# Enhancement of Electrochemical Performance of FeS<sup>2</sup> based Electrodes through Copper Doping

Sonali Das<sup>1,§</sup>, Debayan Chatterjee<sup>2,§,\*</sup>

*1 (Advanced Technology Development Center (ATDC), Indian Institute of Technology (IIT), Kharagpur, India)* Email: [sonalidas1303@gmail.com](mailto:sonalidas1303@gmail.com) *2 (School of Nano Science and Technology (SNST), Indian Institute of Technology (IIT), Kharagpur, India)* Email: [debayan.7.dc@gmail.com](mailto:debayan.7.dc@gmail.com) *\* Corresponding author*

*§ These authors contributed equally for the work*

#### *Abstract:*

Since the electrode materials play the pivotal role in the electrochemical performance of supercapacitors, thus,  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$ , a transition metal dichalcogenide (TMD), has been a cheap and simple candidate for the purpose owing to its abundance and facilitation of exhibiting redox reactions. The FeS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures were synthesized using a simple one-step solvothermal method and were observed to have ellipsoidal geometry. The problem of low conductivity of the FeS2 based electrodes has been dealt with in the study by doping with copper which is a highly conducting metal. The Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub> exhibited a staggering near 50% increase in specific capacitance of 122 F g<sup>-1</sup> over the undoped FeS<sub>2</sub> (61 F g<sup>-1</sup>) maintaining the stability of the material for 200 cycles which paves a **possible solution for electrode materials in pseudocapacitors.**

*Keywords* — **pseudocapacitors, electrodes, doping, FeS<sup>2</sup>**

# **I. INTRODUCTION**

Supercapacitors have emerged as one of the most talked about devices in the recent years owing to their simplistic function and game-changing applications in an industrial context [1]. Supercapacitors (SCs) are electrochemical energy storage devices that store a high amount of energy and can deliver it at a rapid rate [5-6]. Typical energy storage devices such as conventional electric capacitors have energy densities ranging about 0.01 - 0.1 W h kg<sup>-1</sup> while Li-ion batteries (LIBs) owing to the although have energy densities of  $100 - 265$  W h kg<sup>-1</sup>, suffer these metals which facilitat tremendously in terms of power density and cycling stability [7,10]. A SC can store energy with density  $1 - 10$  W h kg<sup>-1</sup> in gravimetric terms and deliver it ten times faster than a LIB [5]. SCs work on the principle of surface adsorption and formation of an electric double layer at the electrode-electrolyte interface thus, not involving any intercalation and deintercalation of ions into the bulk of the material thus, not exerting any stress on the material lattice in the bulk [5]. This is the reason SCs outperform batteries as far as cycling stability is concerned [7].

As we understand, it is the electrode material which plays the most eminent role in determining the performance of a SC. Generally, these devices are classified based on their electrode materials which significantly dictate their energy storing mechanism. There are crudely three types – Electric Double Layer Capacitors (EDLCs) [11] which store energy electrostatically within the nanoscale double layer without any chemical reactions, Pseudocapacitors [12-13], which store

energy by means of charge transfer via Faradaic reactions occurring at the electrode-electrolyte interface, and hybrid supercapacitors [14], which work on a culmination of both principles stated above. Over the years, various materials have been tested in order to achieve the optimal electrochemical performance for high energy SCs. It has been observed that Faradaic materials such as metal oxides and chalcogenides have exhibited higher specific capacitance compared to EDLC-type materials such as carbon nanostructures [13].

