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Sodium-ion diffusion mechanisms in the low cost high voltage cathode material $\text{Na}_{2+\delta}\text{Fe}_{2-\delta/2} (\text{SO}_4)_3$

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Bond-valence site energy modelling, classical molecular dynamics and DFT simulations were employed to clarify $\text{Na}^+$ ion migration in monoclinic $\text{Na}_{2+\delta}\text{Fe}_{2-\delta/2} (\text{SO}_4)_3$, the recently reported first representative of a new promising class of alluaudite-type high voltage cathode material for sodium-ion batteries. Empirical potential parameters derived from our softBV bond valence parameter set reproduce experimental unit-cell parameters. Migration energy barrier calculations based on both these empirical and on ab initio approaches consistently show a strongly anisotropic and fairly fast $\text{Na}^+$ ion mobility along partially occupied $\text{Na}(3)$ channels in the $c$-direction. Nominally fully occupied $\text{Na}(1)$ sites are attached to these paths with a moderate activation energy as sources of mobile ions. At elevated temperatures separate parallel $\text{Na}(2)$ channels contribute to the ionic conductivity. As such one-dimensional pathways are highly vulnerable to blocking by structural defects, the experimentally observed favourable rate performance can only be understood as a consequence of a cross-linking of the channels to a more robust higher-dimensional migration pathway network. Our static and dynamic bond valence pathway models for representative local structure models reveal that this cross-linking is achieved by the iron-deficiency of the compound: iron vacancies act as low-lying interstitial sites that can be reached from both types of channels with moderate activation energies. Structural relaxations around the vacancies however reduce the sodium mobility along the channels. An analogous dual effect of blocking migration along the channels and promoting perpendicular migration would result from $\text{Na}^+/\text{Fe}^{3+}$ antisite defects. Hence, further new alluaudite type transition metal sulphates can only be expected to yield a high rate performance, if their synthesis ensures the presence of a comparable transition metal sub-stoichiometry and/or a suitably tailored concentration of sodium/transition metal antisite defects.

1. Introduction

The renewed interest in Na-ion batteries due to the earth-abundance and low cost of sodium led to intensive exploration for a range of layered transition metal oxides as cathode materials.1,2 Despite the fact that the low price of active materials is a main driving factor for research into Na-based battery technologies, especially in the context of large scale batteries, most of this activity currently focuses on cathode materials containing relatively high cost transition metals such as Co and Ni that are also applied in Li-ion batteries. This is problematic not only because of the different reaction mechanism of the sodium analogues of the classical layered lithium transition metal oxides. The cost advantage of sodium over lithium will only translate into commercially viable large-scale Na-based batteries, if the concept of earth-abundant materials is consistently applied throughout their design.3 Hence, research on transition metal electrode materials for Na-based batteries has to concentrate on the most abundant transition metal Fe and may explore metals with intermediate abundance such as Ti and Mn as alternatives. On the other hand, O3-type $\text{NaFeO}_2$,5 and P2-type $\text{Na}_x[\text{Fe}_{0.5}\text{Mn}_{0.5}]\text{O}_2$ are known to suffer from limited reversible capacity and low operating potential despite the utilization of the $\text{Fe}^{4+/3+}$ redox couple. As for the analogous lithium compounds, the exploitation of the inductive effect of polyanion frameworks7 opened up the way to a range of Fe-based ternary or quaternary phosphates ($\text{NaFePO}_4$,8 $\text{Na}_2\text{FePO}_4\text{F}_2$, $\text{Na}_2\text{Fe}_2(\text{PO}_4)(\text{P}_2\text{O}_7)^{10}$, $\text{Na}_2\text{FeP}_2\text{O}_7^{11}$) in which the $\text{Fe}^{3+/2+}$ redox couple yields about 3 V. Relying on the $\text{Fe}^{3+/2+}$ redox couple bears the added advantage that in these compounds the capacity of the one-electron reaction can be fully utilized without damaging the (kinetic) structural stability.

In order to further increase the cathode potential, phosphate units can be replaced by the more electronegative $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ units. While in contrast to analogous lithium compounds,12 the first studied sodium iron sulphates ($\text{NaFeSO}_4\text{F}_x\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $x=0,2$) turned out to be electrochemically inactive,13,14 recently Barpanda et al.15 could synthesize so-called “$\text{Na}_2\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$” via...
a low temperature solid state reaction and found that it combines an unusually high Fe\textsuperscript{3+} redox potential of ~3.8 V versus Na\textsuperscript{+} (which corresponds to 4.1 V vs. Li/Li\textsuperscript{+}) with excellent rate capability.

