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# **Low-cost iron trichloride cathode for all-solid-state lithium-ion batteries**

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The dominant chemistries of lithium-ion batteries on the market today still rely on fammable organic liquid electrolytes and cathodes containing scarce metals, such as cobalt or nickel, raising safety, cost and environmental concerns. Here we show a FeCl<sub>3</sub> cathode that costs as little as 1% of the cost of a LiCoO<sub>2</sub> cathode or 2% of a LiFePO<sub>4</sub> cathode. Once coupled with a solid halide electrolyte and a lithium-indium (Li–In) alloy anode, it enables all-solid-state lithium-ion batteries without any liquid components. Notably, FeCl<sub>3</sub> exhibits two flat voltage plateaux between 3.5 and 3.8 $V$ versus Li+ /Li, and the solid cell retains 83% of its initial capacity after 1,000 cycles with an average Coulombic efficiency of 99.95%. Combined neutron difraction and X-ray absorption spectroscopy characterizations reveal a Li-ion (de)intercalation mechanism together with a  $Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+}$  redox process. Our work provides a promising avenue for developing sustainable battery technologies with a favourable balance of performance, cost and safety.

The increasing need for electrified transportation and grid power storage demands transformative electrochemical energy storage devices with a much lower cost than the currently used Li-ion batter-ies (LIBs)<sup>[1,](#page-6-0)[2](#page-6-1)</sup>. The cathode is responsible for a large part of the cost of a LIB. The materials currently used for the cathodes in commercial LIBs are mostly layered oxides, which are made from relatively expensive semi-precious raw materials<sup>[3](#page-6-2)</sup>, such as Co, and require costly processing, such as high-temperature calcination. Fe is an attractive redox-active element due to its low cost and low toxicity. Unfortunately, the layered oxide LiFeO<sub>2</sub> does not cycle in LIBs<sup>4</sup>. LiFePO<sub>4</sub> is less expensive than layered oxides in raw materials, but it commonly requires carbon coating and nanosizing<sup>3[,5,](#page-6-4)[6](#page-6-5)</sup>, which increase the manufacturing cost and lowers the volumetric energy density.

Layered oxides usually react with Li through topotactic intercalation–deintercalation reactions, which are favourable for maintaining structural stability. In contrast, most binary compounds, such as transition-metal oxides<sup>7-[9](#page-6-7)</sup> and halides<sup>10-[15](#page-6-9)</sup>, have been reported as being conversion cathodes or anodes in LIBs. They exhibit large voltage hysteresis $16$  and low round-trip energy efficiency, which, thus, limit their application $17,18$  $17,18$ . Only a small portion of the intercalation capacity of fluorides has been observed in FeF<sub>3</sub> (refs. [19–](#page-6-13)[21\)](#page-6-14) and FeOF (refs. [22](#page-6-15)[–24](#page-6-16)). The reported Li intercalation plateau of FeF<sub>3</sub> varies from 3.0 to 3.3 $V$ (refs. [19](#page-6-13)[,25,](#page-6-17)[26](#page-6-18)). Chlorides are, in principle, better hosts for Li intercalation than fluorides, as the bigger ions and weaker electronegativity of Cl than F may lead to faster diffusion channels in the lattice. However, most metal chlorides are soluble in commonly used organic liquid electrolytes (LEs), greatly limiting the use of chlorides as cathodes<sup>27</sup>. Only a limited number of studies have reported on chloride cathodes, most of which operate through conversion reactions and suffer from dissolution problems<sup>[11](#page-6-20),13</sup>. Recently, VCl<sub>3</sub> was reported to exhibit a Li<sup>+</sup> intercalation–deintercalation reaction when used in a saturated  $LE^{28}$ , but its cycling stability remains unsatisfactory.

Moreover, solid-state LIBs (SSLIBs), which use solid electrolytes (SEs) instead of conventional flammable LEs, are providing new opportunities. Besides the widely recognized benefits of solid-state batteries in terms of improved energy density, safety

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and sustainability over conventional LIBs, using SEs also offers great opportunities for revisiting the chloride cathodes that are soluble in LEs. In particular, recent studies have shown that high-performance halide  $SEs^{29-31}$  $SEs^{29-31}$  $SEs^{29-31}$ , including our work on halides<sup>[32](#page-7-3)</sup>, exhibit good ionic conductivity and compatibility with high-voltage cathode materials. This progress suggests that there are opportunities for harnessing the combined benefits of stable Li<sup>+</sup> intercalation-deintercalation reactions in chloride cathodes and high-performance halide SEs for achieving high cycling stability.

