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Bulk Sensitive Soft X-Ray Edge Probing for Elucidation of Charge Compensation in Battery Electrodes

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Abstract

To this day, elucidating the charge transfer process in electrode material upon electrochemical cycling remains a challenge, primarily due to the complexity of chemical reactions at the electrode surfaces. Here we present an elegant and reliable method to probe bulk sensitive soft edges for elucidating anodic and cathodic charge compensation contribution via x-ray Raman scattering spectroscopy. By using a hard x-ray incident beam this technique circumvents surface limitations and is practically free of selfabsorption due to its non-resonant nature. In addition, it does not require complex sample preparation or experimental setups, making it an ideal tool for potential *in situ* analysis of the electronic structure of electrode materials. In this study we monitored for the first time bulk soft edges of both oxygen and transition metal (iron) of the cathode material $\text{Li}_2\text{FeSiO}_4$ during one complete electrochemical cycle concurrently. Our results reveal that the redox mechanism relies primarily on the iron (cathodic) contribution. Nevertheless, a change in electron confinement of the oxygen suggests its active involvement in the charge compensation process (anodic). Moreover, we were able to support the experimentally observed changes of the electronic structure with *ab initio* based simulation.

Keywords

X-ray Raman Scattering; Soft x-ray edges; Li-ion batteries; high voltage cathode materials; anodic charge compensation; Li_2FeSiO_4

1 Introduction

Numerous experimental and theoretical studies have been dedicated to elucidate the complexity of electrochemical redox reactions in battery materials. However, the distinction between surface confined and bulk electrode phenomena remains a subject of controversy and debate. Therefore, there is a strong urge to overcome the limitation of conventional experimental methods and go beyond the theoretical predictions. In this study, we present a reliable and elegant solution to address this challenge.

⁸ X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) offers plentiful insights into battery materials and ⁹ is a standard tool for investigation of diverse electrode materials.¹ Regrettably, absorption ¹⁰ K-edges of low Z elements and transition metal (TM) L-edges are cumbersome to access ¹¹ or completely inaccessible with conventional XAS. This is unfortunate as many promising ¹² electrode materials comprise these low Z elements (N, O, Si, S, Li, Na, Ca, Al, etc.) and

the majority of cathode electrode materials are based on TM redox centres.² X-ray Raman 13 Scattering (XRS) spectroscopy is a unique element specific technique that can circumvent 14 these limitations. It allows direct observation of soft x-ray edges of bulk samples without 15 sophisticated sample preparation thanks to the use of a hard x-ray incident beam ($\approx 10 \, \text{keV}$), 16 which is inelastically scattered by the sample.³ In this way XRS combines the advantages of 17 hard x-ray techniques, i.e. bulk sensitivity, with the sensitivity of soft XAS (sXAS). Unlike 18 XAS, XRS is not limited to dipolar excitations, therefore non-dipole excitations can pro-19 vide additional information for obtaining full density of projected states. Furthermore, XRS 20 allows the accommodation of complex sample environments and circumvents cumbersome 21 experimental setups under vacuum or inert atmosphere as well as avoids the self-absorption 22 problematic due to the non-resonant nature of this technique, which make sXAS experiments 23 very challenging. The superiority of XRS over the sXAS technique in terms of probing depth 24 and data quality was impressively demonstrated by Braun et al. by investigating electronic 25 structure of transition metal cathode material for lithium ion batteries (LIB). In their study 26 the authors highlight that spectroscopic results of bulk XRS and surface confined sXAS 27 greatly differ, underlining the importance of bulk analysis for obtaining an extensive and 28 representative picture of the bulk physicochemical process in electrode materials.⁴ Due to its 29 strong photon scattering yield and its prominence, graphite has been the most intensively 30 studied LIB electrode material using XRS.^{5–7} Moreover, the capability of XRS to probe 31 Fe L-edge and oxygen K-edge in complex sample environments has been recently demon-32 strated. $^{8-10}$ 33

