

Breaking Solvation Dominance of EC via Electron Engineering Enables Battery Operation Below -100

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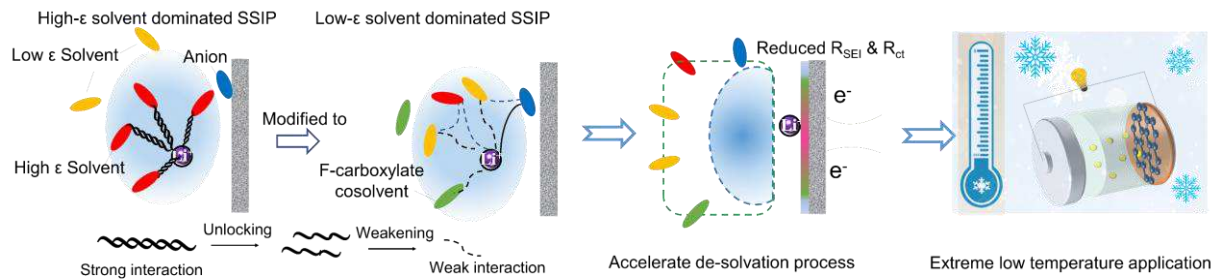
1 **Breaking Solvation Dominance of EC via Electron Engineering**

2 **Enables Battery Operation Below -100°C**

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TOC

8 **Abstract**

9 The performance of current lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) is severely impaired by
10 low temperatures, which require the development of powerful electrolytes with wider
11 liquidity, facilitated ion diffusion ability, and lower desolvation energy. The keys lie in
12 establishing mild interactions between Li^+ and solvent molecules internally, which is
13 hard to realize in commercial ethylene carbonate (EC) based electrolytes due to the
14 strong coordination of EC to Li^+ . To address this challenge, we tailored the solvation
15 structure with low- ϵ solvent dominated coordination and unlocked EC via
16 electronegativity regulation of carbonyl oxygen. The modified electrolytes retain
17 considerable ion conductivity (1.46 mS/cm) at $-90\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, remain liquid at $-110\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and
18 facilitate Li^+ desolvation. Consequently, 4.5V graphite-based pouch cells perform
19 stably with $\sim 98\%$ capacity retention and no lithium dendrite formation over 200 cycles
20 at $-10\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. These cells also retain $\sim 60\%$ of their room-temperature discharge capacity at
21 $-70\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and miraculously remain functional even below $-100\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. This design strategy
22 of breaking the solvation dominance of EC via electron engineering can be extended to
23 other alkali-metal-ion batteries at extremely low temperature.

24 **Keywords:** Lithium-ion batteries, electrolyte, solvation structure, internal interaction,
25 desolvation energy, low temperature.

26 **Introduction**

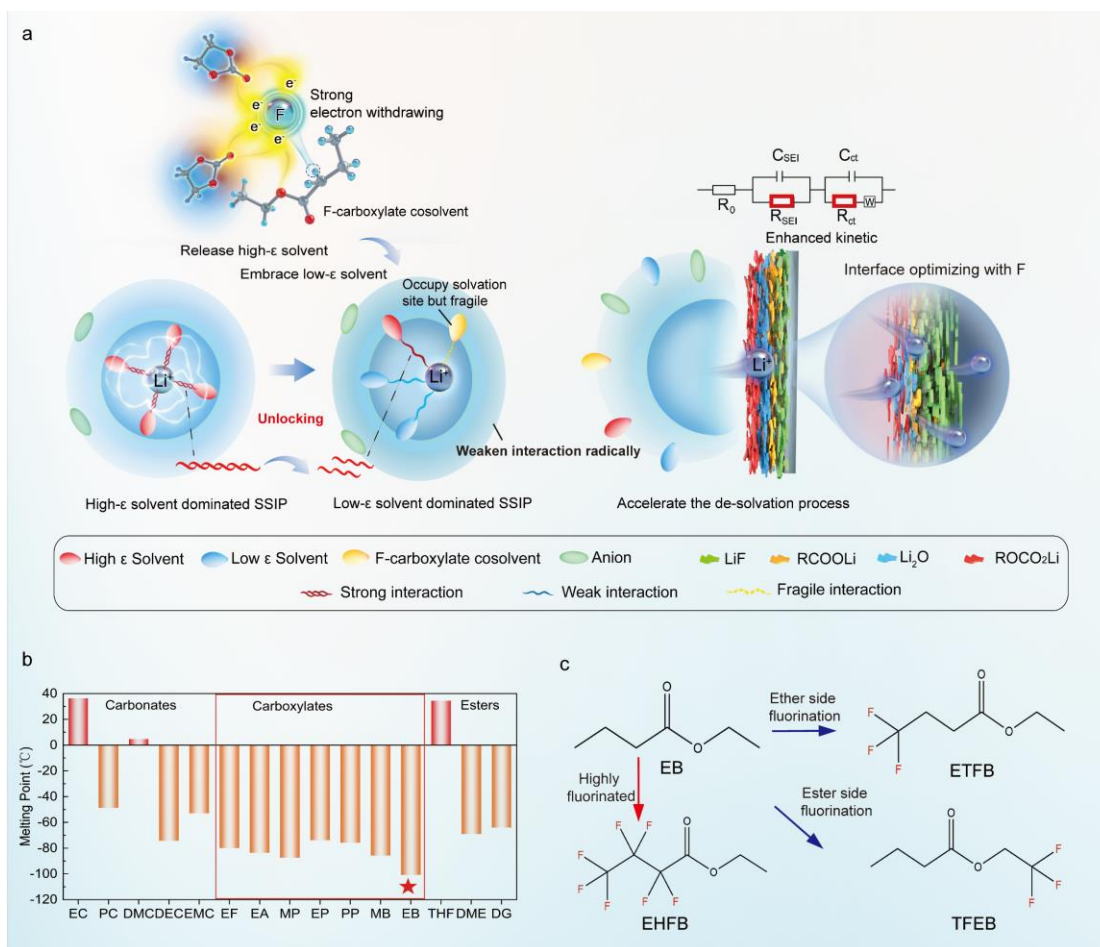
27 High-voltage lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) capable of operating over a wide range
28 of temperature are highly desirable for energy storage under extreme conditions such
29 polar scientific expedition, high altitude station, and in certain military applications.
30 However, several challenges lie in, including: i) limited liquid range of electrolyte¹, ii)
31 slow mass transport, including poor conductivity and Li diffusivity in bulk materials²,
32 ³, especially graphite anodes; iii) sluggish charge transfer process resulting from high
33 energy barriers for Li^+ desolvation and Li^+ migration within the SEI^{2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9}. These

34 factors cause unwanted lithium plating or unfriendly SEI, causing low efficiency and
35 serious safety concerns^{10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15}. (**Fig. S1a**). Previous studies have shown that it
36 is charge transfer processes rather than mass transport that dominates the
37 electrochemical performance of LIBs under low temperature (LT) conditions (≤ 0 °C),
38 given the much higher energy barrier of the former^{1, 8, 9, 16, 17}. This highlights the
39 importance of reducing the desolvation energy barriers in facilitating charge transfer^{4,}
40 ^{6, 16}. Truly, the desolvation energy is highly dependent on the solvation structure of
41 electrolyte^{9, 16, 18, 19}. And the keys of moderate desolvation process lie in promoting the
42 construction of a Li⁺ solvation shell with weak interactions between Li⁺ and solvents⁹.