Here we report that highly reversible Li insertion and extraction in anhydrous FeCl<sub>2</sub> in all-solid-state cells with halide SEs. FeCl<sub>2</sub> delivers an unexpectedly high voltage of ~3.65 V with a specific capacity of ~159 mAh g−1 and an energy density of ~558 Wh kg−1. More importantly, the market price of anhydrous FeCl<sub>2</sub> is only  $-2\%$  that of LiFePO<sub>4</sub>, suggesting its huge potential for commercial applications in large-scale energy storage systems.

### **Results**

### **Reversible Li insertion and extraction in FeCl3**

Pristine FeCl<sub>3</sub> crystallizes in an O1-type layered structure (following Delmas notation)<sup>[33](#page-7-4)</sup>, as shown in Fig. [1a](#page-1-0), where the Cl<sup>−</sup>anions follow an ABAB stacking sequence. Unlike layered compounds with an O3 structure, such as  $LiCoO<sub>2</sub>$ , where each layer is fully filled alternatively with Li and Co octahedra, FeCl<sub>3</sub> (or expressed as  $Fe<sub>0.66</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>$ ) has a much lower cation-to-anion ratio. Therefore, the layers are filled with a combination of  $Fe^{3+}$  octahedra and vacant octahedra (in an overall ratio of 2:1), which form a typical in-plane honeycomb ordering pattern (Fig. [1b,c\)](#page-1-0). Two types of stacking schemes along the *c* axis are possible, one with a shift of the honeycomb layer with alternating  $Fe<sup>3+</sup>$  and vacancies along the *c* axis (in space group *R*3̄ , as shown in Fig. [1b\)](#page-1-0), whereas the other has honeycomb layers identically stacked along the *c* axis (in space group *P*31*m*, as shown in Fig. [1c](#page-1-0)). Pristine FeCl<sub>3</sub> possesses the intergrowth of both types of stacking, leading to broad and diffuse scattering peaks in the X-ray diffraction (XRD) and neutron diffraction patterns (Fig. [1d](#page-1-0) and Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2). A quantitative stacking disorder analysis suggests that the pristine structure contains ~45% of the former stacking (*R*3̄ ) and ~55% of the latter stacking (*P*31̄*m*).

For the FeCl<sub>3</sub> solid cells,  $Li_{2.75}In_{0.75}Zr_{0.25}Cl_6$  (LIZC) was selected as the SE in the cathode layer because of its good cathode stability and high room-temperature (RT) ionic conductivity (~2 mS cm<sup>-1</sup>)<sup>[34](#page-7-5),35</sup>. A protective layer of Li<sub>3</sub>YCl<sub>3</sub>Br<sub>3</sub> (LYCB)<sup>32</sup> was used in direct contact with the In-Li anode to avoid the reduction of In and Zr in the LIZC electrolyte. The ionic conductivities of LIZC and LYCB are shown in Supplementary Figs. 3 and 4. The interface resistance between the In–Li alloy and LYCB was evaluated by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of a Li–In/LYBC/Li–In symmetric cell. The collected Nyquist plot in Supplementary Fig. 5 shows the low interface resistance. The charge/ discharge voltage profile of FeCl<sub>3</sub> at a rate of 0.1C at RT is shown in Fig. [2a](#page-2-0) (plotted as voltage versus Li<sup>+</sup>/Li to facilitate the comparison with other cathodes). An initial discharge capacity of 159 mAh  $g^{-1}$  was observed, which is 96% of the theoretical capacity (165 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>, calculated based on the Fe<sup>2+</sup>/Fe<sup>3+</sup> redox couple). Two flat plateaux in the range of 3.5–3.8 $V$ are observed, implying that there are possibly two biphasic processes. The average voltage of 3.65 V is much higher than that of lithium iron oxides<sup>36[,37](#page-7-8)</sup> (~2 to 3*V*) and higher than that of LiFePO<sub>4</sub> (3.42*V*)<sup>[38](#page-7-9)</sup>. It is also seemingly higher than the intercalation plateau of FeF<sub>3</sub> (3.0–3.3 $V$ )<sup>19</sup>. However, this may be due to the pronounced overpotential in the reac-tions of FeF<sub>3</sub>. Recently, experimental<sup>19</sup> and computational<sup>[26](#page-6-18)</sup> investigations have indicated that the equilibrium Li intercalation potential of FeF<sub>3</sub> at the initial stage is > 3.8 V. With such a high voltage and capacity, the theoretical energy density of FeCl<sub>3</sub> is calculated to be 602 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>, exceeding the theoretical energy density of LiFePO<sub>4</sub> (578 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>). The measured energy density is 558 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup> (the calculation method for the energy density is described in Methods), which is 92.7% of the theoretical value.



