

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Coupled Role of Zn^{2+} Reversibility and Reduced Water Activity in Achieving Stable Mild-Aqueous $\text{Zn}||\text{MnO}_2$ Batteries

Varun R. Kankanallu¹  | Adesanmi Adeniyi¹  | Jianming Bai²  | Hui Zhong²  | Ruipeng Li²  | Honghu Zhang²  | Xiao Tong³  | Esther S. Takeuchi^{1,4,5,6}  | Amy C. Marschlok^{1,4,5,6}  | Kenneth J. Takeuchi^{1,4,5,6}  | Mingyuan Ge² | Yu-chen Karen Chen-Wiegart^{1,2} 

¹Department of Materials Science and Chemical Engineering, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, New York, USA | ²National Synchrotron Light Source II, Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, New York, USA | ³Center for Functional Nanomaterials, Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, New York, USA | ⁴Energy and Photon Sciences Directorate, Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, New York, USA | ⁵Department of Chemistry, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, New York, USA | ⁶Institute of Sustainability, Electrification, and Energy, Energy (I:SEE), Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, New York, USA

Correspondence: Varun R. Kankanallu (kankanallu.varun@stonybrook.edu) | Yu-chen Karen Chen-Wiegart (Karen.Chen-Wiegart@stonybrook.edu)

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ABSTRACT

Aqueous $\text{Zn}||\text{MnO}_2$ batteries are promising for large-scale energy storage but suffer from capacity fading due to irreversible transformations at the MnO_2 cathode. Achieving structural reversibility under long-term cycling remains a central challenge. Here, we show that tuning the electrolyte solvation environment can directly stabilize Mn redox chemistry and lattice evolution in mild-aqueous $\text{Zn}||\text{MnO}_2$ batteries. Using dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) as a co-solvent to lower water activity and reorganize the solvation structure, we reveal through operando X-ray diffraction that the modified electrolyte promotes reversible Zn^{2+} intercalation despite slower transport kinetics. Complementary X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy shows that conventional aqueous electrolytes induce strong Mn-valence gradients between surface and bulk, whereas DMSO suppresses these gradients and maintains uniform redox states. Collectively, these results demonstrate that electrolyte solvation engineering can mitigate parasitic reactions and enable structurally reversible MnO_2 redox processes, establishing a holistic pathway to enhance the long-term stability of mild-aqueous Zn-based batteries.

1 | Introduction

Aqueous Zn-ion batteries (AZIBs) have emerged as sustainable, intrinsically safe, and low-cost energy storage systems. The Zn metal anode offers a low redox potential (-0.76 V vs. SHE), high theoretical capacity (820 mAh g^{-1}), and compatibility with aqueous electrolytes, making it highly attractive for large-scale grid storage applications [1]. Among various cathode materials, manganese dioxide (MnO_2) is notable for its high theoretical capacity of 616 mAh g^{-1} , enabled by a two-electron redox process

($\text{Mn}^{4+}/\text{Mn}^{2+}$), as well as the natural abundance, low toxicity, and low cost of manganese [2–4]. Electrolytic manganese dioxide (EMD) is widely employed in commercial Zn-ion batteries due to its well-controlled microstructure and crystallinity, which enable reproducible electrochemical performance and enhanced cycling stability [5]. However, MnO_2 exists in multiple polymorphs, each with distinct crystal structures and electrochemical properties, leading to discrepancies in the reaction mechanisms reported across literature. In aqueous $\text{MnSO}_4/\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ electrolytes, electrochemical deposition upon charging consistently yields

ϵ -MnO₂ regardless of electrolyte concentration, current density, or substrate [6]. Furthermore, studies have shown that, regardless of the initial phase, whether β -MnO₂ or γ -MnO₂, the ϵ -MnO₂ phase forms during redeposition in subsequent charging cycles in ZnSO₄/MnSO₄ electrolytes [7]. These observations establish ϵ -MnO₂ as a recurring and critical phase in acidic aqueous environments, underscoring the need for a fundamental understanding of its behavior to clarify the factors governing reversibility in Zn||MnO₂ batteries.

Tran et al. demonstrated that discharge leads to a partial transformation of EMD into spinel ZnMn₂O₄, while simultaneously Zn²⁺ intercalates into the tunnel structures of γ - and ϵ -MnO₂, producing tunnel-type Zn_xMnO₂ [8]. During the initial cycles, distinct voltage profiles and local pH fluctuations strongly influence the cathode reaction pathway, influencing the overall Zn||MnO₂ electrochemistry [9–11]. The interplay between H⁺ and Zn²⁺ insertion and the associated Mn conversion chemistry has been shown to play a central role in governing capacity contributions and electrochemical response [12]. As cycling progresses, the system transitions into a more stable regime where the voltage profiles become reproducible, enabling a clearer investigation of the steady-state reaction mechanism. Understanding this regime is critical, as long-term failure is often driven by electrolyte degradation through parasitic side reactions, namely hydrogen evolution at the Zn anode [13] and byproduct formation and reaction heterogeneities at the MnO₂ cathode, which limit reversibility and cycle life [9, 14, 15].

