

A Molybdenum Carbide Mixcrystal Structure with Synergistic Catalytic Activity for Accelerating Sulfur Redox Reactions in Lithium–Sulfur Batteries

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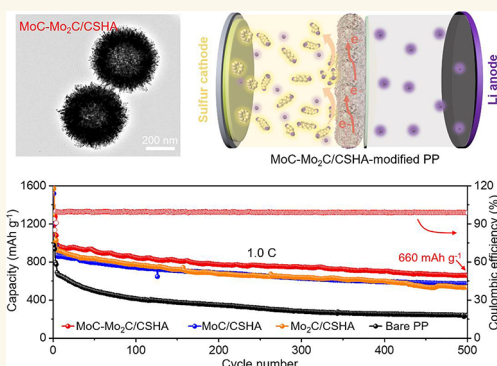
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ABSTRACT: A single-component electrocatalyst with weak and unidirectional catalytic activity cannot realize high-performance Li–S batteries with rapid sulfur redox kinetics and restricted shuttling. In this work, a heterostructured mixcrystal electrocatalyst of MoC–Mo₂C nanodot-embedded carbon sheet-assembled hollow architecture (MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA) was constructed to modulate the reaction behaviors of sulfur species. *In situ* X-ray diffraction and *in situ* electrochemical impedance spectroscopy unveiled an enhanced catalytic activity of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA for the bidirectional conversions of sulfur species, and the ensuing theoretical study confirmed the synergistic catalytic effect of the MoC–Mo₂C structure originating from the integration of two different components. Further postcycling characterization suggested the prevention of anodic side reactions and the suppression of the polysulfide shuttling phenomenon. Consequently, the assembled Li–S batteries demonstrated a high rate performance of 706 mAh g^{−1} at 3.0 C and good long-life cyclic stability lasting for 500 cycles at 1.0 and 2.0 C. Moreover, both coin cells under high sulfur loadings and pouch cells exhibited steady cyclic performance, with a maximum areal capacity of 5.09 mAh cm^{−2}. This study showcases the extraordinary advantages of heterostructures serving as electrocatalysts and providing an efficient route to advance Li–S batteries into practical utilizations.

KEYWORDS: Li–S batteries, sulfur species, shuttle effect, electrocatalyst, heterostructure



INTRODUCTION

To compensate for the weakness including low capacity and limited energy density of conventional lithium-ion batteries,^{1–3} diverse novel energy storage systems have been explored in recent years.^{4,5} Of them, lithium–sulfur (Li–S) batteries with the huge superiorities in these two aspects stand out, leveraging the multielectron transfer mechanism of elemental sulfur.^{6,7} Moreover, sulfur has abundant stores in nature and is distributed without geographical limitations,^{8,9} which reduces the total costs of Li–S batteries. However, the consistent issues facing sulfur cathodes, such as slow sulfur species transformations and severe polysulfide shuttle behaviors, deteriorate the battery performance and impede further commercial utilizations.^{10–12}

According to the working principles of sulfur cathodes, all the emerging issues can be primarily ascribed to the large energy barriers of intermediate polysulfide reactions and the soluble property of long-chain sulfur species.^{13,14} After a period of rapid development, it is validated that electrocatalysts within the cathodic side can significantly lower the energy barriers and mitigate the severe aggregation of soluble polysulfides, thereby simultaneously improving sulfur redox kinetics and restricting possible shuttling.^{15,16} Toward this end, many kinds of electrocatalysts have been developed, like metal substan-

ces,^{17–19} metal compounds,^{20–22} and metal–organic frameworks.^{23–25} Unfortunately, these electrocatalysts usually exhibit catalytic activity toward unidirectional sulfur reaction but inferior effectiveness for the reverse process because of their intrinsically high selectivity.^{26–28} Recently, heterostructures combining different electroactive components emerge as an alternative promising electrocatalyst category owing to the modulated electronic structures, and they commonly comply with three main working principles, including adsorption-catalysis, superimposed catalysis, and bilateral catalysis.²⁹ Regarding the ideal heterostructured electrocatalysts for Li–S batteries, they should meet the requirements of remarkable bilateral catalytic effects, fast electron transfer, and stable physiochemical properties.³⁰ Nevertheless, heterostructures usually encounter enormous difficulties in exposing abundant electroactive sites participating in sulfur redox reactions,^{31,32}

