



Oxidation-reconstructed Li^+ transport enables high-tap-density single-crystal regeneration of spent $\text{LiNi}_{0.5}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Mn}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ positive electrodes

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Direct regeneration offers a shortcut to close the material supply loop of lithium-ion batteries and is a promising recycling strategy. However, in spent $\text{LiNi}_{0.5}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Mn}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ positive electrode, severe bulk cation disorder and surface rock salt phase hinder Li^+ reinsertion. Moreover, the coexistence of single and poly-crystal particles in commercial batteries further complicates uniform re-lithiation and morphological regeneration. Herein, we propose an oxidation strategy to simultaneously regulate the structural reconstruction and morphological evolution of spent material. During oxidation, surface NiO transforms into NiOOH, while targeted oxidation of the anti-site Ni^{2+} to Ni^{3+} in the bulk reduces $\text{Li}^+/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ mixing. This reconstructs Li^+ diffusion channels from surface to bulk, facilitating re-lithiation. Meanwhile, structural changes induce lattice expansion in secondary particles, causing their decomposition into primary particles and forming uniform precursor particles. These particles, with continuous Li^+ transport channels and NiOOH surface, agglomerate into large single-crystal during calcination. The regenerated $\text{LiNi}_{0.5}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Mn}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ achieves a high tap density of 2.57 g/cm^3 and retains 80.2% capacity after 600 cycles. This work presents a concept for the direct regeneration of degradable positive materials.

Lithium-ion batteries (LIBs), valued for their high energy density and long cycle life, are extensively used in electric vehicles and grid-scale energy storage, resulting in a rising volume of spent LIBs^{1–4}. Accordingly, efficient recycling of spent batteries, driven by environmental protection and resource reuse, is now a primary focus in industry and

academia^{5–7}. Current LIBs recycling relies primarily on pyrometallurgy, hydrometallurgy, or their combinations. Metallurgy routes, which break the chemical bonds of electrode materials and thus release valuable lithium and transition metals, are recognized as “down-cycling” strategies^{8,9}. Besides, metallurgy routes generally require high

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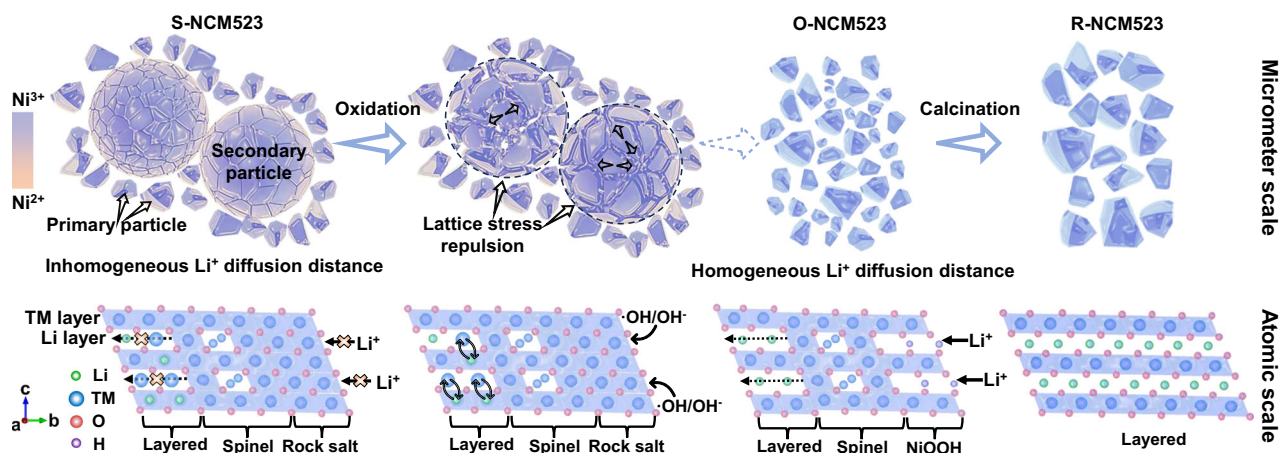


Fig. 1 | Oxidation-enabled direct regeneration of S-NCM523 into single-crystal R-NCM523. At the micrometer scale, mixed spent primary and secondary particles undergo oxidative reconstruction into uniform primary particles, followed by

calcination into regenerated single-crystal NCM523. At the atomic scale, oxidation removes the rock-salt phase and cation disorder, reopening Li^+ diffusion channels, and subsequent calcination to reconstruct the layered structure.

temperatures or strong acids/alkalis, leading to high energy costs and secondary pollution^{10,11}. In contrast, the direct regeneration route aims to repair defects in spent positive electrodes and restore their electrochemical performance without destroying the original crystal structure, which provides a shortcut to close the material supply loop of LIBs as a simpler, less polluting, and higher-value recycling method^{12–14}.

However, the direct regeneration of spent $\text{LiNi}_x\text{Co}_y\text{Mn}_z\text{O}_2$ (NCM) positive electrodes is hampered by sluggish and heterogeneous Li^+ diffusion and poor morphology controllability, arising from intrinsic structural degradation and particle heterogeneity. During cycling, intrinsic structural instability drives Ni migration from the transition-metal (TM) layer to the Li layer, leading to severe $\text{Li}^+/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ mixing and surface degradation, particularly the formation of rock salt phase^{15–17}. These degraded phases severely hinder Li^+ re-insertion and diffusion within the solid oxides, that is, the Li replenishment during regeneration^{9,18}. In addition, to enhance compacted density and cycling stability, commercial NCM positive electrodes typically combine primary (single-crystal) and secondary (poly-crystal) particles. This heterogeneity varies Li^+ diffusion pathways among different particles, complicating uniform re-lithiation and morphologically homogeneous regeneration.

Currently, the direct regeneration of spent NCM primarily adopts hydrothermal or molten salt methods^{16,19–22}. In the recovery process, to promote Li^+ insertion, high pressure and high lithium concentration are always required, which erodes economic profitability and increases the burden of pollution control^{23,24}. Moreover, the hydrothermal re-lithiation can suffer from poor uniformity in Li replenishment due to differing diffusion paths within primary/secondary particles, undermining structural stability. The molten salt method is likely to induce anomalous growth of the original primary particles due to the addition of at least twice the lithium salt required for direct regeneration, thereby intrinsically limiting morphology controllability. Thus, although both methods enable relithiation, they rely on harsh conditions and struggle to balance structural repair with morphology regulation, making the efficient regeneration of NCM materials challenging.

As shown in Fig. 1, we propose an oxidation strategy based on $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$ that can simultaneously address the above challenges under mild conditions. Strongly oxidizing $\cdot\text{SO}_4/\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals derived from $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$ oxidize the surficial rock-salt NiO into a layered $\beta\text{-NiOOH}$ phase, thereby establishing two-dimensional Li^+ diffusion channels. Meanwhile, in the bulk, the anti-site Ni^{2+} in LiO_6 octahedron is oxidized to Ni^{3+} , which reverts to the TMO_6 octahedron due to its smaller radius

and charge balance, significantly reducing $\text{Li}^+/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ mixing and repairing the Li^+ diffusion pathway. Furthermore, the increase in Ni^{3+} in the bulk phase and the surface transition NiO to $\beta\text{-NiOOH}$ jointly induce lattice expansion, driving secondary particles to disintegrate into uniform primary “precursors”. These “precursor” features continuous Li^+ transport channels and a NiOOH-layered surface, enabling their coalescence into large single-crystals during subsequent calcination.

The regenerated single-crystal $\text{LiNi}_{0.5}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Mn}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ (NCM523) exhibits a reversible discharge capacity of 144.2 mAh/g at 1C, with capacity retention as high as 80.2% after 600 cycles. Notably, the oxidation strategy is also applicable to the direct regeneration of spent $\text{LiNi}_{0.6}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Mn}_{0.2}\text{O}_2$ (S-NCM622) and $\text{LiNi}_{0.8}\text{Co}_{0.1}\text{Mn}_{0.1}\text{O}_2$ (S-NCM811), yielding uniform single-crystal particles with high structural order and electrochemical stability. We anticipate that this oxidation strategy will inspire future research on the recycling of spent positive electrode materials and deepen understanding of the structure-recovery mechanism in spent NCM materials.

