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## Visualizing percolation and ion transport in hybrid solid electrolytes for Li–metal batteries†

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Hybrid solid electrolytes are composed of organic (polymer) and inorganic (ceramic) ion conducting materials, and are promising options for large-scale production of solid state lithium–metal batteries. Hybrid solid electrolytes containing 15 vol% Al-LLZO demonstrate optimal ionic conductivity properties. Ionic conductivity is shown to decrease at high inorganic loadings. This optimum is most obvious above the melting temperature of polyethylene oxide where the polymer is amorphous. Structural analysis using synchrotron nanotomography reveals that the inorganic particles are highly aggregated. The aggregation size grows with inorganic content and the largest percolating clusters measured for 5 vol%, 15 vol% and 50 vol% were  $\sim 12 \mu\text{m}^3$ ,  $206 \mu\text{m}^3$ , and  $324 \mu\text{m}^3$ , respectively. Enhanced transport in hybrid electrolytes is shown to be due to polymer|particle (Al-LLZO) interactions and ionic conductivity is directly related to the accessible surface area of the inorganic particles within the electrolyte. Ordered and well-dispersed structures are ideal for next generation hybrid solid electrolytes.

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## 1. Introduction

Solid state electrolytes that can suppress lithium dendrite growth are potential candidates for energy dense metallic lithium batteries.<sup>1–3</sup> Currently, there are several solid electrolytes that exist and broadly fall into two material categories: (1) organic and (2) inorganic. Polymer electrolytes are advantageous because they can be manufactured easily into thin films, are mechanically robust, and flexible.<sup>4,5</sup> However, polymer electrolytes have lower ionic conductivities when compared with their ceramic counterpart. Ceramic conductors boast outstanding ionic conductivities ( $\geq 10 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$ ) but processing the electrolyte into thin films (50–100  $\mu\text{m}$ ) for efficient device integration still remains a challenge because of the brittle nature of the ceramic.<sup>6</sup> A hybrid approach which combines a polymer and ceramic into a composite electrolyte is one potential route toward achieving both efficient transport and processability in all solid state batteries.<sup>7–10</sup>

A hybrid or composite solid electrolyte is composed of an ion conducting organic polymer and an inorganic material (*i.e.*

$\text{SiO}_2$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , *etc.*). The addition of an ‘inactive’ inorganic (composite)<sup>7,11</sup> or ion conducting glass/ceramic (hybrid)<sup>12</sup> increases the electrolyte’s elastic modulus and critical current density.<sup>13–15</sup> The role of the inorganic constituent on ionic transport is unresolved in hybrid electrolytes. Some reports suggest that the addition of an ‘inactive’ ceramic can increase the ionic conductivity of the electrolyte by four orders of magnitude.<sup>7,11</sup> However, in water-free environments, and with different inorganic materials, this improvement is less obvious<sup>16</sup> and can even decrease<sup>17–19</sup> with increasing inorganic loading.

Prior reports suggest that the nature of lithium transport in composite systems is fundamentally related to constituent interactions (*i.e.* polymer|ceramic).<sup>7,8,10,20</sup> In composite electrolytes with inert fillers, the nature of surface interactions and confinement can dictate transport.<sup>21,22</sup> Inorganic compounds that are acidic or neutral are more likely to form hydrogen bonding with the salt anions and the oxygen in the polyethylene oxide. This bonding, can potentially promote efficient salt dissociation and faster  $\text{Li}^+$  ion transport.<sup>7</sup> Furthermore, the addition of an inert filler can control the crystallization kinetics of polyethylene oxide and enable a greater concentrations of highly conducting amorphous domains.<sup>20</sup> However, if the polymer (ion conducting phase) is diluted too much with fillers (non ion conducting phase), these positive impacts are negated. At high filler content the dilution effect predominates and the ionic conductivity decreases. Thus, in composite electrolytes, optimal filler concentration between 8–20 vol% are reported.<sup>7,20</sup>

While dilution theory explains the decrease in ionic conductivity at high filler loadings in composite electrolytes, it

