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From Na₂FePO₄F/CNT to NaKFePO₄F/CNT as advanced cathode material for K-ion batteries

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ABSTRACT

The Na₂FePO₄F/CNT composite investigated in this work was prepared by an optimized and easily scalable spray-drying process, resulting in an excellent initial discharge specific capacity of 123 mAh/g at C/15 when cycled against sodium. This NFPF/CNT composite was able to intercalate potassium ions reversibly with a promising specific capacity of 80mAh/g after optimization of electrolyte composition. Electrochemical desodiation was the key factor to reach outstanding performance as a cathode material in K-ions batteries, with the NaKFePO₄F/CNT composite leading to a stable capacity of 114mAh/g at C/15 rate (99% of the theoretical capacity), one of the highest capacity values reported for K-ion technology.

Keywords: Phosphate-based cathode; Spray-drying; K-ion batteries; Na-ion Batteries;

1. Introduction

The ongoing environmental transition will rely on a panel of energy storage technologies, including electrochemical storage. Next to Li-ion batteries (LIBs) [1], alternatives based on elements more abundant than lithium are needed. The development of Na-ion batteries (SIBs) has been receiving huge interest over the past decade [2] and K-ion batteries (KIBs) have recently emerged as a fast-growing research topic [2–4]. KIBs share with SIBs the advantage of relying on an alkaline element that is very abundant, well-distributed geographically, and cheaper than lithium [3–5]. In addition, potassium offers a reduction potential close to that of lithium, so KIBs should reach a higher energy density than SIBs, assuming an equivalent specific capacity. Another difference between SIBs and KIBs is that potassium inserts reversibly and efficiently into graphite [3, 6], the standard anode material developed for LIBs.

In both cases (SIBs and KIBs), polyanionic electrode materials [7, 8] have been investigated as promising compounds, following the success story of LiFePO_4 for LIBs. Amongst polyanionic cathode materials for SIBs, the iron-based fluorophosphate $\text{Na}_2\text{FePO}_4\text{F}$ (NFPF), first reported by Ellis *et al.* [9], offers a structure with 2D Na^+ pathways and low volume change on cycling. The relatively high theoretical capacity of 124 mAh/g [10, 11] is combined with an operating voltage (3 V vs. Na^+/Na) boosted by the presence of fluorine to reach a theoretical energy density of 375 Wh/kg [10, 12]. This favorable set of properties is the driving force behind the sustained interest in NFPF, exemplified by the publications in Table 1. As can be seen in this table, various synthesis processes and strategies have been explored to compensate for the relatively poor intrinsic electronic conductivity typical of (fluoro)-phosphates [10, 12] and enhance the electrochemical performance of NFPF in SIBs. The synthesis processes include the solid-state route [10–17], hydrothermal/solvothermal processes [18–21], sol-gel routes [22–25] and a few less common procedures such as soft templating [26], electrospinning [27] or ultrasonic spray pyrolysis [28]. Strategies to improve electronic conductivity mostly rely on particle size reduction [13, 19, 26, 27] and one-pot [10, 18, 23] or post-synthesis [14, 15, 19] carbon coating/encapsulation.

A few years ago [29–31], our group investigated a synthesis route based on the spray-

drying technique, to benefit from the well-known advantages of spray-drying in terms of repeatability and industrial upscalability. Carbon nanotubes (CNT) were added to the aqueous solution of the NFPPF precursors to ensure the formation of a NFPPF/CNT composite after heat treatment in argon. At the time, the NFPPF/CNT electrode performance was tested by cycling against lithium and the relatively large size of the composite particles limited the experimental specific capacity to about 80% of the theoretical capacity.

In the present work, we report an improved spray-drying procedure where the smaller particle size offered by bi-fluid nozzle atomization results in competitive performance of the NFPPF/CNT material when cycled against sodium. This optimized material is then tested for the first time as a candidate cathode material in KIBs, first by cycling as-obtained NFPPF against potassium and then by cycling against potassium after a pre-charging step.

Table 1: A non-exhaustive list of synthesis processes and strategies to enhance the electrochemical performance of NFPPF as cathode material for Na-ion batteries.

| Synthesis Process | Reported discharge Capacity | Strategy to enhance the electrochemical performance | Reference |
|----------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| Solid-state | 110 mAh/g at C/20 | Carbon coating with ascorbic acid | [10] |
| Solid-state | 108.6 mAh/g at C/10 | Nanosizing with polyfurfuryl alcohol as size reducing agent + carbon coating from glucose reduction | [11] |
| Solid-state | 100-110 mAh/g at C/10 | Coating with ascorbic acid and partial substitution of iron by Mn | [12] |
| Multistep solid-state | 110 mAh/g at C/10 | Polyol coating + Nanosizing | [13] |
| Multistep solid-state | 123.1 mAh/g at C/5 | Coating with conductive polymer PEDOT | [14] |
| Multistep solid-state | 115 mAh/g at C/10 | Metal-organic framework + mesoporous carbon network | [15] |
| Ball milling combined with solid-state | 114 mAh/g at C/10 | Mesoporous composite | [16] |
| Solid-state | 117 mAh/g at C/10 | Green carbon coating with ascorbic acid | [17] |
| Solvothermal | 114.3 mAh/g at C/10 | Carbon coating with glucose | [18] |

| | | | | |
|----------------------------|----------|---------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| Hydrothermal | | 118 mAh/g at C/10 | Nanoshaping into nanorod and carbon composite by ball mixing with CNT and GN | [19] |
| Solvothermal | | 120.1 mAh/g at C/10 | Double-shelled hollow microsphere composite with carbon | [20] |
| Hydrothermal | | 80 mAh/g at C/10 | Crystalline transformation to alpha-NFPF | [21] |
| Sol-gel | | 100 mAh/g at C/10 | Carbon composite by reduction of citric acid or ascorbic acid or urea during synthesis | [22] |
| Sol-gel | | 114.3 mAh/g at C/10 | Biocarbon nanocomposite hollow sphere from yeast cell | [23] |
| Ultra-rapid combustion | | 70 mAh/g at C/10 | Carbon composite from citric acid | [24] |
| Sol-gel | | 115.5 mAh/g at C/10 | Porous sponge-like morphology and composite with carbon from oxalic acid | [25] |
| Soft templating | | 116 mAh/g at C/10 | Nanosizing by high-energy ball milling | [26] |
| Electrospinning | | 117.8 mAh/g at C/10 | Nanosizing and composite structuration with carbon fibers | [27] |
| Ultrasonic spray pyrolysis | | 89 mAh/g at C/10 | Carbon coating by sucrose reduction + hollow sphere structuration | [28] |
| Spray-drying solid-state | assisted | 123.8 mAh/g at C/15 | Carbon nanotubes network inside particles | This work |

