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# Ti-doped $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$ nanocomposite as an ultrahigh rate capability cathode materials of lithium ion batteries



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#### ABSTRACT

The conductivity problem of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O is the main constraint on development and application of this next-generation cathode material for lithium/sodium ion batteries. It has been found in our previous theoretical calculation that Ti-doping can dramatically improve the conductivity FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O, and thus improving its electrochemical performance. Herein, Ti-doped Fe<sub>1-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O (x = 0, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10) compounds have been successfully synthesized via a liquid-phase method. Subsequently, a ball milling process with acetylene black (AB) has been used to form Fe<sub>1-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C (x = 0, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10) nanocomposite. The chemical composition and elemental distribution of the Ti-doped FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O samples were investigated by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXs). The results show that Ti can effectively dope into the samples, and replace partially Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions in the FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O crystal. Especially the Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite achieves an initial capacity of 460.15 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> and retains a discharge capacity of 294.86 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> after 40 cycles in the voltage range of 1.5–4.5 V. Besides, the as-prepared material shows excellent rate capability, it can deliver a discharge capacity of 146.06 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> even at 2 C.

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# 1. Introduction

In order to improve lithium ion batteries (LIBs) performance with satisfactory power and energy density, masses of new cathode materials have been explored [1]. Currently, the conversion reactions between alkali metals and electrode materials, which do not primarily rely on the size of alkali cations, seems to be a promising strategy to achieve high capacity of electrodes materials for LIBs. Among them, multi-electron materials, especially transition metal fluorides, have attracted substantial interest because all oxidation states of the active material can be utilized and high specific capacities are supplied, which is quite different from cathode materials based on intercalation mechanism [2-4]. Since the iron trifluoride (FeF<sub>3</sub>) was firstly reported for LIBs by Arais's, it has attracted extensively attention due to its high voltage plateau, high theoretical specific capacity (712 mAh  $g^{-1}$  for 3  $e^{-1}$  transfer), low cost, and environmental friendliness [1,5]. In addition, the strong Fe-F ionic bonds in the FeF<sub>3</sub> sample is expected to provide a high discharge capacity and high redox voltage when applied in cathode materials for LIBs [6,7]. However, the high ionicity is the main problem restricting its practical application of cathode material, which induces a large bandgap of Fe-F, leading to a poor electronic conductivity, thus making the actual specific capacity is significantly lower than the theoretical value [8,9].

To further improve the electronic conductivity of the iron fluoride, various endeavors have been carried out, such as decreasing size of particles and forming composite with conductive materials (graphite, carbon black, active carbon, etc). FeF<sub>3</sub> and carbon material were mixed followed by ball-milling to form carbon-metalfluoride nanocomposites (CMFNCs), which deliveries a reversible specific capacity of 216 mAh  $\cdot$ g<sup>-1</sup> in a voltage range of 2.8–3.5 V and a reversible specific capacity of 447 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> between 1.5 and 2.5 V at a low current density of 7.58 mA g<sup>-1</sup> [10]. The CMFNCs shows higher specific capacity, but the cyclic property of these composites is worse. Li et al. prepared the FeF<sub>3</sub>/GO nanocomposites via chemical synthesis route and obtained a high reversible specific capacity of about 700 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> between 1.0 and 4.5 V at 100 mA g<sup>-1</sup>, but a short cycling test with only 10 cycles was displayed [11].