Results

Screening oxidants to achieve Ni^{2+} to Ni^{3+}

To choose a proper oxidant, the Eh-pH phase diagram of the Ni- H_2O system is constructed, as shown in Fig. 2a. An alkaline environment (pH=14) is predefined to prevent transition metal dissolution. The diagram reveals that NiO transforms into the layered NiOOH phase when the redox potential exceeds 0.54 V at pH=14, whereas the Co_3O_4 phase remains stable (Supplementary Fig. 1a). Meanwhile, to oxidize the bulk Ni^{2+} , an E° of -2.50 V is required²⁵. Standard electrode potentials of the typical oxidizing agents, calculated using the Nernst equation^{26–28}, are shown in Fig. 2b. Only $\cdot\text{SO}_4/\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals generated by the decomposition of $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ are available to satisfy the oxidative demands of both surface and bulk phases. The presence of $\cdot\text{SO}_4/\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals during oxidation is confirmed by ESR testing (Supplementary Fig. 1b).

As shown in Fig. 2c, with $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$ as an oxidizing agent, the surface NiO is converted to NiOOH, accompanied by a significant increase in the lattice spacing from 2.40 Å to 4.83 Å; the anti-site Ni^{2+} in the LiO_6 octahedron, which has higher activity, is also oxidized to Ni^{3+} and hence returns to the TMO_6 octahedron due to the radius variation and charge balance, causing c-axis expansion. The surficial and internal phase transitions induce lattice distortions, which increase the internal stresses within secondary particles, prompting their fragmentation into primary particles. The fragmentation unifies the morphology and homogenizes the Li^+ diffusion channels, further paving the way for subsequent Li replenishment.

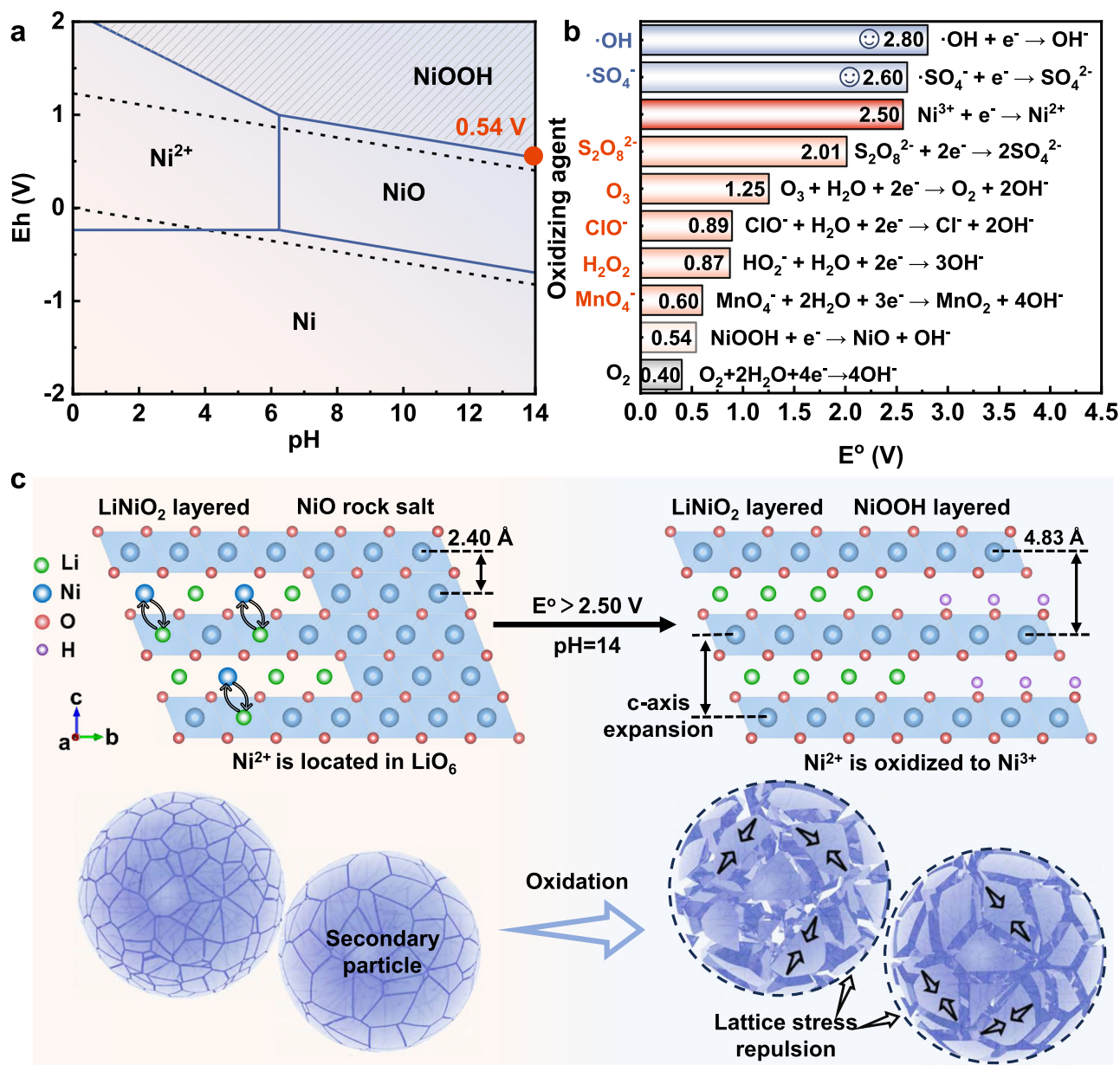


Fig. 2 | Oxidation mechanism of O-NCM523. a Eh-pH diagrams of the Ni-H₂O system (273.15 K, 1 mol/kg). **b** Standard electrode potentials calculated from the Nernst equation for oxidizing agents (273.15 K, pH=14). **c** Schematic diagram of Ni²⁺

oxidation to Ni³⁺ triggering atomic rearrangement and stress-induced particle fragmentation in S-NCM523.

Oxidation mechanism of S-NCM523

With spent NCM523 as a paradigm, the regeneration process involves two steps: (1) oxidation of spent NCM523 (denoted as S-NCM523, consisting of single and poly-crystal particles), where the as-obtained product is denoted as O-NCM523; (2) the subsequent high-temperature calcination of O-NCM523 with LiOH·H₂O as Li source, where the as-obtained product is denoted as R-NCM523. The initial pouch cell performance of S-NCM523 is shown in Supplementary Fig. 2. Additionally, regeneration via direct Li replenishment using a simple calcination route was conducted, and the product was used as a control sample (D-NCM523) to understand the role of the oxidation process.

As shown in Supplementary Table 1, R-NCM523 demonstrates a Li/TM molar ratio of 1.05, consistent with that of commercial NCM523. Neutron pair distribution function (NPDF) testing was employed to clarify the atomic-scale structural evolution from S-NCM523 to O-NCM523. As shown in Fig. 3a, d1-d5 correspond to the nearest in-

plane TM-O and TM-TM atom pairs. NPDF refinement in Fig. 3b reveals that O-NCM523 and S-NCM523 have similar d1-d5 peaks in the 1–6 Å range, indicating a similar crystal framework. While meticulous comparisons reveal that the TM-O (d1, 2.055 Å) and TM-TM (d2, 2.925 Å) bonds of O-NCM523 are shorter than those of S-NCM523, reflecting stronger interatomic interactions associated with the oxidation of TM from lower to higher valence states. Additionally, the intensity of the d1 peak in O-NCM523 is lower than that in S-NCM523, which is due to the higher Ni³⁺ content in O-NCM523 (less Li⁺/Ni²⁺ mixing), enhancing the Jahn-Teller effect and weakening the symmetry of the TM-O bond²⁹.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) tests with different etching times were used to determine the oxidation of which specific TM elements in NCM. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 4, for S-NCM523, the Ni 2p_{3/2} peak shifts from 853.2 eV to 854.7 eV with increasing etching time, indicating the presence of surface degradation zones corresponding to NiO rock-salt phases. In contrast, for O-NCM523, the Ni 2p_{3/2} peak at 854.7 eV remains consistent from the