Thanks to being composed of abundant, low-cost, environmental benign, and non-toxic elements Li_2FeSiO_4 has received great interest as an alternative cathode material for LIB, since the discovery of its electrochemical activity more than a decade ago.¹¹ Its stability is at least as high as commercialised LiFePO₄ (LFP) but features potentially increased energy and power density owing to the elevated intercalation potential and the faster charge transport.^{12–15} Its complex polymorphism has been intensively studied and is mostly under-

stood.^{16,17} However, recently the capability of reversibly extracting more than one lithium 40 per formula unit has led to a vivid scientific debate and numerous publications. The initial 41 hypothesis of more than one electron extraction on the basis of Fe(III) to Fe(IV) transforma-42 tion proposed by *Islam et al.*¹⁸ and experimentally claimed by *Lv et al.*¹³ was not supported 43 by later studies.^{14,15,19-21} While the formation of Fe(IV) as the origin of additional capac-44 ity at elevated voltage has been rebutted, the role of oxygen as active anionic redox agent 45 has shifted into focus of research. Numerous studies have emerged since the first observa-46 tion of such anionic redox contribution in layered transition metal oxides about five years 47 ago. $^{22-26}$ The discovery of an anodic charge contribution was met with enthusiasm by the 48 battery research community, since it holds the promise to boost capacity and energy density 49 of traditional cathode materials. In this regard, an important role of oxygen in the charge 50 compensation at elevated potential has been also proposed for the reversible extraction of 51 more than one lithium from polyanionic Li₂FeSiO₄.^{15,19–21,27,28} While Masese et al. claim 52 that oxygen charge compensation occurs exclusively during extraction of a second lithium 53 per formula unit,¹⁹ later studies suggest active participation of oxygen already at an earlier 54 stage in the redox process.^{27,28} In their recent Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculation 55 based study Zheng et al. point out the importance of 3d electronic configuration for the 56 involvement of oxygen 2p in the charge compensation along with the necessity of oxygen 57 polaron formation.²¹ 58

Unfortunately, all of the previously published studies on the elucidation of charge compen-59 sation mechanism in Li_2FeSiO_4 bear inherent drawbacks. On the one hand, the theoretical 60 studies are unable to deliver information on intermediate states of electrochemical process 61 due to intrinsic limitations of functionals. On the other hand, spectroscopic techniques are 62 limited by low penetration depth, unrealistic sample environment, or ambiguity of spec-63 tral results. In this regard the surface limitation of soft x-ray absorption spectroscopy is 64 particularly troubling since electrode-electrolyte interfaces are very complex systems, often 65 covered with surface layers (e.g. solid-electrolyte interphase, SEI). Therefore, the outcome of 66

⁶⁷ such surface confined spectroscopic measurements greatly depend on the sample preparation
⁶⁸ method and conditions.

To overcome the experimental limitations of soft XAS and obtain a more reliable and exhaustive picture of the electronic structure than theoretical studies can provide, we present here a thorough bulk study of anionic O 2p and cathodic TM 3d electronic states of Li₂FeSiO₄ cathode material at different states during one complete electrochemical cycle using XRS spectroscopy.

$_{74}$ 2 Experimental

75 2.1 Sample and Electrode Preparation

Synthesis of electrode material has been described elsewhere.¹⁴ All samples were taken from 76 the same electrode casting batch and have identical electrode loading and composition. The 77 electrode thickness is about 30 μ m the particle size is in the sub-micrometer range. The active 78 material electrodes were mounted in electrochemical half-cells with lithium metal as counter 79 and reference electrode. The cells were cycled in EC:DEC (1:1) with 1 M LiPF_6 at C/6 rate, 80 whereas 1 C corresponds to deinsertion / insertion of one lithium per formula unit in one hour, 81 165 mA g^{-1} . For the *ex-situ* cells used in this experiment the rested and cycled batteries 82 were opened in an argon filled glovebox, electrodes were removed and washed thoroughly 83 with anhydrous ethanol to remove electrolyte remnants and any SEI formed, primarily to 84 minimise the oxygen spectral contribution from carbonate species. The washed electrodes 85 were dried under vacuum and were then vacuum sealed under argon, in laminated pouch 86 cells with aluminium windows (Al thickness $15 \,\mu\text{m}$) in the centre of the pouch on both sides. 87