Constructing novel nanostructures is an alternative approach to



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improve the electrochemical property of the iron fluoride. For example, Li et al. [12–17] developed a series of iron fluoride with open framework. Among them, nanoscale FeF3.0.33H2O has attracted tremendous attention due to its unique tunnel structure [15–17]. The tunnel structure is beneficial to facilitate electrolyte penetration and Li<sup>+</sup> transport. By hybridizing FeF<sub>3</sub> with a conductive additive phase (such as SWNTs, 3DOM, CNHs, rGO, ordered mesoporous carbon and carbon nanohorns) can provide a facile electron pathway. Zhang et al. synthesized three-dimensionally ordered macroporous (3DOM) FeF<sub>3</sub>/poly (3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) (PEDOT) composite through in situ polymerization method. It has been found that the composite can deliver 210 mAh  $g^{-1}$  at 20 mA  $g^{-1}$  and a good rate capability of 120 mAh  $g^{-1}$  at 1 A  $g^{-1}$  in a voltage range of 2.0–4.5 V [18]. Li and his coworkers prepared SWNTs/FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O in the BmimBF<sub>4</sub> medium via a precipitation method, which exhibit remarkable rate performance (220 mAh  $g^{-1}$  at 0.1 C and 80 mAh  $g^{-1}$  at 10 C,  $1 \text{ C} = 237 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ ) and better cycling performance (143 mAh g $^{-1}$  at 0.1 C after 30 cycles) between 1.7 and 4.5 V [17]. Namely, the introduction of conductive polymer or carbon can greatly improve the electrochemical performance of iron fluoride. However, it is not worthwhile for the aspect of cost since BmimBF<sub>4</sub> ionic liquid and SWNTs are very expensive. Additionally, when relating to polymer, it will inevitably involve the harmful organic solvents usage, cumbersome synthesis process and post-processing. Our group has successfully prepared the mixed conducting matrices, such as FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/MoS<sub>2</sub> [19], FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> [20], FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/ ACMB [21], FeF<sub>3</sub>/G [22], FeF<sub>3</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O/G [23], Fe<sub>2</sub>F<sub>5</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O/G [24] and  $Fe_2F_5 \cdot H_2O/rGO$  [25] cathode materials for LIBs and sodium ion batteries (SIBs), which showed some promising results. However, the capacity and cyclic property of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite are still required to be improved.

In addition, the substitution of elements such as Co [26], N [27] and -OH [28] for iron and fluorine elements is another effective strategy to improve the intrinsic electronic conductivity and crystal structural stability of FeF<sub>3</sub> cathode materials, thus it can evidently enhance their electrochemical performance. Generally, TiF<sub>3</sub> has the same crystal structure as FeF3 and shows similar electrochemical activity [29,30]. In the studies of the LIBs cathode materials, Ti is usually applied as doping element due to its polyvalence and strong bond with nonmetalloid, but it has rarely been reported as the doping element of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O [31–34]. In our previous work, the first-principles calculation was used to investigate the properties and electronic structures of Ti-doped FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O, it can be found that the crystal volume of Ti doped FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O was slightly increased with the increase of Ti-doping concentration. The band gap of FeF3 · 0.33H2O and Fe0.92Ti0.08F3 · 0.33H2O is 0.78 eV and 0.66 eV, respectively. Therefore, the electronic conductivity of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O can be improved by Ti doping. These results can be ascribed to the substitution of large radius  $Ti^{3+}$  (6.70 Å) for small radius  $Fe^{3+}$  (6.45 Å), which can enlarge the structure of the lattice crystal, thus resulting in improving the electrochemical performance of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O cathode materials [35].

In this work, we report a facile strategy for the synthesis of Tidoped FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite as ultrahigh rate LIBs cathode material. The Fe<sub>1-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O (x = 0, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10) nanocomposite was firstly synthesized via a liquid-phase followed by a low temperature reaction, then the Fe<sub>1-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C (x = 0, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10) nanocomposites were further obtained by mechanical ball-milling. Ball-milling is a facile and effective approach to synthesize the nanocomposite with superior conductivity, nevertheless, the mechanical force caused by grinding against each other will induce strain on the FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O crystals. The cycle performance of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite can be apparently improved after heat-treatment at a certain temperature, which is related to the release of the strain [36]. Moreover, with the combination of a carbon coating and Ti-doping, the as-prepared  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  may remarkably improve the electrochemical performances as expected. The physicochemical and electrochemical properties of  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  nanocomposite are studied in detail.

