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A stoichiometric MgFePO$_4$F (MFPF) is synthesised by using a solid-state carbothermal method. Its monoclinic framework, possessing an entire cationic mixing of Mg$^{2+}$ and Fe$^{3+}$, is validated via both crystal structure analysis and simulation. Interestingly, MFPF exhibits a relatively high potential (~2.6 V vs. Mg/Mg$^{2+}$) and good cyclic stability with an encouraging capacity (~53 mAh g$^{-1}$), bringing to the fore MFPF as a promising cathode material for magnesium batteries. 

Lately, the high price (~69000 $·$ton$^{-1}$) and low abundance (~7 × 10$^{-6}$ %) of lithium is viewed as an impediment to the further large-scale application of lithium ion batteries (LIBs). To meet the ever-increasing demand on large-scale energy storage/conversion devices, paramount attention has been paid to develop alternative rechargeable battery systems based on magnesium, as they are of much lower cost (3020 $·$ton$^{-1}$) than lithium (2062 $·$ton$^{-1}$). Moreover, Mg is stable upon air exposure and is free of dendritic deposition during repeated cycling, thus, inherently safer than Li. A prototype Mg battery (MB) was first demonstrated in 2000, but its feasibility strongly relies on the development of suitable cathode materials and electrolytes. Recently, more efforts have been inclined to develop a suitable Mg$^{2+}$ electrolyte with broad electrochemical window, while works related to new cathode materials remain scarce.

Owing to strong Mg interactions with the anions and the cations of the hosts or to the polarization effect of Mg$^{2+}$ cations with a high charge/radius ratio, the intrinsically slow solid-state diffusion kinetics of Mg$^{2+}$ hampers most of the intercalation compounds as cathodes for MBs.$^1$ Up to date, only few cathode materials, such as the Chevrel phases Mg$_2$Mo$_6$S$_8$ (T=S, Se),$^4, 5$ Mg$_4$MSiO$_4$ (M = Fe,$^6$ Mn,$^7, 8$ Co$^9$), transition metal oxides (such as V$_2$O$_5$,$^{10, 11}$ and MnO$_2$,$^{12, 13}$) and metal chalcogenides (such as MoS$_2$,$^{14, 15}$ TiS$_2$,$^{16}$ and WSe$_2$,$^{17}$), have been proven to be plausible (de) intercalation hosts of Mg$^{2+}$. A majority of research works have been directed toward the synthesis of nanostructured cathode materials in order to reduce the diffusion distance of Mg$^{2+}$. However, only few works have been directed toward evaluating the feasibility of using new compounds as possible cathodes for MBs. This is the focus in this study.

Fluoro-polyanionic cathode materials, such as Na$_3$FePO$_4$F,$^{18}$ LiFePO$_4$F$_2$,$^{19}$ and LiVPO$_4$F,$^{20}$ have attracted prime attention as promising alternative cathode materials for sodium and lithium ion batteries, respectively, on the basis of their three-dimensional (3D) framework, good thermal stability, and remarkable electrochemical properties. Recently, a novel lithium transitional bimetal fluorophosphate with a highly ordered cations of V$^{3+}$ and Fe$^{3+}$, viz. LiV$_{0.5}$Fe$_{0.5}$PO$_4$F, was developed by our group and exhibited a single-phase solid-solution behavior over the entire lithium composition range of Li$_{1x}$V$_{0.5}$Fe$_{0.5}$PO$_4$F (0<$x$<0.5).$^{21}$ Inspired by the high Li$^+$ conductivity of the fluoro-polyanionic compounds, a stoichiometric fluorophosphate analogue, i.e. MgFePO$_4$F (MFPF), is herein synthesised via a ball-milling assisted solid-state reaction (further details are elaborated in the supplementary information). In pursuit of high performance cathode materials for rechargeable MB as well as establishing the basic correlation between their crystal structure and Mg storage performance, the synthesis, crystal structure of MFPF and its correlation with the electrochemical properties as cathode material for both Mg and Li batteries are discussed herein.