2. Experimental

NFPF/CNT powders were prepared by annealing in argon of an intermediate obtained by spray-drying. In a typical synthesis, 0.1 mol of iron powder (99.9%, abcr GmbH) is dissolved in a solution of 0.075 mol of citric acid (Alfa Aesar) in a mixture of 100 mL of milliQ water (18.2 MΩ/cm) and 0.2 mol of acetic acid by heating under reflux at 90°C under argon. After 24 h, 0.1 mol of NH₄H₂PO₄ (Sigma Aldrich), 0.1 mol of NaF (Sigma Aldrich), 0.1 mol of NaOH (Sigma Aldrich), 15 wt% (with respect to NFPF) of carbon nanotubes (AQ30X suspension from Nanocyl) and 900 mL of milliQ water (18.2 MΩ/cm) are added to the solution, which is then homogenized by magnetic stirring under argon for 1 hour at room temperature. This liquid feedstock is spray-dried in air using a Niro mobile minor spray dryer (inlet temperature: 160°C; outlet temperature: 90°C; bi-fluid injector with 25 mL/min feed rate and 3 bars of air pressure). The as-sprayed powder is then heated at 600°C for 2 h under an Ar flow with a heating rate of 150°C/h.

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) data were collected using a Bruker D8 diffractometer (Cu K_{α} radiation; 10-60° 2θ range; 0.02° step size). The powder morphology was examined by scanning electron microscopy (XL30 FEG-ESEM, FEI) and by transmission electron microscopy (200 kV, TECNAI G2 TWIN, FEI). Nitrogen (N_2) adsorption-desorption isotherms were measured with a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 Plus system after degassing at 150°C for 6 h.

^{57}Fe transmission Mössbauer spectra were recorded at room temperature in the ± 12 mm/s velocity range with a constant-acceleration spectrometer and a $^{57}\text{Co}(\text{Rh})$ source. The Mössbauer absorbers were prepared with 40 mg/cm² of NFPP/CNT mixed with boron nitride. The spectrometer was calibrated at room temperature with the magnetically split sextet spectrum of a high-purity α -Fe foil as the reference for isomer shifts. The spectral parameters such as isomer shift (δ), quadrupole splitting (ΔE_q), linewidth (Γ), and relative resonance areas (A) of the different spectral components were determined with Lorentzian curves using the Fullham program. The validity of fits was judged based on minimizing the number of parameters and χ^2 values.

The standard electrochemical measurements were performed in CR2032 coin cell configuration. The positive electrode was prepared by mixing the active material, carbon black (CB), and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) to reach a mass ratio NFPP:C_{total}:PVDF of 7:2:1. After mixing 600 mg of mixed powders in 3 mL N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) with 5 mm zirconia balls in a 50 mL zirconia jar for 1 h (Retsch PM400/2 planetary mill, 150 RPM, alternate rotation mode), the slurry was tape cast on aluminum foil by the doctor blade method and then dried at 110°C for 12 h under vacuum. The electrodes were then cut to obtain electrode discs of 15 mm in diameter with about 1 mg/cm² mass loading. The coin cells were assembled in an argon-filled glove box using a Whatman® filter separator. For Na half-cells, the electrolyte was 1M NaPF₆ dissolved in propylene carbonate (PC) and sodium foil was used as the counter and reference electrode (Na half-cell). For K half-cells, several electrolytes were used: (i) 0.8 M KPF₆ in PC with 10 wt% of fluoroethylene carbonate (FEC), (ii) 0.8 M KPF₆ in ethylene carbonate (EC) and PC (1:1 v:v) and (iii) 0.8 M KPF₆ in EC:PC (1:1 v:v) with 10 wt% of FEC. Metallic potassium was used as the counter and reference electrode (K half-cell). Galvanostatic cycling tests

were carried out using a Neware BTS4000 potentiostat in the voltage range of 2-4.2 V vs. Na⁺/Na and K⁺/K, except for few tests in Na half-cells in the range of 2-4.5 V, at different rates from C/15 to C where C is the theoretical density of current for a complete charge or discharge. During precycling experiments to remove sodium from the pristine material, the NFPP/CNT material was first fully charged in a Na half-cell and maintained at the potential of 4.2 V for 1 hour. The coin cell was opened and the electrode was thoroughly washed with diethyl carbonate solvent and dried overnight. The K half-cell was then assembled following initial conditions with K metal as anode and 0.8 M KPF₆ in EC:PC (1:1 V:V) as the electrolyte, using a voltage range of 1.5-4.2 V vs. K⁺/K. A VMP3 Bio-logic potentiostat was used to perform electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) with 5 mV amplitude in the frequency range from 1 MHz to 10 mHz and cyclic voltammetry between 1 and 5 V vs. Na⁺/Na or K⁺/K at a speed rate of 0.05-1 mV/s. The EIS data were fitted with the Aftermath software from Pine Research Instrumentation. All electrochemical tests were carried out at room temperature.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Composition, structure, and microstructure of NFPP/CNT

The synthesis conditions described in the experimental section (dissolution of iron under argon, spray-drying in air, heat-treatment at 600°C for 2 h in argon) were optimized during preliminary tests to prevent the formation of metallic iron by carbothermal reduction during the heat treatment.

