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Interrupted anion-network enhanced Li⁺-ion conduction in Li_{3+v}PO₄I_v

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Sawankumar V. Patel^a, Erica Truong^a, Haoyu Liu^a, Yongkang Jin^a, Benjamin L. Chen^a, Yan Wang^c, Lincoln Miara^c, Ryounghee Kim^d, Yan-Yan Hu^{a,b,*}

^a Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL 32306, USA

^b Center of Interdisciplinary Magnetic Resonance, National High Magnetic Field Laboratory, 1800 East Paul Dirac Drive, Tallahassee, FL 32310, USA

^c Advanced Materials Lab, Samsung Advanced Institute of Technology-America, Samsung Semiconductor, Inc., Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138, USA

^d Battery Material Lab, Samsung Advanced Institute of Technology, Samsung Electronics Co., Ltd., Suwonsi, Gyeonggi-do 16678, Republic of Korea

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ABSTRACT

For solid-state batteries to outperform the current lithium-ion battery technology in energy density and cost, high-performance solid electrolytes produced using low-cost precursors and scalable processes are the key. In this study, we demonstrate using inexpensive Li₃PO₄ of low conductivity 10^{-6} mS/cm and turning it into a fast Li⁺-ion conductor, with an ionic conductivity of ≥ 0.15 mS/cm, by engineering the anion sublattice. I⁻ anions are used to interrupt the ordered PO₄³⁻ network in Li₃PO₄, which destabilizes Li⁺-PO₄³⁻ interaction and liberates Li⁺-ions with enhanced Li⁺ mobility as evidenced by NMR relaxometry measurements. The optimal conductivity and activation energy are achieved when PO₄³⁻/I⁻ =1, in which Li⁺-ions spend equal time with PO₄³⁻ and I⁻ on their diffusion paths without being trapped. Tracer-exchange NMR shows that Li₄PO₄I is more conductive than Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y when $y \neq 1$. Further conductivity enhancement is possible by stabilizing pure-phase glassy Li₄PO₄I. Overall, this study shows an effective and general strategy to significantly enhance ion conduction for creating inexpensive solid electrolytes with high performance.

1. Introduction

All-solid-state batteries (ASSBs) emerge as a promising energy storage technology to potentially replace current rechargeable Li⁺-ion batteries in the near future [1,2]. Development of solid electrolytes with high ionic conductivity, good electrode-compatibility, and low-temperature synthesis using cost-effective precursors is crucial to reducing the cost of ASSBs [3]. Oxide-, thiophosphate-, and halide-based solid electrolytes have been extensively investigated for ASSBs [2]. Most of these solid electrolytes either require expensive precursors or synthesis at high temperatures or pressures thereby posing challenges for large-scale productions [4,5]. Therefore, high-performance solid electrolytes that can be synthesized under mild conditions with cost-effective precursors are important to the development of ASSBs.

Inexpensive Li⁺-containing precursors such as lithium phosphates are not highly conductive, due to strong Li⁺-anion interactions within ordered structures. The arrangement of anions in the sublattice is critical to Li⁺-ion conduction. Slight alterations in anion substructure can create static and dynamic structural disorder, which significantly impacts ion transport [6–12]. A mixed-anion sublattice that involves multiple anions Mechanochemical synthesis often generates a mixture of phases, and little is known regarding the mechanism of enhanced Li⁺-ion conduction in these complex composites. Unraveling Li⁺-ion transport and identifying the component(s) that are responsible for the observed high ionic conductivities are critical for strategic design and synthesis of costeffective high-performance solid electrolytes. Therefore, we investigated the Li₃PO₄-LiI binary system as a representative example to illustrate the origin of fast ion conduction in these mixed-anion systems. A mixed-anion framework of phosphate and iodide was created using

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has also been shown conducive to enhanced cation conduction, through tuning cation-anion interactions [13]. For example, Malugani et al. studied the AgPO₃ – AgI binary system, achieving a 4-fold increase in Ag⁺-ion conductivity compared with AgPO₃ alone [14]. Likewise, lithium glasses composed of LiI and LiPO₃ yielded a 3-fold increase in ionic conductivity compared with LiPO₃ [15]. Kaus et al., demonstrated that combining Li₃PO₄ and LiI precursors can produce conductivities up to 1 mS/cm [16]. These materials are usually made via mechanochemical synthesis at room temperature. The high-energy milling process results in the reduction of particle size, efficient mixing of the precursor materials, and generation of new phases which may possess unprecedented properties [17].

^{*} Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* yhu@fsu.edu (Y.-Y. Hu).

