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Oxidative decomposition mechanisms of lithium carbonate on carbon substrates in lithium battery chemistries

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Lithium carbonate plays a critical role in both lithium-carbon dioxide and lithium-air batteries as the main discharge product and a product of side reactions, respectively. Understanding the decomposition of lithium carbonate during electrochemical oxidation (during battery charging) is key for improving both chemistries, but the decomposition mechanisms and the role of the carbon substrate remain under debate. Here, we use an in-situ differential electrochemical mass spectrometry-gas chromatography coupling system to quantify the gas evolution during the electrochemical oxidation of lithium carbonate on carbon substrates. Our results show that lithium carbonate decomposes to carbon dioxide and singlet oxygen mainly via an electrochemical process instead of via a chemical process in an electrolyte of lithium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide in tetraglyme. Singlet oxygen attacks the carbon substrate and electrolyte to form both carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide-approximately 20% of the net gas evolved originates from these side reactions. Additionally, we show that cobalt(II,III) oxide, a typical oxygen evolution catalyst, stabilizes the precursor of singlet oxygen, thus inhibiting the formation of singlet oxygen and consequent side reactions.

Lithium carbonate (Li₂CO₃) is involved in many electrochemical systems, such as lithium-oxygen (Li-O₂) batteries¹⁻¹⁵, lithium-carbon dioxide (Li-CO₂) batteries ¹⁶⁻³⁰, and lithium-ion (Li-ion) batteries ³¹⁻⁴³. Li₂CO₃ has extremely low ionic and electronic conductivity due to its wide bandgap^{44,45}. In Li-O₂ batteries, Li₂CO₃ mainly results from the side reactions of the reduced oxygen species attacking the electrolytes¹⁻³. It not only passivates the electrode surface and polarizes the cell but also consumes the electrolyte, leading to electrolyte depletion and premature cell death. Therefore, Peng et al. referred to Li₂CO₃ as the "Achilles' Heel" because it dominates the electrochemical performance of cells³. The accumulation of Li₂CO₃ during cycling has to be well-addressed and resolved in the pursuit of high-performance Li-O₂ batteries. In Li-CO₂ batteries, Li₂CO₃ is the main desirable discharge product, but the Li₂CO₃ decomposition during charging has sluggish kinetics and requires a large overpotential. Many efforts have been devoted to designing highly efficient catalysts to reduce the large overpotential¹⁸⁻²⁹. In both Li-O₂ batteries and Li-CO₂ batteries, Li₂CO₃ in the composite electrode needs to be oxidatively decomposed during the charging process, otherwise, it passivates the electrode surface and kills the cells. However, the mechanism of Li₂CO₃ decomposition is still unclear and this would seriously hinder the research progress. For instance, the role of carbon in the charging process is still under debate. In Li-ion batteries, Li₂CO₃ is one of the main components of the solid electrolyte interphase of the anode and exists as a surface contaminant present on lithium transition metal oxides used in the cathode thus it influences the cell performance³². For instance, the lithium transition metal oxides cathode materials are usually covered with a layer of Li₂CO₃ due to the residual lithium precursors reacting with CO₂ from the ambient atmosphere^{33–35}. Very recently, McCloskey and coworkers have studied the Li₂CO₃ decomposition mechanism on Li-ion cathodes. Using isotopic labeling, they found that when Li₂CO₃ is present at the cathode surface, organic fragments containing diatomic

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oxygen are formed on the cathode surface during the charging process above 4.2 V versus Li⁺/Li and the diatomic oxvgen within these fragments mainly originates from the lithium transition metal oxides lattice and only a minor fraction originates from the Li₂CO₃ itself³³⁻³⁵. In summary, the decomposition of Li₂CO₃ is so important that it determines the electrochemical performance in many systems. However, its mechanisms are still controversial and not yet well understood, even in the Li-CO₂ cells. Li₂CO₃ decomposition during the charging process is generally divided into two types, chemical routes, and electrochemical routes^{41,42}. Recently, Freiberg et al claimed that Li₂CO₃ decomposition in lithium hexafluorophosphate (LiPF₆)-ethylene carbonate (EC)ethylmethyl carbonate (EMC) electrolyte follows a chemical route reacting with H⁺, which is induced by electrolyte oxidation at >4.6 V⁴¹. In contrast, Mahne et al. claimed that Li₂CO₃ decomposition is an electrochemical process^{33,46}. Here, our results show that the electrolyte salt affects the route and the chemical reaction is likely caused by LiPF₆, which will be discussed later.

So far, several electrochemical mechanisms have been proposed and four possible reaction pathways are summarized below:

$$Li_2CO_3 - 2e^- \rightarrow 2Li^+ + CO_2 + 1/2O_2 \quad E_{rev} = 3.8 \text{ V}$$
 (1)

$$\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3 - 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{Li}^+ + \text{CO}_2 + 1/2^1\text{O}_2 \quad \text{E}_{\text{rev}} = 4.1\text{V} \eqno(1b)$$

$$2Li_2CO_3 + C - 4e^- \rightarrow 4Li^+ + 3CO_2$$
 $E_{rev} = 2.8 V$ (2)

$$2Li_2CO_3 - 3e^- \rightarrow 4Li^+ + 2CO_2 + O_2^-$$
 (3)

In Eq. (1a and b), both CO_2 and O_2 formed and it takes $2e^-$ per CO_2 molecule 16,17 . The only difference is that O_2 forms as a triplet O_2 in Eq. (1a) and as a singlet O_2 (1O_2) in Eq. (1b), respectively. 1O_2 has been detected at a charging voltage above 3.8 V in the oxidation of Li_2CO_3 , by using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and nuclear magnetic resonance spectrometry (1H NMR) analysis 46 . In Eq. (2), carbon and Li_2CO_3 were oxidized together to form CO_2 via a $4e^-$ process. That is a common mechanism proposed for the charging process of Li_2CO_3 cells. In fact, Eq. (2) is unlikely to be an elemental reaction, which will be discussed in the text later. In Eq. (3), oxygen is released in the form of the superoxide radical. Qiao et al. 27 used in situ surfaceenhanced Raman spectroscopy to observe the dimethyl sulfone during the charging process and they explained that dimethyl sulfone is attributed to the nucleophilic attack on DMSO solvent from reduced oxygen species (superoxide radicals etc.).

Despite the above progress, researchers mainly focus on Li_2CO_3 and little attention has been paid to the carbon in the charging process. Carbon is always added to the composite electrodes as the conductive additives, however, it is always neglected and its role in Li_2CO_3 decomposition has not been considered yet. Overall, the mechanism of Li_2CO_3 decomposition is still under debate and the role of carbon is mysterious.

Here, we labeled the $\rm Li_2CO_3$ and carbon substrate with $\rm ^{13}C$ -isotope and qualitatively analyzed the gas products from the decomposition of $\rm Li_2CO_3$, carbon, and electrolyte, respectively. We quantified the gas evolution, particularly CO, during the charging process using an in situ differential electrochemical mass spectroscopy-gas chromatography (DEMS-GC) coupling system. We found that $\rm Li_2CO_3$ decomposition is mainly an electrochemical process rather than a chemical process induced by electrolyte oxidation. $\rm Li_2CO_3$ decomposes to $\rm CO_2$ only, but no CO nor $\rm O_2$. The oxygen from $\rm Li_2CO_3$ is released as highly reactive $\rm ^{1}O_2$, which further attacks the electrolyte and carbon substrate in the composite electrodes to form $\rm CO_2$ and $\rm CO$.

Results and discussion

To study the oxidative decomposition process of Li_2CO_3 , a cell with a Li_2CO_3 -carbon composite electrode was constructed and charged. Li_2CO_3 was electro-oxidized and the gas evolution was quantified. Because both CO and N_2 have the same mass-to-charge ratio of 28 (m/z=28), the mass spectrometer typically used in a DEMS system lacks sufficient mass resolution to distinguish the contribution from CO (m/z=28.0104) and N_2 (m/z=28.0140). Although GC could separate the CO and N_2 , it cannot distinguish and quantify the $^{13}\text{CO}_2/^{13}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{12}\text{CO}/^{13}\text{CO}$. Therefore, an in situ DEMS-GC coupling system (Supplementary Fig. 1) was used to quantify the evolution of ^{12}CO , $^{12}\text{CO}_2$, $^{13}\text{CO}_2$, and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$. The details of the experiments are described in Methods. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 2, after calibration, the CO evolution signals from DEMS and GC experiments are consistent, which provides a reliable amount of CO in the following experiments.