⁸⁸ 2.2 X-ray Raman Scattering

All X-ray Raman scattering (XRS) spectroscopy data were gathered at the beamline ID20 of
the ESRF. The pink beam from four U26 undulators was monochromatized using a cryogeni-

cally cooled Si(111) monochromator and focused to a spot size of approximately $10 \,\mu m \times$ 91 $20 \,\mu m \,(\mathrm{V} \times \mathrm{H})$ at the sample position using a mirror system in Kirkpatrick-Baez geometry. 92 The large solid angle spectrometer at ID20 was used to collect XRS data with 36 spheri-93 cally bent Si(660) analyser crystals.²⁹ The data were treated with the XRStools program 94 package as described elsewhere.³⁰ The *ex situ* electrodes, sealed in pouch cells, were placed 95 at an incident beam angle of $\approx 10^{\circ}$ into the beam. The beam position was verified by the 96 presence of Li 1s peak at $\approx 55 \,\text{eV}$, see spectra in S.I. All measurements were collected at 97 room temperature. Acquisition scans lasted around 10-14 h per sample. We collected several 98 scans of the oxygen K-edge by scanning the incident beam energy to create energy losses in gg the vicinity of the oxygen K-edge. All scans were checked for consistency and signals from 100 different analyser crystals were averaged over. The overall energy resolution was 1.0 eV, and 101 the mean momentum transfer was 6.2 ± 0.4 Å⁻¹. All spectra have been normalised and a 102 smoothing function has been applied to the spectra presented. 103

104 2.3 Simulation

To elucidate the electronic structure of the material, O K-edge *ab initio* simulation were 105 performed using the Finite Difference Method Near Edge Structure (FDMNES) software pack-106 age.^{31,32} The simulation have been performed by using the multiple scattering theory based 107 on the muffin-tin approximation on the potential shape on the Green scheme.³³ The muffin-108 tin radii were tuned to have a good overlap between the different spherical potentials. A non-109 relativistic calculation was performed and the Hedin-Lundqvist exchange potential was used. 110 The approximation of non-excited absorbing atoms was used which, in this case, best re-111 produces the experimental data.³⁴ The semi-empirical parameters screening and dilatorb 112 were used to reproduce the electronic configuration of the material. In this respect, two 113 matrices of different simulated spectra corresponding to different values of screening and 114 dilatorb were calculated and a combination of both was matched to the experimental data 115 set for obtaining best agreement. Furthermore, the total density of states (DOS) as well as 116

the individual projections of p and d-DOS at Oxygen K-edge for the Li₂FeSiO₄ structure¹⁹ were calculated³⁵ and are reported in S.I..

¹¹⁹ 2.4 X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy

The sample preparation and experimental details for the complementary operando Fe K-edge
 XAS study have been previously reported elsewhere.¹⁴

122 **3** Results

¹²³ 3.1 X-ray Raman Scattering

A scheme of a typical electrochemical cycling curve of Li_2FeSiO_4 is depicted in Fig. 1, 124 along with seven red markers indicating the state of charge/ discharge of the prepared post 125 *mortem* samples. The charge (delithiation) comprises samples A to E, whereas A corresponds 126 to pristine material, D at the end of charge (EOC) at 4.7 V, and E to EOC held for several 127 hours at 4.8 V to ensure that the oxidation reaction reached equilibrium conditions. The 128 discharge (lithiation) comprises samples D to G, whereas G is the relithiated material after 129 one cycle. Although the discharge was incomplete at this point we will refer to this sample 130 as "end of discharge" (EOD) in the following. Due to experimental issues we were not able 131 to acquire spectra of a sample at a higher degree of discharge. 132

From the electrochemical cycling curve it is salient that more than the theoretical capacity based on the transition metal redox couple Fe^{2+} / Fe^{3+} is reversibly obtained when cycling beyond 4.2 V vs. Li⁺/Li. Typically, not the complete extracted capacity during charge is reversed upon discharge which can be mostly attributed to irreversible lithium extraction and parasitic side reactions of the electrolyte. The latter is particularly strong when cycling at elevated potential, as previously pointed out.¹⁴

The evolution of the oxygen K-edge upon charge and discharge is shown in Fig. 2. Two main features can be identified. Firstly, the pre-edge peak related to the transition from



Figure 1: (a) Scheme of electrochemical cycling curve of $\text{Li}_2\text{FeSiO}_4$ vs. lithium. Red markers indicate the state of charge /discharge of the seven *post mortem* samples.(b) Experimental setup of pouch cell in grazing XRS.

