

# Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl Crystalline Electrolyte for Stable Metallic Lithium Anodes

Zachary D. Hood,<sup>†,‡,||</sup> Hui Wang,<sup>†,||</sup> Amaresh Samuthira Pandian,<sup>†</sup> Jong Kahk Keum,<sup>†,§</sup>  
and Chengdu Liang<sup>\*,†</sup>

<sup>†</sup>Center for Nanophase Materials Science and <sup>§</sup>Chemical and Engineering Materials Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, Tennessee 37831, United States

<sup>‡</sup>School of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia 30332, United States

## Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** In a classic example of stability from instability, we show that Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl solid electrolyte forms a stable solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) layer with a metallic lithium anode. The Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl solid electrolyte can be readily achieved through simple mixing of LiOH and LiCl precursors at a mild processing temperature <400 °C. Additionally, we show that continuous, dense Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl membranes can be fabricated at temperatures <400 °C, standing in great contrast to current processing temperatures of >1600 °C for most oxide-based solid electrolytes. The ionic conductivity and Arrhenius activation energy were explored for the LiOH–LiCl system of crystalline solid electrolytes, where Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl with increased crystal defects was found to have the highest ionic conductivity and reasonable Arrhenius activation energy. The Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl solid electrolyte displays stability against metallic lithium, even in extreme conditions past the melting point of lithium metal. To understand this excellent stability, we show that SEI formation is critical in stabilizing the interface between metallic lithium and the Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl solid electrolyte.

Advances in lithium-ion batteries within the past decade have allowed for spectacular improvements for portable computing, telecommunications, and other devices necessary for our information-rich society. These advances have also pushed our understanding of battery technology and, more specifically, the interaction between the different components within a typical battery cell. These interactions include the formation of the solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) layer between the lithium anode and the electrolyte.<sup>1–3</sup> Recently, there had been an increased interest in solid electrolytes, since solid electrolytes impede the formation of dendrites at the SEI and, consequently, allow for the fabrication of safer and longer-lasting batteries that can function at higher voltages.<sup>3–6</sup> Although various solid electrolytes show great stability with lithium anodes at higher working voltages,<sup>7–9</sup> current solid electrolytes have a number of key limitations: (1) it is difficult to synthesize and process large membranes consisting of oxides and phosphates; (2) sulfide-based solid electrolytes are air-sensitive; and (3) most oxide-based solid electrolytes are not compatible with metallic lithium anode.

The ideal anode for solid-state Li-ion batteries is metallic lithium because of its increased energy density.<sup>10</sup> Thus, efforts

have moved to the development of solid electrolytes that show stability against metallic lithium to attain increased energy density.<sup>7,8,11</sup> Some sulfide-based solid electrolytes, such as Li<sub>10</sub>GeP<sub>2</sub>S<sub>12</sub>, do not show stability against metallic lithium metal, which compromises the total specific energy density of the battery.<sup>12</sup> Li<sub>7</sub>La<sub>3</sub>Zr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>12</sub> (LLZO) represents the only oxide-based solid electrolyte that shows stability with metallic lithium anode; however, this electrolyte displays very high interfacial resistance and requires high processing temperatures, making its implementation into solid-state batteries difficult.<sup>13</sup>