Abbreviations

All-solid-state batteries (ASSBs) nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) X-ray diffraction (XRD) exchange NMR spectroscopy (EXSY) High-Temperature (HT) Low-Temperature (LT)

Li₃PO₄ and LiI as precursors and room-temperature mechanochemical milling. An ionic conductivity of 0.15 mS/cm at room temperature is obtained, which is at least 10⁵ times the ionic conductivity of Li₃PO₄, with a significant reduction of activation energy for Li⁺-ion transport. Comprehensive phase analysis was carried out using X-ray diffraction (XRD) and solid-state nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR). NMR relaxometry was performed to determine Li⁺-ion mobility, and tracerexchange NMR was used to probe Li⁺-ion transport pathways. A new phase, glassy Li₄PO₄I (g-Li₄PO₄I), is identified, which exhibits a mixed PO₄³⁻-I⁻ anion framework, shows high Li⁺-ion mobility, and is responsible for the observed high ionic conductivity.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis

Lithium iodide (99.9 %, Alfa Aesar) and lithium phosphate (99%, Sigma Aldrich) were dried at 120°C under dynamic vacuum. xLi₃PO₄ – LiI (x = 1, 1.4, or 2) was mixed in a 25-ml zirconia jar with 10-mm zirconia balls. Mechanochemical mixing of Li₃PO₄ and LiI was performed using the SPEX 8000M for 20 hours. The as-milled powder was stored in an argon glovebox. Samples were cold pressed into a pellet for characterization. The density of the pellets is $\sim 2.3 \pm 0.2$ g/cm³.

2.2. X-ray Diffraction

Powder samples were finely grounded and packed in a zerobackground sample holder. Kapton film was used to seal the samples to prevent exposure to humid air. XRD was performed using Rigaku D8 powder diffractometer with Bragg-Brentano geometry at a voltage of 44 kV and a current of 40 mA with Cu-K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406$ Å). The data was collected in the 2 Θ range of $10^{\circ} - 80^{\circ}$ at a step size of 0.03° with a total acquisition time of 30 minutes.

2.3. Solid-state NMR

⁶Li, ⁷Li, and ³¹P Magic-Angle-Spinning (MAS) solid-state NMR experiments were performed using a Bruker Avance-III 500 MHz spectrometer at Larmor frequencies of 73.6 MHz, 194.4 MHz, and 202.4 MHz, respectively. The MAS rate was 24 kHz. Single-pulse ⁶Li and ⁷Li NMR experiments were performed with $\pi/2$ pulse lengths of 4.75 µs and 3.35 μ s, respectively. The recycle delays were 1000 s for ⁶Li and 20 s for ⁷Li. For ³¹P, a rotor-synchronized spin-echo sequence was employed with a $\pi/2$ pulse length of 4.2 µs and a recycle delay of 1000 s. 2D EXchange SpectroscopY (EXSY) NMR experiments were acquired using $\pi/2$ and π pulse lengths of 4.75 µs and 9.50 µs, respectively. The EXSY spectra were recorded using 512 t1 increments and with mixing times of 0.1, 5, and 100 ms. ^{6,7}Li and ³¹P NMR spectra were referenced to LiCl_(s) at -1.1 ppm and 85% H₃PO₄₍₁₎ at 0 ppm, respectively. High-temperature ⁷Li NMR measurements were conducted to determine the ion dynamics using the 300 MHz spectrometer at the Larmor frequency of 116 MHz. The inversion recovery pulse sequence was used to determine the variable-temperature T1 relaxation times. The experiment was

performed between 25 to 110°C. Tracer exchange NMR was carried out by assembling a symmetric cell with the Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y pellet sandwiched by two pieces of ⁶Li-foil, and then a biased electric potential was applied to this symmetric cell made of ⁶Li|Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y|⁶Li to drive ⁶Li⁺-ions diffuse from ⁶Li-foil into Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y which contains natural-abundance Li, *i.e.*, 92.4 mol% ⁷Li and 7.6 mol% ⁶Li. The symmetric cell was electrochemically cycled for 50 and 110 times with a current density of 10 μ A/cm². Another symmetric cell made of a Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y pellet sandwiched by two pieces of Li-foil of natural-abundance lithium (^{nat}-Li) was assembled to serve as a control reference.

2.4. Electrochemical measurements

The ionic conductivity of xLi_3PO_4 - LiI composite electrolytes was determined based on AC impedance spectroscopy acquired using a Gamry Analyzer Reference 600+ within a frequency range of 5 MHz to 1 Hz. Indium foils were pressed onto the surface of the pellet as blocking electrodes and the pellet was placed in a custom-built cylindrical cell. Variable-temperature impedance measurements were conducted using the CSZ Microclimate chamber within the temperature range of 20 to 100°C, over frequencies from 5 MHz to 1 Hz with an applied voltage of 10 mV. Electronic conductivity measurements were conducted by subjecting the pellets under a constant DC polarization of 3 V.