O 1s to the empty Fe 3d mixed with O 2p orbital at ≈ 531 eV. The position is well in line 141 values reported in the literature³⁶ as well as with our *d*-DOS projection which illustrate 142 that the pre-edge peak originates primarily from Fe 3d states, see S.I.. The evolution of 143 normalised pre-peak area shown in the inset was obtained by single peak fitting of the area 144 marked by the hatched box. Secondly, the broad main peak associated to the excitation of 145 oxygen 1s electrons above the Fermi level into the Fe 4sp band hybridised with O 2p states, 146 centred around $\approx 539 \,\mathrm{eV}$. The absence of carbonate species in the oxygen spectra confirms 147 the effective removal of SEI by ethanol washing procedure.³⁷ 148

Upon charging an increase of the normalised intensity of pre-edge feature is observed 149 which is in good agreement with the recent study by Lu et al. applying surface confined soft 150 XAS.²⁷ According to Yoon et al. the pre-edge reveals important information about the hole 151 state distribution and the effective charge on the oxygen atom since the density of empty 152 bound state in molecular energy level is related to the hybridisation of the transition metal 153 3d- oxygen 2p.³⁸ In this regard the observed increase in intensity, see inset Fig. 2 reflects the 154 emptying of the *d*-orbitals, resulting from the oxidation of Fe^{+2} to Fe^{+3} . On the contrary to 155 our findings, Masese et al. found no change of the pre-edge intensity for the extraction of 156 the first lithium from Li₂FeSiO₄ structure. However, the authors report a strong increase in 157

the pre-edge intensity for extraction of more than one lithium per formula unit, which is in line with our observation of sample E, held several hours at elevated potential of 4.8 V. The authors attributed this to the formation of O 2*p* ligand holes, reflecting primary contribution of oxygen to the charge compensation process.¹⁹ However, their results are based on *ex situ* fluorescence yield detection XAS with limited number of samples and probing depth which penalises the reliability and representativeness.

¹⁶⁴ Upon discharge the trend of pre-edge intensity increase is partially reversed, as shown in ¹⁶⁵ Fig. 2. While the intensity of the pre-edge intensity is effectively reduced upon discharge, ¹⁶⁶ at the highest state of discharge (sample G) a more pronounced pre-edge feature than for ¹⁶⁷ the pristine sample (A) is maintained. The irreversible phase transition from monoclinic ¹⁶⁸ to orthorhombic structure upon first delithiation^{17,39} could be partially accountable for the ¹⁶⁹ observed discrepancy between the charge and the discharge process.



Figure 2: Evolution of oxygen K pre-edge (hatched box) and main edge during charge and discharge of bulk Li_2FeSiO_4 measured via X-ray Raman Scattering. The inset shows the evolution of normalised integrated pre-edge peak area within the hatched box.

To highlight the evolution of O 2p main edge spectra, a cumulative and constant stacking

of the spectra acquired during charge (sample A to E) and discharge (sample D to G) are 171 presented in Fig. 3 (a) and (b), respectively. The position of the O 2p main edge remains 172 largely unchanged upon electrochemical cycling indicating that oxidation state of lattice 173 oxygen is globally maintained. However, Fig. 3 shows clearly that upon lithium deinsertion 174 a gradual change in intensity ratio of main edge twin peak occurs, which points towards 175 an alteration of oxygen orbitals during Li deinsertion process. Upon lithium reinsertion 176 these changes of the O2p band structure are partially reversed. Nevertheless, the trend is 177 incomplete which could be connected to the fact that the discharge reaction was incomplete 178 at sample G state as well as to the irreversible phase transformation upon first charge. 179



Figure 3: (a) Cumulative stacking of main oxygen K-edge spectra upon charge and inset without stacking. (b) Constant stacking of main oxygen K-edge spectra upon discharge. Arrows indicate the twin-peak intensity ratio changes.