<span id="page-1-0"></span>**Fig. 1 | Crystal structure of FeCl3. a**, Side view of the layered structure and the anion stacking of pristine FeCl<sub>3</sub>. **b**,c, There are two different types of stacking of Fe/vacancy honeycomb ordered layers along the *c* axis: alternating stacking (in space group *R*3̄ ) (**b**) and fully aligned stacking (in space group *P*31̄*m*) (**c**). Fe and Cl are shown as brown and green spheres, respectively. **d**, Rietveld refinement against ex situ synchrotron XRD patterns of pristine FeCl<sub>3</sub>. a.u., arbitrary units.

In the first charging process, the inserted Li ions could be almost fully removed. The charging voltage profile exhibits two flat plateaux. The voltage profiles in successive cycles largely resemble the profile in the first cycle (Fig. [2a\)](#page-2-0), demonstrating good cycling reversibility. The average voltages can be better seen in the corresponding d*Q*/d*V* curves (Fig.  $2b$ ). In the first cycle, the two cathodic peaks are centred at 3.56 and 3.67 V (versus Li<sup>+</sup>/Li), respectively, and the two anodic peaks are at 3.70 and 3.74 V, respectively. In the subsequent cycles, the cathodic peaks shift to higher voltages of 3.58 and 3.68 V, respectively. This observation implies that the electrochemical reaction is highly reversible, although the structural evolution of FeCl<sub>3</sub> in the first and successive cycles may be slightly different. Figure  $2c$ , d shows the rate performance of FeCl<sub>3</sub> SSLIBs. Figure [2e](#page-2-0) shows the long-term cyclability of FeCl<sub>3</sub> at a rate of 0.5C at RT. After 1,000 cycles, the cell maintained 83% of its initial capacity with an average Coulombic efficiency of 99.98% in each cycle. FeCl<sub>3</sub> solid cells with 50 mg cathode loading (FeCl<sub>3</sub> 21.71 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>) also exhibit stable cycling with an areal capacity of ~2.5 mAh cm−2 at RT (Supplementary Fig. 6). Rate-performance and long-term cycling tests were also performed for FeCl<sub>3</sub> SSLIBs at 60 °C, as shown in Supplementary Figs. 7 and 8. FeCl<sub>3</sub> SSLIBs exhibit a high capacity of 135 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> at 1C and a capacity of over 70 mAh g−1 at a rate of 5C at 60 °C. Under a higher rate of 2C, the FeCl<sub>3</sub> SSLIBs delivered an initial capacity of 115 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>, and a capacity of 70 mAh g−1 was maintained after 1,000 cycles (Supplementary Fig. 8), with an average Coulombic efficiency of 99.95% per cycle.



<span id="page-2-0"></span>**Fig. 2 | Electrochemical performance of FeCl<sub>3</sub> in solid cells. a**, Charge/ discharge profile of FeCl<sub>3</sub> at a rate of 0.1C at RT with LYCB electrolyte. **b**, Corresponding d*Q*/d*V* curves. **c**, Rate performance of FeCl3. **d**, Corresponding charge/discharge curves with LIZC/LYCB electrolytes at RT. **e**, Long-term cycling

performance of FeCl<sub>3</sub> with LIZC/LYCB electrolytes at a rate of 0.5C at RT. The mass loading of FeCl<sub>3</sub> was 4.34 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. The solid cells were cycled between 2.62 and 4.02 V versus Li<sup>+</sup>/Li at RT.

These results demonstrate the excellent long-term cycling stability of  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$  cells at different temperatures and cycling rates.

Ex situ X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) data were collected to monitor the change of the oxidation state of Fe during the charging and discharging processes. FeCl<sub>2</sub> was used as a reference compound, and its crystal structure is shown in Supplementary Fig. 9. As shown in Fig.  $3a,b$ , starting from pristine FeCl<sub>3</sub> and proceeding with more Li inserted, the Fe K edge shifted to lower energy, indicating the reduction of Fe<sup>3+</sup> to Fe<sup>2+</sup>. When discharged to 2.52 V versus Li<sup>+</sup>/Li and 0.9 Li<sup>+</sup> per formula unit of FeCl<sub>3</sub> inserted (blue curve), the Fe K edge shifted so that it almost superposed that of  $FeCl<sub>2</sub>$  (green curve), in agreement with the electrochemistry data. When the fully discharged FeCl<sub>3</sub> was charged back to 4.12 $V$  (noted as FeCl<sub>3</sub> after the charging and discharging processes), its Fe K edge shifted back to high energy, close to that of pristine  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$ , indicating a highly reversible redox of the  $Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+}$  couple.

