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Lithium nitrate reservoir enabling substantial improvement in the cycle life of anode-free and lithium metal batteries



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HIGHLIGHTS

G R A P H I C A L A B S T R A C T

- LiNO₃ reservoir (LNR) stored and continuously released LiNO₃ into the electrolyte.
- The LNR enabled the formation and maintenance of a stable SEI layer on the Li anode.
- The lithium metal battery with LNR exhibited superior cycling performance.



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ABSTRACT

Li metal batteries attract significant attention owing to their high energy densities; however, the growth of Li dendrites and high reactivities of Li metal with liquid electrolytes lead to performance degradation and safety problems. As a solid electrolyte interphase (SEI)-forming additive for use in addressing these problems, LiNO₃ stabilizes lithium metal by forming a robust, stable SEI on the Li anode surface. However, the use of LiNO₃ is limited owing to its low degree of dissociation within the electrolyte. In this study, we propose a LiNO₃ reservoir (LNR) that can store and continuously release LiNO₃ into the electrolyte during charge-discharge cycling, which enables the formation and maintenance of a stable SEI layer on the lithium metal anode. Due to uniform Li deposition/stripping and the suppression of dendritic Li growth in the presence of the LNR, the anode-free and lithium (20 μ m)/LiNi_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1}O₂ cells with the LNR exhibit superior cycling performance compared to those of the cells without the LNR. The detailed mechanism of the substantial improvement in the cycling performance using the LNR is investigated using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, NMR spectroscopy, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy, and scanning electron microscopy.

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1. Introduction

The demand for rechargeable lithium batteries with high energy densities has increased with the expansion of the green electric vehicle market [1,2]. Lithium metal is a promising anode material used for fabricating lithium batteries with high energy densities owing to its high specific capacity and low redox potential [3-5]. Anode-free batteries with higher energy densities can be prepared without using lithium metal, and they exhibit numerous advantages, such as simplified fabrication processes, reduced costs, and enhanced safety compared to lithium metal batteries [6,7]. However, lithium metal undergoes undesirable side reactions with the liquid electrolyte, forming a resistive, unstable solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) during cycling. Moreover, lithium dendrites that cause internal short circuits grow at the anode surface owing to non-uniform Li deposition and stripping during repeated charging/discharging, and dead (inactive) lithium can be formed, which leads to significant capacity loss during battery operation [8,9]. To address these problems, SEI-forming additives, such as fluoroethylene carbonate, vinylene carbonate, LiNO₃, lithium difluoro (oxalato)borate, and LiBF₄, were incorporated into liquid electrolytes to suppress dendritic Li growth and form stable SEI layers on lithium metal anodes [10-15]. LiNO₃ exhibits a synergistic effect when applied as an additive with lithium bis(fluorosulfonyl)imide (LiFSI) by forming Li-N compounds with high ionic conductivities and LiF with excellent mechanical properties at the surface of Li anode. This is because the addition of LiNO3 in the electrolyte resulted in a change of solvation structure where FSI⁻ anions exhibited closer distance to Li⁺ ions, resulting the promotion of the reductive decomposition of FSI- anions on the Li anode [16]. These SEI components (Li-N and LiF) effectively inhibit the formation and growth of Li dendrites [17]; however, the complete dissolution of LiNO₃ in liquid electrolytes is still challenging [18]. To overcome the low degree of LiNO₃ dissociation, various studies regarding the storage and elution of LiNO₃ using separators, Li-metal powder electrodes, and porous polymer substrates have been reported [19–21]. The continuously released LiNO₃ can reconstruct and stabilize the SEI layer, thus enhancing the cycle life of the Li metal battery. However, these strategies can clog the pores of the porous substrate or reduce the energy density of the Li metal battery for practical applications.