¹⁸⁰ 3.2 Soft edge simulation

In order to gain a more fundamental understanding of the electronic structural changes the
 FDMNES code was used to simulate the spectra in an *ab initio* approach. Within this approach,
 the two semi empirical parameters dilatorb and screening were systematically adjusted to

reproduce the electronic configuration of the investigated material. The dilatorb parameter 184 modifies the valence orbitals by dilating or contracting them, hence allowing one to alter the 185 degree of covalency. This can be very useful for ionic materials to address the ionic species, 186 for instance the oxygen the formal charge of O^{2-} where the atomic bases are calculated for 187 neutral atoms. By changing the screening parameter the electronic charge in the non-full 188 valence orbital of the absorber can be modified, by placing an additional electron on the first 189 non-occupied state while the absorbing atom remains (almost) neutral.⁴⁰ Two matrices of 190 different simulated spectra corresponding to gradually increasing values of screening and 191 dilatorb were calculated and are presented in Fig. 4 (a) and (b), respectively. In Fig. 4(a) 192 we show that an increase in dilatorb parameter leads primarily to a reduction of the pre-193 edge feature intensity accompanied by a shift to lower energy. The effect of the screening 194 value, pictured in Fig. 4(b), is more complex as it leads to a change in intensity ratio of the 195 pre-edge and main edge feature, but also strongly influences the shape of the latter. In this 196 regard, the change of the intensity ratio of the twin-peak is particularly apparent. 197



Figure 4: Influence of empirical parameters (a) dilatorb which alters covalency and (b) screening which changes electron confinement on the simulated spectra of Li_2FeSiO_4 using FDMNES code.

¹⁹⁸ Subsequently, for a defined value of dilatorb another matrix with different values of

screening was simulated in order to achieve best agreement with the three experimental 199 spectra of samples pristine (A), end of charge plus hold (F), and end of discharge (G), see 200 Fig. 5. Within the examined energy range all main features of the electronic band structure 201 around the oxygen K-edge were reasonably well reproduced by applying dilatorb value of 202 0.09, and screening values of 0.7, and 0.8 for sample A, and E, respectively. By default 203 the screening value is one. The fact that the core hole charge is not completely screened 204 (partial electron charge missing) points to a correlation effect, caused by presence of the ex-205 cited 3d electron, hindering the screening process.⁴⁰ The observed change of the screening 206 value indicates the modification of the local environment of oxygen upon delithiation. More 207 specifically, the 0.1 increase in screening value upon charge reflects a less filled state of the 208 d-orbital, which results in the rise of the pre-edge feature. This reduction in screening po-209 tential is also accompanied by a reduction in electron confinement of the O2p band resulting 210 in upwards shift of the Fermi level, which is in good agreement with recently published DFT 211 calculations.²¹ The observed reduction in electron confinement is furthermore in line with 212 previously reported shortening of Fe–O bond length, arising from an increase in covalency 213 and increased electron delocalisation upon delithiation.¹⁷ 214

The changes of the shape of the O 2p main edge during charge and discharge, which are 215 shown in Fig. 3, reflect the rearrangement of oxygen orbitals and the redistribution of charge 216 during electrochemical lithium extraction and insertion. The fact that the intensity ratio of 217 the twin-peak can be partially reproduced using the screening parameter, shown in Fig. 218 4(b), connotes that the observed changes are linked to a change in electron confinement and a 219 3d electron correlation effect upon charge. A lowering of electron confinement at the oxygen 220 upon charge implies an increased sharing of the charge with the transition metal. In this 221 sense the observed changes in electronic structure suggests that oxygen provides charge for 222 the Fe^{2+} / Fe^{3+} redox couple throughout the electrochemical reaction which could sustain the 223 reversible extraction of more than one lithium per formula unit. Regrettably, the resolution 224 of the experimental data not allow us to interpret the O 2p spectra in more detail. 225

For the sample at lowest state of discharge (sample G), best agreement of simulation and experimental data was achieved applying the same value of **screening** as for the pristine sample (A). This implies that changes of electron confinement are largely reversible. Nevertheless, a slightly elevated **dilatorb** value was found, indicating a change in covalency of the bond.

