

RESEARCH ARTICLE OPEN ACCESS

Synergistic Cu-Fe Interactions Enhance Phase Transformation Kinetics Toward High-Performance CuFeS₂-Based All-Solid-State Batteries

Changjiang Bai¹ | Katherine A. Mazzio^{1,2,3,4}  | Florian Ruske⁵  | Goutham Srinivas¹ | Tim Bernges⁶ | Junwei Meng⁷ | Xiangping Min¹ | Yanan Sun^{1,2} | Vinita Ahuja¹ | Román Healy Corominas¹  | Volodymyr Baran⁸  | Götz Schuck⁹ | Michael Haumann¹⁰ | Jürgen Janek^{7,11}  | Wolfgang G. Zeier^{6,12}  | Philipp Adelhelm^{1,2,13} 

¹Institut für Chemie, Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Berlin, Germany | ²Research Group Operando Battery Analysis (CE-GOBA), Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin für Materialien und Energie GmbH, Berlin, Germany | ³Institute of Chemical Technologies and Analytics, TU Wien, Vienna, Austria | ⁴X-Ray Center, TU Wien, Vienna, Austria | ⁵Solar Energy Division, Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin für Materialien und Energie GmbH, Berlin, Germany | ⁶Institute for Inorganic and Analytical Chemistry, University of Münster, Münster, Germany | ⁷Institute for Physical Chemistry & Center for Materials Research, Justus Liebig University, Giessen, Germany | ⁸Deutsches Elektronen-Synchrotron DESY, Hamburg, Germany | ⁹Department Structure and Dynamics of Energy Materials, Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin für Materialien und Energie, Berlin, Germany | ¹⁰Department Atomic-Scale Dynamics in Light-Energy Conversion, XAS@KMC-3 instrument, Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin für Materialien und Energie GmbH, Berlin, Germany | ¹¹Center for Materials Research (ZfM), Justus Liebig University Giessen, Giessen, Germany | ¹²Institute of Energy Materials and Devices (IMD), IMD-4: Helmholtz-Institut Münster, Forschungszentrum Jülich, Münster, Germany | ¹³Center for the Science of Materials Berlin (CSMB), Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Berlin, Germany

Correspondence: Katherine A. Mazzio (katherine.mazzio@tuwien.ac.at) | Philipp Adelhelm (philipp.adelhelm@hu-berlin.de)

Received: 7 May 2026 | **Revised:** 7 May 2026 | **Accepted:** 18 May 2026

Keywords: all-solid-state batteries | chalcopyrite | displacement reaction | phase separation | SXRD/XAS/EDX characterization

ABSTRACT

Chalcopyrite (CuFeS₂), composed of earth-abundant and environmentally benign elements, was synthesized via solid-state sintering of an equimolar CuS/FeS mixture and evaluated as a cathode material for lithium all-solid-state batteries (ASSBs). CuFeS₂ was compared with a mixture of the CuS and FeS parent materials, which are theoretically expected to show similar conversion reaction products during lithiation. Galvanostatic cycling, XRD, XAS, SEM, and EDX analyses revealed that both samples undergo displacement reactions with lithium, leading to phase separation into Cu⁰, Fe⁰, and Li₂S. However, CuFeS₂ exhibits superior reversibility due to the formation of intermediate phases (LiCuFeS₂, Li₃CuS₂, Li₂FeS₂), where Cu-related phases may promote uniform Fe reactivation during charging. The synergistic Cu-Fe interactions improve reaction kinetics and reversibility, thereby enhancing overall electrochemical performance. In contrast, the CuS-FeS composite exhibits rapid capacity decay due to independent phase segregation and irreversible Fe⁰ passivation. Electrochemically, CuFeS₂ delivers 207 mAh g⁻¹ with 61% retention after 100 cycles, outperforming CuS-FeS (132 mAh g⁻¹, 40% retention). This work provides the most detailed mechanistic insight to date into the function of CuFeS₂ in rechargeable Li cells and shows that controlled intermediate distribution and dynamically evolved conductive networks during phase transformation can improve conversion-type electrodes for ASSBs.