43 Strategies including liquefied gas electrolytes^{20, 21}, novel co-solvents^{22, 23}, highly
44 fluorinated solvents^{4, 24}, PC based electrolytes²⁵, local high concentration electrolytes
45 (LHCEs)^{4, 8, 23, 26, 27}, and weakly solvating electrolytes^{4, 8, 9, 23, 25, 27, 28, 29}, and co-
46 intercalation method³⁰ have been therefore proposed to optimize the solvation
47 structures. These strategies trend to promote more anion to solvate with Li⁺ and mainly
48 rely on low dielectric constant (ϵ) solvents to replace EC, therefore facilitating
49 desolvation process. Among which, LHCEs appear to be particularly promising for LT
50 battery applications. These systems exploit the non-polarity of fluorinated ether diluent
51 to disrupt strong interactions between highly polar (high- ϵ) molecules in LIB electrolyte,
52 which broadens the liquid range of the electrolyte and promotes the desolvation process
53 (**Fig. S1b**). While these EC-free strategies succeed in lowering the desolvation energy,
54 they often neglect the direct interaction between relative high- ϵ solvents and Li⁺, and
55 the good conductivity property owing to high- ϵ effect of EC could be sacrificed. This
56 limits the potential applicability of these strategies in further extreme low-temperature
57 environments.

58 In LIB electrolytes, Li⁺ typically coordinates with polar solvent molecules in
59 carbonate electrolytes via an electronegative carbonyl oxygen. Theoretically, this
60 coordination could be weakened without sacrificing the high dielectric property (ϵ) of
61 polar solvents by reducing the carbonyl oxygen's electronegativity in high- ϵ solvents,
62 rather than replacing them with low- ϵ solvents. Speculatively, this could potentially be
63 achieved by introducing elements with strongly electron-withdrawing effect^{16, 24}, such

64 as fluorine, as an example strategy. Fluorination is expected to weaken the coordinative
65 interactions between high- ϵ solvents (e.g., cyclic carbonates) and Li^+ (**Fig 1a**), resulting
66 in i) the release of more high- ϵ solvents, which would promote the coordination of low-
67 ϵ solvents (e.g., linear carbonates) with Li^+ to maintain occupancy of its coordination
68 sites, therefore the solvent separated ion pair (SSIP) would be converted from high- ϵ
69 solvent dominated to low- ϵ dominated one, and ii) unlocked interaction of the
70 remaining coordinated high- ϵ solvents (**Fig 1a**). Several merits can be therefore derived
71 from this unique solvation structure: i) overall coordinative interactions between Li^+
72 and solvents are significantly and thoroughly weakened, by impairing the coordination
73 number and strength of high- ϵ solvents and promoting a low- ϵ solvents dominated
74 solvation structure (**Fig. 1a**). In addition, the fluorinated carboxylate cosolvent also
75 participates in solvation via carbonyl group, even though its interaction with Li^+ is quite
76 weak (**Fig. 1a**). All these, together promote a desirable solvation structure with much
77 weaker interactions between Li^+ and all the electrolyte solvents. The structure of this
78 type is expected to be particularly advantageous for further widening liquid range and
79 further facilitated Li^+ desolvation. And ii) Fluorinated cosolvent benefits for F-rich SEI
80 formation due to the lower LUMO energy caused by fluorination³¹ (**Table S2**).
81 Additionally, Fluorination can lower the electrolyte's HOMO energy, thereby widening
82 its electrochemical window and meeting demands for high voltage batteries^{31, 32}.
83 Altogether, this approach offers a more effective way to directly rejuvenate the desired
84 solvation structure that is expected to extend its application to further extremely low
85 temperatures.



86

87 **Fig. 1: a, Proposed low temperature electrolyte design principle. b, Melting point of common**
 88 **carbonate and carboxylate solvents. c, Chemical structure of the selected EB and its fluorinated**
 89 **analog cosolvents.**

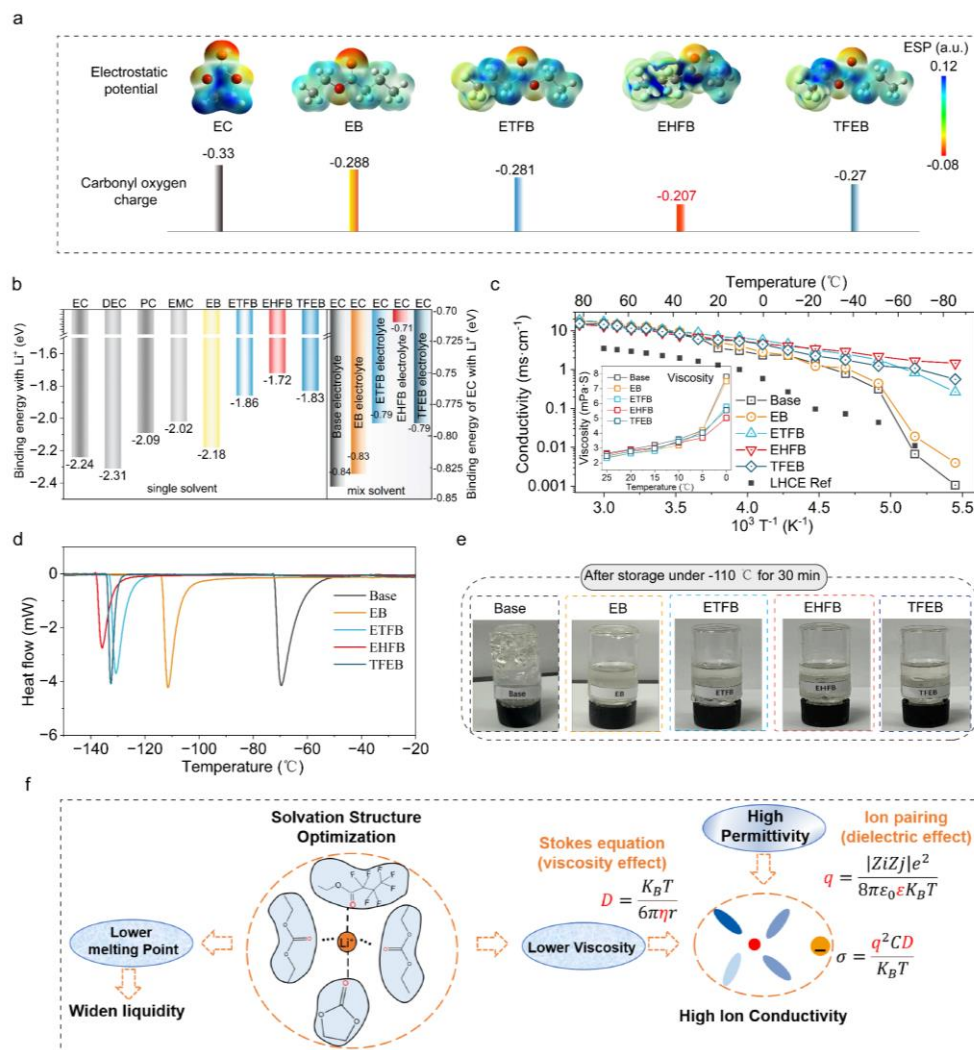
90 Bearing these in mind, we aimed to identify potential cosolvents for fluorination
 91 based on ethyl butyrate (EB), which has a rather low melting point (**Fig 1b, Fig S2**), as
 92 a promising candidate for LT electrolyte cosolvent. We proposed a series of high-
 93 performance LIB electrolyte recipes containing analogs of EB as cosolvents, including
 94 4,4,4-ethyl trifluorobutyrate (ETFB), ethyl heptafluorobutyrate (EHFB) and 2,2,2-
 95 trifluoroethyl butyrate (TFEB), with varying fluorination degree and/or fluoride site
 96 (**Fig 1c, Fig. S3**). As expected, the co-solvent electrolyte recipes exhibit high ionic
 97 conductivity (1.4-14.54 mS/cm) over a wide temperature range (-90 to +70 °C), owing
 98 to the formation of a solvation structure dominated by DEC that weakens the overall
 99 coordination interactions between Li⁺ and solvents. Further optimization can be
 100 achieved by tailoring the fluorination degree and fluoride site of the cosolvent.
 101 Specifically, the higher fluorination degree and/or the more fluorinated site on the ester

102 group, the weaker interaction between Li^+ and solvents, and thus the better low-
103 temperature performance. Consequently 4.5V graphite-based pouch cells (1 Ah)
104 perform stably over 200 cycles under $-10\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ with only 2% capacity loss and minimal
105 lithium dendrite formation. Even at the ultralow temperature of $-70\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$,
106 NCM811/Graphite and LCO/Graphite pouch cells utilizing the designed electrolytes
107 retained capacity of 716 mAh and 661 mAh, corresponding to 61% and 59% of that at
108 room temperature, respectively. Moreover, these cells could still power electric fans at
109 temperatures as low as $-100\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. (**Movie S1**).