#### **Evolution of crystal structure during cycling**

To understand the Liinsertion and extraction mechanism in FeCl<sub>3</sub> during the charging and discharging processes, operando energy-dispersive X-ray diffraction (EDXRD) measurements were performed. These provided structural information from controlled diffraction gauge volumes of tens of micrometres<sup>39</sup>. An all-solid-state cell with an FeCl<sub>3</sub>/LIZC/ carbon composite cathode, LIZC/LYCB bilayer electrolyte and In–Li anode was cycled at a rate of 0.08C at RT. A schematic illustration of the EDXRD set-up is shown in Supplementary Fig. 10. Scans were taken





<span id="page-3-0"></span>Fig. 3 | Redox-active element in FeCl<sub>3</sub> in the charging and discharging **processes. a**, Ex situ Fe K-edge XANES spectra of FeCl<sub>3</sub> at different charge/ discharge states. **b**, First-order derivatives of Fe K-edge XANES spectra of FeCl<sub>3</sub> at different charge and discharge states. FeCl<sub>2</sub> is used as a reference. D/C, discharge/charge.

layer by layer along the vertical direction, with an increment of 20 μm. Supplementary Fig. 11 shows a contour plot of the EDXRD patterns of the entire cell before cycling. The span between the two stainless steel rods was ~780 μm, and the cathode thickness was ~100 μm.

Figure [4a](#page-4-0) shows a contour map of the EDXRD patterns of the cathode layer between 2 and 3.5 Å during the initial charging and discharging processes. The corresponding diffraction patterns are plotted in Supplementary Fig. 12. Reflections at 2.60, 3.02 and 3.15 Å are from electrolyte LIZC in the composite cathode. The strong reflections of FeCl<sub>3</sub> at 2.69 Å are assigned to (113) (using space group *R*3), and the strong reflections at 2.91 Å are from (006) and (105̄ ). They do not overlap with reflections from LIZC and thus are used to track the phase evolution of FeCl<sub>3</sub>.

During the discharge process, two biphasic intercalation processes were observed, like the lithiation process of  $VCI<sub>3</sub>$  in supersaturated electrolytes<sup>[28](#page-7-0)</sup>. When Li insertion started, reflections from pristine FeCl<sub>3</sub> became weaker and an intermediate phase (denoted as the  $\alpha$ phase) appeared with a reflection at 2.72 Å at a nominal composition of  $Li_{0.2}FeCl_3$ . The (113) reflection from FeCl<sub>3</sub> disappeared at the nominal composition  $Li_{0.35}FeCl_3$ , or 3.47 V versus Li<sup>+</sup>/Li, corresponding to the end of the first flat plateau during the first discharge. The α phase can be indexed using space group  $P6_3$ cm (Supplementary Fig. 13). Further Li insertion led to the transformation of the α phase to a more Li-rich phase (denoted as the β phase) with reflections at positions close to LIZC at the end of the discharge process, implying that there was a more significant structural transition at the deep lithiated state. Because the cell used for in situ EDXRD was less optimized than the cell tested in the laboratory, the initial discharge capacity was slightly less (~0.76 Li per formula unit) than in the laboratory data.

During the charging process, the Li-rich the β phase did not transform back to the pristine  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$  structure by following the reverse path of lithiation. Instead, a solid-solution delithiation regime between  $Li_{0.76}FeCl_3$  and  $Li_{0.53}FeCl_3$  was observed, with reflections at 2.60, 3.02 and 3.15 Å shifting to smaller *d*-spacing monotonically at the beginning of the charging process. Further extraction of Li<sup>+</sup> led to the formation of a new phase (denoted as the γ phase) with reflections at 2.53 and 2.91 Å. Following that, a second solid-solution regime was observed with further delithiation, corresponding to the plateau at a higher potential in the charge process. The voltages at which the phase transitions were identified are consistent with the voltages observed in the d*Q*/d*V* curves in Fig. [2b.](#page-2-0) The operando EDXRD patterns are also in good agreement with the ex situ XRD data (Supplementary Fig. 14). Supplementary Fig. 15 is a diagram showing the structural evolution of  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$  in solid cells during the initial discharge and charge processes.

To further elucidate the structure of the fully lithiated FeCl<sub>3</sub> (β phase), ex situ synchrotron XRD and neutron powder diffraction data were collected. The lithiated FeCl<sub>3</sub> was recovered from discharged cells with a cathode mass loading >39 mg cm−2. The cathode layer contained only FeCl<sub>3</sub> and carbon, so that there was no signal from SEs, which facilitated the analysis of the diffraction data. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 16, at a low current density of 0.063 mA cm−2, deep lithiation of FeCl<sub>3</sub> (147 mAh  $g^{-1}$ ) was achieved with a FeCl<sub>3</sub> mass loading of 78.94 mg cm−2 at 60 °C (corresponding to a 100 mg cathode mixture in total, with FeCl<sub>3</sub>:carbon = 85:15). Supplementary Fig. 13 shows the Rietveld refinement of ex situ synchrotron XRD data for a sample with a nominal formula  $\text{Li}_{0.4}$ FeCl<sub>3</sub> ( $\alpha$  phase), which was obtained in the initial discharge process. The crystal structure extracted from the refinement is shown in Supplementary Table 1. After the initial lithiation, the overall anion arrangement changed from predominantly AB… stacking to AB BA BA AB… stacking, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 17. This suggests that the phase transition from the pristine FeCl<sub>3</sub> to the  $\alpha$  phase is not simply by slabbing of  $FeCl<sub>6</sub>$  layers. Instead, there was probably partial Fe migration during the lithiation process, leading to the rearrangement of the anion layer. We tentatively assign the inserted Li<sup>+</sup> to these octahedral sites (Supplementary Fig. 17c), leading to Li–Cl bond lengths of around 2.6 Å. Further lithiation led to the phase transition from the  $\alpha$  to the  $\beta$  phase.