The disagreement of the simulated spectra compared to experimental data for the energy 231 range beyond the main edge features stems from the complex data extraction process. In 232 the here presented results the emphasis of data extraction procedure lay on elucidating the 233 energy range of pre-edge feature. By adequately adjusting the extraction parameters a better 234 agreement for the spectra beyond first O_{2p} feature can be achieved. However, this comes 235 as a trade-off for the agreement in the pre-edge feature range. In this regard, it should 236 be also noted that the electrode samples in pouch cell assembly used for this spectroscopic 237 investigation were optimised for their electrochemical performance and not for scattering 238 yield. 239

²⁴⁰ **3.3** Fe L-edge

Similarly to the O K-edge, XRS was used to probe the Fe L_3 -edges. L-edges are arguably the 241 most direct probe of TM redox activity. Besides formal valence the 3d L-edges fingerprint the 242 spin-state as well as chemical bond configuration via the 2p to 3d electron excitation. The 243 evolution of Fe L_3 -edge spectra upon charge and discharge of Li_2FeSiO_4 are illustrated in Fig. 244 6 (a) and (b), respectively. The spectra of the Fe L₃-edge which derives from the $2p_{3/2} \rightarrow 3d$ 245 transition is composed of two main features centred at 708.2 and 709.8 eV. Upon charge a 246 change of peak intensity ratio from ≈ 708 to $710 \,\mathrm{eV}$ is observed. This is in good agreement 247 with evolution of pre-edge features of Fe K-edge upon charge shown in the inset of Fig. 6a. 248 Please refer to the S.I. for complete XANES spectra and enlarged version pre-edge evolution 249 graph. The good agreement between complementary iron K-edge XAS results and L-edge 250 XRS underline that XRS is an effective and reliable method to probe electron transition 251



Figure 5: Experimental spectra (solid lines) and FDMNES simulated spectra (dotted lines) of the oxygen K-edge of Li_2FeSiO_4 of pristine (sample A), end of charge + holding at 4.8 V (EOC+hold, sample E) and end of discharge (EOD, sample G).

of redox active d-orbitals via direct $2p \rightarrow 3d$ transition of the L-edge, with the benefit of 252 significantly higher intensity than indirect dipole forbidden $1s \rightarrow 3d$ K-edge pre-edge features 253 via XAS. The observed peak intensity shift is well in line with the values reported in the 254 literature for a $\text{Fe}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{Fe}^{3+}$ transformation.^{2,27,41,42} The continuous increase of Fe^{3+} peak 255 for the sample held at elevated potential (E) indicates that the oxidation from the ferrous 256 to the ferric state was incomplete at sample D stage, which can be attributed to kinetic 257 hindrance due to sluggish charge transfer.⁴³ Although the experimental resolution does not 258 allow us to exclude the oxidation beyond Fe(III) with certainty, the formation of Fe(IV) has 259 been rebutted by a complementary operando XANES analysis, see S.I., as well as in multiple 260 other studies.^{15,19–21} It should be noted that the pristine sample contained a slight share of 261 Fe^{3+} originating from phase impurities. 262

Upon discharge the changes of the Fe L_3 -edge are only partially reversed and the initial state of pristine is not recovered, analogously to our observation for the O K-edge, see Fig.



Figure 6: Iron L_3 -edge evolution during (a) charge and (b) discharge of Li_2FeSiO_4 measured via X-ray Raman Scattering. The inset depicts evolution of Fe K-edge pre-edge features obtained via XAS, see S.I. for enlarged version.

²⁶⁵ 6(b), inset of Fig. 2, and Fig. 3(b), respectively. This irreversibility is attributed to the ²⁶⁶ incomplete state of discharge of sample G, as well as irreversible structural transformation ²⁶⁷ during initial charge, *vide supra*.Fig. 6(b), inset of Fig 2, and Fig. 3(b), respectively

²⁶⁸ 4 Discussion

The above presented results highlight the effectiveness and usefulness of X-ray Raman scat-269 tering spectroscopy for accessing bulk electronic structure information to elucidate the com-270 plex electrochemical charge transfer process in electrode materials. Additionally we demon-271 strate that the observed electronic structural changes can be reproduced for intermediate 272 states of charge by the FDMNES code which could have been hardly achieved applying DFT 273 calculations. In detail, our results show that the electrochemical activity of Li_2FeSiO_4 is 274 primarily based on $Fe^{2+/3+}$ redox centre. XRS reveals a reversible shift in Fe L₃ edge cor-275 responding to the oxidation of Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} , which are supported by complementary XAS 276 results. Furthermore, XRS allowed us to monitor the change in occupancy of the hybridised 277 oxygen orbitals which result in a change of intensity of the oxygen K-edge pre-edge fea-278