Super P carbon (Timcal) was ball milled with Li₂CO₃ with a mass ratio of 1:1. A Li₂CO₃-Super P (1:1) composite electrode was prepared to construct a cell with 1 M lithium bis(trifluoromethane-sulphonyl)imide (LiTFSI)-tetraglyme electrolyte as stated in Methods and the cells were charged by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV). As shown in Fig. 1a, the anodic current for oxidation reaction and gas evolution started at 3.9 V (vs. Li⁺/Li, all potentials in the text below are versus Li⁺/Li), which is consistent with the thermodynamic decomposition potential of Li₂CO₃ (3.82 V according to Eq. 1). A control experiment without Li₂CO₃ was carried out (Supplementary Fig. 3). The onset potential of electrolyte decomposition is at 4.3 V. The background current of carbon/ electrolyte oxidation at 3.8 V is 10-fold smaller than Li₂CO₃ decomposition (Fig. 1a) and there is no CO₂ or O₂ evolution. In Fig. 1a, a large amount of CO₂ and CO were identified as the gas products, which confirms the decomposition of Li₂CO₃, consistent with the literature^{16,17}. According to the mass loading of the electrode (see Methods), ~60% of the preloaded Li₂CO₃ decomposed eventually. The ratio e-/CO₂ for Fig. 1a is 2.1, close to 2e⁻ per CO₂ (Supplementary Table 1), suggesting it is an electrochemical process. The deviation is from the electrolyte electro-oxidation without producing CO₂ (Supplementary Fig. 3), which is consistent with the literature⁴¹. The molar flux of both CO_2 (denoted as \dot{n}_{CO2}) and CO (denoted as \dot{n}_{CO}) follow the trend of the current during charging (equivalent to $\dot{n}_{electron}\!)$ but they could derive from different processes because of the multisource of the CO₂ and CO evolution. Therefore, we mainly focus on the ratio CO₂/CO because it helps us to determine the mechanisms (Eqs. 1–3). The ratio CO₂/CO exhibits the comparison between Li₂CO₃ decomposition and other reactions because Li₂CO₃ decomposition does not form CO, as discussed later. The ratio CO₂/CO in Fig. 1a is 7.06 (Supplementary Table 2), which does not fit any reaction pathways proposed above. Due to the lack of O2 evolution, Eq. (1a) could be excluded. The oxygen appears as singlet O₂ (¹O₂) instead of low-energy triplet O₂ (³O₂), which will be discussed in detail later.

To further study the influence of electrode composition on the gas products, the same experiment was conducted using a Li₂CO₃-Super P (4:1) composite electrode. As shown in Fig. 1b, similar gas species without O₂ were identified. Because the Li₂CO₃-Super P (4:1) composite electrode contains more insulating Li₂CO₃ solid than that in Li₂CO₃-Super P (1:1) electrode, leading to poor solid-solid contact, the charging current and consequent gas evolution in Li₂CO₃-Super P (4:1) is one order of magnitude lower than those in Li₂CO₃-Super P (1:1) electrode. If the CO₂ and CO came from a certain intermediate or a simple one-step reaction, the same ratio CO₂/CO would be observed. However, the ratio CO₂/CO varies with the electrode composition, from 7.06 to 9.82 (Supplementary Table 2). This result suggests that the Li₂CO₃ decomposition is a complicated multistep process, instead of a simple one-step reaction as proposed previously^{16,17}. Because Li₂CO₃, the carbon substrate, and the electrolyte all might contribute to CO₂ and CO evolution, it brings up the confusion about the source

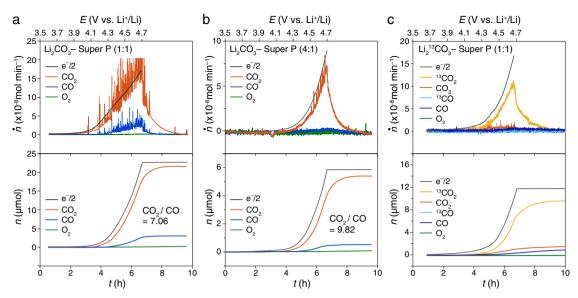


Fig. 1 | Gas evolution of oxidative decomposition of Li₂CO₃ and Li₂¹³CO₃. The gas evolution during the charging process of the cells using a Li₂CO₃-Super P (1:1), b Li₂CO₃-Super P (4:1), c Li₂¹³CO₃-Super P (1:1) composite electrodes in 1 M LiTFSI-

tetraglyme. Ar flow rate: $0.5 \, \text{mL min}^{-1}$. Sweep rate: $0.05 \, \text{mV s}^{-1}$. The molar flux (top panel) of gas evolution was denoted as \dot{n} and the charging current is translated to $\dot{n}_{\text{electron}}$ and the cumulative mole (bottom panel) of the gas was denoted as n.

of CO_2 and CO, which is the key to addressing the reaction mechanisms.

Gas products of Li₂¹³CO₃ decomposition

The isotope-labeled Li₂¹³CO₃ was used to identify the decomposition mechanisms of Li₂CO₃. The Raman spectrum and XRD pattern of the Li₂¹³CO₃ confirm its composition (Supplementary Fig. 4). The ¹²C-impurity in Li₂¹³CO₃ is determined by using a mass spectrometer (MS). The details are described in Methods–Isotope impurities. The Li₂¹³CO₃ contains 15% isotope impurity of Li₂¹²CO₃ (Supplementary Fig. 5), which would be subtracted from the MS results in the following experiments.

Figure 1c exhibits the gas evolution during the charging process of the cell with a $\text{Li}_2^{13}\text{CO}_3$ -Super P composite electrode. $\text{Li}_2^{13}\text{CO}_3$ was electro-oxidized and a large amount of $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ is identified, which is definitely from the $\text{Li}_2^{13}\text{CO}_3$ decomposition because both Super P carbon and electrolyte are unlabeled. No O_2 evolution is identified again. ^{13}CO was not observed as well, indicating that the $\text{Li}_2^{13}\text{CO}_3$ decomposed to merely $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ without $^{13}\text{CO}_3$. The decomposition of $\text{Li}_2^{13}\text{CO}_3$ (releasing $^{13}\text{CO}_2$) contributes 79% of the overall CO_2 and CO evolution and it is the dominant process during charging. Meanwhile, some CO_2 and CO from the inevitable decomposition of electrolyte and carbon substrate were identified during charging. The electrolyte/carbon decomposition contributes to approximately one-fifth of total gas evolution (Supplementary Table 3), which is a high ratio of side reactions.

In the Li-CO₂ chemistry with lithium carbonate isotopically labeled with 13 C on an unlabeled carbon substrate (which we write here as 12 C for simplicity), Li₂ 13 CO₃ is posited to decompose together with the carbon substrate in the following reaction:

$$2Li_2^{13}CO_3 + {}^{12}C - 4e^- \rightarrow 4Li^+ + 2^{13}CO_2 + {}^{12}CO_2$$
 (4)

If it was the case, the ratio between $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ is expected to be about 2/1, but we find a ratio of 6.1/1 (Supplementary Table 4), much higher than 2/1 because ^{12}C does not transform to sufficient $^{12}\text{CO}_2$. This result suggests that the decomposition of the Li₂CO₃-C electrode is a complicated reaction instead of a simple reaction with known stoichiometric numbers like Eq. (4). Therefore, the contribution of the C

substrate during the charging process is the key to demystifying the reaction mechanisms.

Decomposition of ¹³C-carbon substrate

To determine the contribution of carbon in this reaction, the same experiments were carried out again but by replacing the Super P carbon substrate with ¹³C-carbon and leaving the lithium carbonate and electrolyte unlabeled. The ¹³C-carbon contains 1.5% of ¹²C impurity as shown in Supplementary Fig. 6. As shown in Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 7, both ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO evolved during the charging process and the rest of CO₂ and CO evolution came from the decomposition of Li₂CO₃ and electrolyte. As the only source of ¹³C-isotope, ¹³C is oxidized to release both ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO during the charging process. The formation of ¹³CO exhibits that the ¹³C is oxidized incompletely like an incomplete combustion reaction. The ¹³C substrate could be oxidized either electrochemically by potential or chemically by oxidative agents that are formed in the previous steps. If ¹³C is oxidized electrochemically, the ratio ¹³CO₂/¹³CO would depend on the potential (Fig. 2). If ¹³C is oxidized chemically by oxidative agents like ¹O₂ and superoxide species, which are generated during the charging process, the electrode composition affects the ratio between ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO.

