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Cathodes for Mg batteries: A condensed review

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Abstract

Magnesium batteries offer several advantages over commercial lithium batteries, including predicted lower cost due to the greater abundance of Mg, and better theoretical performance. Currently, there are numerous challenges to overcome in delivering commercial Mg batteries, such as the high charge density of Mg^{2+} that hinders its intercalation in and out the cathode, or strict requirements for coordination of Mg^{2+} . In this condensed review, we present an overview of some of the key challenges and strategies for high performance, focusing on the cathode. We highlight some promising cathode compositions, including manganese oxides, the seminal Mo_6S_8 that is still used to evaluate novel electrolytes and anodes, and vanadium oxides, such as $\text{H}_2\text{V}_3\text{O}_8$. Correlations between structure, chemistry and performance are discussed for each composition.

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Keywords: Magnesium batteries; Energy storage; Cathodes

1. Introduction

The transition to a self-sustaining and greener economy requires the development of new and more sustainable energy technologies. Batteries are attractive for powering electric transportation and small electronic devices, as well as energy storage at grid-scale [1]. Commercial lithium-ion batteries already find applications for such purposes. However, the raw materials required for Li batteries are concentrated in a few countries, including conflict zones. Such considerations also coincide with a greater demand for more sustainable energy storage [1,2]. Thus, we must develop new battery chemistries, that use intercalating ions other than Li^+ , and avoid critical raw materials such as cobalt [2].

Magnesium-ion batteries are attractive candidates for overcoming this challenge. Mg batteries are potentially less expensive since Mg is > 300 times more abundant than lithium and because Mg ores are distributed across many countries [1,3]. In addition, magnesium is divalent (Mg^{2+}), while lithium is monovalent (Li^+), which gives Mg batteries a higher theoretical volumetric capacity (3833 Ah/L for Mg, versus 2062 Ah/L for Li) [1]. Despite these advantages, commercialization of Mg batteries has not yet been realized, in part due to a lack of suitable cathodes.

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The cathode releases Mg^{2+} during charge, and incorporates Mg^{2+} during discharge, so it is crucial to develop a cathode that can accept large concentrations of Mg^{2+} reversibly and quickly. Few materials meet this requirement currently, highlighting the demand for new cathode chemistries. Below, we review key challenges associated with finding suitable cathodes, as well as strategies to achieve high performance. We then highlight some interesting cathode compositions, and finally discuss correlations between structure, chemistry and performance.

2. Challenges and strategies for high performance in cathodes

We focus here on obstacles and strategies associated with the cathode, although we note that improvements to the electrolyte and anode are also needed in tandem [1]. First, the cathode must accommodate the high charge density of Mg^{2+} , which originates from its small ionic radius (0.72 Å), [4] and from its divalency. [5] In contrast, Li^+ is slightly larger (0.76 Å) [4] and is monovalent, resulting in lower charge density. The high density of Mg^{2+} produces strong Coulombic interactions between Mg^{2+} and the cathode. These interactions can slow the migration of Mg^{2+} and cause large lattice distortions during cycling, both of which limit the capacity [1,6,7]. In addition, this high charge density can increase the energy barrier for Mg^{2+} to hop between sites, [8] and complicates redistribution of charge within the cathode, which is needed to maintain local electroneutrality. [9]

Using sulfides can mitigate some of these challenges: the sulfide anion S^{2-} is larger and more polarizable than the O^{2-} , making S^{2-} better suited to accommodate the high charge density [7]. This results in better Mg^{2+} conduction and in larger capacities [10]. Notable sulfide cathodes include the seminal Chevrel phase $\text{Mg}_x\text{Mo}_6\text{S}_8$ (see below) or the spinel $\text{Mg}_x\text{Ti}_2\text{S}_4$, which delivers a promising capacity of 195 mAh/g at C/20 [10,11]. However, the greater capacity of sulfides often comes at the expense of high voltage, which is needed to achieve good energy density [5–7,10–14].

Such high voltages can be obtained by using oxides, which often yield voltages of between 2 and 3 V vs. Mg^{2+}/Mg . This is in part because the metal–oxygen bond is more ionic than the metal–sulfur bond [5–7,10–16]. However, the large electronegativity of oxygen worsens the strong Coulombic interactions and large lattice distortions described above. Several strategies can mitigate these effects. Nanosizing shortens the diffusion distance of mobile ions, which can improve cathode performance [16–18]. Alternately, small amounts of H_2O can shield Mg^{2+} from the host lattice, allowing reversible intercalation [16]. However, H_2O reacts with the Mg metal anode to form an Mg-blocking layer, which limits the choice of anode to carbon or other non-Mg metal compositions [8].