To address these limitations, several strategies have been explored, including electrolyte additives, such as organic salts, inorganic salts, and water-in-salt, to enhance aqueous Zn-ion batteries, summarized in Table S1. At the Zn anode, these additives have well-established roles, regulating the Zn²⁺ solvation structure, reducing water coordination in the primary solvation shell, suppressing parasitic reactions such as HER and corrosion, and promoting formation of a solid–electrolyte interphase (SEI) layer [16–45]. However, their effects on the cathode are not fully understood; in particular, the impact of additives on proton co-insertion and redox kinetics has not been elucidated. More recently, hybrid aqueous–organic electrolytes and solvent additives have attracted attention for their ability to directly tailor the Zn²⁺ solvation structure and alter electrode–electrolyte interfacial chemistry. Additionally, pH balance, electrolyte solvation regulation, and redox mediation have also been identified as a critical strategy for stabilizing Mn-based cathodes during long-term cycling [46]. For example, Cao et al. demonstrated that addition of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to a ZnCl₂–H₂O electrolyte suppressed water reduction and Zn dendrite formation by replacing H₂O in the Zn²⁺ solvation sheath. This effect arises from the higher Gutmann donor number of DMSO (29.8) compared to water (18), leading to improved Zn²⁺ reversibility in Zn||MnO₂ full cells [47]. Similarly, Kao-ian et al. reported enhanced Zn²⁺ reversibility and reduced formation of spinel-ZnMn₂O₄ in δ -MnO₂ cathodes when using ZnTFSi electrolytes with DMSO as the solvent, as confirmed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis of cycled electrodes [48]. Despite these advances, there remains a need to investigate steady-state cycling conditions in Zn||MnO₂ batteries to determine how reducing water activity modifies cathode reaction pathways.

In this work, we investigate the crystalline phase evolution of ϵ -MnO₂ during the steady regime of cycling after extended conditioning when electrochemical and structural responses become consistent over cycles using operando synchrotron XRD, quantifying lattice changes, phase fractions, and Zn occupancy. These measurements reveal a persistent dual-ion intercalation mechanism (H⁺/Zn²⁺), with an increasing contribution from Zn²⁺. To further probe electrolyte effects on cathode reaction mechanism, DMSO is introduced as a co-solvent to reduce water activity and reorganize the solvation structure. Under these conditions, electrolyte structure and interfacial chemistry couple to enhance the reversibility of Zn²⁺ intercalation, as confirmed by operando diffraction, despite moderately slower transport. Complementary XPS depth profiling indicates that DMSO mitigates the variation of surface-to-subsurface Mn oxidation-state observed in cells cycled without DMSO. Together, these findings demonstrate that tuning electrolyte solvation can suppress parasitic pathways and stabilize cathode intercalation mechanisms. More broadly, this work shifts electrolyte-additive design from an anode-centric focus (e.g., HER suppression) to a whole-cell perspective, offering strategies to improve the reversibility and durability of mild-aqueous Zn||MnO₂ systems.

2 | Results and Discussion

The ϵ -MnO₂ cathode was synthesized via constant-current electrodeposition. Briefly, electrodeposition was carried out from an aqueous electrolyte containing 1 M ZnSO₄, 0.5 M MnSO₄, and 0.1 M H₂SO₄ onto a multi-walled carbon nanotube (MWCNT)-coated carbon cloth substrate, with Zn foil serving as the counter electrode.

To investigate the mechanisms governing steady-state cycling behavior, the Zn|| ϵ -MnO₂ battery was precycled for ~100 hours prior to operando measurements. This preconditioning period allows the system to evolve beyond the initial formation stage, which is associated with irreversible structural changes including partial spinel ZnMn₂O₄ formation and active material reorganization as documented in prior literature [7–9]. As shown in Figure S1, the discharge and charge capacities stabilize after this period, indicating the establishment of a steady-state regime with reproducible electrochemical response. Operando XRD confirms that the ϵ -MnO₂ framework persists after preconditioning, demonstrating that the cathode retains its structural integrity into the steady-state regime. Figure 1a presents the waterfall plot of the operando synchrotron XRD data for two representative cycles following precycling. The dotted lines correspond to the reference peaks of ϵ -MnO₂ from the PDF standard (04-005-4883) and appear shifted to lower q relative to the reference positions, consistent with lattice expansion of the ϵ -MnO₂ cathode. This is likely due to residual Zn²⁺/H⁺ intercalation and partial reduction, which can leave the structure slightly expanded and/or transformed toward reduced layered/spinel-like domains, consistent with a mixed intercalation-conversion reaction pathway in aqueous Zn||MnO₂ cells [9, 49, 50]. Throughout these two cycles, the ϵ -MnO₂ reflections exhibit a uniform and reversible shift in peak position, consistent with a homogeneous intercalation–deintercalation process involving H⁺, Zn²⁺, or both species. The (001) reflection of zinc hydroxide sulfate (ZHS, 04-012-8189) is