Impact of the potential on the decomposition of ${}^{13}\text{C-carbon}$ substrate

Due to the high equilibrium potential of Li₂CO₃ decomposition (3.82 V), the cell potential could affect the decomposition reactions and thus affect the formation of ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO at different potentials during the charging process. Therefore, a cell with Li₂CO₃- Super P composite electrode was charged with LSV from 4.3 to 4.7 V and the gas evolution was measured. The cell was rested for 4 h after reaching 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, and 4.7 V, respectively, to obtain a low background of gas evolution. The cumulative molar of gas evolution at various potential stages is shown in Fig. 2. The amount of CO₂ from Li₂CO₃ decomposition increased when the potential increased. The higher the potential was, the more CO₂ evolved, in accord with the accelerating decomposition of Li₂CO₃. Meanwhile, ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO evolved simultaneously and their amount increased together with the CO₂ evolution when the potential increased. Supplementary Fig. 7 shows the gas evolution at various stages of the charging process from 4.4 to 4.7 V. The amount of ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO evolution increased with the rising

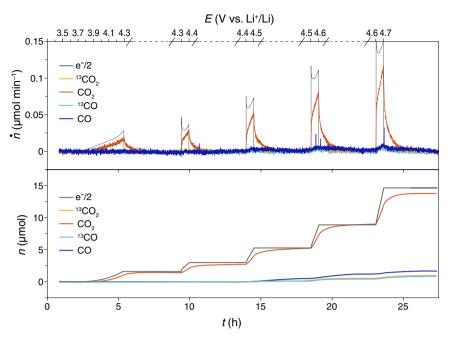


Fig. 2 | Potential-dependent CO_2 and CO evolution during the charging process. The gas evolution during the charging process of the cells using Li_2CO_3 . ^{13}C (1:1) composite electrode in 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme. Sweep rate: $0.05 \, \text{mV s}^{-1}$. The cell rested for 4 h after reaching 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, and 4.7 V, respectively. Ar flow rate:

 $0.5\,\mathrm{mL\,min^{-1}}$. The molar flux (top panel) of gas evolution was denoted as \dot{n} and the charging current is translated to $\dot{n}_{\mathrm{electron}}$ and the cumulative mole (bottom panel) of the gas was denoted as n.

potential up to 4.7 V. This increase is probably because more singlet oxygen forms at a higher potential, which leads to more severe carbon and electrolyte degradation. Although both $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ and ^{13}CO increased, the ratio $^{13}\text{CO}_2/^{13}\text{CO}$ remains almost identical at these stages. This result suggests that the $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ and ^{13}CO likely originated from the same chemical reaction.

To check whether ¹³C is oxidized to any solid byproducts, the cell was dissembled at the end of charging and the composite electrode was collected to further quantify the remained solid by-product of inorganic/organic carbon as described in Methods-Quantification of the solid byproducts. Neither Li₂¹³CO₃ (Supplementary Fig. 8a) nor organic ¹³C-carbonates (Supplementary Fig. 8b) were detected in the charged electrode, indicating that the 13C did not oxidize to any solid by-products, i.e., inorganic and organic carbonates. Only unlabeled inorganic Li₂CO₃ and organic carbonate were identified, which are from undecomposed Li₂CO₃ and electrolyte decomposition. The incomplete decomposition of Li₂CO₃ may be due to the poor solidsolid contact between the carbon substrate and Li₂CO₃ during the charging process. It is unlikely to decompose all Li₂CO₃ even up to 4.7 V, which is consistent with the literature⁴¹. Therefore, as only ¹³CO and ¹³CO₂ and no ¹³C-containing solid products are detected when using ¹³C as the carbon substrate, the carbon substrate is only oxidized to gaseous carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide during charge in the presence of lithium carbonate and the 1M LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolyte.

Previous results showed that the functional groups at the carbon surface dominated the decomposition of the carbon substrate⁴⁷. Therefore, the Raman and XPS spectra of ¹³C and Super P are recorded to show their surface condition (Supplementary Fig. 9). D-band and G-band of ¹³C were observed at 1289 and 1507 cm⁻¹, respectively, in the Raman spectrum (Supplementary Fig. 9a). Both D-band and G-band drift in the negative direction due to the isotope effect. The intensity of the D-band and G-band (I_D/I_C) typically represents the disorderliness and amounts of defects in the carbon structure. Here, ¹³C and Super P carbon show the same I_D/I_C of 1.20, which indicates the same degree of disorderliness and a similar amount of defects from the surface of ¹³C

and Super P. Similar XPS spectra are shown in Supplementary Fig. 9b, confirming the similar surface groups of these two carbon substrates. Therefore, ³C and Super P have similar surface functional groups and they are likely to exhibit similar behavior in this carbon decomposition on charge.

Impact of the ratio of Li₂CO₃ and carbon on the gas evolution

Although the ¹³C carbon substrate oxidized to ¹³CO and ¹³CO₂, its decomposition pathway is still ambiguous. It might be a pathway similar to the incomplete combustion reaction. Alternatively, ¹³CO and ¹³CO₂ might be derived from a reaction intermediate with known structures like oxalate (C₂O₄²⁻). To clarify the pathway, we studied the gas products of four Li₂CO₃-13C composite electrodes with various mass ratios of Li₂CO₃/¹³C from 2:1 to 1:4 (Fig. 3). Overall, the carbon decomposition contributes to about 10% of the total gas evolution and the exact contribution depends on the composition of the electrodes (Supplementary Table 3). When the composite electrode contains less Li₂CO₃, ratio ¹³CO₂/¹³CO decreases from 1.25 to 0.51 (Fig. 3h), indicating the extent of oxidation of ¹³C is restricted by the amount of Li₂CO₃ in the composite electrodes. Otherwise, the ¹³C would be completely oxidized to ¹³CO₂ instead of the mixture of ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO. This varying ratio ¹³CO₂/¹³CO confirms that the overall reaction is a multistep reaction, rather than forming a complex intermediate like C₂O₄²⁻ which should give a certain ratio ¹³CO₂/¹³CO independent of the ratio of Li₂CO₃/¹³C. The ¹³C is highly likely to be oxidized by the oxidative intermediates from Li₂CO₃ decomposition. Therefore, as ratio ¹³CO₂/ ¹³CO varied with varying composition of the Li₂CO₃-¹³C composite electrode, we argue that the amount of Li₂CO₃ present in the electrode, and thus the amount of oxidative intermediates from Li₂CO₃ decomposition, influences the decomposition route of the carbon substrate.

Oxidation of ¹³C-carbon by ¹O₂ and superoxide

Both $^{1}O_{2}$ and superoxide are reactive intermediates formed during the discharge and charging process in Li-air batteries, which could result in the decomposition of the carbon substrate^{48–52}. $^{1}O_{2}$ could attack the electrolytes and the electrodes as a strong oxidative species. Here,

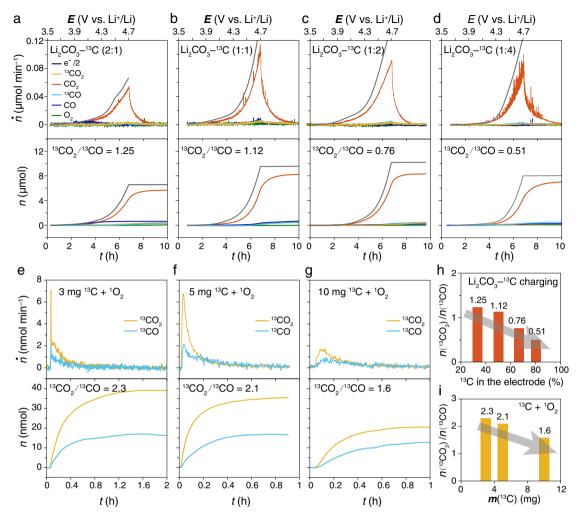


Fig. 3 | **Incomplete oxidation of** ¹³**C-carbon by singlet O₂ to form** ¹³**CO and** ¹³**CO 2. a – d** The gas evolution during the charging process of the cells using the Li₂CO₃.¹³C composite electrodes with various mass ratios of Li₂CO₃/¹³C, **a 2:1, b 1:1, c 1:2, d 1:4** in 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme. **e – g** ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO evolution of the ex situ chemical reaction between singlet O₂ and ¹³C-carbon in tetraglyme solution. 22 mg KO₂ powder was

mixed with ${\bf e}$ 3 mg, ${\bf f}$ 5 mg, ${\bf g}$ 10 mg of ¹³C-carbon, respectively, and then 1 mL of LiTFSI-tetraglyme(4 M) was added to react with KO₂ to form singlet O₂. The comparison of ratio ¹³CO₂/¹³CO in (${\bf h}$) ex situ chemical reaction for (${\bf e}$ – ${\bf g}$) and ${\bf i}$ charging process for (${\bf a}$ – ${\bf d}$).