Fig. 1 presents the main characteristics of the NFPP/CNT powder obtained with the optimized synthesis conditions. All peaks in the XRD pattern (Fig. 1a) are similar to those in the sample without CNT and can be indexed in the NFPP orthorhombic structure [9] with cell parameters $a = 5.23 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 13.86 \text{ \AA}$ and $c = 11.79 \text{ \AA}$. The average crystallite size estimated with the Scherrer formula is about 27 nm, while the SEM images (Fig. 1b) show collapsed granules with diameters from 1.5 to 5 μm . This microstructure is in good agreement with our previous works on the addition of CNT in the spray-drying solution [29, 32–34] and is attributed in the literature to the formation of a viscoelastic shell during the drying step [32, 33]. The BET specific surface area is in the 100 m²/g range, also due

to the presence of carbon nanotubes. The absence of metallic iron or other iron-containing secondary phases in the XRD pattern is confirmed by the Mössbauer analysis presented in Figure 1c and 1d. The experimental spectrum forms an asymmetric doublet that can be fitted by using two doublets (75 at% Fe) with average isomer shifts and quadrupole splittings typical of Fe(II) and one doublet (25 at% Fe) with parameters corresponding to Fe(III) in sodium-poor NFPP ($\text{Na}_{2-d}\text{FePO}_4\text{F}$) [35]. The presence of Fe(III) in the NFPP phase obtained by spray-drying was studied in detail by operando Mössbauer spectroscopy in a previous work [30] where it was found that a Fe(III)-free NFPP phase is recovered after one galvanostatic cycle in Li-ion batteries.

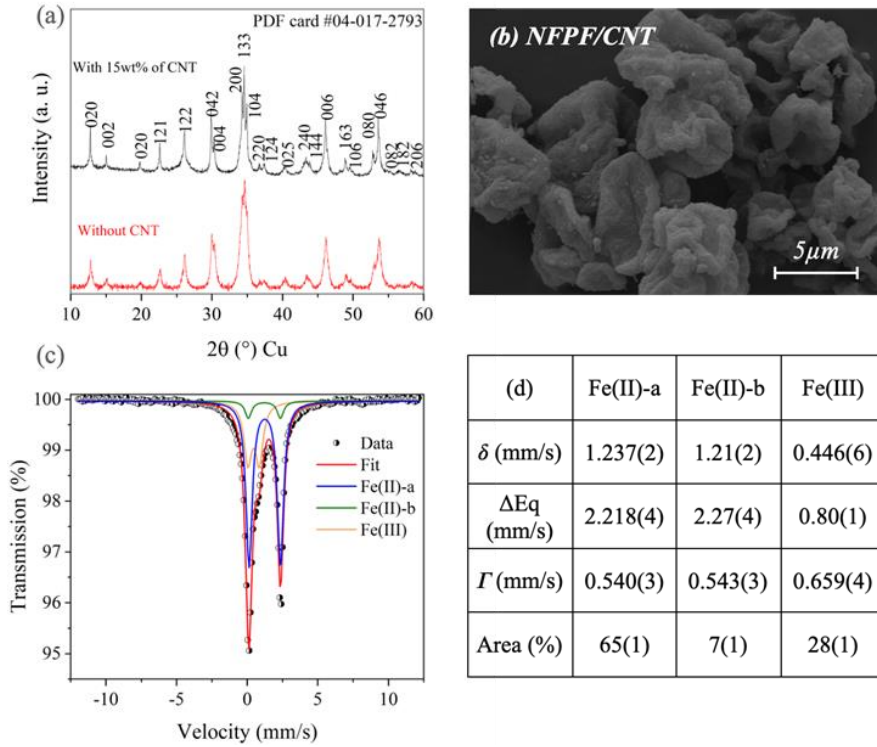


Figure 1: NFPP/CNT powder after 2 h at 600°C in argon: (a) X-ray diffractogram indexed in the *Pbcn* space group and comparison with the sample without CNT, (b) secondary electron micrograph, (c) ^{57}Fe Mössbauer spectrum, and (d) corresponding hyperfine parameters obtained with a 3-doublet fit.

Fig. 2 shows further detail about the distribution of carbon nanotubes in the inorganic matrix; the higher magnification SEM micrograph (Fig. 2b) shows the carbon nanotubes within and at the surface of the NFPP matrix, while the inter-particle connection is confirmed by the transmission electron micrograph in Fig. 2c. EDX mapping in the SEM

did not reveal any anomaly in the homogeneity of the Na, Fe, P, and F elemental distribution (see Fig. S1 in Supplementary Information).