## 2. Experimental

## 2.1. Preparation of $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$ nanocomposite

The preparation of  $Fe_{(1-x)}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C(x = 0, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10)$ nanocomposites are shown in Scheme 1. Iron(III) chloride hexahydrate (FeCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O) and titanium trichloride hexahydrate (TiCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O) in a molar ratio of 1.0:0, 0.94:0.06, 0.92:0.08 and 0.90:0.10 were dissolved in deionized water to gain a solution, respectively, then 10% excess mass of stoichiometric sodium hydroxide (NaOH) solution was dropwise added to the solution under vigorous stirring to form  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_x(OH)_3$  precipitations. The obtained  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_x(OH)_3$  precipitations were aged for 36 h, filtered, washed with deionized water, dried at 80 °C for 6 h in the air to remove redundant water. Then, 20 mL hydrofluoric acid (HF) aqueous solution (40 wt%) was dropwise added into the above precipitations tardily in a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave with continued stirring for 12 h to obtain a uniform pink liquid, then the solution was continuously agitated at 80 °C for 12 h to form pink precipitates. Then mixture was heated at 80 °C in the open autoclave for another 12 h in order to remove the remaining HF and water. Subsequently, the residue in bottle was further dried at 80 °C in vacuum to obtain the Fe<sub>1-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub> 3H<sub>2</sub>O precursor, and the asprepared precursor was heated at tube furnace (220 °C for 8 h) in high-purity argon to remove the crystal water and changed into  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O$ . Next,  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O$  and carbon black (AB) (85:15 wt/wt) were milled in a high energy ball grinding mill at 300 rpm for 3 h, the as-prepared mixture was converted into  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  nanocomposites. Finally, the prepared  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  composites were dried at tube furnace (220 °C for 3 h) in high-purity argon to obtain the products. Actually, in this work the  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  nanocomposites have a content of 10% Ti, the Fe position is partially replaced by Ti in the  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  crystal. In the related literature [26,37,38], the materials with similar doping levels are usually treated as doping material. The diagram of Ti-doping is shown in Scheme 1. As shown in Scheme 1, the atomic structure of Ti doped FeF<sub>3</sub>.0.33H<sub>2</sub>O was also schematically given. The blue ball refers to O atom, the yellow ball refers to H atom, the olive ball refers to F atom, the lilac ball refers to Fe atom and the red ball refers to Ti atom.

#### 2.2. Structural characterizations

To observe the particle size and morphologies of the Fe<sub>1-x-</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O and Fe<sub>1-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C samples, the scanning electron microscope (SEM, JEOL JSM-6610LV) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL JEM-2100F) were used. Further structural characterization and elemental distribution of the materials were carried out by high-resolution TEM (HRTEM, JEOL JEM-2100F) at an acceleration voltage of 200 kV equipped with an energy dispersive an energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscope (EDXS) (JSM-6100LV, JEOL, Japan) detector. To observe the crystalline phase of the samples, The X-ray diffraction (XRD) data were obtained using an X-ray diffractometer (Bruker AXS D8, Bruker AXS GmbH, Germany), equipped with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 0.154178$  nm) and a graphite monochromator, in the diffracting angular range (20) range of 10°–80° at a continuous scan mode with a scan rate of 4° min<sup>-1</sup>.



**Scheme 1.** The schematic representation of  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  nanocomposite preparation; (insert)  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O$  doped by one Ti atom.

#### 2.3. Electrochemical measurements

The electrochemical performance of the as-synthesized material was characterized using 2025 type coin cells, in which Fe<sub>1-x-</sub> Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite was used as a cathode active material and a lithium disk as cathode for LIBs. The cathodes for testing cells were fabricated by mixing the cathode materials, acetylene black, and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) binder with a weight ratio of 80:10:10 in N-methyl pyrrolidione (NMP), which were then pasted on aluminum foil followed by drying under vacuum at 110 °C for 24 h. The testing lithium cells were assembled with the cathode thus fabricated, metallic lithium anode, Celgard 2300 film separator, and 1 mol  $L^{-1}$  LiPF<sub>6</sub> in 1:1 ethylene carbonate (EC)/ dimethyl carbonate (DMC) electrolyte. The assembly of the testing cells was carried out in an argon-filled glove box, where water and oxygen concentration were kept less than 5 ppm. The charge/ discharge cycle tests for LIBs were conducted at different current densities on the Neware battery tester BTS-XWJ-6.44S-00052 (Neware, Shenzhen, China) between 1.5 and 4.5 V. The assembly of cells were allowed to age for 12 h before testing. The cyclic voltammogram (CV) was performed at a scan rate of 0.1 mV s<sup>-1</sup> on the potential interval 1.5–4.5 V (vs. Li<sup>+</sup>/Li) by an electrochemical workstation (VersaSTAT3, Princeton Applied Research). Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was also performed using VersaSTAT3 electrochemical workstation by applying an ac amplitude of 1 mV over the frequency range from  $10^{-2}$ – $10^{5}$  Hz. All the electrochemical measurements were carried out at room temperature.