110 **Physical properties under extreme low temperature**

111 ETFB, EHFB, and TFEB are all fluorinated derivatives of EB (**Fig S3a**). EB is a
112 suitable co-solvent for LIB electrolytes because of its low melting point ($\sim -100.8\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$),
113 and its long-alkyl chain, which promotes the formation of a SEI with more favorable
114 properties than those derived from carboxylate solvents with shorter alkyl chains³³. As
115 expected, all three of the fluorinated derivatives exhibit a lower electron density around
116 the carbonyl O atoms than either EC or EB (**Fig 1a, Table S1**), resulting in weaker
117 binding with Li^+ (**Fig 2b & Fig S3b- S4b**). Moreover, the higher fluorination degree of
118 cosolvents, the less electronegative they are, and thus the weaker coordination
119 interaction between Li^+ and solvents (**Fig 2b**), evidenced by the lowest binding energy
120 value of EHFB- Li^+ ($\sim 1.72\text{ eV}$) and EC- Li^+ in EHFB systems (0.71 eV). And the
121 estimated freezing points of the electrolytes evolves in the same trend at that of EC- Li^+
122 binding energy, with an increase in the order of EHFB ($-135\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), TFEB ($-132\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), and
123 ETFB ($-130\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) (**Fig. 2d**). Specifically, the EHFB-containing electrolyte exhibited no
124 apparent solidification even when immersed in a $-110\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ bath for 30 minutes (**Fig. 2e**
125 **& Fig. S5**), and delivers a record-high ionic conductivity of $\sim 1.46\text{ mS/cm}$ even at $-90\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
126 (**Fig. 2c**) (**Table S3**) compared to the top LT ion conductivity reported so far⁴,
127 demonstrating its great feasibility under extreme cold environment. The temperature-
128 dependence of the conductivity of the cosolvent-containing electrolytes was well
129 described by the empirical Vogel-Fulcher-Tammann (VFT) equation (**Fig S6**), and the

130 calculated activation energy for EHFB electrolytes was 0.98 eV, much smaller than that
 131 of the other four electrolytes (19.19 eV, 2.98 eV, 1.40 eV and 1.41 eV for base, EB,
 132 ETFB and TFEB, respectively), further indicative of the great priority of EHFB. In
 133 contrast, the base electrolyte began to freeze at about -50 °C (**Fig. 2d**) and exhibited
 134 poor ionic conductivity when temperature decreases to -90 °C (0.001 mS/cm) (**Fig. 2c**).



135
 136 **Fig. 2:** a, Electrostatic potential (ESP) maps showing the charge distributions of the solvent
 137 molecules considered in this work. b, Binding energies of Li⁺ with different solvents. c,
 138 Conductivity of the base electrolytes and the electrolytes containing EB, ETFB, EHFB, and TFEB.
 139 d, DSC curves of the above electrolytes. e, Digital images of different electrolytes after storage at -
 140 110 °C for 30 minutes. f, Relationship of solvation structure and physical properties of electrolyte.

141 The significant improvement in both ion conductivity and liquidity is highly likely
 142 due to a change in the solvation structure. This relationship between physical properties
 143 and solvation structure is illustrated in **Fig. 2f**. The fluorination weakens the interaction
 144 between EC and Li⁺, evidenced by the lowest EC-Li⁺ binding energy value in the EHFB

145 system (0.71eV) in the mix solvents (**Fig. 2b**), herein some of EC molecules are
146 released, and the high melting of EC would be compromised by the very low melting
147 of cosolvent in the mixture liquid according to the chemical potential equilibrium theory,
148 leading to a decrease in the melting point and lower viscosity (the inserted figure in **Fig**
149 **2c**) of the bulk electrolyte. Additionally, the ion diffusivity is governed by dielectric
150 effect and viscosity effect² (as described in stokes equations in **Fig. 2f**, more details
151 can be found in supporting information of eq.1-eq.3), thus relating the intrinsic nature
152 of conductivity. Therefore, the solvation structure optimization with our strategy can be
153 used to solve both ion conductivity and fluidity issues, which are typically problematic
154 at low temperature. Further solvation structure analysis will be discussed in the
155 following section.

156 **Unlock the electrolyte solvation interaction**

157 The solvation structures were decoupled by performing molecular dynamic (MD)
158 simulations (**Fig S7**) and calculating the radial distribution functions (RDF) ($g(r)$) and
159 coordination numbers ($n(r)$) of Li^+ in each case (**Fig 3a-b & Fig S8**). In general, the
160 dominant $g(r)$ peak for each solvent appeared at ~ 2.65 Å, corresponding to the radius
161 of the first solvation shell, while the dominant peak of the Li-P (PF_6^-) RDF appears at
162 ~ 4.2 Å. This means that the PF_6^- anions occupy the second solvation shell, and Li^+ and
163 PF_6^- generally exist in the form of separated ion pairs (SIP- PF_6^-) rather than being in
164 direct contact. In the base electrolyte, EC is the dominant solvent in the first Li^+
165 solvation shell, with a coordination number of 1.31 at room temperature (RT 298K),
166 followed by linear carbonate DEC (1.13) and EMC (0.94), respectively (**Fig 3g & Fig**
167 **S8, Table S6**). The addition of a cosolvent significantly changed the Li^+ solvation
168 structure, specifically, EC coordination number was sharply reduced to 0.61 (**Fig 3b &**
169 **3g**) in the EHFB electrolyte, while the DEC coordination number increased to 1.46 (**Fig**
170 **3b & 3g**). Similar trends were observed in the EB, ETFB, and TFEB systems, indicating
171 a transition from an EC-dominant solvation structure to a DEC-dominant one. This
172 transition was found to be fluorination-dependent, and the higher fluorination degree of

173 cosolvent, the stronger coordination of low- ϵ solvents to Li^+ while weakening that of
174 EC. This contributes to overall weak interactions between Li^+ and the solvents in
175 electrolyte, and thus facilitate Li^+ desolvation and improve LT performance. These
176 effects became more pronounced at lower temperatures. For instance, the DEC
177 coordination number in the EHFB electrolyte increased from 1.46 at 298K to 1.71 at
178 203K, while the EC coordination number fell to 0.33 (from 0.61 at 298K) (**Fig 3h, Fig**
179 **S9, Table S6**), indicating much more EC was replaced by DEC in the first solvation
180 shell at LT. This feature is no doubt favorable for LT applications. In contrast, more EC
181 in the base electrolyte take part in coordination with Li^+ upon decreasing temperature,
182 manifested by the increase in the EC coordination number (from 1.34 at 298K to 1.76
183 at 203K) and the reduce in the DEC coordination number (from 1.13 at 298K to 0.74 at
184 203K). Notably, the coordination of PC (which has a similar high- ϵ with EC) is found
185 no obvious change when introducing cosolvent, this is properly due to PC is much less
186 coordinated competitive with EC.

187 This difference is further verified by the FTIR and Raman spectra analysis under
188 different temperatures (see **Fig 3c-f** and the full spectra presented in **Fig S10** and **Fig**
189 **S11**). In which the free and solvated C=O peaks (in the region of 1660-1870 cm^{-1}) were
190 fitted using Voigt functions²⁷(**Fig 3d, Fig S12-S16**). The peak assignment is presented
191 in supporting information (**Table S7** and **Table S8**). Ratios of solvated to free EC (R_1)
192 and solvated EC to solvated DEC (R_2) calculated using eq. 1 and eq. 2 were used to
193 quantify the relative abundance of solvated EC as well as the evolution of competence
194 degree for coordination sites between EC and DEC²⁷.

