

Flexible 2D Boron Imidazolate Framework for Polysulfide Adsorption in Lithium–Sulfur Batteries

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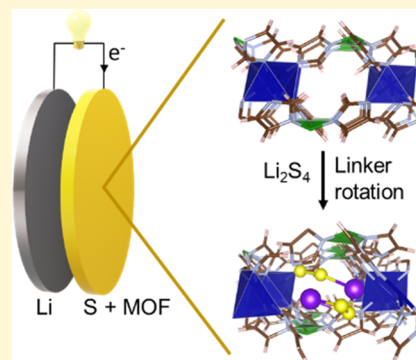


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ABSTRACT: The “polysulfide shuttle,” a process initiated by the dissolution of polysulfides, is recognized to be one of the major failure mechanisms of lithium–sulfur (Li–S) batteries. Much research effort has been dedicated toward efficient cathode additives and host materials to suppress the leaching of polysulfide species. Herein, we report a new 2D metal–organic framework constituted by a tritopic ligand, boron imidazolate ($[\text{BH}(\text{Im})_3]^-$, Im = imidazole), and Co^{2+} ions for lithium polysulfide adsorption. The cobalt imidazolate framework ($\text{CoN}_6\text{-BIF}$) contains octahedrally coordinated Co centers that form two-dimensional layers in the a,b plane. Composite cathodes containing $\text{CoN}_6\text{-BIF}$ exhibited high sulfur utilization and capacity retention, resulting in improved specific capacity and cycle life compared to sulfur/carbon controls. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations suggest that $\text{CoN}_6\text{-BIF}$ linkers are rotationally flexible, allowing the framework to accommodate polysulfide in the expanded pores. This unusual property of BIFs opens up new avenues for exploring flexible metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) and their applications to energy storage.



INTRODUCTION

Lithium–sulfur (Li–S) batteries are a promising alternative to existing energy storage technologies. In contrast to the traditional intercalation cathodes in Li-ion batteries, S-based conversion cathodes utilize multielectron redox chemistry that leads to the breaking and formation of covalent S–S bonds. The high theoretical gravimetric energy density of 2680 W h kg^{-1} and the relatively low cost of sulfur make Li–S batteries highly desirable.¹ Despite these advantages, the practical applicability of this technology is severely plagued by the so-called “polysulfide shuttle” phenomenon.^{2–4} During the discharge cycle, elemental sulfur is reduced to generate lithium polysulfide species that are soluble in common electrolytes. Polysulfide dissolution results in a loss of active material from the cathode. Furthermore, the dissolved polysulfide species can diffuse to the counter electrode compartment and form an insulating Li_2S precipitate on the Li anode, which increases cell impedance and limits the overall capacity.

To mitigate the polysulfide leaching from the cathode, various carbonaceous materials, including hollow carbon spheres, porous carbon, carbon nanotubes, and graphene, were initially employed as sulfur hosts.^{5–12} However, the polysulfide shuttle is still observed due to the low availability of adsorption sites in these materials. Inorganic polar compounds such as metal chalcogenides, nitrides, and carbides contain polar metal–heteroatom bonds, making them good candidates for polysulfide adsorption.^{13–20} For instance, Nazar et al. leveraged polar Mn–O bonds in ultrathin MnO_2 nanosheets

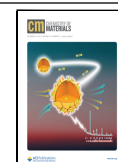
for polysulfide adsorption and proposed the generation of a surface-bound polythionate intermediate.¹⁴ In another work, W_2C nanoparticles were incorporated into the electrode, which facilitated polysulfide binding through polar interactions.¹⁸ Their high density, however, limits their utility because polysulfides cannot diffuse into the bulk, and only the surface is available for polysulfide binding.