In this study, we propose a LiNO3 reservoir (LNR) using a thin, fibrous poly (vinylidene fluoride-co-hexafluoropropylene) (PVdF-co-HFP) membrane as a framework. We used PVdF-co-HFP as the framework for the LiNO₃ reservoir, because it could be processed to thin and porous membrane by electrospinning method. Furthermore, it is electrochemically stable within the operation voltage of the lithium metal batteries and has good compatibility with liquid electrolyte [22]. The highly porous electrospun membrane facilitated the storage and continuous release of LiNO3 during the charge/discharge cycling. The anode-free and Li metal batteries with the LNR and high mass-loaded LiNi_{0.8}Co_{0.1}Mn_{0.1}O₂ (NCM) cathode (active mass loading: 19.4 mg cm^{-2}) exhibited high levels of capacity retention of 68.8 % after 100 cycles and 85.0 % after 300 cycles, respectively, at 0.33 C rate and 25 $^\circ$ C. The enhancement in the cycling performance of the cells with the LNR were analyzed using various techniques, such as X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), ⁶Li solid and ⁷Li solution nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), and scanning electron microscopy (SEM).

2. Material and methods

2.1. Materials

LiNO₃ (Sigma-Aldrich), LiCl (Sigma-Aldrich), and PVdF-*co*-HFP (molecular weight: 470 000 g mol⁻¹, Kynar Flex 2801, Arkema) were used after vacuum drying at 90 °C for 12 h. The liquid electrolyte, which was supplied by Enchem, was 2.5 M LiFSI dissolved in a 4:1 (v/v)

mixture of 1,2-dimethoxyethane (DME) and 1,1,2,2-tetrafluoroethyl 2,2,2-trifluoroethyl ether (TFOFE), with 1 wt% LiNO₃ as an additive. DME was chosen as the primary solvent due to its superior stability toward Li metal compared to carbonate solvents, and TFOFE was incorporated as a diluent to reduce the viscosity of the electrolyte, resulting in forming a localized high-concentration electrolyte [23,24]. The maximum concentration of LiNO₃ that could be dissolved in the electrolyte was 1.0 wt% (0.17 M). The viscosity and ionic conductivity of the electrolyte were 10.8 cP and 6.1×10^{-3} S cm⁻¹ at 25 °C, respectively. A polyethylene (PE) separator (thickness: 16 µm, SKIET) was vacuum-dried at 90 °C for 12 h prior to use, and Li metal (thickness: 20 µm, Honjo Metal) was used as an anode after pressing it onto a copper current collector (thickness: 10 µm).

2.2. Preparation of the LNR

A porous polymer membrane was fabricated via electrospinning of a polymer solution. The solution was prepared by dissolving 16 wt% PVdF-*co*-HFP in acetone/*N*,*N*-dimethylacetamide (7/3, v/v), followed by heating at 60 °C for 3 h. The resulting solution was electrospun onto an aluminum foil at 6 kV and 4.0 mL min⁻¹, and the obtained membrane was then dried in a vacuum oven at 80 °C for 12 h. The porosity of the membrane was approximately 70 %. An impregnation solution was prepared by dissolving 0.8 M LiNO₃ in ethanol. After soaking the electrospun membrane in the solution for 5 min, it was vacuum-dried at 100 °C for 12 h, and the obtained LNR film displayed a thickness of 5.5 µm. The amount of LiNO₃ in the LNR was about 1.47 g cm⁻³, indicating LiNO₃ filled 61.7 % of the total pores in the electrospun membrane.

2.3. Cell assembly and electrochemical studies

The LNR was pressed onto a Cu (for an anode-free cell) or Li anode (for a Li metal cell). The cell was assembled by stacking the LNR on the Cu/Li anode, PE separator, and NCM cathode in a CR2032-type coin cell. The active-material content in the cathode on Al foil (foil thickness: 10 μ m) was 96.0 wt%, and its loading was approximately 19.4 mg cm⁻². The density of cathode was 3.52 g cm^{-3} . The liquid electrolyte (electrolyte-to-capacity ratio: 4.5 g Ah^{-1}) was then injected into the cell. The cells were assembled in a high-purity argon-filled glove box (MBRAUN). EIS was performed to measure the interfacial resistance of the cell during cycling in the frequency range 0.1-1 000 000 Hz using an impedance analyzer (ZIVE MP1, WonATech). Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) was conducted at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s^{-1} using a CHI660 analyzer (CH Instruments). Galvanostatic cycling studies of the anodefree and Li/NCM cells were performed in the potential range 3.0-4.2 V at 25 °C using a battery tester (WBCS3000, WonATech). During the preconditioning cycle, the cell was charged and discharged at 0.1 C rate for two cycles. After preconditioning, the cell was charged and discharged at 0.33 C rate and 25 °C.