2.5. DFT calculation

All the density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed using Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) based on projectoraugmented-wave method [18,19] with Perdew-Burke-Ernzerh of generalized-gradient approximation (PBE-GGA) [20]. Pristine structure of Li₄PO₄I was generated by replacing Ag⁺ with Li⁺ in the structure of Ag₄PO₄I retrieved from Inorganic Crystal Structure Database (ICSD No. 245791) [21]. Then the atom positions and the shape of the unit cell were relaxed. After the structure of crystalline-phase Li₄PO₄I was determined, ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulation was used to raise the temperature to 1000 K, which was maintained for 80 ps before the system was quenched to 0 K by allowing structure to relax. A glassy phase of Li₄PO₄I was found by this process. Canonical ensemble was chosen for AIMD simulations with a time step of 2 fs. AIMD at different temperatures (500 K, 600 K, 700 K, 800 K, 1000 K) with a total simulation time of 240 ps was performed to obtain diffusivity rates. The diffusivity analysis and conductivity/activation energy calculations [22] were performed using pymatgen. The isotropic chemical shifts of relaxed structures were calculated using the perturbation theory (linear response) [23,24]. The calibration factor of ⁶Li (+89 ppm) was estimated from the difference between the experimental and calculated isotropic shift of Li, which was validated in our previous work [6].

3. Result and discussion

3.1. Synthesis and structure characterization

Li₃PO₄ crystal structure consists of two known polymorphs as shown in Fig. 1a. The low-temperature phase β -Li₃PO₄ (Pmn2₁) transforms to γ -Li₃PO₄ (Pnma) at 500°C [26,27]. β -Li₃PO₄ consists of an ordered arrangement of PO₄³⁻ with all the tetrahedra aligned in the same direction whereas γ -Li₃PO₄ is formed by alternating the orientation of PO₄³⁻ tetrahedra in opposite ways. The lattice experiences a volume expansion of ~ 1.4 % for the β - $\rightarrow \gamma$ -Li₃PO₄ transformation. β -Li₃PO₄ in the glassy phase exhibits a room-temperature ionic conductivity of 10^{-9} – 10^{-7} S/cm, whereas, the crystalline form exhibits an ionic conductivity of 10^{-17} S/cm which is 10-fold lower than the glassy phase [25, 28]. γ -Li₃PO₄ with a disordered anion sublattice (Fig. 1a) shows further improved ionic conductivity to $10^{-7} - 10^{-5}$ S/cm (Fig. 1c). This denotes how structural changes, particularly in the anion network, can significantly influence ion conduction. High activation energy barrier for ion



Fig. 1. Disorder in PO_4^{3-} sublattice correlates with enhanced Li⁺-ion conduction in Li₃PO₄ polymorphs and its derivatives. (a) Structural illustration of Li₃PO₄ polymorphs and Li₄PO₄I. Crystal structures of β -Li₃PO₄ and γ -Li₃PO₄, representing the ordered and disordered arrangement of the PO_4^{3-} network, respectively. (b) Structures of Li₄PO₄I in the crystalline and glassy forms. (c) Comparison of experimental ionic conductivities of Li₃PO₄ polymorphs with computed conductivity of g-Li₃PO₄. The ionic conductivity of γ -Li₃PO₄ was reported at 300 and 450°C. [25] (d) Comparison of the activation energy (E_a) for Li⁺-ion migration in β -Li₃PO₄, and glassy Li₄PO₄I. The values of β -Li₃PO₄ and γ -Li₃PO₄ are from literature reports, showing activation energy of (1.6 - 1.4 eV) [26] and (1.2 - 1.0 eV) [25], respectively. The Li⁺-ion conductivity and activation energy (E_a) for glassy Li₄PO₄I are obtained from AIMD simulations (Fig. S1a-f).

conduction (>1 eV) is also found in highly ordered Li₃PO₄ as shown in Fig. 1d. In order to further examine the effects of disordered anion sublattice on Li⁺-ion conduction, computational work is carried out on Li_4PO_4I , in which the PO_4^{3-} network is interrupted by I^- anions. The Li_4PO_4I structure was derived by substituting Ag^+ with Li^+ in the Ag₄(PO₄)I structure retrieved from the Inorganic Crystal Structure Database (ICSD No. 245791) [21]. Both crystalline and glassy phases of Li₄PO₄I are shown in Fig. 1b. The disordered (glassy) structures of Li₄PO₄I are obtained by elevating the temperature to 1000 K and subsequently quenching it to 0 K in AIMD, as described in the experimental section. AIMD simulations were carried out to investigate the Li⁺-ion diffusivity. Fig. S1a-e presents the lithium mean squared displacement (MSD) as a function of time at 500, 600, 700, 800, and 1000 K within a representative disordered structure shown in Fig. 1c, revealing comparable fast Li⁺-ion diffusion in all three dimensions. From the computed Arrhenius plot as shown in Fig. S1f, the activation energy for Li⁺-ion transport in glassy Li₄PO₄I is determined to be 0.37 eV, which is the lowest in comparison to β -Li₃PO₄ and γ -Li₃PO₄ (Fig. 1d). It is worth noting that the ordered structure of Li₄PO₄I is not particularly conductive (Fig. S2 a-b). This suggests that in the synthesis of highly conductive Li₄PO₄I, temperature needs to be controlled as not to crystallize the structure. The same heating-quenching procedure was also applied to β -Li₃PO₄ and γ -Li₃PO₄ to generate glassy phases for AIMD simulations. No appreciable diffusion was observed within 240 ps even at 1000 K as shown in Fig. S2c-d, indicating that $\mathrm{I}^-\text{-anions}$ are critical for the observed fast Li⁺-ion conduction in the glassy Li₄PO₄I.