Figure [4b](#page-4-0) and Supplementary Fig. 18 show the Rietveld refinements of ex situ synchrotron XRD data for a sample with a nominal formula  $Li<sub>0.8</sub>FeCl<sub>3</sub>$  and of ex situ neutron diffraction data for a sample with nominal formula  $Li_{0.74}FeCl<sub>3</sub>$ , respectively. The crystal structures extracted from the refinement are shown in Supplementary Tables 2 and 3. Both patterns can be indexed using the *C*2/*m* space group with Cl in an O3-type ABCABC stacking. The structural solution given by a charge flipping algorithm indicates that this new phase crystallizes in the distorted spinel structure, with Fe occupying the spinel octahedral B-sites (Supplementary Fig. 19). Further Rietveld refinement of synchrotron XRD data confirmed that Fe partially occupies the 4*e* site (occupancy refined to be 0.175(3)). Difference Fourier maps generated from neutron diffraction patterns show that Li ions predominately reside on the 4*e* (octahedral) sites with very limited occupation of the 4*g* (tetrahedral) sites (Fig. [4c](#page-4-0)). The structure can be viewed as a cation-deficient spinel structure, like the high-temperature phase of LiVCl<sub>3</sub> (ref. [40\)](#page-7-11). This observation also confirms that during the initial discharge process, Fe partially migrated (both in-plane and out-of-plane) to probably form a thermodynamically more stable spinel-like structure. The transition from the O1-type layered structure to the distorted spinel-like structure (O3-type stacking) during lithiation is probably the reason for the voltage differences between the initial discharge and subsequent cycles (Fig.  $2a,b$ ). The structure of the Li-poor γ phase is not fully solved at this point due to the limited quality of the diffraction data. Indexing of the ex situ XRD data (Supplementary Fig. 20) suggests that the unit cell volume is  $188.66(30)$   $\AA^3$ , slightly larger than that for the pristine  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$ . In addition, it is probably a



<span id="page-4-0"></span>**Fig. 4 | Structural characterization. a**, Contour map between 2 and 3.5 Å of the phase evolution of the cathode during the initial discharging and charging processes and the corresponding voltage profile. **b**, Rietveld refinement of ex situ synchrotron XRD patterns of deeply lithiated Li<sub>0.8</sub>FeCl<sub>3</sub>. **c**, Structure of deeply

lithiated FeCl<sub>3</sub> (β phase) drawn based on the refinement of the synchrotron XRD of  $Li_{0.8}FeCl_3$  and neutron diffraction of  $Li_{0.74}FeCl_3$ . Fe, Cl and Li are shown as brown, green and blue spheres, respectively.

distorted spinel-like structure rather than a layered structure like pristine  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$ , as the out-of-plane migration of Fe may not be reversible. Although the structure does not return to pristine  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$  at the end of the first cycle, the stable long-term cycling data shown in Fig. [2e](#page-2-0) and Supplementary Fig. 8 imply that the system can stably shuttle between the Li-rich and Li-poor phases during long-term cycling. There are many accessible Li sites for reversible intercalation and deintercalation in the distorted spinel-like structure.

### **Discussion**

Overall, FeCl<sub>3</sub> shows an excellent energy density, rate capability and cycling stability, making it a very promising cathode. Figure [5a](#page-5-0) compares the voltage, specific capacity and energy density of FeCl<sub>3</sub> with several intercalation cathodes that are widely used in commercial LIBs. FeCl<sub>3</sub> has a higher voltage (3.65 V versus 3.4 V) than LiFePO<sub>4</sub> and a similar theoretical capacity (165 mAh  $g^{-1}$  versus 170 mAh  $g^{-1}$ ). It has an overall higher theoretical gravimetric energy density (602 Wh kg−1) than LiFePO<sub>4</sub> (578 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>) and LiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (480 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>). The material-based practical energy density of FeCl<sub>3</sub>, calculated based on the data obtained in this work, is 558 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>, which is also higher than the practical energy densities of LiFePO<sub>4</sub> (420–550 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>) and LiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (460–480 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>). The theoretical density of FeCl<sub>3</sub> is 2.9 g cc<sup>-1</sup>, which is lower than that of LiFePO<sub>4</sub> (3.58 g cc<sup>-1</sup>). However, LiFePO<sub>4</sub> commonly has quite low tap and pack densities (1–2 g cc<sup>-1</sup>). FeCl<sub>3</sub>, as used in this work, has a rather high pack density of over 2.6 g  $cc^{-1}$ , as it benefits from the big particles and its intrinsic ductility. The Young's modulus of FeCl<sub>3</sub>