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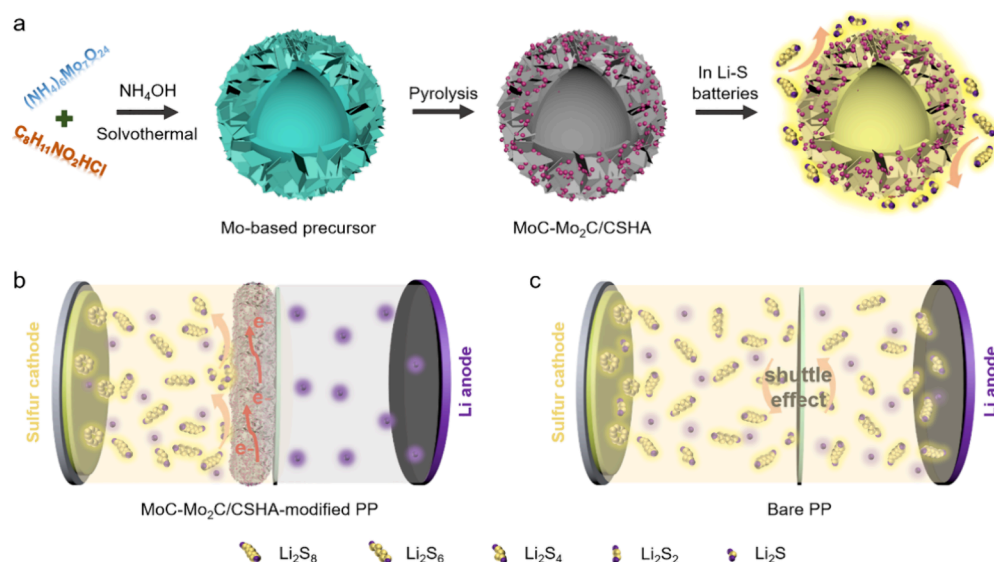


Figure 1. Synthesis and working mechanism of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA. (a) Schematic illustration of the detailed synthesis procedures of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA and the functions in Li-S batteries. Schematic illustrations of the operation of Li-S batteries using (b) MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA-modified PP and (c) bare PP.

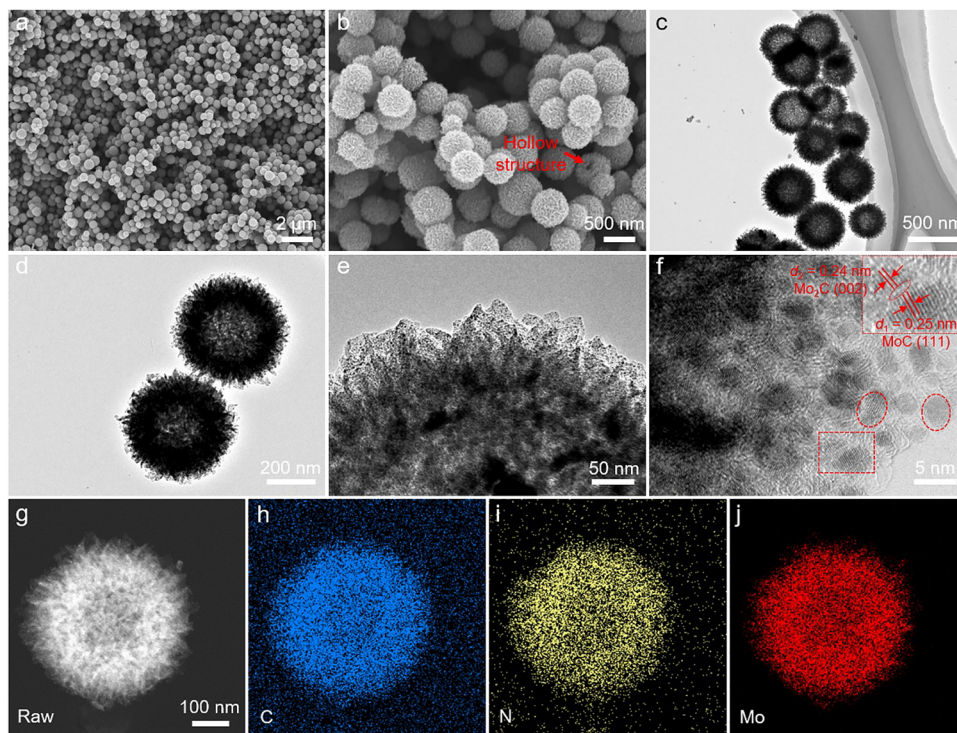


Figure 2. Morphology and structure of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA. (a, b) SEM, (c–e) TEM, (f) HRTEM, and (g–j) elemental maps of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA.

which inevitably leads to unsatisfactory electrochemical performance.

In this protocol, we report a heterostructure of MoC-Mo₂C nanodots with synergistic catalytic activity embedded in a carbon sheet-assembled hollow architecture (MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA), to modulate the reaction behaviors of sulfur species. The MoC-Mo₂C nanocrystals with abundant electroactive sites chemically catalyzed the bilateral conversions of sulfur species; meanwhile, CSHA ensured electron transport and provided additional physical blocking for polysulfide leakage. *In situ* X-ray diffraction (XRD) characterization and *in situ* electro-

chemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) testing unveiled a significantly enhanced catalytic activity of heterostructured mixcrystal MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA, according to the generated larger amounts of solid-state sulfur species during the discharge/charge process. Moreover, a theoretical study confirmed the superiority of the MoC-Mo₂C structure in reducing the energy barriers of sulfur redox reactions, originating from the integration of two different components. Additionally, lithium (Li) anode measurement after testing suggested the prevention of side reactions and suppression of polysulfide shuttling. By coating MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA on a

