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# Highly reversible Mg metal anodes enabled by interfacial liquid metal engineering for high-energy Mg-S batteries



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## ABSTRACT

Metallic Mg is a promising anode material for rechargeable magnesium-ion batteries (MIBs) due to its low electrochemical potential and high theoretical capacity. However, low  $\mathrm{Mg^{2^+}}$  conductivity on the interface of Mg electrode caused by liquid electrolyte passivation hinders its development. In addition, whether Mg dendrites can be formed in Mg metal anodes is controversial. Herein, we find that Mg dendrites can be formed in Mg metal anodes. The diameter of most Mg dendrites is below 100 nm, which is much smaller than Li and Na dendrites. The nanoscale Mg dendrites can easily pierce through the separators with large pore size and cause the internal short circuit of batteries. A simple strategy is proposed to address the issues of Mg metal anodes by painting a liquid metal Ga layer on Mg foil. Metallic Ga can spontaneously alloy with metallic Mg to form a stable,  $\mathrm{Mg^{2^+}}$ -conductive, corrosive-resistant, and magnesiophilic  $\mathrm{Ga_5Mg_2}$  alloy layer. Under the regulation of the  $\mathrm{Ga_5Mg_2}$  alloy layer, a highly reversible, stable, and dendrite-free Mg metal anode is obtained. Enhanced electrochemical performance is achieved both in symmetric cells and Mg-S full cells. This study paves the way for high-energy Mg-metal batteries.

## 1. Introduction

Lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) are considered one of the most successful energy storage devices. To date, LIBs have been widely applied in many fields such as electric vehicles, smart grids, electronic products, and energy storage stations [1–3]. However, the uneven distribution and scarcity of lithium sources in the earth crust can not only increase the cost of LIBs but also hinder their worldwide application [4,5]. To address this issue, many new battery systems have been put forward as candidates in the past several years, including sodium-ion batteries, potassium-ion batteries, calcium-ion batteries, magnesium-ion batteries (MIBs), aluminum-ion batteries, iron-ion batteries, and zinc-ion batteries [6–11].

MIBs are an attractive battery system due to the large abundance and environmental friendliness of magnesium element [12–15]. Metallic Mg is believed as a promising anode material for MIBs because of its high theoretical capacity (3833 mAh cm<sup>-3</sup> or 2206 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>) and low electrochemical potential (–2.37 V vs. SHE) [16–19]. Beside, metallic Mg is less reactive than metallic Li and Na, enabling it safer [20]. In addition, Mg metal anodes can pair with Mg-free cathodes such S,  $O_2$ , and  $CO_2$  to

construct high-energy Mg-metal batteries [21–23]. However, many issues restrict the practical application of Mg metal anodes. For example, Mg metal anodes can be easily corroded by liquid electrolytes due to its low electrochemical potential [24,25]. In addition, the formed passivation film on Mg metal anodes in most conventional electrolytes has poor Mg<sup>2+</sup> conductivity, resulting in irreversible Mg plating/stripping process and large overpotential of batteries [26]. Furthermore, the Mg dendrite issue has been debatable until now [27–35].

Recently, various strategies have been put forward to address the interface issue of Mg metal anodes, such as adding electrolyte additives [36–40], fabricating novel electrolytes [41,42], designing artificial interface [43–55], constructing three-dimensional magnesiophilic scaffolds [56–58], theoretical research [59], exploring novel characterization methods [60], using Mg-based alloy anodes instead of pure Mg metal anodes [61,62], and replacing corrosive liquid electrolytes with solid-state electrolytes [63]. Although obvious progress has been achieved, the modification strategies for Mg metal anodes are still limited compared with those for Li metal anodes because most strategies are based on modifying electrolytes. So it is necessary and meaningful to develop novel methods to improve the stability of Mg metal anodes.

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Ga-based liquid metals such as metallic Ga, GaIn alloy, GaInSn alloy, and GaInSnZn alloy have been largely studied due to their large surface tension, superior electronic/thermal conductivity, self-healing ability, good fluidity, low melting point, and so on [64]. Recently, Ga-based liquid metals have exhibited large potential in addressing the issues of metal anodes [65,66]. However, it is still unclear whether Ga-based liquid metals can improve the stability of Mg metal anodes.