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cannot completely explain the same trend observed in hybrid electrolytes. The fillers in hybrid electrolytes are active (*i.e.* ion conducting) and thus there should not be a decrease in ionic conductivity at high loadings. Furthermore, the inorganic ion conductor typically has a higher ionic conductivity than the polymer electrolyte (especially at low temperatures) and thus it is counterintuitive that more inorganic ion conductors would lead to decreased transport properties. The decrease in ionic conductivity at high inorganic content loading (>30 vol%) is often attributed to a formed interfacial resistance ( $R_{\text{int}}$ ) at the polymer|ceramic interface<sup>10,19,23</sup> which prevents transport between the two materials. Many reports suggest that this interfacial region is the dominant path for ion transport in a hybrid electrolyte due to the formation of a space charge layer.<sup>24</sup> Prior reports have used indirect techniques such as NMR, modeling, and electrochemical techniques to probe the origin of this surface-driven transport mechanism.<sup>25,26</sup> Herein, we intend to directly evaluate this hypothesis *via* a detailed nano-structural analysis of hybrid solid electrolytes. Ultimately, the underlying structure of the inorganic phase within the polymer matrix is shown to be a significant descriptor for transport properties.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1 Solid electrolyte synthesis, processing and characterization

Lithium lanthanum zirconium oxide ( $\text{Li}_{7.5}\text{La}_3\text{Zr}_2\text{Al}_{0.25}\text{O}_{12}$ ) or Al-LLZO was synthesized using a conventional solid-state approach. Stoichiometric ratio of LiOH (pre-dried at 200 °C under vacuum for 6 hours),  $\text{La}_2\text{O}_3$  (pre-dried at 1200 °C for 12 hours),  $\text{ZrO}_2$ , and  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  was dispersed in isopropanol and ball milled in a planetary ball mill (Fritsch, Pulverisette 7 premium line) at 500 rpm (4 hours). Milling cycles included 5 minutes of milling and 15 minutes of rest. Powders were calcined in alumina boat at 900 °C for 10 hours. A second ball mill step (500 rpm) for 2 hours was carried out for size reduction. A series hybrid electrolytes were prepared *via* adding Al-LLZO (5–50 vol%) to a solution of polyethylene oxide (PEO) and lithium perchlorate ( $\text{LiClO}_4$ ) in acetonitrile. The molar ratio of ethylene oxide (EO) and  $\text{Li}^+$  was 18 : 1. The composite ink was ball milled for an hour to ensure effective mixing and further processed *via* tape-casting to produce free-standing films. After drying under vacuum for 10 hours, the films were peeled off from the substrate. Films had an average thickness around 60–70  $\mu\text{m}$ . Electrolytes contained 5 vol% (16.6 wt%), 10 vol% (29.6 wt%), 15 vol% (40.1 wt%), 25 vol% (55.9 wt%), or 50 vol% (79.1 wt%) of Al-LLZO. The LLZO : PEO- $\text{LiClO}_4$  composition was calculated assuming the density of PEO,  $\text{LiClO}_4$  and LLZO were 1.21  $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ , 2.42  $\text{g cm}^{-3}$  and 5.2  $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ , respectively.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) on neat LLZO and PEO-LLZO electrolytes was carried on by using Rigaku Smart Lab (Cu  $\text{K}\alpha$  X-ray). The diffraction patterns were taken from 10–60° with a step size of 0.01° (Fig. S1a†). Thermal stability of the electrolytes was analyzed by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) on Instrument Specialist's TGA-1000. Thermal degradation of the materials

was carried out from 25° to 900 °C at 20 °C heating rate (Fig. S1b†).

### 2.2 Synchrotron nanotomography

The synchrotron X-ray nanotomography was carried out at beamline 32-ID-C of Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory.<sup>27</sup> Filtered monochromatic X-rays at 8 keV were used for imaging. The X-ray beam was focused on the sample using a pinhole and condenser upstream of the sample. X-rays transmitted through the sample are focused on the detector through a Fresnel zone plate and phase ring (Fig. S2†). A 2448  $\times$  2048 pixel area detector was used that provided a field of view of 73.2  $\times$  61.2  $\mu\text{m}$  and a resolution of 50 nm was obtained after binning. A small triangular piece was cut off from the membrane and glued on the tip of a metal pin with epoxy. The protruding tip of the sample was imaged. All samples were exposed to X-rays for one hour prior to imaging to stabilize the polymer and ceramic phases. 1201 projections were collected over 180° rotation of the sample with an exposure time of 300 ms. The total run time for a single tomography scan was  $\approx$  6 minutes. Simultaneous Iterative Reconstruction Technique (SIRT) algorithm within the ASTRA toolbox was used for reconstructing the tomography data.<sup>28–30</sup> 200 iterations of the algorithm was found to produce the best quality images and was used for all reconstructions.<sup>47</sup> Subsequent image processing and segmentation routines were carried out in ImageJ.<sup>31</sup>