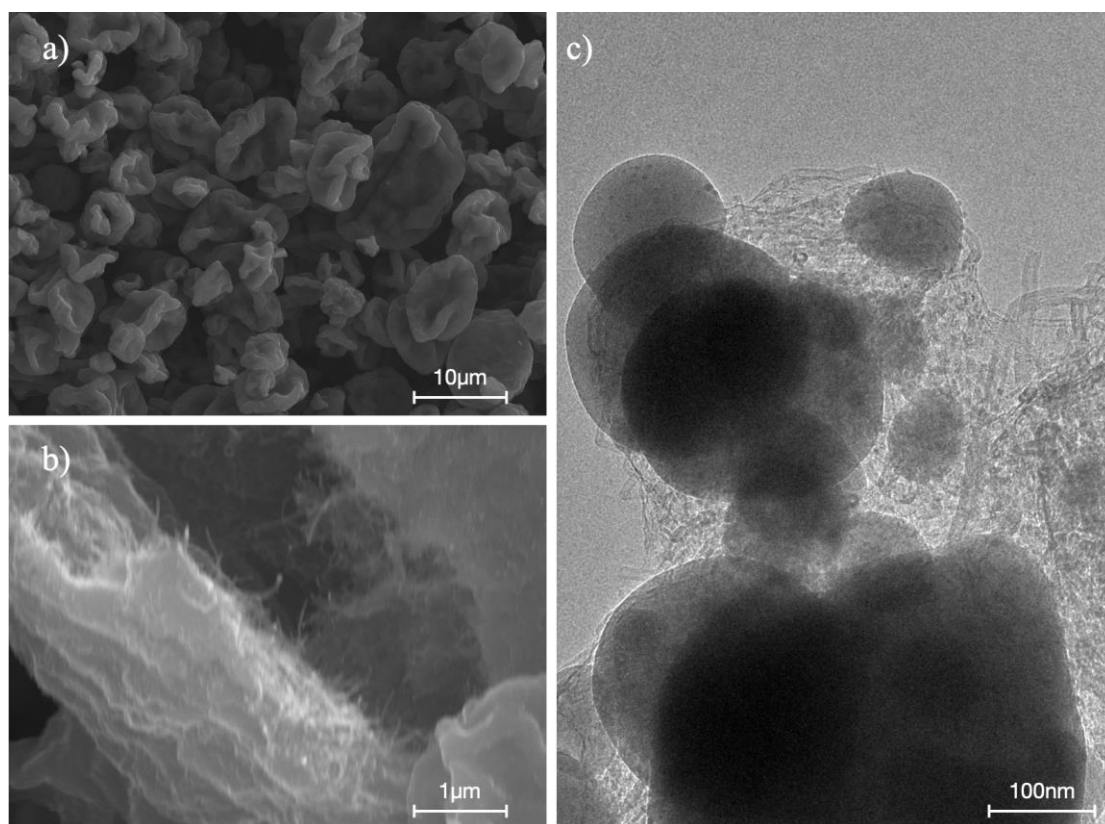


Fig. 2: (a, b) Secondary electron micrographs and (c) transmission electron micrograph of NFPP/CNT powder after 2 h at 600°C in argon.

3.2 NFPP/CNT cycled against sodium

The NFPP/CNT powder was first characterized in Na half-cells to assess its performance and validate its potential to be used in SIB using the easily upscalable spray-drying synthesis method. Fig. 3 shows the galvanostatic cycling tests performed in the voltage window of 2-4.2 V vs. Na⁺/Na. The evolution of the discharge capacity as a function of the cycling rate is presented in Fig. 3a and the associated charge-discharge profiles are illustrated in Fig. 3b. The highest discharge specific capacity (123 mAh/g) is obtained at C/15 and corresponds to 99% of the theoretical capacity. Average discharge capacities of 121.6, 113.5, 94.7, and 55.7 mAh/g are obtained at C/15, C/10, C/5, and 1C cycling rates, respectively, with a coulombic efficiency of more than 98.5% at all cycling rates. Returning to C/15 after the rate capability test, the electrode is still able to deliver

a discharge capacity of 110 mAh/g. The charge-discharge profiles in Fig. 3b suggest the presence of two distinct discharge plateaus at C/15 and C/10 around 2.75 and 3 V. The cycling test for 50 cycles at C/15 in Fig. 3c shows a maximum discharge capacity of 123 mAh/g and 95% of capacity retention. When cycling at C/5 (Fig. 3d) the maximum capacity is 104 mAh/g and 90% of capacity is retained after 100 cycles.

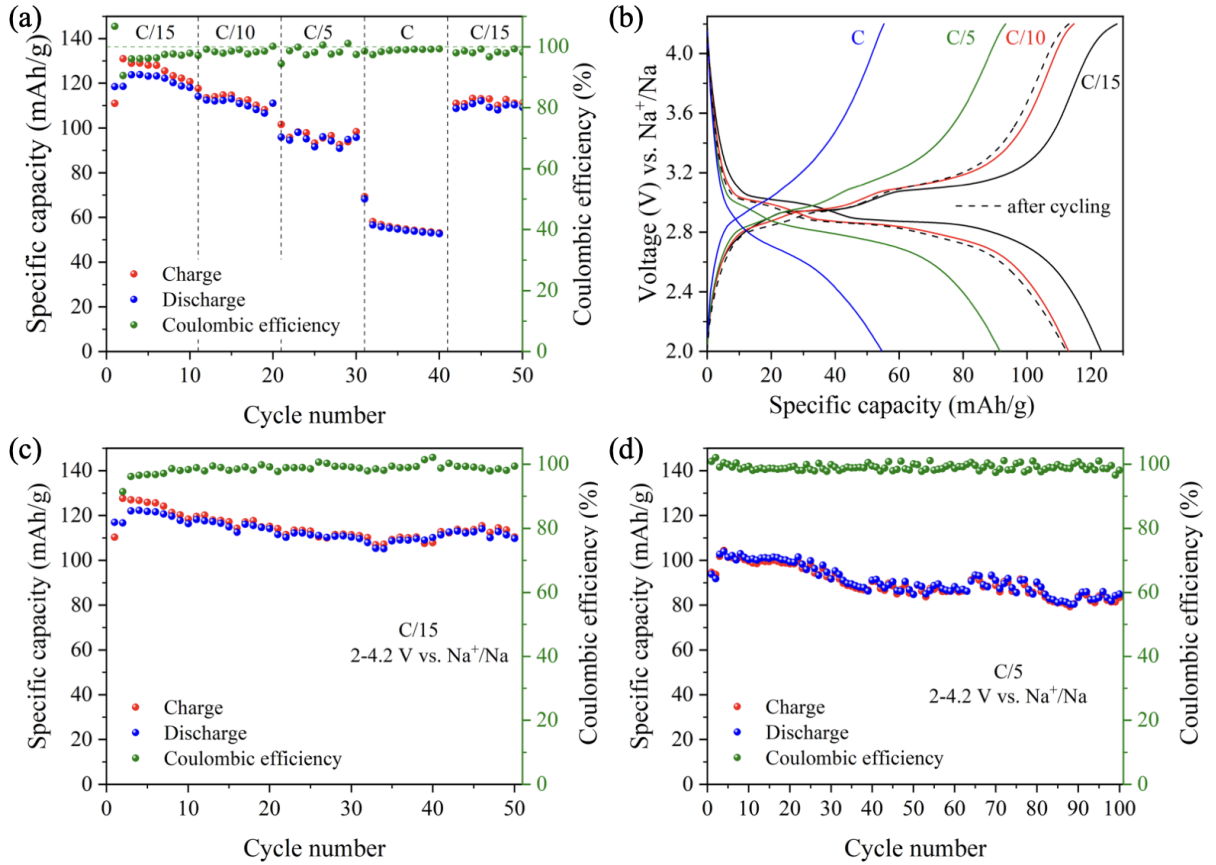


Fig. 3: NFPF/CNT in Na-half cell (room temperature): (a) Specific capacity and coulombic efficiency vs. cycle number for cycling at C/15, C/10, C/5, and 1C rates in the voltage window 2–4.2 V vs. Na⁺/Na. (b) Charge/discharge curves for the cycle at C/15, C/10, C/5, and 1C rates from rate capability test. (c-d) Evolution of specific capacity and coulombic efficiency vs. cycle number at C/15 and C/5 rates. The fluctuations are associated with variations of the temperature during the cycling tests.