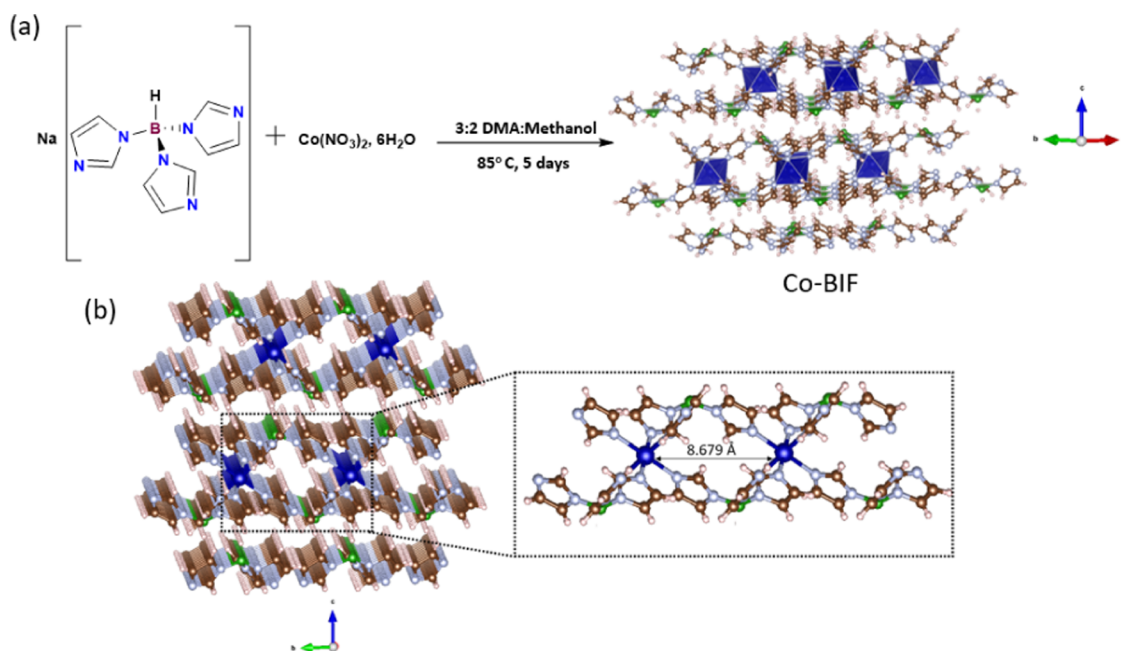
Metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) are a class of organic–inorganic hybrid materials, constituted by organic linkers and metal ions.^{4,21–23} Their inherent porous structure provides spatial confinement for the polysulfide species via both physisorption and chemisorption sites.^{4,24} The synthetic tunability of these materials allows for facile modulation of the pore environment that can result in higher Li diffusion, faster redox hopping, and more efficient chemical tethering of leached Li_2S_n .^{25–34} Additionally, MOFs, such as zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs), have demonstrated extraordinary structural flexibility that can be leveraged for polysulfide encapsulation. The importance of linker flexibility in ZIF-8 for correctly predicting adsorption capacity and diffusion has been

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Scheme 1. (a) Synthesis of CoN₆-BIF. (b) Crystal Structure of CoN₆-BIF (B = Green, C = Brown, N = Gray, Co = Blue)

shown by Haldoupis et al.,³⁵ Coudert,³⁶ and Formalik et al.³⁷ among others.^{38–41}

Boron imidazolate frameworks (BIFs) are a subclass of MOFs containing M–Im–B (M = metal, Im = imidazole, B = boron) linkage, where imidazole-based linkers serve as a bridging ligand.⁴² BIFs with various zeolitic topologies and metal sites have been employed in photo- and electrocatalysis.^{43–47} Herein, we synthesized a novel Co-based boron imidazolate framework (CoN₆-BIF) as a flexible porous host for polysulfides. Unlike Cu analogues, which form multinuclear metal cages, CoN₆-BIFs are composed of isolated hexacoordinated Co²⁺ centers that arrange in two-dimensional (2D) sheets, generating one-dimensional (1D) channels along the *a*-direction. The composite cathodes with BIF additives exhibit significantly higher capacity retention over traditional S/C cathodes. Extensive spectroscopic characterization and simulations suggest that this improvement can be attributed to physical confinement and noncovalent interactions of polysulfides in the 2D material. In our density functional theory (DFT) calculations, Co-bound imidazolate linkers can rotate and expand the internal pore volume to accommodate polysulfide adsorption, a fluxionality that is reminiscent of that observed in ZIF-8. Our investigation demonstrates the first example of flexible BIFs and their potential as sulfur hosts for lithium–sulfur batteries.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Synthesis of CoN₆-BIF Powder. In a typical synthesis, ~50 mg (0.21 mmol) of the Na[BH(Im)₃] was dissolved in 5 mL 3:2 dimethylacetamide: methanol solvent mixture in a 20 mL vial. ~150 mg (0.5 mmol) of Co(NO₃)₂ · 6H₂O was added to the mixture and stirred for 5 minutes to dissolve. Upon completion, the pink powders were washed with 100 mL of (20 mL × 5 times) methanol and soaked in methanol overnight. On the next day, the BIF powder was further washed with 100 mL (20 mL × 5 times) in methanol and soaked overnight. The powder was then air-dried and subjected to powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD). The PXRD pattern perfectly matched the one obtained by simulating the single-crystal data.