### 3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1a–d shows the apparent morphologies of  $Fe_{1-x-Ti_x}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O$  (after calcination, before ball-milling), while Fig. 1e–h represent  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  (after ball-milling with AB) nanocomposite. As shown in Fig. 1a–d, it can be found that all the  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O$  samplles are a cuboid appearance with the size of  $(3-7 \mu m)$ . The particles of  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O$  are glossy, while the surfaces of  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O$  particles become increasingly rough, and some tiny particles are attached on the surface of the cuboid particles with the increase of Ti dopant amount. It is well known that the rough surface is beneficial to the electrolyte permeation and the electrochemical performance enhancement [39–42]. After ball-milling with AB, the particle sizes of the Fe<sub>1-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C are reduced to nano scale (100–500 nm), and the morphology changes from cuboid into irregular crystal shape due to aggregation, as shown in Fig. 1e–h. In addition, the particle size of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C is larger than other Ti-doped samples, and Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C is shows the most uniform particle size distribution. Of course, smaller size  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3·0.33H_2O/C$  particles can increase the specific surface area and reduce the ion diffusion distance. Besides, the conductive carbon, distributed uniformly on the surface of the nanocomposite, is also beneficial to enhance the electronic conductivities and thus improving the electrochemical performances [43].

The effects of Ti-doping on the performances of the samples were discussed sufficiently by XRD, EDXs and EIS. It has been reported by Li et al. [16] that the low content of hydration water in FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O is indispensable because it serves as a structural stabilizer. Fig. 2a shows the XRD patterns of  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$ nanocomposites (x = 0.00, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10). All samples show intensive peaks at  $2\theta = 13.8^{\circ}$ ,  $23.6^{\circ}$  and  $27.8^{\circ}$  accord with (110), (002) and (220) diffraction peaks of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O. The main diffraction peaks are appeared at similar position, which are in good agreement with the standard peaks of FeF<sub>3</sub>.0.33H<sub>2</sub>O (orthorhombic structure with Cmcm space group, JCPDS No. 76-1262). No carbon peak for the  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  composites is detected since the AB is amorphous [15,26]. In addition, the absence of distinct Ti diffractions in Fe<sub>1-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C indicates that Ti is doped effectively and does not change the structure of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O fundamentally.

The diffraction peak at around  $2\theta = 13.8^{\circ}$  shifts to a smaller angle as the titanium content increases, which suggests that titanium substitution expands the interplanar spacing of the (110) planes (Fig. 2a) because the radius of the Ti<sup>3+</sup> ion (6.70 Å) is slightly larger than that of the Fe<sup>3+</sup> ion (6.45 Å), but less than that of Li<sup>+</sup> ion (6.8 Å) [35,43]. As a result, the partial Ti<sup>3+</sup> replacement for Fe<sup>3+</sup> in FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O crystal can cause the expansion of crystal lattice. Lattice expansion will enlarge the pathway and weaken the lattice resistance to Li<sup>+</sup> ion diffusion [35], as predicted by our previous first-principles calculations, thus improving the rate capacity of



 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Fig. 1.} (a) \ \text{SEM images of } FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O; (b) \ Fe_{0.94}Ti_{0.06}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O; (c) \ Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O; (d) \ Fe_{0.90}Ti_{0.10}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O; (e) \ FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C; (f) \ Fe_{0.94}Ti_{0.06}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C; (g) \ Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C; (d) \ Fe_{0.94}Ti_{0.06}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C; (d) \ Fe_{0.94}Ti_{0.94}F_3 \cdot 0.3$ 

 $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  nanocomposite, which are further confirmed by the following electrochemical performances.

