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1 Exploring the Bottlenecks of Anionic Redox in Li-rich Layered Sulfides

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20

21 Abstract

To satisfy the long-awaited need of new lithium-ion battery cathode materials with higher energy 22 density, anionic redox chemistry has emerged as a new paradigm that is responsible for the high capacity in 23 24 Li-rich layered oxides, for example, in Li_{1.2}Ni_{0.13}Mn_{0.54}Co_{0.13}O₂ (Li-rich NMC). However, their market-25 implementation has been plaqued by certain bottlenecks originating intriguingly from the anionic redox activity itself. To fundamentally understand these bottlenecks (voltage fade, hysteresis and sluggish kinetics), we 26 decided to target the ligand by switching to isostructural Li-rich layered sulfides. Herein, we designed new 27 Li_{1.33-2//3}Ti_{0.67-1//3}Fe_vS₂ cathodes that enlist sustained reversible capacities of ~245 mAh·g⁻¹ due to cumulated 28 cationic (Fe^{2+/3+}) and anionic (S²⁻ / Sⁿ⁻, n < 2) redox processes. In-depth electrochemical analysis revealed 29 30 nearly zero irreversible capacity during the initial cycle, very small voltage fade upon long cycling, with low voltage hysteresis and fast kinetics, which contrasts positively with respect to their Li-rich NMC oxide 31 32 analogues. Our study, further complemented with DFT calculations, demonstrates that moving from oxygen to sulfur as the ligand is an adequate strategy to partially mitigate the practical bottlenecks affecting anionic 33 34 redox, although with an expected penalty in cell voltage. Altogether the present findings provide chemical clues on improving the holistic performance of anionic redox electrodes via ligand tuning, and hence 35 strengthen the feasibility to ultimately capitalize on the energy benefits of oxygen redox. 36

37 Introduction

Over the past three decades, Li-ion batteries (LIB) have revolutionized the portable electronics 38 industry, while more recently reorienting the automotive industry by enabling electric vehicles.^{1,2} To comply 39 40 with the ever-growing demands of energy for such applications, increasing the energy density of LIBs has become a formidable challenge. For many years, the cathode materials in LIBs relied solely on the transition 41 42 metal (cationic) redox, until the recently discovered anionic redox, i.e., electrochemical participation of the 43 oxygen ligands, became a new approach for designing higher energy cathode materials. Li-rich Mn-based layered oxides, for example, Li_{1.2}Ni_{0.2}Mn_{0.6}O₂ and Li_{1.2}Ni_{0.13}Mn_{0.54}Co_{0.13}O₂ (Li-rich NMC) hold the highest 44 promises in this regard, as these cathodes can deliver a specific energy approaching $\sim 1000 \text{ Wh} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ at the 45 material-level. These materials can potentially replace the currently used NMCs (e.g. $LiNi_{0.6}Mn_{0.2}Co_{0.2}O_2$, 46 ~700 Wh kg^{-1}). Thanks to a decade of intense research, it is now well established that the anomalous extra 47 capacity of Li-rich cathodes arises from the redox of O²⁻ anions, more specifically the 'non-bonding' O 2p 48 49 orbitals that point towards excess-Li in the metal layers.^{3–8} Invigorated by this fundamental understanding, solid-state chemists have extended the concept of oxygen redox to cation-disordered $Li_{1+\nu}M_{1-\nu}O_2$ (M = Nb, 50 Mn, Ti, Fe, V ...) as well as Na-based layered oxides.⁹⁻¹¹ Despite this rich materials design-space, certain 51 practical issues, such as voltage fade, poor kinetics, voltage hysteresis, and irreversible O₂ loss, have delayed 52 the commercialization of Li-rich NMCs.¹² Although the crucial role of oxygen redox towards these issues 53 was clearly highlighted by detailed investigations on a 'practical' Li-rich NMC and also on a 'model' 54 $Li_{1,33}Ru_{0.5}Sn_{0.17}O_2$ electrode, much remains to be understood for further fundamental insights that will 55 ultimately lead to implementable solutions.^{12–14} Therefore, time has come to reinject the Li-rich systems 56 57 with a fresh perspective towards the above-mentioned practical roadblocks observed in oxides. So far, only 58 two materials-composition parameters were explored in Li-rich layered oxides, i.e. (i) going down from 3dMn to 4d Ru and 5d Ir for stabilizing oxygen redox and (*ii*) increasing the Li-rich character to access higher 59 60 capacity (e.g. Li₃IrO₄).^{15–17} More recently, a third approach with mild success has emerged, that is to tune the ligand by increasing electronegativity of the anionic sublattice via substituting fluorine for oxygen, but 61 so far limited only to disordered rocksalt structures.^{18,19} Herein, we decided to explore a fourth direction by 62 replacing the ligand oxygen with sulfur to design new Li-rich layered sulfides. Because sulfur is larger, 63 64 softer and less electronegative compared to oxygen, anionic redox in sulfides can be expected to behave differently and possibly provide clues towards better performances. 65

66 Early sulfide electrodes, although long forgotten after the emergence of layered oxide cathodes, played a crucial historical role. To recall, the path towards modern Li-ion technology was paved by attempts 67 68 of commercialization of Li-free layered transition-metal chalcogenides, such as TiS₂, MoS₂ etc., way back in the 1970s, which was rapidly terminated because of safety issues due to Li-metal dendrite formation.^{20,21} 69 Interestingly, unlike oxides, stable ligand-hole chemistry was well-known in sulfides, e.g., TiS₃ (believed 70 71 to exist as $Ti^{4+}S^{2-}(S_2)^{2-}$), $Fe^{2+}(S_2)^{2-}$, etc., since the pioneering works by Rouxel *et al.*^{22,23} In such materials, S exists fully or partially as dimerized S⁻—S⁻ pairs and undergoes breaking of S—S bonds to regain the 72 standard S²⁻ state upon electrochemical insertion of Li.²⁴⁻²⁹ However, Li (de)intercalation is only partly 73 reversible in such materials besides rapid capacity fading.^{30–32} Further studying the poly-sulfides such as 74 TiS₄ and VS₄, mainly for their conversion-type mechanism leading to large capacities at low potential, 75 researchers have noted that such compounds were also enlisting sulfur redox activity.^{33–37} Similarly, by 76 77 reinvestigating the crystalline $LiMS_2$ (M = Ti, V, Cr, Fe) layered sulfides directly prepared from solid-state reactions, scientists also found that in some of these phases, both Li removal and insertion are possible, but 78 79 it remains unclear whether the process involves anionic besides cationic redox activity.³⁸⁻⁴⁰ Thus, deciphering the sulfur redox process in such compounds could be of paramount importance to furtherunderstand the oxygen redox in Li-rich layered oxides.

82 Li-rich NMCs are derived from the layered $Li_{1,33}Mn_{0.67}O_2$ (commonly written as Li_2MnO_3) with 83 their anionic redox activity being a function of the competition between U (d-d coulomb interaction) and Δ (charge transfer) terms.⁴¹ Preparing a similar Li-rich Mn-based layered sulfide is not possible, simply 84 because the S 3p band is situated much closer to the Li/Li⁺ reference than the O 2p band, leaving the $Mn^{3+/4+}$ 85 86 redox band too low-lying, see Figure 1a,b. Hence to design an analogous layered sulfide $Li_{1,33}M_{0.67}S_2$, an appropriate transition metal M needs to be chosen first. Amongst 3d metals, $M = Ti^{4+}$ presents the best 87 choice for sulfides, because the $Ti^{3+/4+}$ redox band is located above the S 3p band. However, since Ti^{4+} has 88 $3d^0$ electronic configuration, Li_{1.33}Ti_{0.66}S₂ is apparently electrochemically inactive, as shown recently, even 89 though it has a high theoretical capacity of 339 mAh g⁻¹ (considering removal of all Li's).⁴² This situation 90 reminds that of the Li_{1,33}Mn_{0.67}O₂ phase (poor electrochemical performance without nano-sizing) that 91 required partial substitution with Ni²⁺ to instigate electrochemical activity (Figure 1a).⁴³⁻⁴⁵ A first hint to 92 address this problem in sulfides consists, as discussed by Li et al., in using Co²⁺ as a substituent (owing to 93 its large U and small Δ) to initiate reversible anionic redox.⁴² Pursuing their idea, the authors succeeded in 94 preparing Li_{1.2}Ti_{0.6}Co_{0.2}S₂ showing anionic redox activity.⁴² Other successful strategies to adjust proper band 95 positioning have consisted in either preparing Ti^{3+} -doped $Li_{1,33-\nu/3}Ti^{4+}_{0,67-2\nu/3}Ti^{3+}_{\nu}S_2$, or triggering antisite 96 occupation as shown for NaCr³⁺S₂, or preparing Li_{1.33}Ti⁴⁺0.67S₂ and Li_{1.5}Nb⁵⁺0.5S₂ having disordered rock-97 salt structures.^{46–49} We herein demonstrate the feasibility to activate the anionic redox activity in Li-rich 98 layered $Li_{1,33-2\nu/3}Ti^{4+}_{0.67-\nu/3}Fe^{2+}_{\nu}S_2$ via the use of Fe substitution. This situation is favourable for reversible 99 sulfur redox, since the $Fe^{2+/3+}$ redox couple with available electrons (3d⁶) is expected to be pinned at the top 100 of the S 3p band (Figure 1c).³⁸ We isolate the Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ compound showing, based on cumulated 101 102 cationic and anionic redox activity, a sustained reversible capacity of ~245 mAh g^{-1} at an average voltage of ~2.5 V, hence leading to a specific energy of ~600 Wh kg⁻¹ that compares favorably with LiCoO₂. 103 Moreover, we demonstrate the advantages of choosing a softer ligand in partially mitigating both voltage 104 105 fade and hysteresis without any compromise in kinetics, hence providing confidence about the feasibility of 106 better capitalizing on the benefits of the anionic redox.