### 2.3 Transport measurements

Total  $\text{Li}^+$  ion transference number of PEO-LLZO membranes was carried out by using AC impedance and DC polarization method. After assembling the membranes in symmetric  $\text{Li}|\text{PEO-LLZO}|\text{Li}$  cells, a stepped voltage of 10 mV was applied and the current was recorded as a function of time. The cells were thermally treated from 20 °C to 90 °C three times for a time period of 45 minutes before proceeding with the electrochemical analysis. Transference number  $t_{\text{Li}^+}$  was calculated as:

$$t_{\text{Li}^+} = \frac{I_s(V - I_0 R_0)}{I_0(V - I_s R_s)}, \quad (1)$$

where  $V$  is the applied voltage,  $I_0$  is the initial current at the beginning of the chronoamperometry step and  $I_s$  is the steady state current.  $R_0$  and  $R_s$  are the initial and steady state resistances extracted from electrochemical impedance spectroscopy. Ionic conductivity was measured *via* directly casting the electrolyte on to copper foil blocking electrodes. All samples were hot pressed at 50 °C for an hour prior to the measurement. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (1 MHz and 100 mHz) was run on the samples for operating temperatures between 25 °C to 70 °C. Activation energy was calculated using the Arrhenius equation.

## 3. Model descriptions

A continuum percolation model was built to predict structure driven properties in hybrid solid electrolytes.<sup>32,33</sup> This model is based on the heterogeneous distribution of inert fillers

dispersed within a matrix where three components are present with different conductivity; insulating fillers, normally conducting dispersing medium and a highly conducting interface region. Al-LLZO has an order of magnitude higher ionic conductivity compared to the polymer matrix. However, the hybrid electrolytes do not exhibit conductivities similar to that of the ceramic particles even at very high loadings. Furthermore, the optimum value of solid loading is found at 15 vol% which is relatively very small mass fraction of the system. Thus, an assumption of non-conducting filler particles has been made for the purpose of model development. The interfacial layer thickness and conductivity depends on particle size and volumetric loading.<sup>34</sup> The conductivity calculation is based on effective medium approximation (EMA), which gives a better accuracy in 3-dimensional cases like this. Here, a spherical random void model of dispersion is considered. The domain is a polymer matrix surrounding ion conducting particles with radius  $R$ . The three well-defined regions are: (1) the ceramic particle  $\sigma_{np}$ , (2) the bulk polymer  $\sigma_p$ , and (3) the interfacial layer  $\sigma_i$ . The interfacial layers is typically  $2-3 \times$  the diameter of the particle and is represented by a thickness of  $\lambda$  (nm) in the proposed model. Considering an insulator-interphase model, we assume the grain boundary resistances are large, and thus ion conduction does not occur through the inorganic particle (*i.e.*  $\sigma_{np} = 0$ ) and that the interphase region is comparable to the size of the inorganic particles (*i.e.* 200 nm). The ratio between the inorganic particle and interfacial layer to the inorganic layer is:

$$\eta = \frac{R + \lambda}{R}$$

and the volume of the inorganic particles in a hybrid electrolyte is  $p$ :

$$V_{np} = p \quad (2)$$

The volumetric distribution of the polymer ( $V_p$ ) and interphase region ( $V_i$ ) can calculated by:

$$V_p = (1 - p)^{\eta d}$$

$$V_i = 1 - p - (1 - p)^{\eta d}$$

where  $d$  represents the model dimensions ( $d = 3$ ). The overall ionic conductivity for the hybrid electrolyte can be calculated:

$$\sigma = \frac{\sigma_p \left[ -A + \sqrt{A^2 + 2\tau(z - 2 - zV_{np})} \right]}{z - 2} \quad (3)$$

where,

$$A = \left[ 1 - \frac{zV_p}{2} \right] + \tau \left[ 1 - \frac{zV_i}{2} \right] \quad (4)$$

and

$$\tau = \frac{\sigma_i}{\sigma_p}$$

where  $\sigma_p$  is the ionic conductivity of the organic phase taken as  $2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$  and  $\sigma_i$  is the ionic conductivity of the

interphase region taken as  $1.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ . Here,  $z$  is the coordination number (55) which is approximated from the percolation threshold  $p_c = (z - 2)/z$  which is assumed to be 0.96 for nano Al-LLZO.