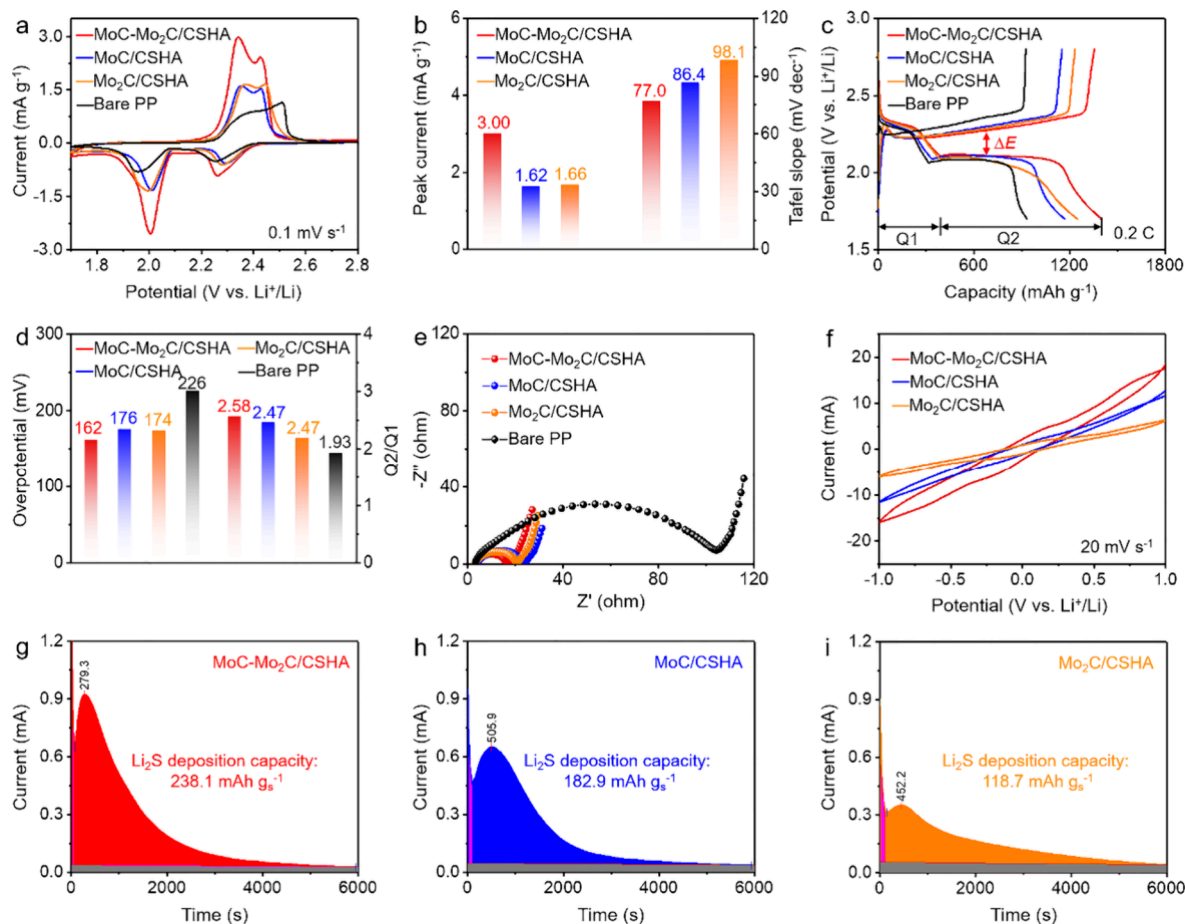


Figure 3. Catalytic performance of electrocatalysts in Li–S batteries. (a) CV curves and (b) the corresponding parameters, (c) galvanostatic discharge/charge profiles and (d) the corresponding parameters, and (e) Nyquist plots of various Li–S batteries. (f) Symmetric coin cells and Li₂S deposition tests using (g) MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA, (h) MoC/CSHA, and (i) Mo₂C/CSHA.

separator, Li–S testing revealed an improved electrochemical performance with a high capacity of 706 mAh g⁻¹ at 3.0 C and good long-term cyclic stability under both 1.0 and 2.0 C. Moreover, under elevated sulfur loadings, the coin cells and pouch cell displayed steady cyclic performance, accompanied with a maximum areal capacity of 5.09 mAh cm⁻².