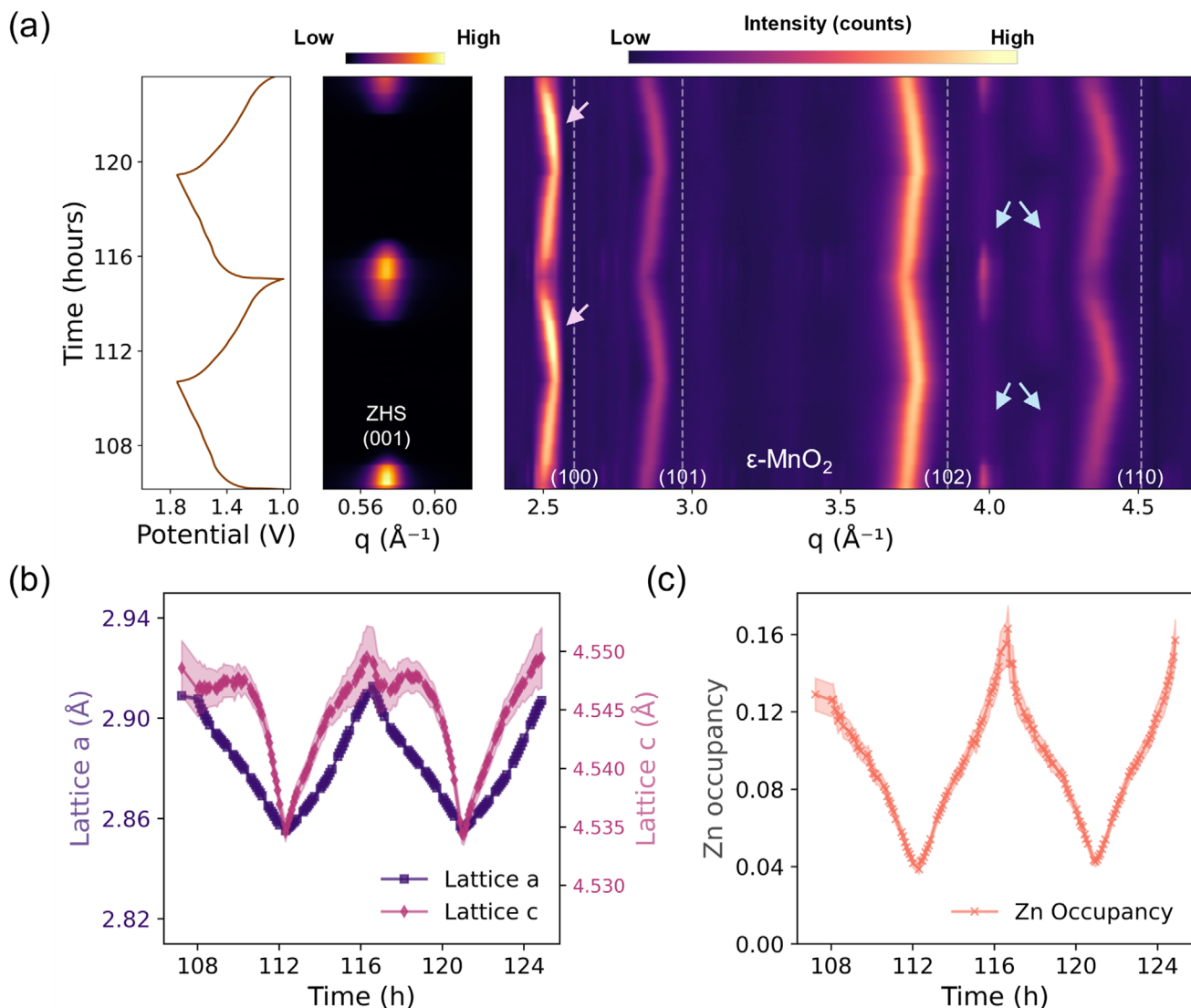


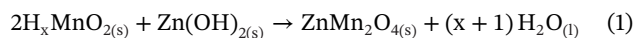
FIGURE 1 | Structural evolution of the ϵ -MnO₂ electrode in 1 M ZnSO₄ electrolyte during stable cycling. (a) Potential profiles and corresponding operando X-ray diffraction waterfall plots showing the evolution of the ZHS (001) reflection and the ϵ -MnO₂ (100), (101), (102), and (110) reflections (dotted lines showing PDF standard, 04-005-4883). Pink arrows indicate increasing peak intensity, while blue arrows denote the emergence of broader, more disordered peaks. (b) Rietveld refinement results showing the evolution of lattice parameters *a* and *c* for ϵ -MnO₂ during cycling. (c) Zn occupancy (Zn OCC) in the ϵ -MnO₂ lattice during electrochemical cycling. The curve width reflects the one-sigma fitting uncertainty from the Rietveld analysis.

most prominent at the end of discharge and during the early stages of charge, consistent with reversible local interfacial pH variation during cycling, as also reported in prior studies of ZHS evolution in aqueous Zn||EMD-MnO₂ systems [8]. The reversible appearance and disappearance of ZHS under these stable cycling conditions further suggest that proton-coupled electro-dissolution remains limited. The (001) reflection of zinc hydroxide sulfate (ZHS, 04-012-8189) is most prominent at the end of discharge and during the early stages of charge, suggesting minimal pH fluctuations under these stable cycling conditions, consistent with the minimal proton-coupled electro-dissolution step. These observations indicate that reversible H⁺ and/or Zn²⁺ intercalation is the primary contributor to capacity during the steady-state cycling regime of the Zn||MnO₂ battery.

To distinguish between H⁺ and Zn²⁺ intercalation in the cathode material, Rietveld refinement was performed to track the

evolution of lattice parameters and Zn occupancy. The lattice parameter *a* exhibits a fully reversible change from 2.91 to 2.85 Å during electrochemical cycling, whereas the lattice parameter *c* shows a smaller variation, from 4.550 to 4.535 Å, with the most pronounced change occurring near the end of charge and the beginning of discharge (see Figure 1b). The Zn occupancy in ϵ -MnO₂ varies between 0.04 and 0.16 (Figure 1c), gradually increasing during discharge and decreasing during charge. The corresponding change in zinc content ($\Delta x \sim 0.12$) enables estimation of the capacity contribution from Zn²⁺ intercalation using Faraday's law. This yields a capacity of ~ 74 mAh g⁻¹ attributable to Zn²⁺ intercalation. Given that the total reversible capacity in this steady-state regime is ~ 200 mAh g⁻¹, Zn²⁺ intercalation accounts for only $\sim 37.5\%$ of the total capacity, with the remaining capacity arising predominantly from proton insertion. Additionally, the Zn occupancy in ϵ -MnO₂, refined by allowing partial substitution of Zn at the Mn site

($0 < Zn_{occ} < 0.5$) in the Rietveld model (see Experimental Procedures Section in the Supporting Information), is marginally higher (during charge) after successive cycles, indicating that a fraction of Zn^{2+} remains trapped and the intercalation–deintercalation process is not fully reversible. An additional feature in the operando XRD waterfall plot is an increase in peak intensity near $2.5 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ prior to the end of discharge, highlighted by the pink arrow in Figure 1a. Broad secondary peaks, indicated by the blue arrows, are also observed in the waterfall plot and in the overlay XRD plot in Figure S2. These features are attributed to the reversible formation of nanodomain spinel $ZnMn_2O_4$ (PDF 04-002-4954), which may nucleate on the surface of the MnO_2 , as described by Equation (1).