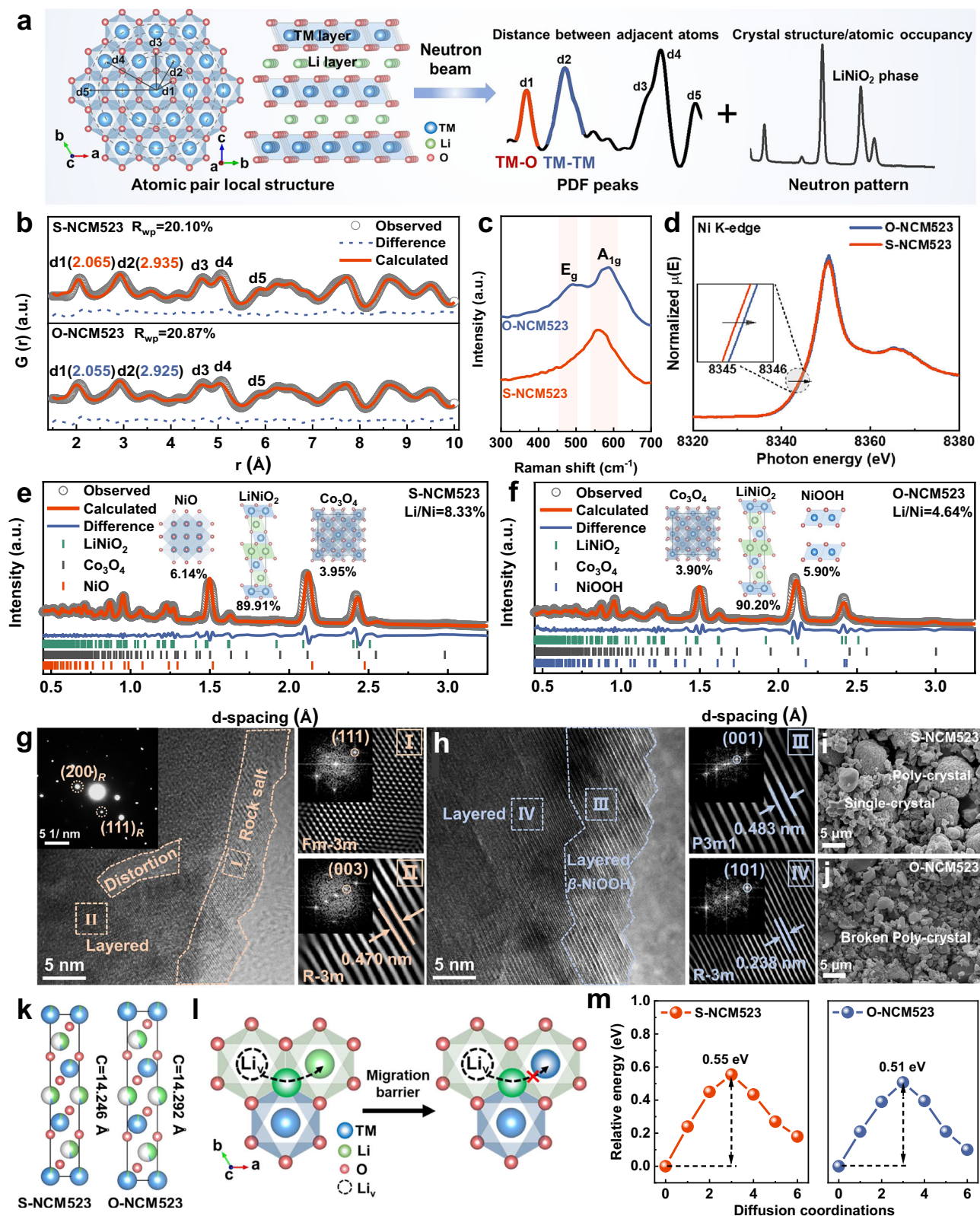


Fig. 3 | Structure and morphology evolution from S-NCM523 to O-NCM523. **a** Schematic diagram of the NCM crystal structure corresponding to the NPDF and NPD characteristic peaks. **b** NPDF refinement patterns of S-NCM523 and O-NCM523. **c** Raman spectra of S-NCM523 and O-NCM523. **d** Normalized Ni K-edge XAFS spectra of S-NCM523 and O-NCM523. **e**, **f** NPDF refinement patterns of

S-NCM523 and O-NCM523. **g**, **h** HRTEM images of S-NCM523 and O-NCM523. **i**, **j** SEM images of S-NCM523 and O-NCM523. **k** Schematic diagram of the lattice parameter c of S-NCM523 and O-NCM523. **l** Schematic diagram of Li⁺ diffusion pathways. **m** Relative energy for Li⁺ diffusion of S-NCM523 and O-NCM523.

surface to the near-surface region. Obviously, the oxidation process promotes the conversion of Ni (II) to Ni (III) as expected. Meanwhile, the valence states of Co and Mn remain unchanged (Supplementary Fig. 5a–d). Moreover, Raman spectra in Fig. 3c show only A_g signals in S-NCM523, confirming the presence of surface NiO phase³⁰. In contrast, O-NCM523 exhibits both A_{1g} and E_g signals, suggesting the formation of a layered structure on the surface. Subsequently, as shown in Fig. 3d, X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectroscopy was used to probe Ni valence states in the bulk of S-NCM523 and O-NCM523. The Ni K-edge spectra of O-NCM523 exhibit a clear shift to higher energies. Meanwhile, the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) Fourier transform reveals that the Ni–O and Ni–TM bond lengths in O-NCM523 are shorter than those in S-NCM523, and the Ni–TM peak intensity in O-NCM523 is weaker than in S-NCM523 (Supplementary Fig. 5e), suggesting the elimination of the NiO phase^{31,32}. Collectively, these results confirm that the oxidation mechanism primarily targets the oxidation of Ni^{2+} in S-NCM523.

The evolution of the bulk Li^+/Ni^{2+} mixing and surface rock salt phase in S-NCM523 after oxidation was determined by neutron powder diffraction (NPD) refinement. As shown in Fig. 3e, f, the Li^+/Ni^{2+} mixing decreases from 8.33% in S-NCM523 to 4.64% in O-NCM523. This is attributed to the oxidation of Ni^{2+} in LiO_6 to Ni^{3+} , which has a smaller radius (0.56 Å) than Li^+ (0.76 Å) and tends to migrate from LiO_6 back to TMO_6 ³³. Meanwhile, the NiO phase in S-NCM523 transforms into NiOOH during oxidation, and the NiOOH content in O-NCM523 is 5.90%, with both R_{wp} (5.87%) and R_f (5.40%) values below 10% (Supplementary Tables 12 and 13), indicating good reliability of the fitting. Moreover, after removing the NiOOH phase during refinement of NPD and NPDF, the R_{wp} values increase to 7.69% and 26.40%, respectively, further confirming the existence of the NiOOH phase in O-NCM523 (Supplementary Fig. 6). XPS analysis further confirms this transformation. The O1s XPS spectra in Supplementary Fig. 7a reveal the formation of NiOOH on the O-NCM523 surface. The Ni 2p XPS spectra in Supplementary Fig. 7b show a higher fraction of Ni (III) in O-NCM523 than that in S-NCM523, indicating the surface transformation from NiO to NiOOH.

All reactions related to the oxidation-derived regeneration process are outlined in Supplementary Table 2. To further verify the transformation from the tough rock-phase NiO to layered NiOOH, $Na_2S_2O_8$ solution was reacted with NiO. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 8, after 1 h of reacting at 25°C, NiOOH diffraction peaks appear, confirming that the surface NiO in S-NCM523 could be directly transformed into NiOOH by $Na_2S_2O_8$.

The Li^+ loss during the oxidation process was quantified by ICP analysis. Comparable Li^+ loss was observed across S-NCM523 samples subjected to different Li oxidation times. As shown in Supplementary Table 3, Li loss stabilizes after the reaction time reaches 1 h. The final Li/TM ratio of O-NCM523 is slightly lower than that of S-NCM523 (0.5), indicating a limited Li loss during oxidation. These results indicate that the oxidation reaction proceeds rapidly and causes negligible structural damage.

The effects of $Na_2S_2O_8$ concentration, pH, temperature and reaction time on the oxidation process are summarized in Supplementary Tables 3, 25–29 and Supplementary Fig. 9. For spent samples subjected to the same oxidation treatment, those with lower anti-site Ni^{2+} content exhibit less Ni^{2+} oxidation and smaller changes in Li^+/Ni^{2+} mixing and Li/TM ratio (Supplementary Fig. 10a–e and Tables 3, 30–34). This indicates that Li loss during oxidation is positively correlated with the amount of anti-site Ni^{2+} (Supplementary Fig. 10f). This correlation arises because the anti-site Ni^{2+} occupies a distorted NiO_6 octahedron with longer, weaker Ni–O bonds and an unstable coordination environment^{34,35}. Consequently, its electrons are more easily extracted by oxidizing agents, leading to oxidation to Ni^{3+} . Samples with fewer anti-site Ni^{2+} are more structurally stable, reducing the

likelihood of Ni^{2+} oxidation and consequently weakening the Li^+ loss and structural changes.