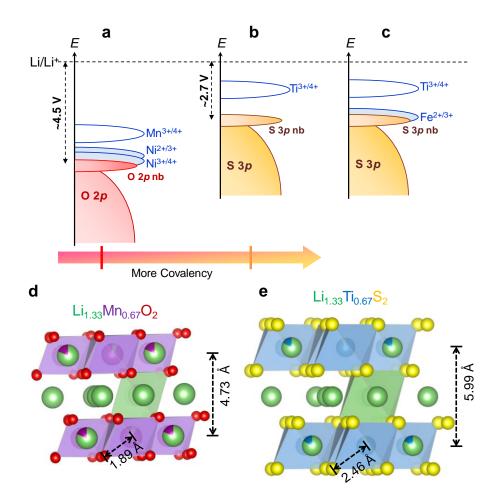


Figure 1. Moving from Li-rich layered oxides to sulfides. Schematic band structure of Ni²⁺ substituted Li_{1.33}Mn_{0.67}O₂ (a) and Li_{1.33}Ti_{0.67}S₂ (b) and its Fe²⁺ substituted derivative (c). The relative band positions are estimated based on *Ref* ^{3,38}. The label *nb* stands for non-bonding. The crystal structures of Li_{1.33}Mn_{0.67}O₂ (d, adapted from the *Ref* ⁵⁰) and Li_{1.33}Ti_{0.67}S₂ (e, this work), indicating the layer gap and the average metal-ligand bond distance.

112

113 **Results**

114 Nominal compositions of $Li_{1.33-2y/3}Ti_{0.67-y/3}Fe_yS_2$, with y = 0 - 0.5, were prepared by reacting Li_2S , TiS_2 and FeS in stoichiometric amounts in vacuum-sealed quartz tubes at 750 °C (see the Experimental 115 Section for details). The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns are gathered in Figure S1a for all the 116 compositions. The XRD pattern of the unsubstituted $Li_{1.33}Ti_{0.67}S_2$ (without Fe, y = 0) phase could be refined 117 in the in C2/m space group alike for Li_{1,33}Mn_{0.67}O₂. The Rietveld refinement of its synchrotron XRD (SXRD) 118 119 pattern is shown in Figure S1b with the obtained parameters summarized in Table S1. This crystal structure is similar to honeycomb-ordered Li-rich layered oxides, however with an expectedly larger unit cell to 120 121 accommodate the bulkier S atoms, see Figure 1d,e. Upon increasing the Fe content y, there is a progressive 122 shift of the Bragg peaks (Figure 2a) indicating the existence of a solid solution. Moreover, Fe-containing compositions (y = 0.1 - 0.5) do not show the superstructure peaks (Figure S1a), most likely because Fe²⁺ 123 disrupts the honeycomb Li⁺/Ti⁴⁺ ordering. Therefore, the Fe-containing phases could be fitted in a hexagonal 124

- 125 $R\bar{3}m$ description analogous to the well-known Li-rich layered Li_{1+y}M_{1-y}O₂ phases, with the obtained lattice126parameters shown in Figure 2b. With increasing Fe content, we observe a monotonic increase in the *c*127parameter that is accompanied by a decrease in the *a* parameter, such that the overall effect is a monotonic128decrease in unit cell volume (V). Since among the Li_{1.33-2y/3}Ti_{0.67-y/3}Fe_yS₂ series, the compound with y = 0.3129will be the center of interest in this study, we also performed the Rietveld refinement of its SXRD pattern130(Figure 2c), which confirms that Fe, Ti and Li occupy same site in the metal layer (see the structural model131in Table S2). This structure was further confirmed by Rietveld refinement of its neutron powder diffraction
- 132 (NPD) pattern (see Figure S5a).

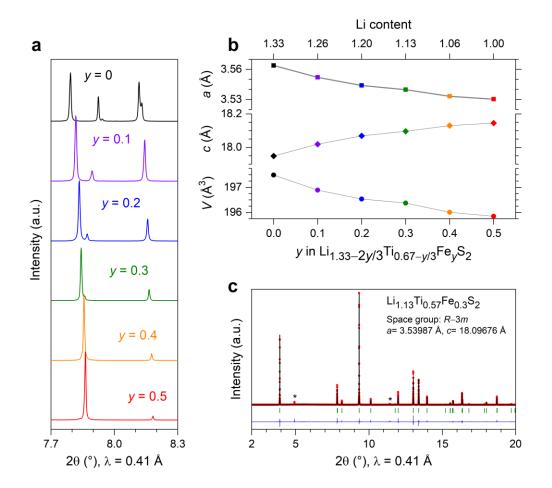
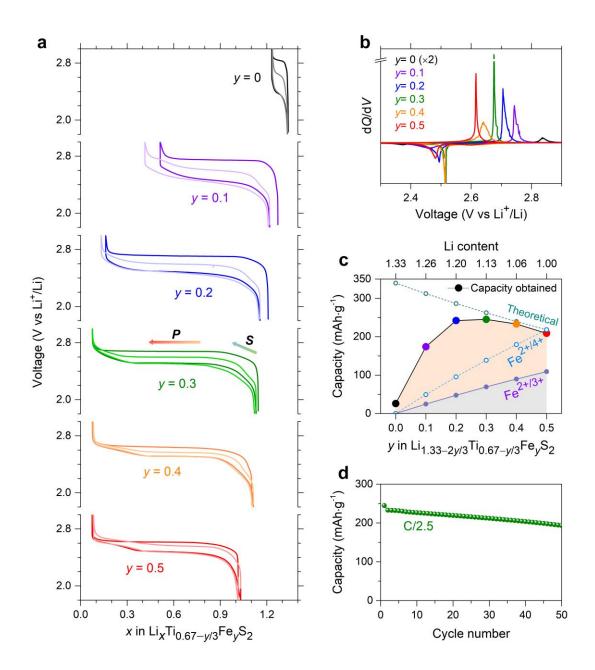


Figure 2. Structural behavior of the Li_{1.33-2y/3}Ti_{0.67-y/3}Fe_yS₂ series. (a) SXRD patterns and (b) variation of lattice parameters (obtained from the Rietveld refinement of the SXRD patterns). In (b), for the y = 0 composition, the lattice parameters have been converted to the $R\overline{3}m$ description. (c) Rietveld refinement of the SXRD pattern of the Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ sample. The red circles, black continuous line, blue line, and green tick bars represent the observed, calculated and difference patterns, and Bragg positions, respectively. Note that minor Li₂TiO₃ impurity (indicated with *) was detected in the SXRD pattern, probably due to minor air-leakage during the preparation of the sample-capillary prior to the acquisition of SXRD patterns.

