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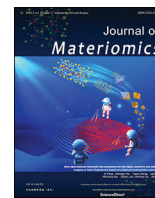


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# Facile and secure synthesis of porous partially fluorinated graphene employing weakly coordinating anion for enhanced high-performance symmetric supercapacitor



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## ABSTRACT

In this paper, porous partially fluorinated graphene (PFG) for supercapacitors (SCs) was fabricated by a mild and secure one-pot hydrothermal method utilizing weakly coordinating anion  $\text{BF}_4^-$  as the fluorine source. The hydrolysis rate of sodium fluoroborate was adjusted by controlling the reaction temperature and PFG containing semi-ionic C–F bonds was obtained, where the content of semi-ionic C–F bonds in PFG can be easily regulated. The final experimental results show that the incorporation of fluorine not only modulates the electrochemical properties of the material, but also creates abundant pores. When assembled in a symmetric supercapacitor, the PFG shows a high specific capacitance of  $269.7 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  at  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  and a superior rate capability with 89.3% capacitance retained, as the current density is increased from  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  even to  $20 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . Furthermore, the resultant energy density for PFG is  $9.4 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}$  at a power density of  $250.0 \text{ W kg}^{-1}$  ( $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ ). All these results confirm that as-prepared partially fluorinated graphene is appropriate for the application in SCs and mass production.

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## 1. Introduction

The depletion of fossil fuel and the devastation of the ecological environment accelerate reform of the energy transition [1–4]. The recent years have witnessed the increasing tendency of gradual conversion from fuel vehicles to electric vehicles. Besides, electronic equipment such as smartphones is constantly upgrading with higher requirements for energy storage components. Among the diverse electrochemical storage devices, supercapacitors (SCs), which are different from rechargeable batteries with relatively high energy density, will also have wide prospects in future market-places due to the features of higher power density, longer cyclic life and better safety [5–8]. According to the energy storage mechanism, SCs can be divided into electric double-layer capacitors

(EDLC) and pseudo-capacitors [9]. The choice of electrode materials is a critical factor affecting their electrochemical performances. Carbon materials, as typical electrode materials of EDLC, possess numerous advantages such as good electrical conductivity and outstanding power density [10]. And at the foreground of carbon materials, graphene has been a desired candidate for SCs application since it has a high specific surface area ( $2630 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ), good electronic conductivity and high electrochemical stability [11–13].

Considering that pristine carbon materials apparently cannot satisfy the actual demands for SCs, functionalization is deemed an effective strategy to improve their basic properties. In recent years, the introduction of heteroatoms like nitrogen (N), sulfur (S), phosphorus (P) atoms into carbon materials to achieve functionalization has become a hot topic. Abundant previous works on fluorinated/fluorine-doped carbon-based electrode materials for SCs have validated that the introduction of fluorine element into carbon materials is beneficial to the electrochemical performance improvement of SCs. Zhou *et al.* [14] synthesized fluorine and nitrogen co-doped non-porous carbon microsphere by low-

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temperature solvothermal method. Ultrahigh volumetric capacitance of  $521 \text{ F cm}^{-3}$  and cycling stability with no capacitance loss even after 10 000 cycles at  $5 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  were obtained in aqueous electrolyte. This study pointed out that the incorporation of fluorine could dramatically enhance volumetric capacitance. Zhou *et al.* [15] fabricated fluorine-rich nano-porous carbons (FNC), which were firstly activated by KOH to enlarge the pore size and next washed with hydrofluoric acid and nitric acid. The assembled symmetric cell in organic electrolyte exhibited a high specific capacitance of  $168 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  at  $0.5 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  and a capacitance retention of 92% after 10 000 cycles. An *et al.* [16] synthesized fluorinated graphene hydrogel via single-step hydrothermal process with HF as a fluorinating agent. The capacitance of symmetric supercapacitor achieved  $180 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  at  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ , and the corresponding energy density and power density were respectively  $5.55 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}$  and  $505.8 \text{ W kg}^{-1}$ . Due to the existence of various sorts of C–F bonds, especially semi-ionic C–F bonds, the conductivity and wettability for electrolyte of materials was vastly ameliorated [17,18].

It is worth noting that the electronic properties of fully fluorinated graphene have been well revealed owing to its stable structure as well as relevant experimental and computational studies [19]. However, the complex nature and difference levels of fluorination allows partially fluorinated graphene to exhibit variable electronic performances. The electrochemical performances of them are mainly determined by the preparation method, the level of fluorine coverage, fluorinating agent and so on. On the one hand, as we all known, the reason why single-layer graphene possesses high electron mobility is actually due to its  $\text{sp}^2$  hybridized C atoms with a  $\text{p}_z$  orbital. In covalent C–F bonds, C atoms are present in the form of  $\text{sp}^3$ -hybridization. However, C atoms in semi-ionic C–F bonds still exist in the form of  $\text{sp}^2$ -hybridization. Hence, it is expected that semi-ionic C–F bonds dominate competing reaction processes between these two main types of C–F bonds. Deeply tapping the potential of partially fluorinated graphene for SCs is also endowed with great significance in the future.

On the other hand, the common methods of preparing fluorinated graphene include gas-phase fluorination ( $\text{F}_2$ ,  $\text{XeF}_4$ ), hydrothermal fluorination (HF,  $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$ , Diethylaminosulphur trifluoride (DAST)), plasma fluorination ( $\text{SF}_6$ ,  $\text{CF}_4$ ) and so on [20–26]. Although these gaseous or liquid fluorinating agents aforementioned have strong fluorinating ability, they could make operators exposed to potential danger (extremely strong corrosivity) or have high demand to the apparatus for experiment and mass production. Herein, the secure, facile and cost-effective synthesis of partially fluorinated graphene will become one of major research orientation simultaneously solving the problems of mass production. Meanwhile, because the semi-ionic C–F bond tends to present at low fluorine concentration, it is also a challenge that creating an appropriate reaction environment to form semi-ionic C–F bonds for graphene oxide [27]. This semi-ionic C–F bond, in which F acts as p-dopant for graphene, has long been recognized as the main contributor on the improvement of electrochemical performances [28,29]. Therefore, researchers are expected to make further efforts to explore the moderate preparation method of partially fluorinated graphene and its relevant reaction mechanism.

In order to address the above problems, we put forward a facile and secure one-pot hydrothermal method to fabricate porous partially fluorinated graphene using  $\text{NaBF}_4$  as the mild fluorinating agent. In different types of C–F bonds, almost only semi-ionic C–F bonds are obtained in partially fluorinated graphene prepared at  $180 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , thus achieving the optimum performance for supercapacitors. Different from traditional hydrothermal direct fluorination which utilizes HF,  $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$  or  $(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_3\text{N}\cdot 3\text{HF}$ , etc. to achieve large accumulation of fluoride ions at first, the two-step reaction process can keep fluorination of GO at low fluorine concentration.