Synthesis of the computationally predicted conductive g-Li₄PO₄I was attempted via high-energy mechanochemical ballmilling of Li₃PO₄ and LiI as described in the experimental section. Fig. 2a shows a schematic of the synthesis procedure. Crystalline phase analysis of the as-milled LiI, Li₃PO₄, and 1.4Li₃PO₄-LiI is performed based on the powder X-ray

diffraction (pXRD) patterns shown in Fig. 2b. The as-milled precursor samples of LiI and Li₃PO₄ exhibit broad Bragg reflections due to particle size reduction during the milling process. Detailed refinement of the pXRD patterns is presented in Fig. S3. The as-milled LiI sample maintains the rock-salt structure (Fm-3m) and shows a hydrate phase LiI·H₂O (Pm-3m). Rietveld analysis revealed a phase fraction of 37.9 and 62.1 wt.% of the LiI·H₂O and LiI phases, respectively (Fig. S4). The as-milled Li₃PO₄ also preserves the long-range structure of β -Li₃PO₄ (Pmn2₁), albeit nano-sized. The pXRDs of xLi₃PO₄ – LiI only show Bragg reflections of residual crystalline precursors, LiI and LiI·H₂O phases, while the major phases are invisible due to lack of long-range structural order. Therefore, high-resolution solid-state NMR experiments are performed to capture highly disordered phases.

High-resolution ⁶Li NMR is used to determine the local structures of chemical phases formed in the xLi₃PO₄ - LiI samples. Fig. 3a shows the ⁶Li NMR of as-milled LiI, Li₃PO₄, and 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI. The spectrum of the as-milled LiI displays two resonances assigned to the LiI and LiI·H₂O phases resonating around -4.45 and -4.40 ppm, respectively. The asmilled LiI contains \sim 65% of LiI and \sim 35% of LiI·H₂O based on NMR and powder XRD characterizations (Table S1). ⁶Li NMR of Li₃PO₄ displayed two resonances of Li1 and Li2 at 0.14 and 0.41 ppm, respectively, which are attributed to the two different Li sites within the β -Li₃PO₄ phase [29]. The ⁶Li NMR spectrum of 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI exhibits resonances from minor residual LiI and LiI $\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}.$ In addition, a broad resonance centered around -0.7 ppm is attributed to g-Li₄PO₄I, confirmed by DFT NMR calculations (Fig. 3c). The -0.7 ppm resonance lies at the weighted average of Li_3PO_4 (0.32 ppm) and LiI (-4.45 ppm), indicating that mobile Li⁺-ions statistically spend equal amount of time close to PO₄³⁻ and to I⁻ anions, in other words, no trapping of Li⁺-ions by either PO₄³⁻ or I⁻ anions.

Apart from g-Li₄PO₄I, a large amount of $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ (y < 1) is also



Fig. 2. Synthesis and crystalline-phase analysis of the Li_3PO_4 -LiI systems. (a) Schematic representation of room-temperature synthesis via mechanochemical highenergy milling, resulting in Li⁺-conductive, largely disordered phases later confirmed as $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ ($0 \le y \le 0.08$) and g-Li₄PO₄I. (b) Powder X-ray diffraction (pXRD) of the dry and as-milled Li_3PO_4 and LiI precursors, and as-milled $1.4Li_3PO_4$ – LiI. (c) Rietveld analysis of pXRD on $1.4Li_3PO_4$ – LiI, revealing the presence of LiI (Fm-3m) and LiI·H₂O (Pm-3m) as the major residual crystalline phases.

formed but not observed in pXRD due to lack of long-range structural order. The ⁶Li NMR shift of the Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y phase in the xLi₃PO₄-LiI samples moves upfield linearly upon increasing the LiI amount (Fig. S5), an indicator of a solid solution behavior. A calibration curve of ⁶Li NMR shifts for Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y is generated based on experimental ⁶Li NMR of Li₃PO₄, LiI, and Li₄PO₄I (Fig. S6). The shifts of Li₁ and Li₂ NMR resonances in xLi₃PO₄ – LiI are then used to determine the y values in Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y (Fig. 3d). Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06} is formed in the sample of 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI. Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06} displays a slightly preferred occupancy of the Li₂ sites over Li₁ compared with Li₃PO₄ (Fig. S6). The difference in Li occupancy between Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06} and Li₃PO₄ also implies that Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06} is distinct from Li₃PO₄, albeit the small amount of LiI incorporation into the structure.