The oxidation also induces fragmentation of the secondary particles of O-NCM523. As shown in Fig. 3g, the high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) image of S-NCM523 shows a lattice spacing of 2.39 Å in region I near the surface, corresponding to the rock-salt phase, as confirmed by SAED. Figure 3h shows a layered structure on the O-NCM523 surface (region III) with a lattice fringe spacing of 4.83 Å, corresponding to the (001) plane of β -NiOOH (space group P3m1)^{36,37}. Region IV, with a lattice spacing of 2.40 Å, corresponds to the (101) plane of $LiNiO_2$. These observations confirm the oxidation of surface NiO to NiOOH. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) verifies that the secondary particles in S-NCM523 (Fig. 3i) fragment into primary particles after oxidation (Fig. 3j). Two main factors drive the fragmentation of secondary particles. First, the oxidation from Ni^{2+} to Ni^{3+} in the bulk causes partial Li^+ extraction to maintain charge balance. The removal of Li^+ increases the negative charge density of the oxygen layers, thereby strengthening the electrostatic repulsion between adjacent oxygen layers³⁸. Consequently, the lattice parameter *c* of O-NCM523 increases to 14.292 Å, higher than the 14.246 Å of S-NCM523 (Fig. 3k). Second, the surface phase transition from NiO to layered β -NiOOH significantly expands the surface lattice spacing (2.40 Å to 4.83 Å). These changes increase stress between the primary particles, fragmenting secondary particles into primary particles. The regularized particle morphology homogenizes the Li^+ diffusion paths and distances during subsequent re-lithiation. Moreover, based on the density functional theory (DFT) calculation, the Li^+ diffusion energy barrier in O-NCM523 (0.51 eV) is lower than that in S-NCM523 (0.55 eV), as shown in Fig. 3l, m.

Regeneration mechanism of O-NCM523

Subsequently, S-NCM523 and O-NCM523 were calcined at 900 °C for 10 h to obtain D-NCM523 and R-NCM523, respectively. As shown in Fig. 4a, as compared to the characteristic NPDF peaks before annealing, the *r* values of d1–d5 decrease after high-temperature Li replenishment, indicating that TM is oxidized to a higher valence state. Meanwhile, meticulous comparison shows that R-NCM523 restores the crystal structure's order more effectively than D-NCM523. The TM–O bond length in R-NCM523 is 1.945 Å, which is shorter than that in D-NCM523 (1.995 Å), suggesting more complete oxidation of Ni^{2+} . Moreover, the d1 peak intensity of R-NCM523 is lower than that of D-NCM523, indicating a stronger Jahn–Teller effect and lower Li^+/Ni^{2+} mixing. Therefore, the Li^+ diffusion barrier of R-NCM523 (0.41 eV) is lower than that of D-NCM523 (0.48 eV), as shown in Fig. 4b. NPD refinements reveal specific Li^+/Ni^{2+} mixing, with R-NCM523 at 2.06%, which is less than the 3.50% in D-NCM523 (Fig. 4c, d and Supplementary Tables 14 and 15). This is consistent with the NPDF and X-ray diffraction (XRD) results (Supplementary Fig. 11 and Tables 20–24), indicating that R-NCM523 has a highly ordered layered structure.

Furthermore, the HRTEM image in Fig. 4e shows that the lattice spacing of R-NCM523 is 4.70 Å (regions V and VI) in both the surface and bulk phases, corresponding to the (003) plane of $LiNiO_2$, with the SAED pattern confirming the regeneration of the layered structure. These results demonstrate that high-temperature Li^+ replenishment restores the degraded NCM523 crystal structure. XPS peak positions and intensities for Ni, Co, Mn, and O remain constant from surface to bulk in R-NCM523 (Supplementary Fig. 12), and the A_{1g} and E_g characteristic peaks of R-NCM523 in the Raman spectra are sharper than those of D-NCM523 (Supplementary Fig. 13), indicating more complete restoration of composition and layered ordering after calcination. This improvement arises from reduced Li^+/Ni^{2+} mixing in the bulk phase of O-NCM523 and the conversion of the surface rock-salt phase to the layered NiOOH, which together facilitate Li^+ reinsertion into the layered structure during subsequent calcination.

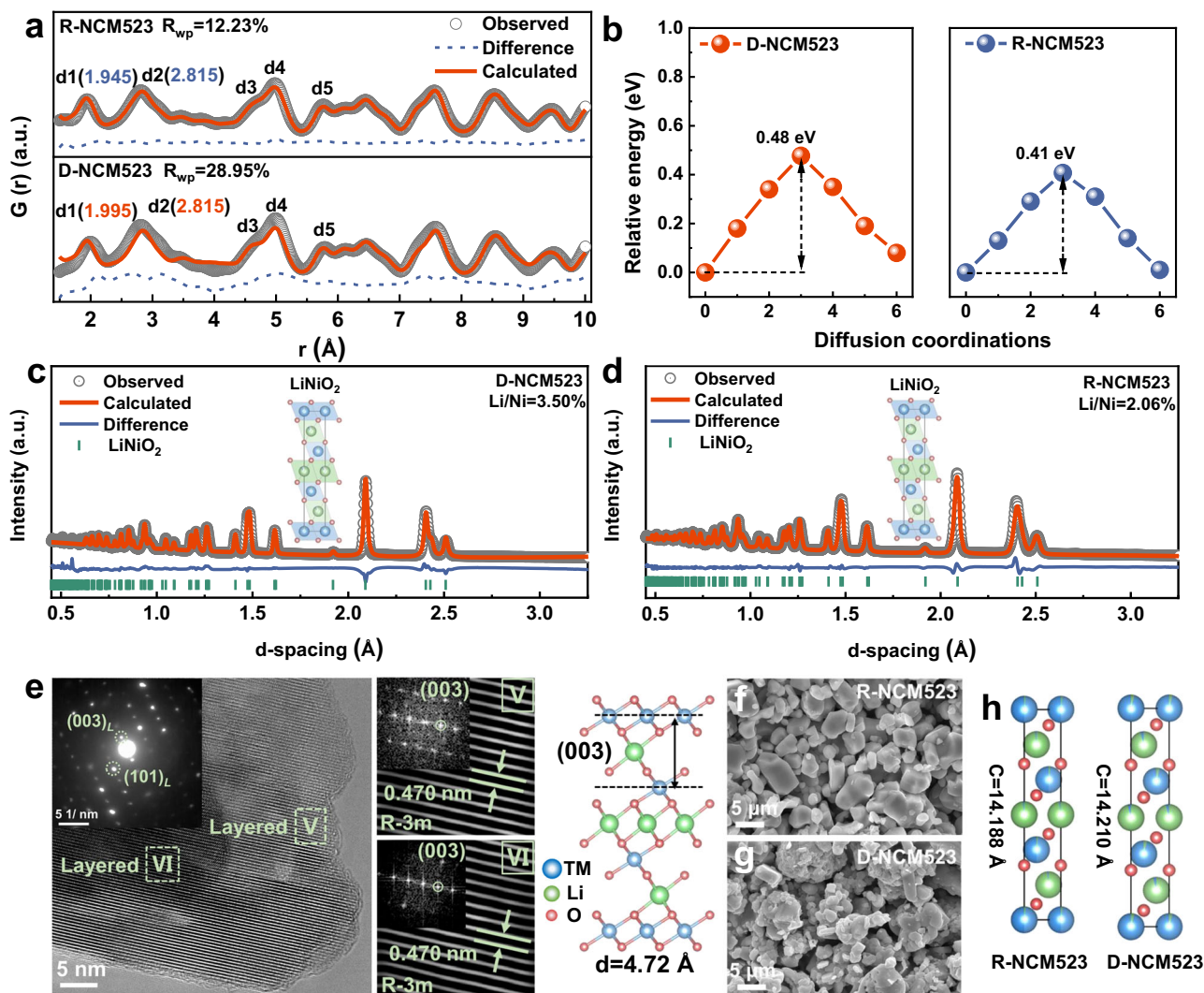


Fig. 4 | Structure and morphology evolution of D-NCM523 and R-NCM523. **a** NPDF refinement patterns of D-NCM523 and R-NCM523. **b** Relative energy for Li^+ diffusion of D-NCM523 and R-NCM523. **c, d** NPD refinement patterns of D-NCM523

and R-NCM523. **e** HRTEM images and SAED patterns of R-NCM523. **f, g** SEM images of D-NCM523 and R-NCM523. **h** Schematic diagram of the lattice parameter c of D-NCM523 and R-NCM523.