Specifically, during the preparation process of partially fluorinated graphene, there actually need these two steps including: (1) hydrolysis process of weakly coordinating anion  $\text{BF}_4^-$  to produce a few HF, (2) nucleophilic substitution between GO and HF to synthesize partially fluorinated graphene. Consumption of  $\text{F}^-$  in step (2) promoted continuous hydrolysis of  $\text{BF}_4^-$  of the step (1). Since the hydrolysis reaction is an endothermic reaction, the hydrothermal temperature is the chief factor affecting the degree of fluorination of GO. In order to obtain a good partially fluorinated graphene electrode material with optimum electrochemical performance, we varied the reaction temperature during fluorination. As-fabricated 180-PFG showed excellent super-capacitive behavior of  $281.4 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  at  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  in three-electrode system. Assembled symmetric supercapacitors similarly possessed a splendid specific capacitance of  $269.7 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  at  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . Notably, it also had an extremely high retention of 89.3% even at  $20 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . Such a green and secure synthesis for partially fluorinated graphene is suitable for large-scale production due to the advantages of convenient storage and transportation of this fluorinating agent.

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1. Materials

Sodium fluoroborate ( $\text{NaBF}_4$ ,  $\geq 99.0\%$ ) was purchased from Shanghai McLean Biochemical Technology Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Graphene oxide (GO) synthesized by modified Hummers' method was bought from Nanjing XFNANO materials Tech. Co. Ltd. (Nanjing, China). Potassium hydroxide (KOH,  $\geq 85.0\%$ ) was obtained from Sinopharm Group Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Ni foam (purity  $\geq 98\%$ , thickness  $0.5 \text{ mm}$ ) was purchased from Shanxi Lizhiyuan Battery Material Co., Ltd. (Taiyuan, China). N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP), acetylene black (battery grade) and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) were bought from Shenzhen Teensky Technology Co. Ltd. (Shenzhen, China). All the received chemical agents were used without further purification. Deionized (DI) water was gained from the laboratory.

### 2.2. Fabrication of partially fluorinated graphene (PFG) and hydrothermally reduced graphene oxide (HRG)

The  $40 \text{ mg}$  GO sheets were dissolved in  $60 \text{ ml}$  DI water by ultrasonication for  $1 \text{ h}$  until there were no visible particulates. Then,  $1.2 \text{ g}$  sodium fluoroborate ( $\text{NaBF}_4$ ) was added into the PTFE griffin beaker. The mixture was continuously ultra-sonicated for another  $30 \text{ min}$ , then transferred into  $100 \text{ ml}$  Teflon-lined autoclave at the specific temperature ( $120 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $140 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $160 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $180 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) for  $24 \text{ h}$ . For comparison, the same hydrothermal process was conducted at  $180 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for graphene oxide solution only without adding  $\text{NaBF}_4$  powder. Then, partially fluorinated graphene (PFG) and hydrothermally partially reduced graphene oxide (HRG) were rinsed with deionized water and filtrated for several times. Finally, these samples were obtained by freeze drying for  $24 \text{ h}$  to remove residual moisture. PFGs prepared under various temperatures were labeled as x-PFG (x represents reaction temperature).

### 2.3. Characterization

The morphology and microstructure of samples were investigated by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, JEOL JSM-72F) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, FEI Titan G260-300). X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a D8 Advance (Bruker) X-ray diffractometer with  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were made using a PHI Quantum 2000 Scanning ESCA Microprobe (Eden Prairie, MN,

USA). Raman spectrum measurements were conducted in a HR Evolution with a 532 nm excitation laser. Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy were recorded on a Nicolet 6700 (ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA, USA). The nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherm was measured using Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) theory by micromeritics ASAP2460 (USA).

#### 2.4. Electrochemical measurements

The electrochemical properties of the as-prepared samples were carried out on a Solartron Modulab XM electrochemical workstation and LAND battery measurement system (CT3001K). All electrochemical tests were performed in 6 M KOH electrolyte. In the three-electrode system, active materials, acetylene black and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) binder in a mass ratio of 80:10:10 were dispersed in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) by stirring to form the homogeneous slurry. The working electrodes were fabricated by pasting slurry on a  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$  nickel foam as the current collector, and then dried at  $100^\circ\text{C}$  overnight in vacuum. Platinum plate and saturated calomel electrode (SCE) were selected as the counter electrode and reference electrode, respectively. The mass of the active material on the Ni foam was controlled close to  $2.5 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ . Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) curves were measured with potential ranging from  $-1.2 \text{ V}$  to  $-0.2 \text{ V}$  (vs. SCE). Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) tests were measured in the frequency range from  $0.01 \text{ Hz}$  to  $10^5 \text{ Hz}$  with a potential amplitude of  $10.0 \text{ mV}$ .

Coin-type symmetric supercapacitor device (CR2032) was assembled with Ni foam of  $12 \text{ mm}$  in diameter coated with the slurry by a brush and a cellulose membrane separator. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves at various scan rates from  $5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  to  $200 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  were performed over a potential range of  $0\text{--}1.0 \text{ V}$ . Galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) curves were measured in the same potential window as CV tests. Only the cyclic stability tests of devices were measured on the CT3001K at  $4 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . The mass specific capacitance ( $C_s$ ,  $\text{F g}^{-1}$ ) of single electrode material was calculated according to equation (1). The specific capacitance ( $C_d$ ,  $\text{F g}^{-1}$ ), energy density ( $E$ ,  $\text{Wh kg}^{-1}$ ) and power density ( $P$ ,  $\text{W Kg}^{-1}$ ) were obtained according to equations (2)–(4), respectively [30,31].

$$C_s = \frac{2I\Delta t}{m\Delta V} \quad (1)$$

$$C_d = \frac{1}{4}C_s \quad (2)$$

$$E = \frac{\frac{1}{2}C_d\Delta V^2}{3.6} \quad (3)$$

$$P = \frac{3600E}{\Delta t} \quad (4)$$

where  $I$  represents the constant current (A),  $m$  represents the mass of single electrode material (g),  $\Delta V$  represents the operation potential window (V), and  $\Delta t$  represents the discharge time (s).

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characterization of porous partially fluorinated graphene

The schematic diagram of the synthesis process is illustrated in Fig. 1. During the hydrothermal process with relatively high temperature, the hydrolysis of  $\text{BF}_4^-$  occurs gradually to  $\text{BF}_3\text{OH}^-$ ,  $\text{BF}_2(\text{OH})_2$ , and  $\text{BF}(\text{OH})_3$  and finally  $\text{B}(\text{OH})_4^-$  accompanied by the

formation of HF [32]. This reaction mechanism is analogous to the fluorination process of  $\text{UO}_2$  reported previously [33]. Additionally, boron atoms (2.0) which possess slightly lower electronegativity than carbon atoms (2.5) have strong affinity for fluorine atoms (4.0) [34]. Thus, carbon atoms of graphene lattice are more inclined to combine with free fluoride ions from hydrolysate HF.