-1 in Fe, Ni, Co, Cu and Sn have been researched upon [27-29]. TMDs are one of the candidates for electrode material owing to the multiple low-energy separated oxidation states of these metals which facilitates the redox reactions to take place. Sulphides, selenides and tellurides of various metals such as Iron being one of the cheapest and most easily available transition metals, fits in as a suitable option. The main problem with  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$  is its poor ionic conductivity and chances for material degradation [25]. Many complicated techniques have been investigated including but not limited to functionalization, making composites, morphological optimization and many more [31-37]. This paper encompasses the feasibility of using  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$  and enhancement of its electrochemical performance by means of doping with copper. Being a good conductor of electricity, Cu atoms can fill in some lattice sites to facilitate ionic charge transfer at the electrode interface thus, improving the ionic conductivity of the material. This would lead to an increase in the specific capacitance of the electrodes while maintaining its stability. In this work, a simple one-step solvothermal method has been

employed and the electrochemical performance of Cu-doped  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$  is compared to that of pristine  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$  which revealed a near 50% increase in the specific capacitance without any significant drop in the coulombic efficiency.

## **II. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

## *A. Materials*

Iron Sulphate Heptahydrate (FeSO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O), Anhydrous Copper (II) Suphate (CuSO4) and Sodium Thiosulphate Pentahydrate  $(Na_2S_2O_3.5H_2O)$  (99.99%, extrapure) were purchased from Merck. Ethylene Glycol (99.5%) was purchased from Sigma Aldrich.

## *B. Synthesis of pristine and Cu-doped FeS<sup>2</sup>*

Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures were prepared using solvothermal method similar to Wang et Al. [27]. First 20 mL ethylene glycol was added in 5 mL ethanol to form a solvent and set to magnetic stirring at room temperature. 1.25 g of FeSO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O, 1.24 g of Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.5H<sub>2</sub>O and 0.143 g of CuSO<sub>4</sub> was added to the prepared solvent and the solution was left stirring for 1 hour. The prepared solution was then transferred into a 40 mL Teflon lined stainless steel autoclave, then the solvothermal synthesis was carried out at 200 °C for 24 h in an oven. After naturally cooling to room temperature, the autoclave was opened. The precipitate was centrifuged and washed with distilled water and absolute ethanol three times each, respectively. Finally, the sample was collected and dried in vacuum at 80 °C for 6 h.

Pristine  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$  was also prepared using the same method only without the addition of CuSO4.



Figure 1: Schematic illustration of the synthesis route.

#### *C. Physiochemical Characterization*

The crystallographic information of the synthesized materials was extracted by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Rigaku Miniflex diffractometer with Cu-K<sub>a</sub> (1.5406 Å) X-ray source. Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy was performed using a Shimadzu IR Spirit. The morphology of the synthesized structures was investigated by scanning electron microscopy using a SEM Carl Zeiss Supra 40. The  $N_2$ adsorption-desorption isotherms were produced using Brunaer-Emmett-Teller (BET) technique at 77 K by a Quantachrome NOVA-Touch surface area and pore size analyser. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data was generated using a PHI 5000 Versa Probe III system.

## *D. Electrochemical Characterization*

Electrochemical measurements were performed in a three electrode configuration, having Ag/AgCl in 3 M KCl as the reference electrode and platinum wire as the counter electrode. Working electrode was fabricated by preparing the slurry dissolving 80 wt% of active material (FeS<sub>2</sub>), 10 wt% of polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) (binder) and 10 wt% activated carbon in acetone and continuously stirring for 2 h at 80 °C for complete homogeneity. The slurry was dropcasted on a 1 cm<sup>2</sup> graphite sheet and dried well at 80 °C. 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> was utilized as the electrolyte. The electrochemical estimations like cyclic voltammetry and galvanostatic chargerelease estimates were performed using a Metrohm Autolab (PGSTAT302N).

#### **III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

## *A. Physiochemical Properties*

The crystallographic features and phase purity of as synthesized pristine and 10 % Cu-doped  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$  were assessed through XRD analysis. The obtained XRD patterns, depicted in Figure 2(a), were indexed using the JCPDS card no. 65-  $3321$ , corresponding to the isotropic cubic phase of FeS<sub>2</sub>. In both samples, distinct peaks were observed around  $2\theta = 29, 33,$ 37, 47 and 56°, corresponding to (111), (200), (210), (220) and (311) planes, respectively. These could be attributed to the cubic phase of  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$ . The addition of Cu introduced no additional peaks other than those present in pristine  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$ indicating that parent crystal structure remained unaltered even after doping since the ionic radii of the dopant ion is comparable to the host ion. There was no significant peak shift after doping. Furthermore, broadening of characteristic peaks in the doped sample suggested reduced crystallite size, particularly evident in case of the (210) and the (311) peaks.