It is underscored that the pre-oxidation-supported R-NCM523 exhibits not only a unified single-crystal morphology but also a rare large size. To investigate the uniformity of elemental valence states within the particles, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 14, Electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) measurements were performed on different regions of the particles. The O K-edge and Ni L-edge spectra exhibit consistent peak positions and intensities, with no detectable Ni reduction or oxygen vacancy defects, indicating uniform elemental valence states within the particles. The SEM image in Fig. 4f clearly shows that R-NCM523 consists of primary particles with flat, smooth surfaces, regular shapes, and a size of 3–7 μm . Meanwhile, R-NCM523 reaches a high tap density of 2.57 g/cm^3 (Supplementary Table 5), significantly higher than that of commercial single-crystal NCM523 (CS-NCM523, -1.62 g/cm^3 , -2.57 μm , Supplementary Fig. 15a, b). This structural feature originates from the NiOOH-layered surface formed on O-NCM523. DFT calculations show that the energy barrier for Li^+ migration from Li_2O to NiO is 8.85 eV, whereas the barrier from Li_2O to NiOOH is only 1.89 eV (Supplementary Fig. 17), indicating that the formation of NiOOH at the surface reduces the Li^+ diffusion barrier during calcination. Moreover, during low-temperature lithiation, NiOOH readily converts to layered LiNiO_2 ^{39,40}, whose lattice compatibility facilitates grain boundary fusion and promotes particle growth. By contrast, Fig. 4g shows irregular and agglomerated particles in D-

NCM523, with a particle size of 5–10 μm . Additionally, the lattice parameter c of 14.188 Å for R-NCM523 is smaller than that of D-NCM523 at 14.210 Å (Fig. 4h), indicating that the layered structure of R-NCM523 is more stable.

Microstructural evolution of O-NCM523 after high-temperature treatment

The subsequent high-temperature treatment also plays a key role in the structure recovery and the morphology control. Figure 5a shows the NPDF patterns at different regeneration temperatures, reacting to the changes of bond lengths between TM-TM and TM-O atoms, which are used to determine the oxidation state of the Ni element. The TM-O and TM-TM bond lengths gradually shorten as the regeneration temperature increases from 600 to 1000 °C, indicating the continuous increase of the oxidation state of Ni, and finally, the TM-O and TM-TM bond lengths shorten to 1.945 Å and 2.815 Å, respectively, at 900 °C. Moreover, an increased d_4/d_3 ratio and enhanced d_5 intensity suggest higher TM occupancy in the second and third shells, correlated with reduced $\text{Li}^+/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ mixing⁴¹. Obviously, samples treated at 900 °C exhibit minimal $\text{Li}^+/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ mixing and maximal layered ordering (Fig. 5b).

Figure 5c shows the cation ordering degree and the change of lattice parameter c obtained from the refinement of NPDF patterns at different regeneration temperatures, corresponding to the layered

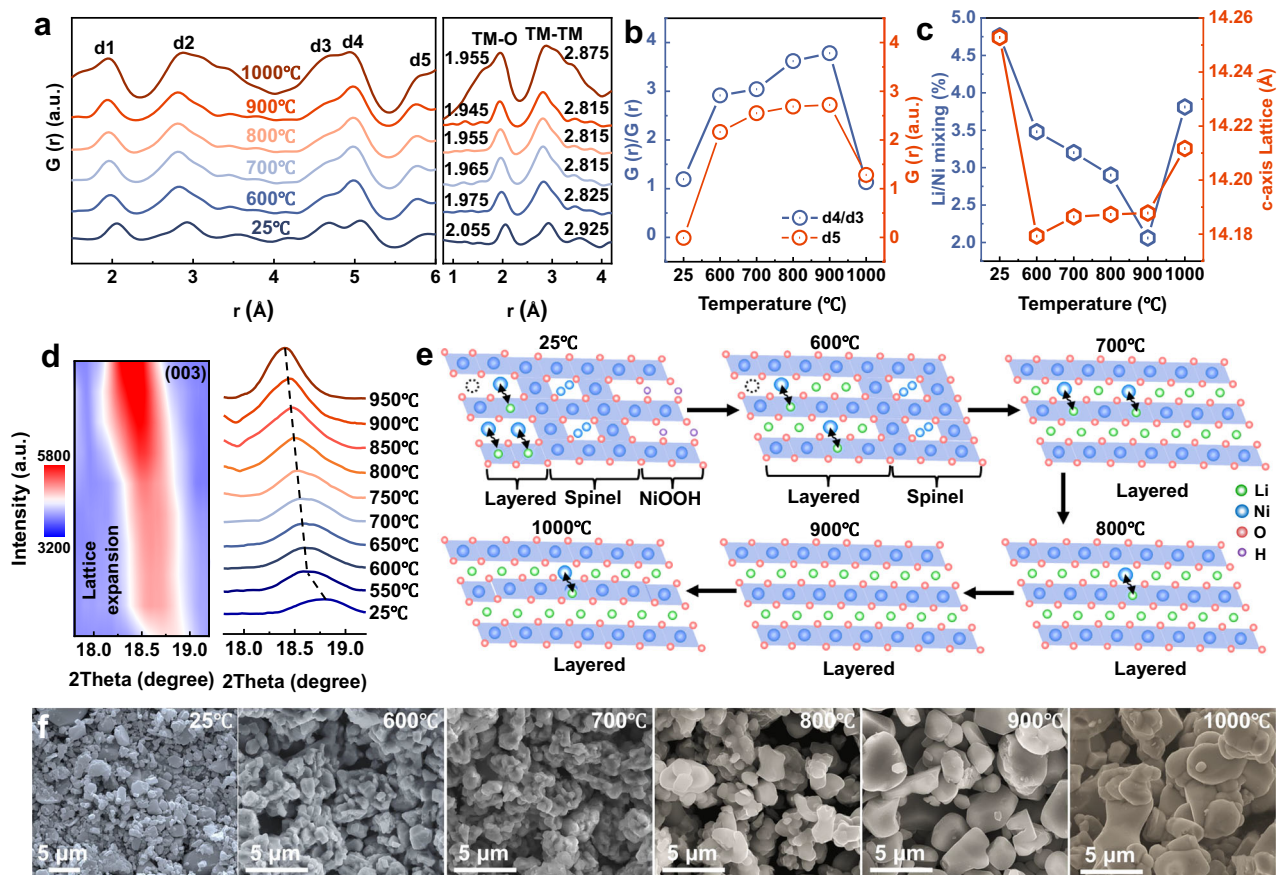


Fig. 5 | Structure and morphology evolution of O-NCM523 after high-temperature treatment. **a** NPDF pattern at different regeneration temperatures of O-NCM523. **b** Intensity of d5 peak and d4/d3 ratio at different regeneration temperatures of O-NCM523. **c** NPD refinement for Li⁺/Ni²⁺ mixing and lattice parameter

c at different regeneration temperatures of O-NCM523. **d** High-temperature in-situ XRD patterns during direct regeneration of O-NCM523. **e** Crystal structure change at different regeneration temperatures of O-NCM523. **f** SEM images at different regeneration temperatures of O-NCM523.

structure ordering. Clearly, the degree of Li⁺/Ni²⁺ mixing decreases with increasing temperature, reaching a minimum of 2.06% at 900 °C, with a lattice parameter *c* of 14.188 Å. These results indicate that 900 °C is the optimal regeneration temperature, corresponding to the highest Ni oxidation state and the most ordered layered structure. For the 600 °C sample, there is still a residual 1.10% of the spinel phase, which fails to revert to a layered structure, ultimately leaving a 4.0% Li vacancy (Supplementary Fig. 20b and Table 16), and the above defects disappear when the regeneration temperature reaches 700 °C or above (Supplementary Fig. 20c, d and Tables 17, 18). At 1000 °C, oxygen vacancies form, lowering the Li⁺/Ni²⁺ migration barrier and facilitating Li⁺ migration into the TM layer⁴², thus intensifying the Li⁺/Ni²⁺ mixing to 3.81% (Supplementary Fig. 20f and Table 19) and lengthening the TM-O and TM-TM bond lengths. In O-NCM523 and its 600 °C regenerated samples, a multi-phase structure is observed, containing LiNiO₂, Co₃O₄, and NiOOH phases. The presence of multiple phases significantly affects the intensity of the short-range d1 peak in NPDF⁴³, rendering it unreliable for evaluating Li⁺/Ni²⁺ mixing. In contrast, the intensity of the long-range d3, d4, and d5 peaks is relatively less impacted by multiple phases, making them suitable for analyzing Li⁺/Ni²⁺ mixing.