This is an open access article under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/) License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

© 2026 The Author(s). *Advanced Functional Materials* published by Wiley-VCH GmbH

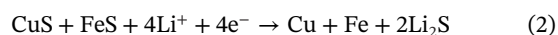
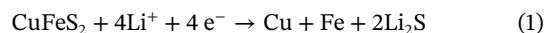
1 | Introduction

All-solid-state batteries (ASSBs) promise higher energy density and improved safety compared to lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) by replacing liquid organic electrolytes with solid electrolytes (SEs) with better mechanical properties and higher Li^+ transference numbers [1]. Numerous cathode active materials (CAMs) have been investigated for LIBs. Among these, layered oxides are widely used due to their favourable electrochemical properties [2, 3]. However, their performance is approaching theoretical limits, and they exhibit drawbacks such as high cost and lattice instability at too high electrode potentials, the latter leading to the release of gaseous O_2 and triggering electrolyte decomposition [4]. These issues are not limited to conventional LIBs, as the decomposition of materials and the degradation of the SE/CAM interfaces are also key challenges in ASSBs [5]. The development of new CAMs that enable stable cycling in ASSBs while using lower cost is therefore of high interest. Transition metal sulfides have attracted increasing attention as alternative CAMs due to their ability to enable reversible “double redox” involving both cations and anions [6]. While the use of sulfides has the drawback of lower redox potentials, these are better aligned with the oxidative stability window of sulfide-based SEs, thereby mitigating severe interfacial degradation [7]. At the same time, they have more favourable mechanical properties than oxides for ASSBs, as they are more deformable and hence the preparation of dense materials with good interface contacts is generally easier [8].

Transition metal sulfides (e.g., CuS [9, 10], FeS [11], TiS_2 [12], FeS_2 [13], etc.) exhibit diverse reaction mechanisms that have been extensively investigated for Li-ion and Na-ion batteries, and are the topic of several recent reviews [14, 15]. These materials demonstrate distinct electrochemical behaviours depending on their composition, structure, and the chosen charge/discharge voltage window, including: intercalation mechanisms (e.g., TiS_2), conversion reactions (e.g., FeS, CuS), and step-wise intercalation/conversion reactions (e.g., FeS_2). While intercalation processes offer high reversibility, they exhibit limited theoretical capacities due to typically low contents of Li^+ intercalation [16]. Conversion reactions, on the other hand, facilitate high capacity by leveraging multi-electron redox of transition metals, but with the drawbacks of severe volume expansion and poor reversibility [17]. Among these systems, Fe-based sulfides are particularly prone to such challenges, often exhibiting pronounced polarization and limited reversibility during cycling [18]. Furthermore, at varying depths of discharge, intercalation and conversion mechanisms can couple to form complex multi-electron transfer pathways. While these stepwise reactions enable high capacity, they also tend to suffer from phase segregation, polarization, and volume instability during cycling [19].

In this work, we address these limitations by introducing Cu into an Fe-based sulfide system, forming CuFeS_2 (chalcopyrite) as a model compound to investigate whether cation coupling can modify the reaction pathway and improve electrochemical performance in ASSBs, while also benefiting from the earth-abundance and low cost of Fe [20]. The material was synthesized via solid-state sintering of stoichiometric CuS and FeS precursors. CuS is known to undergo a special type of conversion reaction called a displacement reaction, in which the metallic Cu can

migrate over long distances (μm range) during electrochemical cycling, even in ASSBs [21]. While there is surprisingly high reversibility in the Li/CuS system with lower polarization than in other conversion electrodes, there remain kinetic limitations that are at least partially related to the macroscopic displacement of Cu [19]. To this end, Cu is introduced as an electrochemically active component into an Fe-based sulfide system, enabling us to investigate how Cu incorporation influences the reaction environment of Fe and its electrochemical reversibility. Moreover, we find that Cu^+ ions play a crucial role in modulating the electrochemical environment around Fe-phases, thereby improving its activity [22]. After equimolar mixing of CuS and FeS, the ideal lithiation products of CuFeS_2 and a mixture of CuS and FeS (herein referred to as CuS-FeS) are identical in the case of full lithiation, as described by Equations (1) and (2).