141 The electrochemical performances of the $Li_{1.33-2\nu/3}Ti_{0.67-\nu/3}Fe_{\nu}S_2$ samples were tested in Li-half cells between 1.8 V and 3 V at a rate of C/20 and the voltage profiles are summarized in Figure 3a and S2a. The 142 143 unsubstituted $Li_{1,3}Ti_{0,67}S_2$ (y = 0) shows very poor electrochemical activity since only 0.1 Li could be 144 extracted reversibly. Attempts to enhance the activity by either ball milling the samples or by adding larger 145 amounts of carbon additive were unsuccessful, hence leading us to conclude that such a non-activity is intrinsic to the phase and most likely nested in the fact that the $Ti^{3+/4+}$ redox band is empty and is situated 146 far above the S 3p band, hence unable to stabilize oxidized sulfur (Figure 1b). This contrasts with the Fe²⁺-147 containing phases (Figure 1c) that are electrochemically active, which show a specificity that is nested in 148 149 the second cycle's charge trace which mismatches the first one because it occurs at a lower potential (Figure 150 3a). Note also the appearance of a short sloped voltage (marked by 'S' in Figure 3a) at the early stage of 151 charge, and most likely related to Fe redox activity. This contrasts with a long plateau-like (marked by 'P') 152 activity on further oxidation. Lastly, the corresponding dO/dV profiles are shown in Figure 3b and S2c, which clearly highlights that the respective oxidation potentials shift to lower voltage with a systematic 153 154 decrease in hysteresis (Figure S2e) upon increasing the Fe content. After the first cycle, note that the 155 subsequent charge and discharge profiles are very similar (see Figure S2b for Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂) with the polarization gradually reducing to ~100 mV for the y = 0.3 composition, instead of ~220 mV during the first 156 cycle. This indicates that the first cycle acts as an 'activation' cycle alike the Li-rich NMC oxides. The 157 variation of capacity as a function of the Fe-content shows a bell-shape type behaviour which peaks at 245 158 159 mAh·g⁻¹ for the composition Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ (y = 0.3). Even by assuming full utilization of the multielectron oxidation of Fe^{2+} to Fe^{4+} , which is quite unlikely to occur in sulfide frameworks, we cannot account 160 161 for all the measured capacity, hence implying the activity of the anionic network, see Figure 3c. The capacity 162 decrease beyond y > 0.3 is simply due to the lower amount of available Li in the Li_{1,33-2y/3}Ti_{0.67-y/3}Fe_yS₂ samples when the Fe content (y) increases. In contrast the raise noted until y = 0.3 is most likely nested in 163 164 the gradual amelioration of the band positioning with introduction of Fe content that triggers reversible 165 anionic redox activity. Among the various Fe compositions studied, the y = 0.3 sample not only shows the 166 largest capacity, but also a respectable capacity retention (Figure 3d and S2d) with also barely noticeable 167 irreversible capacity in the first discharge. Thus, we chose this composition for further investigation, starting by exploring whether the activation process over the first cycle is related to structural aspects. 168



169

170 Figure 3. Electrochemical behavior of Li1.33-2y/3Ti0.67-y/3FeyS2. (a) Voltage profiles of the compositions obtained over 171 cycling vs Li at C/20 for the first two cycles. The curves in lighter colors denote the second cycles. The arrows marked 172 by 'S' and 'P' denote the slope and the plateau, respectively. (b) dQ/dV curves obtained in the first cycle for the 173 various compositions. (c) Theoretical capacity (considering total Li-removal) and the actual discharge capacity obtained for the compounds over cycling at C/20. The capacity expected from cationic Fe^{2+/3+} and hypothetical Fe^{2+/4+} 174 175 redox is also shown. (d) Cycling performance of a Li1.13Ti0.57Fe0.3S2/Li half-cell at a rate of C/2.5 (except the first 176 formation cycle at C/20). The material was cycled as powder (mixed with 20 wt% C, see Figure S2d inset) in a Swagelok 177 type cell, without any further optimization.

178 To better understand the structural evolution pertaining to the Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ phase during the Li uptake-removal process, operando XRD measurements were conducted and XRD patterns were collected 179 180 for every change in lithium stoichiometry of ~ 0.1 (Fig. 4). Upon charge, we observed a slight initial shift of 181 the main peaks, indicating solid-solution behaviour. Over this regime, the unit cell volume decreases as a consequence of an anisotropic variation of the a and c lattice parameters (see also, Figure S3a). Then, as the 182 183 voltage reaches the first plateau, there is a gradual change in the intensity of the peaks with some peaks 184 disappearing at the expense of new ones, which sharpen to give a well-defined XRD powder pattern at the 185 end of the full charge, hence suggesting a two-phase de-intercalation process. This new phase with 186 approximate composition $Li_{0.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$, whose structure remains as layered one as described in detail in 187 the next paragraph, has a lower unit cell volume (by $\sim 12.2\%$) than the pristine one. On discharge, the 188 compound undergoes first a solid-solution process for which both the a and c lattice parameters strongly 189 increase (Figure S3a). Then, a biphasic process is observed with the growth of a phase with increased 190 volume, followed again by solid-solution behaviour. We therefore have, for the first cycle, charge and 191 discharge processes that proceed through different structural paths, even though the pattern returns close to 192 the one for the pristine phase (see Figure S3b). This path-difference can be clearly observed from the evolution of the unit cell volume (Figure 4a) and of the a and c lattice parameters (see Figure S3a). On the 193 other hand, over the 2nd cycle, the XRD patterns indicate more symmetric, although not perfect, pathways 194 195 on charge and discharge (Figure S4). Overall, throughout cycling the phase remains crystalline with well-196 preserved long-range layered crystal structure.

197 Next, an in-depth exploration of the crystal structures at different states of charge (pristine, fullycharged and fully-discharged after first cycle) was undertaken using SXRD. In agreement with the lab XRD 198 199 data, the patterns can be indexed in the $R\overline{3}m$ space group. The pristine Li_{1,13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ (V = 196.384(2) Å³) presents an average Ti-S bond-length of 2.4792(3) Å, with average S-S distances of ~3.505 Å (see the 200 structural model in Table S2). The Rietveld refinement of the SXRD pattern of the fully-charged 201 $Li_{0.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$ phase (Figure 4b) indicates a much smaller unit cell (V = 172.338(6) Å³) (see Table S3 for 202 the structural model). Moreover the average Ti-S bond length was found to shrink to 2.3635(1) Å, leading 203 to decreased average S-S distances of ~3.344 Å. 204

205 In parallel, we collected the selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) of the fully-charged phase 206 which could again be successfully indexed with an $R\overline{3}m$ unit cell (Figure S5b). The corresponding high angle annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) image shows only 207 208 the $(Ti/Fe)S_2$ layers. The HAADF intensity profile (inset, Figure 4c) clearly demonstrates no scattering 209 density between the $(Ti/Fe)S_2$ layers and thus discards the possibility of transition-metal migration to the 210 interlayer sites (Figure 4c). The Rietveld refinement of SXRD pattern (Figure 55c, Table S4) of the fullydischarged sample is very similar to the pristine phase (V=196.896(2) Å³) with an average Ti–S bond length 211 212 of 2.4825(3) Å and average S–S distance of 3.51(2) Å. Worth mentioning is that such S–S distances are quite larger than the $(S-S)^{2-}$ bond lengths reported early on for TiS₃ (2.04 Å) (Figure 4d) suggesting either 213 an absence of complete dimerization in $Li_{0.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$ or a possible error in the reported TiS₃ structure.⁵¹ 214 215 Further investigations focusing specifically on the local structure of such sulfide compounds are hence 216 planned.

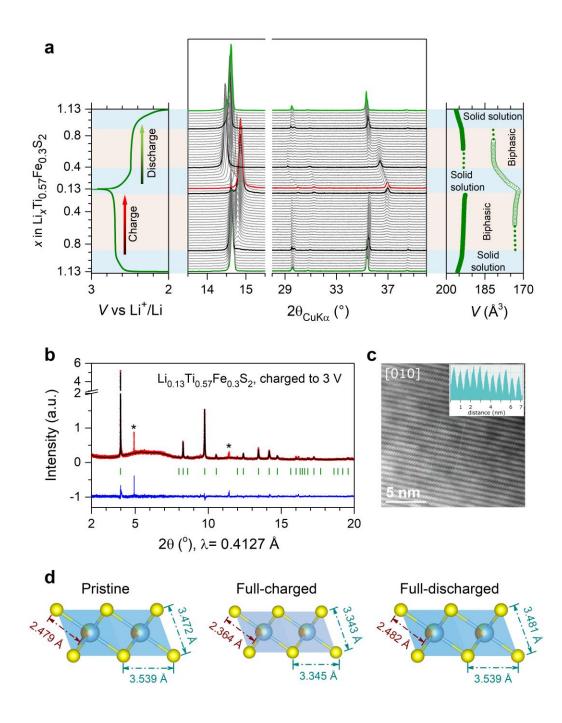


Figure 4. Structural evolution upon Li (de)intercalation. (a) Evolution of the *in situ* XRD patterns in the first cycle of a Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ /Li half-cell at a rate of C/20. The left panel shows the corresponding voltage profile and the right panel shows the evolution of the unit cell volume (V), as obtained from the Rietveld refinements of the XRD patterns. Note that the dotted lines represent extrapolations, where the XRD patterns could not be refined because of poor intensity of the peaks. (b-c) Rietveld refinement of the SXRD patterns (b) and the HAADF-STEM image (c) of the full-charged phase. The peaks denoted by * in (b) show minor Li₂TiO₃ impurity. The inset in (c) shows the HAADF intensity profile. (d) The bond-lengths observed in the pristine, fullcharged and full-discharged phase (as obtained from the Rietveld refinement of the corresponding SXRD patterns).