In-situ and ex-situ temperature XRD tests further confirmed that the most ordered layered structure, along with the lowest Li⁺/Ni²⁺ mixing, was achieved at a regeneration temperature of 900 °C. As shown in Fig. 5d, the (003) peak shifts to lower angles with increasing sintering temperature, confirming successful Li⁺ intercalation into the layered structure and layer spacing expansion, consistent with the NPDF and NPD results. But a clear Li₂CO₃ signal

is observed below 600 °C (Supplementary Fig. 21), which results from the incomplete insertion of Li⁺ into the layered structure and the consequent conversion of the remaining Li₂CO₃ on the surface of the particles. The recovery of the layered structure in NCM523 is reflected in the intensity ratio of the characteristic peaks (003) and (104)⁴⁴. Clearly, the I₀₀₃/I₁₀₄ ratio reaches a maximum at 900 °C before decreasing at higher temperatures. SEM was employed to observe grain growth at different regeneration temperatures. As shown in Fig. 5f, at 600 °C, some Li₂CO₃ adheres to the particle surfaces, and the particle morphology does not change significantly compared to that of the precursor. As the temperature increases to 800 °C, fragmented particles fuse and grow into larger particles, approximately 1 μm in size. Optimal particle evolution occurs at 900 °C, where the particles are regularly shaped and range from 3–7 μm, exhibiting homogeneous dispersion. However, further heating to 1000 °C causes excessive grain boundary fusion, resulting in abnormal particle growth that severely hampers Li⁺ extraction and insertion.

Electrochemical performance

The electrochemical performances of S-NCM523 were systematically investigated. As shown in Fig. 6a, S-NCM523 has a discharge capacity of 42.8 mAh/g at 0.1C, but after regeneration, the capacity of R-NCM523 is restored to 158.9 mAh/g, comparable to commercial NCM523 (C-NCM523). The galvanostatic intermittent titration (GITT) curve shows that S-NCM523 exhibits the highest polarization and overpotential during pulsed charge/discharge due to the severe structural degradation (Supplementary Fig. 22f). In contrast, the overpotential of

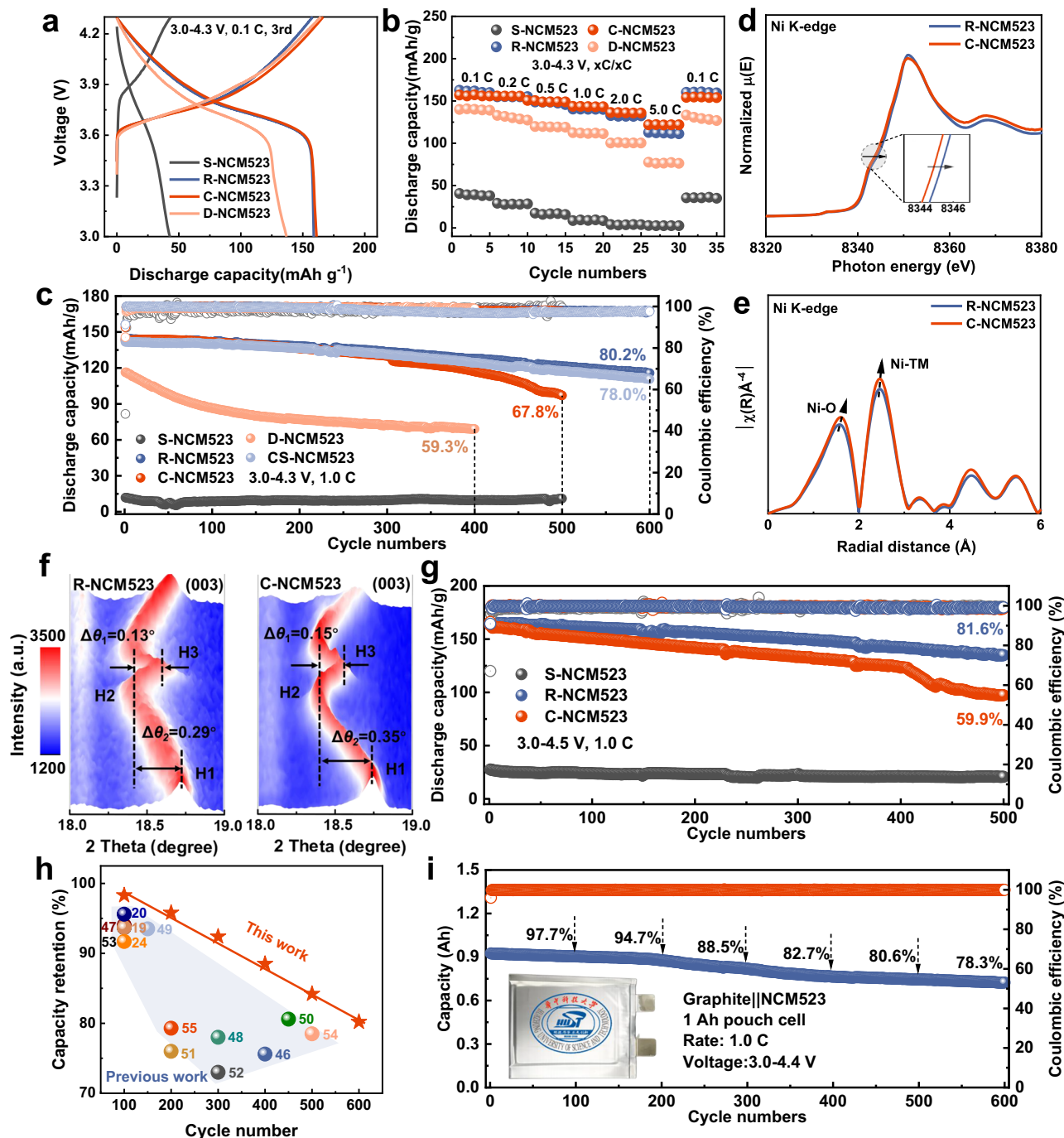


Fig. 6 | Electrochemical performance of regenerated NCM. **a** Charge and discharge curves of S-NCM523, R-NCM523, C-NCM523 and D-NCM523 at 0.1 C, 3–4.3 V (1 C = 170 mA/g). **b** Rate performance of S-NCM523, R-NCM523, C-NCM523 and D-NCM523 at xC, 3–4.3 V (x = 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0 and 5, 1 C = 170 mA/g). **c** Cycling performance of S-NCM523, R-NCM523, C-NCM523, D-NCM523 and CS-NCM523 at 1.0 C, 3–4.3 V (1 C = 170 mA/g). **d, e** Normalized Ni K-edge XAFS and Fourier transform spectra of R-NCM523 (600 cycles) and C-NCM523 (500 cycles), measured at

the discharged state (3.0 V) after cycling at 3.0–4.3 V, 1 C (1 C = 170 mA/g). **f** In-situ electrochemical XRD of R-NCM523 and C-NCM523 during cycling at 3.0–4.3 V, 0.2 C (1 C = 170 mA/g). **g** Cycling performance of S-NCM523, R-NCM523, and C-NCM523 at 3–4.5 V, 1 C (1 C = 170 mA/g). **h** Comparison of capacity retention between this work and representative reports (The source of the literature data listed in Supplementary Table 11). **i** Cycling performance of Graphite || R-NCM523 pouch cell at 3–4.4 V, 1 C. All cells were tested at 25 ± 1 °C.

R-NCM523 (14.0 mV) is much lower than that of S-NCM523 (129.0 mV) and similar to C-NCM523 (14.0 mV).

R-NCM523 exhibits an excellent rate performance. It delivers capacities of 132.7 and 112.8 mAh/g at 2 and 5 C, respectively, close to that of C-NCM523 (Fig. 6b). At a low rate of 0.1 C, the capacity difference between D-NCM523 and R-NCM523 is -17.0 mAh/g. As the rate increased, the capacity difference increased, too. At a 5 C rate, the capacity of D-NCM523 is -35.0 mAh/g lower than that of R-NCM523.