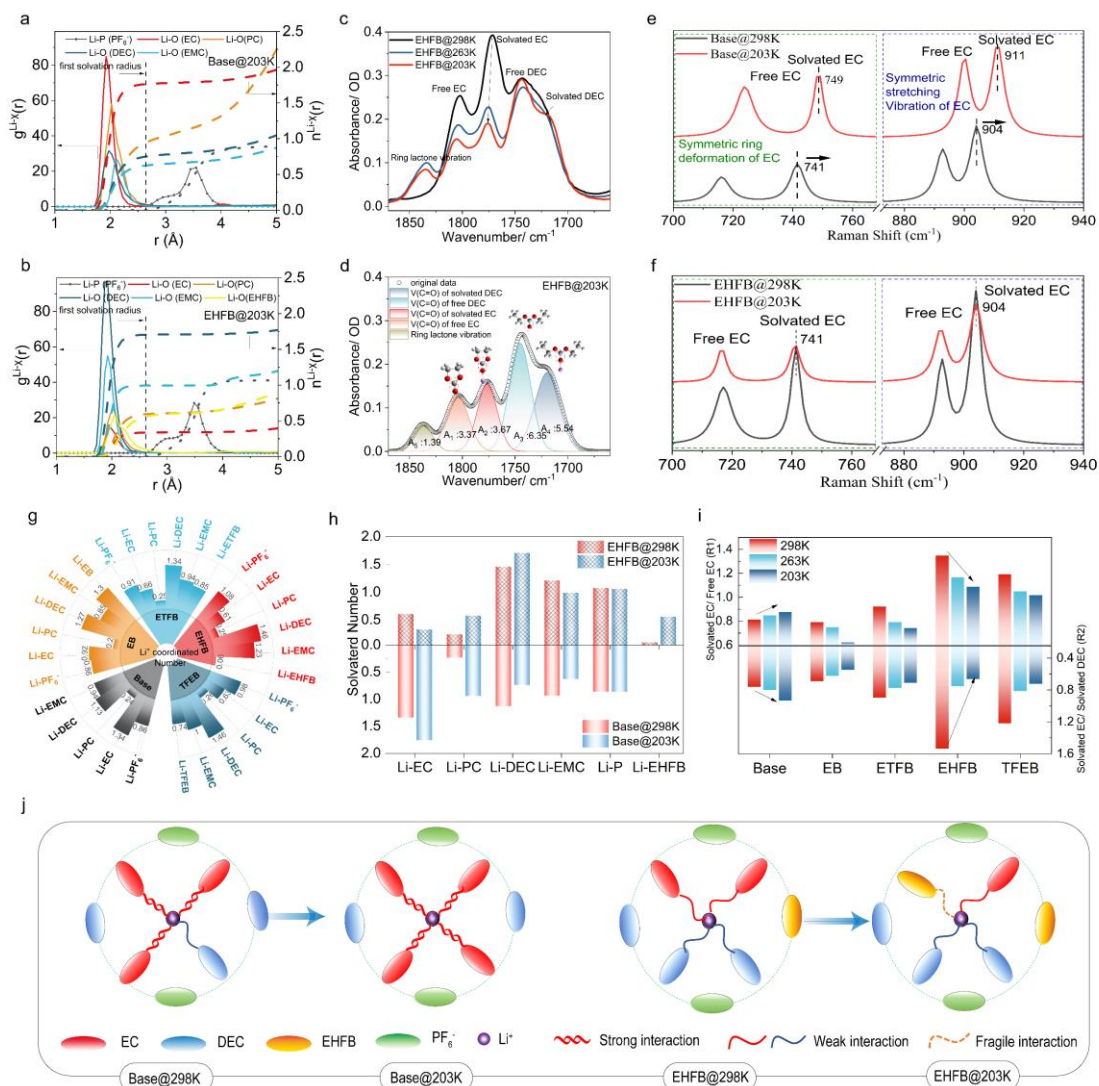
$$195 \quad R_1 = \frac{A_{\text{solvated EC}}}{A_{\text{free EC}}} \quad (\text{eq.1})$$

$$196 \quad R_2 = \frac{A_{\text{solvated EC}}}{A_{\text{solvated DEC}}} \quad (\text{eq.2})$$

197 Here, $A_{\text{solvated EC}}$, $A_{\text{free EC}}$ and $A_{\text{solvated DEC}}$ are the integrated area intensities of the
198 vibrational bands corresponding to solvated and free EC C=O groups and the C=O
199 group of solvated DEC, respectively (**Fig 3d**). Quantitative analysis revealed that both
200 R_1 and R_2 values decrease upon with decreasing temperature from 298K to 203K (Fig

201 3i), upon the introduce of co-solvent. For instance, R_1 value for EHFB electrolyte
202 reduce from 1.34 (at 298K) to 1.09 (at 203K), concurrently with the reduce of R_2 from
203 1.53 (at 298K) to 0.66 (at 203K) (**Fig 3i, Table S8**). This trend clearly illustrates that
204 the cosolvent promotes coordination between DEC and Li^+ , accompanying with
205 weaken interaction between EC and Li^+ especially at LT, and thus leading to the first
206 solvation shell structure evolution from being EC-dominant to DEC-dominant. Note
207 that R_2 value decreases faster for EHFB electrolyte than ETFB and TFEB (**Fig 3i, Table**
208 **S8**), indicative of its greater selectivity on tailoring DEC-dominant solvation structure
209 at LT. Conversely, for the base electrolyte, both R_1 and R_2 increase from RT to 203K,
210 corroborates its characteristics of EC-dominant solvation over the wide temperature
211 range (**Fig 3i**). Furthermore, this change was accompanied by a significant blue shift of
212 both two solvated EC peaks in Raman spectra (741 to 749 cm^{-1} and 904 to 911 cm^{-1})
213 with respect to EHFB electrolyte (**Fig 3e, Fig S18**), further indicating that the
214 coordinative interaction between Li^+ and EC is much stronger in the base electrolyte at
215 LT^{16, 23}. This impedes its practical utility under cold conditions. These aforementioned
216 features in terms of reduced R_1 and R_2 values, suppressed blue shift of C-O band (**Fig**
217 **3f**) well support hypothesis that cosolvents bearing strongly electron-withdrawing
218 fluorinated groups efficiently promote the coordination of weakly polar linear
219 carbonate solvents (i.e., DEC) to Li^+ while suppressing that of more polar cyclic
220 carbonates (i.e., EC), especially at LT (**Fig 3j**), consisting well with the RDFs derived
221 from the MD simulations (**Fig 3a**). Moreover, the fluorinated cosolvent itself also
222 contributes to Li^+ solvation, and the corresponding coordination numbers (in primary
223 solvation shell at RT are estimated to be 1.3 for EB, 0.85 for ETFB, 0.06 for EHFB,
224 and 0.74 for TFEB, decrease with the increase of fluorination degree (**Fig 3g & Fig S8,**
225 **Table S6**). These results agree well with the calculated binding energies of Li^+ with
226 solvents shown in **Fig 2b**. Interestingly, EHFB trends to coordinate with Li^+ at LT
227 although its lowest coordination behavior at RT, manifested by the temperature related
228 coordination number drastically increasing from 0.06 at 298K to 0.56 at 203K (**Fig 3h**).
229 This indicates that the coordination ability of EHFB molecular was auto-activated under
230 LT, and more cosolvent taking part in the solvation process. The low- ϵ solvent dominant

231 solvation structure combining with the cosolvent participating in, ultimately and
 232 radically contribute to overall weakened interactions between Li^+ and the coordinated
 233 solvents in the inner solvation sheath (**Fig 3j**). These features are favorable for
 234 facilitating Li^+ desolvation, and no doubt promote electrochemical kinetics at LT.