Herein, we proposed a novel strategy to boost the stability of Mg metal anodes by simply coating a thin liquid metal Ga layer on Mg foil. After coating, the liquid metal Ga layer could immediately alloy with the underneath metallic Mg to form a Ga5Mg2 alloy layer at room temperature. The strategy proposed here exhibits several merits. First, the liquid metal coating method was simple. Second, the Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub> alloy layer could be tightly coated on the surface of Mg foil, without shedding even under bending, folding, heating, and plating/stripping. Third, the Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub> alloy layer had lower chemical reactivity than pure Mg foil, and it could act as a protective layer for the underneath Mg foil to relieve the interfacial corrosion and promote the reversible Mg plating/stripping. Fourth, Ga5Mg2 alloy was a mixed ion/electron conductor, which could enable fast electrochemical kinetics on the interface. In Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub> compound, theoretical calculation indicated that the Mg cations transferred electrons around the Ga atoms, and covalent bonds were formed between Mg-Ga atoms [67]. The transfer of Mg atoms to the Mg-Ga bond was about 2.0 e- per atom. In addition, Ga5Mg2 had a large density of states at the Fermi level, which indicated a superior metallic property. So Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub> alloy owned fast electron transport kinetics and electron conductivity. Theoretical calculation also revealed Ga5Mg2 alloy had a low diffusion energy barrier of 1.91 and 2.55 eV for intra-layer and cross-layer diffusion, indicating a fast  $\rm Mg^{2+}$  diffusion ability. Fifth, the phase composition of  $\rm Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy layer could keep stable during the Mg plating/stripping process. Sixth,  $\rm Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy exhibited a certain magnesiophilicity due to the existence of magnesiophilic Ga sites, which could reduce the nucleation barrier and homogenize  $\rm Mg^{2+}$  flux during the Mg plating/stripping process, resulting in uniform and dendrite-free Mg deposition.

## 2. Experimental section

#### 2.1. Chemicals and materials

Mg foil (50  $\mu$ m in thickness) was purchased from Xinwang Scientific Research Metal Materials Co., Ltd., China. Liquid metal Ga was purchased from Yunnan Zhongxuan Liquid Metal Technology Co., Ltd., China. Stainless steel foil (SSF, Q235, 30  $\mu$ m in thickness) was bought from Xinwang Scientific Research Metal Materials Co., Ltd., China. All the experiments were proceed at room temperature.

## 2.2. Preparation of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub> alloy coated Mg foil (Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg)

First, solid-state metallic Ga was heated to be liquid state using a hot plate. Then the Mg foil was polished by a sandpaper to remove the surface natural passivation layer. Afterwards, the polished Mg foil was cleaned by an air-laid paper to remove the surface impurities. Subsequently, liquid-state Ga was quickly and uniformly coated on the

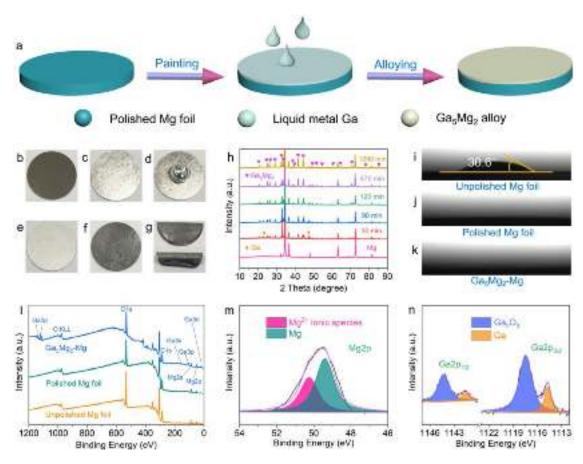


Fig. 1. (a) A schematic showing the fabrication process of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg. (b) A photograph of unpolished Mg foil with a diameter of 16 mm. (c) A photograph of polished Mg foil. (d) A photograph after dropping a drop of liquid-state Ga on polished Mg foil. (e) A photograph after painting liquid-state Ga on polished Mg foil. (f) A photograph of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg. (g) A photograph showing the bendable and foldable  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg. (h) XRD patterns of polished Mg foil and liquid metal Ga coated Mg foil after different alloying time. (i–k) Contact angle of liquid electrolyte on unpolished Mg foil, polished Mg foil, and  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg, respectively. (l) XPS full spectra of unpolished Mg foil, polished Mg foil, polished Mg foil, and  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg. (m) High-resolution XPS spectra of Mg2p in  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg. (n) High-resolution XPS spectra of  $Ga_2$  in  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg.

surface of the polished Mg foil using a small brush. Then the liquid metal coated Mg foil was immediately transferred into the Ar-filled glove box ( $O_2$ <0.01 ppm,  $H_2O$ <0.01 ppm) to proceed the alloying reaction. Finally, the  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg was obtained after spontaneously alloying for 24 h. The mass loading of liquid metal Ga on Mg foil was 0.5–0.8 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>.

## 2.3. Preparation of Ketjen black/S (KB/S) composite

The KB/S composite was prepared by a melt-diffusion method. First, KB and S powders (4:6 in mass ratio) were mixed and grounded in an agate mortar for 30 min. Then the mixture was heated at 155  $^{\circ}$ C for 10 h in an Ar atmosphere. After cooling down, the KB/S composite was obtained.