However, despite identical overall conversion products, their fundamentally different cation distributions provide a platform to probe how structural integration influences reaction pathways and reversibility. The differential capacity (dQ/dV) analysis reveals fundamentally distinct reaction pathways, with clearly separated voltage plateaus demonstrating independent electrochemical behavior of the CuS and FeS components in the physical mixture. Through comprehensive characterization with XRD, XAS, and SEM-EDX, we were able to identify a critical distinction in the reversibility of their mechanisms. CuFeS_2 maintains excellent cycling stability through well-defined intermediate phases (LiCuFeS_2 , Li_3CuS_2 , and Li_2FeS_2). During the initial discharge, Cu and Fe from LiCuFeS_2 decomposition remain uniformly distributed. Subsequent discharge leads to confined Cu crystallization within individual particles while maintaining uniform Fe nucleation. The combined electronic and ionic conductivity of Cu and Cu^+ phases facilitates Fe site reactivation during charging, thereby promoting the reversal of the conversion reaction. In contrast, while the CuS-FeS cathode forms some analogous intermediates (Li_3CuS_2 and Li_2FeS_2), severe phase separation between Cu and Fe prevents complete Fe site activation during charging and hence limits cycle life. Our findings demonstrate that precise control of intermediate phase distribution and formation of conductive networks are crucial for optimizing conversion-type electrodes in solid-state batteries.

2 | Results and Discussion

2.1 | Synthesis and Structural Characterization of CuFeS_2

Phase-pure CuFeS_2 was obtained by the high-temperature solid-state reaction of CuS and FeS precursors. Detailed synthesis procedures are described in the Supporting Information. XRD and Rietveld refinement confirm the phase purity of the synthesized CuFeS_2 in an $I\bar{4}2d$ space group (see Figure S1 and Table S1). XPS of CuFeS_2 reveals a mixed chemical state comprised of $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$, $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$, and $\text{S}_2^{2-}/2\text{S}^{2-}$ (Figure S2). All sieved particles exhibited similar size distributions, as confirmed by both