This interpretation is supported by TEM studies on EMD- MnO_2 and α - MnO_2 systems, which report the formation of Hetaerolite ($ZnMn_2O_4$) nanodomains during discharge [4, 8, 51]. While the spinel phase has previously been reported in MnO_2 electrodes as an irreversible transformation associated with capacity fading and failure in $Zn||MnO_2$ batteries, here it appears to form reversibly under stable cycling conditions [14, 15]. The increased XRD peak intensity near $2.5 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ likely arises from the overlap of the ϵ - MnO_2 (100) reflection and the primary spinel $ZnMn_2O_4$ peak corresponding to (211) plane. Due to the broad nature of these reflections, the spinel phase could not be refined quantitatively.

In summary, the reaction mechanism during steady-state cycling is dominated by the intercalation of both H^+ and Zn^{2+} , accompanied by the reversible formation of a nanodomain spinel phase toward the end of discharge. To investigate how this mechanism is influenced by the presence of an organic co-solvent in the electrolyte, we next examine the effect of DMSO on electrolyte properties, specifically its ability to reduce water activity. Figure 2a schematically illustrates the $Zn||\epsilon$ - MnO_2 cell with a DMSO-containing $ZnSO_4$ electrolyte, highlighting the altered solvation environment and its potential impact on ion insertion.

The short-range order of solution structures of liquid electrolytes was evaluated by WAXS. Figure 2b shows the X-ray scattering results for varying concentrations of $ZnSO_4$. The broad peak centered around ~ 2.0 and $\sim 2.9 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ are associated with the oxygen–oxygen and oxygen–hydrogen correlations of the hydrogen bonded network of H_2O molecules (i.e., bulk water). With increasing concentrations of $ZnSO_4$, a broad feature near ~ 1.4 – $1.7 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ becomes apparent, which is consistent with the presence of contact-ion-pairs (CIP; $Zn^{2+} \cdots SO_4^{2-}$) as previously reported for $ZnSO_4$ electrolytes [52]. On addition of the $ZnSO_4$ salt the bulk-water maximum shifts to higher q relative to water, consistent with a tighter local water structure in the Zn^{2+} hydration environment. The effect of DMSO on the solvation structure is illustrated in Figure 2c,d for 1 M and 2 M $ZnSO_4$ for varying DMSO volume fractions. The bulk water and CIP peak positions in the $ZnSO_4$ electrolytes were then determined by using one or two component Gaussian fits within fixed q windows (CIP: ~ 1.4 – $1.7 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$; bulk water: ~ 1.8 – $2.2 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$). The error bars shown represent the standard errors of the fitted peak positions, as obtained from the fit covariance. Increasing DMSO fraction progressively attenuates

and shifts the bulk-water band towards a lower q (Figure 2e). To further verify that the observed changes in the WAXS signal are attributable to electrolyte restructuring, difference curves were computed by subtracting the scattering of the corresponding water + X% DMSO solution from each $ZnSO_4$ + X% DMSO sample for both 1 M and 2 M $ZnSO_4$ (Figure S3). These difference curves confirm a robust and systematic disruption of the bulk water network with increasing DMSO content, while revealing no distinct concentration-dependent feature in the CIP region, consistent across both salt concentrations.

Increasing DMSO fraction progressively attenuates and shifts the bulk-water band toward lower q indicating expansion of the hydrogen-bond network. This effect is most pronounced in pure water and is moderated by dissolved $ZnSO_4$, with the moderation being more evident at 1 M concentration. These results suggest that Zn^{2+} hydration partially offsets the DMSO-driven reorganization of water. The difference scattering analysis (Figure S3) confirms that DMSO's primary effect is on the bulk water network. The conductivity measurements (Figure S4) show an overall decreasing trend with increasing DMSO. Instead, a competing effect dominates: Feng et al. report that DMSO coordinates more strongly to Zn^{2+} than H_2O , forming mixed $[Zn(H_2O)_m(DMSO)_n]^{2+}$ complexes with larger radii than $[Zn(H_2O)_6]^{2+}$, which slows Zn^{2+} diffusion [21]. Along with higher viscosity and reduced water activity, these enlarged solvation shells hinder ion mobility.

Overall, DMSO mainly perturbs the bulk water network, while ion pairing between Zn^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} remains comparatively robust and only weakens at higher $ZnSO_4$ and DMSO concentration (2 M $ZnSO_4$, 25% by volume of DMSO). This difference between solvent reorganization and ion-pair stability helps explain the observed decrease in ionic conductivity with increasing DMSO content. To probe the impact of solvation structure on the reaction mechanism of ϵ - MnO_2 electrodes, an electrolyte containing 25 vol.% DMSO was selected for detailed operando and electrochemical studies. WAXS analysis (Figure 2c–e) shows that while lower DMSO contents (5%–10%) only weakly perturb the water structure, 25 vol.% induces a pronounced attenuation and shift of the bulk water peak, indicating significant disruption of the hydrogen-bond network and reduced water activity.