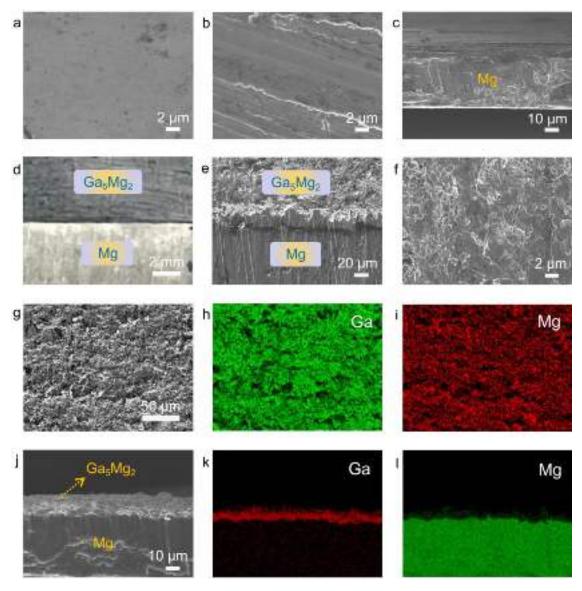
## 2.4. Sample characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD, MiniFlex 600, Cu-K $\alpha$  radiation, Japan) was performed to investigate the phase compositions and changes of sam-

ples. Scanning electron microscope (SEM, JSM-7610F, Japan) was utilized to observe the morphology of samples. Energy dispersive spectrometer (X-max, England) was used to obtain the energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) mapping of elements in samples. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Axis Supra, Al-K $\alpha$  source, Japan) was used to probe the chemical states of elements in samples. Contact angle measurement instrument (JC2000D1, China) was utilized to observe the contact angle between liquid electrolyte and samples.

## 2.5. Electrochemical measurements

2032-type coin cells were used to investigate the electrochemical performance of samples. The cells were assembled in an Ar-filled glove box ( $O_2$ <0.01 ppm,  $H_2O$ <0.01 ppm). A piece of glass fiber film (Whatman) sandwiched between two pieces of polyethylene films (Celgard) was utilized as the separator. 0.5 M Mg(TFSI)<sub>2</sub> in DME with 20 wt% 1-methoxy-2-propylamine was used as the liquid electrolyte. The electrolyte was prepared according to a previous report [37]. 1-methoxy-2-propylamine was a chelant, which could reduce the side reactions on Mg



**Fig. 2.** (a, b) Top-view SEM images of unpolished Mg foil and polished Mg foil, respectively. (c) Cross-sectional SEM image of polished Mg foil. (d) A photograph of partial  $Ga_5Mg_2$  coated Mg foil. (e) Top-view SEM image of partial  $Ga_5Mg_2$  coated Mg foil. (f) Top-view SEM image of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg. (g–i) Top-view SEM image of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg and corresponding EDS mapping of Ga and Mg elements. (j–l) Cross-sectional SEM image of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg and corresponding EDS mapping of Ga and Mg elements.

metal anode and accelerate the interfacial charge transfer kinetics via solvation sheath reorganization [37]. Bare 0.5 M Mg(TFSI)<sub>2</sub>/DME electrolyte usually resulted in a large overpotential of batteries due to the serious interfacial corrosion and passivation [37]. The amount of liquid electrolyte used in each coin cell was 200  $\mu$ L. To prepare the working electrodes, polished Mg foil and Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg were punched to be slices (1 cm in diameter). CT-4008 Neware battery testers were used to control the charge-discharge processes of cells. A CHI660E electrochemical workstation was utilized to test the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and cyclic voltammetry (CV).

The cycling performance of symmetric cells was tested at different current densities and capacities using two same electrodes (Mg or  $\rm Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg). The electrochemical performance of Mg-S full cells was tested using KB/S as the cathode and Mg or  $\rm Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg as the anode. To fabricate the KB/S cathode, KB/S powders, super-P, and PVDF were mixed with a mass ratio of 7:2:1 in NMP solvent to form a uniform slurry. Then the KB/S cathode was achieved by pasting the slurry on a piece of Al foil followed by a vacuum drying process at 60 °C. Finally, the KB/S cathode was punched to be disks (1 cm in diameter). The mass loading of S was about 0.5 mg cm $^{-2}$ . The charge-discharge performance of Mg-S

full cells was tested at 0.1 C (1 C=1675 mA  $\rm g^{-1}$ ) in 0.1–2.5 V. The liquid electrolyte used for Li deposition was 1 M LiTFSI in DOL/DME (1:1 by volume). The liquid electrolyte used for Na deposition was 1 M NaPF $_{\rm 6}$  in EC/DEC (1:1 by volume) with 5% FEC.