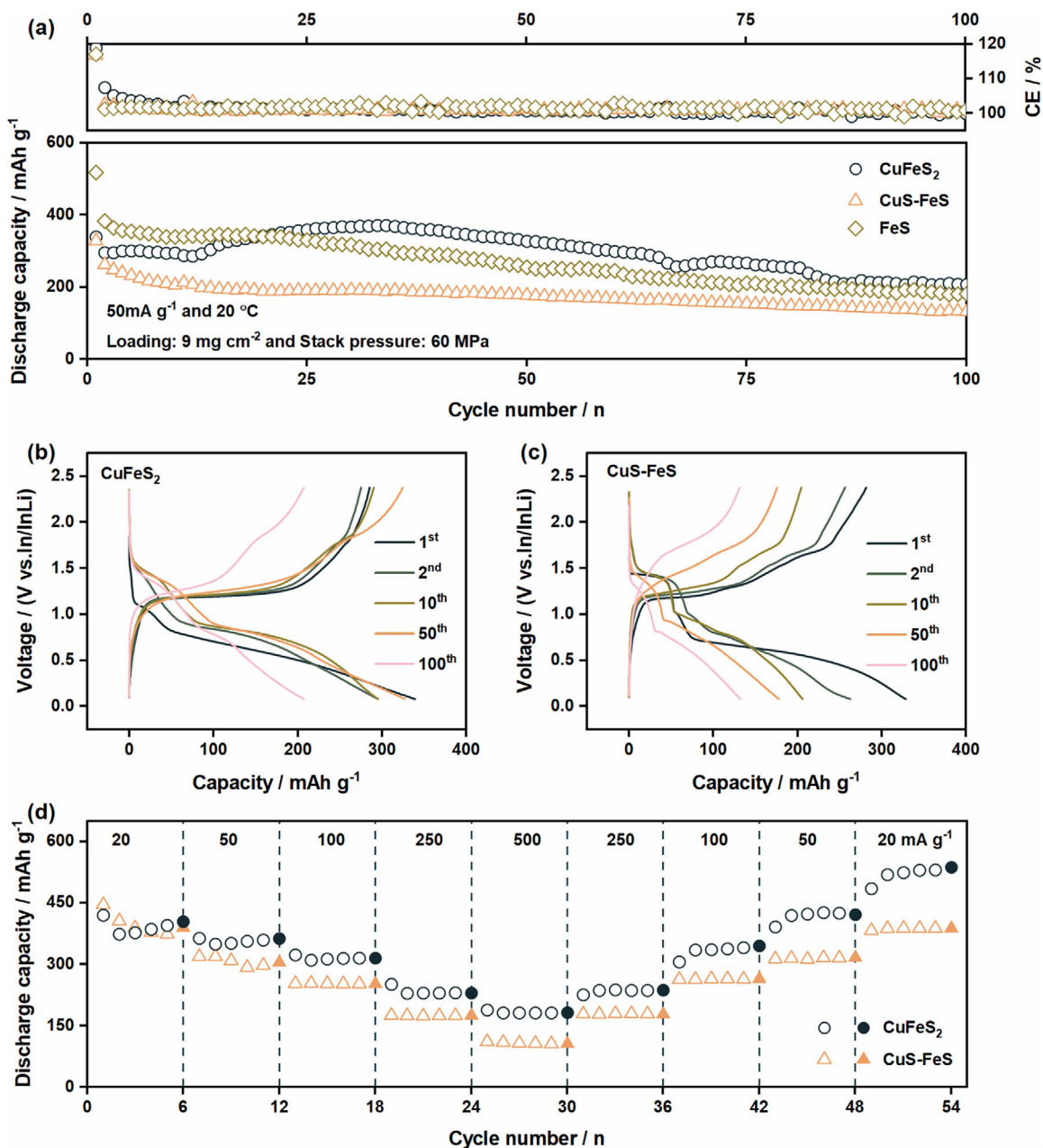


FIGURE 1 | Electrochemical properties of the ASSB [Anode (In/InLi) | Li_{5.5}PS_{4.5}Cl_{1.5} (LPSCI-1.5) | Cathode] with various CAM (CuFeS₂, CuS-FeS, or FeS) at 50 mA·g⁻¹, 20 °C, and 60 MPa stack pressure. The cathodes contain 55 wt% of CAM, 40 wt% LPSCI-1.5 SEs, and 5 wt% C65 conductive additive. (a) Cycling performance and Coulomb efficiency of CuFeS₂, CuS-FeS, and FeS cells. Corresponding voltage profiles for (b) CuFeS₂ and (c) CuS-FeS cells showing the first, second, 10th, 50th, and 100th cycles. (d) Rate capability comparison of CuFeS₂ vs. CuS-FeS cells at different current densities.

SEM imaging and laser diffraction particle size analysis (15–20 μm range), as shown in Figures S3 and S4. EDX elemental mapping further demonstrated a homogeneous spatial distribution of Cu, Fe, and S throughout the materials, verifying their uniform chemical composition (see Figure S5).

2.2 | Electrochemical Properties of the ASSBs

ASSBs were fabricated with four distinct CAMs: (a) CuFeS₂, (b) CuS, (c) FeS, and (d) CuS-FeS composite cathodes with Li_{5.5}PS_{4.5}Cl_{1.5} (LPSCI-1.5) as SE, and all with controlled active material loading of around 9.0 mg cm⁻². Assembled cells were

cycled between 0.08 and 2.38 V vs. In/InLi at 20 °C [23]. Assuming full conversion, the loading corresponds to areal capacity values between 5.0 and 5.5 mAh cm⁻², depending on the CAM. All capacity values in this work refer to the total mass of metal sulfide unless otherwise specified. Figure 1a and Figure S7a show data for the Coulomb efficiency (CE), which is here calculated by $CE(\%) = Q_{dis}/Q_{chg}$. Values for the initial Coulomb efficiencies approaching 120% indicate that charging is incomplete. This behavior is typically observed in conversion reactions, particularly for larger particles, and is further enhanced by the solid-state configuration [24]. Stabilization of the Coulomb efficiency at 100%–101% is found in subsequent cycles, reflecting the benefits of an initial discharge activation process. The critical performance metrics

TABLE 1 | Properties of CuS, FeS, and CuFeS₂ as CAMs in ASSBs at 25°C.