Cathode Preparation. The S/C slurry mixtures were prepared with 45% sulfur, 45% Super-P carbon, and 10% poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF) binder. For the CoN₆-BIF cathodes, the BIF powder was activated using a Schlenk line at 170 °C for 3 h under constant vacuum before using it as a cathode additive. We optimized the cathode slurry composition by varying the BIF/Super-P carbon ratio. To prepare the slurry mixture, a calculated amount of the resulting activated BIF powder was physically mixed with S, Super-P carbon, PVDF using a vortex mixer in the presence of three small stainless steel balls for 5 min. After the initial mixing, *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone was added to the mixture and then vortexed for another 30 min. The homogeneous slurry was then cast onto 12.7 mm preweighed carbon paper disks and was dried in a vacuum oven at 80 °C overnight. After drying, the cathodes were further weighed to determine the sulfur loading and transferred to an Ar-filled glovebox.

Coin Cell Preparation and Cycling. CR 2032-type coin cells were assembled in an Ar-filled glovebox using a preweighed cathode, two Celgard separators, two stainless steel spacers, a spring (TOB New Energy), and a mechanically polished Li anode (MTI Corporation). The electrolyte was prepared by dissolving 1 M bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide lithium (LiTFSI) and 2 wt % lithium nitrate in a 1:1 mixture of 1,2-dimethoxyethane (DME) and 1,3-dioxolane (DOL); 60 μL of electrolyte per mg of S was used to ensure reproducible cycling. Next, the freshly prepared cells were cycled galvanostatically with a MicroNanoTools battery analyzer (MNT-BA-5V) after resting for 8 h.

DFT Calculations. Static DFT calculations were performed using the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP).^{48–51} The PBE functional⁵² was used with Grimme's D3 dispersion corrections (PBE-D3).⁵³ A cutoff energy of 550 eV was used along with a convergence criterion of 0.05 eV Å⁻¹. The projector augmented wave (PAW) pseudopotentials were used.⁵⁴ All calculations were performed spin-polarized due to the presence of Co in the framework.

Adsorbate species (Li₂S, Li₂S₂, Li₂S₄) were relaxed in a 12 Å × 11 Å × 10 Å box. The experimental CoN₆-BIF CIF ([crystallographic information file](#)) was fully relaxed, and the *a*, *b* lattice vectors decreased from 8.68 to 8.42 Å (3% contraction) and the *c* lattice vector changed by less than 0.01 Å. Co ions were given a high initial spin using the MAGMOM tag in VASP, as higher Co spin states were found to be more energetically favorable. Adsorption calculations were performed both on the CoN₆-BIF single unit cell and a 2 × 2 × 1 CoN₆-BIF supercell. The supercell lattice was relaxed, and the *a*, *b*