To grasp some insights on the charge compensation mechanism, the cationic $Fe^{2+/3+}$ redox process 225 was probed by *operando* Mössbauer spectroscopy using an electrochemical cell designed in-house.⁵² 226 Spectra were collected while charging and discharging a Li_{1,13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂/Li cell at a rate of C/70 (Figure 227 228 5). The Mössbauer spectra for pristine $Li_{1,13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$, that can nearly be fitted with four doublets (see Table S5), highlights the presence of a distribution of high-spin (HS) Fe²⁺, as already encountered for FeS 229 and various other iron (II)-based sulfides.^{53,54} The necessity of four doublets is simply due to different local 230 231 arrangements of intermixed Ti/Li/Fe cations around a given Fe site. The evolution of the spectra obtained 232 during *in situ* cycling is shown as a contour plot in Figure 5b, with the spectra analyzed using principal 233 component analysis (PCA), as described in Supplementary Note S1. All measured spectra could be 234 adequately fitted as linear-combinations of three reconstructed spectral components. As expected, the first 235 component (Comp. 1) is identical to the pristine material's spectrum. The Comp. 2 can be fitted using at 236 least two doublets, see Figure 4a and Table S5. The major one (90%) has an isomer shift of 0.48 mm/s 237 which stands between what is expected for HS Fe²⁺ and HS Fe³⁺, alike what has been seen in Fe₃S₄ and FeV₂S₄.⁵³ The second doublet with a 10 % contribution to the overall spectrum is indicative of the HS-Fe³⁺ 238 signature, as seen in NaFeS₂.⁵³ Overall, the average oxidation state of *Comp.* 2 is higher than Fe^{2+} but not 239 fully reaching Fe³⁺. Note that Comp. 2 reaches its maximum around $x_{Li} = -0.93$, just before the voltage 240 plateau. During the plateau, the Comp. 2 converts progressively to the Comp. 3 (fully-charged, 3 V), as 241 shown in Figure 4c, in which can be fitted as low-spin Fe³⁺ state in agreement with previous reports (Figure 242 4a and Table S5).⁴⁰ On discharge, the evolution of the components is reversed, except for a much lower 243 244 contribution from the *Comp.* 2 (Figure 4a). This is fully consistent with the path dependence observed above 245 with XRD. Overall, these data indicate the progressive oxidation of Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} on charge and its full 246 reduction back to Fe²⁺ on discharge.

247 Furthermore, Fe $L_{2,3}$ -edge X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectra were taken to 248 confirm the participation of Fe and are shown in Figure S6b. The spectra for the pristine material is similar to that of FeS confirming the presence of Fe²⁺.^{55,56} It enlists two main peaks corresponding to $2p_{3/2} \rightarrow 3d$ 249 (L_3) and $2p_{1/2} \rightarrow 3d$ (L_2) transitions. These peaks shift to higher energy upon charge indicating gradual 250 conversion to Fe³⁺. After discharge, the Fe $L_{2,3}$ edge is restored completely. The position and shifts of the 251 Fe $L_{2,3}$ -edge observed upon oxidation are consistent with observations of S-containing species with Fe²⁺ and 252 253 Fe^{3+} in literature,⁵⁷ indicating consistency with conclusions from Mössbauer spectroscopy. The Ti $L_{2,3}$ -edge XANES spectra were also recorded for the aforementioned samples (Figure S6c). As expected, the spectrum 254 for pristine $Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$ is identical to that of $Ti^{4+}S_2$, confirming the formal oxidation state of Ti as 4+.⁵⁸ 255 Moreover, no changes in the position of L_2 and L_3 peaks could be observed, irrespective of the sample state 256

257 of charge, hence indicating the invariance of Ti^{4+} throughout the charge/discharge cycle.⁵⁸

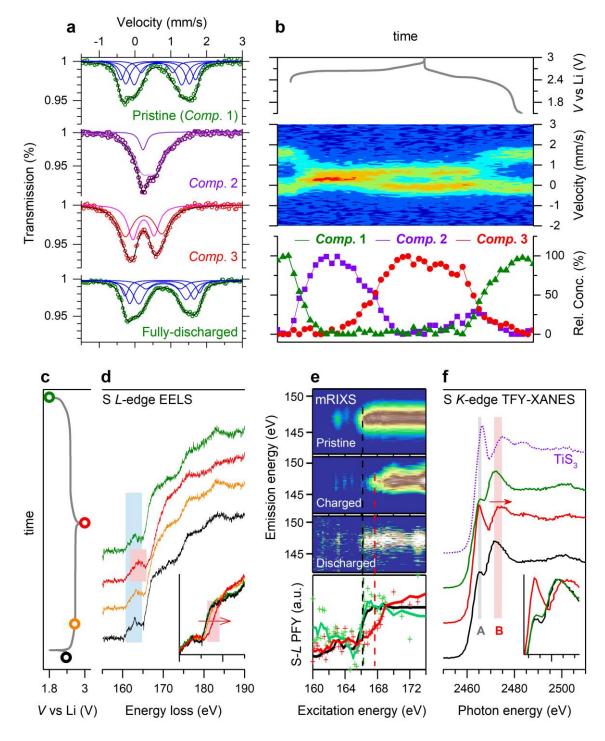




Figure 5. Spectroscopic characterizations to identify the redox processes. (a) Typical Mössbauer spectra and their deconvolution for the pristine (*comp.* 1), *comp.* 2, *comp.* 3 (fully charged) and the fully-discharged product. (b) Contour plot of evolution of the Mössbauer spectra collected during *in situ* cycling of a Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂/Li half-cell at a rate of C/70. For reference the voltage profile is shown in the top panel. The lowest panel shows the evolution of the reconstructed components during the cycling. (c-f) The EELS spectra of the S *L*-edge (d), mRIXS of the S *L*-edge with integrated PFY spectra on the bottom (e) and S *K*-edge XANES spectra (f) collected *ex situ* on the pristine (black curves), partially-charged (2.66 V, only EELS, orange curve), fully-charged (3 V, red curves) and fully-discharged phase (green curve) as shown in the voltage profile in (c).

266 To check the electrochemical activity of S within the Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ phase during the Li uptake and removal process, ex situ electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) spectra at the S $L_{2,3}$ edge were 267 collected (Figure 5d) for pristine, partially-charged (2.66 V, after removing ~0.16 Li), fully-charged (3 V) 268 269 and fully-discharged (1.8 V) samples. The spectra consist of a weak pre-edge and an intense broad edge 270 feature that correspond to a series of transitions from the S 2p core levels to unoccupied states.⁵⁹ The S $L_{2,3}$ edge for the pristine material is similar to that of FeS indicating the predominance of S^{2-} state (Figure 5d 271 272 and S7a).⁵⁹ It remains nearly alike for the partially charged sample (at 2.66 V) with the exception of minor 273 alterations that could be ascribed to a probable decrease of the Ti/Fe–S bond covalency. In contrast, for the 274 fully-charged sample (at 3 V), the S $L_{2,3}$ rising-edge shifts by ~1.6 eV towards higher energies and this is indicative of a partial oxidation of $S^{2-.55}$ However the S $L_{2,3}$ pre-edge does not show the typical peak splitting 275 seen in pyrite-FeS₂ or elemental S^0 (Figure S7b).⁵⁶ Lastly, it is worth mentioning that the initial shape as 276 277 well as the energy of the rising-edge of the S $L_{2,3}$ edge are fully recovered towards the end of the discharge, 278 further indicative of the reversibility of the sulfur redox process.