ture. Moreover, our findings show that the charge distribution of oxygen changes during the 279 lithium extraction process, notably an increased delocalisation of oxygen electron at EOD. 280 Whether the alteration of the main edge is also linked the enhanced metal-oxygen hybridi-281 sation or indicates an additional charge compensation by lending electrons to the $Fe^{2+/3+}$ 282 redox couple, can not be answered with certainty based on these results. Although the role 283 of oxygen can not be determined beyond doubt within this study, it is certain that it plays 284 an important role for preserving electronic and structural stability of the host material by 285 preventing the formation of unstable Fe⁴⁺. The oxygen contribution suggested by our XRS 286 spectroscopy analysis is therefore much more subtle and uncertain than previously claimed in 287 calculation-based predictions 15,21,28 or surface confined soft XAS 19,27 studies which somewhat 288 frivolously attribute changes of oxygen pre-edge feature directly to anodic charge contribu-289 tion instead of metal-oxygen hybridisation. We like to highlight that our findings represent 290 bulk electrode information and reflect therefore the electronic structure of lattice elements 291 of the full electrode. Nevertheless, a major anodic charge compensation that would explain 292 most of the additional reversible capacity observed was not confirmed by our study. There-293 fore, previously suggested phenomena such as rich surface chemistry are to be considered to 294 explain the observed additional capacity.^{14,44} 295

By using a pouch cell assembly we demonstrated that the XRS technique offers the possi-296 bility to work under sample relevant conditions with the potential of carrying out experiments 297 in situ configuration. Nevertheless, the challenge of overlapping spectral contribution from 298 other oxygen containing battery components (electrolyte, SEI, etc.) needs to be addressed. 299 Also, the reduction of background scattering and increase of signal-to-noise ratio is a crucial 300 requirement for reduced acquisition time that would permit *operando* measurements. The 301 recently published in situ XRS study on Li intercalation in graphite using a confocal-like 302 setup is an encouraging step in this direction.⁴⁵ 303

³⁰⁴ Improving energy resolution of XRS spectroscopy remains a challenge for complex sam-³⁰⁵ ples such as electrode materials due to strong parasitic scattering. Tailored sample holders which effectively shield non-desired scattering contribution could lead to much increased signal-to-noise ratio which will enhance reliability as well as reduce acquisition time.

Interestingly, XRS also allows the combination of depth profiling as well as 2D mapping which could be coupled to perform a 3D screening of an electrode, unveiling exciting insights on propagation of electrochemical reaction front propagation.^{46,47}

5 Conclusion

We have demonstrated that X-ray Raman scattering spectroscopy can be conveniently ap-312 plied to probe bulk soft x-ray edges of both anionic and cathodic redox pairs to elucidate 313 the charge transfer process upon electrochemical cycling in battery materials. For the first 314 time we applied XRS to closely follow the change in electronic structure of polyanionic cath-315 ode material Li_2FeSiO_4 , monitoring the evolution of O2p and Fe3d orbitals concurrently 316 at distinct points during one complete electrochemical cycle, without cumbersome sample 317 preparation or the need for sophisticated sample environment. Furthermore, we show that 318 the FDMNES code is a suitable tool to reproduce soft edge spectra of intermediate states of the 319 redox reaction, allowing deeper insights into the electronic structural changes. Our findings 320 reveal a gradual emptying and filling of 3d orbitals upon charge and discharge, respectively, 321 reflecting the primary redox activity of the transition metal. Besides the evident enhanced 322 metal-oxygen hybridisation reflected by the oxygen pre-edge rise, the changes of charge dis-323 tribution of O 2p could not be attributed with certainty. To the best of our knowledge the 324 XRS spectroscopy presented in this study is currently the only available technique that al-325 lows studying soft edge electronic structures of bulk materials. Thus, providing the scientific 326 battery community with a tool to elucidate the ambiguity between surface vs. bulk as well 327 as unveiling anionic charge compensation contribution of low Z elements on the bulk level 328 of electrode materials. 320

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336 Supporting Information

XRS spectra of quasi-elastic scattering and inelastic Li 1s peaks. Projection of individual and total density of states for O K-edge of $\text{Li}_2\text{FeSiO}_4$. *Operando* Fe K-edge XANES during first charge of $\text{Li}_2\text{FeSiO}_4$.

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