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA is synthesized through a solution-based method followed by a high-temperature pyrolysis process (Figure 1a). Initially, under stirring, ammonium molybdate and dopamine hydrochloride were mixed thoroughly in an aqueous solution. Subsequently, ethanol was added into the above solution to enable the formation of a superstructure comprising a dopamine suspension adsorbing molybdate ions.³³ After introducing ammonium hydroxide slowly, dopamine suspension polymerized and generated an interior hollow structure (Figure S1) with molybdate ions adsorbed on the surface. Under high temperatures, the molybdate ions reacted with a carbon source to form ultrasmall Mo_xC crystals. Notably, owing to the different amounts of molybdate ions near carbon sources and different reaction rates, both MoC and Mo₂C were simultaneously gained. Finally, the above intermediate converted into MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA after the pyrolysis process, as validated by the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns in Figure S2. Impressively, by reducing the amount of dopamine hydrochloride, Mo₂C/

CSHA was gained because of the insufficient carbon source participating in reaction (Figure S2), while with a lower temperature of 750 °C, the precursor transferred into MoC/CSHA (Figure S2), owing to the inadequate reaction temperature for generating Mo₂C. When utilized in Li–S batteries, the MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA coating layer chemically adsorbs various generated sulfur species and then efficiently accelerates their fast transformations, thereby preventing soluble polysulfides diffusion toward the Li metal anode, as illustrated in Figure 1b. These crucial functions would significantly boost sulfur redox kinetics and inhibit possible polysulfide shuttling. As a stark contrast, Li–S batteries using a bare polypropylene (PP) separator suffer from apparent sulfur species diffusion toward Li metal and further serious shuttle effects (Figure 1c), which exacerbates the sulfur utilization efficiency and entire electrochemical results.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images (Figure 2a,b) reveal the spherical morphology of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA with a homogeneous size of ~450 nm in diameter. A coarse surface decorated with nanosheets is clearly seen from the MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA sphere, and the broken one indicates an interior hollow structure (Figure 2b). Further transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images (Figure 2c,d) confirm the hollow characteristic of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA, and the shell thickness is ~50 nm. Moreover, many nanosized dots are surface-loaded on the nanosheets of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA (Figure 2e), and the average size is ~4.5 nm (Figure 2f). The high-resolution TEM

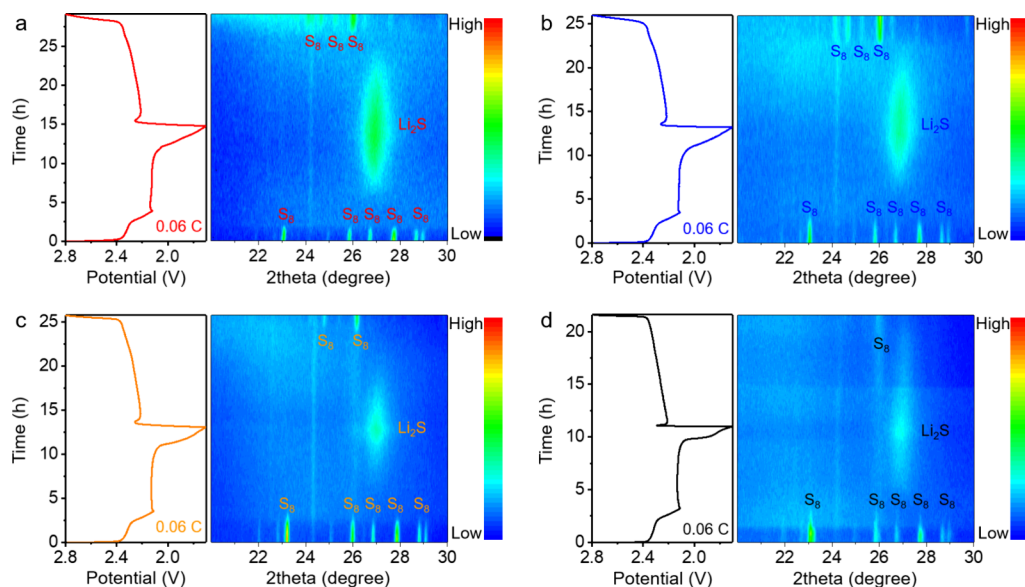


Figure 4. *In situ* XRD characterization of Li–S batteries using different electrocatalysts. *In situ* XRD contour maps and galvanostatic discharge/charge profiles of Li–S batteries using (a) MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA-modified PP, (b) MoC/CSHA-modified PP, (c) Mo₂C/CSHA-modified PP, and (d) bare PP, at 0.06C.

(HRTEM) image (inset of Figure 2f) reveals the heterostructure of nanodots and suggests two clear lattice spacings of 0.25 and 0.24 nm, ascribed to the (111) and (002) planes of MoC and Mo₂C, respectively. The high-angle annular dark field-scanning TEM (HAADF-STEM) image (Figure 2g) validates the homogeneous distribution of nanodots, and elemental maps (Figure 2h–k) manifest the dispersion of C, N, and Mo in MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA. As control samples, both MoC/CSHA and Mo₂C/CSHA exhibit the morphology analogous to that of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA, disclosing the hollow structure with abundant nanodots (Figures S3 and S4).