was measured to be  $6.14 \pm 0.09$  GPa by nano-indentation, indicating that FeCl<sub>2</sub> is much softer than most halide<sup>[41](#page-7-12)</sup> and sulfide<sup>42</sup> electrolytes (30–40 GPa). This may help it to form a dense composite cathode with intimate contact between the cathode and electrolyte layer. It is estimated that its material-based volumetric energy density is also very high (>1,500 Wh L−1), comparable with cathodes made with lithium nickel manganese cobalt oxides (NMC).

Beyond the excellent electrochemical performance, the next most appealing feature of a FeCl<sub>3</sub> cathode is its low cost. Figure  $5b$ summarizes the market prices in May 2022 of LiCoO<sub>2</sub>, NMC811, LiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (Beijixing, 2022, [https://news.bjx.com.cn/html/20220606/1230755.](https://news.bjx.com.cn/html/20220606/1230755.shtml) [shtml](https://news.bjx.com.cn/html/20220606/1230755.shtml)) and FeCl<sub>3</sub> (ShengYiShe, 2022, [https://www.100ppi.com/mprice/](https://www.100ppi.com/mprice/plist-1-1662-1.html) [plist-1-1662-1.html\)](https://www.100ppi.com/mprice/plist-1-1662-1.html). The price of lithium metal oxide cathodes ranged from USD 18,700 (LiMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) to 79,800 (LiCoO<sub>2</sub>) per metric tonne. The price of LiFePO<sub>4</sub> was also above USD 20,000 per metric tonne. In comparison, the market price of FeCl<sub>3</sub> was USD 516 per metric tonne, only  $-2\%$  the price of LiFePO<sub>4</sub> and  $-1\%$  the price of NMC. The cost of FeCl<sub>3</sub> was calculated to be USD 0.86 kWh−1, which is lower than the cost of current cathodes, which ranged from USD 39 kWh−1 to USD 125 kWh−1 (Fig. [5c](#page-5-0)). We also compare the cost of the FeCl<sub>3</sub>/Li pair with other cathode/anode pairs in commercial LIBs (Supplementary Table 4 and Supplementary Fig. 21). The cost of the FeCl<sub>3</sub>/Li pair was USD 3.70 kWh<sup>-1</sup>, which is 7.5% of the cost for lithium iron phosphate C and 4.2% of the cost for NMC-C. Compared with several newly developed, promising cathode materi-als, such as VCl<sub>3</sub> (ref. [43](#page-7-14)), Li<sub>3</sub>TiCl<sub>6</sub> (ref. [44](#page-7-15)) and FeF<sub>2</sub> (ref. [45](#page-7-16)), FeCl<sub>3</sub> also shows advantages in terms of energy density and cost, as shown in



<span id="page-5-0"></span>

Supplementary Tables 5 and 6. For large-scale battery production, expensive Y- and In-containing SEs could be replaced by Zr-based electrolytes (for example,  $Li<sub>2</sub>ZrCl<sub>6</sub>$ )<sup>46-[48](#page-7-18)</sup> and a much thinner SE layer could be made using a roll-to-roll process with polymer binders $47,49$  $47,49$ . When coupled with anodes such as an Si–Li alloy and Li metal, sulfide electrolytes can be used as the protective layer $^{50,51}$  $^{50,51}$  $^{50,51}$ . Li<sub>2</sub>ZrCl<sub>6</sub> is not stable against  $Li<sub>6</sub>PS<sub>5</sub>Cl$ , but their interface can be passivated by fluorination of Li<sub>2</sub>ZrCl<sub>6</sub> (ref. [52](#page-7-23)). Cells using Li<sub>2</sub>ZrCl<sub>6</sub> as the SE were also tested as a proof of concept (Supplementary Fig. 22). The cycling capacity was slightly lower than that of cells with LIZC electrolyte, as shown in Fig. [2,](#page-2-0) probably due to the lower conductivity of  $Li<sub>2</sub>ZrCl<sub>6</sub>$  (~0.4 mS cm<sup>-1</sup>) compared to LIZC (2 mS cm−1). It is expected that the performance of the cell could be optimized after this preliminary test. Supplementary Table 7 lists the estimated costs of  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>/Li$  all-solid-state cells with  $Li<sub>2</sub>ZrCl<sub>6</sub>$  SEs. This table demonstrates the significant cost advantage of FeCl<sub>3</sub> cathodes over existing cathode materials. Although the water sensitivity of FeCl<sub>3</sub> may slightly increase the cost of storage, handling and transportation, such added cost would be well compensated for and overwhelmed by the cost advantage of FeCl<sub>3</sub> over other cathodes. Although all-solid-state batteries are not at present commercialized on large scales and their cost (before and after replacing oxide cathodes by FeCl<sub>3</sub>) cannot be explicitly formulated like conventional LIBs, it is approximately USD 120-150 kWh<sup>-1</sup> to USD 50-80 kWh<sup>-1</sup>. This substantial cost reduction could make Li-based solid-state batteries truly economically viable solutions for large-scale energy storage, such as electrical grid storage, which may reshape the energy industries. More importantly, as  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$ -based battery systems do not use any Co or Ni, they certainly can significantly elevate the sustainability of LIB technologies.