This can be attributed to the higher $\text{Li}^+/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ mixing and uneven particle size of D-NCM523, which blocks Li^+ diffusion pathways and increases the Li^+ diffusion distances. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) in Supplementary Figs. 23, 24 and the fitting data in Supplementary Tables 7–10 show that the interfacial impedance (R_f) and charge transfer impedance (R_{ct}) of R-NCM523 are significantly lower than those of S-NCM523 and D-NCM523, and close to C-NCM523. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) at a sweep rate of 0.1 mV/s demonstrates that

the redox peak difference of R-NCM523 is similar to that of C-NCM523 (Supplementary Fig. 25), indicating excellent electrochemical reversibility. In contrast, S-NCM523 and D-NCM523 show larger redox peak differences. Analysis of GITT and CV data shows that R-NCM523 and C-NCM523 have higher Li^+ diffusion coefficients, while S-NCM523 and D-NCM523 exhibit lower Li^+ diffusion coefficients (Supplementary Figs. 26, 22a–e).

As shown in Fig. 6c, R-NCM523 has a reversible discharge capacity of 144.2 mAh/g at 4.3 V, 1 C, with a high capacity retention of 80.2% after 600 cycles. R-NCM523 and C-NCM523 exhibit identical retention rates for the first 300 cycles, but C-NCM523 declines sharply due to secondary particle cracking (Supplementary Fig. 27), dropping to 67.8% after 500 cycles. CS-NCM523 maintains a capacity retention of 78.0% after 600 cycles, slightly lower than that of R-NCM523 (Supplementary Fig. 15d). This is attributed to the smaller particle size of CS-NCM523, which increases interfacial side reactions and undermines long-term structural stability⁴⁵. D-NCM523 exhibits a capacity retention rate of only 59.3% after 400 cycles. As shown in Fig. 6d, XANES spectra identify the Ni chemical valence states of R-NCM523 and C-NCM523 after cycling. The Ni K-edge spectra of R-NCM523 shift to higher energies, suggesting a higher valence state of Ni in R-NCM523 than in C-NCM523 after cycling, with less $\text{Li}^+/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ mixing and rock salt. Meanwhile, EXAFS Fourier and wavelet transform analyses reveal shorter Ni–O and Ni–Ti bonds in R-NCM523 than in C-NCM523 after cycling, suggesting better structural stability (Fig. 6e and Supplementary Fig. 29). In situ XRD analysis provides further insight into the excellent cycling stability of R-NCM523. As shown in Fig. 6f, for the (003) diffraction peak, the irreversible transition shift from H2 to H3 ($\Delta\theta$) in R-NCM523 is 0.13°, which is lower than 0.15° in C-NCM523. A similar trend is observed for the (101) and (104) diffraction peaks (Supplementary Fig. 30a, b). In addition, at the end of charging, the lattice parameter changes of R-NCM523 ($\Delta c = 0.7\%$, $\Delta a = 1.0\%$) are less than those of C-NCM523 ($\Delta c = 1.0\%$, $\Delta a = 1.2\%$), indicating smaller lattice distortions, thus reduced accumulation of internal stresses during long cycling (Supplementary Fig. 30c, d). Therefore, R-NCM523 has excellent structural stability during charge/discharge cycling.

In addition, to further investigate the structural stability of R-NCM523, its cycling performance at high voltage (4.5 V) and high rate (5 C) was also tested. As shown in Fig. 6g, even after the voltage increases to 4.5 V, the retention rate is 81.6% after 500 cycles, which is much higher than the 59.9% of C-NCM523. R-NCM523 retains up to 72.5% of its capacity after 1000 cycles at 5 C, with a degradation rate of only 0.0275% per cycle (Supplementary Fig. 31). The above electrochemical performance indicates stable cycling performance for directly regenerated NCM materials (Fig. 6h, Supplementary Table 11)^{19,20,24,46–55}. To validate the practical applicability of the regenerated positive electrode, a 1.0 Ah pouch cell was assembled using R-NCM523 as the positive electrode and graphite as the negative electrode. As shown in Fig. 6i, R-NCM523 exhibits stable cycling performance with a retention rate exceeding 78.3% after 600 cycles at 3.0–4.4 V, 1 C.

In addition, it is underscored that the pre-oxidation route can also regenerate S-NCM622 and S-NCM811, achieving retention rates of 79.1% for R-NCM622 and 77.6% for R-NCM811 after 200 cycles at 0.5 C (Supplementary Fig. 32). Moreover, the XRD refinement and ICP results for NCM622 and NCM811 samples before and after regeneration are shown in Supplementary Fig. 33 and Supplementary Tables 35–40. Thus, by using this proposed strategy, we successfully regenerated three degradable materials from different sources, all demonstrating excellent performance. This highlights the broad applicability of the proposed method and its great potential for practical use.

Techno-economic analysis

The oxidation strategy offers several advantages. First, the regeneration process is concise, without requiring complex or hazardous

devices. Second, it uses only conventional lithium salts, such as LiOH, reducing process costs. Third, $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$ serves as the reagent in this method, and the subsequent addition of $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ enables SO_4^{2-} to precipitate as CaSO_4 , minimizing environmental impact. Additionally, to further verify that no sulfur oxide species are released during the high-temperature regeneration process, TG-MS testing was conducted. The corresponding TG and MS signals are shown in Supplementary Fig. 34a, b. Over the entire temperature range from 30 to 900 °C, only signals at $m/z = 18$ (H_2O) and $m/z = 44$ (CO_2) are detected, corresponding to water release and the decomposition of Li_2CO_3 , respectively. No signals at $m/z = 64$ (SO_2) or $m/z = 80$ (SO_3) are detected. The TG-MS results clearly indicate that no SO_2 or SO_3 is emitted during the high-temperature sintering of O-NCM523 regeneration. Therefore, the oxidation strategy offers advantages of high efficiency, low energy consumption, low emissions, and high profits.

The energy consumption of this method is 23.94 MJ/kg, and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions are 3.11 kg/kg, both lower than those of the hydrothermal and molten salt methods, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 34c, d). Considering the comprehensive overall process costs, the oxidation method has a profit of \$6.47/kg, which is 113.5% and 141.4% higher than the hydrothermal and molten salt methods, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 34e, f). In conclusion, compared to existing direct recycling technologies, the oxidation strategy has better capabilities in reducing GHG, lowering energy consumption, and enhancing profits. It provides an efficient, scalable solution for power battery recycling with broad industrial application potential.

Discussion

We proposed a pre-oxidation strategy to regenerate spent single/poly-crystal NCM523 into single-crystal NCM523. During oxidation, the bulk anti-site Ni^{2+} in the LiO_6 octahedron is oxidized to Ni^{3+} , which reverts to the TMO_6 octahedron due to its smaller radius and charge balance, significantly reducing $\text{Li}^+/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ mixing and repairing the Li^+ diffusion pathway. Meanwhile, surface rock-salt NiO transforms into layered $\beta\text{-NiOOH}$, thus establishing two-dimensional Li^+ diffusion channels. Moreover, the bulk and surface structural changes induce lattice expansion and increase lattice stress within the secondary particles, leading to their self-decomposition into uniform primary precursor particles. These particles, featuring continuous Li^+ transport channels and NiOOH -layered surface, subsequently reaggregate into large single-crystals during calcination with a high tape density of 2.57 g/cm³. R-NCM523 obtains a reversible discharge capacity of 144.2 mAh/g at 1 C. After 600 cycles, its capacity retention rate is 80.2%, with a capacity decay rate of only 0.033% per cycle. The strategy is also applicable to spent NCM622 and NCM811, enabling their efficient regeneration. This well-designed pre-oxidation strategy presents opportunities for recycling spent positive electrode materials.

Methods

Battery disassembly separation

Ten ~4 Ah spent $\text{LiNi}_{0.5}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Mn}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ (S-NCM523) pouch cells were discharged by immersing them in 2 mol/L sodium chloride (NaCl, 99%, Aladdin) solution for 24 h. The cells were then manually disassembled to obtain the positive electrode. The positive electrode was cleaned with dimethyl carbonate (DMC, 99%, Aladdin) and dried. The S-NCM622 and S-NCM811 were obtained using the same method with spent commercial NCM622 and NCM811 pouch cells. Spent pouch cells from Nanjing Tongning New Materials Research Institute Co., Ltd.