The survey X-ray photoelectron (XPS) spectrum of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA unveils C, N, and Mo elements (Figure S5a). The high-resolution XPS spectrum at the C 1s region indicates the existence of the Mo–C bond (Figure S5b), and the high-resolution XPS spectrum at the Mo 3d region shows five XPS peaks including 228.7 eV for Mo²⁺ 3d_{5/2}, 229.5 eV for Mo³⁺ 3d_{5/2}, 232.4 eV for Mo³⁺ 3d_{3/2}, 233.2 eV for Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{3/2}, and 235.9 eV for Mo⁶⁺ 3d_{3/2} (Figure S5c).³⁴ For MoC/CSHA and Mo₂C/CSHA, they exhibit similar XPS results (Figures S6 and S7). The Raman results imply the moderate graphitic degree of carbon matrices in these samples (Figure S8), and the detail intensity ratios of the D to G band are 0.895, 0.872, and 0.864 for MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA, MoC/CSHA, and Mo₂C/CSHA, respectively.³⁵ Further nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms of these samples (Figure S9) suggest the typical micromesoporous features, and the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller surface areas for MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA, MoC/CSHA, and Mo₂C/CSHA are 145.6, 381.5, and 200.4 m² g^{−1}, respectively.

The catalytic effects of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA were methodically examined by coating it on a PP separator. For comparison, MoC/CSHA-modified, Mo₂C/CSHA-modified, and bare PP were also employed. The cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves of these Li–S batteries at 0.1 mV s^{−1} show two reduction peaks and one broad oxidation peak containing two shoulder peaks (Figure 3a), corresponding to the multistep sulfur reduction and oxidation processes, respectively.^{18,36} Moreover, the Li–S battery with MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA exhibits higher peak current densities compared to others (Figure 3b),

suggesting the higher specific capacity originating from the largest sulfur utilization efficiency. Additionally, the oxidation of sulfur species is a crucial process for sulfur redox reactions,³⁷ which can be reflected by the corresponding Tafel slopes. As displayed in Figure 3b, the Tafel slope of the oxidation peak for Li–S batteries with MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA is *ca.* 77.0 mV dec^{−1}, smaller than those of other Li–S batteries (86.4 and 98.1 dec^{−1} for MoC/CSHA and Mo₂C/CSHA, respectively), demonstrating the superior catalytic activity of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA.

The galvanostatic discharge/charge profiles of Li–S batteries exhibit the typical features of sulfur chemistry (Figure 3c), including two discharge plateaus and one large charge plateau,³⁸ which agrees to the redox peaks in CV curves. The Li–S battery with MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA delivers the largest specific capacity of 1401 mAh g^{−1} with the lowest potential gap (ΔE) of 162 mV (Figure 3d), suggesting that sulfur redox reactions on MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA easily happened.³⁹ Moreover, the corresponding Nyquist plots disclose the lowest charge transfer resistance for Li–S batteries using MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA (Figure 3e), indicating fast electron transfer in sulfur reactions.

The galvanostatic intermittent titration technique (GITT) is another indicator for evaluating the catalytic ability of electrocatalyst.⁴⁰ The GITT profiles of the Li–S battery with MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA at 0.2 C reveal the lowest overpotentials for Li₂S nucleation (45.0 mV) and activation (95.2 mV) upon discharging and charging, respectively (Figure S10), representing the preferable catalytic effects of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA for sulfur redox reactions.⁴¹ Symmetrical and asymmetrical cells using MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA, MoC/CSHA, and Mo₂C/CSHA were then assembled and tested. The CV curves of these symmetrical cells at 20 mV s^{−1} suggest the highest current density for MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA (Figure 3f), which is the signal of the best catalytic activity.⁴² Moreover, Li₂S nucleation behavior can be gained from the asymmetrical cells (Figure 3g–i). Obviously, the current peak appears after only 279.3 s for MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA, much earlier than those of others (505.9 and 452.2 s for MoC/CSHA and Mo₂C/CSHA, respectively), implying the highest electrical conductivity of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA. The calculated Li₂S nucleation capacity