This composition represents a balance between modifying the solvation environment and preserving electrochemical functionality, as higher DMSO contents further decrease ionic conductivity and increase viscosity (Figure S3). Accordingly, 25 vol.% DMSO provides a suitable regime to investigate solvation-driven effects on cathode reversibility without excessively compromising cell kinetics. Cells cycled in 1 M $ZnSO_4$ with and without 25 vol.% DMSO (Figure 3). Figure 3a shows the Zn occupancy in ϵ - MnO_2 obtained by Rietveld refinement, comparing electrolytes with and without 25 vol.% DMSO in 1 M $ZnSO_4$. Representative Rietveld refinement profiles for the charged and discharged states are provided in the Supporting Information for cells cycled without DMSO (Figure S5) and with 25 vol.% DMSO (Figure S6), confirming good agreement between observed and calculated profiles across all conditions. In the additive-free electrolyte, Zn occupancy increases progressively with cycling, indicating limited reversibility and gradual accumulation of irreversibly trapped Zn^{2+} within the cathode structure (see blue dashed lines).

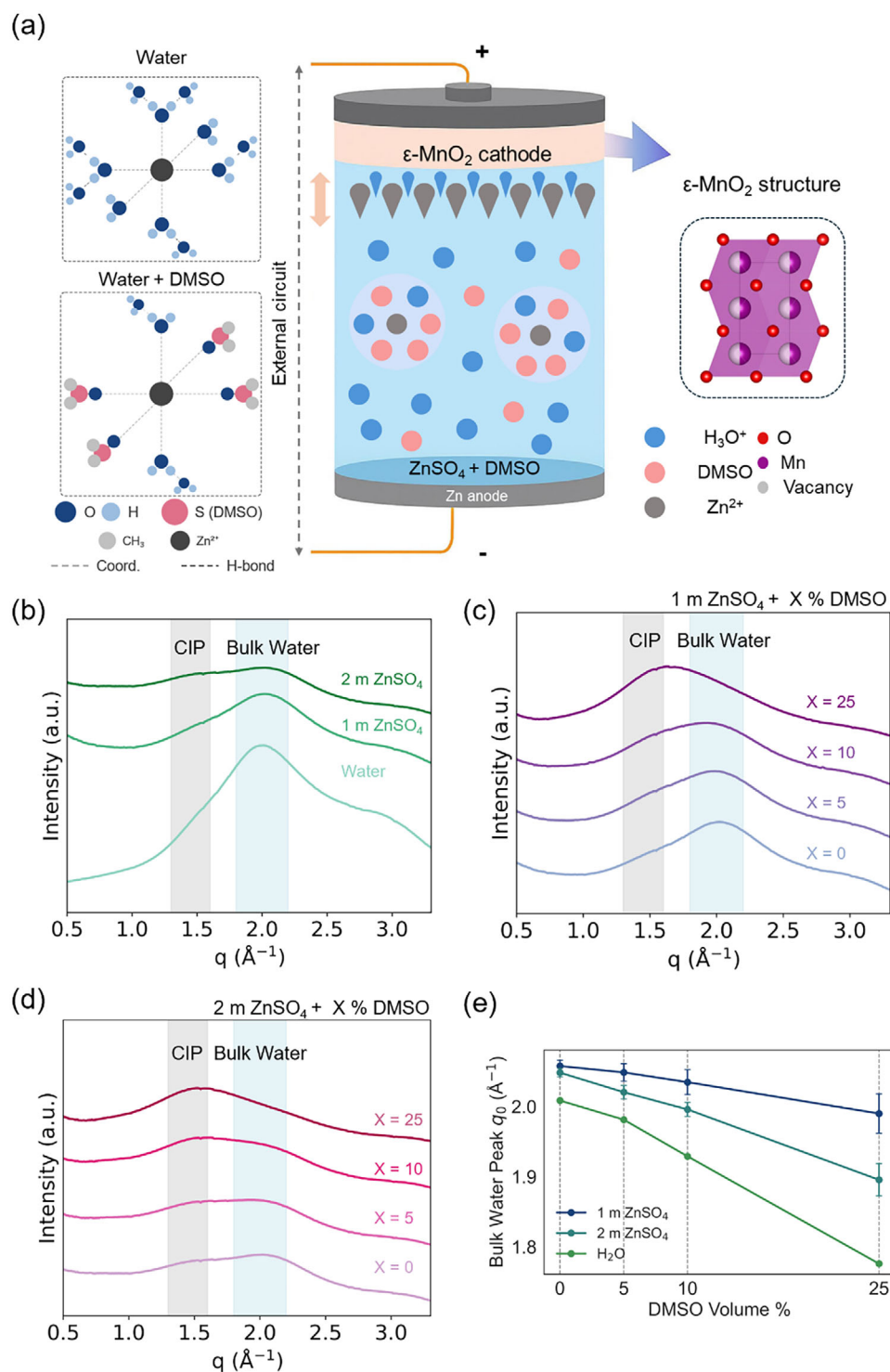


FIGURE 2 | Effect of DMSO on bulk water and contact ion pair (CIP) structure in aqueous ZnSO₄ electrolytes. (a) Schematic representation of changes to solvation structure upon DMSO incorporation in aqueous Zn||MnO₂ batteries. H⁺ is denoted as H₃O⁺ in the schematic to represent proton carriers in aqueous solution. (b) X-ray scattering spectra for water, 1 M ZnSO₄, and 2 M ZnSO₄, highlighting the CIP (~1.55 $\text{\AA}^{-1}$) and bulk water (~2.0 $\text{\AA}^{-1}$) regions. X-ray scattering curves for (c) 1 M ZnSO₄ and (d) 2 M ZnSO₄ as a function of DMSO volume fraction ($X = 0\%$, 5%, 10%, 25%). Quantified peak positions for (e) bulk water (left) as a function of DMSO volume fraction.

