

# Excellent Metal Phosphide Electrode for Potassium Ion Hybrid Capacitors: The Case of Carbon Nanotube-Wrapped $\text{AgP}_2$

Jia-Zheng Yen, Che-Bin Chang, Kai-Siang Jhang, and Hsing-Yu Tuan\*

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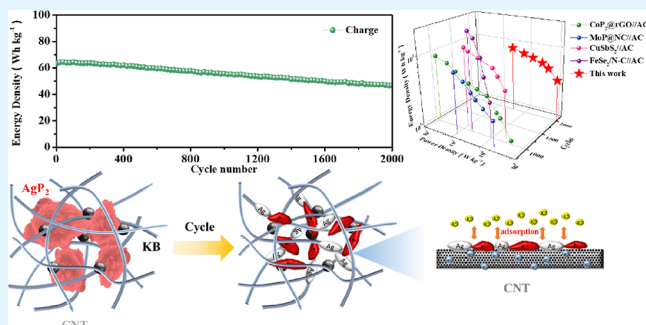
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**ABSTRACT:** Potassium-ion hybrid capacitors (PIHCs) have received extensive attention due to combining the advantages of high energy density of batteries and high power density of capacitors and are economically advantageous alternatives to lithium-ion hybrid capacitors. Metal phosphides are potential anode materials for  $\text{K}^+$ -storage with high theoretical capacity, relatively low working potential, thermal stability, and metal characteristics. Nevertheless, high-performance metal phosphide materials for PIHC applications have proven to be challenging due in part to the dissatisfied electronic conductivity, irreversible deterioration of the structure, and high electron transfer resistance. In this work, we synthesize carbon nanotube (CNT)-wrapped  $\text{AgP}_2$  via a wet-ball milling (WBM) approach to prepare the electrode slurry. Simultaneously with electrode cycling, the in situ formed Ag nanocrystals increased the electrical conductivity and formed Ag-P composites that easily adsorbed more  $\text{K}^+$ , the framework of CNTs effectively reduced the capacity fading caused by material refinement, and a large surface area is provided to facilitate electrolyte penetration. Owing to these advantageous merits of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  electrodes, the assembled PIHC exhibits a high energy/power density of  $37.3 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}/12207.3 \text{ W kg}^{-1}$ , respectively, and remarkable cycling life over 2000 cycles. These promising results reveal that the design interfacial engineering of the CNT-wrapped  $\text{AgP}_2$  scaffold provides a clue to propel the development of metal phosphide-based hybrid capacitors.

**KEYWORDS:** metal phosphide, multi-walled carbon nanotubes, potassium ion, hybrid capacitors, energy storage



## 1. INTRODUCTION

Lithium-ion batteries (LIBs), with energy density ( $>120 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}$ ) and voltage ( $>3.6 \text{ V}$ ), outstanding rate capability, and low self-discharge, are currently the state-of-the-art technology for high-energy electrochemical storage, which increased the demand for lithium (from 31,700 tons in 2014 to 77,000 tons in 2019).<sup>1</sup> However, the rarity and uneven global distribution of lithium limit the development of LIBs.<sup>2</sup> The potassium-ion energy storage prototype is considered as a potential replacement for the lithium-ion energy storage system proposed by Ali Eftekhari in 2004. Potassium has the following advantages: (i) abundant chemical elements (2.09 wt % in the earth's crust); (ii) even global distribution; (iii) high standard reduction potential of  $\text{K}^+/\text{K}$  ( $-2.93 \text{ V vs SHE}$ ); and (iv) cheap current collector ( $\$2042/\text{t}$  in Al foil,  $\$7951/\text{t}$  in Cu foil).<sup>3–6</sup> Unfortunately, the stability of the potassium-ion energy storage system remains inferior to the lithium system.<sup>7</sup> To close the performance gap, the development of potassium-ion energy storage electrode materials with excellent cycling and rate performance is still challenging.<sup>6</sup>

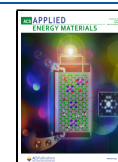
Due to the promise of extremely high theoretical capacity ( $2594 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$  in  $\text{K}_3\text{P}$ ), phosphorous is regarded as possible anode in  $\text{K}^+$ -storage devices.<sup>8</sup> However, the key challenges

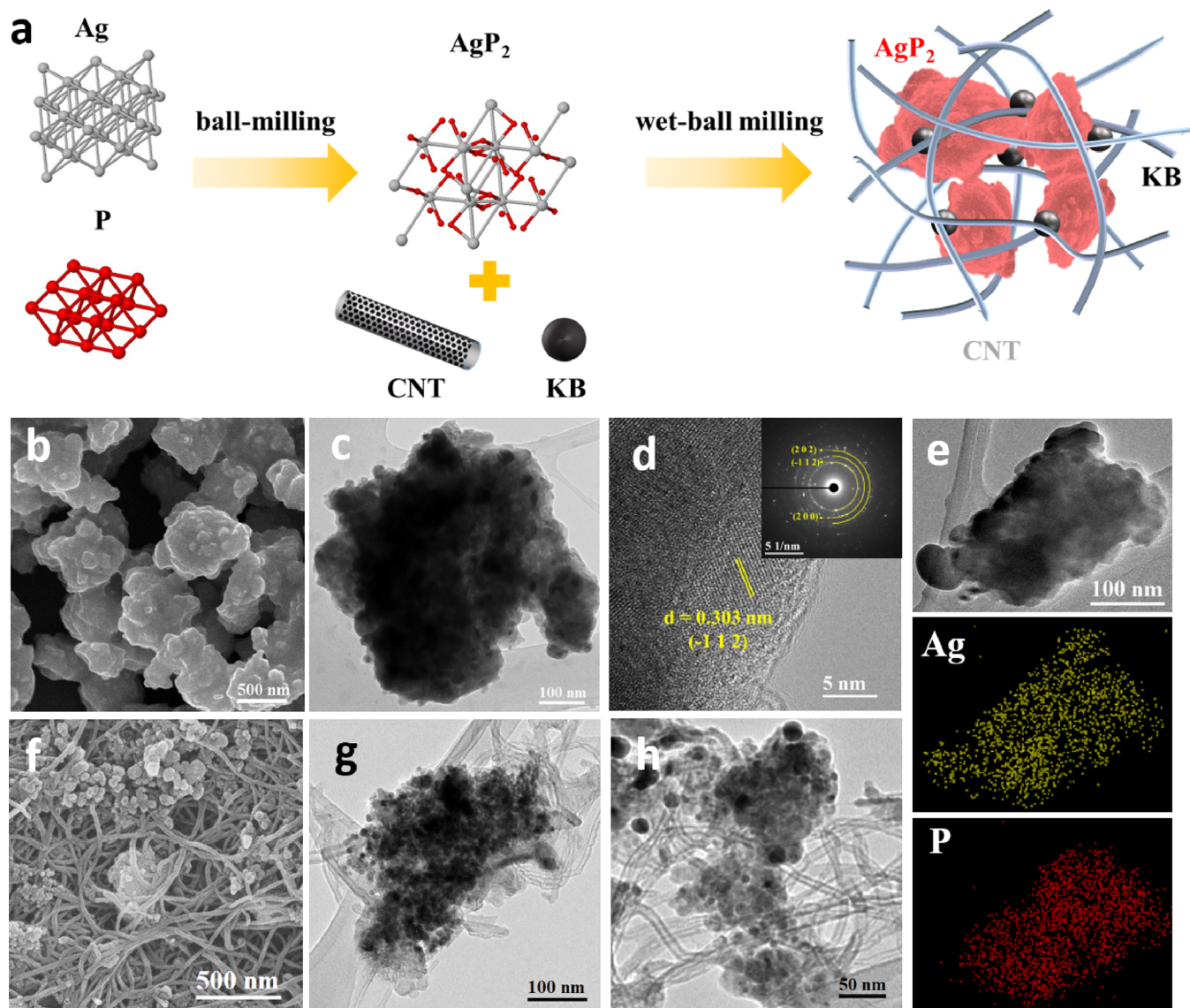
associated with phosphorus are inherently low electronic conductivity ( $\sim 10^{-14} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ ) and pronounced volume change during charge/discharge ( $\sim 595\%$ ), leading to capacity fading and poor rate performance.<sup>9,10</sup> Metal phosphide materials have lower volume change and higher electronic conductivity than phosphorus.<sup>11–13</sup> In addition, the nanosize metal phosphides have a shorter ionic transfer pathway, more active sites to facilitate kinetic properties, and fast ionic conductivity in PIHCs.<sup>14–17</sup> For example, Wang et al. assembled  $\text{Co}_2\text{P}@r\text{GO}/\text{AC}$  to show an energy density of  $87 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}$  at a power density of  $12 \text{ W kg}^{-1}$  with a lifespan of over 1000 cycles.<sup>18</sup> Nonetheless, pronounced volume changes during charge/discharge not only lead to severe pulverization of the electrode but also are challenging to form a stable protective layer to keep the solid electrolyte interface (SEI).<sup>19,20</sup> Furthermore, the electronic conductivity of metal phosphides ( $\text{Co}_2\text{P}$ ) is still