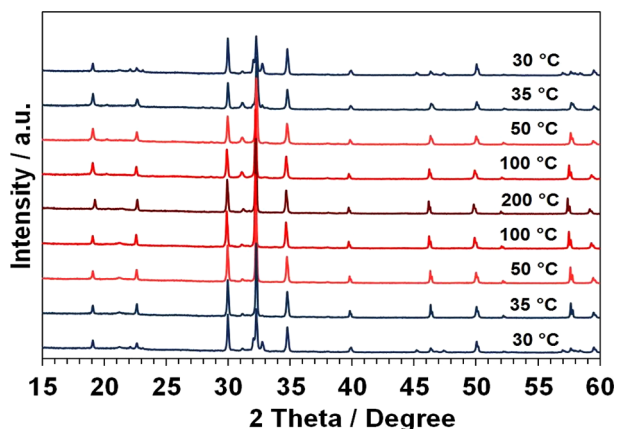
LiOH–LiCl electrolytes were previously explored for their increased lithium ion conductivity (10<sup>−4</sup>–10<sup>−3</sup> S cm<sup>−1</sup> at 200 °C) and high thermodynamic decomposition voltages.<sup>14–17</sup> However, it was reported that LiOH–LiCl crystalline electrolytes are not stable with metallic lithium, where an apparent interfacial reaction occurs between the metallic lithium and electrolyte;<sup>15</sup> this interfacial reaction was not explored further. For batteries that have increased energy density, metallic lithium anode allows for a much higher capacity; however, to achieve increased energy density, the components within the cell must work in harmony, with decreased interfacial resistance and stable SEI formation. *Is it possible to have stability between a Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl crystalline electrolyte and a molten lithium anode?* Herein, we revisit the LiOH–LiCl system to overcome the limitations of solid electrolytes. We report the mild temperature processability, ionic conductivity, Arrhenius activation energy, and metallic lithium anode compatibility of LiOH–LiCl solid electrolytes, even in extreme temperatures. In a classic example of stability from instability, we show that that Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl forms a stable SEI with a metallic lithium anode and has the remarkable ability to cycle hundreds of times.

**Straightforward Preparation of LiOH–LiCl Melt Yields Two Distinct Structures of LiOH–LiCl Crystalline Electrolytes.** LiOH–LiCl solid electrolytes were prepared in a nickel crucible using methodology similar to that in previous literature.<sup>14,17,18</sup> Since LiOH, LiCl, and the LiOH–LiCl solid electrolytes are hygroscopic, all processes were completed under argon. LiOH (Sigma-Aldrich, ≥99%) and LiCl (Sigma-Aldrich, ≥99%) were used to create melts with the following ratios of LiOH to LiCl: 1:2, 2:3, 1:1, 3:2, and 2:1; these are referred to as Li<sub>3</sub>OHCl<sub>2</sub>, Li<sub>5</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>3</sub>, Li<sub>2</sub>OHCl, Li<sub>5</sub>(OH)<sub>3</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>, and Li<sub>3</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>Cl, respectively. When using the same molar ratio, two distinct phases of the material may be achieved by changing the cooling treatment (Figure S1). The controlled cooling from

Received: November 12, 2015

Published: January 22, 2016

350 to 250 °C at 8 °C/h yields an anti-perovskite structure (termed “slow-cooled”), while fast cooling from  $\geq 350$  °C to room temperature in  $\sim 20$  min (termed “fast-cooled”) gives a more complex crystal structure with increased defects due to the overcooling effect. All compounds were found to undergo a phase transition between 30 and 50 °C. This phase transition was found to significantly increase the ionic conductivity in all compounds.<sup>19</sup> Fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  serves as a model example for this system, where the phase transition occurs reversibly, which is characterized by *in situ* powder X-ray diffraction (XRD), as shown in Figure 1. Several peaks in the XRD pattern for