As shown in Figs. 1a and 1b, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the ball-milled MFPF reveal a uniform particle size distribution centered at ~50 nm. Uniformly-dispersed carbon nanotubes (CNTs) are effective for enhancing the conductivity of the composite materials. Moreover, the addition of ~5 wt% CNTs can effectively decrease the interparticles fusion degree and serve as reductive agent to avoid the formation of Fe$^{2+}$ during the calcination process. X-ray spectroscopic measurements (see Fig. S1) further confirm that iron is in a divalent (Fe$^{2+}$) state in the as-prepared MFPF and that Fe$^{2+}$ is in an octahedral coordination.

The synchrotron X-ray diffraction (SXRD) pattern of MFPF synthesised at 650$^\circ$C, shown in Fig. 2a, indicates a monoclinic structure fully indexed in the $I2/a$ space group, which is isostructural with both triplite and wagnerite phases. The refined atomic parameters obtained from Rietveld refinement of the SXRD pattern are shown in Table S1. An entire Mg/Fe antisite

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**Fig. 1.** Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images at different magnifications for as-prepared MFPF: (a) ×30000 and (b) ×10$^5$. **Table S1.** Atomic coordinates ($x$, $y$, $z$) and isotropic atomic displacement parameters (Å$^2$) for MFPF.
Fig. 2. (a) Rietveld refinement of synchrotron X-ray diffraction pattern of MFPF and the 3D crystallographic representation of monoclinic MFPF projected along (b) [010] and (c) [001].

Mixing in the M1 and M2 sites was revealed by the Rietveld refinement results. Its 3D crystallographic representation projected along [010] and [001] is shown in Figs. 2b and 2c, respectively. Furthermore, the monoclinic framework exhibits a unique arrangement of atoms. As shown in Fig. 2 and also Fig. S2, the lattice framework consists of highly distorted octahedrons of MO$_4$F$_2$ (M = Mg or Fe) and tetrahedrons of PO$_4$. Within the framework, the nearest neighboring octahedrons at the same M1 or M2 sites share the F–F and O–O edges to form alternating centrosymmetrical octahedron pairs of MO$_4$F$_2$O$_4$M and F$_2$MO$_6$MF$_2$. Consequently, the octahedron chains of cations located at M1 and M2 sites are formed along [010], [001] and so on. Along [010], the F–F edges or bonds serve as bridges to crosslink the octahedron chains of M1 and M2 to form a zigzag octahedron network (see Figs. S2a and S2b). The neighboring octahedrons at the different sites of M1 and M2 share the F–O edge with each other forming an octahedron pair (i.e., F$_2$M1O$_6$M2F$_2$). The tetrahedral PO$_4$ share their vertices with two octahedron pairs (F$_2$MO$_4$F$_2$) and two F–O edge shared octahedron pairs (F$_2$M1O$_6$M2F$_2$). Finally, the 3D lattice framework, as seen in Fig. 2b and 2c, is formed.

Fig. 3. (a) Simulated X-ray diffraction patterns of MFPF ranging from 15° to 30° with various occupations of Fe and Mg in M1 and M2 sites, while the corresponding 3D crystallographic representations of simulated MFPF in two different cationic orderings are shown in (b) and (c).

To investigate the evolution of crystal structures of MFPF with various occupations of Fe and Mg in M1 and M2 sites, simulations of their corresponding XRD diffraction patterns were conducted by using the lattice parameters and crystallographic information data obtained from Rietveld refinement of the experimental data. As are apparent in Fig. 3 and Fig. S3, the simulated XRD patterns of MFPF varies with the change of site occupations of M1 and M2. The diffraction pattern of simulated MFPF with Fe and Mg antisite occupations of ca. 50% in both M1 and M2 sites coincides with the observed pattern of as-prepared MFPF (see Fig. S3a and Fig. S4). The simulation results further confirm the immense Mg/Fe antisite mixing
intrinsic in the obtained monoclinic framework derived from the Rietveld refinement analyses. This phenomenon is ascribed to the similarity in ionic radii of Mg\(^{2+}\) (0.72Å) and Fe\(^{2+}\) (0.78Å), akin to that observed in the fayalite-MgFeSiO\(_4\).\(^6\) It is important to point out that wide 3D channels for migration of Mg\(^{2+}\) could obviously be observed from the simulated cationic orderings of MFPF. As shown in Fig.3b and Fig. S3b, when the M1 and M2 sites are fully occupied by Mg\(^{2+}\) and Fe\(^{2+}\), respectively, wide channels for Mg\(^{2+}\) to traverse could be found along [010] and [001]. Analogous migration channels for Mg\(^{2+}\) can also be observed along [100] and [111] whereby Fe\(^{2+}\) and Mg\(^{2+}\) occupy M1 and M2 sites, respectively (see Fig. 3c and Fig. S3c).