⁷Li NMR relaxometry was utilized to study Li⁺-ion mobility in Li₃PO₄, LiI, and Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y. According to the Bloembergen, Purcell, and Pound (BPP) model [30], T₁ relaxation time is a function of motional rate $(1/\tau_c)$, as shown in Equation (1) [6,9,31].

$$\left(\frac{1}{T_1}\right) = \frac{3\mu_o^2 \lambda^4 \hbar^2}{10r_0^6} \left[\frac{\tau_c}{1 + (\omega_o \tau_c)^2} + \frac{4\tau_c}{1 + 4(\omega_o \tau_c)^2}\right]$$
(1)

Where γ is the magnetogyric ratio, μ_{o} is the vacuum permeability, \hbar is the reduced Planck constant, r_{o} is the interatomic distance, and ω_{o} is the Larmor frequency. In the fast-motion regime ($\omega_{o}\tau_{c}<<1$), T_{1} increases with increasing motional rate while in the slow-motion regime ($\omega_{o}\tau_{c}>>1$), T_{1} decreases with increasing motional rate. To determine the motional regime, variable-temperature ^{7}Li NMR T_{1} values of the 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI sample are determined in the temperature range of 20-

120 °C. As shown in Fig. 4a, faster ion motion at increased temperatures results in smaller T₁ values, indicating Li⁺-ion motion in this material lies in the slow-motion regime of the BPP model. Fig. 4b shows the results of ⁷Li NMR T₁ measurements on Li₃PO₄, LiI, and Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y, which reveal relatively large T₁ values of 4.7 and 10.1 s for LiI and Li₃PO₄, respectively. On the other hand, Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06} and g-Li₄PO₄I in 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI exhibit shorter T₁ values of 3.5 s and 1.7 s, respectively, implying higher Li⁺-ion mobility than the precursors Li₃PO₄ and LiI. Overall, g-Li₄PO₄I shows the shortest T₁, thus the highest Li⁺-ion mobility.

The relative spatial proximity of Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y and LiI in 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI is determined with 2D ⁷Li exchange NMR spectroscopy (EXSY). In 2D EXSY NMR, spin exchange is predominantly driven by dipolar coupling interactions. The dipolar coupling constant d_{ij}, as shown in Equation (2), is strongly distance (r_{ij}^3) dependent, [32] where r_{ij} is the distance between spins i and j, γ_i and γ_j refer to the magnetogyric ratios of the spins i and j, respectively, \hbar is the reduced Planck's constant, and θ_{ij} is the angle between the internuclear vector $\overrightarrow{r_{ii}}$ and $\overrightarrow{B_0}$.

$$d_{ij} = -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{\gamma_i \gamma_j \hbar^2}{r_{ij}^3} \frac{1}{2} \left(3\cos^2 \theta_{ij} - 1 \right)$$
(2)

A diagonal peak in the 2D EXSY NMR signifies self-correlation of 7 Li spins within a particular phase, while a cross peak (off-diagonal peak) indicates interaction of spins from two different chemical phases through transfer of magnetization. The intensity of cross peaks is mainly dictated by the spatial proximity of two phases and time period provided



Fig. 3. Phase determination of $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ in the $1.4Li_3PO_4$ – LiI sample. (a) ⁶Li NMR of as-milled LiI, Li₃PO₄, and 1.4Li₃PO₄ - LiI samples. As-milled LiI shows the LiI-H₂O phase whereas Li3PO4 shows two resonances representing two distinct Li sites. Asmilled 1.4Li₃PO₄ - LiI displays NMR from LiI·H₂O, resonances LiI, Li3.06PO4I0.06, and g-Li4PO4I. (b) Zoomed in ⁶Li NMR of as-milled Li₃PO₄ and 1.4Li3PO4 - LiI focusing on the Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06} phase. (c) DFT ⁶Li NMR calculations of Li3PO4 and Li4PO4I phases. (d) Calculated calibration curve of changes in chemical shift due to the addition of LiI into bulk Li3PO4. which helps to determine the phase composition of Li3.06PO4I0.06.