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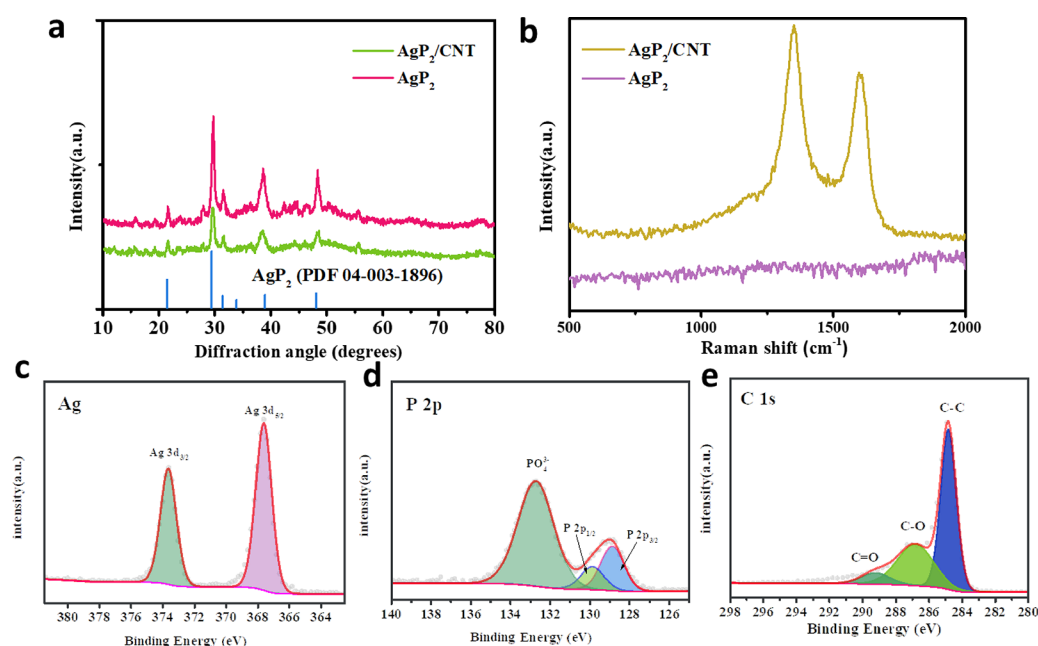
**Figure 1.** (a) Illustration of the preparation of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$ . Morphology characterization in (b) SEM image, (c, d) TEM images, and (e) EDS elemental mapping of  $\text{AgP}_2$ . (f) SEM and (g, h) TEM images of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$ .

unsatisfactory for PIHCs with moderate rate capability. Therefore, reports on metal phosphide material PIHCs are very limited.<sup>11</sup>

To achieve high-performance PIHCs, it is crucial to balance the dynamical properties between the adsorption/desorption process that occurred in the cathode and the sluggish faradaic reaction that occurred in the anode.<sup>21</sup> The rapid  $\text{K}^+$  insertion/extraction property is important because anode materials directly determine the rate capability and cycling stability of the PIHC.<sup>22–25</sup> To overcome these problems, recent energy storage studies have shown that constructing active material/carbon heterostructures is considered one of the most promising strategies.<sup>26–30</sup> Several types of carbon-based materials as a buffer for volume change of electrodes have been developed, such as graphite, graphene, doped carbon, hard carbon/soft carbon, and CNTs.<sup>31–33</sup> Among those carbon-based materials, graphene has excellent electrical conductivity and flexible two-dimensional structure due to simple molecular sheets of  $\text{sp}^2$  carbon atoms. Moreover, a sheet of graphene is rolled into a tube or cylinder shape and the weak

van der Waals interactions occur between graphene layers to form various CNTs including single-walled CNTs, double-walled CNTs, and multi-walled CNTs. CNTs have distinct properties of mechanical strength, aspect ratio, and thermal and electrical conductivities, which are an effective mechanical support and simultaneously provide a 1D electron conducting pathway.<sup>34,35</sup> The interfacial engineering of carbon nanotubes with active materials effectively buffers volume changes, prevents active material agglomeration, and provides electron/ion transport channels during long-term cycling, which play a crucial role in improving energy storage performance and ensuring the structural stability of electrodes.<sup>36–40</sup> For example,  $\text{MoP}/\text{C}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2@\text{CNT}@\text{C}$  show high energy/power density in sodium-ion capacitors.<sup>41,42</sup> Obviously, this design achieves good compatibility for high electrochemical performance in capacitor devices. However, the structure of CNTs may be destroyed by drastic processes such as dry ball milling, which limits the extensiveness of the synthesis process.