9,10-dimethylanthracene (DMA), a molecular trap for 1O_2 , is used to identify the 1O_2 during electrochemical oxidation for the Li₂CO₃-C composite electrodes (see Methods–Identification of 1O_2). When 1O_2 forms, it rapidly reacts with DMA to form DMAO₂, which could be identified in the 1H NMR spectrum. Here, at the end of the charging process, the electrolyte with DMA in the cell was extracted and its 1H NMR spectrum (Supplementary Fig. 10) shows that DMAO₂ has formed, which confirms the formation of 1O_2 during the charging process. Once 1O_2 forms, 1O_2 attacks carbon and releases ^{13}CO and $^{13}CO_2$.

Here, to study the contribution of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ and KO_{2} to carbon decomposition, ${}^{1}O_{2}$ and KO_{2} were respectively used to react with ${}^{13}C$ as ex situ chemical experiments. ${}^{1}O_{2}$ is produced from the disproportionation of superoxide species 47 (The reaction between KO_{2} and Li^{+} in this work). More details are described in Methods—Chemical experiments between reactive oxygen species and carbon. The gas evolutions of ${}^{13}CO_{2}$, ${}^{13}CO$, ${}^{12}CO_{2}$, and O_{2} in the reaction between ${}^{1}O_{2}$ and ${}^{13}C$ are shown in Fig. 3e-g and Supplementary Fig. 11. Figure 3e-g show both ${}^{13}CO$ and ${}^{13}CO_{2}$ evolution, which confirms the incomplete oxidation of ${}^{13}C$ -carbon by ${}^{1}O_{2}$. The formation efficiency of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ by disproportionation in solution is low, therefore, most O_{2} is released as ${}^{3}O_{2}$ (Supplementary Fig. 11). Because ${}^{1}O_{2}$ is formed in the electrolyte solution rather than at the surface of ${}^{13}C$, fresh ${}^{1}O_{2}$ is more likely to

attack the electrolyte than the 13 C, forming a large amount of CO₂. In addition, because a large amount of carbon makes the suspension viscous, the total amount of 13 CO and 13 CO₂ slightly decreased with the increase of 13 C. When the amount of 13 C increased, more 13 CO formed and the ratio 13 CO₂/ 13 CO decreased (Fig. 3i and Supplementary Table 5). Both the in situ electrochemical charging experiments (Fig. 3h) and ex situ chemical experiments (Fig. 3i) show the same decreasing trend of ratio 13 CO₂/ 13 CO with the increase of the amount of 13 C relative to 1 O₂ or Li₂CO₃.

On the other hand, to further exclude the contribution from superoxide species, the same chemical experiments were carried out but replaced $^1\mathrm{O}_2$ with $\mathrm{O}_2^-{}_{(sol)}$. KO_2 was dissolved in tetraglyme and crown ether was added to maximize the concentration of the $\mathrm{O}_2^-{}_{(sol)}$ in the solution. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 12, only $^{13}\mathrm{CO}$ but no $^{13}\mathrm{CO}_2$ was identified, which suggests that $\mathrm{O}_2^-{}_{(sol)}$ is incapable to oxidize $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ to $^{13}\mathrm{CO}_2$. In summary, the detected $^{13}\mathrm{CO}$ and $^{13}\mathrm{CO}_2$ come from the sidereaction of $^{1}\mathrm{O}_2$ attacking the $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ substrate (Eq. 6). Herein, we simulate the chemical reaction between $^{1}\mathrm{O}_2$ and $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ without applying potential, however, the potential applied in the charging process could make the real side-reaction more complicated. More $^{1}\mathrm{O}_2$ might be produced at a higher potential. It is noted that oxygenated byproducts from chemical reactions with $^{1}\mathrm{O}_2$ could first be produced and then electro-oxidatively decomposed 48,49 .

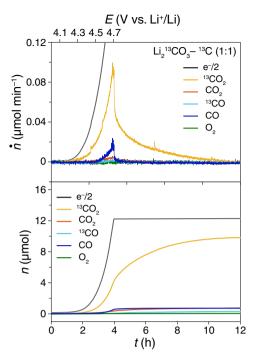


Fig. 4 | **The gas evolution of the electrolyte decomposition.** The gas evolution during the charging process of the cells using $\text{Li}_2^{13}\text{CO}_3^{13}\text{C-carbon}$ (1:1) composite electrode in 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme. Ar flow rate: 0.5 mL min⁻¹. Sweep rate: 0.05 mV s⁻¹. The molar flux (top panel) of gas evolution was denoted as \dot{n} and the charging current is translated to $\dot{n}_{\text{electron}}$ and the cumulative mole (bottom panel) of the gas was denoted as n. The unlabeled CO_2 and CO are contributed by electrolyte decomposition.

The CO and CO₂ evolution of electrolyte decomposition

The electrolyte decomposition during the oxidation of Li₂CO₃ on charge is inevitable and should not be ignored. A cell with Li₂¹³CO₃- 13 C composite electrode was charged to quantify the contribution from electrolyte degradation (Fig. 4). Because the entire composite electrode is labeled with 13 C isotope, the 12 CO₂ must come from the decomposition of the tetraglyme electrolyte. Figure 4 shows that 12 CO₂ and 12 CO from the electrolyte decomposition contribute -12% to the total gas evolution (Supplementary Table 6). The ratio between carbon dioxide species (12 CO₂ + 13 CO₂) and carbon monoxide species (12 CO + 13 CO) is 7.76, which is in accord with the ratio CO₂/CO of 7.06 in the Li₂CO₃- Super P (1:1) composite electrode, as stated in Supplementary Table 2.

As discussed above, the decomposition of Li₂CO₃ and carbon substrate contributes to 79% and -10%, respectively, of the total gas evolution. The side-reactions of carbon depend on the electrode composition because this charging process highly depends on the solid-solid contact between Li₂CO₃ and carbon substrate. The exact ratios of decomposition of individual components were not completely identical in each experiment because the nature of Li₂CO₃ decomposition is based on the solid-solid contact. At some contacting points, the charging process will stop due to the large overpotential caused by the restricted solid-solid contact. The sum of gas evolution from Li₂CO₃, carbon, and electrolyte is -100%, which confirms the reliability of individual measurements.

Although an important consideration, full understanding of electrolyte decomposition is not our focus in this work. Therefore, to ensure that it does not affect the major gas evolution from Li₂CO₃ and C, we quantified the gas by-products and solid by-products from the electrolyte decomposition without further analyzing the liquid by-products dissolved in the solvent. The solid by-products, like Li₂CO₃ and organic carbon residuals in the composite electrode at the end of

the charge, were quantified respectively. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 13, approximately one-third of $\text{Li}_2^{13}\text{CO}_3$ is unreacted and remained in the electrode and a trace amount (<0.1 μ mol) of organic carbonate were identified. This result indicates that there is no exchange of $^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C}$ between the electrolyte and $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3/\text{C}$.