Fig. 4. NMR relaxometry for probing Li⁺-ion mobility in Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y and LiI. (a) Variable-temperature ⁷Li NMR T₁ relaxation measurements on 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI . As Li⁺-ion mobility increases with temperature, the measurements suggest that shorter T₁ values correlate with faster Li⁺-ion motion in this temperature range of 20-120 °C. (b) ⁷Li NMR T₁ relaxation times of Li₃PO₄, g-Li₄PO₄I, Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06}, and LiI. The precursors Li₃PO₄ and LiI have longer T₁ compared to Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y, indicating faster Li⁺-ion mobility in Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y. g-Li₄PO₄I displays the fastest Li⁺-ion mobility of all.

for the magnetization transfer to take place, *i.e.*, mixing time. Strong cross peaks within a short mixing time suggest close spatial proximity of two chemical phases. Fig. 5 shows the ⁷Li 2D EXSY NMR spectra acquired with mixing times of 0.1, 5, and 100 ms. During the short mixing

time of 0.1 ms, only three diagonal peaks are observed at \sim 0, -0.7, and -4.5 ppm signifying minimal polarization transfer among the $^7\rm{Li}$ spins from the $\rm{Li}_{3.06}\rm{PO}_4\rm{I}_{0.06}$, g-Li_4PO_4I, and LiI/LiI·H_2O phases. The cross peaks (marked in red) between LiI and g-Li_4PO_4I phases at (-4.5 ppm,



Fig. 5. Spatial proximity of phases in 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI determined by 2D ⁷Li EXSY NMR with mixing times of (a) 0.1 ms, (b) 5 ms, and (c) 100 ms. The emergence of off-diagonal (or cross peaks, shown in red) at longer mixing times (5 and 100 ms) reveal g-Li₄PO₄I, LiI, LiI·H₂O and Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06} are close in space on the nanoscale.

-0.7 ppm) emerge first at a mixing time of 5 ms while those between LiI and $Li_{3.06}PO_4I_{0.06}$ phases at (-4.5 ppm, 0.2 ppm) only become prominent at a longer mixing time of 100 ms, as shown in Fig. 5b and 5c. This indicates that the g-Li₄PO₄I phase is at the interface of LiI·H₂O/LiI and $Li_{3.06}PO_4I_{0.06}$ phases.

High-resolution ³¹P NMR is employed to understand the local structural changes in the phosphate "PO₄³⁻" network. Fig. 6a displays the ³¹P NMR spectra of pristine Li₃PO₄, as-milled Li₃PO₄, and 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI. All ³¹P NMR resonances fall between 6-12 ppm, suggesting an isolated form of PO₄³⁻ with no bridging O [33–35]. Pristine β -Li₃PO₄ displays two resonances at 10.2 and 9.7 ppm, which are attributed to the crystalline [β -PO₄³⁻(C)] and glassy Li₃PO₄ [β -PO₄³⁻(A)], respectively [33]. The as-milled Li₃PO₄ exhibits an additional resonance at 9.0 ppm, which is assigned to the glassy γ "-Li₃PO₄ phase. ³¹P NMR studies performed on Li₃PO₄ by Snyder et. al. revealed an upfield shift of high-temperature (HT) - γ -Li₃PO₄ compared to the low-temperature (LT)

- β -Li₃PO₄ [35]. The major difference in β vs. γ -Li₃PO₄ lies in the PO₄³⁻ anion packing. As shown in Fig. 6d, the PO_4^{3-} in β -Li₃PO₄ are packed in an ordered arrangement with all PO_4^{3-} tetrahedra pointing to the same direction, while in γ -Li₃PO₄, some PO₄³⁻ tetrahedra point to the opposite direction compared to the rest. High energy ball milling of Li₃PO₄ yields the more disordered γ "-PO₄³⁻(A) network. Incorporation of LiI into Li_3PO_4 engenders further interruption of the already disordered $PO_4^{3-}(A)$ network, manifested in a new ³¹P NMR resonance shifting further upfield to 8.44 ppm which is assigned to Li₄PO₄I. DFT NMR calculations show that the glassy Li₄PO₄I shifts upfield in comparison with the Li₃PO₄ phase as shown in Table S3. Quantification of the local PO_4^{3-} structures observed in ³¹P NMR is presented in Fig. 6b; ballmilling Li₃PO₄ mainly converts [β -PO₄³⁻(C)] to [γ "-PO₄³⁻(A)] and I⁻ can be incorporated into both the $[\beta - PO_4^{3-}(A)]$ and $[\gamma^{"} - PO_4^{3-}(A)]$ networks but not into $[\beta-PO_4^{3-}(C)]$. Concomitant to the increased interruption of the PO_4^{3-} network, significant peak narrowing of the ³¹P NMR resonance from