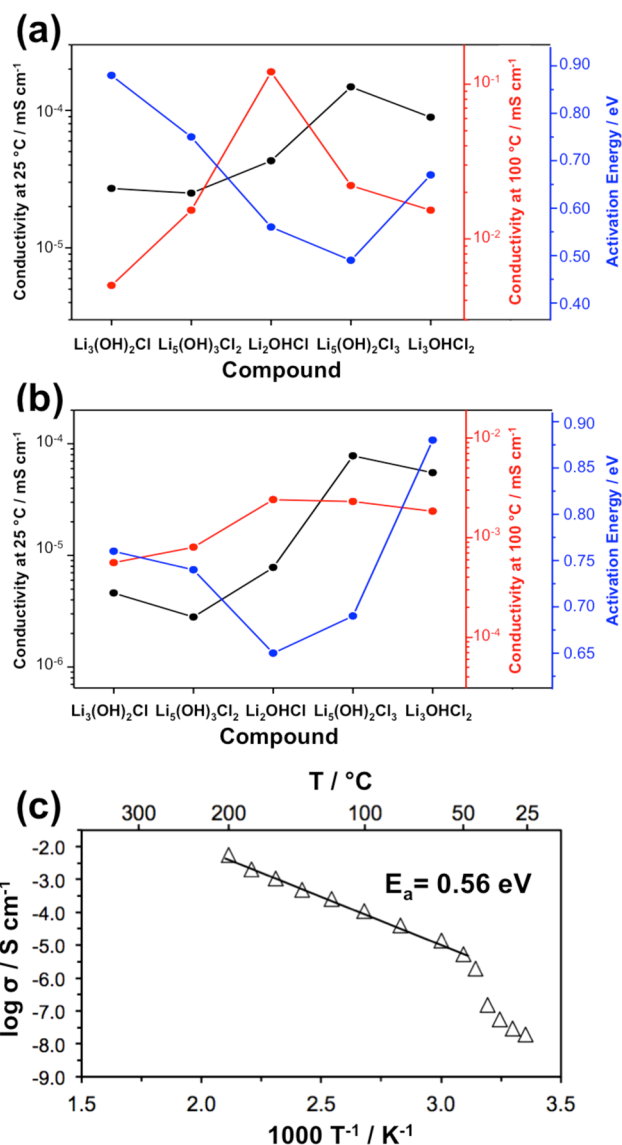


**Figure 1.** XRD patterns for the as-prepared, fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  crystalline electrolyte from 30 to 200 °C, showing a clear phase transition from 30 to 50 °C. The blue lines correspond to the low-temperature  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  phase, whereas the red lines correspond to the high-temperature  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  phase. XRD confirms this phase transition is reversible.

$\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  are characteristic of this phase transition. Peaks at 22.0°, 23.0°, 32.0°, and 32.7°  $2\theta$  disappear when the electrolyte is heated from 30 to 50 °C, while the peaks at 22.5°, 32.3°, 46.4°, 57.6°, and 57.7°  $2\theta$  become more pronounced during this heating process. As shown, fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  undergoes a phase change from orthorhombic to cubic at 35 °C.<sup>17</sup> Upon cooling the solid electrolyte from 50 to 30 °C, the peaks return to the same position as in the parent electrolyte, supporting that this phase transition is, in fact, reversible.

**$\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  from Fast Cooling Shows Enhanced Ionic Conductivity and Lower Activation Energy at Increased Temperatures.** The ionic conductivity and Arrhenius activation energy were measured for each  $\text{LiOH-LiCl}$  compound. The crystalline electrolytes were cold-pressed in a specialized pressurized cell with Al/C blocking electrodes at 300 MPa, and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were collected between 1 MHz and 1 Hz with amplitude of 100 mV. When cold-pressed,  $\text{LiOH-LiCl}$  electrolytes form dense pellets free of fractures. Because  $\text{LiOH-LiCl}$  crystalline electrolytes exhibit a phase transition between 30 and 50 °C, the Arrhenius activation energy was calculated for temperatures  $\geq 50$  °C. Representative EIS measurements are shown for fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  in Figure S2.

When comparing the resulting crystalline electrolytes from the fast cooling and slow cooling procedures, the ionic conductivities of the electrolytes at 25 °C share a similar trend. At 25 °C, fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_5(\text{OH})_2\text{Cl}_3$  yields the best ionic conductivity of  $1.48 \times 10^{-7} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$  (Figure 2). When heated to 100 °C, the electrolytes from the fast cooling method maintain ionic conductivities nearly