In this study, we propose wet-ball milling (WBM) to prepare electrode slurries, including  $\text{AgP}_2$  and CNTs as phosphide-



**Figure 2.** Material characterization of (a) XRD patterns and (b) Raman spectra of CNT, AgP<sub>2</sub>, and AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT composites. (c–e) High-resolution XPS spectrum of (c) Ag, (d) P, and (e) C of AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT.

based electrodes for improving the electronic conductivity and structural stability of PHICs. During K<sup>+</sup> electrochemical activation, the Ag nanocrystals were formed in situ that not only increase the conductivity but also promote the refinement of the material and increase active sites. Notably, the interfacial engineering of CNT-encapsulated AgP<sub>2</sub> enhanced electrical conductivity, facilitated electrolyte penetration, and provided a large surface area and active sites for K<sup>+</sup> adsorption/desorption and enhanced electron/ion transport. Benefitting from these merits, the as-prepared AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT electrode shows a reversible capacity of 440 mA h g<sup>-1</sup> at a current density of 100 mA g<sup>-1</sup> and a capacity of 150 mA h g<sup>-1</sup> is obtained at a high current density of 3 A g<sup>-1</sup> in the potassium ion battery. The PIHC consisting of the commercial-activated carbon (AC) cathode and AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT anode exhibits an excellent energy density of 46.3 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup> after 2000 cycles at a current density of 1 A g<sup>-1</sup> and a high energy/power density of 37.3 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>/12207.3 W kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Consequently, the results of the PIHC demonstrate that the metal phosphide-based PIHC presented an exceptionally high energy and power density as well as long cycling stability with interfacial engineering of in situ formed Ag-P composites with the CNT framework.

## 2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**2.1. Materials.** Red phosphorus (P), silver (Ag), sodium carboxymethyl cellulose (NaCMC, average  $M_w = 700,000$ ), dimethyl ether (DME,  $\geq 99.8\%$ ), and potassium metal (in mineral oil, 98%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Potassium bis(fluorosulfonyl)imide (KFSI, 97%) was purchased from Combi-Blocks. Active carbon was purchased from Kuraray Chemical Company. Carbon nanotubes were purchased from Golden Innovation Business Co., Ltd. Ketjen Black EC600jd (KB) was purchased from Lion Specialty Chemicals. Copper and aluminum foil were purchased from Chang-Chun group. Coin-type cell CR2032 was purchased from Shining Energy. Glass fiber (diameter = 19 mm) was purchased from Advantec.

**2.2. Synthesis of AgP<sub>2</sub>.** The AgP<sub>2</sub> powder was synthesized via the high-energy ball milling process under an Ar atmosphere. Ag powder (216 mg) and 124 mg of P powder were added in a stainless-steel

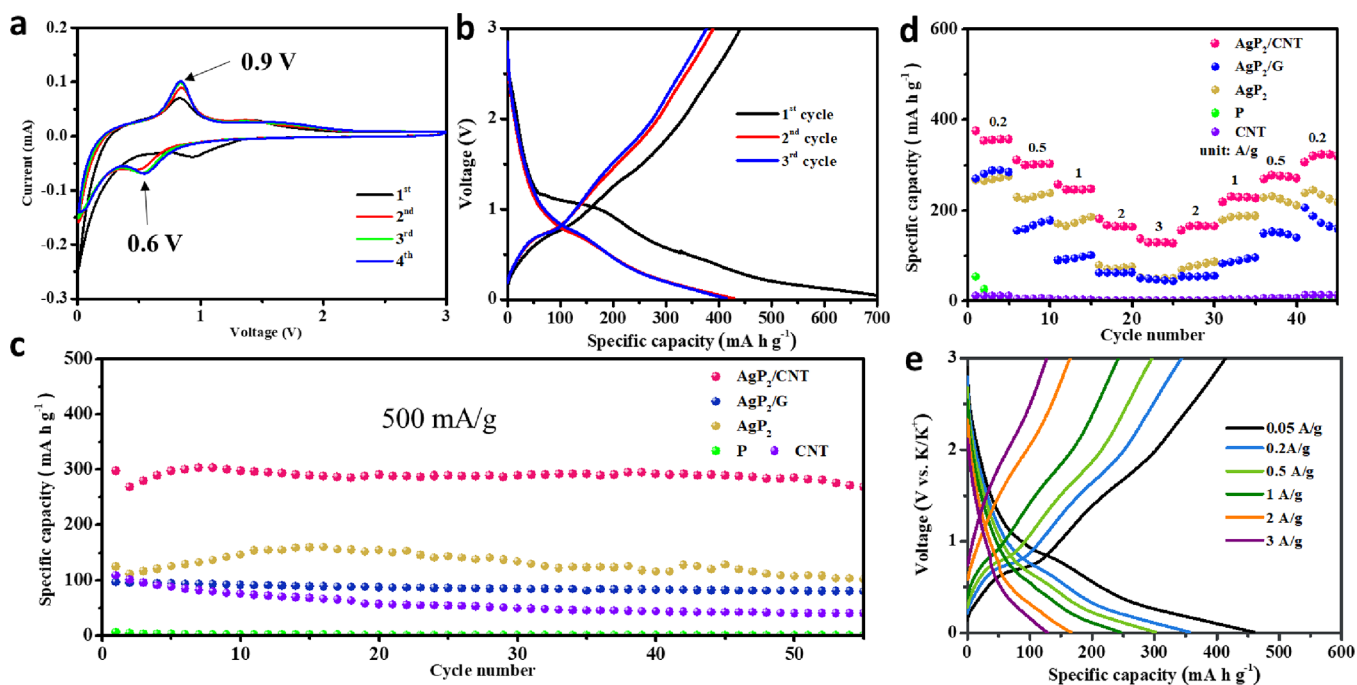
milling jar (12 mL) along with stainless steel balls; the weight ratio of the stainless steel ball to Ag and P powder was about 30:1. The mixture was ball-milled by a planetary ball mill (RETSCH PM100) for 24 h with a rotational speed at 400 rpm.

**2.3. Material Characterization.** The X-ray diffractometer (XRD, Bruker, D8) data were obtained with Cu-K $\alpha$  radiation. All materials were characterized by using scanning electron microscopy (SEM, HITACHI-SU8010). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL, JEM-ARM200FTH) services were provided by NTHU, and JOEL (JEM-F200) services were provided by NCTH. To obtain high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images of materials, an accelerating voltage of 200 kV for investigating further structure analysis including morphology, energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS), SAED, and HRTEM was used. The XPS characteristic peaks were conducted with ULVAC-PHI Quantera II. All the spectra obtained from XPS analysis were first calibrated by referencing the binding energy of C 1s (284.8 eV) followed by curve fitting using the software XPSPEAK VER. 4.1.

**2.4. Electrochemical Characterization.** The electrode slurry was prepared by mixing active materials, CNTs, KB, and NaCMC binder in a ratio of 50:15:10:25 into a stainless steel. Then, distilled water was injected into the stainless steel to form a homogeneous slurry at 200 rpm for 12 h. The loading of AgP<sub>2</sub> on the copper foil was approximately 0.6–1.0 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. For the fabrication of the cathode electrode for PHIC, polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF), super P, and active carbon were added in *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) at a ratio of 8:1:1. The loading of active carbon on the aluminum foil was approximately 0.8–1.2 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. The half-cell (CR2032) was made in a glovebox filled with Ar gas. The electrolyte was 1 M KFSI in DMC added to infiltrate the anode electrode, a glass fiber separator was added, and K metal foil was used as a counter electrode. The galvanostatic charge/discharge tests were conducted in the voltage range of 0.01–3.0 V in a battery measurement system (NEWARE CT-4000). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) tests and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) tests were obtained on a Biologic-Science Instruments VMP3 workstation.