Unusually for sulphates, the structure of the compound described as Na\textsubscript{2}Fe\textsubscript{2}SO\textsubscript{4} adopts an alluaudite-type framework, where Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{10} groups formed by edge-sharing pairs of Fe\textsubscript{6} octahedra are bridged by corner-sharing sulphate groups to a three-dimensional framework with open tunnels that are occupied by three distinct types of Na\textsuperscript{+} ions (one fully occupied site Na(1) and two partially occupied sites). It may be noted that according to Mössbauer data reported in the same work, the two Fe\textsuperscript{3+} inside the Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{10} group should be distinct (which led the authors to a structure refinement in space group \(P\bar{2}_1/c\)), while the atomic arrangement refined assuming this space group remains consistent with a higher-symmetry structure description in space group \(C2/c\). At the stage of revision we became aware of a recent follow-up work by the same group describing both Na\textsubscript{0.89}Fe\textsubscript{1.8}(SO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3} and its desodiated derivative Na\textsubscript{0.89}Fe\textsubscript{1.8}(SO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3} as isostructural in space group \(P\bar{2}_1/c\). The relative orientation of the unit cells for both cell descriptions is visualized in Figure 1.

Refinements in both considered space groups yield a nearly identical substantial stoichiometry deviation that is only vaguely mentioned in the original main article\cite{15} but specified as Na\textsubscript{2.4}Fe\textsubscript{1.8}(SO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3} with \(\delta = 0.25\) in its supplementary material. Since iron sulphate is the main impurity found in the sample, it may be assumed that this stoichiometry-deviation is an inherent property of the material at least for the chosen synthesis conditions and hence, in contrast to Barpanda et al.\cite{15}, we chose to factor in this non-stoichiometry in our atomistic and ab initio simulations of this promising cathode material. As mentioned above, the same group more recently reported the preparation of non-stoichiometric Na\textsubscript{2}Fe\textsubscript{1.8}(SO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3} as a lithium intercalation cathode.\cite{16} As already discussed by ref.\cite{15}, replacing the iron by Ti, Mn, Co, Ni, V or VO may lead to alternative cathodes/anodes and substitution by divalent main group cations might lead to compounds of interest as sodium (or lithium) solid electrolytes.

### 2. Computational Methods

#### 2.1. Bond valence based forcefields for pathway analysis and molecular dynamics simulations

Migration pathways for the mobile Na\textsuperscript{+} are analysed both from literature crystal structure data and from series of snapshots of molecular dynamics (MD) simulations by our bond valence pathway method, as discussed elsewhere.\cite{17,18,19} This modelling of pathways for mobile alkali ions \(A\) as regions of low bond valence site energy \(E_{BVSE}(A)\) has been demonstrated to be a simple and reliable way of identifying transport pathways in local structure models,\cite{19,20} provided that the local structure model captures the essential structural features. While bond

\[ E_{BVSE}(A-X) = D \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( \frac{s_{i-X}}{s_{\text{min},i-X}} \right)^2 - 2 \frac{s_{i-X}}{s_{\text{min},i-X}} \right] + E_{\text{repulsion}} \]

The required bond valence parameters are taken from our \textit{softBV} database as published in [22]. Migration pathways are analysed as regions of low \(E_{BVSE}(\text{Na})\) in grids spanning the structure model with a resolution of ca. 0.1 Å\textsuperscript{2}. For the purpose of analysing \(E_{BVSE}(\text{Na})\) landscapes Coulomb repulsions are considered only between mobile and immobile cations (here Na\textsuperscript{–}–Fe\textsuperscript{3+}, Na\textsuperscript{−}–S\textsuperscript{6+}), Coulomb attraction terms are generally
integrated into the Morse attraction term. Starting from an analysis of local minima and saddle points of $E_{\text{BVSE}}(\text{Na})$, the grid analysis utilizes a modified Dewar, Healy and Stewart (DHS)-type path finding algorithm to identify low energy paths connecting the local site energy minima.\textsuperscript{24,25}