For the DMSO-containing electrolyte, Zn occupancy increases gradually during the first three cycles (Figure S7) but then stabilizes at a consistently lower level compared to the additive-free case (see red dashed line in Figure 3a). This demonstrates that reducing water activity with DMSO suppresses irreversible

Zn insertion-extraction despite the lower ionic conductivity of the electrolyte.

The Zn²⁺ capacity contribution was estimated during the discharge half-cycle change in Zn occupancy obtained by Rietveld

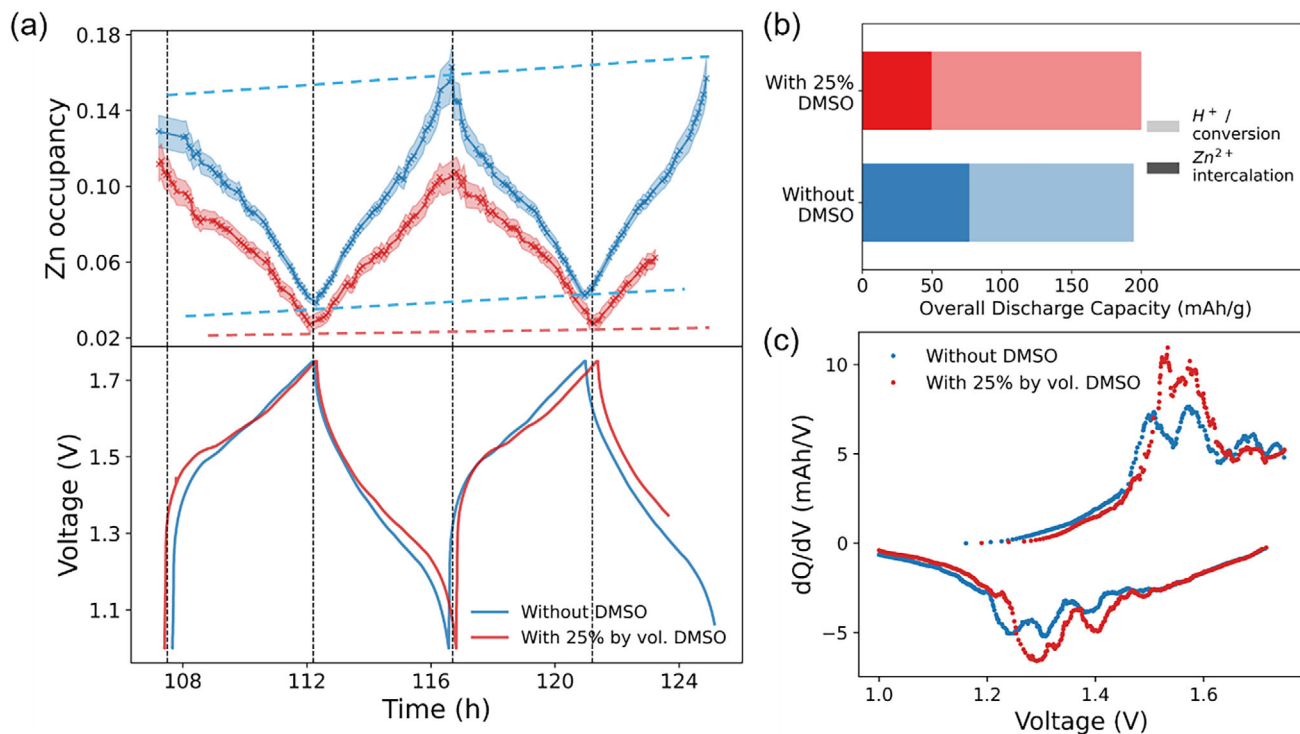


FIGURE 3 | Effect of DMSO additive on the reaction mechanism of ϵ - MnO_2 cathodes during stable cycling conditions. (a) Zn occupancy of the ϵ - MnO_2 comparison between without DMSO additive and with 25% by vol. DMSO, quantified by Rietveld refinement. (b) Quantitative breakdown of Zn^{2+} intercalation and remaining capacity contributions (encompassing H^+ intercalation and conversion reactions) to the overall discharge capacity for cells cycled with and without DMSO. (c) The differential capacity vs voltage profile comparison with and without DMSO additive for the cycled ϵ - MnO_2 .

refinement, with the remaining capacity attributed to H^+ intercalation and other conversion reactions including MnO_2 dissolution and spinel ZnMn_2O_4 formation (Figure 3b). This analysis reveals that the DMSO-containing electrolyte exhibits a proportionally larger H^+ and conversion reaction contribution relative to Zn^{2+} compared to the additive-free electrolyte, consistent with reduced water activity moderating Zn^{2+} insertion while suppressing irreversible Zn^{2+} accumulation within the lattice.

Figure 3b compares the differential capacity (dQ/dV) profiles of cycled ϵ - MnO_2 electrodes with and without the DMSO additive. During charge, the profile with DMSO additive exhibits a more distinct peak at higher potential, whereas the response without additive is broader and shifted to lower potential. Such differences may reflect changes in reaction selectivity or side processes [7], as reported in prior Zn/ MnO_2 studies, competing with reversible Zn and proton deintercalation. Meanwhile, the discharge profiles with DMSO show more pronounced peaks compared to the additive-free electrolyte, indicating improved Zn^{2+} and H^+ reinsertion and overall enhanced reversibility. Together, these results highlight that while DMSO reduces ionic conductivity, its ability to regulate solvation and lower water activity mitigates parasitic reactions and stabilizes Zn insertion-extraction in ϵ - MnO_2 cathodes.