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280 To complement the EELS data that were collected locally on individual electrode particles (see Methods), we further probed the S L-edge by soft X-ray absorption spectroscopy (sXAS) performed in 281 282 fluorescence mode which provides bulk-sensitive information about sulfur redox activity. However, direct measurements of the electrodes on the S L-edge through conventional sXAS turned out to be challenging, 283 284 because of interfering background signals from the carbon present in the electrodes which contributes an 285 overwhelming background through 2nd order harmonic around 140 eV, right below the S-L signals around 286 160 eV (Figure S7c,d). We could successfully distinguish the S signals from the strong C background, by 287 employing high-efficiency mapping of resonant inelastic X-ray scattering (mRIXS), see Methods and Figure S7e for details. This advanced technique, which has emerged as a seminal technique for detecting oxygen 288 289 redox, further resolves the emitted photon energy, called emission energy, after each sXAS excitation process.⁶⁰ Figure 5e displays these S-L mRIXS signals collected from the pristine, fully-charged, and fully-290 291 discharged electrodes. The integration of all the signals within the emission energy range (142 - 151 eV) 292 provides the partial fluorescence yield (PFY) signals of the clean S-L sXAS, as summarized in the bottom 293 panel. The pristine $L_{1,13}T_{10.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$ without carbon additive displays the strongest S-L features. The 294 relatively sharp features in mRIXS at 163 and 164.1 eV excitation energies correspond well with the pre-295 edge peaks observed in EELS. The sharp features suggest these are dominated by the localized TM 3dcharacter that is hybridized with S orbitals.⁵⁹ At higher excitation energy, the continuous band-like feature 296 corresponds to the intrinsic sulfur states hybridized with TM 4s/4p orbitals. It is clear that the leading edge 297 298 of these sulfur band-like feature shifts towards high energy for over 1.2 eV in the full charged phase, in complete agreement with EELS and indicating the oxidation of sulfur states. Furthermore, the leading edge 299 300 position completely recovers after discharge, suggesting a reversible redox reaction of the sulfur.

301

302 S K-edge XANES spectra were equally collected for the aforementioned samples (except partially 303 charged) and they are reported in Figure 5e. The spectrum presents two main regions. The pre-edge feature, 304 below 2471 eV, arises generally from unoccupied S 3p/TM 3d hybridized states. Their position and intensity depend on their occupancy, the relative contribution of S and TM, and their position with respect to the core 305 306 level, thus being a general measure of covalence of the TM-S bond.⁶¹ Above this energy, the signals 307 correspond to transitions to higher states, such as S 3p/TM 4s, p or those involving S 4p, and the 308 photoionization of S atoms, involving complete ejection of the core electron to the continuum. Therefore, the position of the absorption threshold is strongly dependent on the effective nuclear charge (Z_{eff}) on S,⁶¹ 309

being a measure of redox transitions at the ligands. The spectra for pristine Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ consists in a 310 weak pre-edge at ~2465 eV (denoted as A) and a broad edge jump (denoted as B) located at ~2472 eV 311 similar to what is observed in amorphous rocksalt Li₂TiS₃ and hence characteristic of S^{2-.48} For the fully 312 313 charged state (~Li_{0.1}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂), the spectrum (red curve in Figure 5e) undergoes notable changes with an 314 increase in amplitude of the pre-edge A and a ~ 1.2 eV shift of the B edge towards higher energy, and bears resemblance to TiS_3 (dashed purple curve).⁶² Similarly, the opposite shift in the edge **B** is observed during 315 re-lithiation, as was reported for TiS₃, and VS₄.^{36,63} The 1.2 eV shift in **B** is therefore a clear indication of 316 the oxidation of S²⁻ into Sⁿ⁻, n < 2. Similarly, the increase in intensity of pre-edge A is indicative of the 317 318 increase in density of unoccupied states just above the Fermi level with an S character, in agreement with 319 the expectation that the redox change is compensated by S 3p/Fe 3d electrons. The shift of the main 320 absorption edge also suggests that this compensation, and the resulting states, have a significant S character. 321 This unambiguously confirms the participation of S in the overall electrochemical activity of $Li_{1,13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$ together with its reversibility since the S K-edge XANES spectra of the fully-discharged 322 323 and pristine samples nearly superimpose (Figure S6d).

324 To confirm the above observations S 2p core X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were also taken and are shown in Figure S6e. Clear variations of the spectra are observed upon charging-325 326 discharging the samples. The S $2p_{3/2-1/2}$ XPS core spectrum can be fitted with a single doublet (160.7 - 161.9 327 eV) attributable to S^{2-} for the pristine material, as in the TiS₂ reference.⁶⁴ As the sample gets oxidized, the 328 spectrum markedly changes, with namely the appearance of one extra doublet at higher binding energies 329 (161.8 - 163.0 eV), which is indicative of the presence of oxidized S^{n-} (n < 2), in light of early previous 330 studies on TiS₃ that is well-known to contain partially oxidized sulfur.^{32,64} On discharge, the XPS spectrum 331 is almost restored to the pristine-like state, confirming the reversibility of the anionic redox process.

332 At this stage, mindful of the strong involvement of anionic redox in the charge compensation 333 mechanism of $Li_{1,13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$, the next legitimate question pertains to the practicability of anionic redox 334 in sulfides. Using these newly designed Li-rich sulfides as model compounds, we investigated whether some of the practical issues (large voltage hysteresis, sluggish kinetics and gradual voltage fade) that have so far 335 plagued the commercialization of analogous Li-rich layered oxides showing anionic redox activity^{12,6}, still 336 337 persist when oxygen is replaced by sulfur. To assess the practical figures of merit in Li-rich sulfides, we 338 first performed a galvanostatic intermittent titration technique (GITT) experiment (Figure 6a) after initial 339 seven cycles to stabilize the voltage profile. $Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$ shows the disappearance of voltage hysteresis 340 in the open-circuit voltage (OCV) throughout the cycle (only ~30 mV gap remains after just 30 mins of relaxation). This is a significantly better scenario than in Li-rich NMC (Li_{1.2}Ni_{0.13}Mn_{0.54}Co_{0.13}O₂), where a 341 severe OCV hysteresis up to 300 mV has been reported and further shown to be associated with oxygen 342 redox (Figure 6b).¹⁴ This performance is also better than the $\sim 100 \text{ mV OCV}$ hysteresis in 4d metal-based 343 344 $Li_2Ru_{0.75}Sn_{0.25}O_3$ and approaches the favorable hysteresis-free situation experienced in 5d metal-based β -Li₂IrO₃.^{13,16} This observation clearly highlights that voltage hysteresis can be effectively mitigated by tuning 345 346 the ligand, and not just by choosing appropriate transition metals. The hysteresis was further studied by 347 progressive opening of voltage-windows during charge in subsequent cycles and the voltage profiles are 348 summarized in Figure 6c. Increasing the voltage cut-off does not lead to any noticeable increase in voltage hysteresis. This contrasts with similar experiments on Li-rich NMC showing an onset of large hysteresis 349 350 upon full charging accompanied with lowering of the discharge potential around mid-SoCs (Figure S8a). Furthermore, the corresponding dQ/dV curves (in the inset, Figure 6c) reveal that irrespective of upper cut-351 off of charging voltage, in discharge the oxidative capacities are mostly recovered at ~2.5 V, therefore not 352 353 triggering any voltage hysteresis. This is quite contrary to Li-rich NMC, where oxidative capacities obtained from anionic redox (i.e., charging above ~4.1 V) are only recovered partially at similar voltage upon discharge (down to ~4 V). Further discharge to a lower voltage (below ~3.6 V) is necessary to regain the remaining capacity, as the reduction of the oxidized O^{n-} species is split between high and low voltages, causing a large voltage hysteresis (Figure S8b).¹⁴