Comparing the optical photographs of HRG (a) with 180-PFG (b) in Fig. S1, it is found that the dispersibility in the aqueous solution of the GO solution with sodium fluoroborate decreased after hydrothermal reaction. It is probably attributed to the reduced oxygen-containing functional groups and low surface energy of fluorinated graphene after the introduction of fluorine atoms [35]. Therefore, it can also be proved that fluorine atoms have been successfully introduced into graphene framework, which is consistent with the following XPS findings. The microstructures and morphologies of HRG and x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ) are further characterized by SEM as shown in Fig. 2a and b-f. In comparison with HRG, there are some visible pits on the surface of PFG, and interconnected PFG sheets form a hierarchical pore structure in favor of ions transmission and electron conduction. Thus, the abundant porous structure of partially fluorinated graphene demonstrates the existence of  $\text{BF}_4^-$  can influence the morphology of graphene during hydrothermal fluorination process, and provide a larger adsorption space for accessible electrolyte ions. Specifically, during the actual hydrothermal reaction, fluorination process probably plays an auxiliary role in favor of accelerating the reduction of graphene oxide, and then induce the continuous agglomeration and assembly of two-dimensional GO sheets resulting in the formation of the porous structure. It is also worth noting that 180-PFG owns denser pores than 140-PFG at the same magnification, resulting in the larger specific surface area (SSA). As displayed in a series of Fig. 2b-f of x-PFG, too high or low hydrothermal temperature was obviously not suitable for the formation of complete pore structure. From TEM results and the elemental mappings of PFG, it is indicated that fluorine atoms have been introduced into the graphene lattices and have homogeneous distributions on the surface of graphene.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopic (XPS) spectra of x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ) and HRG are displayed in Fig. 3 and Fig. S2. The fluorine content and various chemical bonding components are primarily analyzed to elucidate the influence of hydrothermal temperature on fluorination process. As the full spectrum shown in Fig. 3a, both 180-PFG and 140-PFG with a signal of the distinct F 1s peak at around  $686.0 \text{ eV}$  prove introduction of fluorine atoms to carbon framework successfully, and 140-PFG that possesses a sharper peak demonstrates more fluorine atoms exists on it.

High resolution spectra analysis of C 1s is one of the most effective means to study the various types of C–F bonds for all the samples. Generally, the peak of C1s spectrum located at  $284.8 \text{ eV}$  is ascribed to  $\text{sp}^2$  hybridized carbon atoms (C–C) without functionalization. The peaks centered at around  $286.4$  and  $287.1 \text{ eV}$  are corresponding to C=O and C–O groups, respectively [36]. In addition to the oxygen-containing functional groups attached to the carbon skeleton of graphene oxide, as-prepared partially fluorinated graphene obtained the characteristic peaks of C–F covalent bonds and C–F semi-ionic bonds. Thereinto, the peaks located at  $285.8 \text{ eV}$  (C\*–CF) and  $291.6 \text{ eV}$  (C–F<sub>2</sub>) are all assigned to covalent C–F bonds, and C\*–CF represents one or two fluorine atoms are successfully grafted to the  $\beta$  position of the carbon atoms [16,37]. Besides, a vital and desired peak of semi-ionic C–F bonds can be observed near  $288.8 \text{ eV}$ . From Fig. S2a to S2c, the peak of C=O bonds disappears and the peak covalent C–F bonds (C–F<sub>2</sub> bonds) begin to emerge. When the hydrothermal temperature reaches up to  $200^\circ\text{C}$  (Figure S2c), it is found that there are only C=C, C–O and

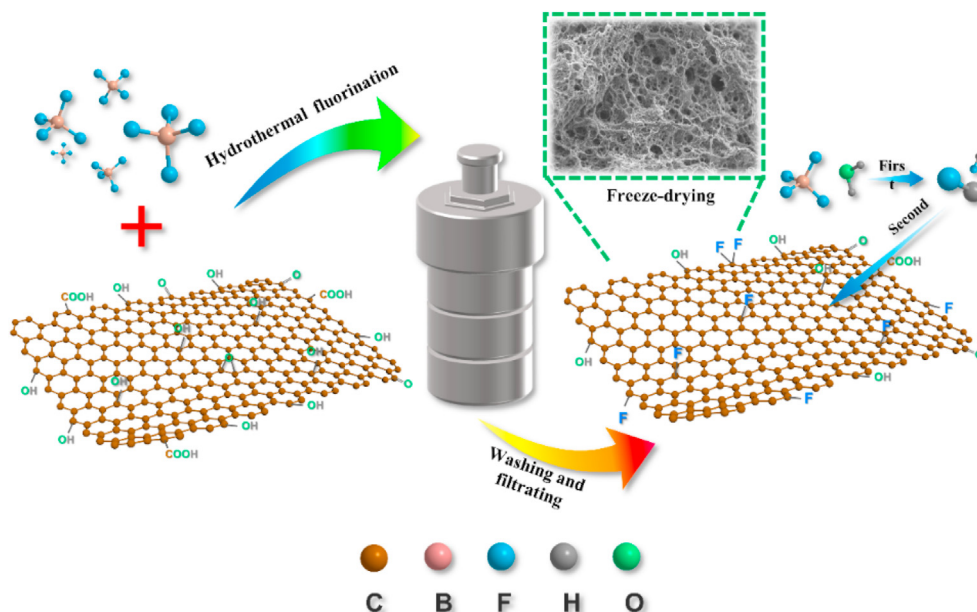


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration for the preparation of PFG.