## 4. Results and discussion

### 4.1 Transport properties

There are two percolation thresholds that exist in hybrid solid electrolytes: (1) long-range connectivity of inorganic particles (contact mode) (Fig. 1a), and long-range connectivity of an interfacial layer (Fig. 1b). The interfacial region describes the material properties of the polymer in direct contact with the inorganic particle (Al-LLZO). At the interface, a range of properties can be observed depending on chain orientation and confinement effects.<sup>35,36</sup> Thus, this layer displays properties that

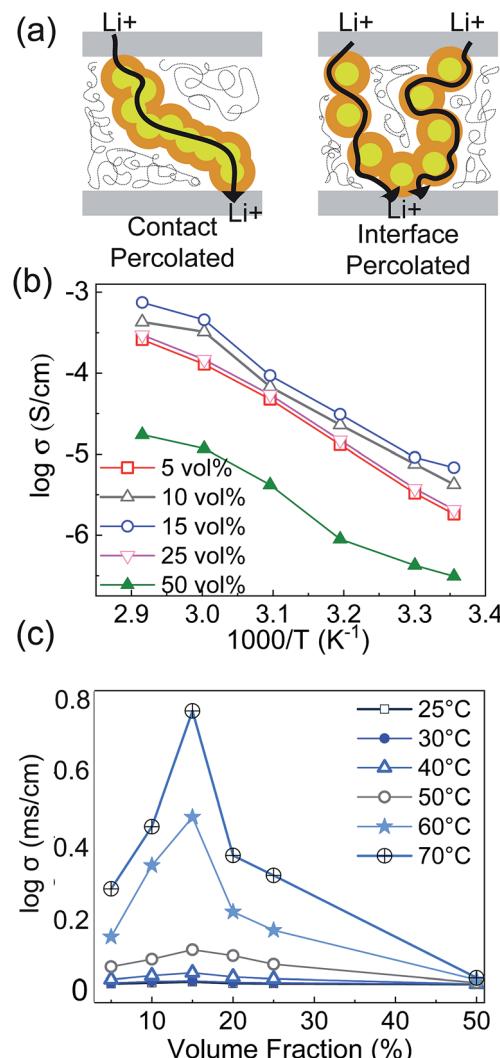


Fig. 1 Schematic of percolation regimes that exist in hybrid electrolytes (a) and ionic conductivity measurements for hybrid electrolytes with varying concentrations of inorganic (LLZO) fillers (b). Ionic conductivity represented as a function of volume fraction to highlight temperature dependent optimum (c).

are neither characteristic of the bulk polymer nor the bulk inorganic particle. This region is estimated to extend 2–3× beyond the diameter of the inorganic particle.<sup>37,38</sup> Contact percolation occurs at high loadings of 33 vol% (ceramic : polymer) and the interfacial percolation can occur at ≈4 vol% (ceramic : polymer). However, these loadings are under the assumption that the particles are uniformly distributed with little or no agglomeration in the polymer matrix (*i.e.* electrolyte). Theoretically, if the highly conducting LLZO phase was fully percolated, lithium would transport through the inorganic material. However, in practice this does not occur and an order of magnitude decrease in ionic conductivity is observed when the inorganic content increases from 25 vol% (around percolation) to 50 vol% (above percolation) across all temperatures (25–70 °C) (Fig. 1b). Hybrid electrolytes that contain Al-LLZO concentrations around 5 and 25 vol% demonstrate similar behaviors in terms of ionic conductivity. Both electrolytes exhibit a conductivity around  $2.0 \times 10^{-6}$  S cm<sup>-1</sup> at room temperature and about  $3.0 \times 10^{-4}$  S cm<sup>-1</sup> at 70 °C. The temperature dependent ionic conductivity (Arrhenius plot) is non-linear around the melting temperature for polyethylene oxide (60 °C). This is due to the crystallization of polyethylene oxide below this point. The Arrhenius relation:

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \exp(-E_a/kT) \quad (5)$$

is employed to estimate the activation energy for each electrolyte, where  $\sigma_0$  is the pre-exponential factor,  $E_a$  is the activation energy,  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant ( $8.617 \times 10^{-5}$  eV K<sup>-1</sup>) and  $T$  is the temperature (K). Below 60 °C the activation energy is  $\geq 0.40$  eV for all samples except the 50 vol% which is  $\approx 0.37$  eV. All hybrid electrolytes experience a decrease in the activation energy above the melting temperature of polyethylene oxide (Table 1).