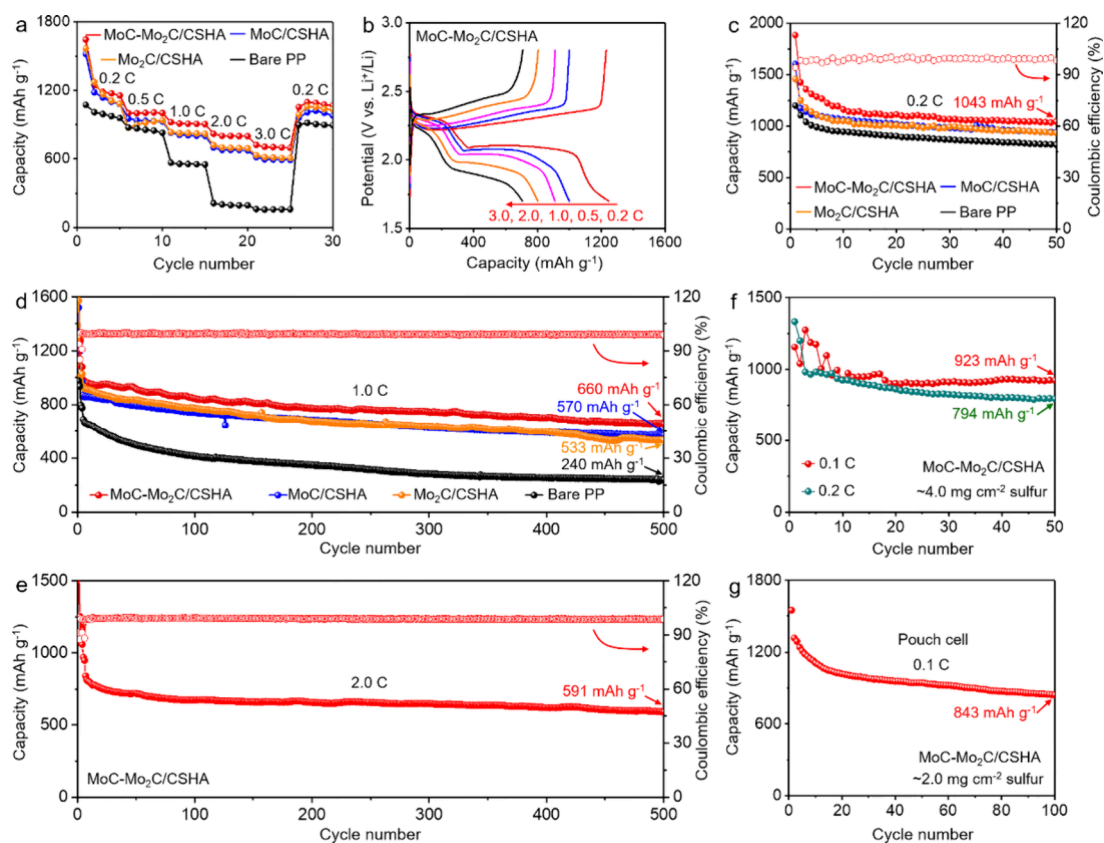


Figure 5. Electrochemical performance of various Li–S batteries. (a) Rate performance and (b) corresponding galvanostatic discharge/charge profiles. Cyclic performance of various Li–S batteries at (c) 0.2 and (d) 1.0 C. (e) High-rate cyclic performance of Li–S batteries using MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA at 2.0 C. (f) Cyclic performance of Li–S batteries under high sulfur loadings at 0.1 and 0.2 C. (g) Cyclic performance of the Li–S pouch cell using MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA.

for MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA is 238.1 mA h g^{−1}, higher than others (182.9 and 118.7 mA h g^{−1} for MoC/CSHA and Mo₂C/CSHA, respectively), verifying the significantly improved catalytic capability.⁴³

In situ measurements were conducted to figure out the detailed working principle of MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA. Figure 4a–d presents the *in situ* XRD counter maps of Li–S batteries with different electrocatalysts at 0.06 C. These counter maps reveal the sequential conversions from elemental sulfur (α -S₈) to long-chain soluble polysulfides (e.g., Li₂S₈, Li₂S₆, and Li₂S₄) and further to terminal insoluble polysulfides (Li₂S) during discharge, while in the reverse process, Li₂S transfers to soluble polysulfides and further to sulfur (β -S₈). The evolution process of sulfur species is consistent with the sulfur chemistry.^{44,45} Specifically, the *in situ* XRD counter map of the Li–S battery with MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA exhibits the strongest Li₂S peaks with the largest area (Figure 4a), indicating that the maximum Li₂S amount was generated during the discharge/charge process.¹⁹ Figure S11a–c displays the corresponding *in situ* EIS results of these Li–S batteries. The *in situ* distribution of relaxation time (DRT) maps of these Li–S batteries initially show strong peak intensities ascribed to the nonconductive nature of α -S₈. The intensity then diminished quickly owing to the formation of long-chain polysulfides and further increased again originating from the generation of insulating solid-state Li₂S/Li₂S₂.^{42,46} Upon charging, the intensity maintained and then decreased sharply due to the conversion from Li₂S/Li₂S₂ to long-chain polysulfide and further recovered at the final stage because of the formation of sulfur (β -S₈). Remarkably, the *in situ* DRT

map for the Li–S battery with MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA (Figure S11a) shows the strongest intensity related to Li₂S/Li₂S₂, which is attributed to the highest conversion efficiency from long-chain polysulfides.⁴⁷ Therefore, both *in situ* measurements revealed the generation of the maximum Li₂S/Li₂S₂ amounts using MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA, which is ascribed to the strongest catalytic activity for sulfur species conversions.