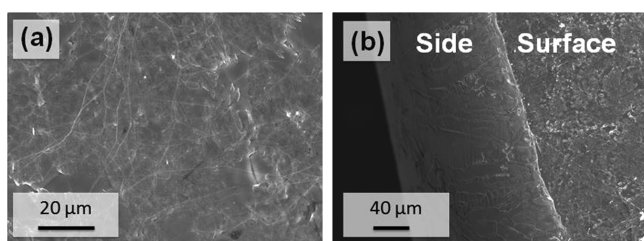
**Figure 2.** Ionic conductivity at 25 °C (black line) and 100 °C (red line), and Arrhenius activation energy after the phase transition (blue line) for  $\text{LiOH-LiCl}$  crystalline electrolytes from (a) the fast cooling procedure and (b) the slow cooling procedure. (c) Arrhenius plot for fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$ , which exhibits the highest ionic conductivity at 100 °C and maintains a reasonable Arrhenius activation energy of 0.56 eV.

1 order of magnitude higher than those from the slow cooling procedure. This enhancement in ionic conductivity from fast cooling is attributed to an increase of defects in the crystal lattice. Defects have previously been shown to enhance the ionic conductivity in crystalline electrolytes by creating an increased concentration of vacancies and interstitial spaces, and for the case of  $\text{LiOH-LiCl}$  crystalline electrolytes, creating defects through the utilization of the overcooling effect significantly improves the ionic conductivity at increased temperatures.<sup>14,15,17</sup>

An equivalent stoichiometric ratio of  $\text{LiOH}$  and  $\text{LiCl}$  allows the ionic conductivity to reach a maximum at 100 °C for electrolytes from both the slow cooling and fast cooling methods. An excess of either hydroxide or chloride character yields an unfavorable charge carrier distribution after the crystalline electrolytes undergo the phase transition at increased temperatures.<sup>20,21</sup> Additionally, the Arrhenius activation energy reaches a minimum ( $< 0.60$  eV) for  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  and  $\text{Li}_5(\text{OH})_2\text{Cl}_3$  from the

fast cooling method, making these electrolytes more favorable for solid-state battery applications. Fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  has the highest ionic conductivity at increased temperatures and Arrhenius activation energy of 0.56 eV, rendering this electrolyte of interest for further exploration.

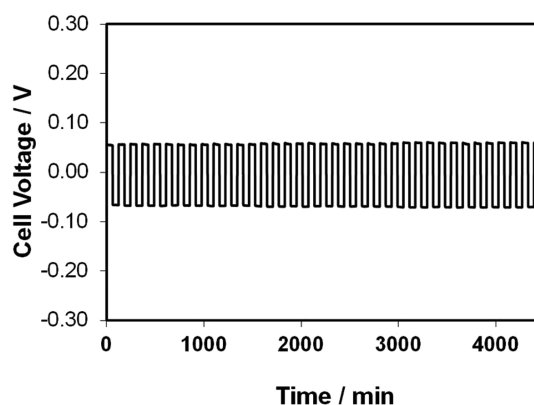
**Melt-Casting  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  Yields Continuous, Dense Membranes.** A critical limitation of most oxide-based solid electrolytes lies in the fact that it is hard to process continuous, dense membranes at decreased temperatures. In fact, most oxide-based solid electrolytes require processing temperatures  $>1600$  °C to form dense membranes for solid-state battery applications.  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  can be processed into continuous, dense membranes at much milder temperatures  $<400$  °C. To fabricate these membranes, the molten  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  mixture was poured into a Teflon cast (Figure S3), and the melt was pressed slightly with a Teflon plunger ( $<1$  MPa); the resulting membranes were dense and free of pores and cracks (Figure 3). When no pressure is



**Figure 3.** SEM images of (a) the surface and (b) a side view (tilt angle: 45°) of the pressed Teflon-cast  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  electrolyte, which yields continuous, dense membranes.

applied to  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  upon cooling in the Teflon mold, cracks and voids appear in the solid electrolyte membrane (Figure S4), which justifies the use of a Teflon plunger. Melt-casting at a mild temperature demonstrates that  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  is a promising candidate for large-scale production of continuous, dense electrolyte membranes.