The Al-LLZO content significantly affects the transport properties in a hybrid electrolyte (Fig. 1c). The polyethylene oxide region of the hybrid electrolyte contains both anions (ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>) and cations (Li<sup>+</sup>) whereas the Al-LLZO region only carries charge *via* a lithium cation (*i.e.* single ion conductor).<sup>39–41</sup> Thus, as the Al-LLZO concentration increases from 5 vol% to 50 vol% there is a subsequent increase in the transference number from 0.13 to 0.38 (Table 1). Addition of inorganic particles increases the Lewis acid type interactions as well as decreases the crystallinity of the polymer matrix. Lewis acid interactions between the chemical moieties on the inorganic particle surface and the anion and/or the polyethylene oxide

restrict anion mobility as well as decrease Li<sup>+</sup> interactions with O in the PEO matrix.<sup>7</sup> Polymer matrix crystallinity also reduces as the solid loading is increased leading to an enhancement of the ion transport properties and effective salt dissociation.<sup>42</sup> These factors lead to the increase in transference number of the hybrid electrolytes. The presence of LLZO in the PEO matrix is clearly distinguishable from XRD patterns (Fig. S1a†). As the ceramic loading gradually increases, intensity of the highly crystalline LLZO peaks substantially grows, suppressing the influence of polymer in the matrix.

The Al-LLZO content also influences the ionic conductivity. As the Al-LLZO is increased from 5 to 15 vol% there is an increase in ionic conductivity and then above 15 vol% the ionic conductivity decreases. This trend is more pronounced at high temperatures (70 °C). Prior work suggests that the improved transport is related to a decrease in polymer crystallinity with the addition of a filler material.<sup>8,10,42</sup> At high temperatures, above and around the melting point ( $T_m = 60$  °C), the polymer will naturally reside in an amorphous form and thus the improved transport cannot completely be described by polymer physics (structure).

It is challenging to probe the surface and bulk properties of the Al-LLZO particles because they are sub-surface and encapsulated in a polymer matrix. Typically, hybrid solid electrolytes are processed *via* the formation of a colloidal ink following by some sort of tape casting method (Fig. 2a). Thus, electrolytes can be coated into thin films and are free standing for use (Fig. 2b and c). During the preparation and processing of the colloidal ink, particles can aggregate and form a variety of structures.<sup>43,44</sup> Aggregation at higher loadings can affect the hybrid electrolyte properties. Morphological differences in PEO-LLZO surface can be seen clearly with optical microscopy. The electrolyte surface morphology differs depending on the composition. At low concentration (5 vol%) the morphology demonstrates some indication of phase separation and aggregation of the particles (Fig. 2d). As the sample loading is increased from 15 vol% and 50 vol%, the electrolyte becomes opaque taking on the coloring of the Al-LLZO nanoparticles. At these vol% loadings, little to no insight into structural properties can be discerned with standard imaging techniques. It is challenging to discern the underlying microstructure using standard surface visualization techniques. Rigorous structural analysis of the hybrid electrolytes with varying inorganic content is necessary to discern whether the improved transport is related to the bulk or surface properties of the Al-LLZO nanoparticles.

**Table 1** Activation energy and transference number for hybrid electrolytes

Ceramic vol%	$E_a$ (eV) ( $< T_g$ )	$E_a$ (eV) ( $> T_g$ )	TN
5	0.47	0.35	$0.13 \pm 0.02$
10	0.40	0.39	$0.22 \pm 0.03$
15	0.46	0.34	$0.24 \pm 0.02$
25	0.47	0.35	$0.28 \pm 0.04$
50	0.37	0.30	$0.38 \pm 0.03$

## 4.2 Quantitative 3D morphological analysis using nano-tomography

Micro- and nano-X-ray computed tomography (XCT) is widely used to build a three dimensional understanding of a material's micro- and nano-structure. Technique resolution and quality is dependent on the specific optical set-up, but micro-computed tomography can achieve resolutions around 1  $\mu$ m and nano-computed tomography can achieve resolutions around 60–100 nm (at synchrotrons). The trade-off between the techniques