Electrochemical vs. chemical pathways of Li₂CO₃ decomposition

Here our results show that Li₂CO₃ decomposition in the ether-based electrolyte is mainly an electrochemical process, which is in good agreement with Kaufman et al.33, but Freiberg et al claimed that Li₂CO₃ decomposition was a chemical process in LiPF₆ carbonate-based electrolyte and it was induced by water⁴¹. They argued that the electrolyte was oxidized and decomposed on high potential and it formed some proton-derivatives which chemically react with Li₂CO₃ to evolve CO₂. To study the reasons of these contradicting results, we conducted a series of comparative experiments. Firstly, to avoid the direct participation of water in Li₂CO₃ decomposition, we carried out a chemical reaction between the commercial Li₂CO₃ and 1M LiTFSI tetraglyme electrolyte with 1000 ppm and 5000 ppm H₂O, respectively, and the gas evolution was recorded. The result in Supplementary Fig. 14 indicates that no CO2 and O2 were detected even if there were lots of protons (from water) in the electrolyte. Then, to check the impact of potential, a cell with blank carbon (Super P or 13C) electrode without Li₂CO₃ but with 1000 ppm of H₂O in the electrolyte and the gas evolution was recorded, Supplementary Fig. 15. No O2 and CO2 evolved during the charging process below 4.7 V. Interestingly, in the presence of 1000 ppm H₂O, the onset potentials of electrolyte decomposition drifted to a lower potential of 3.8 V, compared with 4.1 V without H₂O. This result implies that H₂O encourages the electro-oxidation of the electrolyte but there is still no gas evolution below 4.5 V.

Learning from Freiberg's work, we decomposed Li_2CO_3 without direct electric contact to confirm the chemical mechanism⁴¹. Briefly, an extra Celgrad membrane was placed between Li_2CO_3 powder and the blank carbon composite electrode to separate them. On one hand, the Li_2CO_3 cannot be electro-oxidized due to the lack of direct electronic contact with the carbon electrode. On the other hand, the porous Celgard membrane allows the electrolyte decomposition byproducts that form at the carbon composite electrode to diffuse across the Celgard and react with Li_2CO_3 .

For comparison, in the LiPF₆-ethylene carbonate (EC)/ethyl methyl carbonate (DMC) electrolyte, the same setup was used but the gas evolution was analyzed at the end of the charging process due to the volatility of the EMC. Because the Li₂CO₃ is separated from the carbon electrode, it cannot be electro-oxidized. However, a large amount of CO₂ evolution was identified (Fig. 5a) above 4.3 V, suggesting the chemical decomposition of Li₂CO₃ by the electrolyte decomposition byproducts at high potential. This result is consistent with Freiberg's work⁴¹. The ratio e⁻/CO₂ is 2.20, in good agreement with the literature⁴¹ but it does not mean that Li₂CO₃ is electro-oxidized via a 2-e process. Instead, the electrolyte decomposition is likely to produce active H⁺ at a ratio e⁻/H+ of 1 and the H⁺ reacts with Li₂CO₃ to release CO₂ at a ratio H+/CO₂ of 2⁴¹. Therefore, here the ratio e⁻/CO₂ is just used for comparison between these four cells. Here, the chemical pathway does not take place until a high potential over 4.3 V when the electrolyte was electro-oxidized first. For comparison, the CO2 evolution in the charging process starts from ~3.9 V (Figs. 1-3), which is too low to electro-oxidize the electrolyte. Therefore, the Li₂CO₃ decomposition at low potential <3.9 V is dominated by the electrochemical pathway, instead of by a chemical pathway induced by electrolyte degradation by-products.

On the contrary, the same experiment but with LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolyte shows little CO_2 evolution (Fig. 5b), which makes a sharp comparison to the LiPF $_6$ -EC/EMC electrolyte. In LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolyte. CO_2 evolved from 4.3 V, indicating the decomposition of electrolytes at high potential could induce the chemical

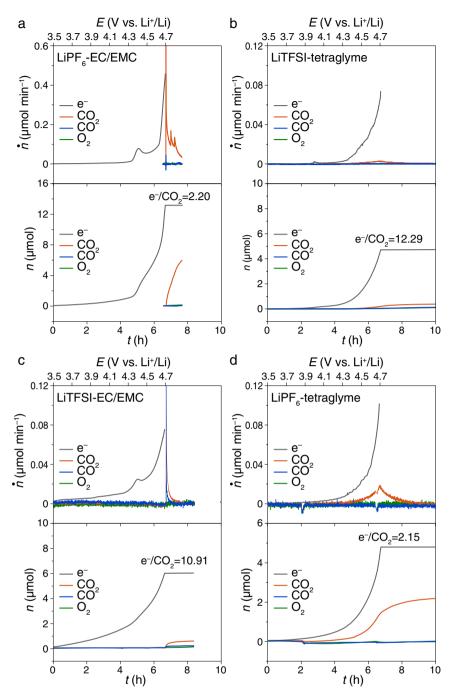


Fig. 5 | Impact of electrolyte salts and solvents on the gas evolution of chemical decomposition of Li_2CO_3 . The gas evolution during the charging process of the cells using Super P-PTFE composite electrodes without direct contact of Li_2CO_3 in a 1 M LiPF₆-EC/EMC, b 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme. c 1 M LiTFSI-EC/EMC, and d 1 M LiPF₆-tetraglyme. 20 mg of commercial Li_2CO_3 was separated from the Super P-PTFE

electrode with a Celgard separator to allow a chemical decomposition but not electro-oxidation decomposition. Ar flow rate: 0.5 mL min $^{-1}$. Sweep rate: 0.05 mV s $^{-1}$. The molar flux (top panel) of gas evolution was denoted as \dot{n} and the charging current is translated to $\dot{n}_{electron}$ and the cumulative mole (bottom panel) of the gas was denoted as \it{n} .

decomposition of Li₂CO₃. However, the ratio e⁻/CO₂ is 12.29, much higher than that in LiPF₆-EC/EMC. In addition, the total amount of CO₂ is as low as 0.4 μ mol, <2% of the CO₂ evolution in the Super P-Li₂CO₃ electrode, Fig. 1a. This distinct comparison indicates that the reaction mechanisms of Li₂CO₃ decomposition are completely different in LiPF₆-EC/EMC and LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolytes. The chemical pathway proposed by Freiberg is not applicable for tetraglyme-based electrolytes. The difference is due to either the Li salts or the solvents.

To find out whether the Li salts or the solvents make the difference, the salts were exchanged in these electrolytes and LiTFSI-EC/EMC and LiFP₆-tetraglyme were used, Fig. 5c and d. Interestingly,

the LiPF $_6$ -tetraglyme shows much CO $_2$ evolution similar to LiPF $_6$ -EC/EMC. Meanwhile, LiTFSI-EC/EMC shows little CO $_2$ evolution similar to LiTFSI-tetraglyme. The cells using LiPF $_6$ salt show a large amount of CO $_2$ evolution. The electrolytes used in this work were all dried and the water concentrations were below 4 ppm (Karl-Fischer titration). Therefore, this chemical mechanism could be due to the LiPF $_6$ salt itself or its impurities because LiPF $_6$ is difficult to purify 53 . Freiberg et al. also proposed that the chemical pathway involving LiPF $_6$ salt 41 . In the rest of this work, we used LiTFSI in tetraglyme as the electrolyte, thus excluding any possible effects of LiPF $_6$ on our results. As little CO $_2$ was evolved in the Celgard-separated

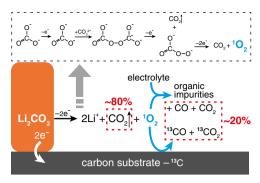


Fig. 6 | Schematics of the Li_2CO_3 decomposition on the charging process. Li_2CO_3 is electro-oxidized to form CO_2 and singlet O_2 ($^1\text{O}_2$). A possible pathway is proposed in the dash line box. $^1\text{O}_2$ is highly reactive and it attacks the electrolyte and the carbon substrate to form carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide, which contribute to -20% of the overall gas evolution.

experiment with LiTFSI-based electrolytes, our results provide evidence that Li_2CO_3 decomposition in LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolytes is dominated by an electrochemical rather than chemical process.