The same empirical BV parameters $b_{A-X}$, $R_{0,A-X}$ used in this pathway analysis are also used as forcefield parameters for the generation of disordered local structure models by MD simulation. For the purpose of the MD simulations screened Coulomb repulsions $E_{\text{Repulsion}}$ for all cation-cation and anion-anion pairs are included, while – as mentioned above - the repulsions among mobile ions are excluded for the purpose of pathway modelling. In both cases Coulomb repulsions are screened by an error function complement term

$$E_{\text{Repulsion}}(A-B) = \frac{q_A \cdot q_B}{R(A-B)} \cdot e^{-\frac{(R(A-B)}{f(r_A + r_B)}},$$

where $r_A$, $r_B$ are the covalent radii of the respective cation (or anion) pair $A$, $B$ and $f$ is a factor (typically of the order $f = 0.75$, here $f = 0.742$) that is empirically linked to the electronegativity distribution in the respective crystal structure. Due to the favourable convergence of the chosen attraction and repulsion models a relatively short cut-off radius of 10 Å could be used enhancing computational efficiency. Both the Morse-type interactions and the Coulomb-repulsion terms are force-shifted to ensure zero energy gradients at the cut-off distance.

2.2. Molecular dynamics simulations

MD simulations have been conducted with the software GULP\textsuperscript{26} as implemented in Materials Studio 6.0\textsuperscript{27} using a Morse-type force field and the BV parameters of our softBV parameter set (cf. section 2.1) for a 918 atoms 2x2x3 supercell. The simulated cell composition Na$_{108}$Fe$_{90}$(SO$_4$)$_{144}$ corresponds to the fully discharged (i.e. fully sodiated) compound and factors in the experimentally observed amount of sodium excess and iron deficiency, since experimental reference structure data have been published for this composition only. It should be noted that for the MD simulations the orientation of the unit cell followed the $P_2_1/c$ model, which yields a smaller deviation of the monoclinic angle from orthogonality so that the deviation of the supercell geometry from the computationally favourable isometric case is reduced. For each of the 15 temperatures in the range 300 – 800 K the bulk structure is initially equilibrated in NPT MD simulations (starting in the first simulation from the literature structure data, for subsequent temperatures from the last frame of the previous simulation). Then the relaxed volume is fixed and equilibration continued for 150 - 1000 ps followed by production runs of 400 ps (for 800 K) up to 60,000 ps for $T = 300$ K.

2.3. Density functional theory calculations

Density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed with the Vienna $ab$ $initio$ simulation package VASP\textsuperscript{28} using the projector augmented wave method\textsuperscript{29} as implemented in the VASP code and assuming a PBE\textsuperscript{30}-type generalized gradient approximation (GGA) exchange-correlation functional. A cutoff of 400 eV for the planewave expansion was used. In contrast to the approach chosen in ref. \cite{15}, here the Na-rich composition Na$_{2.25}$Fe$_{1.875}$(SO$_4$)$_3$ was modelled with a $1 \times 1 \times 2$ supercell leading to Na$_{43}$Fe$_{15}$S$_{24}$O$_96$ containing 153 atoms, so that empirical and $ab$ $initio$ calculations refer to the same composition. Additional geometry optimisations are conducted for various Na$_{18-x}$Fe$_{15}$S$_{24}$O$_96$ models, where one or two sodium atoms are removed from the structure model.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Bond valence site energy models of sodium migration pathways for the average crystal structure

Fig. 2 shows the sodium migration pathways derived from applying the bond valence site energy (BVSE) approach to the literature crystal structure data\textsuperscript{3} with site occupancy factors...
rounded to 1, 0.75, 0.5 and 0.9375 for Na(1), Na(2), Na(3) and Fe atoms, respectively. Thereby the underlying structure model is consistent with those used for the ab initio and MD computational studies in sections 3.3 and 3.4. It may be noted that the Na distribution itself does not affect the results of the static site energy models, while the Na-excess slightly affects simulation parameters (e.g. effective charges) and the Fe-deficiency directly affects the observed energy barriers. This simplified approach already yields a Na\(^+\) ion migration pathway model that is essentially in line with the model derived from the literature ab initio analysis. As seen from Figures 2 and 3 the Na\(^+\) ion migration will be essentially one-dimensional along the c-direction and follows the ribbon-type Na(3)-Na(3) pathway channel, due to the low activation energy of ca. 0.3 eV and favourable 50% occupancy of Na(3) sites ensuring a high success rate of attempted hops. The nominally fully occupied Na(1) ions can contribute additional mobile ions to the Na(3) channels with an activation energy that is estimated to 0.8 eV from this model. For the Na(2) ions (with a ca. 75% occupancy) the model predicts separate strictly one-dimensional paths along the c-direction with an activation energy of > 0.6 eV.