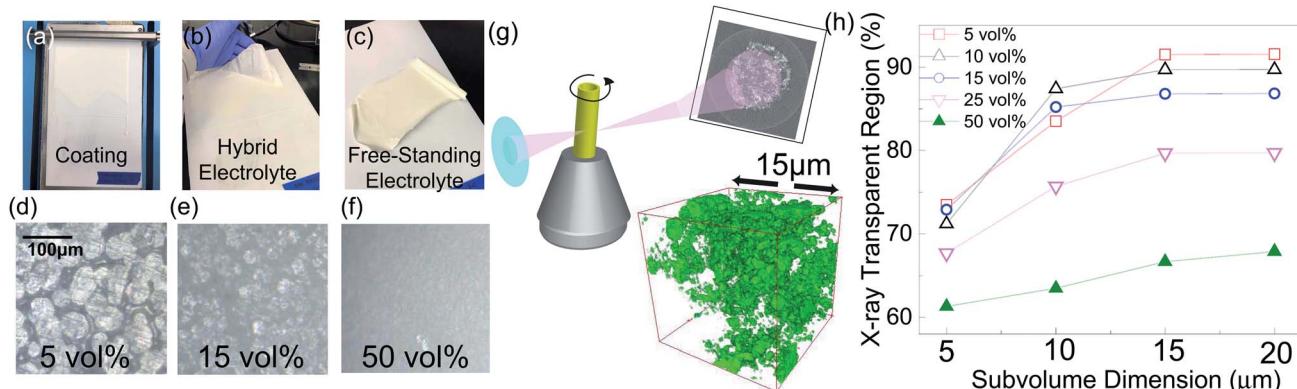


Fig. 2 Hybrid electrolytes are typically solution processed (a) into free standing films of varying thickness (b and c). Optical images demonstrating the surface morphology of a hybrid electrolyte composed of 5 vol% (d), 15 vol% (e) and 50 vol% (f). A schematic of a how the inorganic microstructure can be extracted using synchrotron nano tomography (g). A geometric analysis on 3-D reconstructions to determine best volume  $15 \times 15 \times 15 \mu\text{m}^3$  for quantitative analysis of reconstructed samples (h).

is field of view and resolution. The synthesized inorganic Al-LLZO has an average particle size of 200–300 nm (Fig. S3a†) and thus falls outside the resolution limit of micro-tomography but is within the resolution limit of nano-computed tomography. The principle of nano-CT is demonstrated in Fig. 2g. A series of 2D images are taken while the sample holder rotates from 0° to 180° (Fig. 2g). The 2D images of the hybrid electrolytes demonstrate large attenuation contrast between the polymer and inorganic region (Al-LLZO). The polymer does not attenuate the X-rays and thus is transparent, leaving behind direct visualization of the Al-LLZO percolating networks (Fig. 2g). These images are subsequently binarized for quantitative analysis. The fraction of X-ray transparent region in the sample is computed using the pore size distribution package of ImageJ. Spheres of different radii are fit in the binarized domain for the X-ray transparent phase (dark region of binarized image, Fig. 3a). The volume of the total spheres fit in the domain gives us the fraction of that phase while the size distribution of sphere radii give the dimensions of the X-ray transparent phase.

This geometric analysis was completed on various sub-volumes from 5 to 20  $\mu\text{m}^3$  to identify a representative sub-volume for quantitative analysis (Fig. 2h). Identification of a representative volume is essential for reliable quantification of results from tomography measurements.<sup>22</sup> Smaller sub-volumes can demonstrate anomalous local behavior that is not representative of the whole sample (Fig. S3a†). On the other hand, larger sub-volumes visually provide more perspectives. But this comes along with X-ray influenced artifact containing regions, which is also not suitable for analyzing the heterogeneity of the system.<sup>45</sup> Moreover, it is computationally intense to do analysis on large sub-volumes. X-Ray transparent region fraction reaches a plateau value for all the loadings imaged at 15  $\mu\text{m}^3$  sub-volume dimension. This dimension was used for all subsequent quantitative analysis.

In order to discern whether the Al-LLZO nanoparticles's surface or bulk properties are responsible for the improved transport properties, we set out to quantify the accessible surface area of the inorganic materials within the polymer