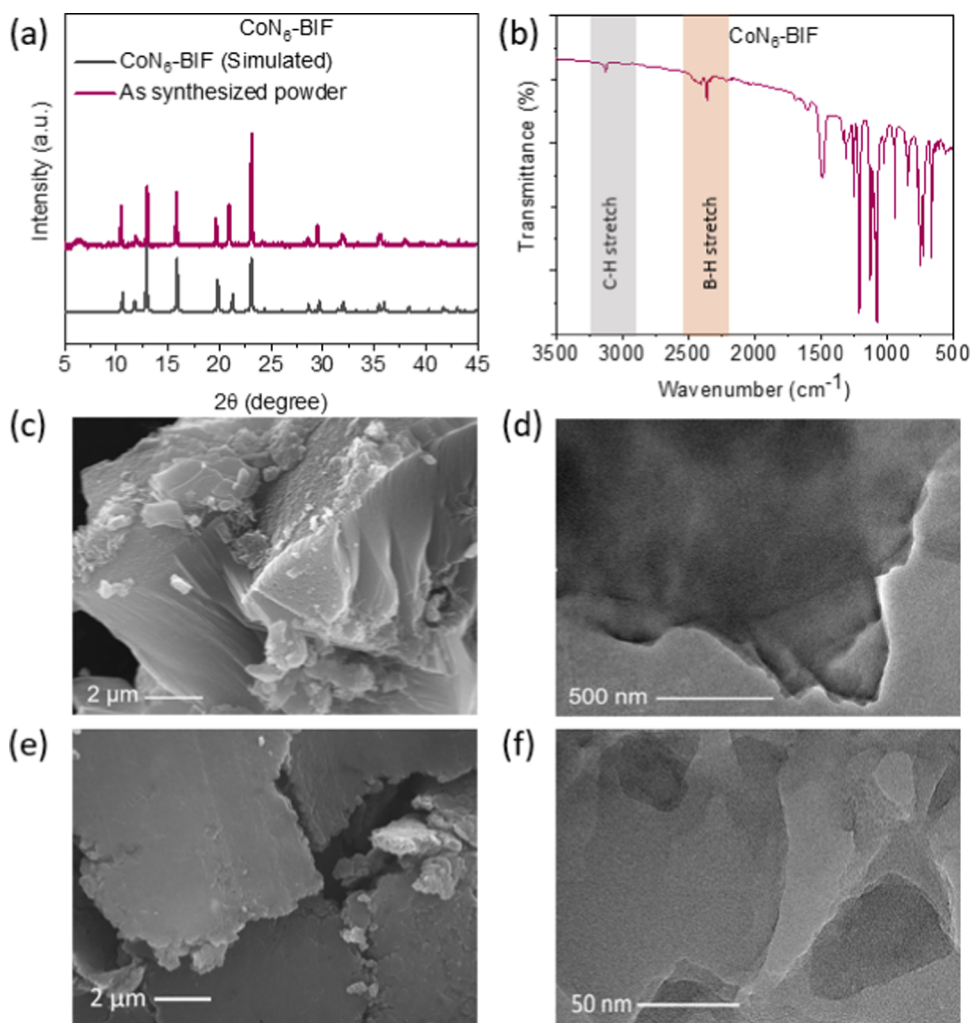


Figure 1. (a) PXRD of the CoN₆-BIF powder (pink) and comparison with simulated data (black), (b) infrared (IR) spectrum of CoN₆-BIF, scanning electron micrographs of (c) CoN₆-BIF and (e) exfoliated CoN₆-BIF, and transmission electron micrographs of (d) CoN₆-BIF and (f) exfoliated CoN₆-BIF.

lattice vectors increased to 8.45 Å, while the *c* lattice vector changed by less than 0.01 Å. For single-unit-cell simulations, a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ γ centered *K*-point grid was used. Due to the size of the supercell, only the γ point was sampled. We performed a single-point calculation on the supercell using a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ γ -centered *K*-point grid and found the total energy to differ by <0.01 eV, and the remaining supercell calculations were performed with a single *K*-point. For the adsorbed species, the unit cell was allowed to relax to account for expansion of the vdW volume during adsorption. Adsorption energies were defined according to the following equation

$$E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{Li}_2\text{S}_n + \text{BIF}} - E_{\text{BIF}} - E_{\text{Li}_2\text{S}_n}(\text{g})$$

where $E_{\text{Li}_2\text{S}_n}(\text{g})$ is the potential energy of the polysulfide in vacuum, E_{BIF} is the potential energy of a vacant CoN₆-BIF framework, and $E_{\text{Li}_2\text{S}_n + \text{BIF}}$ is the potential energy of the adsorbed state.

Ab Initio Molecular Dynamics (AIMD). To account for the flexibility of the framework under ambient conditions, we performed ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulations of adsorbed lithium polysulfides and generate candidate structures to assist in finding the global lowest energy adsorbed structure. All AIMD was performed spin-polarized with the same 550 eV cutoff energy. For both the unit cell and the $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell, we first used a 0.5 ps temperature ramp from 0 to 300 K with a 1 fs timestep. We then performed 1 ps production runs for the unit cell (0.5 ps for the supercell) at 600 K using a Nosé–Hoover thermostat. The elevated

temperature was used to accelerate the motion of the linkers, which was strictly for structural optimization. Six candidate structures were harvested from each AIMD trajectory and chosen based on their potential energy. Each of the six candidate structures was then geometry-optimized using the criteria described above.