Table 1: Crystallite Size and Lattice Parameter Specifications for Undoped and  $(10\%)$  Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub>.

<b>Sample</b>	Lattice	Crystallite
	Parameter (Å)	size D (nm)
Pristine FeS2	5.43	28.54
$10\%$ Cu-doped FeS <sub>2</sub>	5.63	24.21

To determine the crystallite sizes, Scherrer's formula was applied using the most intense (200) peak for both samples. Results indicated a reduction in crystallite size from 28.54 nm for pristine  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$  to 24.20 nm for Cu-doped  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$ , indicative of the influence of doping on crystalline domain size.

morphologies were formed which was in correspondence to the expected results. Also, the EDS spectrum of the same has been reported in Figure 4(b-d). The composition of elements is given in Table 2. The EDS spectrum shows a uniform distribution of both Fe and S. The presence of Cu was confirmed through EDS analysis of Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub>.



Figure 2: (a) XRD profiles and (b) FTIR spectra for pristine and 10% Cu doped FeS<sub>2</sub>.

From Figure 2(b), it can be seen that the most prominent peak indicates the Fe-S bond beyond  $900 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . There are other  $\sim$   $_{\text{VDS}}$  and peaks at 3400 cm<sup>-1</sup> that indicate the presence of impurities  $\frac{X_1}{x_2}$  analysis such as moisture in the sample owing to its solvothermal synthesis protocol.

BET surface area experiments were performed by adsorption-desorption of  $N_2$ . The  $N_2$  adsorption-desorption isotherms for all samples were recorded at 77 K and are shown in Figure 3. The estimated value of the specific surface area is 21.43 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> and 9.02 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> for doped and undoped  $\frac{10}{2}$  exposure to mo samples, respectively. The average pore radii for both samples were observed to be approximately 1.58 nm. Hence, the microporous nature was confirmed.

Figure  $4(a)$  shows a SEM micrograph of the 10% copper doped sample of FeS<sub>2</sub>. The image clearly shows that nanoparticles with spherical and ellipsoidal shaped nanoparticles with spherical and



Figure 3: N<sub>2</sub> adsorption-desorption isotherms for (a) pristine FeS<sub>2</sub> and (b)  $10\%$  Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub> with their respective pore size distributions given in the insets.

 $XPS$  analysis was performed on the Cu-doped  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$  sample whose results are shown in Figure 5(a-d). XPS was operated at 15 kV with carbon 1s signal as the reference peak at a binding energy of  $285$  eV. Figure  $5(a)$  shows the XPS survey spectrum which confirms the presence of Fe, S and Cu. The carbon peak was observed due to involvement of organic compounds during synthesis. The O 1s peak is observed due to exposure to moisture as synthesis was carried out in ambient atmosphere. Fe 2p peaks were observed at energies  $\sim$ 713 eV (Fe  $2p_{3/2}$ ) and 723 eV (Fe  $2p_{1/2}$ ) along with satellite peaks. Similarly,  $S_2^2$  (disulphide) peaks were found at energies  $\sim 161$  eV (S 2p<sub>3/2</sub>) and 162 eV (S 2p<sub>1/2</sub>). The confirmation of Cu replacing the Fe atom and formation of Cu

 $-$  S bond was revealed by Cu<sup>+</sup> peaks at  $\sim$  930 eV which indicated successful doping of Cu in FeS2.







Figure 5: (a) XPS survey spectrum for 10% Cu-doped FeS2.XPS spectra displaying peaks of(b) Cu 2p, (c) S 2p and (d)Fe 2p.