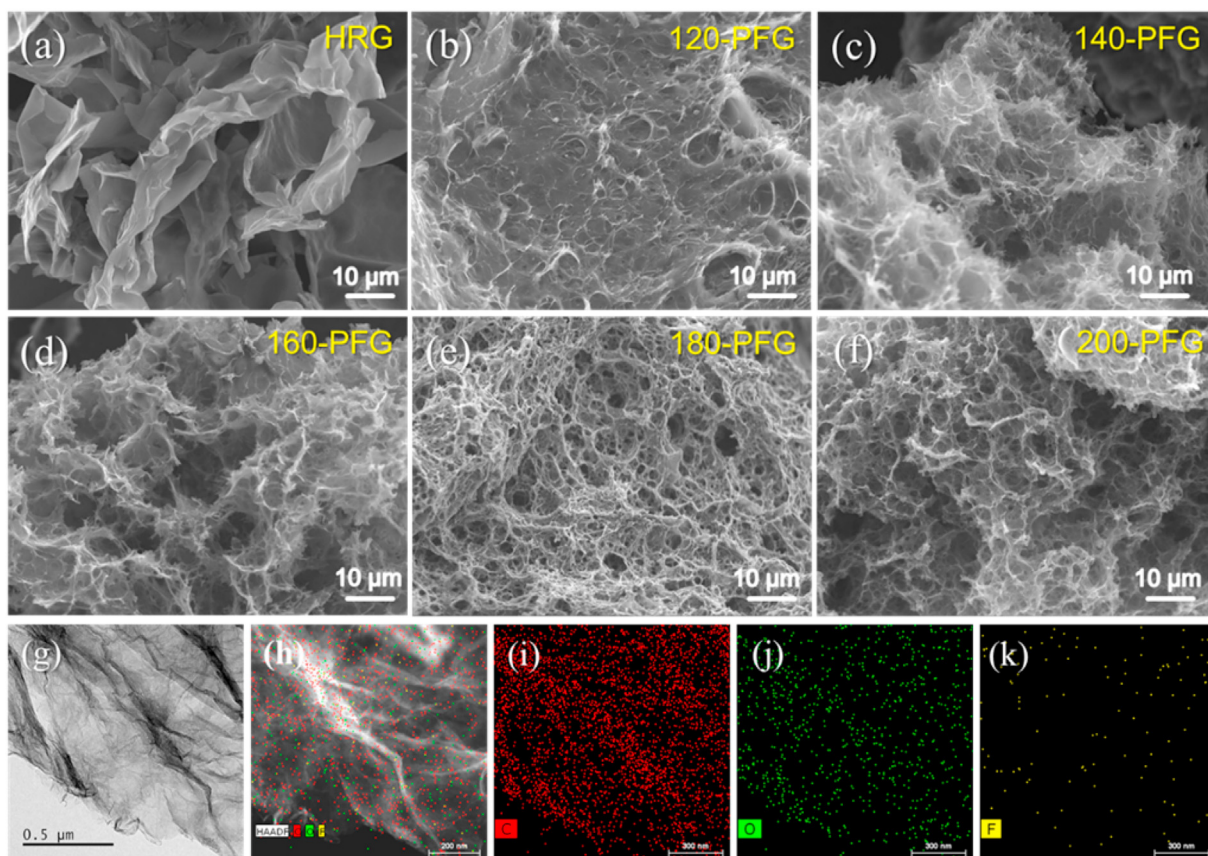
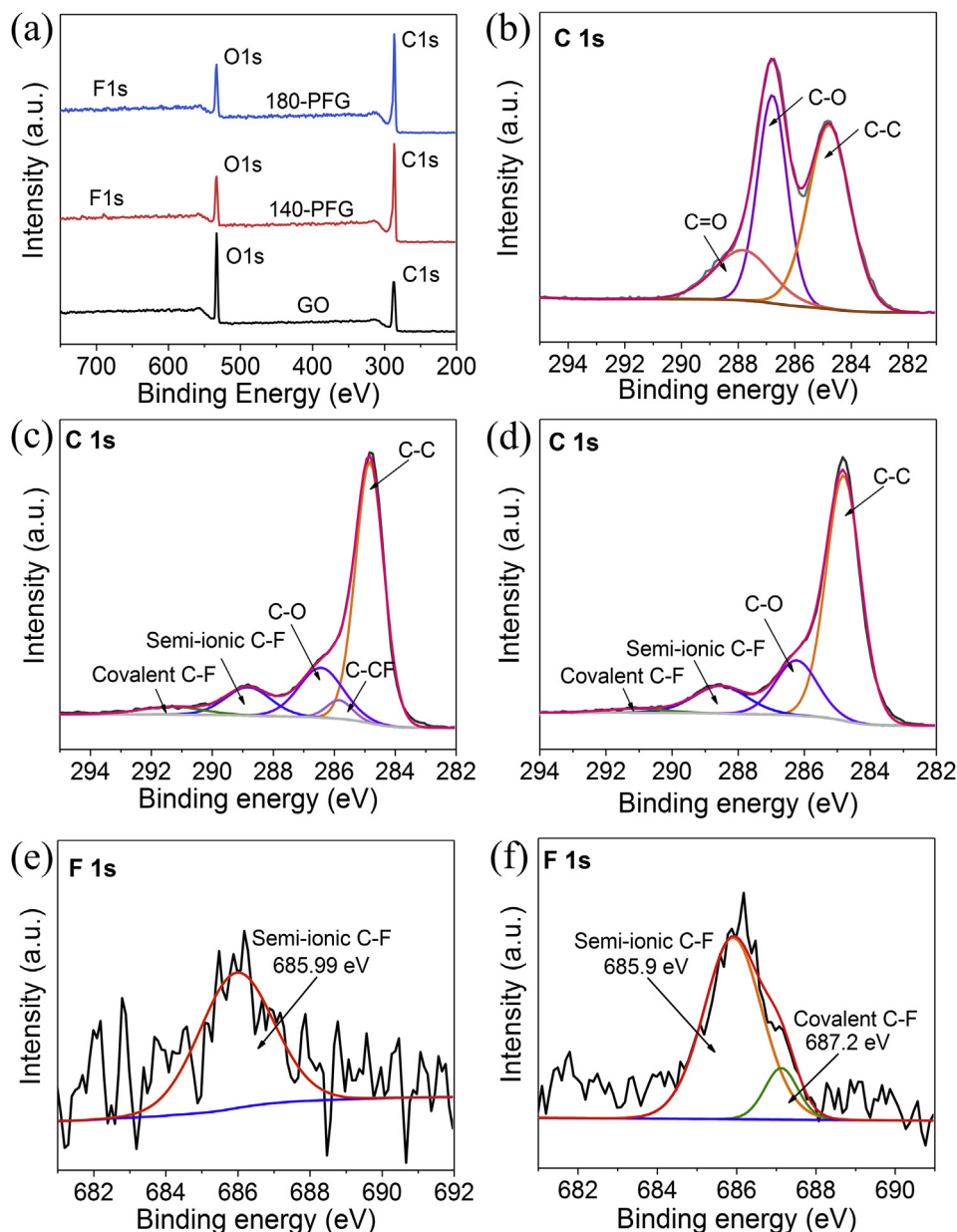


Fig. 2. (a–f) SEM images of HRG, x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ), (g–k) TEM images and corresponding elemental (C, O, F) mapping of PFG.

few C–F bonds, suggesting unsuitable circumstance (at 200 °C) for the formation of both covalent and semi-ionic C–F bonds.

In Table 1, the content of fluorine atoms and proportion of chemical bonds calculated from C 1s are recorded in detail. Both the fluorine content (1.05 at%) and the proportion of covalent C–F

bonds in 140-PFG reach the highest among x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ). It is analogous to fluorinating graphene using HF as the fluorine source, which follows the general law of the effect of reaction temperature on the formation of C–F bonds during the hydrothermal process [16]. In addition, it is worth noting that the



**Fig. 3.** (a) XPS survey spectra of the GO, 140-PFG and 180-PFG. (b–d) C 1s spectra of GO, 140-PFG and 180-PFG. (e) F 1s spectra of 180-PFG. (f) F 1s spectra of 140-PFG.

**Table 1**

The fluorine content and proportion of different chemical bonds in C 1s.