Helium Void Fraction Simulations. The helium void fraction of the vacant and adsorption-deformed CoN₆-BIFs was performed via Widom insertion using RASPA 2.0 software.⁵⁵ We took the DFT-optimized $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell and the DFT-optimized $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell with Li₂S₄ adsorbed (Li₂S₄ was removed from the structure) and kept them rigid. Since our aim was to compare the change in accessible pore volume due to linker rotation upon adsorption, it was preferable to keep the structures rigid for this study. We performed 25,000 helium insertions for each void fraction calculation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this work, a Co boron imidazolate framework was synthesized by solvothermal self-assembly of Co²⁺ ions and a previously published tripodal boron imidazolate linker, Na[BH(Im)₃]⁵⁶ (where Im = imidazole) to form Co[BH(Im)₃]₂ (CoN₆-BIF, Scheme 1a). Single crystals of BIF were formed in the presence of a modulator, 1,2,3-triazole. Single-crystal X-ray diffraction showed that boron imidazolate, [BH(Im)₃][−], serves as a μ 3-bridging ligand between three different Co²⁺ centers, generating a 2D framework composed of CoN₆ polyhedra

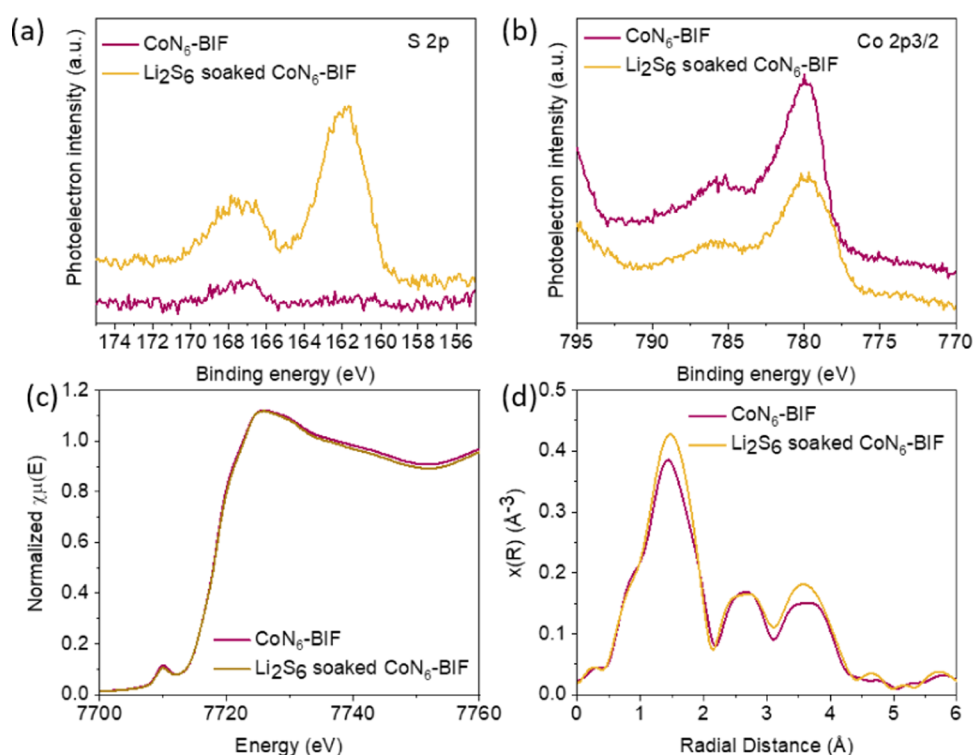


Figure 2. High-resolution XPS of (a) S 2p and (b) Co 2p_{3/2}, (c) Co K-edge X-ray near-edge absorption spectrum (XANES), and (d) extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) of CoN₆-BIF (pink) and Li₂S₆ soaked CoN₆-BIF (yellow).

(Scheme 1a). The 2D layers form an extended structure along the *c*-direction. Furthermore, 1D channels with a Co–Co distance of 8.979 Å extend in the *a*-direction (Scheme 1b). The polycrystalline powder was synthesized in the absence of any modulator. The powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) pattern of the as-synthesized powder material aligns with the simulated diffraction pattern of the single-crystal structure (Figure 1a). Confirming its two-dimensionality, the framework can be exfoliated using ultrasonication (see the Experimental Details in the Supporting Information, SI). The PXRD intensity along (002) and (004) directions increased in the exfoliated framework (Figure S1), indicating a preferential orientation.

In addition, the infrared (IR) absorption spectrum (Figure 1b) of the BIF powder shows the expected B–H feature at ~2360 cm⁻¹. The thermal stability of the material was also evaluated by conducting thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) under Ar. Owing to the extended structure, CoN₆-BIF exhibits a much higher decomposition temperature (Figure S2) compared to previously reported boron imidazolate cages. Upon conducting Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area analysis, CoN₆-BIF shows 20.28 m² g⁻¹ (Figure S3a) with a pore width of 8.82 Å (Figure S3b). The pore width is consistent with the 1D channels observed in the crystal structure (Scheme 1b). Finally, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) showed that while the primary particles of CoN₆-BIF do not possess any distinct shape, (Figure 1c), evidence of 2D stacking can be seen (Figure 1c,d). These observations were corroborated by SEM and TEM images of the exfoliated CoN₆-BIF (Figure 1e,f).