To further understand the effect of calcination temperature on the crystal structure of MFPF, various calcination temperatures ranging from 600 °C to 850 °C were used to prepare MFPF. As presented in Fig. S4, all corresponding XRD patterns are similar. The crystal grain sizes of MFPF increase from ~24 nm following a near-linear relationship of the grain size increment versus the increase in sintering temperature, see Fig. S6. No obvious correlation could be found between the calcination temperature and the anti-site mixing degree within MFPF. Rietveld refinement of the sample synthesized at 800 °C also indicates an entire Fe / Mg anti-site mixing (see Fig. S5 and Table S2). We are aware that anti-site mixing may impose a limitation in the (de) intercalation of cations; however, the 3D framework conferred by MFPF may be beneficial to allow cations to traverse easily.

As a proof-of-concept, the feasibility of using MFPF as cathode material for MB was examined in a three-electrode cell configuration. The composite electrodes prepared from MFPF were used as the working electrodes. Room-temperature galvanostatic measurements were carried out between -1.2 V and 1.5 V vs. Ag/Ag\(^{+}\) at current densities corresponding to C/20 and C/30 rate. In order to obtain stable electrochemical performances both in Mg- and Li-ion cells, a pre-charge/discharge process was performed to promote ingress of electrolyte into composite electrodes and separators. As is shown in Fig. 4, the subsequent charge / discharge profiles neatly superimpose to attain stable cyclic performance. MFPF exhibits a reversible capacity of 35 mAh\(^g\)\(^{-1}\) at C/20 rate in a Mg-ion cell (see Fig. 4a and Fig. S8a). A discharge capacity of approximately 53 mAh\(^g\)\(^{-1}\) could be attained in a Mg-ion cell (see Fig. S7a), which is relatively lower than the sustainable capacity of ca. 86 mAh\(^g\)\(^{-1}\) achieved in a Li-ion cell (Fig. 4b and Fig. S8b) at the same current density corresponding to C/30 rate. Cyclic performance and coulombic efficiency of the as-prepared MFPF electrodes are given in Fig. S8. The relatively lower coulombic efficiency of MFPF electrode in 0.5M Mg(TFSI)$_2$ electrolyte should be ascribed to electrolyte-related side reactions upon charging the electrode to high potential region (see the differential capacity dQ/dV plots shown in Fig. S9a). Additionally, the electrochemical performance of a control electrode consisting of carbon (acetylene black) and binder (PTFE) is shown in Fig. S7b. The obtained small capacity of 5 mAh\(^g\)\(^{-1}\) corresponds to the supercapacitive behaviour of carbon.

It is also interestingly to note that the average working potentials are ~2.6V vs. Mg/Mg\(^{2+}\) and ~3.1V vs. Li/Li\(^+\). To the best of our knowledge, this potential is higher than that reported in most cathode materials for MB.\(^4\)\(^7\) The potential exhibited is also slightly higher than that of the Fe\(^{2+}/Fe\(^{3+}\) redox couple in

\[ \text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}^{3+} \]

\[ \text{Mg}^{2+}/\text{Mg}^{0} \]

\[ \text{Li}^{+}/\text{Li}^{0} \]