Sample	C–C/%	covalent C–F/%	semi-ionic C–F/%	C–O/C=O/%	F/%
GO	45.9%	0	0	54.1%	0
120-PFG	68.5%	5.5%	4.1%	21.9%	0.32
140-PFG	62.5%	8.1% <sup>a</sup>	10.6%	18.8%	1.05 <sup>a</sup>
160-PFG	65.4%	7.2%	11.1%	16.3%	0.60
180-PFG	67.6%	2.0%	12.2% <sup>a</sup>	18.2%	0.49
200-PFG	78.1%	0	3.1%	18.8%	0.47

F/% stands for the atomic percentages among C, O, F elements.

<sup>a</sup> Stands for the maximum value.

change law of semi-ionic C–F bonds differed from covalent C–F bonds. It is observed that the 180-PFG has the highest proportion of semi-ionic C–F bonds. On the basis of the previous studies on the formation of semi-ionic C–F bonds, it is speculated that when the hydrothermal temperature was lower than 180 °C, the fluorine ion

concentration in the solution is relatively lower and it is gradually more inclined to form semi-ionic C–F bonds with the increase of temperature. However, when the hydrothermal temperature is higher than 180 °C, the relatively high fluorine ion content is not conducive to the formation of semi-ionic C–F bonds. Meanwhile, covalent C–F bonds cannot appear under a high temperature either [29]. The high resolution F 1s signals of 140-PFG and 180-PFG are further assessed in Fig. 3e, f and the peaks of 140-PFG can be resolved into two peaks ascribing to covalent C–F bonds (687.2 eV) and semi-ionic C–F bonds (685.9 eV) [30]. As for 180-PFG, there is only one peak located at ~685.9 eV, meaning only semi-ionic C–F bonds have been obtained. These are consistent with the analysis results from high-resolution C 1s. To verify that no boron remains, the high-resolution B 1s peak is observed in Fig. S2d. No distinct peak is discovered. It is suggested that the boron compounds produced by the hydrolysis of  $\text{BF}_4$  during the hydrothermal fluorination process have been completely washed away by DI water. This

result can also be explained by the strong binding combination between B and F atoms.

Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy was used further to investigate the major types of the chemical structure characteristics of 140-PFG, 180-PFG and GO, as presented in Fig. 4a. The broad feature peaks at around  $3350\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are related to physisorbed water and phenol and hydroxyl groups in carboxylate moieties [32]. The typical absorption peaks and corresponding chemical bonds of GO includes  $\sim 1405\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C–OH stretching),  $\sim 1625\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=C stretching),  $\sim 1728\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=O stretching) and  $\sim 1071\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C–O stretching) [31]. After the hydrothermal fluorination reaction, these oxygen-containing functional groups have a downside, suggesting partial reduction of GO to some extent. To be specific, the peak intensity of the C=O chemical bonds of 140-PFG is the lowest, which implies the formation of C–F<sub>2</sub> by substituting oxygen atoms with fluorine atoms. With respect to the 140-PFG and 180-PFG samples, a new peak appears at  $\sim 1157\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , which can be ascribed to semi-ionic C–F bonds [33].

The structural changes were further investigated by means of the XRD patterns of 140-PFG, 180-PFG, HRG and GO, as shown in Fig. 4b. The diffraction peaks at  $2\theta = 10.21^\circ$  ( $d = 0.866\text{ nm}$ ) are in accordance with the (001) planes of GO [38]. In addition, the peaks (002) of 140-PFG, 180-PFG and hydrothermally reduced graphene oxide are at around  $25^\circ$  corresponding to  $24.50^\circ$  ( $d = 0.363\text{ nm}$ ),  $25.40^\circ$  ( $d = 0.350\text{ nm}$ ) and  $25.51^\circ$  ( $d = 0.348\text{ nm}$ ). The other diffraction peaks at about  $43.0^\circ$  are the (100) planes of 140-PFG, 180-PFG and HRG. These results demonstrate that pristine graphene oxide was reduced and the interlayer distance of graphene increased slightly after hydrothermally fluorination.

Raman spectra was analyzed on the microstructural changes (defects and disorder) of 180-PFG, HRG and GO, as shown in Fig. 4c. The D band and G band, which are main characteristic peaks of graphene materials, locate at around  $1350\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1590\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively. Generally, the intensity ratio of  $I_D/I_G$  values is utilized to illustrate the amount of defect [39]. According to the characterization results, a higher  $I_D/I_G$  value of 180-PFG (1.07) adequately demonstrated that fluorination reaction can increase the defects of pristine GO (0.91). Additionally, 180-PFG (1.07) has a nearly similar  $I_D/I_G$  value to HRG (1.02), and it can be attributed to the actual fluorination process where fluorine atoms replace the oxygen-containing functional groups linking to the  $\text{sp}^3\text{ C}$  sites [16]. Based on the analysis results of the above various characterization methods, it is evident that fluorine atoms have been introduced into carbon lattice and substantially impacted on the graphene framework. In term of XPS, FT-IR and Raman spectra analysis results, the possible reaction mechanism (Fig. 4d) of hydrothermal fluorination of GO in this work is consistent with the previous literature [40]. Three main oxygen-containing groups (hydroxyl, epoxy, carbonyl) provided reactive sites for fluorine atoms. The information of specific surface area (SSA) and the pore size distribution of as-prepared 180-PFG was obtained via  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption-desorption measurements. As depicted in Fig. S3, the  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption-desorption isotherm of 180-PFG confirms that it belongs to typical type IV isotherm characteristic with H<sub>3</sub>-type hysteresis loop at relative pressure of 0.2–1.0, showing a large BET surface area of  $170.5\text{ m}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$ . Besides dominated microporous and macroporous structure of 180-PFG, a certain amount of mesoporous (2 nm–50 nm) is also observed clearly from pore size