Semi-quantitatively the same migration paths were found in the literature ab initio study. The slight differences in quantitative migration pathways will partly be due to the different sodium content, as the DFT analysis resorted to the fully desodiated compound with a single probe Na\(^+\) ion moved around to explore the energy landscape for the Na\(^+\) ion, while our model refers to the experimental structure data for the fully sodiated compound. Thus in the BVSE analysis of Na\(_{2.25}\)Fe\(_{1.875}\)(SO\(_4\))\(_3\) seen in Figure 3 Na(1) sites, as to be expected, correspond to the lowest energy sites while a ca. 0.2 eV higher site energy is found for the partially occupied Na(2) sites. In the literature DFT analysis for the hypothetical structure Na\(_{0.125}\)Fe\(_2\)(SO\(_4\))\(_3\) with (except for the probe Na\(^+\)) empty Na sites and full Fe site occupancy, the Na(2) site appears to have a slightly lower site energy. Similarly, the energy level of the Na(3) sites is raised in the desodiated compound, while the energy barrier between the Na(3) sites is hardly affected. Overall this pathway model suggesting one-dimensional pathways (with a high activation energy of nearly 1.4 eV to connect neighbouring Na sites to a dimensional network in the b-c plane) seems to be inconsistent with the observed favourable electrochemical performance for particle sizes of 100-200 µm synthesized by a low temperature non-equilibrium reaction path. Under such synthesis conditions it is unlikely that defect free one-dimensional channels spanning the entire crystallite will exist and thus the material will be highly vulnerable to blocking of the ion-conducting channels by defects, which should seriously reduce the rate capability of the material. On the other hand, Fe-deficiency may open up additional pathways cross-linking the fast-ion conducting channels to higher-dimensional pathway networks with moderate activation energy.\(^{18,23}\)

3.2. Sodium migration pathways for a representative local structure model

In order to explore the role of deviations of representative local structures from the average structure, we calculated Na-ion migration pathways for a local structure model derived from a 1x1x2 superstructure of the experimental average structure by keeping the Na(1) site fully occupied, while randomly occupying 6 out of 8 Na(2) sites, 4 out of 8 Na(3) sites and 15

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Fig. 3: Migration barriers for Na-ion diffusion in Na\(_{2.25}\)Fe\(_{1.875}\)(SO\(_4\))\(_3\) as derived from the bond valence site energy model for the experimental crystal structure data using a DHS-like path finding algorithm\(^{24}\). The displayed values refer (from left to right) to migrations along the c axis for the Na(2) sites, the barrier separating Na(2) and Na(3) sites, the local path along the b direction connecting Na(1) to the chain of Na(3) sites, and to the lowest migration barrier for migration among Na(3) sites along the c axis. The bottom and left-hand side axes refer to these bond-valence based data. For comparison the DFT-derived migration barriers redrawn from [15] for a desodiated composition Na\(_{0.125}\)Fe\(_2\)(SO\(_4\))\(_3\) are shown in grey. The top and right-hand side axes refer to these DFT data.
out of 16 Fe sites. The resulting structure was relaxed by constant volume geometry optimisation with the same bond-valence based forcefield that was also used for the MD simulations. Na$^+$ ion migration pathways in the resulting local structure model were analysed by the BVSE method sketched above. As shown in Figure 4 vacant Fe$^{2+}$ sites act as low-lying interstitial sites for Na$^+$ and link Na(2) to Na(3) sites with an activation energy barrier of 0.75 eV. Moreover, the relaxations in accordance to the local structure also lead to a significant variability of the energy barriers for the motion along the channels. Especially for the Na(3)-Na(3) chain at $y = 0.5$ the barrier near the vacant Fe site is increased substantially by the structural relaxation, here to 0.87 eV, more than three times higher than the 0.28(7) eV for other Na(3)-Na(3) in the same local structure model (cf. Figure 5). Thus, the Na(3)-VFe$^{2+}$-Na(2)
Table 1. Dependence of formation energy of local structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Configuration</th>
<th>Calculated energy (eV/formula unit)</th>
<th>Energy difference (eV/cell)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[8, 6, 4]</td>
<td>-115.599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[7, 7, 4]</td>
<td>-115.428</td>
<td>1.371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[7, 6, 5]</td>
<td>-115.398</td>
<td>1.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[8, 5, 5]</td>
<td>-115.454</td>
<td>1.163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[8, 7, 3]</td>
<td>-115.383</td>
<td>1.729</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While the detailed increases in energy by 1.1 to 1.7 eV/cell of the geometry-optimised models with altered sodium distributions when compared to the equilibrated model may be influenced by the arbitrary choices of the sites with changed occupancy, the calculations overall demonstrate that the experimentally observed occupancy indeed constitutes the global minimum.