358 Concerning the next issue of kinetics, we have previously shown how oxygen redox displays sluggish kinetics.^{13,14} Hence, to check the same in sulfides, cell resistance was deduced from the voltage 359 drop during the first 10 s of the relaxation steps of the GITT experiment (Figure 6b). As revealed for 360 361 $Li_{1,13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$, the electrochemical resistance remains quite low throughout the whole cycle (Figure 6d). 362 Whereas for Li-rich NMC, the resistance is significantly larger at all SoCs and increases at low and high SoCs, which corresponds to the regions involving oxygen redox.¹⁴ Furthermore, electrochemical impedance 363 spectra (EIS) were collected at different SoCs of Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂, after each relaxation step during the 364 365 GITT experiment and the evolution of the EIS Nyquist plots is shown in Figure S9a,b. The charge-transfer resistance, located in the mid-frequency regime of the spectra (characteristic frequency around 10 to 1 Hz), 366 367 remains very small and nearly constant throughout the cycle, irrespective of whether it is cationic or anionic redox regime, as opposed to Li-rich oxides where the resistance builds up drastically with deeper oxidation 368 of oxygen.^{12,14} This clearly highlights the positive attribute of Li-rich sulfides concerning kinetics. The fast 369 kinetics was further confirmed with $Li_1Ti_{0.5}Fe_{0.5}S_2$ (y = 0.5) composition, which shows similar charge 370 transfer resistance and consequently similar cycling and rate performance (Figure S9c,d), despite having a 371 372 higher proportion of cationic redox capacity. Lastly, regarding the critical issue of voltage fade, we found 373 that it still afflicts Li-rich sulfides, though to a much lower extent, as shown in Figure 6e. The voltage fade 374 for Li_{1,13}Ti_{0,57}Fe_{0,3}S₂ can be divided in two regimes, starting first with a well-pronounced decrease from 2nd cycle to the 7th (a drop of ~35 mV) followed by a stabilization afterwards to reach an overall drop of ~40 375 mV after 60 cycles (the maximum we have cycled). This again positively contrasts with Li-rich NMC that 376 377 shows a nearly continuous voltage fade upon cycling with an accumulated drop of ~150 mV after 60 cycles. 378 Overall, moving from oxygen to sulfur as the ligand turns out to be a correct strategy to partially mitigate the practical bottlenecks of anionic redox. However, we need to keep in mind that this comes at the expense 379 380 of the overall energy density (Figure 6f) because of lower potential and higher molecular weight of sulfur. 381 A compromise could consist in combining the energy advantage of oxygen redox with the practicability of 382 sulfur redox. This task is not trivial bearing in mind the experienced difficulty in preparing 3d-metal-based oxysulfides. 383

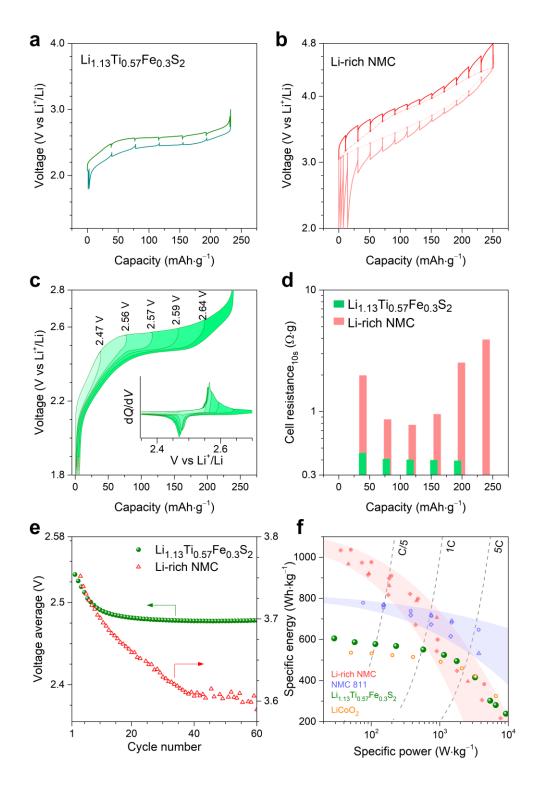




Figure 6. Li-rich layered sulfide as a model material to study the practicability of anionic redox. (a) Voltage profile of Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ in a two-electrode cell in the 8th cycle, recorded with a GITT protocol (C/5 rate with 30 min rests for equilibration).
 (b) Voltage profile of Li-rich NMC (Li_{1.2}Ni_{0.13}Mn_{0.54}Co_{0.13}O₂) in a three-electrode cell in the 4th cycle, recorded with a GITT protocol (40 mA·g⁻¹ pulses with 4 h rests for equilibration). (c) Voltage profiles obtained from the charge-window opening experiment (starting from 8th cycle). Inset shows the corresponding dQ/dV profiles. (d) Cell's electrochemical resistance (during charging) estimated simply by Ohm's law from the voltage drop in first 10 s of rest from the previous GITT experiment in (a). (e) Average voltage during long cycling of Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ and Li-rich NMC in Li-half cells. In each cycle, the average voltage is defined as the

mean of the average charge and discharge voltages that and was calculated by dividing the energy with the capacity obtained. (f)

Ragone plots of Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ and comparison with Li-rich NMC and Li-stoichiometric NMC (LiNi_{0.8}Mn_{0.1}Co_{0.1}O₂). Only values at material-level are considered and values for the NMC-811 and the Li-rich NMC are adapted from *Reference*¹². LiCoO₂ is also

394 included in the comparison and the Li-rich layered sulfide appears at par with it.

included in the comparison and the Li-rich layered suffice appears at par with it.

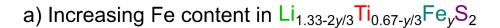
396 Discussion

We have shown the feasibility, by partially substituting Ti⁴⁺/Li⁺ belonging in the metal layers of 397 398 $Li_{1.33}Ti_{0.67}S_3$ (commonly written Li_2TiS_3) with Fe²⁺, to produce $Li_{1.33-2y/3}Ti_{0.67-y/3}Fe_yS_2$ phases showing 399 electrochemical activity due to cumulated cationic (Fe^{2+/3+}) and anionic (S²⁻ / Sⁿ⁻, n < 2) redox processes. 400 Alike the Li-rich layered oxides having d^0 metals (Li₂TiO₃, etc...), we found the feasibility to trigger Li 401 electrochemical activity in Li-rich layered sulfides having d^0 metals by the injection of metal substituents. 402 This does not come as a total surprise as such metal substitution modifies the U over Δ competition, so that 403 it falls within the domain to trigger reversible anionic redox activity as established from theoretical 404 calculations.⁴¹ The anionic redox activity upon oxidation was spectroscopically confirmed in 405 Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂ via clear energy shifts in the S L_{2,3}-edge EELS and XANES spectra as well as the onset of 406 a doublet signal in the S $2p_{3/2-1/2}$ XPS core spectra. Structure-wise on the other hand, our XRD and EELS 407 evidence did not suggest the local formation of very short S-S dimers (like in pyrites), but more investigations focusing on the local structure are needed to unequivocally rule this out. For comparing with 408 409 oxides, let's recall that the XPS fingerprint of anionic redox activity in oxides was also the appearance of a 410 new component at slightly higher binding energy (531.5 eV) in the O 1s XPS core spectra that we assigned 411 to O^{n-} (n < 2).¹⁴⁻¹⁶ Interestingly, the binding energy of this component was independent of the structure and composition as seen in various Li-rich oxides that show anionic redox activity, with or without evidences 412 413 of O-O shortening. This observation indicates that although XPS features have been widely used as the 414 spectroscopic signature of the anionic redox activity in various materials, caution has to be exercised when 415 interpreting XPS spectra.

Besides, we found that $Li_{1.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$ can deliver capacities as high as 245 mAh·g⁻¹ with a near-416 zero irreversible capacity during the first cycle as compared to ~0.2 Li for Li-rich 3d metal-based oxides 417 418 (Figure S8c,d). This is consistent not only with the absence of cationic migration in sulfides, in contrast to 419 some of the analogous oxides, but also with less severe changes observed between the first charge-discharge 420 voltage profiles in $Li_{1,13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$ as opposed to Li-rich NMCs that show a staircase charging curve 421 drastically changing to a S-shaped discharging curve. Lastly, part of the initial irreversibility in oxides is associated to a small amount of oxygen release from the surface, either directly as O₂ gas or indirectly by 422 reacting with the electrolyte.^{3,65} This is quite unlikely to occur with S which is a softer element as compared 423 to O, therefore showing less reactivity and greater stability for the same degree of electrochemical oxidation. 424