	CuS	FeS	CuFeS ₂
$\Delta_r G^\circ$ (kJ mol ⁻¹)	-378.8	-331.4	-670.1
Number of transferred electrons (n)	2	2	4
Voltage (V vs. Li ⁺ /Li)	1.96	1.72	1.74
Voltage (V vs. In/InLi)	1.34	1.10	1.12
q_{th} by weight (mAh g ⁻¹)	561	610	587
q_{th} by volume (mAh cm ⁻³)	2670	2952	2524
Volume expansion during lithiation (%)	72.3	90.6	62.2
Specific energy density (Wh kg ⁻¹)	961	906	887
Volumetric energy density (Wh L ⁻¹)	3037	2663	2708
Conductivity (S cm ⁻¹)	870 (293K) [9]	50 (333K) [25]	190 (300K) [26]
Mohs hardness	1.8 [21]	4.0 [27]	3.0-4.0 [28]

Note: The thermodynamic data were obtained using the HSC chemistry software database. As these materials do not inherently contain lithium, the theoretical energy density was calculated by considering both the mass and volume of the active material as well as the lithium required to form the fully lithiated products. The calculated volume expansion, specific energy density, and volumetric energy density are summarized in Table S2.

for CuS, FeS, and CuFeS₂ as CAMs in ASSBs are summarized in Table 1, including their theoretical capacities, which are comparable across the investigated series. Despite universal capacity fading, all cells demonstrate stable cycling over 100 cycles, with different capacity retentions of CuS (264 mAh g⁻¹, 75% retention) > CuFeS₂ (207 mAh g⁻¹, 61%) > CuS-FeS (132 mAh g⁻¹, 40%) > FeS (181 mAh g⁻¹, 35%), directly correlating with their different mechanical stabilities and ionic/electronic conductivities, in both the pristine state and during electrochemical cycling.

Voltage profiles are presented in Figure 1b,c and Figure S7b,c. All materials except FeS exhibited similar initial charge/discharge capacities (CuFeS₂: 285/339 mAh g⁻¹; CuS: 320/354 mAh g⁻¹; CuS-FeS: 281/328 mAh g⁻¹), with values ~200 mAh g⁻¹ below their theoretical capacities, likely due to their large particle sizes. FeS (442/518 mAh g⁻¹) exhibits a higher initial capacity compared to the other materials, which may be associated with differences in structural evolution during the early cycles. This exposes a greater electrochemically active surface area, particularly in the case of larger particle sizes [29]. Two independently assembled CuFeS₂ and CuS-FeS cells were tested for cycling performance (Tables S3 and S4). The voltage profiles of CuFeS₂ and CuS-FeS cathodes exhibit distinct first discharge curves that differ markedly from subsequent cycles, which is due to the pristine chemical state of the active materials (e.g., mixed valence in CuFeS₂, see XPS of pristine material in Figure S2) that evolves in subsequent cycles. To further elucidate the electrochemical reaction mechanisms, dQ/dV analysis for all four CAMs is shown in Figure S8. CuFeS₂ exhibits two broad reduction peaks at 1.1 V and 0.65 V vs. In/InLi, corresponding to its multi-step metal conversion mechanism. However, after the first cycle, these reduction peaks shift to higher potentials and stabilize, suggesting the presence of irreversible reactions during the initial discharge process. During the charging process, two oxidation peaks appear at 1.18 V and 1.78 V vs. In/InLi. The first corresponds to the oxidation of the Cu and Fe metal redox centers, which are expected to overlap, while we attribute the second oxidation process to S redox [30]. CuS exhibits two distinct redox peaks during the initial cycles, corresponding to the sequential redox