Since Deng et al. reported that extra capacities could be obtained by partially removing the second Na from the NFPF structure [17], we performed some tests in the voltage range of 2.2–4.5 V vs. Na⁺/Na (see Fig. S2 in Supplementary Information). However, this broadening of the voltage window did not notably increase the specific

capacity values but markedly deteriorated the coulombic efficiency, which dropped to about 90% due to the degradation of the electrolyte at high voltage. Similarly, grinding did not improve electrochemical performance (Fig. S2), confirming that the well-distributed carbon network inside and at the surface of the NFPP particles is sufficient to ensure electronic conductivity.

As a complement to the galvanostatic cycling experiments, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was used to further characterize the properties of NFPP/CNT in a Na half-cell. The EIS spectra of NFPP and NFPP/CNT have similar shapes but show a strong decrease in the charge transfer resistance from 234 to 64 Ω due to the addition of CNT (Fig. S3), confirming the good electronic conductivity of the NFPP/CNT composite.

3.3 NFPP/CNT cycled against potassium

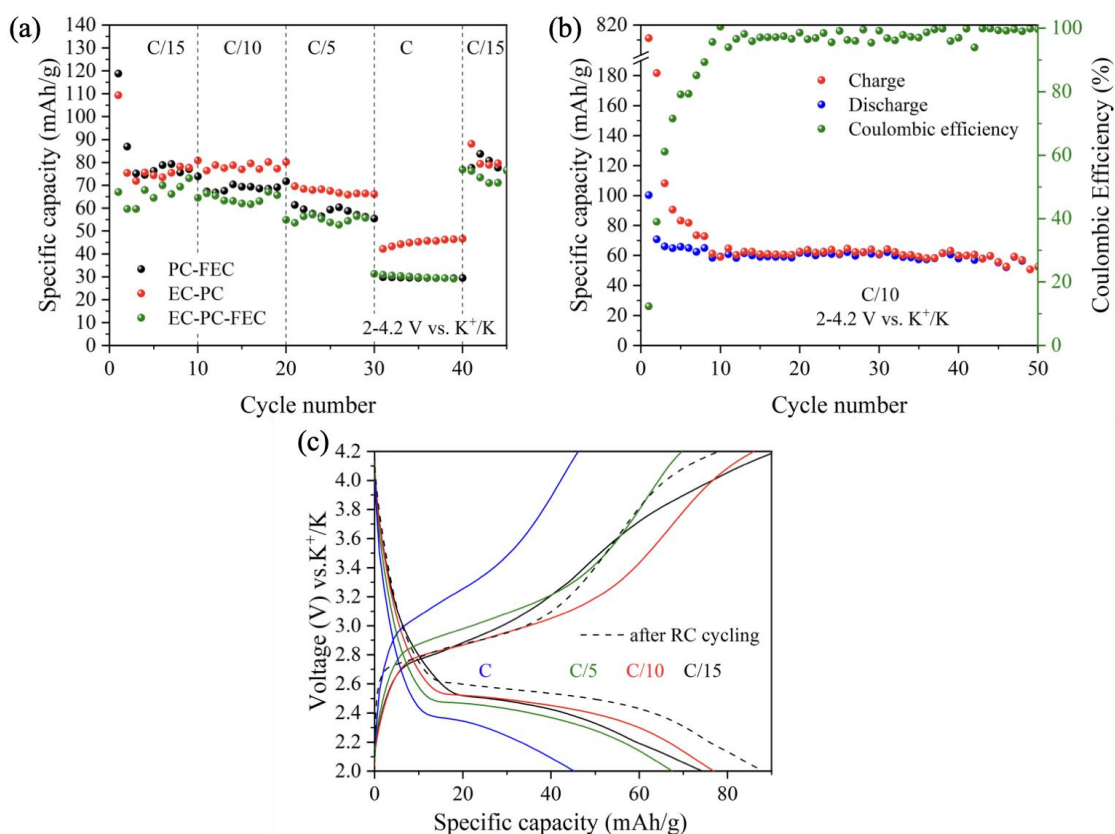


Fig. 4: NFPP/CNT in K-half cell (room temperature): (a) Evolution of discharge capacity vs. cycle number for cycling at C/15, C/10, C/5, and C rates, with different electrolytes: 0.8 M KPF₆ in PC with 10 wt% of FEC (black circles), 0.8 M KPF₆ in EC and PC (1:1)

(red circles), and 0.8 M KPF_6 in EC and PC (1:1) with 10 wt% of FEC (green circles). (b) Evolution of discharge capacity vs. cycle number over 50 cycles at C/10 (red circles), with 0.8 M KPF_6 in EC and PC (1:1). (c) Charge/discharge curves extracted from the rate capability experiment at C/15, C/10, C/5, and 1C rates using 0.8 M KPF_6 in EC and PC.

Fig. 4 presents preliminary cycling tests that were performed on K half-cells in order to assess whether the NFPF phase is able to act as a cathode material for KIBs. Fig. 4a illustrates the rate performance at different current densities for NFPF/CNT in K half-cells in the voltage window of 2-4.2 V. Three different electrolyte compositions were evaluated: (i) 0.8M KPF_6 in PC with 10wt.% of FEC (PC-FEC), (ii) 0.8M KPF_6 in EC:PC (1:1 v:v) (EC-PC) and (iii) 0.8M KPF_6 in EC:PC (1:1 v:v) with 10 wt.% of FEC (EC-PC-FEC).