## 3. Results and discussion

The  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg was prepared by simply painting a liquid metal Ga layer on polished Mg foil followed by a spontaneous alloying process at room temperature (Fig. 1a). Metallic Ga has a melting point of 29.8 °C and it exhibits a solid state at room temperature (Fig. S1a). After a heat treatment, solid-state Ga could be changed to be liquid-state Ga (Fig. S1b), which could be easily painted on the polished Mg foil. The unpolished Mg foil showed a dusky surface due to the existence of surface natural passivation layer (Fig. 1b), which mainly contained MgO,  $Mg(OH)_2$ , and  $MgCO_3$ . The surface natural passivation layer could be removed by a sandpaper. Bright metal luster and marks of polishing were observed on the polished Mg foil (Fig. 1c). Metallic Ga showed a ball-like shape after dropping a drop of liquid-state Ga on the polished Mg foil, which should be attributed to the high-surface tension of liquid metal (Fig. 1d).

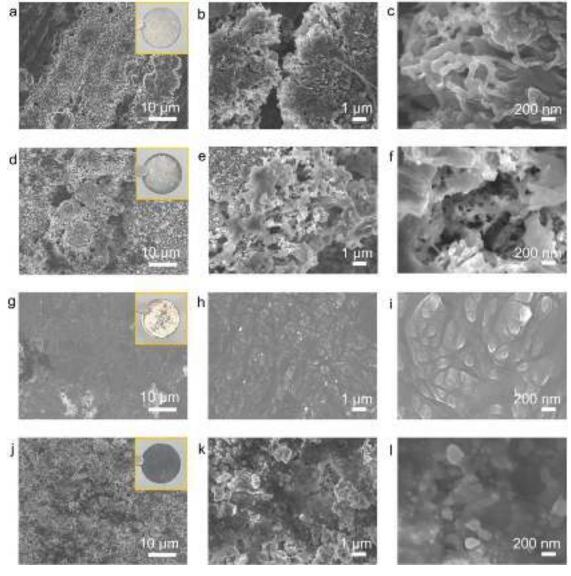


Fig. 3. (a–c) Top-view SEM images after plating 0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup> of Mg on Mg electrode at 0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. (d–f) Top-view SEM images after stripping 0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup> of Mg from Mg electrode at 0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. (g–i) Top-view SEM images after plating 0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup> of Mg on  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode at 0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. (j–l) Top-view SEM images after stripping 0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup> of Mg from  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode at 0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>.

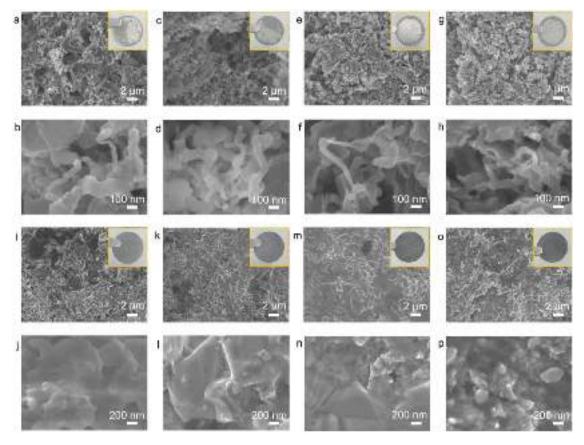
Liquid-state Ga could be easily spread on the surface of polished Mg foil by using a small brush (Fig. 1e). After placing the liquid metal coated Mg foil in a glove box for 24 h, the surface became gray, indicating the formation of the alloy layer (Fig. 1f). The alloy layer could be tightly attached on Mg foil even under bending and folding (Fig. 1g).

XRD was used to probe the phase compositions and changes of the liquid metal coated Mg foil during the alloying process (Fig. 1h). When the alloying time was 30 min, diffraction peaks of metallic Mg, metallic Ga, and  $Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy were observed. With the increase of the alloying time (30 to 120 min), the intensity of diffraction peaks belonging to metallic Ga was gradually weakened, indicating metallic Ga was transformed into  $Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy gradually. The diffraction peaks of metallic Ga disappeared when the alloying time was 470 min. In addition, when further increasing the alloying time to 1080 min, the kinds of diffraction peaks were similar with those at 470 min, indicating metallic Ga was fully transformed into  $Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy.

Contact angle was tested to investigate the wettability of liquid electrolyte with substrates (Fig. 1i–k). The contact angle of liquid electrolyte on unpolished Mg foil, polished Mg foil, and  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg was 30.6°, 0°, and 0°, respectively. The dense surface natural passivation layer on unpolished Mg foil could block the infiltration of liquid electrolyte, which could explain its higher contact angle. XPS full spectra showed the intensity of O element in polished Mg foil was reduced compared with that in unpolished Mg foil, indicating polishing with sandpapers could remove the surface natural passivation layer (Fig. 1l). In addition, Ga and Mg elements were detected on the surface of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg. High-resolution

XPS spectra were presented to investigate the chemical state of Ga and Mg elements on  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg. The binding energies of Mg2p at around 49.40 and 50.25 eV were attributed to metallic Mg and Mg<sup>2+</sup> ionic species (MgO, Mg(OH)<sub>2</sub>, etc.), respectively (Fig. 1m) [58]. The binding energies of Ga2p at about 1144.32 (1117.45) and 1141.60 (1114.70) eV were attributed to  $Ga_2O_3$  and  $Ga_3$  respectively (Fig. 1n) [66]. A thin oxide layer could be easily formed on the surface of metals, which could explain the existence of MgO and  $Ga_2O_3$  on  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg [68].