processes of Cu²⁺/Cu⁺ and Cu⁺/Cu⁰, although some S redox may also take place [21]. By the 50th and 100th cycles, the oxidation process displays additional peaks. This behavior is attributed to the complexity of the Cu-S phase diagram, which includes multiple binary compounds with varying homogeneity ranges, leading to the formation of diverse intermediate phases during cycling [19, 31]. FeS exhibits a broad single reduction peak during the first cycle, which shifts to a higher potential from the second cycle onward, indicating an irreversible process in the first cycle and/or initial polarization. This type of activation cycle is typical for most conversion electrode materials [15, 32]. During the charging process, a prominent oxidation peak appears at 1.20 V vs. In/InLi, corresponding to the oxidation of Fe⁰ [33]. A second, much weaker peak is observed at 1.88 V vs. In/InLi is attributed to a minor transformation of the S chemical state [34]. The mixed CuS-FeS cathode exhibits dQ/dV peaks that simply combine the individual signatures of CuS and FeS, indicating no synergistic electrochemical interactions between the two components. All cathode materials demonstrate measurable electrochemical polarization during cycling.

The rate capabilities of different CAMs were systematically assessed across current densities ranging from 20 to 500 mA g⁻¹ (see Figure 1d; Figure S9). At all current rates, CuFeS₂ and CuS demonstrated superior cycling stability compared to FeS and CuS-FeS, as evidenced by their higher discharge capacities at each rate. After cycling from 500 to 20 mA g⁻¹, the rate performance followed the same trend and recovered to nearly the original capacity levels. Two independently assembled CuFeS₂ and CuS-FeS cells were tested for rate performance (Tables S5 and S6). The rate-dependent behavior primarily reflects differences in conductivity between the CAMs, as evidenced by the increasing polarization in the voltage profiles from 20–500 mA g⁻¹ (see Figure S10), which directly correlates with the observed reduction in capacity at higher currents. The comparative electrochemical analysis reveals that while CuS delivers optimal performance due to its superior material properties, with the addition of Fe to form CuFeS₂, a high capacity retention is maintained at significantly reduced material costs. Notably, the addition of Cu to

make CuFeS₂ enables significantly enhanced capacity retention relative to FeS, highlighting the synergistic advantages of the bimetallic system. CuFeS₂ outperforms CuS-FeS composites, demonstrating enhanced cycling stability, despite their similar theoretical conversion reaction products. To further investigate the origin of this improved performance, we examined differences in the reaction mechanisms and morphological changes during electrochemical cycling.

2.3 | Elucidating Reaction Mechanism Differences

2.3.1 | Structural Evolution of CuFeS₂ Cathodes by SXRD

Due to distinct electrochemical behavior and capacity differences, ex situ synchrotron XRD (SXRD) was performed to study differences in the reaction mechanisms. Figure 2 shows the SXRD patterns for the CuFeS₂ and CuS-FeS cathodes at different charge/discharge states. The SXRD patterns and corresponding voltage profile of the CuFeS₂ cathode are shown in Figure 2a, and a representative Le Bail fitting is presented in Figure S11 and Tables S7–S12. At OCV, only CuFeS₂ and LPSCI-1.5 are observed, showing the high phase purity of the synthesized CuFeS₂ and limited interaction during processing (see Figure S11a and Table S8). The first new crystalline phase appears after the first discharge plateau, where small amounts of LiCuFeS₂ are detected alongside predominantly residual CuFeS₂ and LPSCI-1.5. In LiCuFeS₂, Li occupies the octahedral sites between sulfur layers, and at low lithium concentrations Cu can easily migrate into the tetrahedral sites of this layer as a Li_{2–x}Cu_xFeS₂ (0 ≤ x < 1) solid solution phase [35]. Upon further discharge to 0.9 V, Li₂FeS₂ is found to develop, showing an initial elemental segregation between Cu and Fe species. It should be noted that the Li₂FeS₂ phase is the endpoint of the isostructural Li_{2–x}Cu_xFeS₂ phase, and aside from fitting the data, this phase can be visually identified in the diffraction patterns based on the increased intensity at $q = 1.85 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$. Continued discharge to 0.65 V leads to the formation of Li₃CuS₂ and Cu⁰ (Figure S11b and Table S9). Assuming only ideal crystalline end-products at this stage leads to an inability to balance the sulfur count strictly with these endmembers. This points toward the presence of an unresolved Fe-containing phase with low sulfur content (e.g., amorphous or nanocrystalline FeS/Fe-rich sulfide domains or heavy antisite disorder), which is further explored by XAS below. At full discharge to 0.08 V, the Cu⁰ fraction significantly increases and Li₂S is also found, supporting the overall conversion reaction mechanism. In this case, crystalline Fe⁰ is not observed by diffraction, consistent with Fe residing in amorphous/poorly crystalline sulfide domains or as ultrasmall metal clusters below the diffraction detection limit. In the fully discharged state (Figure S11c and Table S10), Le Bail fitting indicates the coexistence of a complex phase mixture of Li₂S, Cu⁰, LPSCI-1.5, Li₂FeS₂, Li₃CuS₂, LiCuFeS₂, and residual CuFeS₂. This phase mixture includes all products associated with the different reaction steps, which is likely attributed to the initially large particle size and significant overpotentials during the electrochemical process. During the charging process, Li₂S is consumed, and the amount of Cu⁰ significantly decreases following the first charging plateau at 1.18 V, leaving predominantly Li₂FeS₂ and Li₃CuS₂, and some residual Cu⁰ crystals. Upon further charging to 1.4 and 2.38 V, the SXRD patterns show the