For the symmetric elementary migration steps Na(3)-Na(3) and Na(2)-Na(2) along the two separate parallel sodium migration channels we estimated migration barriers in a simplified way. To this end we compared the energies of the equilibrated configuration to the energy of a transition state, where the respective mobile sodium is fixed at the centre between two equivalent Na(i) sites. We again found that the lowest migration energy of 0.308 eV is required for Na(3)-Na(3) hops, while for the elementary migration step within the Na(2) channel an activation energy of 0.771 eV was noted. Both values are within the range observed for the empirical treatment of an analogous local structure model (cf. section 3.2). Compared to the literature ab initio study of Na_{80}Fe_{125}S_{24}O_{96} it appears that the higher sodium content leads to somewhat higher energy barriers, but does not cause a fundamental change of the ratio of different energy barrier heights.

As to be expected, the concentration of sodium in the structure is closely related to the charges carried by iron atoms. Examination of charges using Bader’s analysis shows that the average charge carried by each atom type is independent of the site configuration. The Fe closest to the iron vacancy carries the highest positive charge (0.035 e higher than the average charge of the other 14 Fe atoms 1.413 ± 0.006 e). When one or two sodium atoms are removed from the structure, charges carried by sodium, sulphur and oxygen vary insignificantly, but the average charge on each iron atom increases by about 0.025 e per removed Na (i.e. by 0.41 e or 0.76 e summed up over all 15 Fe) and the standard deviation of the iron charges increases moderately to 0.016 e for Na_{17}Fe_{15}S_{24}O_{96} and 0.025 e for Na_{18}Fe_{15}S_{24}O_{96}.

3.4. Molecular dynamics simulations

To gain a deeper understanding how pathways in such local structures affect the temperature dependence and anisotropy of the Na+ ion mobility, a series of molecular dynamics simulations have been performed in a 2x2x3 supercell of composition Na_{108}Fe_{90}(SO_{4})_{144} using our empirical BVSE-based softBV forcefield. Na+ diffusion constants derived from mean square displacement vs. time plots of simulations extending up to 60 ns at 14 temperatures in the range 300 – 800 K show that at room temperature ionic conductivity is dominated by the one-dimensional migration within the Na(3)-Na(3) channels.

As seen from Figure 6, where the diffusion coefficients observed in our MD simulations are displayed as Na+ ionic conductivities (assuming validity of the Nernst-Einstein rule), the activation energy up to ca. 450 K is found to be 0.29 eV. This means the diffusion coefficient in this extrinsic regime is dominated by the lowest migration barrier, i.e. the one for the fast-ion conducting Na(3)-Na(3) channels. We also found that there is no significant statistical correlation between subsequent ion hops for the temperature range studied, so that applying the Nernst-Einstein rule appears to be justified. At first sight this
may be surprising given the low-dimensional pathways, but the high fraction of vacant sites (ca. 50%) within the Na(3) chains and the sufficient distance between the Na(3) sites allow for an independent occupancy and hence a high success probability of Na(1)→VNa(3) or Na(3)→VNa(3) hops. Overall these hops do not significantly alter the hopping probability for neighbouring Na(3). For the “intrinsic” regime at temperatures exceeding 450 K the activation energy increases to 0.67 eV as (i) the number of mobile charge carriers gradually increases by Na(1) entering the Na(3) chains (the time-averaged occupancy of Na(3) sites increased by about 4% from 300 K to 750 K), (ii) Na(2) become mobile within the separate Na(2)-Na(2) chains and (iii) VFe²⁺ sites bridging the two types of ion-conducting channels become accessible to mobile Na⁺. The three processes have similar activation energies and in detail their respective contributions will be affected by the local structure, in particular by the distribution of Fe defects.