## 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT composites were prepared by a ball milling process, as illustrated in Figure 1a. The morphologies of AgP<sub>2</sub> and AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT were observed by scanning electron



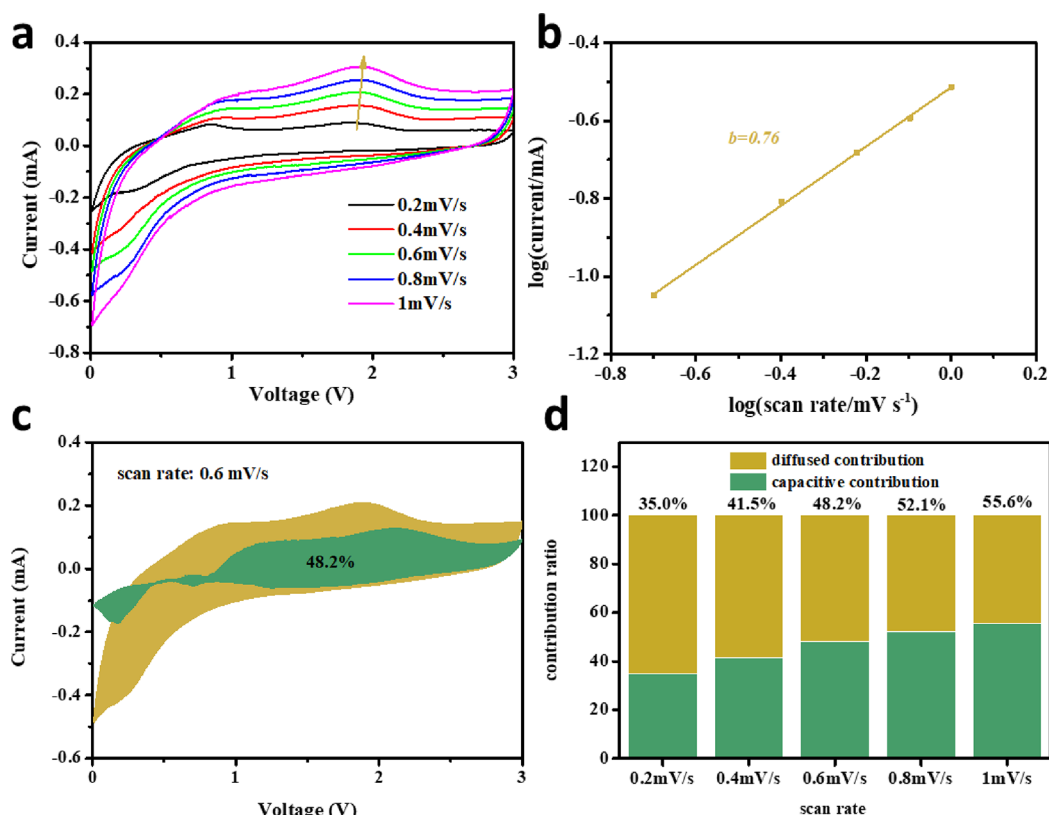
**Figure 3.** Electrochemical performances of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  in the potassium ion half-cell. (a) CV curves of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  at  $0.1 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ . (b) Galvanostatic charge/discharge curves of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  at a current density of  $100 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ ; (c) Cycling performance of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$ ,  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{G}$ ,  $\text{AgP}_2$ , P, and CNT at a current density of  $500 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ . (d) Rate capability of  $\text{AgP}_2$ ,  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{G}$ ,  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$ , CNT, and P at various rates. (e) Galvanostatic charge/discharge profiles of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  at different current densities.

microscopy (SEM), as shown in Figure 1b,f. The particle size for  $\text{AgP}_2$  was observed to be approximately 400–700 nm after ball milling and slight aggregation (Figure 1b). As shown in Figure 1f, the  $\text{AgP}_2$  uniformly dispersed into the conductive framework constructed by CNTs in the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  composites. As expected, the results indicate that CNTs blended with NaCMC and still kept the original morphologies (Figure S1a), which provide continuous electrical pathways and a tough framework. The microstructure of  $\text{AgP}_2$  was investigated by the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image. Figure 1c shows the HRTEM image of  $\text{AgP}_2$  showing its irregular particle. Crystalline lattice fringes with a spacing of 0.303 nm were revealed by TEM at the interface of  $\text{AgP}_2$  particles in Figure 1d. Further evidence for  $\text{AgP}_2$  is obtained by the SAED pattern, indicating the microstructural characteristics of  $\text{AgP}_2$  (PDF 04-003-1896), where the  $(-112)$ ,  $(200)$ , and  $(202)$  diffraction planes with  $d$ -spacing are 0.303, 0.285, and 0.189 nm, respectively. The elemental distribution determined by the HRTEM-EDS spectrum and elemental mapping is shown in Figure 1e. The elements of Ag and P are equivalently mixed in the as-prepared  $\text{AgP}_2$ . Figure 1g,h shows the TEM image of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  composite, confirming the success of interfacial engineering where the particle size of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  composite is smaller than the pristine  $\text{AgP}_2$ .

The XRD patterns of the  $\text{AgP}_2$  and  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  composite are shown in Figure 2a. The diffraction peaks at  $29.4^\circ$ ,  $38.9^\circ$ , and  $48.0^\circ$  can be indexed to  $(-112)$ ,  $(200)$ , and  $(202)$  planes of  $\text{AgP}_2$  (PDF 04-003-1896), respectively. The similar XRD patterns of the  $\text{AgP}_2$  and  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  composite indicate no side reactions after WBM. Moreover, the weak intensity of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  peaks in XRD patterns is ascribed to CNTs shading the signal of X-ray. Raman spectra were collected on the  $\text{AgP}_2$  and  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  composite (Figure 2b). The Raman

spectrum shows intense bands of the G and D bands of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  at  $1591.6$  and  $1332.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively, indicating the characteristic signal of CNTs (Figure S1d). In contrast,  $\text{AgP}_2$  has no obvious signals of the D and G bands, validating the existence of CNTs on the material. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed to study the surface chemistry of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$ . Figure 2c–e demonstrates the high resolution Ag 3d, P, and C XPS peaks of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  composite, respectively. The Ag 3d spectrum is shown in Figure 2c, and the peaks at  $367.6 \text{ eV}$  ( $\text{Ag } 3d_{5/2}$ ) and  $373.6 \text{ eV}$  ( $\text{Ag } 3d_{3/2}$ ) can be indexed to  $\text{Ag}^+$ . In the P 2p XPS spectrum (Figure 2d), the peak at  $129.0 \text{ eV}$  can be separated into P  $2p_{3/2}$  and P  $2p_{1/2}$  peaks at  $128.9$  and  $129.9 \text{ eV}$ , respectively. Moreover, the peak located at  $\sim 132.7 \text{ eV}$  can be attributed to  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  species, indicating the slight oxidation on the surface of  $\text{AgP}_2$  in air, which should be stored in inert gas to prevent deterioration.<sup>43</sup> In the C XPS spectrum (Figure 2e), the peak can be deconvoluted into three peaks centered at  $284.8$ ,  $286.8$ , and  $289.2 \text{ eV}$  that are assigned to C–C, C–O, and C=O bonds, respectively, which are derived from noise interference or CNTs.