2.4. Characterization

Solid-state ⁶Li NMR spectroscopy of the SEI components collected from the anode was performed using a 500 MHz Avance III HD solidstate NMR spectrometer (Bruker). The morphology of the Li anode was examined using field-emission SEM (Verios G4 UC, FEI), and the chemical composition of the surface layer on the electrode was investigated using XPS (K-Alpha⁺, Thermo Fisher Scientific). ⁷Li NMR spectra were obtained by VNMRS 600 MHz spectrometer (Agilent Technologies), and DME (99.9 %, Sigma-Aldrich) and 3 M LiCl in D₂O (99.9 %, Sigma-Aldrich) were used as the solvent and reference, respectively.

3. Results and discussion

The electrospun PVdF-co-HFP membrane without soaking in LiNO₃containing solution has many pores that are not filled with LiNO₃, as presented in Fig. S1a. We obtained the pore size distribution of the electrospun membrane by using ImageJ software, as depicted in Fig. S1b, showing that a pore size is in the range of $2 \sim 10 \ \mu m$ with an average size of 5.2 µm. The presence of LiNO3 in the LNR layer was confirmed by the SEM and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) mapping images, as shown in Fig. 1a and b. The C and F elements, arising from PVDF-co-HFP, are observed within the electrospun fibers. In addition, the N and O elements within LiNO₃ can be observed in the pores of the electrospun membrane, indicating that the LiNO3 additive fills the pores. The mechanical properties of PE, PVdF-co-HFP membrane and LNR were measured using a nano indenter, and the results are summarized in Table S1. While the LNR prepared with PVdF-co-HFP membrane exhibits lower mechanical properties compared to PE separator, its superior recovery characteristics enable it to effectively accommodate deformation caused by volume changes of lithium during repeated charge and discharge cycles. We measured the ionic and electronic conductivities of the PVdF-co-HFP membrane and LNR. To maintain the same conditions as the Li/NCM cell, the ionic conductivity was measured after soaking them with PE separator in liquid electrolyte. As a result, the LNR exhibited an ionic conductivity of $4.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$, which was lower than that of the PVdF-co-HFP membrane (5.5 x 10^{-4} S cm^{-1}). The reduction in ionic conductivity can be attributed to the filling of LiNO₃ in the pores of the electrospun membrane, which hinders ion transport. With respect to electronic conductivity, the electronic conductivity of LNR was too low (less than 10^{-16} S cm⁻¹) to be measured. To confirm the electrochemical reduction of the LiNO3 within the LNR, linear sweep voltammetry was performed using 2.5 M LiFSI in DME/TFOFE (LiNO3-free electrolyte) with and without the LNR. As shown in Fig. 1c, an additional cathodic peak is observed at 1.62 V vs. Li/Li⁺ in the presence of the LNR. This peak can be attributed to the reduction of LiNO₃ released from the LNR [25,26], as it is not observed in the voltammogram of the cell without the LNR. This suggests that LiNO₃ released from the LNR was reduced at a low potential prior to the electrodeposition of Li on the electrode. From the cyclic voltammogram (CV) with LNR (Fig. S2a), we could observe only the reductive peak of LiNO₃ without the oxidative peak of its reduction product, indicating that LiNO₃ is irreversibly reduced. We also compared CVs of the cells with LiNO₃ added directly to the electrolyte and with the LiNO₃ reservoir (LNR). As presented in Fig. S2b, the two CVs exhibited almost the same electrochemical behavior.

To confirm the release of LiNO3 from the LNR and its involvement in the formation of the SEI on the anode during cycling, the anode-free NCM cells with and without the LNR were assembled and subjected to 10 charge/discharge cycles at 0.33 C and 25 °C. The configuration of the anode-free NCM cell with the LNR on a Cu current collector is shown in Fig. S3. To investigate the effect of the LiNO₃ within the LNR on SEI formation, the electrolyte used to assemble the cells was LiNO3-free 2.5 M LiFSI in DME/TFOFE (4/1, v/v). Fig. S4 shows the XPS spectra of the Li plated on the Cu foil at the charged state after 10 cycles. Clearly, the SEI formed on the plated Li displays different chemical components, depending on the presence of the LNR. When the LNR is employed, additional components, such as Li₃N and LiN_xO_y, are observed, along with an increase in the intensity of the LiF component. These results suggest that LiNO3 embedded within the LNR is released into the electrolyte, and it is involved in the formation of the SEI on the anode surface during the repeated cycling [27,28]. The SEI components formed on the anode were examined using solid-state ⁶Li NMR isotope analysis. For use in ⁶Li NMR isotope analysis, ⁶LiNO₃ was synthesized by reacting ⁶Li metal and an aqueous HNO₃ solution (2 $^{6}\text{Li} + 2 \text{ HNO}_3 \leftrightarrow 2 \,^{6}\text{LiNO}_3 + \text{H}_2$) under an argon atmosphere. It is noticeable that the isotope ratio of ⁶Li