SEM images of the unpolished Mg foil showed that a natural passivation layer was covered on the surface (Figs. 2a, S2a). After polished with a sandpaper, the surface natural passivation layer was removed and the underneath fresh metallic Mg appeared (Figs. 2b,c, S2b, S3a). In addition, obvious polishing marks were observed. A partial Ga5Mg2 coated Mg foil showed an obvious boundary (Fig. 2d,e). A linear scanning indicated that the bottom was fresh Mg and the top was Ga5Mg2 alloy layer (Fig. S4). Top-view and cross-sectional SEM images of Ga5Mg2-Mg showed that the  $Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy layer was successfully formed on the surface (Figs. 2f-l, S2c, S3b,c). The thickness of the alloy layer was about 4,5  $\mu$ m. It should be noted that a too thin alloy layer could not effectively resist the corrosion by liquid electrolyte. A too thick alloy layer could affect the electrochemical behaviors of the composite anode, which had been carefully studied by previous reports [61,62]. Both cases could affect the electrochemical performance of batteries. Top-view SEM images indicated the Ga5Mg2 alloy layer was rough, and some particles and pores were observed on it. Cross-sectional SEM images showed that the Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub> alloy layer was tightly attached on the top surface of metallic



**Fig. 4.** (a, b) Top-view SEM images of Mg electrode after 10 plating/stripping cycles in symmetric cells (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>). (c, d) Top-view SEM images of Mg electrode after 10 stripping/plating cycles in symmetric cells (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>). (e, f) Top-view SEM images of Mg electrode after 30 plating/stripping cycles in symmetric cells (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>). (g, h) Top-view SEM images of Mg electrode after 30 stripping/plating cycles in symmetric cells (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>). (k, l) Top-view SEM images of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrode after 10 plating/stripping cycles in symmetric cells (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>). (k, l) Top-view SEM images of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrode after 10 stripping/plating cycles in symmetric cells (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>). (m, n) Top-view SEM images of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrode after 30 plating/stripping cycles in symmetric cells (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>). (o, p) Top-view SEM images of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrode after 30 stripping/plating cycles in symmetric cells (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>).

Mg. EDS elemental distribution mapping indicated Ga and Mg elements were uniformly distributed on the surface.

The surface morphology of electrodes after Mg plating or stripping was investigated. Uneven and dendritic Mg deposition was observed after plating 0.5 mAh cm $^{-2}$  of Mg on Mg electrode at 0.5 mA cm $^{-2}$  (Fig. 3a–c). Differently, uniform and dendrite-free Mg deposition was formed on  $\rm Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg (Figs. 3g–i, S5). After deposition, the surface of  $\rm Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode turned from gray to bright metal luster (Inset in Fig. 3g). The SEM image indicated that the surface morphology of  $\rm Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode after deposition (Fig. 3g) became smooth compared with the electrode before deposition (Fig. S2c). These results combined with the EDS mapping

Fig. S5 showed that Mg was deposited on the surface of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode.  $Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy was a mixed ion/electron conductor. However, the  $Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy exhibited a metal-level electronic conductivity and thus  $Mg^{2+}$  could easily accept electron on the surface of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode to form metallic Mg in the plating process. So Mg was deposited on the surface instead of below the  $Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy layer. This

deposition phenomenon has been reported in Li metal anodes [65]. The surface of Mg electrode was porous and dendritic after stripping 0.5 mAh cm $^{-2}$  of Mg (Fig. 3d–f). While the surface of Ga $_5$ Mg $_2$ -Mg electrode after stripping was similar with the electrode before stripping, without formation of Mg dendrites (Fig. 3j–l).

The surface morphology of electrodes after different cycles in symmetric cells was observed by SEM. The surface of Mg electrodes became rough and porous after cycling, which was quite different from the electrodes before cycling (Fig. 4a–h). Obvious Mg dendrites were detected on Mg electrodes after 10 and 30 plating/stripping (or stripping/plating) cycles. In contrast, the surface of  $Ga_5Mg_2-Mg$  electrodes after cycling was similar with the electrodes before cycling (Fig. 4i–p). Enlarged SEM images showed that no Mg dendrites were observed on  $Ga_5Mg_2-Mg$  electrodes after cycling. These SEM results indicated the  $Ga_5Mg_2$  layer could inhibit the formation of Mg dendrites.