The electrochemical performances of the half-cell of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  electrodes are summarized in Figure 3. Figure 3a demonstrates the cyclic voltammetry (CV) performance of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  electrode for the first four cycles between 0.01 and 3.0 V at a scan rate of  $0.1 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ . An irreversible peak appears at  $\sim 1.0 \text{ V}$  during the first cycle that can be interpreted as the formation of a SEI and the in situ formed Ag nanocrystals. After the second cycling, the discharge profiles show a peak at  $\sim 0.6 \text{ V}$  and charge profiles show a peak at  $\sim 0.9 \text{ V}$ , indicating the reversible potassiation and the depotassiation process. In the following scans, the CV curves are highly reversible and overlapped, indicating the high electrochemical reversibility of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$ . The charge/discharge voltage profiles of



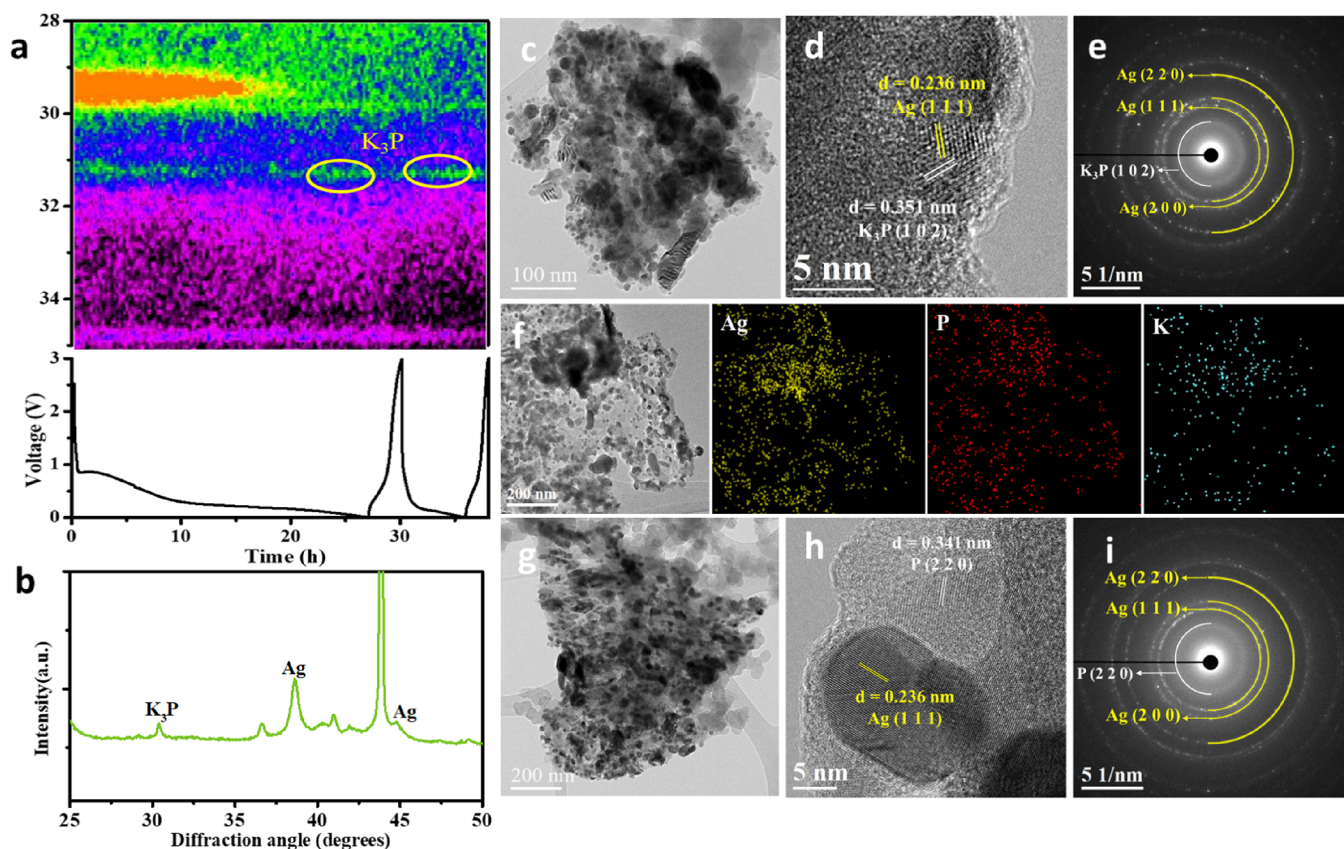
**Figure 4.** Kinetic analyses of the  $K^+$ -storage behaviors for the  $AgP_2/CNT$  electrode. (a) CV curves at stepwise different scan rates from 0.2 to 1.0  $mV s^{-1}$ . (b) Corresponding  $b$  values in linear regression. (c) Capacitive contribution (green section) at 0.6  $mV s^{-1}$   $AgP_2/CNT$ . (d) Ratio of diffused contribution and capacitive contribution at five different scan rates of  $AgP_2/CNT$ .

$AgP_2/CNT$  at 100  $mA g^{-1}$  are shown in Figure 3b. Consistent with the CV data, the plateau is mainly around 0.7–0.9 V during charging, and the plateau is mainly around 1.0–0.5 V during discharging. The cycling performance of  $AgP_2/CNT$  at 100  $mA g^{-1}$  is shown in Figure S4a, exhibiting a capacity of 383.2  $mAh g^{-1}$ , indicating the high reversible capacity of  $AgP_2/CNT$ . We test the cycling performance of  $AgP_2$ ,  $AgP_2/G$ ,  $AgP_2/CNT$ ,  $CNT$ , and  $P$  at 500  $mA g^{-1}$  (Figure 3c). As expected, the  $AgP_2/CNT$  electrode exhibits excellent stable cycling performance and the capacity remained at 280.5  $mAh g^{-1}$  after 55 cycles. For comparison, the  $AgP_2$  electrode exhibits a capacity at 107.6  $mAh g^{-1}$  without interfacial engineering of CNTs. On the other hand, the  $AgP_2/G$  electrode exhibits a capacity at 79.4  $mAh g^{-1}$ , which indicates that the layer of graphite cannot improve the performance of  $AgP_2$ . The rate performance of  $AgP_2$ ,  $AgP_2/G$ ,  $AgP_2/CNT$ ,  $CNT$ , and  $P$  electrodes at different current densities clearly demonstrates the superior behavior of interfacial engineering in Figure 3d. For the  $AgP_2/CNT$  electrode, reversible capacities of 352.9, 301.7, 245.6, 166.6, and 128.4  $mAh g^{-1}$  can be obtained at current densities of 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, and 3  $A g^{-1}$ , respectively, which are demonstrated in the charge and discharge curves in Figure 3e. In contrast,  $AgP_2/G$  and  $AgP_2$  without CNTs deliver poor rate performance and the  $P$  electrode shows very poor rate capability and stability, indicating that the interfacial engineering of CNTs significantly improves the stability and rate performance.