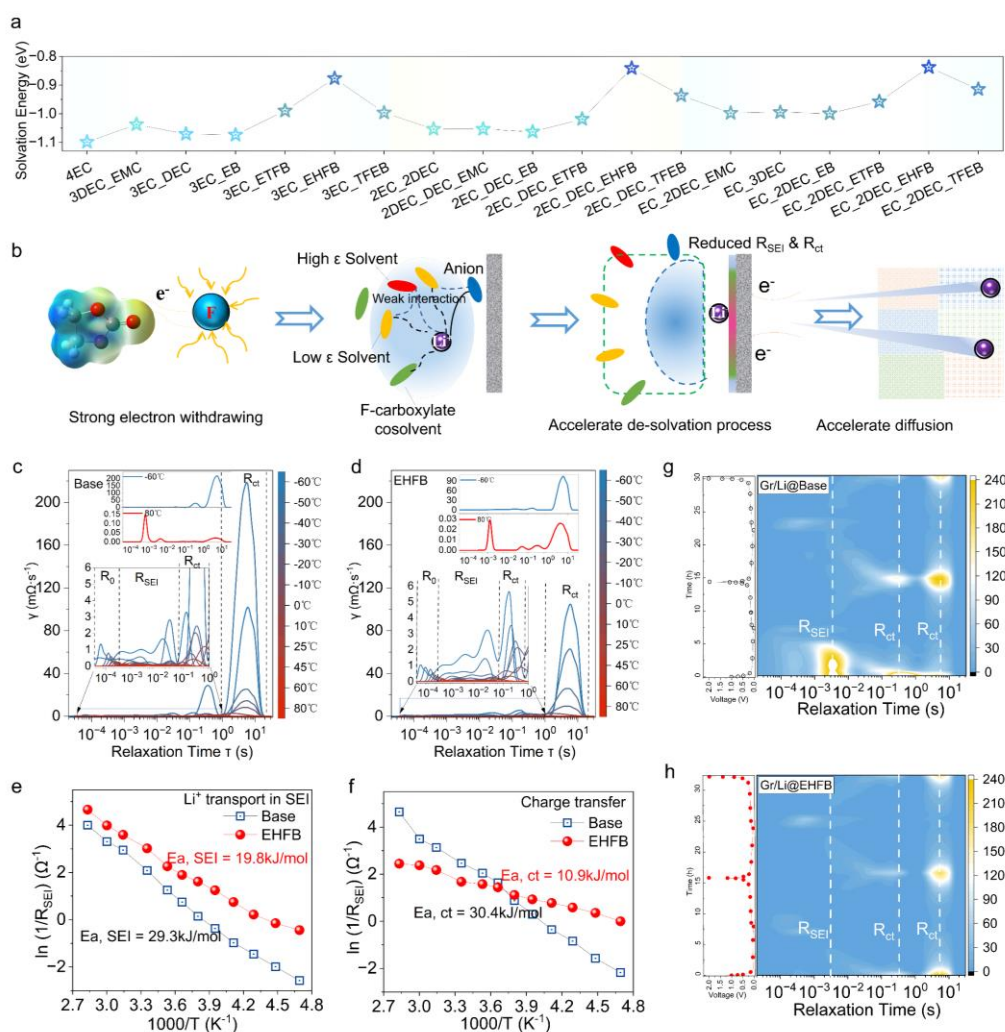
235
 236 **Fig. 3: Calculated radial distribution functions ($g(r)$) and coordination numbers ($n(r)$) at 203K for**
 237 **the base electrolyte (a) and the EHFB electrolyte (b) based on molecular dynamics (MD)**
 238 **simulations. c, The C=O regions of the FTIR spectra of EC and DEC in the EHFB electrolyte at**
 239 **different temperatures. d, Fitting spectra with Voigt function for the EHFB electrolyte of 203K.**
 240 **Raman spectra for symmetric ring deformation of EC and stretching vibration of the C-O bond in**
 241 **the base electrolyte (e) and the EHFB electrolyte (f). g, Coordination numbers for the five studied**
 242 **electrolytes at 298K based on the calculated RDFs. h, Coordination numbers of all solvent**
 243 **components with Li^+ in the base and EHFB electrolytes at 298K and 203K. i, Ratios of solvated EC**
 244 **to free EC, and solvated EC to solvated DEC in the base and EHFB electrolytes (derived from**
 245 **FTIR spectra) at different temperatures. j, Illustration of solvation structure changes in the base**
 246 **and EHFB electrolytes upon lowering the temperature from 298K to 203K.**

247 **Promotion of Li⁺ desolvation and improvement of electrochemical kinetics**

248 DFT calculations reveal that introducing the fluorinated cosolvent EHFB
249 dramatically reduced the Li⁺ desolvation energy for a simplified EC/DEC electrolyte
250 from ~1.1 eV to ~0.84 eV (**Fig 4a**). Moreover, the higher fluorination degree of the
251 cosolvent, the smaller desolvation energy. This is attributed to the strongly electron-
252 withdrawing effects of fluorine substituents that efficiently promotes the coordination
253 between Li⁺ and low- ϵ solvents, and forming DEC dominated solvation structure with
254 overall reduced interactions between Li⁺ and solvents (**Fig 4b**), thereby facilitating
255 desolvation process (**Fig 4b**).

256 Further evidences of the impact of the fluorinated cosolvent on Li⁺ desolvation are
257 derived from the distribution of relaxation times (DRT) analysis (for details, see the
258 supporting information) (**Fig 4c-d**)^{34, 35, 36}. In which different electrochemical process
259 are classified via a local maximum in a continuous distribution function^{37, 38, 39}.
260 Specifically, the DRT peak at low frequency ($10^1 > \tau > 10^0$) was assigned to charge
261 transfer resistance (R_{ct}), the intermediate frequency peak ($10^{-1} > \tau > 10^{-3}$) was attributed
262 to the resistance that lithium-ion transport through the SEI (R_{SEI}), and the high
263 frequency peak ($10^{-3} > \tau > 10^{-4}$) was identified as the contact resistance (R_0), in
264 accordance with the literature³⁴. Both R_{ct} and R_{SEI} were found to be highly temperature-
265 dependent, R_{ct} is dominant at low temperature, whileas, R_{SEI} is found to be dominant at
266 high temperature (**Fig S20**), consisting with previous reports³⁶. R_{ct} in the EHFB
267 electrolyte was determined to be 1.0 Ω at -60 °C (**Fig 4d**), followed with 4.7 Ω for
268 ETFB, and 3.2 Ω for TFEB (**Fig S19 - Fig S21**). All these values are much smaller than
269 that of the base electrolyte (8.8 Ω) (**Fig 4c**), highlighting the important role of
270 cosolvents in facilitating charger transfer. This is also verified by the reduced activation
271 energies of charge transfer in **Fig 4f**. In which, the value is estimated to be 10.9 kJ/mol
272 for LCO/Gr pouch cell with the EHFB electrolyte, which is about one third of that in
273 base electrolyte (30.4 kJ/mol). And the activation energy increases in the order of EHFB,
274 TFEB, and ETFB, agreeing well with the evolution trend of desolvation energy in **Fig.**
275 **4a**. The sluggish kinetics in the graphite anode part is reported to be the main challenge

276 that will push the Li^+ intercalation potential into graphite below 0 V (vs. Li/Li^+)^{8, 9, 25,}
277 ³⁰, which is verified by the much larger impedance of the graphite anode compared to
278 the LCO cathode, especially at LT (**Fig S22**). DRT mapping of Gr/Li half-cells over
279 two electrochemical cycles at -10 °C in the base and EHFB electrolytes (**Fig 4g-h**)
280 reveal that, the EHFB system exhibit much smaller R_{ct} compared with the base
281 electrolyte, again implying that the cosolvent can facilitate charger transfer for the low
282 temperature trapped graphite anode. In addition, significant decreased R_{SEI} in the in-
283 situ electrochemical process (**Fig 4g-h**) was also observed, which implied that the
284 cosolvent also works for Li^+ transport through the SEI. This is evidenced by the much
285 smaller activation energy of Li^+ transport through the SEI in full cells with EHFB (19.8
286 kJ/mol) compared with that in the base electrolyte (29.3 kJ/mol) (**Fig 4e**). Meanwhile,
287 R_{SEI} increased during initial charging and then declined during the subsequent
288 electrochemical operations (**Fig 4g**), suggesting that SEI derived from the base
289 electrolyte is comparatively unstable and poorly conductive⁴⁰. Conversely, in the EHFB
290 system, the R_{SEI} was smaller and more stable (**Fig 4h**). The significantly decreased
291 activation energy and lower resistance of this graphite/Li cell could be attributed to
292 formation of a thin, inorganic-rich fluorine-containing SEI derived from the fluorinated
293 cosolvent, as reported previously⁴¹ and illustrated in the following discussion.