The stability of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg was investigated. After immersed in liquid electrolyte for 72 h, the surface of Mg electrode became rough and

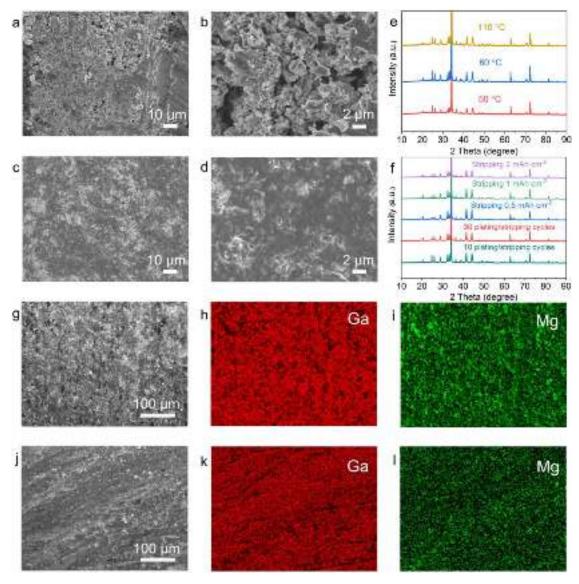


Fig. 5. (a, b) Top-view SEM images of Mg electrode after immersed in liquid electrolyte for 72 h. (c, d) Top-view SEM images of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode after immersed in liquid electrolyte for 72 h. (e) XRD patterns of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg after heated in an Ar atmosphere for 1 h at different temperatures. (f) XRD patterns of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode after different electrochemical processes. (g-i) Top-view SEM image of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode after 10 plating/stripping cycles (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>) and corresponding EDS mapping of Ga and Mg elements. (j-l) Top-view SEM image of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode after 10 stripping/plating cycles (0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-0.5 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>) and corresponding EDS mapping of Ga and Mg elements.

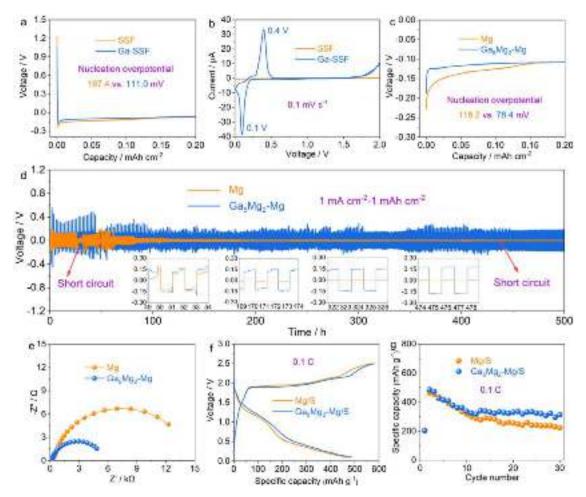


Fig. 6. (a) Voltage-capacity curves showing the nucleation overpotential of Mg on SSF and Ga-SSF at 0.05 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. (b) CV curves of SSF and Ga-SSF at 0.1 mV s<sup>-1</sup> in 0.01–2 V. (c) Voltage-capacity curves showing the nucleation overpotential of Mg on Mg and  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrodes at 0.2 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. (d) Voltage-time curves of Mg and  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg symmetric cells. (e) Nyquist plots of Mg and  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg symmetric cells. (f) The second charge-discharge curves of Mg/S and  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg/S full cells at 0.1 C. (g) Cycling performance of Mg/S and  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg/S full cells at 0.1 C.

porous, which was due to the serious corrosion by liquid electrolyte (Figs. 5a,b, S6a). The internal reason for the corrosion of Mg electrode was the low electrochemical potential of metallic Mg (-2.37 V vs. SHE), which resulted in a high chemical reactivity of Mg metal anodes. In contrast, no obvious changes were found for Ga5Mg2-Mg after immersion, indicating the  $Ga_5Mg_2$  layer was corrosive-resistant (Figs. 5c,d, S6b). The exposed high-reactive Mg sites were obviously reduced on the surface of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrode compared with pure Mg electrode. So the corrosion was relieved for Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrode. In fact, alloy anodes have been proved to own lower chemical reactivity than pure metal anodes [69-71]. After heated in an Ar atmosphere for 1 h at different temperatures (50, 80, and 110 °C), the phase composition and structure of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg did not suffer obvious changes (Figs. 5e, S7), which indicated the thermal stability of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg was satisfactory. The phase composition of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg could still keep stable even after stripping different amount (0.5, 1, and 2 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>) of Mg or undergoing various plating/stripping cycles (10 and 30) (Figs. 5f, S8). EDS mapping indicated that Ga and Mg elements could still exist on the surface of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg after 10 plating/stripping or stripping/plating cycles (Fig. 5g-l). These results indicated that Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg owned superior sta-