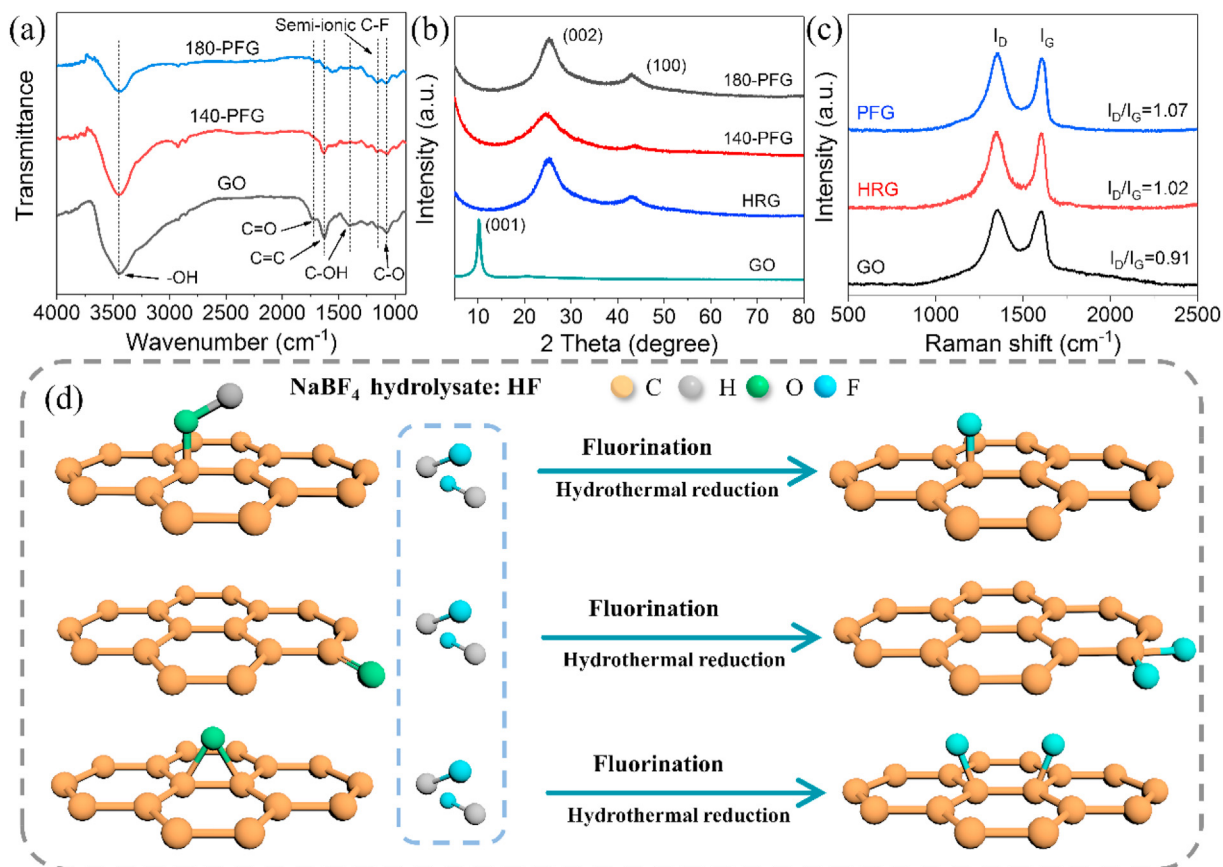
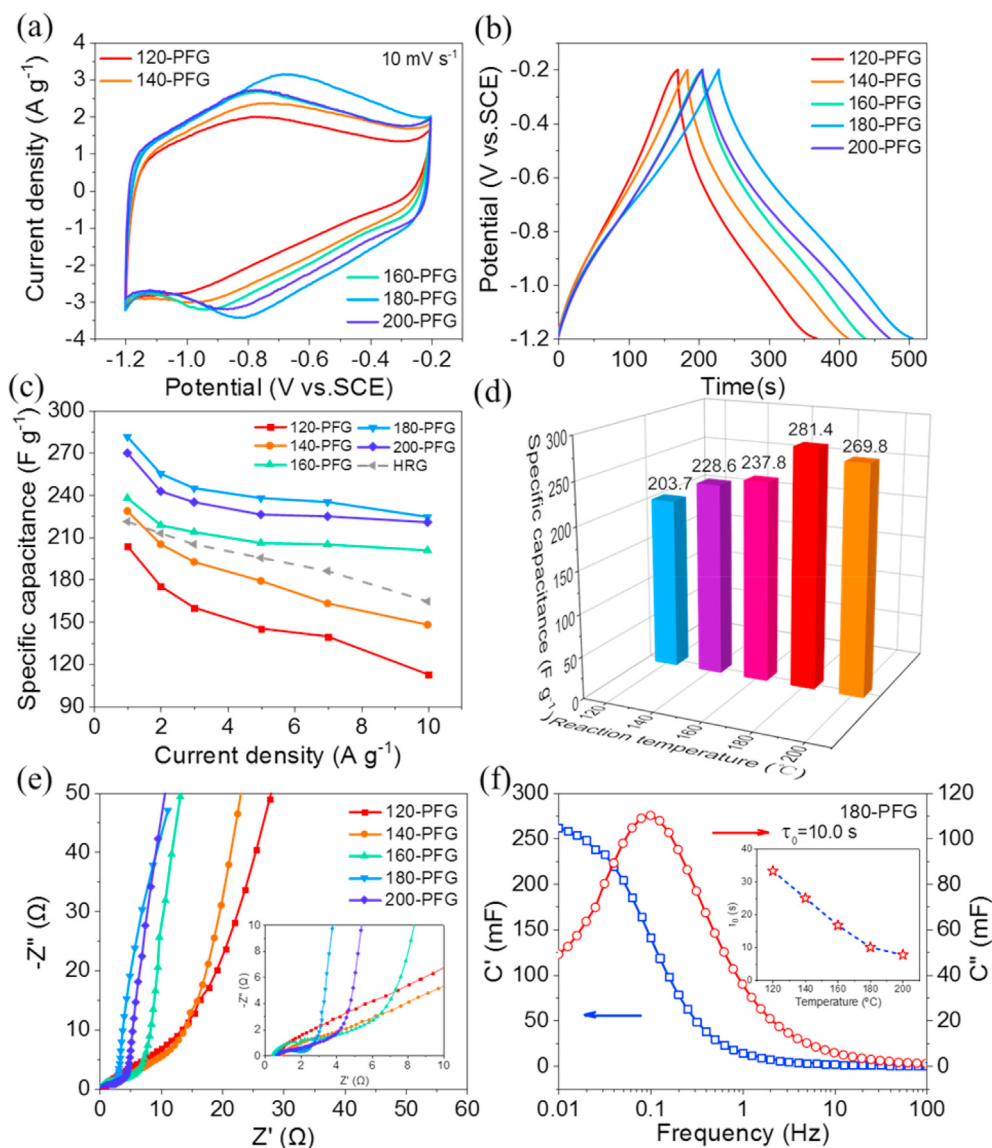


Fig. 4. (a) FT-IR. (b) XRD patterns of 140-PFG, 180-PFG, HRG and GO. (c) Raman spectra of PFG, HRG and GO. (d) Main fluorination reactions between oxygen-containing groups on the GO and HF obtained from  $\text{NaBF}_4$  hydrolyzation.



**Fig. 5.** Electrochemical performances of the x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ). (a) CV curves at a scan rate of  $10 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  in the three-electrode system. (b) GCD curves at a current density of  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . (c) Rate performances of x-PFGs and HRG. (d) The gravimetric specific capacitance values. (e) Nyquist plots. (f) Real and imaginary parts in Bode plots of 180-PFG (Inset: corresponding the time constant  $\tau_0$  vs. various temperatures plot.).

distribution (Fig. S3a, S3b). Actually, the existence of macroporous structure is benefit for electrolyte penetration, and mesoporous structure provides high specific surface area for storage charge. During hydrothermal reaction, the construction of abundant porous structure for partially fluorinated graphene is closely associated with the degree of fluorination modification.