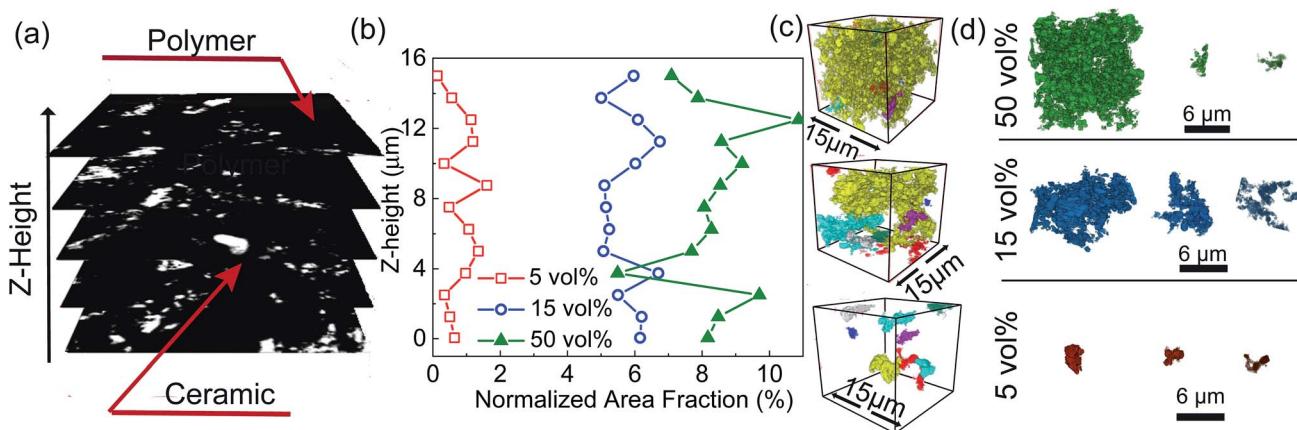


Fig. 3 Stack of binarized images demonstrate polymer and ceramic region in a hybrid electrolyte (a). The normalized ceramic area at different cross-sections in hybrid electrolytes containing 5, 15, and 50 vol% Al-LLZO (b). The ten largest percolated (aggregated) structures in a subvolume for 5, 15, and 50 vol% Al-LLZO (c) and exploded view of top three aggregated structures in each electrolyte (d).

matrix. In theory, the accessible surface area should increase as the Al-LLZO nanoparticles decrease in size and increase in concentration in a hybrid electrolyte. However, if any aggregation occurs this surface area will become inaccessible. Aggregation can be clearly observed when looking at a stack of binarized 2D images of the 5 vol% electrolyte at different  $z$ -heights (Fig. 3a). In the binarized images, the black region signifies the polymer region and the white region is representative of LLZO. We observe significant structural (surface area) heterogeneity in the electrolyte as we work our way up the  $z$ -axis (Fig. 3b). Fig. 3b demonstrates the ratio of the white area to black (*i.e.* ceramic to polymer) for each  $z$ -height in the sub-volume. As the Al-LLZO content increases from 5 vol% to 50 vol% there is a  $\approx 3\text{--}10\times$  increase in accessible interfacial area. However, it should be noted that within 15 to 50 vol% the area increases by  $\approx 2\%$  only. This contradicts the theoretical surface area estimation of this hybrid systems which show that surface area for mono-dispersed particles should increase by  $\sim 3\times$  on increasing the loading from 15% to 50%. This clearly signifies that there is severe particle agglomeration at higher loading forming continuous clusters within the hybrid electrolytes. To assess the degree of aggregation, we sorted out 10 largest connected clusters for 5, 15 and 50 vol% (Fig. 3c). These are identified by tracking individual voxel neighbours in a sub-volume. Voxels with 26 neighboring voxels in identical phase are considered as a part of a single cluster. Agglomeration effects are evident in these images where the largest cluster (yellow) is seen to almost take up the entire domain for the 50 vol% sample. To aid visualization, three largest clusters for these loading are imaged separately (Fig. 3d). The 5 vol% sample shows a uniform distribution of similar sized clusters and the 15 vol% sample shows some degree of agglomeration as the cluster size is larger than those seen for 5 vol%. The three largest clusters are of similar size within the sample. However, for 50 vol% the largest cluster occupies the largest of the particle volume ( $324\text{ }\mu\text{m}^3$ ), followed by clusters even smaller than what is for 5 vol% (Fig. S3b†). This is a direct evidence of agglomeration within the system which leads to a significant loss in accessible surface area of the particles. A complete

reconstruction of the structural arrangement for different hybrid electrolytes from 5 to 50 vol% is shown in Fig. 4.

Accessible particle surface area was quantified by calculating the particle surface area to volume ratio of all samples (Fig. 5). Surface area of the particles is estimated from the binarized images and normalized to the volume of particles in each sample. At low loading, the particle clusters are dispersed allowing complete access to the surface area. A large portion of the total particle surface area is lost as the Al-LLZO content is increased due to the aggregation of the particles. The maximum normalized surface area is observed at 15 vol% which is correlated to the highest ionic conductivity. This surface area relationships corroborates the proposed surface-driven transport hypothesis.