294

295

296 **Fig. 4: Desolvation behavior and its effect on electrochemical kinetics.** a, Li^+ solvation/desolvation
 297 energies in different electrolytes. b, Illustration of fluorinated co-solvent's key role in weakening the
 298 interactions between Li^+ and solvent molecules, accelerating desolvation and facilitating Li^+ diffusion.

299 Temperature-dependent distribution of relaxation times (DRT) plot derived from EIS data for the base

300 electrolyte (c) and the EHFB electrolyte in LCO/Gr pouch cells (d). Corresponding activation energies

301 derived by Arrhenius fitting for R_{ct} (e) and R_{SEI} (f) with the base and EHFB electrolytes. In-situ DRT

302 data representing two cycles of graphite/Li half-cells with the base electrolyte (g) and the EHFB

303

304

Role of the solvation structure toward SEI properties

305

The SEI compositions and structural evolutions on the cycled graphite electrodes were characterized by time-of-flight secondary ion mass spectrometry (TOF-SIMS).

306

307 The depth profiles of TOF-SIMS showed that organic moieties (CH_2^- , CO_3^- , $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}^-$,

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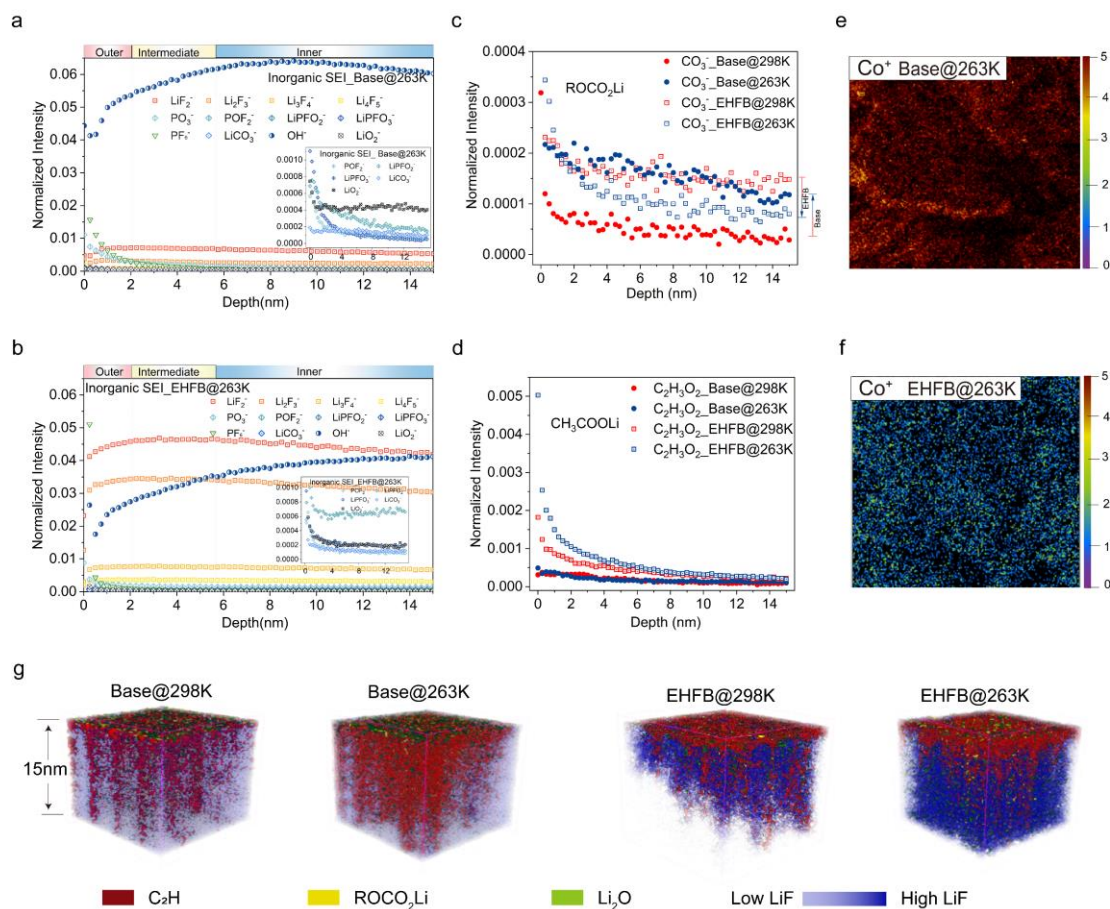
and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^-$) were mainly concentrated on the outface of SEI (**Fig 5c-d & Fig S28**),

309

while inorganic LiF species (LiF_2^- , Li_2F_3^- , Li_3F_4^- , Li_4F_5^-) and OH^- became more

310 prevalent at the inner side of SEI (**Fig 5a-b, Fig S27**), agreeing well with previously
311 reported SEI distribution^{42, 43, 44}. **Table S9** listed the attribution of the fragment ions and
312 their potential sources, including three organic components: ROCO₂Li (representing
313 CO₃⁻ fragment), CH₃COLi (C₂H₃O⁻) and CH₃COOLi (C₂H₃O₂⁻), which were produced
314 through the electrochemical reduction of EC, DEC and carboxylate, respectively. When
315 temperature decreased from 298K to 263K, the ROCO₂Li signal was strengthened (**Fig**
316 **5c & Fig S29a**) while CH₃COLi signal was weakened (**Fig 29b**) and almost no
317 CH₃COOLi signal was detectable in base electrolyte (**Fig 5d & Fig S29c**). This directly
318 indicates severe reduction of EC at LT while that of DEC became insignificant.
319 Conversely, upon cooling to 263 K, the ROCO₂Li signal was weakened and the
320 CH₃COLi signal became stronger when using the EHFB electrolyte, (**Fig 5c, Fig S29**),
321 implying intensified DEC reduction decomposition with EHFB contained at LT while
322 the decomposition of EC declined. This is well consistent with the previously discussed
323 results (**Fig 3g-k**) that the solvation of Li⁺ by EC is promoted at LT when using the base
324 electrolyte but is inhibited when using EHFB electrolyte, while the opposite trend is
325 observed for DEC. In addition, detectable CH₃COOLi signal suggests that the
326 fluorinated cosolvent contributes to the solvation structure and participates in film
327 forming on the graphite surface at LT (**Fig 5d**), agreeing well with the calculation result
328 of LUMO energies (**Table S2**). More LiF species in the interface derived from EHFB
329 is much higher than that in base electrolyte at the same LT (**Fig 5a-b**) and increased as
330 the temperature decreased (**Fig S27c-d**). These differences are manifested in the 3D
331 spatial distributions overlay of organic SEI components (C₂H, ROCO₂Li) and inorganic
332 species (LiF, Li₂O) under different temperature conditions (**Fig 5g**). The organic
333 component (i.e. C₂H) was found only in the outermost layer of SEI with low contents
334 for EHFB cases, while more LiF were identified throughout the underlying layers and
335 increase from 0.029 to 0.042 a.u. with lowering temperature, properly benefited from
336 more EHFB-participated solvation structure as proven in **Fig 3h**. In contrast, the base
337 electrolyte-derived SEI delivers much smaller amount of LiF species (**Fig 5a, Fig 5d**).
338 These “Friendly” anionic components are highly conductive interface species^{42, 45}. The
339 detailed mass spectra and 3D distributions are represented in **Figure S24-26** and **Fig**

340 **S31**, respectively. In addition, the dissolution of Co^+ was captured in the graphite anode
 341 cycled with base electrolyte which is known to be highly destructive for SEI⁴⁶, while it
 342 was almost undetectable with EHFB electrolyte (**Fig 5e-f & Fig S30a-d**). This is
 343 possibly due to the oxidation resistance of fluorination, which can be verified by the
 344 LSV result (**Fig S41**), highlighting the significant advantages of fluorination cosolvent
 345 toward high voltage applications and the excellent performance of SEI distributions of
 346 this kind with EHFB cosolvent. All these together, rightly explained the superior
 347 desolvation kinetic and LT performance observed in the EHFB electrolyte (**Fig 4c-h**).