### 3.2. Electrochemical performance

To systematically study the effect of hydrothermal temperature on the electrochemical performances, x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ) and HRG electrodes were measured by three-electrode configuration in 6 M KOH electrolyte firstly. The CV curves of 180-PFG and HRG electrodes at the scan rate of  $10 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  are shown in Fig. S4a. The CV curves show near rectangular shapes, which is the typical feature of electric double-layer capacitance. The specific capacitance value (Fig. S4b) of graphene oxide, which is

partially reduced by hydrothermal reaction, is only  $221.0 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  at  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . 180-PFG electrode with a larger area of CV curves illustrates the capacitance of materials is drastically improved owing to the extraneous fluorine atoms. Furthermore, the location of the faradaic redox peaks of PFGs approach  $-0.83 \text{ V}$  (vs. SCE) in the cathodic scan and  $-0.67 \text{ V}$  (vs. SCE) in the anodic scan. The growth of the pseudo-capacitance is inseparable from the introduction of C–F groups (covalent C–F bonds and semi-ionic C–F bonds) into partially reduced graphene oxide. The involved redox reaction process of fluorinated graphene in alkaline solution is probably that the introduction of fluorine atoms can endow the surrounding location of linked carbon with positively charged active sites and one-electron oxidation occurs along with hydroxide adsorption according to the previous report [41]. From the testing results shown in Fig. 5d, it is clearly indicated that 180-PFG obtains the highest specific capacitance among the PFG electrodes at various reaction temperature. As displayed in Fig. 5b, charge-discharge

curves of all the partially fluorinated graphene samples assumed the shape of nearly symmetrical triangle, illustrating the excellent reversible charge-discharge capacity. On the other hand, the specific capacitance of PFGs and HRG at different current densities ranging from  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  to  $10 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  are shown in Fig. 5c. It is obvious that after fluorination, partially fluorinated graphene gained a better rate performance (80% of PFG  $\gg$  74% of HRG), and the 180-PFG electrode is able to keep at a relatively reasonable level in the three-electrode system. The gravimetric specific capacitance values of x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ) samples were calculated by the discharge time of GCD curves, corresponding to 203.7, 227.9, 232.1, 281.4, 269.8  $\text{F g}^{-1}$ , respectively (Fig. 5d). Obviously, 180-PFG achieves the longest discharge time and largest integration area in the CV curve, indicating the possession of biggest specific capacitance ( $281.4 \text{ F g}^{-1}$ ).

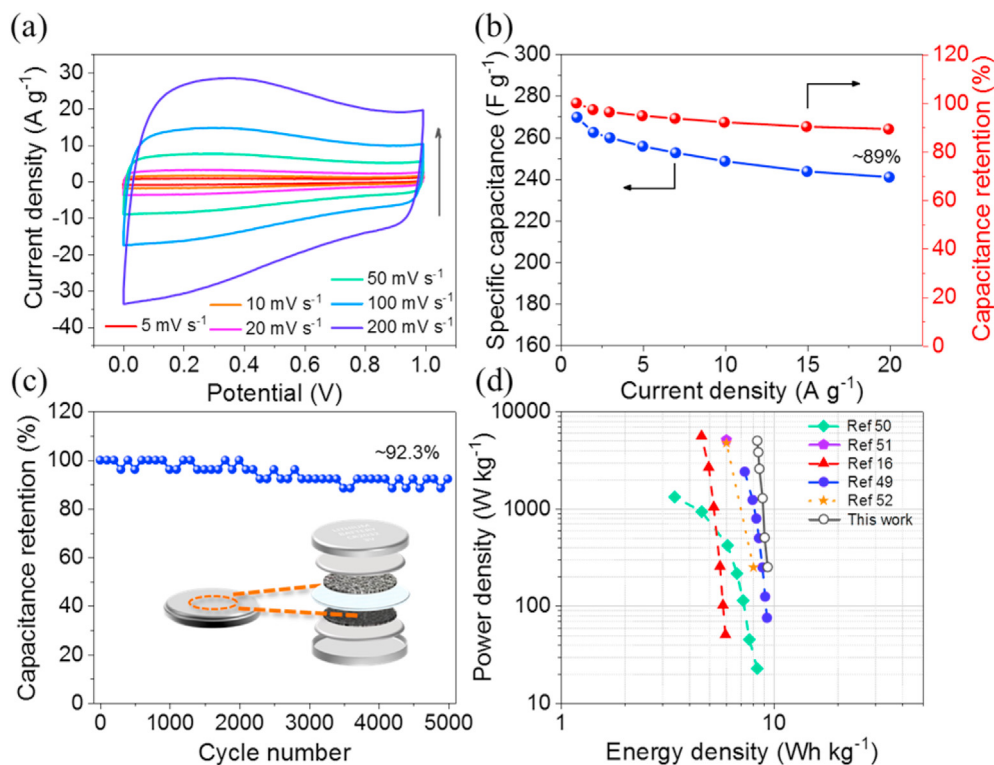
In order to further evaluate the resistance performance of x-PFG samples, EIS was employed and the Nyquist plots were displayed in Fig. 5e. The inset of Fig. 5e presents the enlarged view of high frequency region. According to the equivalent circuit diagram shown in Fig. S8, the Nyquist plots were accurately fitted to calculate the corresponding solution resistance ( $R_s$ ) and faradaic charge-transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ). In impedance Nyquist plots, the  $R_s$  consists of the intrinsic resistance of active material, ionic resistance of electrolyte and contact resistance between the current collector and electrode material [42]. The  $R_{ct}$  values calculated by the diameter of semi-circle at the high-frequency region are associated with the pseudo-capacitive behavior that occurs at the interface of electrode and electrolyte ions [43–45]. Besides, the plots of all the samples in the low frequency range exhibit a steep slope similar to a vertical, suggesting electrochemical process is dominated by electrical double layer capacitance. The fitted results in Table S1, x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ) samples own relatively low  $R_s$  values (0.61, 0.95, 0.44, 0.63 and 0.70  $\Omega$ ), which can contribute to the fast conduction of electrons and good wettability of electrode surface in the electrolyte. The 140-PFG owns the highest  $R_s$  (0.95  $\Omega$ ) value and this can be attributed to reduced free electrons on the surface of graphene due to the formation of covalent C–F bonds and plentiful residual oxygen-containing functional groups as well as relatively poor wettability brought by covalent C–F bonds. It is worth mentioning that 180-PFG with the lowest  $R_{ct}$  value is able to easily store electric charge through faradaic reaction and thus it is reasonable that the highest specific capacitance of 180-PFG results from more pseudo-capacitance.