We propose the following reactions for the electrochemical decomposition of Li_2CO_3 on carbon substrates:

$$\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3 - 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + 2\text{Li}^+ + 1/2^1\text{O}_2 \tag{5}$$

$$(1 - x/2)^{1}O_{2} + C \rightarrow (1 - x)CO_{2} + xCO$$
 (6)

$$^{1}O_{2}$$
 + electrolyte $\rightarrow CO_{2}$ + CO + byproducts (7)

Li₂CO₃ is oxidized at high potentials to form CO₂ and aggressive ¹O₂ (Eq. 5), Fig. 6. ¹O₂ attacks carbon substrate (Eq. 6) and electrolyte (Eq. 7) simultaneously like incomplete combustion reactions, leading to further side reactions forming CO₂ and CO. It should be noted here, Eq. (7) is just a schematics equation instead of a proper stoichiometric equation for an elementary reaction because we do not completely know all byproducts from electrolyte decomposition. The exact ratio CO₂/CO depends on the ratio between formed ¹O₂, the carbon substrate/electrolyte, namely the electrode composition, but not on the cell potentials. Although the carbon substrate is eventually oxidized to CO₂ and CO, the carbon does not directly participate in the electrooxidation of Li₂CO₃ as has been proposed in the literature²⁸. As we mentioned above, the Eq. (2) could be recognized as a combination of Eq. (5) and Eq. (6) when x is equal to zero in Eq. (6). In this case, the reactive intermediate 1O2 reacts with carbon to produce only CO2 instead of a mixture of CO2 and CO. However, our chemical reaction between ¹O₂ and ¹³C shows both ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO evolution (Supplementary Fig. 11). If a highly reactive intermediate other than ¹O₂ forms in the Li₂CO₃ decomposition and rapidly attacks carbon to just CO₂, Eq. (2) could establish and contribute to a parallel pathway with Eq. (1) in Li₂CO₃ decomposition. However, there is so far no evidence of such a highly reactive intermediate.

Overall, during the charging process of the cell with a Li₂CO₃-carbon composite electrode in LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolyte, Li₂CO₃ decomposition contributes the major CO₂ evolution (-80%), and the carbon substrate and electrolyte decomposition share the rest -20% of gas evolution. Therefore, in the charging process of Li-air batteries and Li-CO₂ batteries, the decomposition of carbon substrate and the electrolyte is inevitable and contributes to a significant amount of CO₂ and CO unless the $^1\mathrm{O}_2$ can be suppressed.

Implications for batteries

Although Li₂CO₃ can be decomposed during the charging process, it is accompanied by severe side reactions by ¹O₂ (-20% of the total gas evolution) and leads to deterioration of cell performance. Here, we focus on Li-air and Li-CO₂ batteries. In Li-air batteries, Li₂CO₃ is a major by-product and it passivates the electrode surface and kills the cells. which brings us to a dilemma. On one hand, if Li₂CO₃ is not decomposed during the charging process, Li₂CO₃ will rapidly accumulate during cell cycling and thus completely passivate the electrode. On the other hand, if Li₂CO₃ is decomposed during the charging process, it results in more side-reactions and thus accelerates cell deterioration. This effect is more significant in Li-CO₂ batteries because Li₂CO₃ and carbon form are supposed to be the main discharge products. Therefore, a reversible decomposition of Li₂CO₃ and carbon is desired in the following charging process^{16,17}. However, during the charging process, the discharge reaction cannot be completely reversed because the carbon does not directly participate in the Li₂CO₃ decomposition reactions. The carbon substrate is oxidized by the ¹O₂ intermediate to CO₂ and CO. Meanwhile, the aggressive ¹O₂ attacks the electrolyte, leading to the depletion of the electrolyte and consequently cell failure. If the electrolytes and salts in the cells are sufficiently stable, e.g., solid-state electrolyte, the molten-salt electrolyte of LiNO₃-KNO₃, etc, the side-reactions with electrolyte could be avoided and ¹O₂ quenches to ³O₂. Recently, Zhang's group observed the O₂ evolution when charging Li₂CO₃ in the cell using a solid-state electrolyte⁵⁴. Due to the stability of inorganic solid-state electrolyte, ¹O₂ had nothing to attack and eventually was quenched to ³O₂. However, even in this case, the ¹O₂ would oxidize the carbon substrate and thus the cell deterioration cannot be completely inhibited.

Therefore, the key to pursuing a better charging process is to design a catalyst that suppresses the formation of 1O_2 rather than simply facilitates the kinetics of Li_2CO_3 decomposition and thus decreases the overpotentials. For instance, some redox mediators (RM) with moderate O_2 binding energy could be applied to inhibit forming 1O_2 and encourage 3O_2 evolution by replacing the 1O_2 precursor (e.g. $CO_4{}^2$) with a low-energy RM-involved intermediate, just like the way 2,5-di-tert-butyl-1,4-benzoquinone does to $O_2{}^{-55}$. Alternatively, some solid catalysts with suitable O_2 binding energy could bind 1O_2 precursor (the key reaction intermediator of Li_2CO_3 decomposition) in order to lower the energy and stabilize the precursor before it transforms to 1O_2 . The ratio of 1O_2 in the final product will decrease when the energy of the 1O_2 precursor decreases.

Very recently, Hu's group used operando electron paramagnetic resonance to show that Co₃O₄ inhibited the ¹O₂ formation during the charging process of Li-O₂ cells⁵⁶. Here, we added some Co₃O₄ nanoparticles to the Li₂CO₃-Super P composite electrode and then charged the electrode. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 16a, some O2 was identified during the charging process. While the control experiment of charging the Co₃O₄ electrode itself without Li₂CO₃ exhibits no O₂ evolution, Supplementary Fig. 16b. This result confirms that the Co₃O₄ catalyst successfully interacts with the precursor of forming ¹O₂ during the Li₂CO₃ decomposition and thus suppresses ¹O₂ formation. On the other hand, the CO evolution with Co₃O₄ is only half of that without Co₃O₄, whereas similar CO₂ evolutions were identified in both experiments. Because CO is from side-reactions of ¹O₂ attacks electrolyte/carbon substrate, decreased CO evolution confirms that ¹O₂ formation was partially inhibited and thus fewer side-reactions of $^1\!O_2$ attacking the carbon substrate and the electrolyte were detected than the counterpart without Co₃O₄, Supplementary Fig. 17. Our results are in good agreement with Hu's group results⁵⁵. Although the ¹O₂ formation and CO evolution cannot be completely inhibited, the Co₃O₄ does make some effects by stabilizing the reaction intermediates of forming ${}^{1}O_{2}$ and thus encouraging the evolution of ${}^{3}O_{2}$. This example confirms the feasibility of this strategy to promote the Li₂CO₃ decomposition with less parasitic ¹O₂, however further studies are

needed to look for more effective catalysts to avoid the side-reaction caused by $^{1}\mathrm{O}_{2}$.

To explore the decomposition mechanisms of the Li₂CO₃ and clarify the role of carbon substrate in the charging process of Li₂CO₃carbon composite electrodes in LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolyte, we did a set of in situ DEM-GC experiments with the ¹³C isotope-labeled composite electrodes to systematically isolate each component of the cell. The gas evolution during the charging process, including CO, CO₂, ¹³CO₂, and O₂ was quantified. Li₂CO₃ decomposed to release CO₂ at an onset potential of 3.8 V mainly via an electrochemical mechanism. The chemical mechanism of Li₂CO₃ decomposition in literature could take place in the presence of LiPF₆ due to LiPF₆ itself or its impurities. Carbon substrate did not directly participate in the decomposition of Li₂CO₃, that is to say, carbon did not react with Li₂CO₃ in a single step to form CO₂ as desired. On the contrary, this process is a multistep reaction. In the first step, Li₂CO₃ was oxidized to CO₂ and ¹O₂. Then, the ¹O₂ simultaneously oxidized the carbon substrate and electrolyte to form CO₂ and CO as gaseous side products. Approximately 80% of the net/cumulative CO₂ evolution is contributed by the Li₂CO₃ decomposition and the rest ~20% is contributed by the decomposition of the carbon substrate and the electrolyte, which cannot be ignored in batteries, particularly in Li-CO₂ batteries. In this work, we clarify the reaction mechanisms of the Li₂CO₃ decomposition during the charging process and exhibit the role of carbon in this process. This finding establishes a detailed picture of the decomposition pathways of Li₂CO₃ which enables strategy for the design of highly efficient cathode catalysts for Li-air and Li-CO2 batteries.