The first cycles at C/15 show that the PC-FEC and EC-PC electrolytes lead to a strong decrease of the specific capacity from 120 to 75 mAh/g, suggesting a secondary reaction. In the case of the EC-PC-FEC electrolyte, the capacity is about 70 mAh/g from the beginning. Using the additive-free 0.8M KPF_6 in EC:PC electrolyte leads to higher capacity retentions during further cycles in the rate capability tests. The cells using this electrolyte exhibit discharge capacities of 75, 82, 68, 45, and 80 mAh/g at C/15, C/10, C/5, 1C, and C/15 after high C-rate measurements, respectively (red circles in Fig. 4a). This represents 71% of the theoretical capacity of $NaKFePO_4F$ (115 mAh/g). The lower capacity observed at higher cycling rates is expected for such materials and is associated with kinetic limitations. The specific capacity of 79 mAh/g (69% of theoretical capacity) observed after the rate capability testing suggests stable structure and insertion properties of the material after going through a kinetically limiting cycling procedure. The obtained capacity using the other two electrolytes is similar except at the highest rate (1C), where the capacity obtained with the EC-PC electrolyte is almost two times higher than the others. A cycling test was performed at C/10 rate for 50 cycles (Fig. 4b). After a strong irreversibility in the first cycle, the observed reversible capacity is about 70 mAh/g for the second cycle, decreases slightly over the next 10 cycles and stabilizes at 60mAh/g,

with a good coulombic efficiency. Fig. 4c shows the charge and discharge curves obtained at different C-rates; only one plateau can be observed at each cycling rate and the potentials vs. K^+/K are lower than vs. Na^+/Na , especially when taking into account the 0.22 V difference between Na^+/Na (-2.71 V vs. SHE) and K^+/K (-2.93 V vs. SHE).

In order to investigate this phenomenon, cyclic voltammograms were collected for 3-electrode Swagelok cells with sodium or potassium as negative and reference electrodes. As shown in Fig. 5, the peaks of the first charge (desodiation in both cases) were shifted by 0.24-0.26 V, close to the 0.22 V difference between Na^+/Na (-2.71 V vs. SHE) and K^+/K (-2.93 V vs. SHE). In the case of cycling against sodium, the first and second cycles displayed very little difference. On the contrary, the replacement of Na^+ ions by K^+ ions during cycling against potassium led to a shift of the peak potentials towards lower values. Indeed the material being cycled is no longer Na_2FePO_4F but $NaKFePO_4F$. A similar decrease in potential when inserting/extracting K^+ ions was observed for $Na_3V_2PO_4F_3$ by Lin *et al.* [36], who related this phenomenon to the structure adaptations when larger K^+ ions replace Na^+ ions.

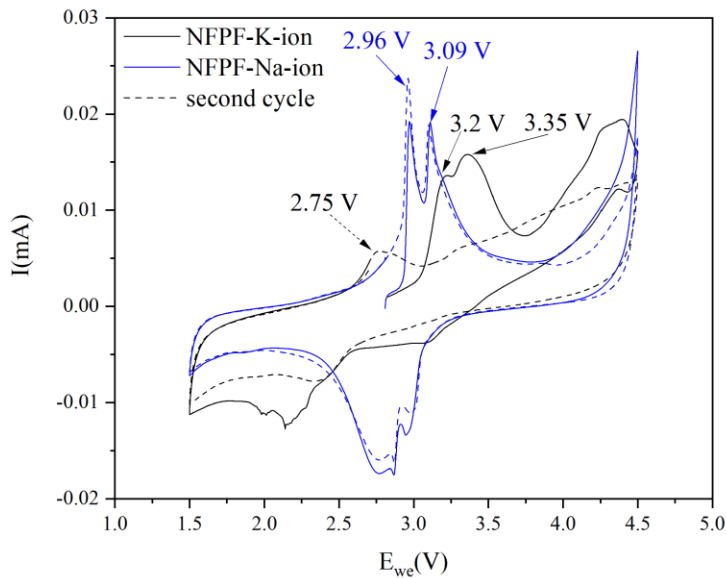


Fig. 5: Cyclic voltammetry test of NFPF/CNT in 3-electrode Swagelok cells with Na (in blue) or K (in black) as reference and counter electrodes (at 0.05mV/s). The dotted lines represent the second cycles.

3.4 NFPP/CNT cycled against potassium after pre-charging

To enhance the electrochemical performance of NFPP/CNT as cathode material for KIBs, NFPP/CNT electrodes were first fully charged in Na half-cells to ensure the removal of one Na ion following the protocol described in the experimental section. These precharged electrodes were then tested in K half-cells, using 0.8 M KPF₆ in EC:PC (1:1 v:v) as electrolyte. Fig. 6 shows the results for three cells, in order to estimate the reproducibility of the observed behavior. After the first few cycles suffering from irreversibility (probably enhanced due to the transfer of the electrode from the Na half-cell to the K half-cell), the specific capacity stabilizes at higher values than in the non-pre-charged cells, with 114, 104, 88, 60, and 105 mAh/g at C/15, C/10, C/5, 1C, and back to C/15, respectively. The formation cycle to prepare NaFePO₄F electrochemically allows to reach over 99% of the theoretical capacity at C/15. However, the charge/discharge profiles in Fig. 6b reveal the presence of an additional plateau at 3V in the first charge (C/15), suggesting that Na⁺ ions are still extracted during the first cycle in K half-cell. After a few cycles, only one plateau is visible. A similar behavior was observed by Lin et al. in 2019 when replacing progressively the Na⁺ ions by K⁺ ions in Na₃V₂(PO₄)₂F₃ [36]. These authors obtained a decent capacity of 100mAh/g at 3.4V, positioning this work among the best performance reported for a KIB cathode. The reversible capacity of 114mAh/g at 3V obtained here starting from NFPP confirms the huge interest of using Na⁺ or Li⁺ analog materials for the development of high capacity cathode materials for KIBs [36], in line with previous success of this strategy in the LIB-SIB context (delithiation by electrochemical charging followed by sodiation through discharging in sodium half-cell) [37–40].

Fig. 6c shows long-term cycling against potassium at C/5. Over the first ten cycles, the already observed irreversibility led to a fading of the capacity to ~90 mAh/g. The variations during further cycles mostly reflect the variations in the temperature of the room. When discounting these oscillations, the capacity was rather stable (94% capacity retention from the 10th cycle to the 175th cycle) with an average coulombic efficiency of 98.5%.