To examine the polysulfide-capturing ability of CoN₆-BIF, 10 mg of the BIF powder was soaked with 1 mL of 10 mM Li₂S₆ in a 1:1 DOL/DME solution overnight. Upon soaking, the pink CoN₆-BIF powders turned brown (Figure S4a). After

removing the excess solvent, the material was washed thoroughly with a 1:1 DOL:DME and dried under vacuum. The powder was subsequently subjected to PXRD, Raman, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). Despite the color change, the unchanged PXRD pattern (Figure S4b) and Raman features (Figure S4c) indicate a similar crystallographic orientation and molecular structure of BIF after soaking. We also compared the XPS spectra of the sulfur-soaked BIF with the parent material to understand the nature of the interactions between the Co centers and the polysulfide (Figures 2a,b and S5). The polysulfide-soaked CoN₆-BIF showed a feature centered at 161.95 eV, which was absent in the parent BIF (Figure 2a, yellow). This feature corresponded to the terminal S of the polysulfide chain⁵⁷ and, therefore, was indicative of the polysulfide infiltration into the framework. We noted that the higher binding energy S peak (~167 eV) was likely due to SO_x surface contamination from the glovebox. Interestingly, no shift of the Co 2p_{3/2} feature was observed in our XPS after polysulfide soaking (Figure 2b), which suggested that saturated Co centers were unable to interact with the polysulfides.

X-ray absorption (EXAFS) spectroscopy was conducted on both the parent BIF and the polysulfide-soaked sample to gain deeper insights into the polysulfide absorption mechanism. (Figures 2c,d and S6) The Co K-edge X-ray near-edge absorption spectrum (XANES) of the parent BIF shows a similar E₀ value as other Co²⁺-containing materials (Figure 2c, pink). No shift of the E₀ value was observed after polysulfide soaking, which suggests that the Co oxidation state remains similar (Figure 2c, yellow). Finally, the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) of CoN₆-BIF exhibits a sharp feature centered at 1.44 Å (Figure 2d, not corrected for the phase), which corresponds to the Co–N bond. A similar EXAFS feature was observed in the polysulfide-soaked CoN₆-BIF, indicating that the primary coordination sphere around

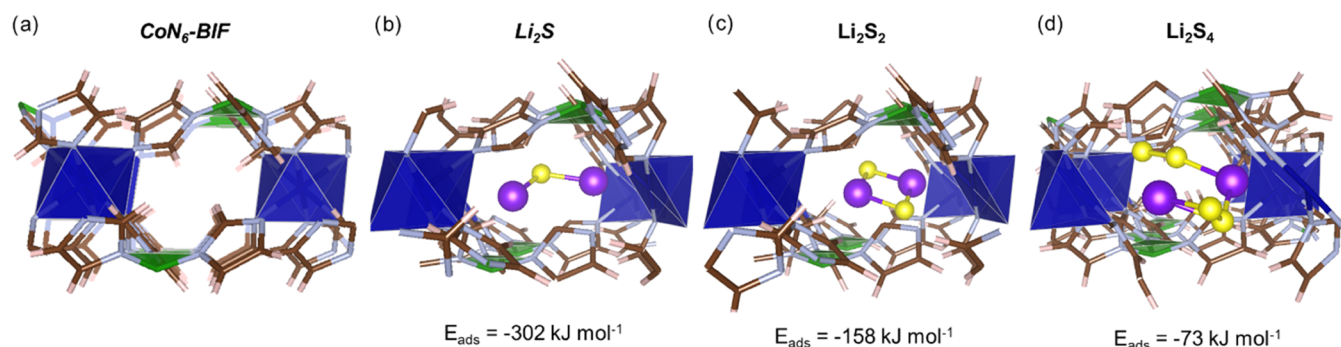


Figure 3. Lowest energy adsorbate configurations and adsorption energies for lithium polysulfides in CoN₆-BIF. The imidazolate linkers rotate to accommodate lithium polysulfide adsorption. Blue polyhedral is Co, light blue is N, green polyhedral is B, brown is C, yellow is S, and purple is Li. Note that the surrounding CoN₆-BIF framework has been truncated for clarity. Additional adsorption configurations are provided in the [Supporting Information](#).