Fig. 1. (a) Surface SEM image of the LNR and (b) its EDS mapping images. (c) Linear sweep voltammograms of the Li/stainless steel cells employing 2.5 M LiFSI in DME/TFOFE (LiNO₃-free electrolyte) with and without the LNR.

and ⁷Li is 7.5 : 92.5 by atomic %. Fig. S5 shows the solid-state ⁶Li NMR spectra of the synthesized ⁶LiNO₃ and commercial LiNO₃ (mixture of ⁷LiNO₃ and ⁶LiNO₃, with ⁷LiNO₃ as the main component), confirming that ⁶LiNO₃ is successfully synthesized using ⁶Li metal and HNO₃. The LNRs were prepared using electrospun PVDF-*co*-HFP and ⁶LiNO₃ instead of commercial LiNO₃ and applied to anode-free NCM cells. After 10 charge–discharge cycles, the SEI layer formed on the anode was sampled at the discharged state under an inert argon atmosphere and subjected to solid-state ⁶Li NMR spectroscopy. As shown in Fig. S6, the obtained spectrum can be resolved into numerous peaks, corresponding to ⁶Li₃N (7.4 ppm), ⁶Li₂O (2.8 ppm), ⁶Li₂S (2.4 ppm), ⁶LiOH (1.3 ppm), ⁶LiF (-0.9 ppm), and CH₃O⁶Li (-0.1 ppm) [29–31]. Therefore, the ⁶LiNO₃ within the LNR is released into the electrolyte and is participated

in the formation of the SEI on the anode during the cycling of the anode-free cell.

Anode-free NCM cells with and without the LNR were assembled using the LiNO₃-containing electrolyte (2.5 M LiFSI in DME/TFOFE with 1 wt% LiNO₃), and their cycling performance was evaluated. Fig. 2a and b, respectively, show the cycling profiles of the anode-free cells without and with the LNR at 0.33 C rate and 25 °C. The two cells initially deliver almost identical discharge capacities, irrespective of the presence of the LNR. However, the cell without the LNR exhibits rapid capacity fading with subsequent cycling, finally leading to cell failure after 50 cycles. In contrast, the anode-free cell with the LNR exhibits stable cycling behavior despite the use of a highly mass-loaded NCM cathode, maintaining a capacity retention of 68.8 % after 100 cycles. The coulombic



Fig. 2. Voltage profiles of the anode-free NCM cells (a) without and (b) with the LNR at 0.33 C. (c) Cycling performance of the anode-free NCM cells at 0.33 C and 25 °C. (d) AC impedance spectra of the anode-free NCM cell with the LNR and (e) variations in the interfacial resistances of the anode-free NCM cells with cycling.

efficiency of the cell with the LNR exceeds that of the cell without the LNR throughout cycling, as shown in Fig. 2c. The alternating-current (AC) impedances of the cells were measured during cycling, and the impedance spectra of the cell with the LNR are shown in Fig. 2d, displaying two overlapping semicircles. The first semicircle, which is observed in the high-frequency region, is related to the ionic resistance of the film formed on the electrode surface (R_f). The second semicircle, which is observed in the low-frequency region, is attributed to the charge transfer resistance at the interface (R_{ct}) [32,33]. Accordingly, the overall interfacial resistance of the cell (R_{int}) can be regarded as the sum of $R_{\rm f}$ and $R_{\rm ct}.$ The variations in the $R_{\rm int}$ values of the two different cells with cycling are shown in Fig. 2e. In earlier (<15) cycles, the two cells exhibit similar Rint values. After the 15th cycle, at which the capacity of the cell without the LNR rapidly decreases, the Rint of this cell significantly increases, whereas the Rint of the cell with the LNR only increases slightly. These results suggest that the LNR is critical in maintaining a stable Rint, which can be ascribed to the continuous release of LiNO3 and its involvement in the formation of a stable SEI layer.