Other challenges include inversion and coordination. Inversion refers to Mg^{2+} exchanging locations with a nearby transition metal, which modifies the migration pathways of Mg^{2+} and can decrease the capacity [19]. In addition, migration is favored when Mg^{2+} sits in an unfavorable coordination site; i.e., when the coordination of Mg^{2+} with neighboring anions is different than 6 (octahedral), which further restricts the cathode chemistries available. [20,21]

3. Highlighted cathodes

Many inorganic compositions have been investigated as Mg-cathodes. These include 3D structures, such as spinels (e.g., $\text{Mg}_x\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_4$, $\text{Mg}_x\text{Ti}_2\text{S}_4$), polyanionics (e.g., $\text{Mg}_x\text{Ti}_2(\text{PO}_4)_3$), Wadsley–Roth phases (e.g., $\text{V}_4\text{Nb}_{18}\text{O}_{55}$), or layered materials, in which Mg^{2+} migrates between 2D sheets of metal-anion polyhedra (e.g., TiS_2) [1,6,22,23]. Comprehensive reviews of these phases can be found elsewhere. [1,13,22–24] Here, we highlight a few select compositions, and explain correlations between structure, chemistry and performance.

3.1. Chevrel phase Mo_6S_8

The seminal phase Mo_6S_8 (or Mo_3S_4), was first synthesized by Chevrel in 1974, [25] and later used to make the first rechargeable Mg battery in 2000 by Aurbach et al. (Fig. 1; adapted from prior crystallographic information) [11,26]. Rapid diffusivity of Mg^{2+} in this structure is thought to be encouraged by (1) the use of S^{2-} which compensates for the high charge density of Mg^{2+} , (2) the large numbers of vacant Mg^{2+} sites with short distances between them, (3) the 4-fold or 5-fold coordination of Mg^{2+} in the Chevrel structure, and (4) the presence of MoS_6 octahedral clusters with delocalized electrons, which are thought to rapidly redistribute charge as Mg^{2+} intercalates. [5,26,27] Consistent with the use of sulfide, the voltage attained is rather low (< 2 V vs. Mg^{2+}/Mg). [7,8] The theoretical capacity of Mo_6S_8 is 129 mAh/g, as the Mo_6 octahedral clusters can sustain up to 4 additional electrons (corresponding to two Mg^{2+} ions). [5] While this is lower than the experimental capacity of other sulfides, [10] Mo_6S_8 retains > 80% capacity retention after hundreds of cycles. [8,11,28] This reliable stability renders Mo_6S_8 useful for evaluating novel electrodes or electrolytes. [23,28–30]

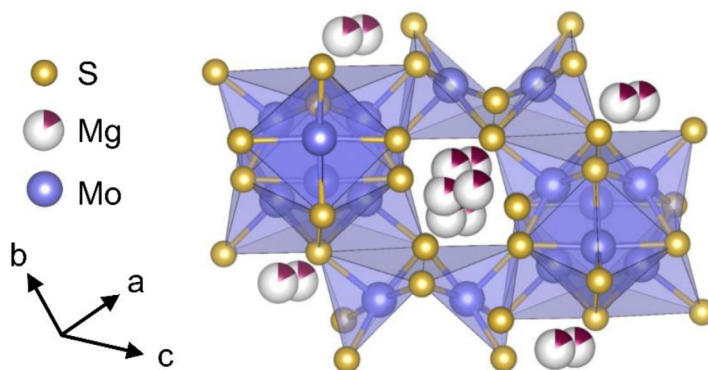


Fig. 1. Structure of the Mo_6S_8 Chevrel phase, with 1 Mg^{2+} intercalated. (i.e., MgMo_6S_8). The possible Mg^{2+} sites are shown, each with partial occupancy.

3.2. Manganese oxides

Mn oxides promise high capacities, low cost, and decent voltage [24]. Interestingly, MnO_2 crystallizes as both 2D and 3D polymorphs (Birnessite, Hollandite, Spinel, Ramsdellite), which have been tested as cathodes for Mg-batteries [24]. The elevated voltages achievable using MnO_2 polymorphs (2–3 V vs. Mg^{2+}/Mg) make these materials attractive for commercialization [24]. MnO_2 cathodes can also exhibit high initial capacities, with reports of up to 545 mAh/g reported for the spinel [31]. However, this high capacity fades significantly, with $\leq 75\%$ retained after 50 cycles. [31] Capacity fade is also a concern for other MnO_2 polymorphs. [24] The Hollandite $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$ produced an initial discharge capacity of 280 mAh g^{-1} that decreased to 100 mAh g^{-1} after the fourth cycle (36% capacity retention). [32] This decrease was attributed to a collapse in the Hollandite's tunnel structure, possibly due to a Jahn–Teller distortion that causes instability in the structure and traps Mg^{2+} ions [32]. Some capacity fade may be inherent to the use of Mn, as Mn chalcogenides are predicted to undergo larger volume changes during cycling compared with other metal-chalcogenides. [33] Thus, it is useful to examine the performance of other metal-oxides.