Complex Bode plots were further investigated to analyze the rate capability of a series of electrode materials. Fig. S6 show the real part ( $C'$ , mF) and the imaginary part ( $C''$ , mF) versus frequency ( $f$ , Hz) of x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ) and HRG. In the plots of imaginary part of capacitance versus frequency, the relaxation time constant  $\tau_0$  can be obtained from the character frequency corresponding to the maximum  $C''$  ( $f = 1/\tau_0$ ). Generally speaking, high power density supercapacitors are expected to be characterized by high character frequency and smaller  $\tau_0$ , which is defined as the minimum time to discharge the whole energy with an efficiency greater than 50% [46,47]. First of all, the real part  $C'$  change with frequency of 180-PFG and HRG are discussed in Fig. 5f and S4b. At the low frequency region (0.01–0.1 Hz), there is a gentler incline for 180-PFG, manifesting a fast pathway of the electrolyte ions. At the higher frequency region, sharp decrease of  $C'$  value is attributed to the fact that only the near surface of the pores can be accessed by the electrolyte ions [48]. The 180-PFG has a character frequency of 0.10 Hz corresponding to the time constant of 10.0 s, which is better than 0.03 Hz and 33.3 s for the HRG, suggesting a faster charge-discharge characteristic response after fluorination. Among these five PFG electrodes from the  $C'$  vs. frequency plot in Fig. S6a, the 180-PFG with the highest  $C'$  value demonstrates its optimal storage

property. In Figure S6c, it can be seen that the character frequency of x-PFG ( $x = 120, 140, 160, 180, 200$ ) are 0.03, 0.04, 0.06, 0.10, 0.13 Hz, corresponding to the time constant  $\tau_0$  of 33.3, 25.0, 16.7, 10, 7.7 s, respectively. The increased capacitance of 180-PFG results in a shift to a lower frequency comparing with 200-PFG and both of frequency values of them were kept at a reasonable range. To sum up, 180-PFG in bode plots is proved to have relatively outstanding performance likewise and 180 °C is the optimal temperature for fabricating this electrode material.

In consideration of the best electrochemical performance of 180-PFG sample, it was selected as the electrode materials to assemble symmetrical coin cells. All the two-electrode system measurements were carried out in 6 M KOH solution as the electrolyte with the stable operating potential window (1.0 V). As shown in Fig. 6a, all the CV curves assume quasi-rectangular shapes without any apparent redox peaks, which are different from three-electrodes testing results. Meanwhile, the ideal symmetrical triangle presents through GCD curves is ascribed to the good reversibility of this device (Fig. S7). Voltage drops at the beginning of the discharge can be barely found in the GCD curves, indicating that the device has fast current/voltage response with a low resistance. As for the rate performance, the gravimetric specific capacitance values calculated from GCD curves at various current densities are shown in Fig. 6b. The specific capacitance of 180-PFG tends to decrease with the increase of the current density. The highest gravimetric specific capacitance of  $269.7 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  is reached at the current density of  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ , but the 180-PFG still achieves the specific capacitance of  $240.8 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  even at a higher current density of  $20 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ , illustrating outstanding capacitance retention (89%). The result from Nyquist plots (Fig. S6d) proves that there is very low resistance for electrolyte ions delivery and electron transportation in assembled symmetrical coin cells. Especially, the energy density of  $9.4 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}$  is obtained with corresponding power density  $250.0 \text{ W kg}^{-1}$  at current density of  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . While the current density is increased to  $20 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ , the maximum power density of  $5.02 \text{ kW kg}^{-1}$  is obtained and the corresponding energy density was  $8.36 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}$ . Notably, capacitive performance of our symmetric supercapacitors is higher than those of fluorinated graphene fabricated via traditional hydrothermal approach with HF and some nitrogen-doped carbon materials such as FGH and N-MGHs [49]. The cycle stability of this symmetric supercapacitor device was measured on the CT3001K testing system, and 180-PFG electrode retained about 92.3% capacitance after 5000 cycles at the current density of  $4 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  (Fig. 6c). Ragone plots displayed in Fig. 6d show the outstanding energy density and power density of as-fabricated PFG compared to other single-element doping graphene and some details are listed in Table S2. Electrochemical performances in different aspects have amply demonstrated that as-prepared porous partially fluorinated graphene is a potential electrode material for supercapacitors, especially due to its rather high specific capacitance and splendid capacity retention rate.

In consideration of overall experimental results above, the superior capacitive performances of PFG may be ascribed to the following reasons: Firstly, the partially fluorinated graphene with the semi-ionic C–F bonds was endowed with an enhanced conductor of electricity, and good wettability between electrode and electrolyte was actually attributed to macro-porous structure formed under the participation of  $\text{BF}_4^-$ ; secondly, after fluorination, the stability of semi-ionic C–F bonds enhance the rate capability of electrodes; thirdly, the as-fabricated partially fluorinated graphene formed abundant porous structures in favor of electron delivering in the graphene networks and ion fast transfer pathway in the electrolyte.



**Fig. 6.** (a) CV curves of the assembled symmetric supercapacitors at the scan rate from 5 mV s<sup>-1</sup> to 200 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. (b) Specific capacitance and the corresponding capacitance retention at different current densities. (c) The long-term cycling stability (92.3%) of the symmetric supercapacitors for 180-PFG at 4 A g<sup>-1</sup>. (d) Ragone plots of the symmetric supercapacitor of 180-PFG in comparison with previous relevant reports [16,49–52].

#### 4. Conclusions

In summary, we fabricated porous partially fluorinated graphene via a facile and high security one-pot hydrothermal method for enhanced high-performance symmetric supercapacitors. Unlike direct exposure of carbon-based materials to solutions containing large amounts of fluoride ions, this work utilized the stepwise hydrolysate of weakly coordinating anion BF<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> as the fluorine source to realize the fluorination of GO at various temperatures. The sodium fluoborate (NaBF<sub>4</sub>) is only subject to hydrolysis reaction at relatively high temperature, which not only ensures the safety of the experimental process for operators, but also accomplishes the modification for graphene electrode materials with better electrochemical performances than traditional fluorinating agent. The results demonstrated that appropriate hydrothermal temperature enabled as-fabricated 180-PFG to have enough semi-ionic C–F bonds nearly without covalent C–F bonds, achieving the optimum electrochemical performances, and a reasonable speculation was proposed on the change law of the proportion of semi-ionic and covalent C–F bonds with the variation of the reaction temperature. Remarkably, symmetric supercapacitors assembled by 180-PFG exhibited an exceptional specific capacitance of 269.1 F g<sup>-1</sup> at 1 A g<sup>-1</sup> with outstanding rate performance of 89.3% capacity retention (20 A g<sup>-1</sup>) and high energy density of 9.4 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup> at power density of 250.0 W kg<sup>-1</sup>. An enhanced electrochemical performance for SCs, especially gravimetric specific capacitive and rate performances, underpins its value for practical application. All these relevant researches are designed to advance the development of partially fluorinated graphene in the field of the supercapacitors. Green and secure synthesis for fluorinated carbon-based materials is one of crucial research direction in the future.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmat.2021.04.012>.

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