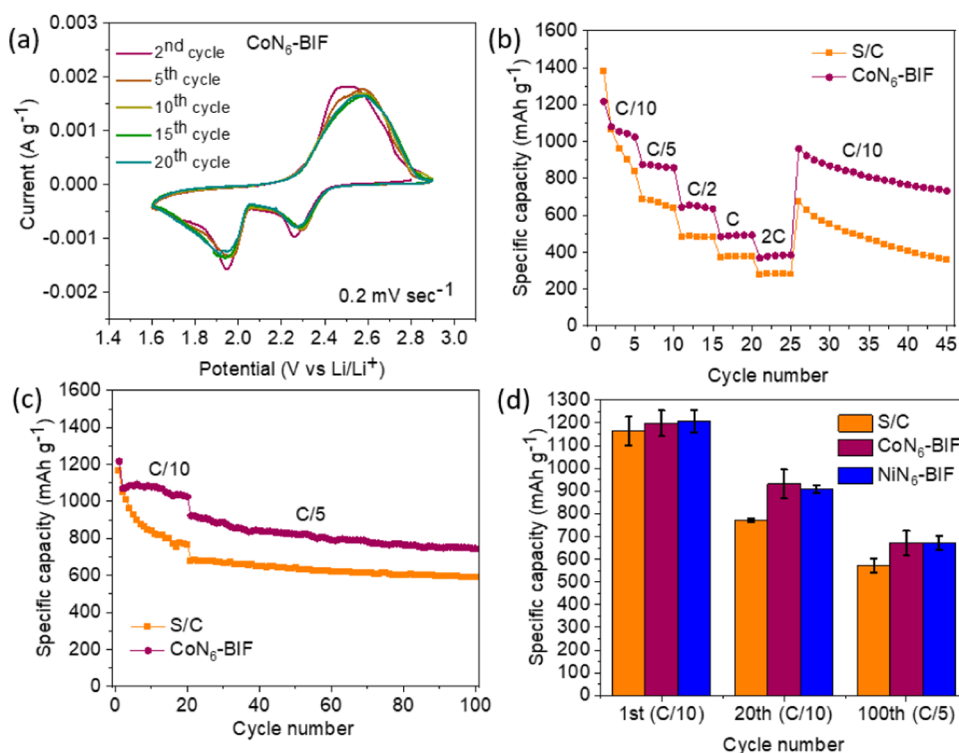


Figure 4. (a) Coin cell cyclic voltammograms in the presence of the 15% CoN₆-BIF cathode additive, (b) variable C-rate cycling comparison in the absence (orange) and presence (pink) of the CoN₆-BIF additive in the cathode, (c) long-term cycling data at C/10 (20 cycles) and C/5 (80 cycles) in the absence (orange) and presence (pink) of CoN₆-BIF in the cathode, and (d) cycling capacity comparison in the absence of any additive (orange) and in the presence of the CoN₆-BIF additive (pink) and the NiN₆-BIF additive (blue) in the cathode. The average S-loading in CoN₆-BIF is 1.463 ± 0.193 mg.

Co is largely unchanged. A small increase in magnitude is noted, perhaps due to minor Co–N reordering upon the inclusion of Li₂S₆. Higher order coordination spheres are also present and similar between the parent BIF and S-loaded materials, with a slight increase in magnitude for the third coordination sphere, again likely to a minor amount of linker reordering. These XANES and EXAFS observations are consistent with the XPS data, leading us to propose that polysulfides are likely physically confined in the framework and not covalently attached.

We performed ab initio simulations of polysulfide adsorption into the CoN₆-BIF framework to gain molecular-level insights into polysulfide adsorption. We found that polysulfides up to Li₂S₄ adsorb favorably into the CoN₆-BIF micropores. For all

polysulfides considered, adsorption into the van der Waals layer was less favorable than that into the micropores, even when accounting for volume expansion of the van der Waals layer (Figure S7). Adsorption energies were more exothermic for a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ CoN₆-BIF supercell, likely due to the additional flexibility allowed for the linkers in the larger model. The Li₂S adsorption energy (-302 kJ mol⁻¹) was more exothermic than the Li₂S₂ adsorption energy (-158 kJ mol⁻¹), which in turn was more exothermic than the Li₂S₄ adsorption energy (-73 kJ mol⁻¹, Figure 3). This series is reasonable, as each additional sulfur increases the size of the adsorbate and further strains the framework. As Li₂S₄ adopts a linear sulfur configuration, we hypothesize that larger polysulfides are also able to be adsorbed without significant additional strain. For all

polysulfides, the Li ions were observed to interact more strongly with the imidazole linkers proximal to the Co centers. To quantify the impact of linker rotation and expansion on accessible pore volume, the helium void fraction in the $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell increased from 0.7% of the cell volume to 2.2% of the cell volume, a $>3 \times$ increase in pore volume after Li_2S_4 adsorption. It is reasonable to expect that when framework flexibility and linker rotation are important, larger models are needed to capture these physical effects.