The  $K^+$ -storage kinetics was analyzed on the basis of the CV measurements to understand the storage characteristics of  $AgP_2/CNT$ . Figure 4a shows five CV curves with scan rates ranging from 0.2 to 1.0  $mV s^{-1}$ . Established on the relationship

of the peak current ( $i$ ) and the sweep rate ( $v$ : 0.2–1  $mV s^{-1}$ ),  $i = av^b$ . In this equation,  $a$  and  $b$  are constants in the power law.<sup>44</sup> Generally, a  $b$  value of 0.5 indicates a typical diffusion-controlled process, while a  $b$  value of 1.0 suggests a surface capacitive-controlled process and the resulting capacity is called a pseudocapacitive-controlled process. With this delineation in mind, parameters  $a$  and  $b$  are determined from the slope of the  $\log(i) - \log(v)$ , as presented in Figure 4b. The calculated  $b$  value of the  $AgP_2/CNT$  is 0.76, indicating that the  $K^+$ -storage kinetics occupies a middle ground between capacitive- and diffusion-controlled electrode kinetics.<sup>45</sup> We further employ scan rate-dependent CV curves to explore the capacitive- and diffusion-controlled charge storage contributions, and the total current response ( $i$ ) at a fixed potential ( $V$ ) can be based on the following equation:  $i = (k_1v) + (k_2v^{1/2})$ , where  $k_1v$  and  $k_2v^{1/2}$  represent the capacitive- and diffusion-controlled processes, respectively.<sup>46</sup> The values of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  can be calculated by estimating the ratio of capacitive control ( $k_1v$ ) and diffusion control ( $k_2v^{1/2}$ ) by plotting  $i(V)/v^{1/2}$  versus  $v^{1/2}$  at a fixed potential. The green area is the proportion of capacitive contribution for the  $AgP_2/CNT$  electrode, which is approximately 48.2% at a scan rate of 0.6  $mV s^{-1}$ , as shown in Figure 4c. In addition, Figure 4d shows that the capacitive contributions are 35.0, 41.5, 48.2, 52.1, and 55.6% at scan rates of 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, and 1.0  $mV s^{-1}$ , respectively. It is worth mentioning that the capacitive contribution increases gradually with the increase in the scan rate, suggesting that the CNT network structure enhances conductivity and short  $K^+$  diffusion pathways.

In situ XRD and HRTEM were used to ascertain the  $K^+$ -storage mechanism of the  $AgP_2$  in Figure 5. The in situ XRD

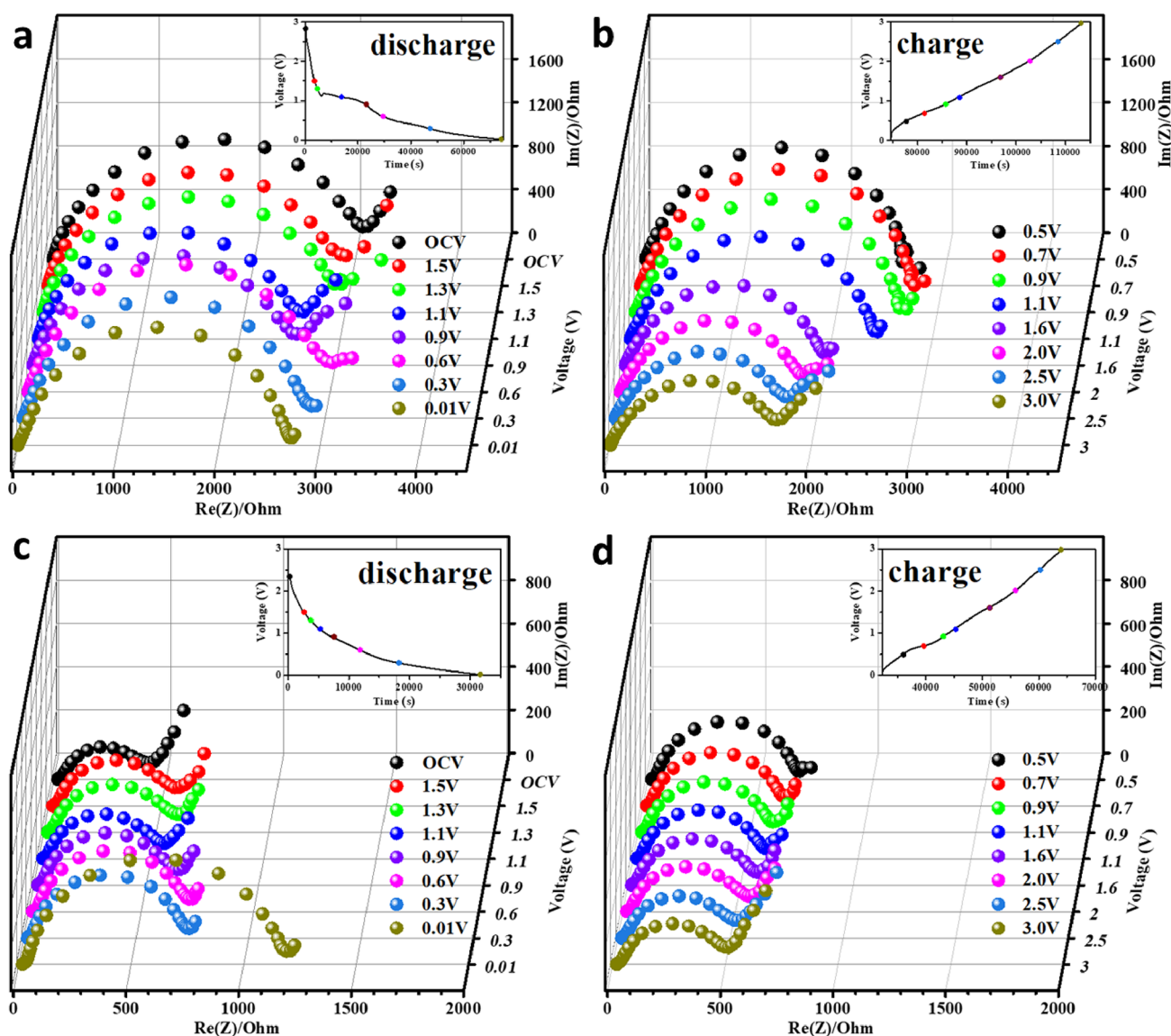


**Figure 5.** Analysis of the  $K^+$ -storage mechanism of the  $AgP_2$ . (a) Contour plot of the in situ XRD pattern with a magnified display ranging from 28 to  $35^\circ$  for the initial two cycles. (b) Ex situ XRD of  $AgP_2$  after discharging to 0.01 V. (c) TEM, (d) HRTEM, (e) SAED, and (f) EDS elemental mapping images of the  $AgP_2$  electrode at the initial fully discharged state. (g) TEM, (h) HRTEM, and (i) SAED images of the  $AgP_2$  electrode at the initial fully charged state.