In summary, the reversible insertion and extraction of Li in FeCl<sub>3</sub> has been realized. This was enabled using a SE, which critically alleviates the dissolution problem of chlorides. A high energy density of 558 kWh kg<sup>-1</sup>, exceeding that of LiFePO<sub>4</sub>, together with good rate performance and stable long-term cycling were achieved. XANES, EDXRD and ex situ synchrotron and neutron diffraction revealed that the  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$  turned into a spinel-like structure that was highly stable against Li insertion and extraction during long-term cycling. As a new type of cathode material, the high energy density and ultra-low cost make  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$ a very promising cathode for next-generation SSLIBs, particularly in large-scale energy storage applications, such as electrified transportation and electric grid energy storage.

#### **Methods**

#### **Materials synthesis**

 $Li_{2.75}In_{0.75}Zr_{0.25}Cl_6$  was synthesized by high-energy ball-milling followed by annealing. LiCl (Sigma-Aldrich), InCl<sub>3</sub> (Bean Town Chemical, 99.9%) and ZrCl4 (Thermo Scientific Chemicals, 98%) were weighed out in the desired ratio and ball-milled at 500 rpm for 5 h. The ball-milled mixture was pelletized and placed in a sealed quartz tube. The pellet was heated at 425 $\degree$ C for 5 h, then cooled to RT in a furnace. Li<sub>3</sub>YCl<sub>3</sub>Br<sub>3</sub> was prepared following the same synthesis protocol. LiBr (Sigma-Aldrich) and  $YCl_3$ (Sigma-Aldrich) were ball-milled for 5 h followed by sintering. All treatments were done under an argon atmosphere.

#### **Ex situ synchrotron XRD and neutron powder diffraction**

Synchrotron XRD patterns were collected at the synchrotron X-ray source of beamline 17-BM at the Advanced Photon Source and at the 28ID-2 beamline of the National Synchrotron Light Source II. High-quality neutron powder diffraction data were collected at the NOMAD beamline of the Spallation Neutron Source at Oak Ridge National Laboratory. Rietveld refinements of the XRD and neutron powder diffraction data were performed with TOPAS<sup>53</sup>. For the data analysis using neutron diffraction data, time-of-flight data were converted to *d*-spacing data using the polynomial TOF = ZERO + DIFC × *d* + DIFA  $\times$   $d^2$ , where ZERO is a constant, DIFC is the diffractometer constant and DIFA is an empirical term to correct the peak shift due to sample displacement and absorption. During the refinement, ZERO and DIFC were determined from the refinement using NIST Si 640e standard data, whereas DIFA was allowed to vary to account for sample displacement. A back-to-back exponential function convoluted with a symmetrical Gaussian function was used to describe the peak profile.

#### **Electrochemical measurements**

The ionic conductivity was measured with an electrochemical impedance analyser (VMP3, Bio-logic) and a home-made electrochemical cell. Typically, 0.5–1 g of electrolyte powders was cold-pressed into pellets with a diameter of 1/2 inch at a pressure of 294 MPa. Two pieces of Al foil were used as current collectors, and the data were collected at various temperatures in the frequency range from 1 MHz to 1 Hz with an a.c. amplitude of 50 mV.