Intrigued by the polysulfide encapsulation ability of CoN_6 -BIF in the solution phase, we employed this novel framework as a cathode additive in the Li–S battery. CoN_6 -BIF, S, Super-P carbon, and PVDF polymer binder were physically mixed in NMP to form a slurry mixture. The BIF was incorporated at either 15 or 30% mass by weight. The slurry mixture was uniformly coated onto a carbon paper and dried overnight. These cathodes were assembled into a coin cell using 1 M $\text{Li}(\text{TFSI})$ (in 1:1 DOL/DME), 2% LiNO_3 as an electrolyte, and Li foil as a counter electrode and subjected to various electrochemical tests (Figure S8 and S9). Compared to the 30 wt % BIF composite cathodes, cathodes with 15% CoN_6 -BIF exhibit a higher overall capacity that is maintained over long-term cycling at a charge/discharge rate of C/2 (Figure S8b). The cathodes with 15% CoN_6 -BIF exhibit stable sulfur utilization (Figure 4a) during coin cell cycling voltammetry experiments compared to the S/C counterparts (Figure S9). In rate capability testing, coin cells were cycled at various C-rates (C/10 to 2C, five cycles in each C-rate). The cathodes comprising the CoN_6 -BIF additive show a smaller capacity fade during initial cycles (at C/10 and C/5) and higher recyclability compared to 45% S/C cathodes when cycled back to C/10 (Figure 4b). Despite a similar initial capacity (1162 mAh g^{-1}) for 45% S/C cathodes, a rapid capacity fade (592 mAh g^{-1} after 80 cycles at C/5) is observed (Figure 4c). In contrast, the cathodes with the 15% BIF additive retain reasonable capacity (751 mAh g^{-1} after 80 cycles at C/5) even after 100 cycles (Figure 4c).

We also evaluated the influence of different transition metal centers on cycling performance. To that end, an isostructural NiN_6 -BIF was synthesized and employed as a cathode additive (Figure S10). The resulting light blue powder exhibits a similar powder pattern as CoN_6 -BIF, indicating a comparable structure (Figure S10a). SEM shows that NiN_6 -BIF exhibits an unusual cylindrical morphology (Figure S10e,f). Despite the different metal identity, NiN_6 -BIF shows identical capacity retention as CoN_6 -BIF over long-term cycling (Figures 4d and S11). These observations further confirm that enhancements in battery cycling performance are likely due to physical confinement in the framework as opposed to metal coordination.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we report a flexible 2D layered metal–organic framework composed of octahedral CoN_6 nodes and boron imidazolate $[\text{BH}(\text{Im})_3]^-$ linkers. We leverage the unique structural features of this 2D framework to adsorb polysulfides and suppress the shuttle phenomenon, a commonly recognized failure mechanism of Li–S batteries. Extensive ex situ X-ray spectroscopic characterization methods have been conducted to understand the nature of the interaction between our BIF and polysulfide species. Unlike the Lewis acid–base interaction³⁴ observed in the frameworks with open metal sites, we hypothesize that encapsulation of polysulfides into the

micropores plays a major role to immobilize the polysulfide in our BIF as shown through our ab initio simulations. We found that the flexibility of the $[\text{BH}(\text{Im})_3]^-$ linkers led to pore expansion upon adsorption, which has also been observed in ZIF-8. Spatial confinement in the framework discourages the polysulfide leaching and therefore promotes cycling stability when these frameworks are employed as a cathode additive in the Li–S battery. Further synthetic explorations are underway to install ionic and electronic conduction pathways for improved rate capability. This investigation encourages the discovery of new boron imidazolate frameworks and their application in electrochemical energy storage.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.chemmater.2c02324>.

Additional experimental details; synthetic procedure; electrochemical data (PDF)
Crystallographic data (CIF)
DFT-calculated CIF structures (ZIP)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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