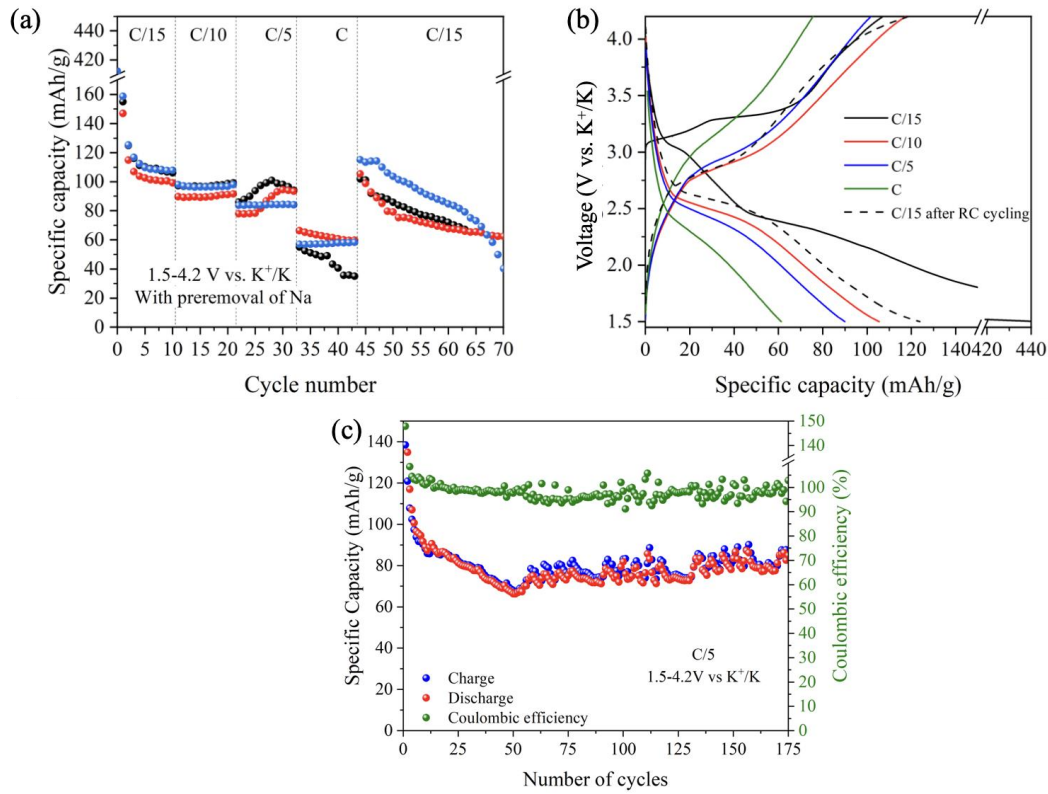


Fig. 6: Pre-charged NFPF/CNT in K-half cell (room temperature): (a) Evolution of discharge capacity vs. cycle number for 3 similarly-prepared electrodes with 0.8 M KPF₆ in EC:PC (1:1) as electrolyte and C/15, C/10, C/5, 1C rates. (b) Charge/discharge curves extracted from the rate capability test of precycled NFPF/CNT in K half-cells at C/15, C/10, C/5, and 1 C rates. (c) Evolution of discharge capacity vs. cycle number over 175 cycles at C/5. The oscillations after 50 cycles are due to central-heating-related temperature variations in the room.

The comparison between the behavior when cycling vs. Na and vs. K was further studied by cyclic voltammetry (CV). Fig. 7a presents the cyclic voltammograms vs. Na for scan rates between 0.05 mV/s and 1 mV/s. In agreement with the two-step mechanism $\text{Na}_2\text{FePO}_4\text{F} \rightarrow \text{Na}_{1.5}\text{FePO}_4\text{F} \rightarrow \text{Na}_1\text{FePO}_4\text{F}$ proposed by some authors [10, 12], two oxidation peaks (A: 3 V, B: 3.2 V) and two reduction peaks (C: 2.75 V and D: 3 V) are observed at all scan rates. The maximum current of the redox peaks is plotted in Fig. 7b versus the square root of the scan rate. The observed linearity for both the oxidation and reduction peaks indicates that the diffusion process is limited by the diffusion of the

sodium ions in the electrode material [41–43].