Methods

Materials

Lithium carbonate (Li₂CO₃), potassium superoxide (KO₂), lithium bis(trifluoromethane)sulfonamide (LiTFSI), 9,10-dimethylanthracene (DMA), and Co₃O₄ were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Li₂¹³CO₃ and ¹³C were purchased from the Cambridge Isotope Ltd. Tetraethylene glycol dimethyl ether (tetraglyme), ethylene carbonate (EC), and methyl ethyl carbonate (EMC) were purchased from the TCI Chemical. Tetraglyme was distilled under vacuum and dried with activated molecular sieves (4 Å). Lithium hexafluorophosphate (LiPF₆), ferrous sulfate (FeSO₄), phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄), acetic acid, and hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) were purchased from Aladdin. Lithium iron phosphate (LFP) was purchased from Shenzhen Betterui New Materials Group Co., Ltd. Dimethyl sulfoxide-d₆ (DMSO-d₆) and 18-crown-6 were purchased from the Shanghai Yuanye Bio-Technology. Argon (N5 grade) and 10 % Ar-O₂ (N5 grade) were obtained from Nanjing Special Gas Ltd. Polytetrafluoroethylene emulsion (PTFE) was purchased from Innochem. Celgard separator (25 µm thickness, Celgard), glass fiber separator (GF/F, Whatman), and Super P carbon (Timcal) were purchased from Duoduo Chemical Technology Co. Ltd.

Preparation of the composite electrodes

The blank carbon electrode, Li_2CO_3 -carbon composite, and Li_2CO_3 -Super P- Co_3O_4 composite (1:1:0.5) electrodes were prepared as described in literature 9,28,56 . Briefly, a certain amount of Super P, Li_2CO_3 , and Super P carbon or Li_2CO_3 , Super P and Co_3O_4 , and PTFE were mixed and the mixture was ball milled overnight. The mass ratio of active material and binder PTFE is 10:1. A certain amount of well-mixed powder was weighed and absolute ethanol was added to obtain a slurry. The slurry was cast onto pre-washed stainless steel (SS) mesh (100 mesh) and the electrodes were dried under vacuum at 120 °C overnight. The mass loading is 5 mg per electrode. For instance, a Super P- Li_2CO_3 (1:1) composite electrode contains 2.27 mg Super P, 0.46 mg PTFE, and 2.27 mg Li_2CO_3 (equivalent to 30.7 μ mol). For the μ -13C-isotope-labeled electrodes, the μ -13C-isotope-replaced with the μ -13C-isotope-replaced with the μ -13C-isotope-replaced support μ -13C-isotope-replaced with the μ -1

isotope-labeled composite is only obtained by grinding because the ¹³C-isotope-labeled substance is too expensive.

Preparation of the LFP electrode

 $80\ mg\ LFP\ powder, 10\ mg\ Super\ P,$ and $100\ mg\ PTFE\ suspension\ (10\%)\ were prepared. Firstly, <math display="inline">80\ mg\ LFP\ and\ Super\ P$ were ground in a mortar to ensure that the LFP and Super P were evenly mixed. $0.1\ mL$ of ethanol was dropped into the mixed powder to wet it and then the PTFE suspension was added to the mixed powder. After LFP-Super P and PTFE were mixed evenly, it was rolled several times with a roller. The final thickness of the electrode is $0.8\ mm$. The LFP electrode was punched into $12-25\ mm$ diameter and then soaked in a solution $(7.2\ mL\ 30\%\ H_2O_2\ and\ 3\ mL\ acetic\ acid\ in\ 500\ mL\ H_2O)$ for $30\ min\ to\ precharge\ the\ LFP$. The precharged LFP electrodes were rinsed with water five times to completely remove the residual H_2O_2 and acetic acid. Finally, the treated LFP electrodes were dried in a vacuum oven overnight and transferred to a glove box for later use.

Potential calculation

Ag wire was used as a pseudo-reference electrode in a three-electrode cell. We immersed the Ag wire in 1 M LITFSI tetraglyme electrolyte with O_2 to stabilize the potential of the Ag wire. A three-electrode cell with a LFP working electrode was charged and discharged in 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme using this Ag wire as the reference electrode. The equilibrium potential of LFP was 0.5 V versus Ag wire. Considering the potential of LFP versus Li $^{+}$ /Li is 3.45 V, the potential of the Ag wire is 2.95 V versus Li $^{+}$ /Li. Therefore, the potentials versus Li $^{+}$ /Li of the experiments in 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme could be calculated. All potentials in this manuscript are versus Li $^{+}$ /Li without further notice.

DEMS-GC setup

A differential electrochemical mass spectrometer (DEMS, Prima BT, Thermo Scientific Ltd.) was coupled with a gas chromatograph (GC, Hope Ltd.) in parallel (Supplementary Fig. 1). The GC is equipped with a TCD and an FID detector (including a CO $_2$ /CO converter). The DEMS cell is based on a customized Swagelok design. It was assembled and charged/discharged in the Ar-filled glove box. The Ar carrier gas carried the evolved gas in the cell into DEMS and GC simultaneously. The typical flow rate of Ag carrier gas is 0.5 mL min $^{-1}$ and the sweep rate for LSV is 0.05 mV s $^{-1}$. The time resolutions of DEMS and GC are 10 seconds and 5 min, respectively. The general gas evolution in chemical reactions was examined by the mass spectrometer (MS, Prima BT) itself.

Experiments of Li_2CO_3 with 1000/5000 ppm H_2O in 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolyte

Firstly, 1000 ppm and 5000 ppm H_2O were added to the $1\,M$ LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolyte, respectively and the water concentration in the electrolyte was quantified by a Karl Fischer titrator (Mettler Toledo). Then, the gas analysis was conducted in a MS. Generally, $100\,m$ g commercial Li_2CO_3 was added to a vial that was connected to a MS. After passing in the carrier gas for a while to obtain a steady baseline, $1\,m$ L electrolyte with H_2O was added to the vial and it was stirred for several hours. The gas evolution was quantified by a MS.

Quantification of gas evolution during the charging process

The composite electrodes were charged in a homemade differential electrochemical mass spectrometry cell. A piece of precharged LiFePO₄ served as the counter electrode and a piece of silver wire served as the reference electrode. 0.2 mL of 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme served as the electrolyte. The water content of the electrolyte was <4 ppm tested by Karl Fischer moisture titrator. To study the impact of the potential on the charging process, the composite electrodes were charged using linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) with a sweep rate of 0.05 mV s⁻¹. Due to the stability window (4.8 V) of the tetraglyme-based electrolyte, the cell potential was cut off at 4.7 V. Argon was served as

the carrier gas and its flow is 0.5 ml/min. The gas evolution was examined by a magnet sector mass spectrometer (Prima BT, Thermo Scientific Ltd.).

For the experiments for the chemical route, the Li₂CO₃ was deliberately separated from the Super P-PTFE composite electrolyte to allow the electrolyte decomposition byproduct to decompose Li₂CO₃ chemically. Twenty milligrams of commercial Li₂CO₃ was weighed and dusted to the top of the separator. A piece of Celgard separator (25 µm thickness) was stacked on the Li₂CO₃ and then a Super P-PTFE composite electrode is stacked on the Celgard. The composite electrode was electronically isolated from Li₂CO₃ by the Celgard separator. For the 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolyte, the cell was charged to 4.7 V and the gas evolution was recorded. For the control experiment with EC/ EMC electrolyte, due to the volatile electrolyte, the cell was not purging with Ar carrier gas during the entire charging process. The gas evolution in the headspace was purged with Ar at the end of the charging process to quantify the CO₂ evolution during the entire charging process. A homemade in-line cold trap (-25 °C) was applied to condense the evaporated EMC to minimize the background noise caused by EMC.

Ouantification of CO

The mass-to-charge (m/z) ratio of 28 could be contributed by CO, N₂, and the fragment of CO₂. To exclude the contribution of the N₂, the gas inlet of the DEMS was placed inside an Ar-filled glovebox as shown in Supplementary Fig. 1 and the DEMS experiments were conducted inside the glove box at 25 ± 2 °C to minimize the impact of N₂ leakage. The mz = 28 fragment from CO₂ was calibrated with a calibration gas of 1% CO₂–99% Ar using DEMS. The intensity of the mz = 28 signal is 6.5% of the mz = 44 signal, which is subtracted from the concentration of CO in the calculation. This ratio(mz = 28/mz = 44) depends on many factors, such as electron voltage, emission current of the filaments, etc. Therefore, this ratio needs to be calibrated for individual MS. A calibration gas of 0.1% CO–99.9% Ar was used for calibration.