Fig. 3 shows the surface and cross-sectional SEM images of the plated Li anodes on Cu foils at their charged states, as obtained after the first preconditioning and 50th cycles of the anode-free NCM cells. Please note that SEM analysis was conducted after removing the LNR from the Li anode. In the cell without the LNR, the plated Li exhibits a dense morphology, with a thickness of 25.2 µm, after the first preconditioning cycle (Fig. 3a and b). However, after 50 cycles, the deposited Li exhibits a rough, porous morphology, with numerous cracks on the surface (Fig. 3c and its enlarged image), and the thickness remarkably increases from 25.2 to 68.5 µm (Fig. 3d). In contrast, the plated Li anode in the cell with the LNR displays compact, uniform surface morphologies after the first preconditioning and 50th cycles (Fig. 3e and g). In the enlarged surface image of deposited Li after 50 cycles, it shows relatively larger and non-dendritic surface morphology. The thickness of the deposited Li, excluding that of the LNR layer (5.5 μ m), is increased from 23.8 to 37.0 µm after 50 cycles (Fig. 3f and h). We measured the grain size of plated lithium, and the results are presented in Fig. S7. Without LNR, the average grain size of lithium was approximately 0.84 µm. On the other hand, when LNR is applied onto the Cu foil, the average grain size was increased to 4.9 μ m, indicating the presence of LNR enabled the more uniform deposition of lithium on the Cu foil. These results suggest that the presence of the LNR suppresses the growth of Li dendrites and promotes the compact deposition of Li. This is due to the formation of a stable, robust SEI layer on the plated Li owing to the continuous release of LiNO₃ from the LNR [34]. We obtained the cross-sectional EDS mapping image of the Li anode with LNR after 50 cycles (Fig. S8). It reveals that nitrogen elements are uniformly distributed in the SEI layer on the plated Li. The nitrogen atoms in the SEI layer arises from nitrogen compounds such as Li₃N and LiN_xO_y.

To monitor the chemical composition of the SEI layer during cycling, XPS of the plated Li in the cell with LNR was conducted after the 10th and 50th cycles, and the results are shown in Fig. 4. The C 1s spectrum is normalized relative to the intensity of the C-C peak associated with conductive carbon [35,36]. After 10 cycles, the C 1s XPS spectrum displays peaks corresponding to O-C-H/C-C (284.9 eV), C-O-C (286.5 eV), and C-F (289.3 eV). The O-C-H/C-C and C-O-C peaks may be attributed to CH₃OLi and organic-based compounds arising from the decomposition of DME and TFOFE solvents [37]. After 50 cycles, the XPS spectrum of the plated Li displays the same C 1s peaks with lower intensities, indicating that the decomposition of the organic solvents is suppressed in later cycles. The peak intensities in the N 1s XPS spectra are normalized relative to that of LiNO₃ at 407.5 eV. After the 10th and 50th cycles, the N 1s XPS spectrum displays the same peaks, corresponding to N-S (399.8 eV), Li₃N (398.5 eV), and LiN_xO_v (396.9 eV), with almost identical intensities, due to the reductive decomposition of LiFSI and LiNO₃ [16,38]. It should be noted that the LiNO₃ content after 50 cycles was lower than that after 10 cycles. The decrease of LiNO₃ content with cycling can be interpreted as a result of continuous release of LiNO₃ into the electrolyte, where it is reduced on the anode surface. The peak intensities in the F 1s spectra are normalized relative to those of C-F (PVdF-co-HFP) at 687.8 eV. After 50 cycles, the LiF peak at 684.9 eV increases in intensity. Notably, LiF can be produced within the SEI layer via the reductive decomposition of LiFSI in the presence of LiNO3 [16]. Accordingly, these results suggest that LiNO₃ is continuously released from the LNR into the liquid electrolyte and acts as an SEI-forming additive during cycling. For comparison, the XPS spectra of the plated Li in the cell without the LNR after 10 and 50 cycles were analyzed, as shown in Fig. S9. After 10 cycles, the SEI layer on the plated



Fig. 3. (a, c) Surface and (b, d) cross-sectional SEM images of the plated Li on Cu foil without the LNR in the charged state. (e, g) Surface and (f, h) cross-sectional SEM images of the plated Li on Cu foil with the LNR in the charged state. SEM was performed after the first preconditioning and 50th cycles.