At all temperatures the conductivity component σ∥ along the channels in c-direction clearly dominates. In the temperature range 300 K – 450 K the ionic conductivity components perpendicular to the channels are too small to be quantified from our MD simulations. For higher temperatures the transport in the perpendicular directions gradually gains ground, but even at 750 K the ratio σ∥/σ⊥ is still about 13:1. Accordingly, in the temperature range 300 K – 450 K the transference number is \( t_{Na(3)} \approx 1 \) for the 22% of the atoms that are located on Na(3) sites at the beginning of the respective MD simulations (and \( t_{Na(1)} \approx t_{Na(2)} \approx 0 \) for the 78% of Na on Na(1) and Na(2)). In the high temperature “intrinsic” regime all types of Na⁺ significantly contribute to the ionic conductivity. For \( T = 750 \) K we find transference numbers of \( t_{Na(1)} = 0.16(2) \), \( t_{Na(2)} = 0.11(1) \), \( t_{Na(3)} = 0.73(4) \) averaged over results from two MD simulations. It should be noted that the relatively high contribution from atoms initially on Na(1) sites is essentially due to their enhanced mobility once they hop onto Na(3) channel sites.

It may be noted that on the timescale of our NVT simulations Fe²⁺ is found to be immobile except for a single hop of a Fe²⁺ to a Na(3) channel at the highest studied temperature \((800 \text{ K})\). While the Fe²⁺ deficiency is highly relevant for the dimensionality of the pathways and the dual role of antisite defects (FeNa(2)⁺ or FeNa(3)⁺) will block the fast-ion conducting channels, NaFe⁺ will open up additional links between channels\(^\text{23,32}\) arising from the non-equilibrium low-temperature synthesis routes may have to be factored in, Fe²⁺ mobility can be ruled out as a significant contribution to charge transport in the practically accessible temperature range.

Conclusions

Room temperature ion migration in this alluaudite-type compound is, as suggested in ref. [15], highly anisotropic and almost entirely due to the high Na⁺ mobility along the Na(3)-Na(3) channels. The value of the room temperature ionic conductivity \( \sigma_{300K} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ S.cm}^{-1} \) found in our MD simulations clarifies that ion migration is suitably fast to classify the cathode material as promising for adequately high rate performance without a need for nanostructuring. It should, however, be emphasized that the extent of iron deficiency as well as the actual local distribution of the iron vacancies will play a vital role for practical performance: The cross-linking of Na⁺ migration pathway across iron vacancies prevents easy blockage of the one-dimensional channels for fast ionic conductivity, but will on the other hand reduce the mobility along the Na(3)-Na(3) channels. Similarly, in Na⁺/Fe²⁺ antisite defects (whose concentration will due to the non-equilibrium low temperature synthesis routes probably exceed the thermodynamic equilibrium value) the moderately mobile NaFe⁺ will promote transport perpendicular to the chains, but the FeNa⁺ will – in a more drastic way – block ion migration along the chains.

Substituting iron by main group cations to synthesize (electronically insulating) fast-ion conducting solid electrolytes, as suggested in ref. [15], will face the challenge that their conductivity will probably not reach the order of magnitude of other known fast Na⁺-ion conductors. Moreover, the substituting cation (like iron) has to be slightly deficient so that the vacancies can act as links between the otherwise one-dimensional ion migration pathways that would be highly vulnerable to blocking by defects. Likewise using partly desodiated Na₁₋ₓFeₓ₂₋ₓ(SO₄)₃ as a lithium intercalation cathode (as explored experimentally for the case of Na₀.₈₆Fe₁.₈(SO₄)₃ in ref. [16]), will almost inevitably lead to less favourable rate performance. Li⁺ ions will also be mobile preferably along the Na(3)-Na(3) channels, but the lithium migration pathway network will be less robust due to the “mixed-alkali effect”,\(^\text{33}\) here the blocking of Li⁺ pathway cross-links by Na⁺ on Na(1) sites in line with what is observed experimentally.

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Notes and references

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