still observed after 100 cycles, implying that the pinning effect of Al and Nb ions reduces the mechanical strain. The electrolyte decomposition production of cycled NCM83 and NCM83-NA is examined by XPS (Figure 5d-f). The C 1s spectrum can be divided into five peaks: C-C at 284.46 eV, C-H at 284.80 eV, C-O at 286.17 eV, C=O at 288.10 eV, and OCO₂ at 289.39 eV. Among them, C-C and C-H peaks are related to the binder and Super-P, while C-O, C=O, and OCO₂ peaks are associated with the lithium alkyl carbonates (ROCO₂Li, ROLi, and Li_2CO_3) that are attributed to the dissolution of carbonate electrolyte solvents. Compared to NCM83, the area proportion of C-O, C=O, and OCO₂ peaks for NCM83-NA reduces from 43.37 to 34.59%, which indicates the presence of more organic components from the electrolyte

decomposition on the surface of NCM83. In the F 1s spectra, the peaks located at 684.85, 686.49, and 687.08 eV correspond to LiF, Li_xPO_yF_z, and C–F. The Li_xPO_yF_z content reduced from 3.55 to 0.59%, implying that the side reactions of the electrolyte are greatly reduced. Moreover, the increase of inorganic component LiF from 50.76 to 59.17% endows the cathode particle surface with a more robust CEI.⁶⁹ In addition, the increased proportion of the M–O peak at 529.58 eV in the O 1s spectra from 4.41 to 9.46% illustrates a suppressed release of lattice oxygen on the surface (Figure 5f). Thus, these data verify that Al and Nb codoping can improve the structural stability by reducing the electrolyte decomposition and lattice oxygen release during cycling.

CONCLUSIONS

In this work, Al- and Nb-doped LiNi_{0.83}Co_{0.12}Mn_{0.05}O₂ has been successfully synthesized by a solid-state reaction method. Both experimental and theoretical data demonstrate improved structural stability and lithium-ion diffusion kinetics. Specifically, NCM83-NA exhibits a better cyclic stability and rate performance than single Al- or Nb-doped materials. It shows a discharge capacity of 196.6 mA h g^{-1} and maintains a capacity retention rate of 95.10% at 1C after 100 cycles in the voltage range of 2.7-4.3 V. At a higher current density of 5C, it delivers a discharge capacity of 145.0 mA h g⁻¹. The excellent performance can be attributed to the following factors: (1) the introduction of Nb ions induces the formation of radially oriented primary particles; (2) Al and Nb doping enlarges the interlayer spacing; (3) Al and Nb ions reduce Li^+/Ni^{2+} cation mixing and Ni³⁺ with Jahn-Teller activity; (4) the stronger Al-O and Nb-O bonds lower oxygen vacancies; and (5) the irreversible H2-H3 phase transition is suppressed. These factors lead to a more stable structure and faster Li⁺ diffusion of NCM83-NA. Overall, this work provides a promising solution to developing Ni-rich cathode materials with high cycling stability and rate capability.

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.iecr.3c04271.

Model and results of DFT calculations, additional results of ICP-OES, SEM image, XRD and the corresponding Rietveld refinement, and XPS and electrochemical testing (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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