To verify the magnesiophilicity of metallic Ga, the nucleation overpotential of SSF and Ga-coated SSF (Ga-SSF) was tested (Fig. 6a). The Ga-SSF was prepared by painting liquid-state Ga on SSF. The mass loading of liquid metal Ga on SSF was  $0.8-1.2~{\rm mg~cm^{-2}}$ . SSF was selected to

paint Ga due to its stability with Ga at room temperature [72]. The nucleation overpotential of Mg on SSF and Ga-SSF was 167.4 and 111.0 mV at 0.05 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively. CV was used to further probe the magnesiophilicity of metallic Ga. No obvious redox peaks were found in the CV curves of SSF (Figs. 6b, S9). In contrast, a pair of obvious redox peaks were observed in the CV curves of Ga-SSF. These results indicated metallic Ga was magnesiophilic and could lower the nucleation overpotential of Mg in the plating process. To investigate the magnesiophilicity of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub> layer, the nucleation overpotential of Mg on Mg and  ${\rm Ga_5Mg_2\text{-}Mg}$  electrodes was tested at 0.2 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 6c). The voltage of Ga5Mg2-Mg electrode became flat more quickly than that of Mg electrode, indicating an easier nucleation behavior. The nucleation overpotential was 118.2 and 78.4 mV for Mg and  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrodes, respectively. The existence of magnesiophilic Ga sites in Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub> layer and its corrosive-resistant ability leaded to a lower Mg nucleation overpotential. While for bare Mg electrode, the passivated surface caused by corrosion increased the Mg nucleation barrier and thus resulted in a large nucleation overpotential. Symmetric cells were used to probe the cycling stability of electrodes (1 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-1 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>) (Fig. 6d). The voltage of Mg symmetric cell suddenly dropped to a very small value at about 27 h, indicating the occurrence of short-circuit, which was caused by the formation of Mg dendrites. From then on, the Mg symmetric cell kept short-circuited in most cycling time because the voltage-time curves presented rectangular shapes with very low overpotential [60]. In contrast, the Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg symmetric cell could last

for 500 h without short circuit. The voltage fluctuation of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg symmetric cell during the cycling process should be attributed to the interfacial unstability of Mg-based electrodes in DME based electrolytes, which had been proved by previous reports [37,45]. Mg-Mg symmetric cells using two polyethylene separators were also investigated (Fig. S10). The voltage of Mg deposition curves was unstable. In addition, the Mg deposition curves exhibited a rapid voltage change in the first cycle. According to previous reports, these phenomenons could be attributed to the micro short circuit of cells [32]. The micro short circuit of cells could be caused by burrs in Mg electrodes or the easy formation of dendrites in the electrolyte used in this research. The burrs in Mg electrodes were usually formed in the punch process. To eliminate the effect of burrs in Mg electrodes, a piece of glass fiber film (Whatman) sandwiched between two pieces of polyethylene films (Celgard) was utilized as the separator in this research. This separator was thick enough to eliminate the effect of burrs in Mg electrodes. The EIS was presented to evaluate the impedance of symmetric cells (Fig. 6e). The impedance of Mg symmetric cells was much higher than that of Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg symmetric cells, which was attributed to the severe corrosion of Mg electrode by liquid electrolyte. The corrosion from liquid electrolyte could passivate the surface of Mg electrode and block the transport of ions, resulting in a large impedance. While for Ga5Mg2-Mg electrode, the corrosive-resistant Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub> alloy layer could protect the underneath Mg from corrosion.

S is a promising cathode material for MIBs [73,74]. Mg-S full cells were assembled to evaluate the practical application ability  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg

electrode by using KB/S composite as the cathode material (Figs. S11-S13). The discharge specific capacity of the first cycle was low for Mg/S and Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg/S cell due to the necessary activation of S electrode [75]. The discharge plateau was not obvious due to the large polarization, which could be attributed to the sluggish electrochemical kinetics of polysulfide conversion [76,77]. The polarization could be reduced by improving the electrical conductivity of electrode materials or adding special catalysts [78,79]. All in all, here Mg-S cells were studied based on a proof of concept. More detail work should be proceed in the future. The discharge specific capacity of the second cycle was 485.2 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> for Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg/S cell (Fig. 6f). After 30 cycles at 0.1 C, the discharge specific capacity was 312.2 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 6g). While for Mg/S cell, the discharge specific capacity decreased from 464.6 (the second cycle) to 223.2 mAh  $\rm g^{-1}$  after 30 cycles at 0.1 C. So  $\rm Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg/S cell exhibited a better cycling performance than Mg/S cell. The dissolution of polysulfides in electrolytes was a serious problem for Mg-S batteries [80]. For Mg/S cell, the dissolved polysulfides during the cycling process could easily react with metallic Mg (Figs. S14,S15), which could not only endlessly consume polysulfides but also passivate the Mg electrode, finally resulting in a poor cycling performance. Differently, the Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrode was corrosive-resistant, which could relieve the corrosion and reduce the consumption of polysulfides (Figs. S14,S15). The decomposition of electrolytes could form a passivation layer on Mg and Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrodes. The passivation layer mainly contained elements such as C, O, and S [37]. EDS mapping of Mg and Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrodes after cycling showed the content of C, O, and S on Mg electrode was higher