The crystallographic view of orthorhombic FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O along the direction of [001] was illustrated in Fig. 2c, as being seen, there is a special huge hexagonal cavity formed six Fe octahedral via corner-sharing, which can result in a larger cell volumes (~71 nm). The trace amount of water in FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O exist stably in the huge hexagonal cavity, it can be used as a structural stabilizer to stabilize the huge hexagonal cavity and avoid structure collapse during Li<sup>+</sup> insertion and extraction processes [15,26]. Therefore, FeF<sub>3</sub> $\cdot$ 0.33H<sub>2</sub>O provide the space for accommodation and transport Li<sup>+</sup>.

The TEM and HRTEM are performed to accurately observed the morphology and detailed crystal structures of as-prepared materials. It can be clearly seen in Fig. 3a that the  $Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  nanocomposite is composed of large clusters, which is made of many smaller particles. As illustrated in Fig. 3b, HRTEM images shows that the  $Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O$  (2–6 nm) nanocrystalline is encapsulated by an amorphous carbon matrix after ball milling.



Fig. 2. (a) XRD patterns of  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  (x = 0, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10) nanocomposites; (b) Magnification of the (110) XRD peak at around  $2\theta = 13.8^{\circ}$ ; (c) Projections of FeF<sub>3</sub> · 0.33H<sub>2</sub>O along the direction of [001].



Fig. 3. (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM images of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and corresponding EDXs mapping images (F, Ti and Fe) of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, (c) EDXs spectrum (c) and (c) EDXs spectrum (c)

Besides,  $Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  nanocomposite has the smallest particle size and best network structure, which is considered to be in favor of electrolyte penetration into the electrode and it can provide more interface between the electrode material and the

electrolyte. In order to further investigate the elemental distributions and compositions of the Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, the TEM images and corresponding EDXs mappings are shown in Fig. 3c. The Cu peaks come from a copper collector. The

average molar ratios for Fe, Ti, and F (Fe: 0.912, Ti: 0.077, F: 2.928) are in agreement with the nominal ratios. The result indicates that the Ti ions have been completely introduced into the  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  nanocomposite via liquid phase method.

To further investigate the reason of improvement in the electrochemical performance for Ti-doping, the EIS analysis of  $Fe_{1-x-}$  $Ti_{v}F_{3} \cdot 0.33H_{2}O/C$  nanocomposites (x = 0.0, 0.08) is carried out, as shown in Fig. 4a and b. The shapes of the Nyquist plots for each cycle are similar. The EIS is recorded during 1st to 100<sup>th</sup> charge/ discharge cycles at room temperature. The EIS pattern is composed of a semicircle within high-frequency region and a sloped straight line at low-frequency region. The semicircle is mainly ascribed to the charge transfer resistance (R<sub>ct</sub>), which reflects the reaction kinetics of the electrodes; while the sloping line represent the Warburg impedance (Z<sub>w</sub>), which is related to lithium ion diffusion in the solid matrix. The corresponding equivalent circuit model is shown in Fig. 4c, apparently, the fitting patterns are in good agreement with the experimental EIS data. As shown in Table 1, it can be found that the R<sub>s</sub> value for all electrodes is almost the same. Besides, the R<sub>ct</sub> values of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C electrode at different cycle numbers are 220.4, 285.0, 449.3  $\Omega$  at 1st, 50<sup>th</sup>, 100<sup>th</sup> cycles, respectively. By contrast, the  $R_{ct}$  values for the Fe<sub>0.92</sub>T- $i_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  electrode after 1st, 50<sup>th</sup>, 100<sup>th</sup> cycles are 195.9, 263.3, 319.1  $\Omega$ , respectively. Thereby, the introduction of Ti can effectively decrease the charge transfer resistance and thus enhance the electrochemical performance of iron based fluoride cathode material. It can be found from Table 1 that the R<sub>ct</sub> value of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite is less than that of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite, implying that the Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti0.08F3 · 0.33H2O/C nanocomposite has higher conductivity and faster lithium ion diffusion kinetics than FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C sample.