425 We noted in the dO/dV profile (recall Figure 3b) a systematic shift to lower potentials of the peaks 426 corresponding to concomitant cationic and anionic redox processes with increasing Fe-content in $Li_{1,33-}$ 427 $_{2\nu/3}$ Ti_{0.67- $\nu/3$}Fe_vS₂, while for instance the position of the peaks was found to remain independent of Sn substitution in the $Li_2Ru_{1-\nu}Sn_{\nu}O_3$ series showing well-decoupled cationic and anionic redox.¹⁵ To understand 428 429 this behaviour, we calculated the spin-projected density of states (pDOS) for y = 0, 0.25 and 0.5 (these compositions were chosen for ease of computation, see Methods) and plotted in Figure 7a. The electronic 430 431 structure of the parent $Li_{1,33}Ti_{0.67}S_2$ displays a charge transfer gap between the empty Ti d band (in red), split by the crystal field, and the S band (in purple) formed of non-bonding S 3p states (denoted as $|S_{3p}\rangle$) that lies 432 above the Ti-S bonding states. Fe²⁺ substitution leads to the introduction of a partially filled d band (having 433 six electrons), which is split by d-d Coulomb repulsion (introduced by a correction term U = 1.9 eV) into a 434 435 deep-lying Lower Hubbard band (LHB), with five spin-up electrons, and an Upper Hubbard Band (UHB)

- 436 with one spin-down electron. This is consistent with the experimentally observed HS Fe^{2+} from Mössbauer
- 437 spectroscopy. The occupied states of the UHB lie above the $|S_{3p}|$ states. As the Fe content increases, the
- 438 number of these UHB states increases. If we take as a reference the energy (E_{ref}) of states that are not
- 439 expected to be directly affected by the Fe substitution, such as either the Ti_{2g}^* that is close to the Fermi
- 440 level (Figure 7a) or the S 3*s* core levels that are non-bonding and very deep in energy (see Figure S10a), we
- 441 observe that the highest occupied states are rising in energy with Fe content as indicated by the raising of442 the Fermi level. This explains the experimental observation of voltage decrease with gradual Fe
- 442 the Fermi level. This explan
- 443 introduction.
- Next we asked whether the experimentally observed electronic and structural changes upon Li removal could be supported by monitoring the evolution of pDOS and the corresponding theoretical S–S distances. This is answered by calculating the pDOS of $\text{Li}_x\text{Ti}_{0.58}\text{Fe}_{0.25}\text{S}_2$ (1.17 > x_{Li} > 0.83) that is summarized in Figure 7b. At the beginning of charge (1.17 > x_{Li} > 0.83), the depletion of the Fe-UHB near the Fermi level indicates that Fe gets oxidized, while the average S–S distance remains unaffected and thus confirming
- that S acts as a spectator. This situation drastically changes upon further oxidation $(0.83 > x_{Li} > 0.17)$ where
- 450 the pDOS indicates the depletion of the S band near the Fermi level, which implies S undergoes partial
- 451 oxidation. Over this composition range, the small decrease in some of the calculated S–S distances (marked
- 452 in purple background in the histograms) and the progressive closing of the band gap suggests that the holes
- $\label{eq:states} 453 \qquad \text{are delocalized over the S network through Fe-S interaction.} The participation of S to the states right above$
- the Fermi level significantly increased upon oxidation, consistent with the increase in pre-edge intensity
- 455 observed by S *K*-edge XAS (Figure 5f).



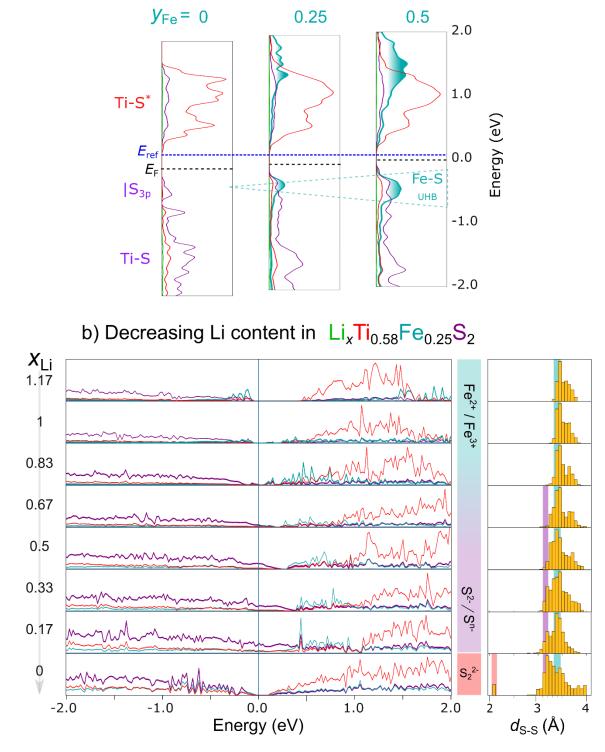


Figure 7. Correlating the experimental observations in Li_{1.33-2y/3}Ti_{0.67-y/3}Fe_yS₂ with theoretical calculations. (a) Evolution of pDOS with increasing Fe content. Li, Ti, Fe and S contributions to bands are colored in light green, red, cyan and purple, respectively (b) Evolution of pDOS of Li_{1.17}Ti_{0.58}Fe_{0.25}S₂ with Li-removal. The panel in middle indicates the deduced redox processes. The corresponding theoretically obtained S–S distances are shown in the histograms at right. The distances were chosen using a distance cut-off of 4 Å, without renormalization.

462 At high states of charge, the top of the highly dispersed sulfur band gets raised above the bottom of 463 the empty Fe-UHB leading to electronic instability. This scenario triggers, if we simulate complete Li 464 removal $(x_{\rm Li} \sim 0)$, a reorganization of the network through the formation of true S–S dimers with a calculated 465 bond length of ~2.1 Å (red background in the histogram). However, experimentally, full Li depletion is not observed since our fully oxidized sample still contains 0.13 Li⁺ (~ Li_{0.13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S₂). In short, the 466 467 participation of S in the redox process could unambiguously be confirmed theoretically, hence explaining 468 the measured shortening of the S-S distances. However, the predicted dimerization at full charge could not 469 be confirmed experimentally because the fully delithiated phase was not obtained electrochemically. This 470 finding probably explains the excellent cycling reversibility of $Li_{1,33-2\sqrt{3}}Ti_{0.67-\sqrt{3}}Fe_{y}S_{2}$, as opposed to TiS₃, where the cleavage of the S-S dimers leads to huge rearrangements of the crystal structure, resulting to rapid 471 capacity fading with cycling.³⁰⁻³² Nevertheless, the question of $(S_2)^{2-}$ vs. S^{n-} (n < 2) upon complete 472 473 delithiation remains to be fully elucidated, which will likely trigger more detailed characterizations and 474 theoretical calculations on various sulfide materials in the future.

475 In summary, a new class of Li-rich layered sulfides $Li_{1,33-2\nu/3}Ti_{0,67-\nu/3}Fe_{\nu}S_{2}$ have been designed and studied for their electrochemical behaviour as cathode materials. Within this series, the phase 476 $Li_{1,13}Ti_{0.57}Fe_{0.3}S_2$ offers the largest reversible capacity (245 mAh·g⁻¹) and we have shown, via 477 478 complementary Mössbauer, XANES, EELS, mRIXS and XPS spectroscopies, that this capacity mainly 479 originates from sulfur redox besides the cationic redox of Fe. When benchmarking against Li-rich NMCs, 480 this phase present several positive attributes such as (i) a nearly zero irreversible capacity during the initial cycle, (ii) an overall voltage fade as low as 40 mV even after 60 cycles and (iii) low voltage hysteresis (35 481 482 mV), along with fast kinetics, as compared to Li-rich NMC showing an irreversibility of ~0.2 Li, a voltage fade of 150 mV and a hysteresis of 300 mV besides sluggish kinetics. Energy-wise, these Li-rich layered 483 sulfide positive electrodes display a specific energy of ~600 Wh kg^{-1} at the material-level while being 484 composed of earth-abundant elements (3d metals only). This is much lower than the ~1000 Wh kg⁻¹ 485 486 obtained for Li-rich NMC and thus they may not offer any real-world competitiveness against oxide 487 electrodes furthermore due to their low operating potential as well as the practical issues with the handling 488 of sulfides. Nevertheless, we believe that they could serve as excellent 'model' electrodes to study the 489 general properties of anionic redox chemistry and in exploring kinetics, especially via the realization of S-490 based solid-state batteries that can enable playing with temperature as an extra dimension. Both low 491 hysteresis and structural integrity upon Li (de)intercalation are promising assets to design next-generation 492 cathodes provided we can overcome the energy density penalty pertaining to the use of sulfur as a ligand. 493 Preparing 3d-metal oxysulfides is an option if we ever overcome their synthesis difficulties. The door is 494 wide-open for chemists to take forward this new dimension of exploring the effect of the ligand in enhancing 495 the holistic performances of anionic redox in search for practical high-energy batteries.