To further evaluate the improved reversibility of aqueous Zn|| MnO_2 batteries with DMSO additives, surface-sensitive XPS studies were carried out, as the electrode surface plays a decisive role in governing subsequent electrochemical reactions. Mn 3s spectra were analyzed for cycled electrodes extracted from

Zn|| MnO_2 cells with and without DMSO after ~ 300 h of operation in 1 M ZnSO_4 + 0.1 M MnSO_4 electrolyte.

Comparison of Mn 3s splitting before and after 600 s of sputtering reveals a distinct shift toward lower binding energy for the electrode cycled without DMSO (Figure 4a), consistent with a more reduced Mn state near the electrode surface. In contrast, the electrode from the DMSO-containing electrolyte shows negligible change after sputtering, suggesting a more stable surface chemistry. Notably, the Mn 3s features in the presence of DMSO exhibit broader profiles compared to the control. This lower apparent resolution is attributed to the diverse coordination environments created by Mn-DMSO interactions at the electrode surface, leading to inhomogeneous broadening, which is further corroborated by the O 1s spectra (Figure S8) showing a larger relative contribution from surface oxygen species in the DMSO-containing electrode compared to the control. Together, these observations suggest that DMSO modifies the local surface chemistry of the electrode. The average oxidation states (Figure 4b): electrode cycled without DMSO exhibits a pronounced increase in average oxidation state upon sputtering (3.31 $\rightarrow$ 3.48), indicative of a more pronounced surface enriched in reduced Mn^{3+} species, plausibly associated with a spinel-like ZnMn_2O_4 surface phase. By contrast, the DMSO electrolyte maintains a higher and more uniform Mn oxidation state (3.44 $\rightarrow$ 3.42), suggesting improved reversibility and a more homogeneous electrode bulk. Rather than completely preventing spinel-like ZnMn_2O_4 formation, the DMSO-containing electrolyte appears to minimize its extent and accumulation, consistent with suppression of irreversible surface phase growth and improved structural reversibility. The