Table 2: Elemental Composition Determined from EDS Survey Scan Displaying Percentage of each Element Present.



#### *B. Electrochemical Performance*

The electrochemical analysis of both doped and undoped sample-based electrodes was performed in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte within an optimum potential window of 1.3 V. Figure 6 (a)  $\&$  (b) show the cyclic voltammograms for scan rates varying from 5 to 200 mV  $s^{-1}$  for the pristine and Cu maximum specific doped FeS<sub>2</sub> coated electrodes respectively. The cyclic voltammetry (CV) plots reveal a nearly rectangular curve, indicating the formation of a double-layer along with a slight deviation attributed to the pseudocapacitive component of energy storage. The specific capacitances for both samples were determined by calculating the area under the CV curves. For the doped sample, the maximum specific capacitance was measured to be  $85 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  at a scan rate of 5 mV s<sup>-1</sup> and the same

for the undoped sample was found to be 58  $F$   $g^{-1}$ . These findings demonstrate a higher capacity of Cu-doped sample compared to the pristine one. The results of the galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) are displayed in Figure 6 (c) and (d) for pristine and Cu-doped  $FeS<sub>2</sub>$  samples respectively. The maximum specific capacitance for the undoped and doped samples are 61 F  $g^{-1}$  and 122 F  $g^{-1}$  at 1 A  $g^{-1}$  current density respectively. The detailed results of GCD are given in Table 3. Further, Figure 7(a) and (b) clearly indicate that the 10% Cu doped FeS<sub>2</sub> sample exhibits higher specific capacitances at all scan rates and all current densities compared to pristine FeS2.



Figure 6: Cyclic voltammograms of (a) pristine and (b) 10% Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub> samples at different Scan Rates and Charge-Discharge profiles for (c) pristine and (d) 10% Cu-doped FeS<sup>2</sup> at different Current Densities in 1 M Na2SO4.

Current Density $(A g-1)$	Specific Capacitance $(F g-1)$ Pristine FeS2	Specific Capacitance $(F g-1)$ 10% Cu-doped FeS2
	6.	122
	52	108
	43	86
	42	84
	40	

Table 3: Achieved Specific Capacitances for Pristine and 10% Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub> Samples at Different Current Densities.



Figure 7: Comparative study of (a) Specific capacitance vs scan rates (b) Specific capacitance vs current density and (c) Cycling stability performance of the pristine and 10% Cu-doped  $FeS_2$  at 3 A  $g^{-1}$  current density.

#### **IV. CONCLUSION**

This work establishes a novel strategy to synthesize the SEM and EDS. pristine and Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub> (10%) using a solvothermal demonstrated method. XRD analysis of both the samples was carried out to

confirm their phase. Further physiochemical characterizations of both the samples were performed such as FTIR, BET, XPS, Electrochemical characterization a substantial enhancement in specific capacitance upon doping with copper, with a maximum

specific capacitance of 122 F  $g^{-1}$  for the 10% doped sample 13. Y. Jiang and J. Liu, and of 61 F  $g^{-1}$  for the undoped sample at a current density of  $\frac{Review, "Energy}}{Meals 2010}$  $1 \text{ A } g^{-1}$  in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. This nearly doubled capacity signifies  $14. D.P.$  Chatteric the substantial enhancement of copper doping on the capacitive behaviour of FeS<sub>2</sub> electrodes. Moreover, cycling stability of the Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub> electrode revealed an  $87\%$ coulombic efficiency retention after 200 charge-discharge cycles, highlighting the durability and long-term stability of the electrode material.

Conclusively, the successful synthesis and comprehensive characterization of  $10\%$  Cu-doped FeS<sub>2</sub> electrodes have provided insights into the significant enhancement of electrochemical performance achieved through copper doping. These findings pave the way for further advancement in doping in FeS<sub>2</sub> based electrodes for supercapacitor.

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