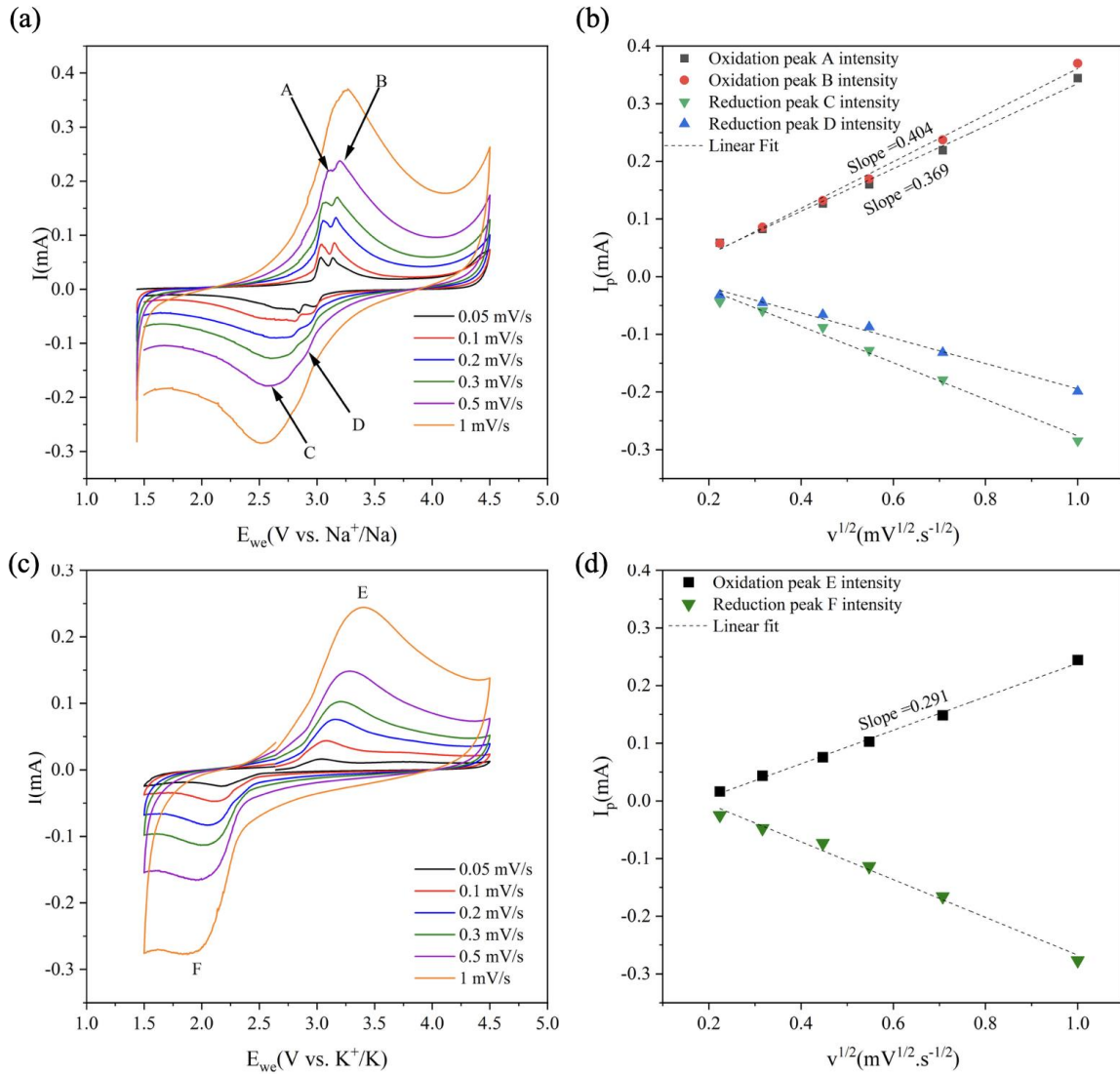


Fig. 7: (a,b) Cyclic voltammograms at scan rates between 0.05 and 1 mV/s and evolution of the peak current versus the square root of the scan rate for NFPF/CNT in Na-half cell. (c,d) Cyclic voltammograms at scan rates between 0.05 and 1 mV/s and evolution of the peak current versus the square root of the scan rate in K-ion half-cell after a precharge in Na-half cell.

Fig. 7c presents the results of a similar cyclic voltammetry experiment performed vs. K with a pre-charged electrode. By comparison with the corresponding results against Na, only one oxidation peak and one reduction peak can be observed. There is also a displacement of the voltage peak depending on the scan rate: at 0.05mV/s the oxidation peak (E) appears at 3.04 V, and at a higher scan rate (1mV/s) the maximum intensity of

the oxidation peak shifts to 3.40 V. The same phenomenon is observed for the reduction peak (F) shifting from 2.16 V at 0.05 mV/s to 1.89 V at 1 mV/s. Fig. 7d shows that the maximum current linearly depends on the square root of the scan rate. This linearity indicates that the diffusion process is limited by the potassium ion movement in the electrode material.

This linear relationship observed for both Na⁺ and K⁺ is described by Randles-Sevcik equation (Eq.1) [41–43] :

$$I_p = 2.69 \cdot 10^5 \cdot n^{3/2} \cdot S \cdot (D_{A^+})^{1/2} \cdot C_{A^+} \cdot v^{1/2} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

where I_p is the peak intensity current, n is the number of electrons, S is the effective surface area, D_{A^+} is the diffusion coefficient of sodium/potassium ions and C_{A^+} is the maximum concentration of A⁺ ions (either Na⁺ or K⁺) in the electrode. The slope for the evolution of the oxidation peaks is 0.29 mA s^{1/2} mV^{-1/2} for the K half-cell and 0.37-0.40 mA s^{1/2} mV^{-1/2} for the Na half-cell, revealing a difference between the two experiments. In order to determine explicit values for the diffusion coefficients, it is necessary to make assumptions about the values of some of the parameters in the Randles-Sevcik equation, such as the effective surface area S . The detailed discussion provided in Supplementary Information (Table S1) first determines the diffusion coefficients using specific surface area (without CNT = 1.75 m²/g) that is underestimated and then uses literature values of $\sim 10^{-12}$ cm²/s for D_{Na^+} in Na₂FePO₄F [16, 21, 44] to arrive at a value of $\sim 0.5 \cdot 10^{-12}$ cm²/s for D_{K^+} . This slightly more difficult diffusion of the K⁺ ions in the NFPPF structure can be related to the fact that the ionic radius of K⁺ is 1.33 Å where the Na⁺ radius is only 0.97 Å [3]. The low decrease of the diffusion coefficient proves the electrochemical activity and potential applications of the NFPPF phase as a cathode material for KIBs.

4. Conclusions

For the first time, cycling versus potassium was performed to investigate the electrochemical performance of NFPPF/CNT. A discharge capacity of 80 mAh/g is obtained, which represents 71% of the theoretical capacity of NaKFePO₄F with 0.8 M KPF₆ in EC:PC as the best-tested electrolyte. The initial cycles present irreversibility that can be associated with the replacement of sodium by potassium in the crystal lattice. The pre-cycling of the material in a Na half-cell to remove Na before cycling in K half-cells

led to improved performance with a specific capacity of 114 mAh/g at C/15, i.e., 99% of the theoretical capacity. These results highlight the potential of NFPP/CNT prepared by spray-drying as a cathode material for both SIBs and KIBs. *In situ* experiments will be needed to investigate the reaction mechanisms when cycling against K, while additional work on the effect of the electrolyte could help to reduce the irreversibility observed in the first cycles and increase the coulombic efficiency. The rate capability might be further enhanced by replacing part of the CNT with reduced graphene oxide, as in our previous work on $K_3V(PO_4)_2$ [34]. Other strategies would be down-sizing by grinding (without structure degradation) or tuning the spray-drying parameters to create smaller particles and adapting the heat treatment to suppress the carbothermal reduction.

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