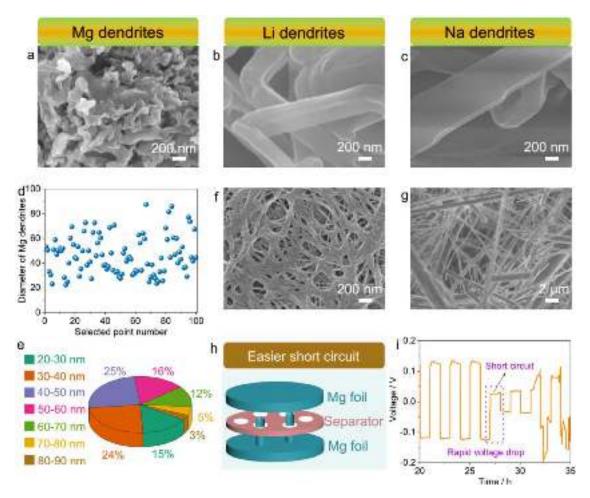


Fig. 7. (a–c) Top-view SEM images after depositing 2 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup> of Mg, Li, and Na on Mg, Li, and Na electrodes at 0.5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively. (d) The diameter of Mg dendrites in the selected 100 points in Fig. S17. (e) The size distribution of Mg dendrites in the selected 100 points in Fig. S17. (f, g) Top-view SEM images of polyethylene and glass fiber separators, respectively. (h) A schematic showing nanoscale Mg dendrites could easily piece through the separators and cause short circuit. (i) Voltage-time curves of Mg symmetric cells selected in Fig. 6d showing the phenomenon of short circuit (1 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>-1 mAh cm<sup>-2</sup>).

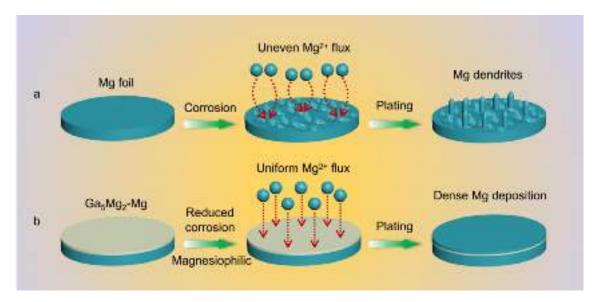


Fig. 8. (a, b) Schematics showing the electrochemical behaviors of Mg and Ga<sub>5</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>-Mg electrodes, respectively.

than that on  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg electrode, indicating the  $Ga_5Mg_2$  alloy layer could effectively inhibit the electrolyte decomposition.

SEM was used to further investigate the features of Mg dendrites. It was found that the size of Mg dendrites was much smaller than that of Li and Na dendrites (Figs. 7a–c, S16). 100 points were selected to measure the diameter of Mg dendrites (Fig. S17). The diameter of most Mg dendrites was in 30–50 nm (Fig. 7d,e) and the average diameter was 46 nm. The size of Mg dendrites was much smaller than the pore diameter of separators (Fig. 7f,g). The so small-sized (nanoscale) Mg dendrites could easily pierce through the separators with large pore size and cause the internal short circuit of batteries (Fig. 7h,i). So Mg-metal batteries could easily become short-circuited, and this phenomenon has been found in previous reports [32]. Interestingly, the strategy proposed in this research could effectively inhibit the growth of Mg dendrites and avoid the easy short circuit of Mg-metal batteries.

After characterization and analysis, the mechanism of  $Ga_5Mg_2$  layer could inhibit the growth of Mg dendrites was proposed (Fig. 8). Bare Mg electrode could be easily corroded by liquid electrolyte to form a defective surface, which could bring about inhomogeneous electric field distribution and then lead to uneven  $Mg^{2+}$  flux in the plating process. Uneven  $Mg^{2+}$  flux distribution on Mg electrode could lead to heterogeneous Mg nucleation and formation of Mg dendrites. While for  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg, the corrosive-resistant and magnesiophilic  $Ga_5Mg_2$  layer could not only relieve the interface corrosion from liquid electrolytes but also lower the Mg nucleation barrier to induce uniform  $Mg^{2+}$  flux and dense Mg deposition. As a result, the electrochemical performance of  $Ga_5Mg_2$ -Mg was much better than bare Mg electrode.

## 4. Conclusion

 cal performance of Mg-metal batteries, which should be further studied in the following research. We believe this research could enlighten related researchers and pave the way for high-energy Mg-metal batteries.

#### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

## CRediT authorship contribution statement

Chuanliang Wei: Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. Liwen Tan: Data curation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. Yuchan Zhang: Data curation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. Baojuan Xi: Writing – review & editing. Shenglin Xiong: Writing – review & editing. Jinkui Feng: Visualization, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. Yitai Qian: Writing – review & editing.

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## Supplementary materials

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