The 1st and 40<sup>th</sup> charge/discharge profiles of Fe<sub>1-x-</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposites (x = 0.00, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10) are recorded at 0.1 C (1 C = 237 mA g<sup>-1</sup>) rate in the voltage range of 1.5–4.5 V (vs. Li<sup>+</sup>/Li), as shown in Fig. 5a–d. The FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C electrode delivers a low initial discharge capacity of 299.98 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>, which is attributed to its poor electronic conductivity. Obviously, the Ti-doped materials show higher discharge capacity than

#### Table 1

 $R_s$  and  $R_{ct}$  values of FeF\_3 $\cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  and Fe\_{0.92}Ti\_{0.08}F\_3 \cdot 0.33H\_2O/C samples after different cycles in Li half-cells.

Cycles         1 <sup>st</sup> 50 <sup>th</sup> 100 <sup>th</sup> 1 <sup>st</sup> 50 <sup>th</sup> 100 <sup>th</sup> $R_s(\Omega)$ 5.999         6.151         6.350         2.140         2.391         2.568 $R_s(\Omega)$ 220.4         285.0         449.3         195.9         265.3         319.1	Samples	FeF <sub>3</sub> ·0.33H <sub>2</sub> O/C			$Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$		
R <sub>cl</sub> (22) 220.4 205.0 445.5 155.5 205.5 515.1	Cycles	1 <sup>st</sup>	50 <sup>th</sup>	100 <sup>th</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	50 <sup>th</sup>	100 <sup>th</sup>
	$R_s(\Omega)$	5.999	6.151	6.350	2.140	2.391	2.568
	$R_{ct}(\Omega)$	220.4	285.0	449.3	195.9	265.3	319.1

 $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$ . The initial discharge capacities when x = 0.06, 0.08, 0.10 are 361.70 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>, 460.15 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>, 399.48 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> respectively, thus Ti-doping with an optimal content can improve the specific capacity. Particularly, Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C delivers the highest specific capacity and exhibits an excellent cycling performance compared with other three nanocomposite. In addition, the Fe0.92Ti0.08F3.0.33H2O/C nanocomposite exhibits also the highest discharge voltage plateau and lowest charge voltage plateau from the 1st to the 40<sup>th</sup> cycles. As shown in Fig. 5e, the Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C cell shows excellent cycling performance, it can provide an initial discharge capacity of 460.15 mAh  $g^{-1}$  at 0.1 C and a discharge capacity of 294.86 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> after 40 cycles. By contrast, the FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C cell can reach an initial discharge capacity of 299.98 mAh  $g^{-1}$  at 0.1 C, but the discharge capacity of  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  is only 162.66 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> after 40 cycles. In addition, the voltage fading of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C cell is distinctly lower than FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C cell with the increase of the cycle number. As expected, the discharge specific capacity of the nanocomposites is superior to those of the recently reported results. For example, Rao et al. prepared FeF<sub>3</sub>.0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/rGO composite via a solvothermal route and obtained a discharge capacity of 165.0 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> at 0.1 C after 30 cycles [44]. Xu et al. synthesized FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite by one-step solid state method, and it only maintained a low discharge capacity of 157.4 mAh  $g^{-1}$  at 20 mÅ  $g^{-1}$  after 50 cycles [45]. Apparently, the  $Fe_{1-x}Ti_xF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  nanocomposite in this work exhibits much better excellent electrochemical performances.

In addition to the excellent cycling performance, the  $Fe_{0.92}T$ i<sub>0.08</sub> $F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  cell displays also good rate capability compared



Fig. 4. Three-dimensional Nyquist plots measured for (a) FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C and (b) Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C samples after cycling for different cycles at 1 C in Li half-cells; (c) the equivalent circuit model.