**$\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  Shows Superior Performance against Molten Lithium Anode.** To demonstrate the performance and long-term compatibility of fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  against molten lithium anode,  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}/\text{Li}$  symmetric cells were fabricated.<sup>22</sup> These cells were assembled by pressing a 1/2 in. pellet of highly ionic-conducting ball-milled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  at 300 MPa inside a specialized cell developed by our group.<sup>9</sup> For the purpose of assessing the compatibility of  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  with molten lithium anode, cold pressing allows the solid electrolyte to form a continuous network with the body of the specialized cell. Additionally, at high pressures,  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  maintains good compactness ( $>90\%$  of the theoretical density). Then, metallic lithium foil ( $\leq 15$  mg, 12 mm in diameter and thickness of  $\sim 100$   $\mu\text{m}$ ) was deposited with carbon mesh on each side of the pellet. A spring fixated within the cell ensured good contact between the lithium and solid electrolyte.  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  solid electrolyte shows stability with metallic lithium, even at temperatures above the melting point of lithium metal. Upon heating the cells to 195 °C, the electrolyte shows great cyclability with molten lithium anode. Figure 4 demonstrates favorable lithium exchange for 4500 min with an ideal cell voltage retention of 0.06 V (cycling data for 14 000 min and at different current densities are provided in Figures S5 and S6). Typically, solid electrolytes require relatively smaller current densities (0.01–0.2 mA) when cycled with metallic lithium, but for the molten phase, the Li anode allows for

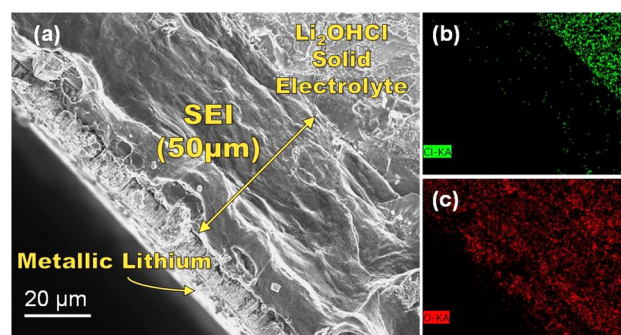


**Figure 4.** Molten lithium cyclability in a symmetric  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}/\text{Li}$  cell with a current density of  $1.0 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  at 195 °C, demonstrating stability between the molten lithium anode and the crystalline electrolyte.

a larger current density (1.0 mA), which allows for faster charging kinetics.

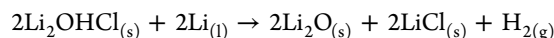
This cycling performance is attributed to the formation of a stable SEI. The direct-current (dc) conductivity from polarization is  $1.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ , which holds a good correlation with the alternating-current (ac) conductivity of  $2.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ , for fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  at 195 °C. The differences in the dc and ac cell conductivity results relate to SEI formation and the different electrodes utilized for each measurement. Negligible interfacial resistance was observed when the  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  crystalline electrolyte was cycled with molten lithium anode for  $>400$  cycles, even after SEI formation.

To further demonstrate the stability of  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  with molten lithium anode after SEI formation, SEM images with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) of symmetric cells were collected; this method was previously shown as a powerful tool to visualize interfaces in batteries.<sup>6,23–26</sup> A cross section of the  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}/\text{Li}$  symmetric cell cycled at 195 °C for 160 cycles shows a clear SEI formation (Figure 5). The SEI has a higher



**Figure 5.** SEM image of  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}/\text{Li}$  symmetric cell after 160 charge/discharge cycles showing (a) the cross section of the SEI with correlating EDX mapping of (b) chlorine in green and (c) oxygen in red. The SEI layer is uniform and measures 50  $\mu\text{m}$  in thickness.

concentration of oxygen determined by EDX, and the thickness of this layer is 50  $\mu\text{m}$  across the interface, which supports the interfacial reaction between molten lithium and  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  to form  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{LiCl}$ , and the gaseous byproduct  $\text{H}_2$  shown below:



$\text{LiCl}$  remains closer to the  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  solid electrolyte, while  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  is in higher concentration closer to the lithium anode and

constitutes the bulk of the SEI, forming an interconnected network that protects the crystalline  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  from further reactions with molten lithium anode.  $\text{H}_2$  is suspected to evolve from the interface and does not contribute to the formation of pores or cracks in the SEI nor solid electrolyte. SEM images with EDX mapping of the surface layers in  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}/\text{Li}$  symmetric cells support SEI formation primarily constituting  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  (Figure S7). This SEI is believed to contain unreacted lithium metal, as the interfacial reaction between the molten lithium and  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  is self-limiting. Simultaneously, the SEI allows the molten lithium anode to cycle hundreds of times with crystalline  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  solid electrolyte. Still, this result raises the question: *To what extent does this SEI form?*

The formation kinetics of the SEI layer were determined by constructing similar symmetric cells with the same amount of lithium anode, charged/discharged for 40 cycles, and subsequently disassembled to measure the thickness of the SEI. After 40 cycles, the cells have the same SEI thickness as the cells cycled 160 times (Figure S8). The SEI layer is dense and free from pores and cracks after both 40 and 160 cycles, supporting the fact that the interfacial reaction between the  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  solid electrolyte and the molten lithium anode occurs rapidly, which matches the criteria for an ideal SEI.<sup>27</sup> Since the thickness of the SEI layer does not significantly increase from cycle 40 to 160 for the symmetric cells, the interfacial reaction is believed to be self-limiting, which allows for symmetric cells of  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}/\text{Li}$  to cycle repeatedly and maintain a lower interfacial resistance.

To summarize, we explored the  $\text{LiOH}-\text{LiCl}$  system to overcome the limitations of solid electrolytes. We found that fast-cooled  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  has a number of excellent properties for solid-state batteries plus an extremely stable interface with metallic lithium anode through self-limiting interfacial reactions. Cold-pressed  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  from fast cooling exhibited the highest ionic conductivity and practical Arrhenius activation energy at increased temperatures.  $\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}$  shows compatibility with metallic lithium, even in extreme temperatures.  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}_2\text{OHCl}/\text{Li}$  cells cycled at 195 °C show stability between the solid electrolyte and molten lithium anode upon SEI formation, where the electrolyte and lithium show little interfacial resistance and can cycle hundreds of times. The SEI was found to have a higher concentration of oxygen, supporting the formation of a lithium oxide layer, which stabilizes the molten lithium anode with the solid electrolyte without adversely compromising the ionic conductivity. This finding opens ample opportunities for advancements in batteries that employ metallic lithium anode.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### 📄 Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/jacs.5b11851.

Experimental methods, materials characterization using XRD, SEM, and EDX, and related discussion, including Figures S1–S8 (PDF)

## ■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

### Corresponding Author

\*cd\_liang@hotmail.com

### Author Contributions

<sup>||</sup>Z.D.H. and H.W. contributed equally to this publication.

### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

## ■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was sponsored by the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE), Office of Science, Basic Energy Sciences, Materials Sciences and Engineering Division. The synthesis and characterization was completed at the Center for Nanophase Materials Science, which is a DOE Office of Science User Facility. Z.D.H. was supported by Higher Education Research Experiences (HERE) at Oak Ridge National Laboratory. Also, Z.D.H. gratefully acknowledges support from the National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship under Grant No. DGE-1148903 and the Georgia Tech-ORNL Fellowship.