The electrochemical performance of these Li–S batteries was systematically investigated under a sulfur loading of \sim 1.1 mg cm^{−2}. The Li–S battery with MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA exhibits the best rate performance (Figure 5a), with the highest specific capacity of 706 mA h g^{−1} at 3.0 C. For sharp contrasts, much lower specific capacities of 597, 615, and 156 mA h g^{−1} at 3.0 C are achieved for Li–S batteries with MoC/CSHA, Mo₂C/CSHA, and bare PP, respectively. Moreover, the Li–S battery with MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA still maintains the typical feature of the galvanostatic discharge/charge profile at 3.0 C (Figure 5b), indicating the high reversibility of sulfur chemistry.

The Li–S battery with MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA delivers improved cyclic stability at 0.2 C (Figure 5c). The initial capacity of 1884 mA h g^{−1} surpasses the theoretical value of sulfur (1675 mA h g^{−1}), which is attributed to the capacity contribution of the MoC–Mo₂C/CSHA coating layer (Figure S12). Then, the capacity decreases slowly until the 50th cycle, and finally, a high specific capacity of 1043 mA h g^{−1} is retained, suggesting a high sulfur utilization ratio of 62.3%. While for other Li–S batteries with MoC/CSHA, Mo₂C/CSHA, and bare PP, specific capacities of 938, 934, and 819 mA h g^{−1} are kept after 50 cycles. This result can be further

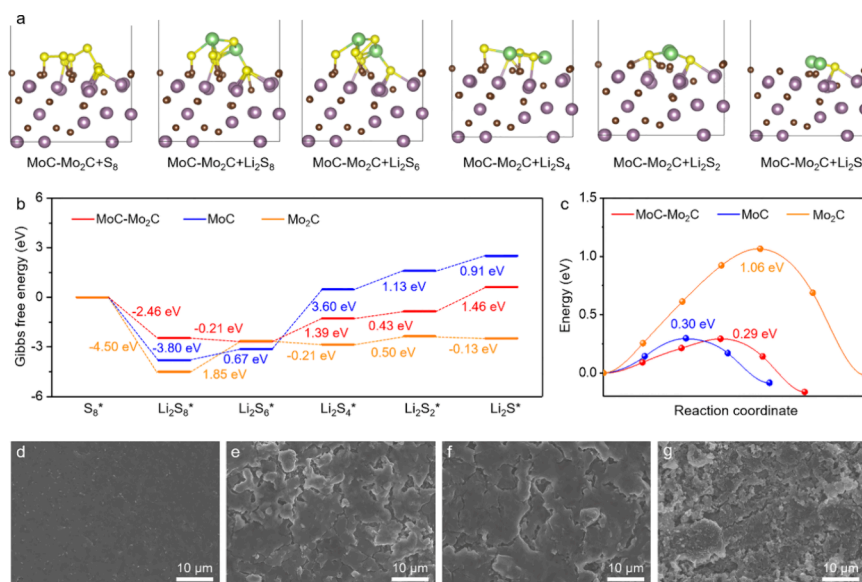


Figure 6. Theoretical studies and Li anode characterization after testing. (a) Optimized models of MoC-Mo₂C with sulfur species. (b) Gibbs free energy plots of sulfur reductions on MoC-Mo₂C, MoC, and Mo₂C substrates. (c) Li₂S decomposition energy barriers on MoC-Mo₂C, MoC, and Mo₂C substrates. SEM images of Li metals coupling to (d) MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA-modified PP, (e) MoC/CSHA-modified PP, (f) Mo₂C/CSHA-modified PP, and (g) bare PP.

confirmed by the negligible self-discharge behavior of the Li-S battery using MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA (Figure S13). Increasing the current rate to 1.0 C, the Li-S battery with MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA also exhibits the best cyclic performance (Figure 5d). The capacity at the first cycle is 984 mAh g⁻¹ and retains 660 mAh g⁻¹ at the 500th cycle, corresponding to a high capacity retention of 67.1%. In contrast, the Li-S batteries with MoC/CSHA, Mo₂C/CSHA, and bare PP present lower capacities of 570, 533, and 240 mAh g⁻¹ after 500 cycles, respectively. Moreover, the corresponding EIS spectra of these Li-S batteries after testing reveal a comparable charge transfer resistance to those of pristine Li-S batteries (Figure S14), further verifying the high electronic conductivity of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA. Even at 2.0 C, a remarkable capacity of 591 mAh g⁻¹ is gained after 500 cycles, accompanying with a capacity decay of 0.078% per cycle (Figure 5e). Additionally, the operation of Li-S batteries with MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA upon high-rate charging and low-rate discharging reveals a stable cycle (Figure S15), implying excellent rate adaptability. Therefore, these as-achieved electrochemical performance manifested the superiority of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA in Li-S batteries (Table S1).^{48–52}