Fig. 4. C 1s, N 1s, and F 1s XPS spectra of the plated Li electrode with the LNR in the charged state after the (a) 10th and (b) 50th cycles.

Li exhibits O–C–H/C–C, Li₃N, LiN_xO_y, and LiF with high intensities, which are well-known SEI components formed in the electrolyte in the presence of LiFSI and LiNO₃. Remarkably, the LiN_xO_y component of the SEI is hardly observed after 50 cycles, and the peak intensity of LiF is significantly decreased. In addition, the organic components (C–O–C, O–C–H/C–C) produced via the decomposition of DME and TFOFE are retained after 50 cycles, as shown in the C 1s spectrum. Hence, the LiNO₃ dissolved in the electrolyte is completely consumed as an SEI-forming additive during the initial cycles and is not involved in SEI formation in the later cycles.

Based on these results, SEI formation on the plated Li with and

without the LNR is schematically illustrated in Fig. 5. During the earlier cycles, the SEI layers formed on Li exhibit almost identical compositions, irrespective of the presence of the LNR, because the electrolytes in both cells initially contain small amounts of LiNO₃. However, its concentration gradually decreases with cycling in the cell without the LNR, because it is involved in SEI formation and completely depleted in the electrolyte in the later cycles. In contrast, in the cell with the LNR, the continuous release of LiNO₃ from the LNR delays its depletion within the electrolyte. Accordingly, an SEI layer comprising LiF with a high mechanical strength and Li₃N/LiN_xO_y with a high Li⁺ conductivity, is maintained during the Li deposition/stripping cycles [39–42]. The



Fig. 5. Schematic illustration of SEI formation on the plated Li when using (a) Cu or (b) LNR@Cu in the anode-free NCM cell with repeated cycling.

inorganic-rich and mechanically robust SEI layer suppresses dendritic Li growth and the deleterious reactions of the electrolyte during cycling, leading to the enhanced cycling stability of the anode-free cell, as shown in Fig. 2c.

We quantitatively analyzed the LiNO3 release behavior of the cells during cycling using ⁷Li NMR spectroscopy [43,44]. To investigate the effect of the LiNO₃ concentration on the chemical shift, the ⁷Li NMR spectra of liquid electrolytes containing different concentrations of LiNO₃ (0–0.58 M) were measured, as shown in Fig. S10a. The peak shifts downfield with increasing LiNO3 concentration owing to the increase in the donor number caused by LiNO3 addition to the electrolyte [45]. Based on these results, a correlation curve between the LiNO₃ concentration and chemical shift of the ⁷Li NMR peak can be constructed, as shown in Fig. S10b. The variation in the chemical shift with LiFSI concentration was also examined while maintaining the concentration of LiNO₃ within the electrolyte. As shown in Fig. S11, little change is observed in the chemical shift of the ⁷Li peak when the LiNO₃ concentration remains constant. Therefore, the NMR chemical shift is primarily governed by the amount of LiNO₃ within the electrolyte, which enables the quantitative analysis of the LiNO₃ content within the cell during cycling. Fig. 6a shows the ⁷Li NMR spectrum of the electrolyte collected from the anode-free cell without the LNR as a function of the cycle number. It should be noted that the LiNO₃ concentration in Fig. 6 was measured in the cell (including anode, LNR, separator, and cathode),