LiFePO$_4$F (2.75 V) due to the higher charge/radius ratio of Mg\(^{2+}\) than that of Li\(^+\).\(^9\) The sloping voltage (dis)charge profiles of MFPF in both Mg- and Li-ion cells suggest a solid-solution (single-phase) behaviour, which is distinct from the two-phase behaviour exhibited in LiFePO$_4$F.\(^7\) As presented in Fig. S9, one pair of oxidation/reduction peaks can be found from the differential capacity dQ/dV plots corresponding to the tenth charge/discharge cycle of the as-prepared MFPF electrodes in the three-electrode Mg cell (Fig. S9a) and the two-electrode lithium cell (Fig. S9b). The extremely broad oxidation and reduction peaks, instead of extremely narrow and sharp peaks, are characteristic of a single-phase electrochemical behaviour of MFPF in both Mg and Li ion cells.\(^22\)\(^23\) Furthermore, a smaller polarization and more distinct plateaus can be found from the voltage (dis)charge profiles of MFPF in Li-ion than in Mg-ion cell. This could also be confirmed by the smaller peak-to-peak voltage difference between the oxidation and reduction peaks observed from the dQ/dV plots of lithium ion batteries (~0.17V) than that of Mg batteries (~0.93V). The much wider peak-to-peak separation of dQ/dV curves of MFPF in Mg system than that of Li system should be ascribed to the stronger interactions with the anions and the cations of the hosts, as well as the much sluggish solid-state diffusion of Mg\(^{2+}\) cations than that of Li\(^+\) within the disordered host crystal structure of MFPF arising from higher charge-to-radius ratio of Mg\(^{2+}\) than that of Li\(^+\).\(^1\) Moreover, it is worth noting that the contribution of charge/discharge capacity from the electrochemical double layer capacitance (EDLC) is very limited. As shown in Fig. S7, the capacity of as-prepared composite electrode and acetylene black stemming from EDLC is lower than 10 mAh\(^g\)\(^{-1}\) and 5 mAh\(^g\)\(^{-1}\), respectively. Moreover, the achieved discharge capacity based on MFPF only is ~53 mAh\(^g\)\(^{-1}\).
close to 38.4% of the theoretical capacity of MFPF (138 mAhg$^{-1}$). Thus, merely the surface process, including EDLC and pseudocapacitance (resulting from the surface (de)intercalation of Mg$^{2+}$), seems not to provide such capacity. In view of this, most of the capacity of the composite electrodes stem from the redox reaction of Fe$^{3+}$/Fe$^{2+}$ caused by the (de)intercalation of Mg$^{2+}$, as confirmed by the differential capacity dQ/dV plots shown in Fig. S9a. In other words, a limited extraction/intercalation of Mg$^{2+}$ from/into the host structure of MFPF take place during the charge/discharge process even though the full intercalation is limited by the entirely cationic mixing of Fe$^{3+}$/Mg$^{2+}$ within the crystal structure of MFPF (which block the migration pathways for Mg$^{2+}$ diffusion of Mg$^{2+}$) and the sluggish solid state diffusion kinetics of Mg$^{2+}$. Therefore, judicious design of a cationic ordered MFPF possessing straight pathways for the 3D migration of Mg$^{2+}$, as presented in Figs. 3b and 3c, might be essential to further improve the electrochemical performance of MFPF.

In summary, stoichiometric MgFePO$_4$F was successfully synthesized using a solid-state carbothermal method. The experimental and simulated XRD results confirmed that the obtained monoclinic MFPF exhibit immense Mg$^{2+}$/Fe$^{3+}$ antisite mixing, which in turn results in the relative low utilization ratio and capacity of MFPF. Nonetheless, the relatively high potential (~2.6 V vs. Mg/Mg$^{2+}$) augmented with the good cyclic stability at an encouraging capacity (~60 mAhg$^{-1}$) deem MFPF a promising high voltage cathode material contender for rechargeable magnesium batteries. A reduction of the Mg$^{2+}$/Fe$^{3+}$ antisite mixing degree by use of a proper synthetic strategy as well as cycling at elevated temperature could be a necessary prelude to anticipating profound electrochemical performance in MFPF. Such efforts are subject of our future work, as are investigations relating to the mechanism of Mg$^{2+}$ (de)intercalation.

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Notes and references