Fig. 6. Characterization of the phosphate anion framework in Li₃PO₄ and Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y with ³¹P NMR. (a) ³¹P MAS NMR of 1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI and Li₃PO₄. β -Li₃PO₄ is composed of both crystalline [β -PO₄³-(C)] and glassy [β -PO₄³⁻(A)] with distinct NMR resonances. As-milled Li₃PO₄ results in the formation of glassy [γ ''-PO₄³⁻(A)]. Addition of LiI in (1.4Li₃PO₄ – LiI) causes local structural changes in the [γ ''-PO₄³⁻(A)] framework and formation of Li₄PO₄I. (b) ³¹P NMR areal integral of the various PO₄³⁻ resonances, revealing evolution of the PO₄³⁻ structures. (c) Comparison of the line broadening between [β -PO₄³⁻(A)] and [γ ''-PO₄³⁻(A)] resonances. Addition of LiI results in significant peak narrowing of γ ''-PO₄³⁻(A), suggesting enhanced PO₄³⁻ mobility. (d) Arrangement of β -PO₄³⁻(A) and γ ''-PO₄³⁻(A) anion frameworks. A and C represent glassy and crystalline phases, respectively.

[γ "-PO₄³⁻(A)] is observed upon LiI addition as shown in Fig. 6c, indicating increased PO₄³⁻ anion motion. Qualitative ³¹P NMR relaxation measurements (Fig. S7) reveal that the ³¹P NMR resonance of Li₄PO₄I has the shortest T₁ thus the PO₄³⁻ in Li₄PO₄I rotates the fastest. The above data suggests that incorporation of I⁻ into the PO₄³⁻ sublattice leads to both static and dynamic disorder of the PO₄³⁻ anions and the latter may assist Li⁺-ion transport [36].

Additionally, ¹²⁷I NMR is utilized to determine the iodide local environments. As shown in Fig. S8, pristine LiI and as-milled LiI display a sharp symmetric peak resonating at 387 ppm, signifying I⁻ in a cubic rock-salt structure of high symmetry. ¹²⁷I NMR resonance of 1.4Li₃PO₄ –LiI shows an upfield change in shift with an asymmetric line shape, suggesting a distorted local chemical environment of I⁻ anions and successful incorporation of I⁻ into the PO₄³⁻ network in Li₄PO₄I.

3.2. Ion Conduction

Ionic conductivities of $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ are determined with electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). Fig. S11 shows that $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ ($Li_{3.06}PO_4I_{0.06}$ and g- Li_4PO_4I) gives a room-temperature ionic conductivity of 0.15 mS/cm, which is two orders of magnitude greater than that of LiI (10^{-3} mS/cm) and at least five orders of magnitude greater than that that of Li_3PO_4 ($< 10^{-6}$ mS/cm) (Fig. S9). Fig. 7 shows the temperature dependence of ionic conductivities within the temperature range of 25 – 100 °C and the activation energy is determined to be 0.54 eV. Nyquist plots were fitted using the equivalent circuit model to determine the bulk impedance (Fig. S13). Conductivity was determined using Equation 3, where *l* is the thickness of the pellet, A is the area of the blocking electrode, and Ω is the impedance. The electronic conductivity is estimated to be relatively low, 1×10^{-4} mS/cm (Fig. S10).

$$\sigma = \frac{l}{A \times \Omega} \tag{3}$$

3.3. Ion transport mechanism

 Li^+ -ion transport pathways within $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ are investigated with ${}^6Li \rightarrow {}^7Li$ tracer-exchange NMR. This technique has been utilized by Zheng et al., for studying Li⁺-ion transport pathways within composite electrolytes.[32] On their diffusion pathways, ${}^6Li^+$ -ions from 6Li -foil will exchange with ${}^7Li^+$ in $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$, leaving a trace of their paths. Fig. 8a displays the 6Li NMR of the pristine and tracer-exchanged $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$

pellets against ^{nat.}Li or ⁶Li electrodes. The pristine sample presents four ⁶Li NMR resonances assigned to LiI, LiI·H₂O, Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06}, and Li₄PO₄I. Electrochemical cycling against ⁶Li or ^{nat.}Li electrodes results in further conversion of LiI and LiI·H₂O phases to Li₄PO₄I and Li_{4.3}PO₄I_{1.3} with resonances at -0.7 and -1.5 ppm, respectively. The composition of the $Li_{4,3}PO_{4}I_{1,3}$ phase was determined based on the experimental ⁶Li chemical shift at -1.5 ppm and the calibration curve (Fig. S6). Quantification of the Li components is presented in Fig. 8b. Compared with the pristine and control sample (^{nat}Li), the $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ samples cycled against ⁶Li electrodes show significant growth of the ⁶Li NMR resonance from Li₄PO₄I. Quantitative analysis of ⁶Li enrichment in Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06}, Li₄PO₄I, and Li_{4.3}PO₄I_{1.3} after ⁶Li \rightarrow ⁷Li tracer exchange is presented in Fig. 8c. The ⁶Li-enrichment in the Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06} phase is minimal, while that in the $\rm Li_4PO_4I$ and $\rm Li_{4.3}PO_4I_{1.3}$ phases is significant, especially in Li₄PO₄I. With this tracer-exchange NMR approach, higher ⁶Li-enrichment of a specific chemical phase implies that Li⁺-ions more frequently visit that particular phase. Therefore, the results in Fig. 8c and Fig. S12 suggest that Li⁺-ions prefer to diffuse through the Li₄PO₄I and Li_{4.3}PO₄I_{1.3}, instead of Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06}.