patterns of the two cycles of the cell are depicted in Figure 5a. During the initial cycle, the electrode has been discharged from the open-circuit potential (OCP,  $\sim 2.9$  V), and the peak of  $AgP_2$  is observed at  $29.4^\circ$ , indicating the  $(-112)$  planes of  $AgP_2$ . Then, the diffraction peaks of  $AgP_2$  gradually decreased and the intensity become almost insignificant when discharged to a terminal value of 0.01 V. Moreover, consistent with ex situ XRD (Figure 5b), the appearance of new peaks at  $31.2^\circ$  indicates the formation of  $K_3P$  ( $31.2^\circ$ ). During the cell charge, the characteristic peak of  $K_3P$  was gradually weakened because of the depotassiation of  $K_3P$ . To understand the structural evolution of  $AgP_2$  under different charge/discharge states, we observe the change in the microstructure of bulk  $AgP_2$  (Figure 1c) and the formation of Ag nanocrystals inside the material (Figure 5c,g). Figure 5c–e shows HRTEM and SAED when the electrodes discharged to 0.01 V. The lattice spacings are 0.236 and 0.351 nm, which are assigned to the Ag (111) plane and the  $K_3P$  (102) plane, respectively (Figure 5d). The corresponding SAED patterns can also be assigned to the polycrystalline ring of Ag and  $K_3P$ . Figure 5g–i shows HRTEM and SAED after charging to 3.0 V. The lattice spacing of Ag is still maintained, and a lattice spacing of 0.341 nm is attributed to the P (220) plane after depotassiation (Figure 5h), which are assigned to the polycrystalline ring of Ag and P through SAED. Furthermore, the EDS mappings (Figure 5f) show that Ag, P, and K elements are homogeneously distributed over the anode material. A similar  $K^+$ -storage mechanism in metal phosphides was also reported.<sup>11,47,48</sup> On the basis of the above results, we conjecture the reaction mechanism that  $AgP_2$

decomposes into Ag nanocrystals and  $K_3P$  after discharge in the first cycle and the reversible reaction is  $K_3P \leftrightarrow P + K$ . After cycling, the Ag has no volume change because it does not react with  $K^+$ . However, the reversible reaction of  $K_3P \leftrightarrow P + K$  has a significant volume change. The difference in volume change between Ag and P leads to the refinement of the overall material to increase the utilization efficiency of P. Moreover,  $AgP_2$  uniformly disperses into the framework of CNTs, effectively combining Ag and P on the surface, providing a large surface area to facilitate the penetration of electrolytes, and improving the conductivity. Figure S5a shows the SEM image of  $AgP_2/CNT$  after 50 cycles. The size of the active material has decreased significantly and uniformly encapsulated in CNTs, validating that CNTs effectively trap the material.

The in situ EIS was analyzed at various potentials at the  $AgP_2/CNT$  electrode charge/discharge processes in Figure 6, confirming the electrochemical kinetics of  $AgP_2/CNT$ . Figure 6a,b presents the Nyquist plots recorded during the in situ EIS analysis of the  $AgP_2/CNT$  electrode in the initial cycle, including OCV, 1.5, 1.3, 1.1, 0.9, 0.6, 0.3, and 0.01 V at the discharged process and 0.5, 0.7, 0.9, 1.1, 1.6, 2.0, 2.5, and 3.0 V at the charged process. As the electrode discharged from OCV to 0.9 V, the resistance decreased significantly, which is attributed to in situ formed Ag nanocrystals. When discharging to 0.6 V, the resistance increases slightly and no obvious resistance changes until the discharge to 0.01 V. The results imply that P gradually reacts with  $K^+$  to generate  $K_3P$ , which slightly increases the resistance of the material. At the end of the charging, the resistance has a significant downward trend,

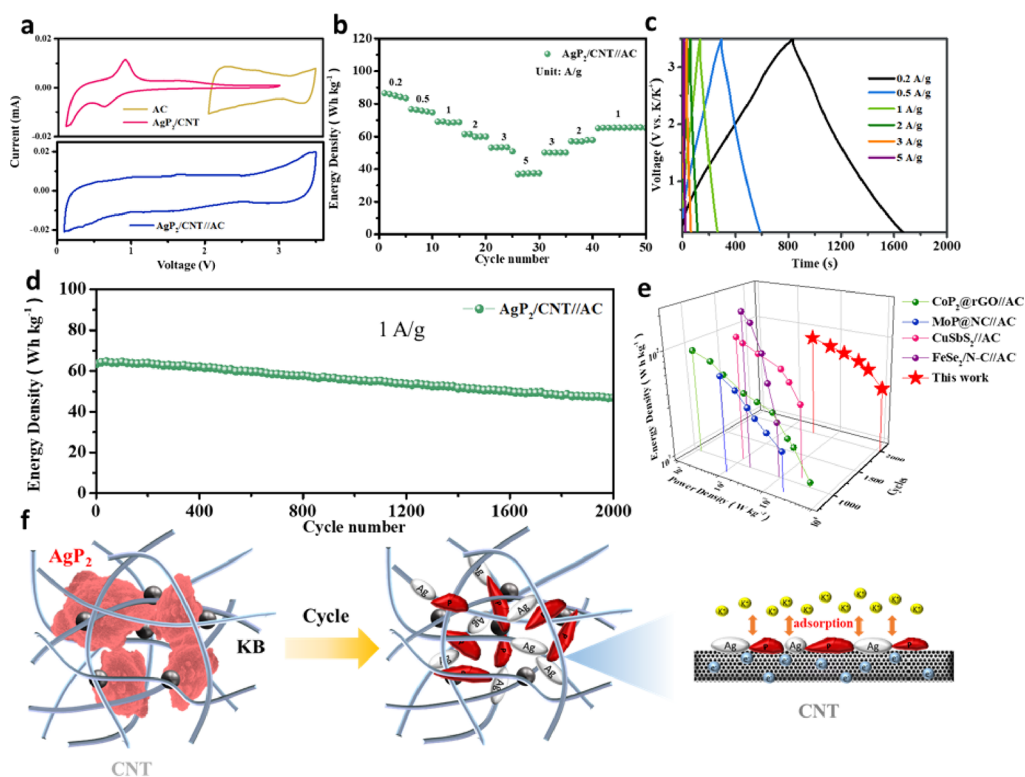


**Figure 6.** In situ EIS of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  electrode for the (a, b) 1st cycle and (c, d) 20th cycle at pre-selected potentials, inset: charge/discharge curves.

indicating that  $\text{K}_3\text{P}$  gradually decomposes to  $\text{P}$  and the formation of ion channels effectively improves the material conductivity. Figure 6c,d presents the Nyquist plots recorded during the in situ EIS analysis of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  electrode in the 20th cycle. As  $\text{K}_3\text{P}$  forms during discharge to 0.3 V, the resistance gradually increases. Upon further discharging to 0.01 V,  $\text{K}_3\text{P}$  blocks the contact between the electrolyte and CNTs, which sharply increases the resistance. As the electrode charges to 3.0 V, the decomposition of  $\text{K}_3\text{P}$  reduces the resistance. Figure S7 shows the EIS of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  before and after the 20th cycle. The refinement of the material becomes more complete during volume contraction with cycles, which reduced the particle size and uniformly distributed on the CNTs (Figure S5a), leading to the  $R_{\text{ct}}$  decreased during cycles.