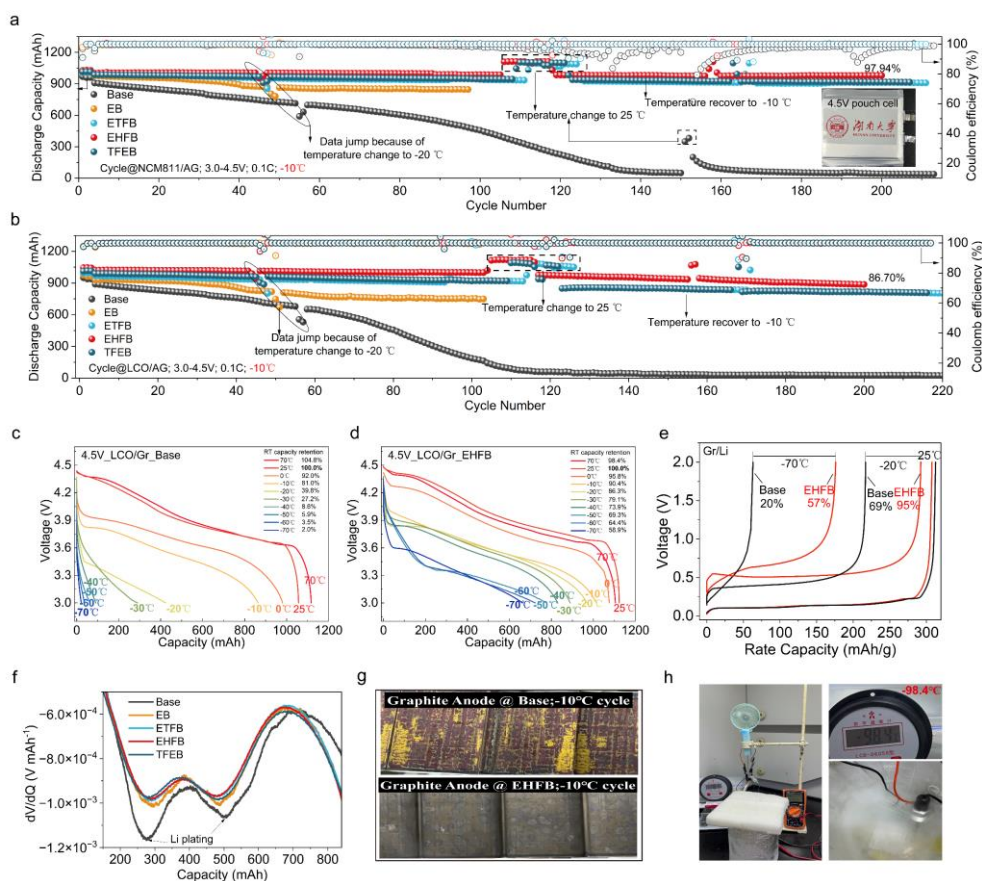
348 **Fig. 5: TOF-SIMS characterization of the features and structural evolution of SEI at the graphite**
 349 **anode.** Depth profiles of functional groups in the inorganic SEI after prolonged cycling at 263K for the
 350 base electrolyte (a) and the EHFB electrolyte (b). Depth profiles of the ROCO₂Li component (c) and
 351 CH₃COOLi component (d) in the SEI formed from the base and EHFB electrolytes at 298K and 263K.
 352 The spatial distribution of Co^+ on the graphite anode for the base electrolyte (e) and EHFB electrolyte
 353 (f). g, 3D reconstructions of the topmost 15nm of the graphite anode SEI formed at 298K and 263K for
 354 the base electrolyte and EHFB electrolyte cells.
 355

356 **Comparative electrochemical performance at low temperature.**

357 Coupling EHFB electrolyte with commercial NCM811/Gr (1 Ah) and LCO/Gr
358 pouch cells (1 Ah) yielded excellent electrochemical performances especially at LT, as
359 demonstrated by capacity retention of up to 97.94% and 86.70%, respectively, after 200
360 cycles at -10°C with a cut-off potential of 4.5V (**Fig 6a-b**). Furthermore, LCO/Gr pouch
361 cells with EHFB electrolyte retained a high capacity of 830 mAh at -40 °C,
362 corresponding to 73.9% of their RT capacity (**Fig 6d**). Notably, these cells retained ~60%
363 of their RT capacity at even -70 °C (**Fig 6d**), and could even power an electric fan at -
364 98.4 °C (**Fig 6h, Fig S40, Movie S1 & S2**), demonstrating the viability of the new
365 electrolyte at extremely low temperatures. Usable battery performance was thus
366 achieved at temperatures below the condensation point of CO₂ (-78 °C), demonstrating
367 the remarkable low-temperature performance of the EHFB electrolyte. Similar
368 excellent performance was achieved in NCM811/Gr pouch cells, which retained 61%
369 of their RT capacity at -70 °C (**Fig S36**). In contrast, cells using the base electrolyte
370 exhibited significantly lower performance, retaining only 79.4% of their RT capacity at
371 -10°C, and were totally failed at -40°C (**Fig 6c**).

372 Considering the much concerned issue of lithium dendrite formation at LT⁴⁷, the
373 differential voltage profiles of cells with the two electrolytes were thereby compared to
374 evaluate the extent of lithium plating⁴⁷. A much more pronounced Li plating peak was
375 observed for cells using the base electrolyte compared to those with EHFB (**Fig 6f**).
376 And the yellow deposits of metallic Li were clearly identified on the surface of the base
377 electrolyte -cycled graphite anode under -10 °C (**Fig 6g & Fig S38**), but not on those
378 from cells using the EHFB electrolyte. These findings were consistent with optical
379 images acquired using a TOF-SIMS camera (**Fig S23**) and SEM images of the cycled
380 graphite (**Fig S39**), and further supports are derived from the low temperature
381 performance comparison between graphite and metallic lithium anode (**Fig S33**). The
382 Gr/Li cells with the EHFB electrolyte retained 57% and 95% of their RT capacity at -
383 70 °C and -20 °C, respectively, which are much higher than those in the base electrolyte
384 (20% and 69%, respectively, **Fig 6e**). In addition, Gr/Li cells using electrolytes

385 containing fluorinated cosolvents (especially EHFB) exhibited very stable cycling
 386 performance over 120 cycles with 99% capacity retention under $-10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (**Fig S37c**),
 387 whileas the Gr/Li cells coupled with base electrolyte exhibits dramatic capacity loss
 388 within the first 20 cycles (from 249.3 to 28.5 mAh/g), followed by a slow increase in
 389 capacity that ultimately stabilized at 100 mAh/g after 120 cycles (**Fig S37c**). This poor
 390 cycling behavior in base electrolyte is attributed to the insufficient lithiation at LT
 391 resulting from the accumulation of lithium dendrites. All these, together, further
 392 corroborate fluorination carboxylate cosolvent-contained electrolyte is highly
 393 compatible with the graphite anode. This significantly improves the practicality of
 394 graphite-based cell when operating in cold conditions.