The CO evolution during the charging process was parallelly quantified by a GC with a TCD and a FID detector (including a CO_2/CO converter). A FID detector was used to quantify the CO and 1000 ppm CO equals an area of 130 mVs in GC. Thus we could use these results as a reference and qualify the amount of CO in all experiments.

Quantification of the solid byproducts

The solid Li $_2$ CO $_3$ and organic carbon in the composite electrodes were quantified as reported previously 57 . An electrode was placed in a vial that is connected to a MS and 0.5 ml of H $_3$ PO $_4$ (2 M) was injected into the vial to react with Li $_2$ CO $_3$ to form CO $_2$. The CO $_2$ evolution was quantified by MS. Afterward, Fenton solution (400 μ L FeSO $_4$ + 50 μ L of H $_2$ O $_2$ (30%)) was added to oxidize the organic carbonates to CO $_2$. The released CO $_2$ was again quantified by a MS.

Isotope impurities in Li₂¹³CO₃ and ¹³C-carbon

A certain amount of Li₂¹³CO₃ reacts with H₃PO₄ solution in a vial that is connected to a MS. The gas evolution was quantified by MS and shown in Supplementary Fig. 5. 16.92 μ mol of ¹³CO₂ and 2.49 μ mol ¹²CO₂ are identified. Therefore, the ratio between ¹²CO₂ and ¹³CO₂ is 0.147/1. This result indicates that the commercial Li₂¹³CO₃ sample contains c.a. 15% of ¹²C-impurity.

The 12 C impurity in the 13 C is determined by a MS as well. The carbon was combusted under a O_2 flow (0.5 mL min $^{-1}$) in a quartz tube that was connected to a MS. The formed 13 CO $_2$ and 12 CO $_2$ are quantified and they are 82.42 µmol and 1.27 µmol, respectively. The 13 C sample contains 1.5% of 12 C as an isotope impurity.

Identification of ¹O₂

30 mM DMA was added into 1 M LiTFSI-tetraglyme electrolyte as a molecular trap to singlet O_2 . The composite electrode was

electrochemical oxidation by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) with a voltage cutoff of 4.2 V. The electrolyte was extracted from all cell components using DMSO-d₆ for further experiment. ¹H-NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Avance III 300 MHz FT NMR spectrometer with autosampler (300.36 MHz, DMSO-d₆).

We lack an effective way to quantify the 1O_2 during charging to such a high potential of 4.7 V. On one hand, DMA decomposes above 4.2 V and thus we cannot use DMA to detect 1O_2 at 4.7 V. However, there is only a small portion (<5%) of Li_2CO_3 decomposes below 4.2 V and the amount of 1O_2 at this stage is low, which could not represent the overall reaction up to 4.7 V. For the aspect of energy, more 1O_2 would form at a higher potential. On the other hand, the NMR is only a semi-quantitative technique. Thus probing DMA- O_2 using NMR could only confirm the formation of 1O_2 but it could not provide a reliable quantification of such a low amount of 1O_2 . The NMR of the electrolyte in a cell with Co_3O_4 is shown in Supplementary Fig. 18. The cell was charged by LSV to 4.2 V. The electrolyte was extracted from all cell components using DMSO- 1O_2 . The signals of DMAO $_2$ in both samples are too weak to compare quantitatively.

Chemical experiments between reactive oxygen species and carbon

The purpose of this ex situ chemical experiment is to identify the products of reactive oxygen species attacking 13 C-carbon. We try to prove the feasibility that 1 O₂ attacks 13 C-carbon to form 13 CO₂ and 13 CO, which is detected during the charging process of the cell with Li₂CO₃. Meanwhile, our results show that superoxide species could not oxidize 13 C-carbon to form 13 CO₂ and 13 CO.

Singlet oxygen was obtained by the disproportionation of superoxide species, which is KO₂ and Li⁺ here. Briefly, a varying amount of ¹³C-carbon and 22 mg KO₂ powder was added to a vial that is connected to a MS before the solution is added into the vial. The carrier gas will be passed for a period to eliminate the residual gas in the vial. Then, 1 mL high concentration lithium salt electrolyte (4 M LiTFSI here) was injected into the vial to react with KO2 to disproportionate to produce ¹O₂, ¹O₂ immediately oxidized ¹³C-carbon to evolve ¹³CO₂ and ¹³CO. The produced gases were detected by a MS. An excess amount of KO₂ was used here to produce a large amount of ¹O₂. So far, we could not quantify the amount of ¹O₂ produced in this disproportionation reaction of KO2 and Li⁺. Here, the experiments were carried out without applying a potential, namely at "OCV". The reactivity of carbon and the ratio of CO₂/CO may change when voltage is applied. The impact of potential in the side-reaction of ¹O₂ and ¹³C is not the focus of this work. Also, when a high potential is applied to the carbon substrate, electrode decomposition will take place, which makes the situation complicated to decouple these factors. Here, we mainly focus on Li₂CO₃ electro-oxidation. Although carbon oxidation accompanies Li₂CO₃ decomposition, it only contributes to ~10% of the total CO₂ evolution.

A control experiment of superoxide attacking $^{13}\text{C}\text{-carbon}$ was carried out to make a comparison. Superoxide was obtained as previously reported 52 . In brief, firstly, argon was used to exclude the dissolved gas such as oxygen in the tetraglyme solvent. Then, 71 mg KO₂ and 264 mg 18-crown-6 were added to 10 mL tetraglyme electrolyte and stirred for four hours to maximize the concentration of the $O_2^-(\text{sol})$. The electrolyte was centrifuged and the supernatant also was injected with argon to get out the dissolved oxygen produced by the KO₂ attack electrolyte for further experiment. Finally, varying amounts of $^{13}\text{C}\text{-carbon}$ powder were added to a vial and 1 mL supernatant was injected into the vial for the source of superoxide. The produced gases were detected by a MS.

In the charging process of the cell, because Li_2CO_3 has ultralow ionic and electronic conductivities, its decomposition takes place at the $^{13}\text{C}|\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$ solid-solid interface (namely the contact points between ^{13}C particles and Li_2CO_3 particles). Therefore, the decomposition product, $^{1}\text{O}_2$, is just formed at this interface, which is very close to ^{13}C , and

thus it is easy to attack ¹³C. Therefore, the ratio between ¹O₂ and ¹³C is high. On the contrary, in the chemical experiments described above, ¹O₂ originates from the disproportionation of superoxide in the solution phase. Although ¹³C was added to the solution and stirring was applied, the fresh ¹O₂ forms from the disproportionation process in the electrolyte and it first attacks the electrolyte. Only a small portion of ¹O₂ would diffuse to the surface of the suspended ¹³C in the electrolyte and react with ¹³C. In addition, the ratio of releasing ¹O₂ from disproportionation is still unknown, which is highly likely below 10%. Freunberger et al show that more ¹O₂ forms during the charging process than in the discharging process involving disproportionation.

Quenching 102

Once the ${}^{1}O_{2}$ forms in the electrolyte, it is too late to stabilize it and it rapidly attacks the electrolyte and carbon substrate. Therefore, our strategy is to stabilize this intermediate/precursor which further produces singlet oxygen, rather than to quench the ${}^{1}O_{2}$ after its formation in the electrolyte. In this case, we hope that ${\rm Co_{3}O_{4}}$ binds the intermediate (namely the precursor of ${}^{1}O_{2}$, e.g. ${\rm CO_{4}}^{2-}$) into a complex such as ${\rm Co_{3}O_{4}\text{-}CO_{4}}$, before ${}^{1}O_{2}$ is formed and dissolved in the electrolyte. Our experimental results show that ${\rm Co_{3}O_{4}}$ makes some positive effects, but it is not good enough. If it works properly, the ratio(${\rm CO_{2}/O_{2}}$) should be 2 according to the equ 1a, but the ratio(${\rm CO_{2}/O_{2}}$)_{Co3O4} is 6.7, much higher than 2. It might be a feasible strategy to inhibit ${}^{1}O_{2}$ formation but there are still lots of work that need to be done.

Data availability

Source Data for Figs. 1–5 is provided with the paper. Extra data are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request. Source data are provided with this paper.

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Author contributions

D.C. and C.T. performed experiments and data analysis. Y.C. conceived the project and wrote the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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