**Fig. 5.** Discharge and charge profiles of (a)  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$ ; (b)  $Fe_{0.94}Ti_{0.06}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$ ; (c)  $Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$ ; (d)  $Fe_{0.90}Ti_{0.10}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$ ; at 0.1C at different cycles (1st, 10th, 20th, 40<sup>th</sup>); (e) Discharge capacity vs. cycle number for 0.00, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10 at 0.1 C in the voltage range of 1.5–4.5 V.

with the FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C cell. As illustrated in Fig. 6a, the rate capabilities of the Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C and FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite are examined at 0.1 C, 0.2 C, 0.5 C, 1 C and 2 C rates for 10 cycles, respectively. The initial discharge capacity of  $Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  cell can reach as high as 470.51 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> at 0.1 C. The average discharge capacity of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C cell is 366.06 mAh  $g^{-1}$  at 0.1 C. And the subsequent average discharge capacity are about 314.34 mAh  $g^{-1}$ , 257.92 mAh  $g^{-1}$ 200.25 mAh  $g^{-1}$  and 146.06 mAh  $g^{-1}$  at rate of 0.2 C, 0.5 C,1 C and 2 C, respectively. Apparently, with increasing C-rate, Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C gives much higher discharge capacity and much better rate capability than FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C. Additionally, there is a slight capacity fading for the FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C electrode when the current density decreases from 2 C to 0.1 C, but the capacity of the  $Fe_{0.92} Ti_{0.08} F_3 \cdot 0.33 H_2 O/C$  electrode can be recovered quickly. When the rate backs to 0.1 C after 50 cycles, a capacity of 261.74 mA h  $g^{-1}$ can be resumed.

To further study the cycling performance of  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  and  $Fe_{0.75}Ti_{0.25}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  electrodes at high rate, the samples were cycled at 1 C in the voltage range of 1.5-4.5 V, as shown in Fig. 6b-d. It can be found that a discharge capacity of 179.62 mA h g<sup>-1</sup> can be remained after 60 cycles for the  $Fe_{0.92}T$  $i_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  electrode and the capacity retention is 85.9%. On the contrary, the FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C electrode suffers a fast capacity fading and it only delivers 144.54 mA h  $g^{-1}$  with a capacity retention of 72.2% after 60 cycles. The good electrochemical performance of Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C electrodes is probably due to the large increase of the lattice parameters after Ti doping, which can enhance the diffusion coefficient of Li<sup>+</sup> and lower the activation barrier of Li<sup>+</sup> diffusion with the increasing current rate. In addition, the Ti substitution for Fe can also stabilize the crystal structure of the material, which can provide a stable pathway for Li<sup>+</sup> to both insertion and conversion reactions [46,47].



**Fig. 6.** Rate capabilities of (a)  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  and  $Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  electrodes; (b) the discharge capacity vs. cycle number for  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  and  $Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  electrodes at 1 C in the voltage range of 1.5–4.5 V; the charge/discharge curves of the (c)  $FeF_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  and (d)  $Fe_{0.92}Ti_{0.08}F_3 \cdot 0.33H_2O/C$  cells at particular cycles.

#### 4. Conclusions

 $Fe_{1-x}Ti_{x}F_{3}$ ·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O has been successfully prepared through a simple liquid-phase method and followed by a heat-treatment process, and then mixed with carbon black by ball-milling to obtain Fe<sub>1-x</sub>Ti<sub>x</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite as cathode materials of LIBs. Smaller particles size, faster lithium ion diffusion rate and less polarization confer the Ti-doped FeF3.0.33H2O/C nanocomposite outstanding electrochemical performance. Moreover, Ti can effectively and equably doped into FeF3 · 0.33H2O crystal, and replace partially Fe<sup>3+</sup> site in the FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O crystal. Ti-doping can not only decrease apparently the charge transfer resistance of FeF<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C, but also notably enhance the discharge capacity and cycling stability. Especially, the Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C material exhibits a highest initial discharge specific capacity of 460.15 mAh  $g^{-1}$  and retains a discharge capacity of 294.86 mAh  $g^{-1}$ after 40 cycles at 0.1 C among all samples. In addition, the Fe<sub>0.92</sub>Ti<sub>0.08</sub>F<sub>3</sub>·0.33H<sub>2</sub>O/C nanocomposite also shows good excellent rate capability, it can provide a discharge capacity of 146.06 mAh  $g^{-1}$  even at 2 C. Therefore, Ti-doping will be of general interest and contribute meaningful guidance for designing high performance metal fluoride cathode for LIBs.

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