Increasing the sulfur loading can improve the total areal capacity of Li-S batteries but decrease the sulfur utilization rate because of the insufficient electrolyte penetration. Nevertheless, adopting MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA in Li-S batteries can achieve a high sulfur utilization rate even under high sulfur loading (Figure 5f). In detail, Li-S batteries show the highest initial capacity of 1273 mAh g⁻¹ (5.09 mAh cm⁻²) under ~4.0 mg cm⁻² sulfur at 0.1 C, corresponding to a sulfur utilization of 76%, and the capacity is retained at 923 mAh g⁻¹ (3.69 mAh cm⁻²) after 50 cycles. At 0.2 C, Li-S batteries also show a steady cyclic performance with a capacity of 794 mAh g⁻¹ (3.18 mAh cm⁻²) at the 50th cycle. Moreover, the corresponding Li-S pouch cell (Figure 5g) exhibits a stable cycle, with a high capacity reaching 843 mAh g⁻¹ even after 100 cycles, demonstrating promising practical applications. Notably, the slight difference between the electrochemical

performance of coin cells and pouch cells can be mainly attributed to various influence factors including the electrolyte/sulfur ratio, electrolyte amount, Li metal amount, assembly technique, manufacturing process, and inner resistance.

Theoretical studies were conducted to provide solid evidence for the exceptional catalytic activity of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA. The (111) and (100) lattice planes were selected for MoC and Mo₂C structures, respectively. The optimized adsorption models of MoC-Mo₂C, MoC, and Mo₂C structures with diverse sulfur species (Figure 6a and Figure S16) reveal their strong adsorption capabilities.⁵³ The Gibbs free energy (ΔG) values of the sequential sulfur reduction processes on diverse substrates are shown in Figure 6b. It is unveiled that the MoC-Mo₂C heterostructure complies with a rate-determining step of Li₂S₂ to Li₂S, while MoC and Mo₂C follow different rate-determining steps of Li₂S₆ to Li₂S₄ and Li₂S₈ to Li₂S₆, respectively, implying the different step restrictions. Moreover, the ΔG value for the rate-determining step of MoC-Mo₂C is 1.46 eV, smaller than the values of 3.60 and 1.85 eV for MoC and Mo₂C, respectively, manifesting the easier occurrence of sulfur reductions on the MoC-Mo₂C surface.^{54,55} Figure 6c presents the energy barrier plots of Li₂S decomposition on different substrates. Compared with the energy barriers of 0.30 and 1.06 eV on MoC and Mo₂C, respectively, the energy barrier on the MoC-Mo₂C surface decreases to 0.29 eV, confirming the enhanced catalytic activity for Li₂S oxidation.^{56,57} Collectively, the MoC-Mo₂C heterostructure can efficiently accelerate the bidirectional conversions of sulfur species.

The Li metals in these Li-S batteries after testing at 1.0 C were further examined to check the anode corrosion by the penetrated polysulfides from the cathodic side. As presented in Figure 6d, the Li metal coupling with MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA-modified PP exhibits the flat and smooth surface, suggesting the suppression of anodic corrosion from polysulfides. More importantly, MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA-modified PP (Figure S17a) also shows even surface characteristics with almost neglectable

pores generated during electrochemical processes. As sharp contrasts, other Li metals and modified PP separators exhibit uneven and coarse surface characteristics (Figure 6e,f), with abundant pores in the modified PP surface (Figure S17b,c). Even worse, the bare PP separator displays the existence of large bulk particles on its surface, which is attributed to the deposited sulfur species (Figure 6g and Figure S17d). These results suggest that MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA can catalyze the fast redox reactions of sulfur species, thereby restricting their diffusion toward the anodic side and further protecting Li metal far from corrosion.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, a heterostructured mixed-crystal electrocatalyst of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA with synergistic catalytic activity was designed to regulate the conversions of sulfur species. *In situ* XRD and EIS measurements revealed the significantly improved catalytic capability of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA compared to its counterparts, which was further confirmed by the lower energy barriers for sequential sulfur reduction and Li₂S decomposition in theoretical simulations. Moreover, post-cycling characterizations validated the suppression of polysulfide shuttling by MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA. The resultant Li-S batteries demonstrated high rate capability and good long-life cyclic performance under high rates. Impressively, stable cyclic performance with high areal capacities was realized by a Li-S pouch cell. This investigation accentuates the advantages of heterostructured electrocatalysts for accelerating sulfur redox kinetics and promoting Li-S practical utilizations.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Synthesis of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA

Typically, dopamine hydrochloride and ammonium molybdate tetrahydrate were dissolved in an aqueous solution. Subsequently, ethanol and ammonium hydroxide (25 wt %) were sequentially added slowly into the above solution. After being stirred, the precipitate was collected by centrifugation, washed, and dried under vacuum. To gain the final product of MoC-Mo₂C/CSHA, the above powder was annealed at high temperatures. More details are provided in the Supporting Information.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsnano.6c02582>.

Experimental and theoretical details; supporting figures, performance comparison table of Li-S batteries, and supporting references (PDF)

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Author Contributions

#Lianbo Ma and Yaoming Jiao contributed equally. All authors participated in experiment design, data analysis, and manuscript preparation and approved the final version.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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