## ■ REFERENCES

- (1) Peled, E. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **1979**, *126*, 2047.
- (2) Peled, E. *J. Power Sources* **1983**, *9*, 253.
- (3) Winter, M. *Z. Phys. Chem.* **2009**, *223*, 1395.
- (4) Li, J.; Baggetto, L.; Martha, S. K.; Veith, G. M.; Nanda, J.; Liang, C.; Dudney, N. *J. Adv. Energy Mater.* **2013**, *3*, 1275.
- (5) Li, J.; Dudney, N. J.; Nanda, J.; Liang, C. *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* **2014**, *6*, 10083.
- (6) Unemoto, A.; Ikeshoji, T.; Yasaku, S.; Matsuo, M.; Stavila, V.; Udovic, T. J.; Orimo, S.-I. *Chem. Mater.* **2015**, *119*, 13459.
- (7) Rangasamy, E.; Liu, Z.; Gobet, M.; Pilar, K.; Sahu, G.; Zhou, W.; Wu, H.; Greenbaum, S.; Liang, C. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2015**, *137*, 1384.
- (8) Liu, Z.; Fu, W.; Payzant, E. A.; Yu, X.; Wu, Z.; Dudney, N. J.; Kiggans, J.; Hong, K.; Rondinone, A. J.; Liang, C. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2013**, *135*, 975.
- (9) Wang, H.; Ma, C.; Chi, M.; Liang, C. *Adv. Mater. Interfaces* **2015**, DOI: 10.1002/admi.201500268.
- (10) Zu, C.-X.; Li, H. *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2011**, *4*, 2614.
- (11) Li, J.; Ma, C.; Chi, M.; Liang, C.; Dudney, N. *J. Adv. Energy Mater.* **2015**, *5*, 1401408.
- (12) Kamaya, N.; Homma, K.; Yamakawa, Y.; Hirayama, M.; Kanno, R.; Yonemura, M.; Kamiyama, T.; Kato, Y.; Hama, S.; Kawamoto, K. *Nat. Mater.* **2011**, *10*, 682.
- (13) Wolfenstine, J.; Allen, J.; Read, J.; Sakamoto, J. *J. Mater. Sci.* **2013**, *48*, 5846.
- (14) Hartwig, P.; Rabenau, A.; Weppner, W. *J. Less-Common Met.* **1981**, *78*, 227.
- (15) Hartwig, P.; Weppner, W. *Solid State Ionics* **1981**, *3*, 249.
- (16) Zhao, Y.; Daemen, L. L. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2012**, *134*, 15042.
- (17) Schwering, G.; Hönnerscheid, A.; van Wüllen, L.; Jansen, M. *ChemPhysChem* **2003**, *4*, 343.
- (18) Friese, K.; Hönnerscheid, A.; Jansen, M. *Z. Kristallogr. - Cryst. Mater.* **2003**, *218*, 536.
- (19) Eilbracht, C.; Kockelmann, W.; Hohlwein, D.; Jacobs, H. *Phys. B* **1997**, *234*, 48.
- (20) Maier, J.; Münch, W. *Z. Anorg. Allg. Chem.* **2000**, *626*, 264.
- (21) Braga, M. H.; Stockhausen, V.; Oliveira, J. C.; Ferreira, J. A. *MRS Online Proc. Libr.* **2013**, *1526*, mrsf12.
- (22) Burns, J.; Krause, L.; Le, D.-B.; Jensen, L.; Smith, A.; Xiong, D.; Dahn, J. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **2011**, *158*, A1417.
- (23) Unemoto, A.; Chen, C.; Wang, Z.; Matsuo, M.; Ikeshoji, T.; Orimo, S.-i. *Nanotechnology* **2015**, *26*, 254001.
- (24) Kotobuki, M.; Suzuki, Y.; Munakata, H.; Kanamura, K.; Sato, Y.; Yamamoto, K.; Yoshida, T. *Electrochim. Acta* **2011**, *56*, 1023.
- (25) Ota, H.; Sato, T.; Suzuki, H.; Usami, T. *J. Power Sources* **2001**, *97*, 107.
- (26) Lu, P.; Li, C.; Schneider, E. W.; Harris, S. J. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2014**, *118*, 896.
- (27) Verma, P.; Maire, P.; Novák, P. *Electrochim. Acta* **2010**, *55*, 6332.

## ■ NOTE ADDED AFTER ASAP PUBLICATION

The uncorrected version of this paper posted ASAP on January 27, 2016; the corrected version reposted on February 2, 2016.