Therefore, multinuclear and multi-dimensional high-resolution NMR combined with DFT NMR calculations have yielded a structural model of g-Li₄PO₄I formed at the interface of Li₃PO₄ and LiI. Li₄PO₄I shows significantly enhanced Li⁺-ion mobility compared with Li₃PO₄ and LiI, due to increased entropy in the anion network and no trapping of Li⁺ by either PO₄³⁻ or I⁻ anions. Li₄PO₄I is responsible for the observed several orders of magnitude increase in ionic conductivity of Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y, according to tracer-exchange NMR analysis. Based on these insights, extensive effort has been invested in attempts to increase the content of g-Li₄PO₄I in Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y to further improve the experimental ionic conductivity. Varying the precursor compositions (Fig. S4) or synthesis approach has led to little success. The formation of less conductive competing phases (Li_{3+y}PO₄I_y, $y \neq 1$) is hard to eliminate.

4. Conclusion

 $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ is formed by combining Li_3PO_4 and LiI at room temperature, which exhibits an ionic conductivity of 0.15 mS/cm, several orders of magnitude higher than either of the parent materials. Structural and compositional analyses reveal that $Li_{3.06}PO_4I_{0.06}$ and g-Li₄PO₄I are the new phases, which show increased entropy in the anion network and varied Li occupancies. In particular, g-Li₄PO₄I formed at the interface of Li_3PO_4 and LiI exhibits much higher Li⁺-ion mobility, compared with



Fig. 7. Li⁺-ion conduction properties of $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ formed in 1.4Li₃PO₄-LiI obtained with variable-temperature electrochemical impedance spectroscopy in the temperature range of 25-100°C. (a) the Nyquist plots. (b) the Arrhenius plot. The activation energy is determined to be 0.54 eV.



Fig. 8. Li⁺-ion transport pathways in $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ determined using ${}^{6}Li -> {}^{7}Li$ tracer-exchange NMR. (a) ${}^{6}Li$ NMR spectra of pristine and cycled $Li_{3+y}PO_4I_y$ using the natural-abundance (${}^{nat}Li$) and ${}^{6}Li$ -enriched lithium metal electrodes, respectively. Electrochemical cycling reveals the disappearance of LiI/LiI·H₂O, which is converted to Li₄PO₄I and the iodide-rich interphase Li_{4.3}PO₄I_{1.3} phase. (b) Quantification of ${}^{6}Li$ amount in different phases upon cycling with (${}^{nat}Li$) and ${}^{6}Li$ electrodes. (c) ${}^{6}Li$ NMR areal integrals of the pristine vs. cycled samples, revealing the preference of Li⁺-ions to diffuse through the Li₄PO₄I phase.

Li₃PO₄, LiI, and Li_{3.06}PO₄I_{0.06}. The high Li⁺-ion mobility is attributed to the interrupted PO₄³⁻ network by I⁻ and no trapping of Li⁺-ions by either PO₄³⁻ or I⁻. Traer-exchange NMR suggests that g-Li₄PO₄I is responsible for the observed high ionic conductivity. This work provides insights into how to tune anion sublattice for enhanced Li⁺-ion transport. A balanced interaction between Li⁺-ions and all anions is critical to avoid local trapping of active charge carriers; this applies to both glassy and crystalline materials. Systematic computational studies on anion compatibility and Li⁺-anion interactions can be beneficial to efficient discovery of new mixed-anion fast-ion conductors.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript. **Sawankumar V. Patel** and **Erica Truong**: contributed equally on tsample synthesis, data acquisition and analysis, and manuscript preparation. **Haoyu Liu**: DFT calculations, data analysis, and manucript preparation. **Yongkang Jin**: DFT calculations and manuscript prepartion. **Benjamin L. Chen**: data analysis and manuscript preparation. **Yan Wang**: data analysis and manuscript prepartion. **Yan Wang**: data analysis and manuscript prepartion. **Lincoln Miara**: data analysis and manuscript prepartion. **Ryounghee Kim**: data analysis and manuscript prepartion. **Yan-Yan Hu**: conceptualization, data analysis, project supervision, and manuscript preparation.

Supporting Information

The supporting information contains quantitative analysis of the phase fractions from powder XRD and ⁶Li NMR, ¹²⁷I NMR, ³¹P NMR, impedance measurements, and AIMD simulations of glassy/crystalline Li₄PO₄I and glassy β - and γ -Li₃PO₄.

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.

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Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.ensm.2022.06.026.

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