Direct regeneration process

S-NCM523 powder was placed in 0.5 mol/L sodium persulfate ($\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$, 99%, Aladdin) and 1.0 mol/L sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 98%, Aladdin). The solution was stirred at 400 rpm for 1 h at 25 °C, then filtered to obtain a filtered residue, which was washed three times with deionized water. Subsequently, calcium hydroxide ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, 95%,

Macklin) was added to the filtrate to precipitate SO_4^{2-} as CaSO_4 . The washed residue was dried in a vacuum oven to obtain a powder, which was designated as the oxidized intermediate (O-NCM523). Then, O-NCM523 was uniformly ground with lithium hydroxide monohydrate ($\text{LiOH}\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$, Ganfeng Lithium Co., Ltd.) to achieve a molar ratio of $\text{Li}/(\text{Ni} + \text{Co} + \text{Mn}) = 1.2$: 1 and then calcined in a muffle furnace at 900°C for 10 h (heating rate: $5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$, atmosphere: air) to obtain the regenerated material, recorded as R-NCM523. Considering that the Li/TM molar ratio of O-NCM523 is 0.45, an additional 0.75 molar Li was added to reach the target ratio of $\text{Li}/\text{TM} = 1.2$. In addition, S-NCM523 powder was mixed with $\text{LiOH}\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$ to achieve a molar ratio of $\text{Li}/(\text{Ni} + \text{Co} + \text{Mn}) = 1.2$: 1 and calcined in a muffle furnace at 900°C for 10 h (heating rate: $5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$, atmosphere: air). The regenerated material obtained in this way was named D-NCM523. The oxidation conditions for S-NCM622 and S-NCM811 were the same as those described above, with regeneration temperatures of 850°C for S-NCM622 and 780°C for S-NCM811. The commercial poly-crystal material was denoted as C-NCM523. The commercial single-crystal material was denoted as CS-NCM523 (Xinxiang Tianli Lithium Energy Co.), with a tap density of $1.62\text{ g}/\text{cm}^3$.

Material characterizations

The XRD measurements were carried out on an Empyrean model instrument from Panacor in the Netherlands under the following conditions: radiation source Cu $K\alpha$ ($\lambda = 1.54184\text{ \AA}$), and a measuring range of 10 – 80° . The in-situ XRD measurements used CR2032 coin cells with a glass window (Wuhan Congtial Technology Co., Ltd). The XRD data were characterized and analyzed using HighScore Plus and GSAS II software. The elemental composition of the materials and solutions was characterized using an inductively coupled plasma emission spectrometer (ICP-OES) from Leeman Labs, USA. The microstructure and morphology of the materials were analyzed using a Nova NanoSEM 450 field-emission scanning electron microscope (SEM) from FEI, USA, and a Tecnai G2 20 and a Talos F200X transmission electron microscope (TEM) from FEI, Netherlands. The elemental distribution analyses by EELS were performed using a Titan G2 60-300 high-resolution STEM microscope from Thermo Fisher Scientific (USA). To obtain the SEM cross sections, the particles were cut using a focused ion beam. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) of AXIS-ULTRA DLD-600W from Shimadzu-Kratos, Japan, was utilized to detect the variation of elements and valence states on the surface of the materials, and combined with Avantage software for analysis. The tap density of the material was tested using an AccuPyc 1340 fully automated true density tester from Anton Paar, Austria, with a vibration frequency of 250 cycles per minute and a total vibration count of 8000 cycles. The variation in functional groups and bond lengths of the materials was investigated using a LabRAM HR800 laser confocal Raman spectrometer (Raman) from Horiba Jobin Yvon. The local structural evolution of the material (atomic occupancy, bond lengths) was measured by the Multi-Physics Spectrometer (MPI) at the China Spallation Neutron Source (CNSNS) and analyzed using the GASA II and PDFgui software. The X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) experiments were performed at beamline P64 Advanced X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy at PETRA III (Germany) and RapidXAFS 2M X-ray Absorption Spectrometer (Anhui Absorption Spectroscopy Analysis Instrument Co., Ltd.). The obtained XAS data were processed using ATHENA software.

Theoretical calculations

Our computational framework implements the Vienna Ab Initio Simulation Package (VASP) for density functional theory (DFT). To describe the exchange-correlation function, the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) was utilized in the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) scheme. The projector augmented wave (PAW) formalism was

adopted to model ionic cores, with valence electrons represented through a plane-wave basis set featuring a 500 eV kinetic energy cut-off. Partial occupancies of the Kohn-Sham orbitals were allowed using the Gaussian smearing method with a width of 0.05 eV . For energy variations less than 10^{-5} eV , the electron energies were regarded as self-consistent. When the force variation was less than $0.05\text{ eV}/\text{\AA}$, the geometry optimization was regarded as convergent. The k-point sampling was performed using gamma points in the Brillouin zone, with all atoms allowed to relax during the structure optimization. Lastly, the nudged elastic band (NEB) approach was used to characterize the Li migration transition state at the path steps. In the NEB approach, pathways between reactants and products were discretized into a series of structural images.

Electrochemical measurements

For coin cell preparation, NCM powder, carbon black (Super P, 99.9%, TIMCAL), and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF900, 99%, Canrd Technology Co., Ltd.) were mixed in a weight ratio of 8:1:1 and dissolved in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP, 99%, Aladdin). After stirring for 4 h to achieve a uniform slurry, the slurry was spread onto carbon-coated Al foil ($15\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ thick, 99.9%) using a doctor blade and dried in an oven at 80°C for 6 h. The electrodes were punched into 8 mm discs (0.503 cm^2), with a mass loading of 4 – $6\text{ mg}/\text{cm}^2$. CR2032 coin cells were assembled in an Ar-filled glovebox ($25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, O_2 and $\text{H}_2\text{O} < 0.01\text{ ppm}$), using Celgard 2500 ($25\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ thick, 19 mm diameter, 55% porosity, from Celgard, USA) as the separator and lithium metal (0.5 mm thick, 12 mm diameter, China Energy Lithium Co., Ltd.) as the negative electrode. Each coin cell was filled with $40\text{ }\mu\text{L}$ of electrolyte (1.0 M LiPF_6 in EC: DEC = 1:1 vol%, with 5.0% FEC). The positive and negative cases, along with the nickel foam mesh, were purchased from Canrd Technology Co., Ltd. Cycling was tested at 3.0 – 4.3 V and 3.0 – 4.5 V ($1\text{ C} = 170\text{ mA}/\text{g}$).

Pouch-type full cells with -1 Ah capacity assembled using R-NCM523 as the positive electrode and graphite as the negative electrode. The positive electrode had a mass loading of $-29.8\text{ mg}/\text{cm}^2$ and consisted of 96.5 wt% active material, 1.5 wt% conductive additive, and 2.0 wt% PVDF binder, with an electrode size of $8.0 \times 6.0\text{ cm}^2$. The negative electrode had a mass loading of $-16.0\text{ mg}/\text{cm}^2$ and consisted of 95.4 wt% active material, 2.0 wt% conductive additive, and 2.6 wt% binders, including carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC, Canrd Technology Co., Ltd.) and styrene-butadiene rubber (SBR, Canrd Technology Co., Ltd.), with an electrode size of $8.4 \times 6.3\text{ cm}^2$. In the pouch battery, the N/P ratio is 1.15. Approximately 3 mL of electrolyte was uniformly introduced into the pouch cell using a pipette. After sufficient wetting, the cell was transferred to a vacuum sealer. Before final heat sealing, a 5 s degassing step was performed under a vacuum of -98.0 kPa . During cycle testing, an external pressure of -200 kPa was applied to the pouch cell to ensure stable electrode contact. Cycling performance was tested at 3.0 – 4.4 V , 1 C . The compacted density, porosity, and volumetric capacity of the positive electrode are shown in Supplementary Fig. 28.

The Princeton electrochemical workstation measured cyclic voltammetry (CV) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) with a voltage range of 3 – 4.3 V . The CV scan rate ranges from 0.1 to $1.0\text{ mV}/\text{s}$. Additionally, EIS was performed over the frequency range 0.01 – $100,000\text{ Hz}$ at a signal amplitude of 10 mV . A total of 71 data points were collected within the test frequency range. The Galvanostatic Intermittent Titration Technique (GITT) measurement was conducted with a 10-minute constant-current charge and a 40-minute rest period. All coin cells and pouch batteries were rested for 12 hours to ensure complete electrolyte wetting before electrochemical testing. All electrochemical measurements were conducted at $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ using NEWARE and Land battery testing systems without a temperature-controlled chamber.

Data availability

All data are available within the main text and supplementary files, or available from the corresponding authors. Source data are provided with this paper.

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Author contributions

S. H. conducted the experiments and prepared the manuscript. Y.Z., S.L., Z.T., W.L., Y.X., and W.Y. contributed to the completion of part of the characterizations. Y.L. (Yaqi Liao), H.J., Y. K., Y.S., and Y.L. (Yuelin Lv) gave instructive advice to perform the experiments. L.Q., Y.H. and L.Y. conceived and designed the research. All authors contributed to the discussion of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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