#### 4.3 Percolation model

The proposed surface-driven transport hypothesis is further corroborated *via* analysis of continuum percolation model. This model provides a simple yet reliable estimation of static interfacial properties that emerges from the interactions of nano-scale particles dispersed in polymer matrix. The formation of interphase due to particle–polymer interactions is expected to lead to a region with higher ionic conductivity than neat PEO ( $\sigma_p = 2 \times 10^{-6}\text{ S cm}^{-1}$ ). Although the interphase thickness  $\lambda$  is influenced by particle loading, especially at higher volume fraction where overlapping interfaces are likely, it is appropriate to assume the thickness to be 2–3 times larger than the particle size.<sup>46</sup>

Fig. 5 shows the relationship between Al-LLZO volume fraction ( $p$ ) and ionic conductivity and accessible surface area. The

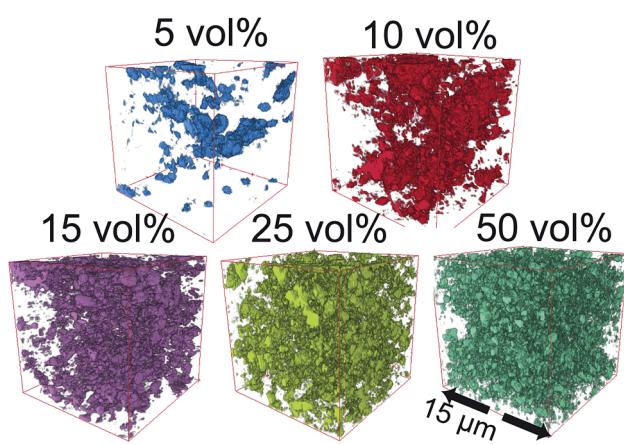


Fig. 4 Reconstructed images for 5, 10, 15, 25 and 50 vol%.

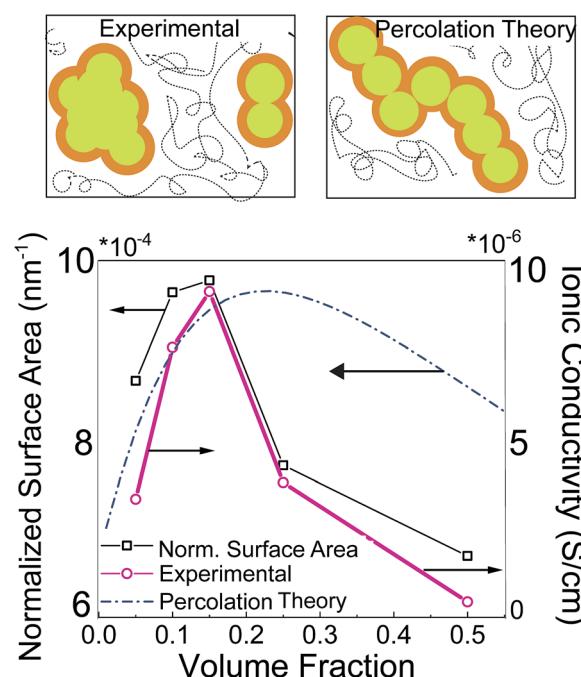


Fig. 5 Theoretical (percolation theory), experimentally measured normalized surface area (synchrotron nano-CT) and experimentally measured ionic conductivity.

model (dashed line) matches the experimentally (squares) measured surface areas at low volume fractions fairly well but deviates significantly above 20 vol%. The percolation theory assumes a uniform distribution of particles, where in reality agglomeration sets in at even low vol%. Thus, due to agglomeration, the degree of percolation is reduced as well as the accessible surface area (Fig. 5).

## 5. Conclusions

Hybrid solid electrolytes combine a polymer ion conductor with an inorganic ion conductor in order to produce thin, flexible, and mechanically strong electrolytes for all solid state batteries. The addition of the secondary ion conducting phase (inorganic Al-LLZO) leads to enhanced transport performance at a composition of 15 vol% Al-LLZO. While there is a significant body of literature that ascribes this improvement to a decrease in the crystallinity in the polymer phase, this does not account for the enhanced performance seen above the melting temperature ( $T_m = 650^\circ\text{C}$ ). Herein, we show that this enhancement is not a result of the bulk properties of the Al-LLZO, but instead is attributed to the polymer|particle interaction. Nano-computed tomography is an effective tool for probing structural properties in hybrid electrolytes and reveals a direct relationship between inorganic accessible surface area and ionic conductivity. Furthermore, the increase in transference number at high Al-LLZO content (and low ion conductivity) suggests that the Al-LLZO may form hydrogen bonding with the mobile anion, thereby limiting its charge-carrying ability. New electrolyte designs and processing techniques that enable uniform particle distribution could enable highly conducting hybrid electrolytes.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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