496 Experimental Section

497 Synthesis. Li_{1.33-2y/3}Ti_{0.67-y/3}Fe_yS₂ samples were prepared by solid-state reaction of stoichiometric amounts of Li₂S (Alfa Aesar,

498 99.9%), TiS₂ (Sigma Aldrich, 99.9%) and FeS (Alfa Aesar, 99%). Homogeneously mixed and hand-grinded precursor powders 499 were filled in guartz tubes in an Ar-filled glovebox followed by sealing the tubes under vacuum (~ 10^{-5} mbar). The sealed tubes

500 were subsequently annealed at 750 °C for 36 h followed by guenching in water. The as-prepared samples were collected inside a

501 glovebox and hand-grinded prior to further use. In the whole process, air contact was avoided and subsequent processing was done

- 502 in an Ar-filled glovebox. TiS₃, used as a reference for XAS, was prepared similarly, by reacting TiS₂ and elemental S (15 wt%
- 503 extra), in a vacuum sealed quartz tube at 550 °C, followed by cooling slowly.

Structural Characterization. Synchrotron X-ray powder diffraction (SXRD) patterns were collected at the 11-BM beamline of the Advanced Photon Source (APS), Argonne National Laboratory. All SXRD data were collected in transmission mode with $\lambda =$ 0.4127 Å, with the powder sealed in a quartz capillary of 0.7 mm diameter. Operando and *in situ* X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) was performed in an airtight electrochemical cell equipped with a Be window. XRD patterns were recorded in reflection mode in Bragg–Brentano geometry using a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer equipped with a Cu-K_{α} X-ray source ($\lambda_1 = 1.54056$ Å, $\lambda_2 =$ 1.54439 Å) and a LynxEye detector. The refinements of the patterns were done using the Rietveld method⁶⁶ as implemented in the FullProf program⁶⁷.

511 **Electrochemical characterization.** Li_{1,33-2 $\nu/3$}Ti_{0.67- $\nu/3$}Fe_vS₂ samples were cycled in galvanostatic mode in Li half-cells assembled 512 in Swagelok-type cells. The cathode materials were mixed with 20 wt% conductive carbon Super-P by hand-grinding for 5 min 513 prior to cycling (Figure S2d inset). LP30 (1M LiPF₆ in ethylene carbonate/dimethyl carbonate in 1:1 weight ratio) was used as the 514 electrolyte and was soaked in a Whatman GF/D borosilicate glass fiber membrane that was used as separator. Typical loadings of 515 10 mg of active materials were used and metallic Li was used as the negative electrode. The cells were assembled in an Ar-filled 516 glovebox and were cycled at a C/20 rate between 1.8 V and 3 V if not specified otherwise. Charged/discharged samples from the 517 Swagelok cells were recovered for ex situ characterizations by disassembling the cells inside glovebox, rinsed thoroughly with 518 anhydrous DMC and dried under vacuum. All electrochemical cycling and EIS measurements (in 10 mHz - 200 kHz frequency 519 range applying a 10 mV sinusoidal wave) were performed with BioLogic potentiostats.

520 Mössbauer spectroscopy. Room-temperature ⁵⁷Fe Mössbauer spectra were recorded in transmission geometry in the constant 521 acceleration mode and with a ⁵⁷Co(Rh) source with a nominal activity of 370 MBq. The velocity scale (±4 mms⁻¹) was calibrated 522 at room temperature with α -Fe foil. The *in situ* cell was prepared with 32 mg.cm⁻² of active material mixed with 8 mg of carbon 523 black. The hyperfine parameters IS (isomer shift) and QS (quadrupole splitting) were determined by fitting Lorentzian lines to the 524 experimental data. The isomer shifts values are calculated with respect to that of α -Fe standard at room temperature. The obtained 525 operando spectra were fitted using a statistical method based on Principal Component Analysis (PCA). This approach is a 526 chemometric factor analysis tool able to determine the minimal particular structures in multivariate spectral data sets. Once the 527 number of principal components is determined by PCA, a Multivariate Curve Resolution-Alternating Least Squares (MCR-ALS) 528 algorithm is used for the stepwise reconstruction of the pure spectral components which are necessary for interpreting the whole 529 multiset of operando Mössbauer spectra.68

Energy loss spectra (EELS). The sample was prepared in an Ar-filled glove box by crushing the crystals in a mortar in DMC and
 depositing drops of the suspension onto holey carbon grids. The samples were transported to the transmission electron microscope
 (TEM) column while completely avoiding contact with air. High angle annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy
 (HAADF-STEM) images and EELS spectra were obtained with a FEI Titan G3 electron microscope operated at 120 kV and
 equipped with a monochromator and a Gatan Enfinium ER spectrometer. Energy resolution measured by full width at half maximum
 of the zero loss peak is 0.15 eV.

- X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS). S K-edge, Fe L-edge and Ti L-edge X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy (XANES)
 measurements were performed at 4-ID-C beamline of APS at Argonne National Laboratory. Spectra were recorded simultaneously
 under both the total electron yield (TEY) mode from the sample photocurrent at ~10⁻⁹ Torr and total fluorescence yield (TFY) mode
 using a silicon drift diode detector at a spectral resolution of ~0.2 eV, with a 2 s dwell time. The energy scales of the spectra were
 calibrated with the references of Mo metal, Fe metal and SrTiO₃ measured simultaneously, for S, Fe and Ti edges, respectively.
 Both TEY and TFY spectra produces similar spectra, and hence only TFY spectra (more bulk sensitive) has been reported here.
- 542 Soft X-ray absorption spectroscopy (sXAS) and mapping of resonant inelastic X-ray scattering (mRIXS). The S *L*-edge sXAS
 543 and mRIXS experiments were performed in the iRIXS endstation of beamline 8.0.1 at the Advanced Light Source (ALS) of

Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory.⁶⁹ The pristine powder and cycled electrodes were mounted in high purity Ar glove box and transferred into the experimental vacuum chamber through a home-made kit to avoid any air exposure. The experimental energy resolution of sXAS is better than 0.1 eV without considering the intrinsic core hole broadening (~0.2 eV). The energy resolution along the emission energy in mRIXS is about 0.2 eV,⁶⁹ which is sufficient for separating the intrinsic S-*L* signals from the strong C-*K* (2nd order) background that are different for about 10 eV. The X-ray exposure area on the samples were kept moving throughout the mRIXS experiments to avoid irradiation damage.

X-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS). XPS spectra were collected on a sample (analyzed area = $300 \times 700 \ \mu\text{m}^2$) with a Kratos Axis Ultra spectrometer, using focused monochromatic Al K α radiation ($hv = 1.4866 \ \text{keV}$). The pressure in the analysis chamber was around 5×10^{-9} mbar. The binding energy scale was calibrated using the C 1*s* peak at 285.0 eV from the invariably present hydrocarbon contamination (for the pristine sample), and using the S^{2–} position of the S $2p_{3/2}$ at 160.7 eV for a better accuracy (for the other cycled samples). Peaks were recorded with constant pass energy of 20 eV. Core peaks were analyzed using a nonlinear Shirley-type background.⁷⁰ The peak positions and areas were optimized by a weighted least-squares fitting method using 70 % Gaussian, 30 % Lorentzian line shapes. Quantification was performed on the basis of Scofield's relative sensitivity factors.⁷¹

557 Theoretical calculations. Starting from a 221 supercell of Li₂TiS₃ obtained from SXRD refinement, with honeycomb ordering of 558 Li/Ti in the metallic layer, we achieved a composition of Li_{1.1}Ti_{0.58}Fe_{0.25}S₂ (resp. Li₁Ti_{0.5}Fe_{0.5}S₂) by replacing 2 Li (resp. 4) and 1 559 Ti (resp. 2) atoms by Fe atoms. The atoms to replace were chosen to minimize the total Madelung energy of the final structure. To 560 delithiate, we iteratively removed the Li atoms according to their Madelung energy (assuming integer oxidation state for every ion), using the Python Material Genome library.⁷² For each Li content, structures were then relaxed using the Vienna Ab-Initio Simulation 561 562 Package using ultra-soft PAW pseudo potentials and the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof functional with a generalized gradient approximation.^{73,74} We added D3 correction to account for the van der Waals interaction⁷⁵ as well as a $U_{\text{eff}} = 1.9$ eV to account for 563 electron-electron interactions on Fe.⁷⁶ The forces on the atoms were converged to 10³ eVÅ⁻¹ with a plane-wave energy cut-off of 564 565 600 eV and a well converged set of Kpoints.

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