3.3. Vanadates: the case of $\text{H}_2\text{V}_3\text{O}_8$

Despite the toxic and critical nature of vanadium, [2] vanadates present many attractive qualities. Vanadium is a multi-redox transition metal ($\text{V}^{5+/4+/3+/2+}$), and therefore well-suited to cycling the divalent Mg^{2+} . The availability of many oxidation states helps to preserve local electroneutrality, which is thought to aid intercalation [9]. In addition, V or Ti oxides are predicted to have lower volume changes during cycling, as non-bonding orbitals are filled during reduction [33]. In contrast, for Mn or other metals, the anti-bonding orbitals are filled instead, making the volume change much greater [33]. These structural characteristics have motivated evaluating vanadates for Mg cathodes, such as VO_2 , [23] $\text{V}_4\text{Nb}_{18}\text{O}_{55}$, [6] or the famous V_2O_5 [24].

One such promising cathode is $\text{H}_2\text{V}_3\text{O}_8$. This structure consists of VO_6 and VO_5 octahedra, joined together to form 1D needles, [34] which have nanowire morphology (Fig. 2 – structure adapted from prior work [34]) [30,34]. TGA analysis suggests the presence of structural water, which is thought to share oxygen with the V-O polyhedra [34]. When employed in Li-batteries, this water helps to accommodate the Li^+ and enhances Li^+ mobility between the V-O needles [35]. It is likely that water similarly enhances the intercalation of Mg^{2+} . Moreover, the coordination of Mg^{2+} in the structure is 5, [34] meeting the requirement of non-octahedral coordination [20,21]. Encouragingly, over 300 mAh/g are attainable experimentally for Mg^{2+} cycling using a carbon anode, with capacity retention of $> 85\%$ after 20 cycles [30]. Other work reports lower initial capacity (231 mAh/g) with $> 70\%$ retention after 100 cycles [34]. The performance of $\text{H}_2\text{V}_3\text{O}_8$ depends strongly on the anode employed, with carbon being more successful than Mg metal [30,34]. It was suggested that finding an appropriate electrolyte would improve cycling against Mg metal, [34] although perhaps slight leakage of the structural water could create an Mg-blocking layer [8] on the metal anode. While the reported plateau voltage varies between reports, it is consistently decent (2–3 V vs. Mg^{2+}/Mg), as expected for an oxide [30,34]. Thus, $\text{H}_2\text{V}_3\text{O}_8$ is a promising cathode for Mg batteries.

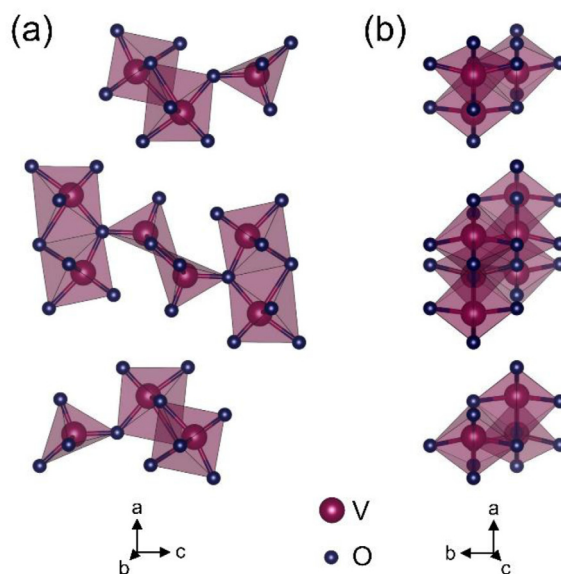


Fig. 2. Structure of $\text{H}_2\text{V}_3\text{O}_8$, looking (a) down the b -axis and (b) down the c -axis.

4. Conclusion

While Mg batteries promise higher capacity than their Li counterparts, a lack of suitable cathodes hinders their commercialization. Here, we have given an overview of the main considerations for obtaining good ion migration, capacity and voltage from Mg-cathodes. Oxides often afford higher voltages, which is needed to deliver good energy densities. However, this comes at the expense of fast intercalation of Mg^{2+} , which can be achieved using sulfides. Mg^{2+} also has strict requirements for coordination within the cathode structure. Nanosizing and shielding can improve ion migration and capacity in oxides, but some shielding agents, such as water, may be incompatible with a Mg-metal anode. We have highlighted here several key cathode chemistries, including the seminal Mo_6S_8 , which due to its high stability is still employed to evaluate novel electrodes and electrolytes. Manganese oxides exhibit promising voltages and capacities, but can also experience significant capacity fades. Despite the critical nature of vanadium, vanadates are particularly interesting, as the many redox states of vanadium and smaller volume changes during cycling can more easily accommodate the divalent Mg^{2+} . Of note is $\text{H}_2\text{V}_3\text{O}_8$, which can deliver > 300 mAh/g capacity, but is difficult to cycle vs. Mg metal. Further optimization of existing cathodes, as well as discovery of new chemistries, are needed for commercialization of Mg batteries.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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