The all-solid-state cells were fabricated by sandwiching the composite cathode, separator and anode inside a home-made cell frame. The composite cathode contained  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$  (Spectrum Chemicals, 98%) as well as synthesized SEs ( $Li_{2.75}In_{0.75}Zr_{0.25}Cl_6$ ) and acetylene black powder. These were mixed in the desired ratio, for example, 55:40:5 (wt%),

in a mortar by hand. In–Li alloy was used as the anode. In–Li alloy with a nominal composition of In50–Li50 was prepared by pressing In and Li metal together at 294 MPa. It was then mixed with LYCB in a weight ratio of 70:30 in a mortar by hand. SE powder was pelletized and used as the separator. In a typical cell fabrication, 120 mg of LIZC powder was placed in a poly(methyl methacrylate) sleeve and pressed at 294 MPa. Then, 80 mg of LYBC was used as a protective layer between the LIZC and anode layer. Next, 10 mg of the FeCl<sub>3</sub>/LIZC/AB composite cathode mixture was pressed on the LIZC pellet side with a pressure of 294 MPa. Finally, 25 mg of the composite anode mixture was pressed onto the LYCB layer side. FeCl<sub>2</sub> samples at different charge and discharge states for ex situ synchrotron and neutron diffraction measurements were recovered from solid cells in which the cathode layer contained only FeCl<sub>3</sub> and carbon in a weight ratio of 85:15. The cell used for the operando EDXRD measurements had an LIZC electrolyte, with a composite cathode mass loading of 25 mg and composite anode mass loading of 50 mg. Cycling was conducted at RT in galvanostatic mode between 1.9 and 3.5 V versus In-Li. The energy density of FeCl<sub>3</sub> was calculated by integrating the voltage versus capacity. The energy density of the other electrode materials was estimated from the product of their average voltage and capacity.

### **Operando EDXRD**

Operando EDXRD measurements were conducted at the 6-BM-A beamline at the Advanced Photon Source in Argonne National Lab. The incident beam size was 2.00 mm  $\times$  0.020 mm, and the receiving slit sizes were 4.00 mm  $\times$  0.20 mm. A germanium detector was fixed at 2.301084° to measure the intensity of the diffracted beam. The vertical length of an all-solid-state cell was scanned layer by layer with a step size of 20 μm. The data acquisition time was 30 s, and a Savitzky–Golay filter was used to smooth the data.

### **X-ray absorption near edge structure**

The change of the oxidation state of Fe during discharging and charging was examined by synchrotron Fe K-edge X-ray absorption spectroscopy, which was conducted at Beamline 12-BM-B at the Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory. Sample solids were loaded into epoxy-sealed Kapton capillary tubes in an Ar atmosphere. XANES data were then collected. The energy was calibrated with Fe foil. Each sample underwent several scans (4–6), and the data were averaged and normalized. The Fe XANES data analysis was performed with Athena<sup>54</sup>.

#### **Reporting summary**

Further information on research design is available in the Nature Portfolio Reporting Summary linked to this article.

### **Data availability**

All data in this work are available in the text and Supplementary Information. Source data are provided with this paper.

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### **Author contributions**

Z.L. and H.C. conceived the ideas and designed the experiments. Z.L conducted the synthesis, electrochemical testing and part of the characterizations. J.L. S.Z., S.X., P.B., S.C. and Y.T. contributed to the characterization of materials. J.L. contributed to the structure analysis and wrote part of the manuscript. Z.L., T.Z. and H.C. wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed and revised the manuscript.

### **Competing interests**

Z.L. and H.C. have filed a US provisional patent application (63/363,875) covering the application of  $FeCl<sub>3</sub>$  and related compounds as cathode materials in solid-state batteries as described in this paper. The remaining authors declare no competing interests.

### **Additional information**

**Supplementary information** The online version contains supplementary material available at [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-024-01431-6.](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-024-01431-6)

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## **Statistics**



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We require information from authors about some types of materials, experimental systems and methods used in many studies. Here, indicate whether each material, system or method listed is relevant to your study. If you are not sure if a list item applies to your research, read the appropriate section before selecting a response.



# Antibodies



# Eukaryotic cell lines



# Palaeontology and Archaeology



Note that full information on the approval of the study protocol must also be provided in the manuscript.

# Animals and other research organisms

Policy information about studies involving animals; ARRIVE guidelines recommended for reporting animal research, and Sex and Gender in Research



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# Dual use research of concern

Policy information about dual use research of concern

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Could the accidental, deliberate or reckless misuse of agents or technologies generated in the work, or the application of information presented in the manuscript, pose a threat to:



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### Plants

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# ChIP-seq

### Data deposition



### Methodology



# **Flow Cytometry**

### Plots

Confirm that:

The axis labels state the marker and fluorochrome used (e.g. CD4-FITC).

The axis scales are clearly visible. Include numbers along axes only for bottom left plot of group (a 'group' is an analysis of identical markers).

All plots are contour plots with outliers or pseudocolor plots.

A numerical value for number of cells or percentage (with statistics) is provided.

### Methodology



□ Tick this box to confirm that a figure exemplifying the gating strategy is provided in the Supplementary Information.

## Magnetic resonance imaging



### eprocessing



### Statistical modeling & inference