The interface engineering of CNTs and Ag nanocrystals has the following advantages: (i) enhanced electronic conductivity of the material, (ii) enhanced structural stability, and (iii) adsorption/desorption capability of high  $\text{K}^+$  into a large surface area with active sites. We expect these advantages to promote fast  $\text{K}^+$  transport kinetics, which is beneficial for the

performance of the PIHC. To confirm the effects, the PIHC composed of a commercial-activated carbon (AC) cathode and a  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  anode was assembled (designated as  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$ ), as shown in Figure 7. Upon charging, the  $\text{FSI}^-$  anions in the electrolyte adsorb on the AC cathode while the adsorption of  $\text{K}^+$  adsorbs on the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  anode side. Figure 7a shows the working window of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  (bottom) as well as the individual electrodes (top). The theoretical charge/discharge curves of the AC half-cell are 2.00–4.00 V and the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  half-cell at 0.01–3.00 V. Therefore, the working window of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  is from 0.01 to 4.00 V. However, the FIS-based electrolyte decomposes in the operating voltage of 4.0 V.<sup>49</sup> To achieve high energy/power densities and stability, the operating window of the PIHC is set from 0.1 to 3.5 V. Figure 7b shows the rate performance of the PIHC full cell, and based on the total mass of AC and  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$ , the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  full cells display energy densities of 85.9, 76.2, 69.2, 61.5, 53.2, and 37.3  $\text{Wh kg}^{-1}$  at current densities of 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 3, and 5  $\text{A g}^{-1}$ , respectively. The charge/discharge curves of the PIHC at different current



**Figure 7.** Electrochemical characteristics of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  PIHC. (a) CV profiles of AC,  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  half-cell (top), and  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  PIHC (bottom). (b) Rate performance of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  full cells cycled at various current densities from 200 to 5000  $\text{mA g}^{-1}$ . (c) Charge/discharge curve of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  at various current densities from 200 to 5000  $\text{mA g}^{-1}$ . (d) Cycling performance of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  full cells at a current density of 1000  $\text{mA g}^{-1}$ . (e) Comparison of the 3D Ragone plot of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  full cells. (f) Illustrative image of the in situ formed Ag nanocrystals from  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$  and promoting adsorption/desorption of  $\text{K}^+$  in the PIHC.

densities are shown in Figure 7c, which exhibit an almost triangular shape with relatively linear voltage-time plots, revealing a good capacitive behavior. Moreover, as shown in Figure 7d, the long-term cycle performance of the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  PIHC achieves 2000 cycles with an energy density of  $46.3 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}$  at a high current density of  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . It is revealed that  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  is an energy storage device suitable for hybrid capacitor applications. The 3D plots based on the energy density, power density, and cycle number of  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  and other materials in PIHCs, including  $\text{CoP}_2@r\text{GO}/\text{AC}$ ,<sup>18</sup>  $\text{MoP}/\text{NC}/\text{AC}$ ,<sup>50</sup>  $\text{CuSbS}_2/\text{AC}$ ,<sup>51</sup> and  $\text{FeSe}_2/\text{N-C}/\text{AC}$ ,<sup>52</sup> are presented in Figure 7e. The  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  PIHC exhibits the best performance in terms of power density, cycle life, and energy density with the recently reported PIHCs. Figure 7f shows the illustrative mechanism of in situ formed Ag nanocrystals from  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}$ . After electrochemical activation, the bulk  $\text{AgP}_2$  decomposes to Ag nanocrystals and P compositing with CNTs. The composites of CNTs, Ag nanocrystals, and P effectively increase the contact area with the electrolyte as well as shorten the  $\text{K}^+$  diffusion distance and increase electronic conduction between the active material and current collector. In addition, benefiting from the barrier of Ag nanocrystals and CNTs avoids the cluster of P that maintains a high specific surface with active sites, which promote the transmission of electrons and adsorption/desorption of  $\text{K}^+$ . In view of the above discussion, the interfacial engineering of Ag and CNTs exhibits an extraordinarily energy/power density of  $37.3 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}/12207.3 \text{ W kg}^{-1}$ , respectively, in phosphide-based PIHCs.

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we demonstrate that interfacial engineering of CNTs and Ag nanocrystals improves the energy/power density and cycling stability of metal phosphide PIHCs. We performed ex situ TEM and in situ XRD studies to confirm the unique  $\text{AgP}_2$  reaction mechanism, in which in situ formed Ag nanocrystals were observed to play a key role in effectively reducing resistance and increasing active sites in phosphide substrates. Furthermore, the high structural stability framework of CNTs not only improves electronic conduction but also provides a surface area for bonding with Ag nanocrystals and P, thereby enhancing the contact interface with the electrolyte. The above results reveal important advantages of interfacial engineering of Ag nanocrystals and CNTs, including (i) enhanced electronic conductivity of the material, (ii) enhanced structural stability of the CNT framework, and (iii) providing a large surface area and active sites for the adsorption/desorption of  $\text{K}^+$ . The PIHC with the  $\text{AgP}_2/\text{CNT}/\text{AC}$  anode exhibited an extremely high energy/power density of  $37.3 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}/12207.3 \text{ W kg}^{-1}$ , respectively, and excellent cycling performance ( $46.3 \text{ Wh kg}^{-1}$  after 2000 cycles). Importantly, the strategy to design in situ formed Ag nanocrystals and CNT frameworks for metal phosphides is relevant to other materials with low electronic conductivity and poor structural stability and thus is expected to be of great value in expanding new prospects for various applications.



## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsaem.2c03113>.

SEM of CNT and Ketjen Black, XPS fully scanned spectra of AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT, cycle performance of AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT at a current density of 100 mA g<sup>-1</sup>, EDS mapping images of Ag and P in the AgP<sub>2</sub> electrode after charging to 3.0 V, the SEM image of the AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT electrode after 20 cycles, and EIS plots of AgP<sub>2</sub>/CNT before and after 20 cycles (PDF)

## ■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

### Corresponding Author

Hsing-Yu Tuan – Department of Chemical Engineering,  
National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu 30013, Taiwan;  
orcid.org/0000-0003-2819-2270; Phone: (886)3-571-5131; Email: [hytuan@che.nthu.edu.tw](mailto:hytuan@che.nthu.edu.tw)

### Authors

Jia-Zheng Yen – Department of Chemical Engineering,  
National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu 30013, Taiwan  
Che-Bin Chang – Department of Chemical Engineering,  
National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu 30013, Taiwan  
Kai-Siang Jhang – Department of Chemical Engineering,  
National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu 30013, Taiwan

Complete contact information is available at:  
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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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