395
 396 **Fig. 6: Low temperature performance of the commercial LiCoO₂/Graphite (LCO/Gr) and**
 397 **LiNi_{0.3}Co_{0.3}Mn_{0.3}O₂/Graphite (NCM811/Gr) pouch cell with the designed electrolytes and common**
 398 **electrolyte. a-b, Cycling behavior of NCM811/Gr cell (a) and LCO/Gr (b) with different electrolyte**
 399 **under $-10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. c-d, The temperature-dependent discharge profiles of LCO/Gr pouch cells with Base**
 400 **electrolyte (c) and EHFB electrolyte (d). e, Charge profiles of Gr/Li cells with different electrolyte at**
 401 **different temperature. f, Differential voltage (dV/dQ) profiles of the 100th discharge curve cycled at $-$**
 402 **$10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. g, Optical images of the dismantled graphite after the long cycling at low temperature. h, Optical**
 403 **images of an electric fan powered by the 4.5V LCO/Gr pouch cell using EHFB electrolyte at superior**
 404 **low temperature $-98.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. The video is in supporting information (Movie S1 and S2).**

405 Additionally, the best rate performance of Gr/Li was achieved with EHFB
406 electrolyte (**Fig S37a**), retaining 77.7 mAh/g at 5C and subsequently recovering
407 immediately to its initial capacity with 331.6 mAh/g at 0.2C. All these demonstrates
408 that it could be extended for the fast charge applications, considering there are some
409 common issues with graphite anode operation at low temperature and high C-rates.
410 Furthermore, the corresponding room temperature and high temperature cycling
411 performance of the pouch cells and Gr/Li cells (**Fig S34-Fig S35**) showed that the
412 cosolvents contained cells behaved much better than those without, with 800mAh/g
413 retained at the 55th cycle under 60 °C, and negligible capacity loss within the 100 cycles
414 at 25 °C for NCM811/Gr cells. All these, verified the feasibility that cells containing
415 the proposed cosolvent could operate for all the temperatures.

416 **Conclusion**

417 Regulating the electronegativity of carbonyl oxygen of EC via introducing
418 fluorinated cosolvent weakens the strong coordination of EC to Li⁺, thus achieved a
419 fluorine-dependent transition from EC-dominated SSIP to DEC-dominated one,
420 especially at low temperatures. As a result, there is an overall weak connection between
421 Li⁺ and solvent that leading to ease desolvation of Li⁺, and still maintaining the high
422 dielectric property of EC. Moreover, the cosolvents participated in weak coordination
423 were also easily decomposed to form a fluorine-rich SEI. The designed solvation
424 structure leads to dramatic improvements in low temperatures, which enables wider
425 liquidity (retaining liquid at -110 °C), better conductivity (1.46 mS/cm at -90 °C), and
426 more facilitated desolvation process. These improvements allow 4.5V graphite-based
427 pouch cells to maintain stable operation over 200 cycles at -10 °C with only 2% capacity
428 loss and no detectable lithium dendrite formation. Additionally, the cells can operate at
429 -70 °C while retaining 60% of their room temperature capacity and can power electrical
430 devices at extremely low temperatures of ~ -100°C. Overall, this solvation design
431 strategy in traditional EC-based electrolytes provides a unique approach to develop
432 lithium-ion batteries suitable for use in extreme environments.

433 **Methods**

434 **Electrolyte preparation and battery fabrication.**

435 The base electrolyte was prepared by dissolving 1M LiPF₆ in a mixture of
436 carbonate solvents (EC: PC: DEC: EMC = 2:1:3:4 by volume). Test electrolytes were
437 prepared with the same concentration of LiPF₆ but with half of the DEC replaced with
438 a fluorinated cosolvent or EB, giving a solvent composition of EC: PC: DEC: EMC:
439 cosolvent = 2: 1: 1.5: 4: 1.5 by volume. Four cosolvents were tested: EB and its
440 fluorinated analogs ETFB, EHFB, and TFEB.

441 1Ah dry pouch cells obtained from Li-Fun Technology were injected with 4.3g of
442 electrolyte for NCM811/Gr cells or 2.1g for LCO/Gr cells in a glovebox filled with
443 argon. The standard cell formation process was then completed by performing gas
444 release and re-sealing to obtain cells with an electrochemical window of 3-4.5V.

445 **Electrochemical measurements**

446 The charge/discharge behaviors of the batteries (coin cells and pouch cells) were
447 tested using a battery test system (CT-4008T-5V6A, CT-4008T-5V10mA, Neware,
448 Shenzhen, China). Batteries to be tested were placed in the chamber (GMC-71, Espec,
449 Guangzhou, China) and brought to an appropriate onset temperature for the desired test.
450 Electrical impedance spectroscopy was performed over a frequency range from 0.01
451 Hz to 100K Hz on an electrochemical work station (Solartron 1455A, Solartron Group,
452 UK) with an amplitude of 10 mV.

453 **Electrolyte characteristic**

454 The conductivity of the electrolytes was determined with a conductivity meter
455 (Mettler Toledo, Shanghai, China) in a cold trap containing a mixture of ethyl alcohol
456 and liquid nitrogen whose temperature was adjusted by varying the ratio of the two
457 substances. FTIR spectra were acquired using a Fourier Transform Infrared
458 Spectrometer (Nicolet, iS50 FT-IR, Thermo Scientific, KBr tablet, wave number 4000-
459 600 cm⁻¹). Raman spectra were acquired with a WITEC alpha 300R Raman system

460 (532 nm laser, laser power 2mW). The electrolyte was storage at the onset temperature
461 with the same temperature controlling device of conductivity before FTIR and Raman
462 test.

463 **TOF-SIMS**

464 Chemical mapping and depth profile analyses of anode samples were conducted
465 using a TOF-SIMS instrument (PHI nano TOF II, MN, USA). Bi⁺ source produced by
466 a 30 KeV bismuth liquid metal ion gun with a DC current of 300pA were used as
467 primary ions for chemical mapping analysis. Positive and negative ion TOF-SIMS
468 images were acquired in unbunched mode from 20 μm by 20 μm areas of each sample
469 with a spatial resolution as low as 70 nm. For spectrum and depth profiles analysis, The
470 Bi³⁺⁺ ions produced by a 30 KeV bismuth liquid metal ion gun with DC current of
471 9.7nA were used as primary ions for spectrum and depth profile analysis. Positive and
472 negative ion TOF-SIMS spectrum were acquired in bunched mode from 150 μm by 150
473 μm areas of each sample with a mass resolution of around 12000 for m/z 28(Si⁺).
474 During depth profiling SEI layers, an Argon ion (Ar⁺) gun was used for sputtering. The
475 sputtering rate was 5nm/min for standard SiO₂. A slow sputtering interval of around
476 0.25 nm for each cycle was used to improve the quality of the depth profile curves.
477 Mass scale calibration was performed using common fragment ions (Positive mode:
478 CH₃⁺, m/z:15.02; C₂H₃⁺, m/z:27.02; C₃H₅⁺, m/z:41.04; Negative mode: CH⁻, m/z:13.00;
479 C₂H⁻, m/z:25.00; C₄H⁻, m/z:49.00). Data processing was performed using PHI TOF-DR
480 software (Physical Electronics, Minnesota, USA).

481 **Computational methods.**

482 Geometry optimization, energy calculations, and electronic structure analyses of
483 electrolyte and solvent molecules were performed using the Gaussian 16 package with
484 the B3LYP functional⁴⁸ and the 6-311G(d,p) double-zeta basis set⁴⁹. Frequency
485 analyses were performed using the same basis set to verify the stability of the optimized
486 structures. Solvation effect for the complexes of Li⁺ with different molecules were
487 evaluated by using the SMD implicit solvation model with acetone (ε=20.49) as the

488 continuum solvent. Molecule dynamic simulations of the common electrolyte
489 (EC:PC:DEC:EMC=20:10:30:40) and the four cosolvent-containing electrolytes
490 (EC:PC:DEC:EMC:cosolvent=20:10:15:40:15 by volume) were performed using the
491 Forcite module in Material Studio software with the COMPASS III ab initio forcefield
492 ⁵⁰ and the Nosé thermostat⁵¹. The numbers of different molecules in the five systems
493 are shown in Table S5. Before performing simulations with the canonical ensemble
494 (NVT) at the specified temperature for 10 ns, the density of each system was
495 equilibrated with the NPT ensemble for tens of picoseconds.

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