because the amount of liquid electrolyte sampled from the cell was too small after extended cycles. The NMR peak shifts up-field as cycling progresses, indicating a gradual decrease in the LiNO3 content with cycling. The LiNO3 concentration was calculated based on the correlation curve of the chemical shift as a function of the LiNO3 concentration, as shown in Fig. S10b, and the results are shown in Fig. 6b. The LiNO₃ concentration decreases remarkably from 0.16 to 0.07 M after the first preconditioning cycle, indicating that a significant amount of LiNO₃ is consumed in forming the SEI during this cycle. The LiNO3 concentration gradually decreases with subsequent cycling, and no LiNO3 is observed after 50 cycles. Similarly, the LiNO3 concentration was also measured in the electrolyte collected from the Li/NCM cell with LNR. The corresponding ⁷Li NMR spectra and variation in the LiNO₃ concentration with cycling are shown in Fig. 6c and d, respectively. The LiNO₃ consumption pattern in the cell with LNR exhibits a trend similar to that of the cell without the LNR. However, the main difference between the two cells is that the LiNO3 concentration is even maintained at 0.12 M after 100 cycles in the cell with the LNR. These results suggest that LiNO₃ is continuously consumed because of its involvement in SEI formation and is released from the LNR into the electrolyte during cycling. Therefore, the enhanced cycling stability of the cell with the LNR may be attributed to the formation of a stable, robust inorganic-rich SEI owing to the continuous release of LiNO3 from the LNR.

The LNR was also applied to the Li metal cell to improve its cycling



Fig. 6. ⁷Li NMR spectra of the electrolytes collected from the anode-free cells (a) without and (c) with LNR as functions of cycle number. Variations in the LiNO₃ concentrations of in the anode-free cells (b) without and (d) with LNR as a function of cycle number.

performance. We investigated the effect of LiNO₃ content in the LNR on the cycling performance. As presented in Fig. S12, an excessive amount of LiNO₃ resulted in low initial capacity and rapid capacity fading, while insufficient LiNO3 showed a limited improvement in cycle life. Accordingly, the amount of LiNO3 for maintaining stable cycling behavior was optimized to 0.68 mg cm⁻². Fig. 7a and b shows the voltage profiles of the Li (20 µm)/NCM cells without and with the LNR at 0.33 C and 25 °C, respectively, and their cycling performances are compared in Fig. 7c. The cell without the LNR exhibits good capacity retention until the 142nd cycle but subsequently shows rapid capacity fading, with a decrease in coulombic efficiency, finally leading to the cell failure. In contrast, the Li/NCM cell with the LNR exhibits quite stable cycling behavior, with a high capacity retention of 85.2 % after 300 cycles. Hence, the continuous release of LiNO3 from the LNR enables the formation of a stable SEI layer on the Li metal anode, resulting in an improvement in the cycling stability of the Li/NCM cell. We calculated the energy densities of Li/NCM cells without and with LNR, as given in Table S2. Compared to the cell without LNR, the cell with LNR exhibited a 2.9 % reduction in gravimetric energy density and a 5.0 % loss in volumetric energy density. Although there is a slight loss in energy density, the Li/NCM cell with LNR exhibits a significant increase in cycle life. With respect to the compatibility with industrial calendaring process, the LNR layer prepared with electrospun PVdF-co-HFP exhibits excellent adhesion to the lithium electrode and superior flexibility, making it well-suited for industrial calendaring processes. Our results demonstrate the potential of the LNR system for use in enhancing the cycling performance of high-energy-density anode-free or Li metal

batteries.

4. Conclusions

In this study, we prepared an additive reservoir system to store and continuously release LiNO₃ using an electrospun PVDF-*co*-HFP membrane as the framework. Based on XPS and NMR spectroscopy, the continuous release of LiNO₃ from the LNR delayed its depletion within the electrolyte. This resulted in the formation of an inorganic-rich, stable SEI layer that suppressed the dendritic growth of Li and undesirable side reactions with the liquid electrolyte. As a result, the anode-free and Li (20 μ m)/LiNi_{0.8}Mn_{0.1}Co_{0.1}O₂ cells with the LNR exhibited superior cycling stabilities compared to those of the cells without the LNR. Hence, an additive reservoir system with the capacity to store and release LiNO₃, which is hardly soluble in the electrolyte, can effectively improve the cycle life of high-energy-density anode-free and Li metal batteries.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Myung-Keun Oh: Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Ji-Wan Kim:** Validation, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Hee-Su Kim:** Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Dong-Won Kim:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration.



Fig. 7. Voltage profiles of the Li/NCM cells (a) without and (b) with the LNR. (c) Cycling performance of the Li/NCM cells at 0.33 C and 25 °C.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpowsour.2025.237011.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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M.-K. Oh et al.

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