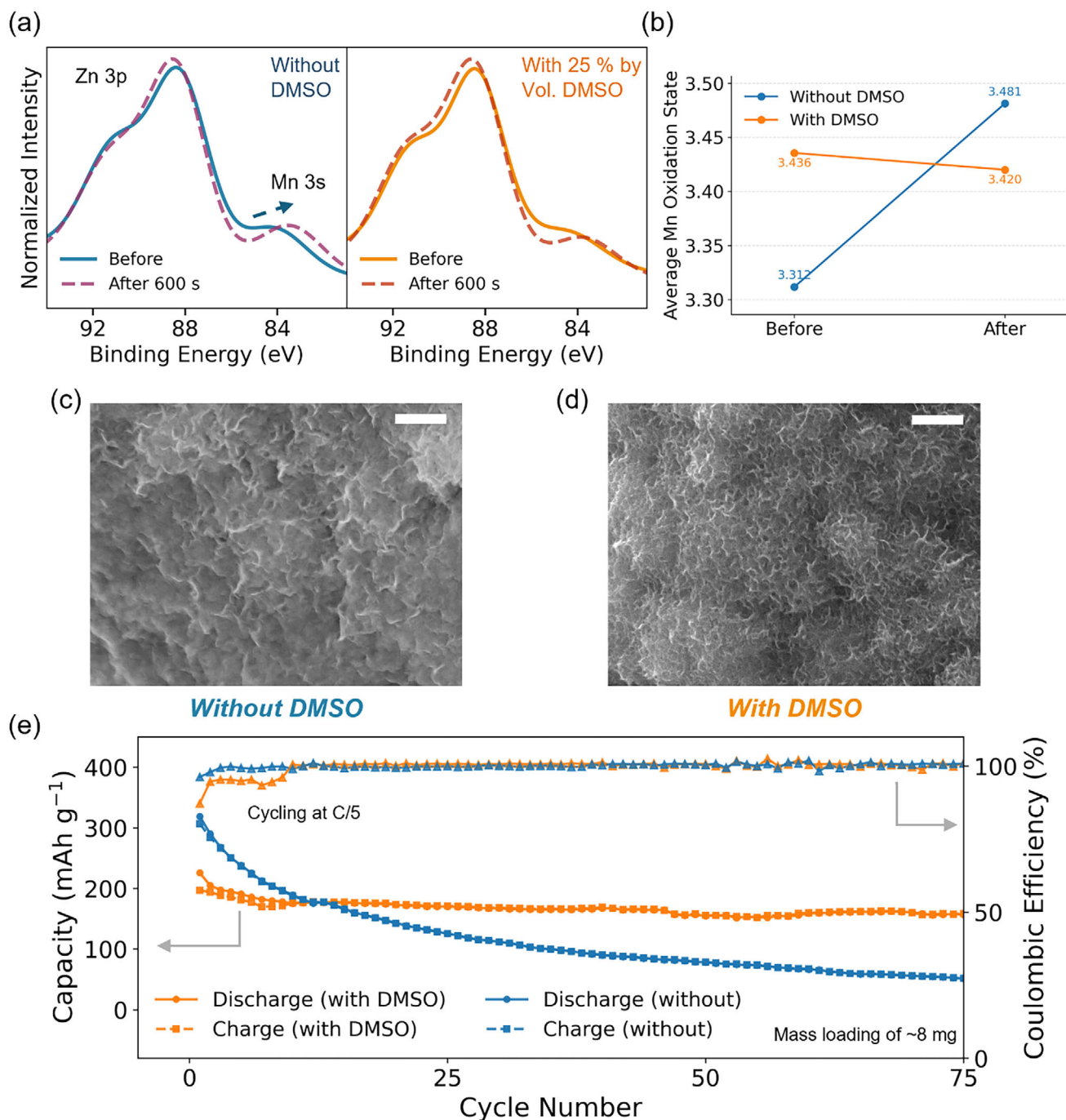


FIGURE 4 | XPS and electrochemical comparison of Zn||MnO₂ cells cycled with and without DMSO additive. (a) Area-normalized Zn 3p, Mn 3s XPS overlays for cycled ϵ -MnO₂ cathodes without DMSO (left) and with 25 vol. % DMSO (right), plotted before (solid line) and after 600 s argon sputtering (dashed line). The blue arrow indicates the shift of Mn 3s towards lower binding energy. (b) Average Mn oxidation state before/after sputter indicating a thinner reduced surface layer with DMSO. (c,d) SEM images of ϵ -MnO₂ electrodes cycled without DMSO (c) and with 25 vol.% DMSO (d), scale bars: 1 μ m. (e) Galvanostatic cycling discharge/charge capacity and coulombic efficiency vs cycle number for both 1 M ZnSO₄ + 0.1 M MnSO₄ with and without 25 vol. % DMSO; electrolyte with DMSO shows higher capacity retention over 75 cycles.

average oxidation state was determined by deconvoluting the Mn 2p XPS spectra into Mn³⁺ and Mn⁴⁺ contributions and subsequently verified through the multiplet splitting of the Mn 3s spectra, as described in the Experimental Procedures section. The Mn 2p and Mn 3s deconvolution, together with the O 1s and Zn 2p spectra of the electrodes, are provided in Figures S8–S11.

After 100 h of cycling, the SEMs of electrodes extracted at the charge states reveal notable morphological differences between the two electrodes (Figure 4c,d). The electrode cycled without DMSO exhibits a rougher, more uneven surface with greater porosity between particles, consistent with heterogeneous dissolution and redeposition processes driven by parasitic reactions at the cathode surface. In contrast, the DMSO-containing

electrode displays a more uniform and finer-textured morphology, consistent with the suppression of these interfacial side reactions. These observations further corroborate the XPS and operando XRD findings, confirming that the improved cycling stability with DMSO arises from stabilization of the electrode-electrolyte interface rather than morphological modification of the bulk electrode structure.

Electrochemical cycling further corroborates these findings (Figure 4c). The DMSO-containing electrolyte exhibits superior long-term stability, with significantly enhanced capacity retention over extended cycles. Although the initial discharge capacity is lower compared to the cell without DMSO, this is likely due to reduced ionic conductivity and slower mass transport arising from DMSO addition. Nonetheless, the stable cycling profile highlights that reducing water activity and stabilizing the Mn redox chemistry by improved reversibility of H^+ and Zn^{2+} ions outweighs the initial kinetic penalty.

While the initial discharge capacity is lower in the DMSO-containing cell, this is attributable to reduced ionic conductivity and slower mass transport arising from DMSO addition. The similar coulombic efficiency observed in both cells reflects proportional fading of both charge and discharge capacities in the cell without DMSO, rather than true reversibility a distinction that is more sensitively captured by the operando XRD, XPS, and SEM results discussed above. Nonetheless, the stable long-term cycling profile of the DMSO-containing cell highlights that the benefits of reduced water activity outweigh the initial kinetic penalty.

Instead, reversibility is governed by interfacial reaction selectivity rather than bulk transport. The formation of $[\text{Zn}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_m(\text{DMSO})_n]^{2+}$ complexes lowers free water activity, suppressing irreversible Zn^{2+} insertions and phase transformation and promoting reversible proton intercalation. Consequently, the reaction pathway shifts toward a slower but more selective and reversible intercalation process.

3 | Conclusions

In this work, we present a mechanistic understanding of aqueous $\text{Zn}||\varepsilon\text{-MnO}_2$ batteries cycled under stable cycling conditions. Operando synchrotron X-ray techniques reveal that stable cycling proceeds predominantly through combined H^+ and Zn^{2+} intercalation, accompanied by the formation of short-range nanodomains. The reaction mechanism is further understood upon introduction of co-solvent DMSO into the electrolyte. Wide-angle X-ray scattering of ZnSO_4 -DMSO electrolytes shows that DMSO primarily perturbs the bulk water network, while ion pairing remains comparatively robust and only weakens at higher salt concentrations. This decoupling between solvent reorganization and ion-pair structure explains the composition-dependent transport and interfacial behavior observed in these mixed electrolytes. Despite slower ion transport kinetics, operando diffraction demonstrates that DMSO significantly enhances the reversibility of Zn^{2+} intercalation. Complementary XPS shows that cells cycled without DMSO develop a pronounced change in Mn oxidation state between the surface and subsurface region, whereas with DMSO the oxidation state remains nearly unchanged throughout the depth profile. Overall, we show that tailoring electrolyte sol-

vation structure can stabilize interfacial chemistry and enhance redox reversibility of the manganese oxide cathodes, even when ion transport is kinetically limited. This work highlights that improving interfacial reaction selectivity, rather than maximizing bulk ion transport, is critical for achieving durable $\text{Zn}||\text{MnO}_2$ battery performance. These findings provide valuable design guidelines for advancing durable and efficient aqueous $\text{Zn}||\text{MnO}_2$ battery systems.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

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Supporting Information

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section.

Supporting File: sml74927-sup-0001-SuppMat.pdf.