reappearance of LiCuFeS₂ and CuFeS₂ as the primary phases, coinciding with the complete disappearance of Cu⁰ reflections. The presence of mixed phases and low crystallinity in CuFeS₂ at full charge (2.38 V) suggests partial irreversibility in the reaction pathway, consistent with the dQ/dV behavior, which shows shifted reduction peaks toward higher potentials after the first discharge process. The second discharge process exhibits voltage plateaus at higher potentials compared to the first cycle. The electrochemical products maintain remarkable consistency with the first discharge process, as evidenced by consistent phase evolution at the different voltage plateaus. Significantly, refinement confirms complete CuFeS₂ consumption in subsequent cycles (see Figure S11d and Table S11), demonstrating that initial cycling activates the bulk material over time. After 50 cycles, the cathode is found to undergo a more extensive reaction, with the formation of Li₂S and Cu⁰ discharge products, suggesting more sluggish reaction kinetics after long-term cycling (Figure S11e and Table S12).

2.3.2 | Structural Evolution of CuS-FeS Cathodes by SXRD

According to the dQ/dV results, the equimolar CuS-FeS mixture exhibited no synergistic electrochemical behavior between CuS and FeS. The SXRD patterns also reveal the evolution of distinct phases corresponding to CuS and FeS, respectively. The SXRD patterns and corresponding voltage profile of the CuS-FeS cathode are presented in Figure 2b and a representative Le Bail fitting is presented in Figure S12 and Tables S13–S18. Already at OCV there are some unexpected phases when fitting the XRD patterns (see Figure S12a and Table S14). Rather than just containing CuS, FeS, and LPSCI-1.5, there was a small contribution of additional unidentified species. Examining the pristine commercial precursor materials made it clear that these unidentified compounds correspond to additional Fe_xS_y impurities, including FeS₂, and two different phases of Fe₇S₈ (P 31 2 1 and C12/c 1), and these compounds were included in subsequent fittings (see Figure S12b and Table S15). The initial structural changes occur following the first voltage plateau (0.9 V), where CuS converts to α-LiCuS while pristine FeS remains unreacted. Upon further discharge to 0.7 V (second voltage plateau), α-LiCuS undergoes conversion into Cu⁰ and Li₃CuS₂, whereas FeS persists in its pristine state. At the first full discharge (0.08 V), a new Li₂S phase emerges (as evidenced by a peak at $q = 1.90 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$), coexisting with Li₃CuS₂ and crystalline Cu⁰. Notably, unlike the case of CuFeS₂, no Li₂FeS₂ formation is observed in the CuS-FeS cathode during discharge. However, the weakening of FeS reflections suggests its gradual conversion to Fe⁰ and Li₂S rather than Li₂FeS₂. Le Bail fitting of the fully discharged state (see Figure S12c and Table S16) confirms a multiphase composition, including Li₂S, Cu⁰, LPSCI-1.5, Li₃CuS₂, and residual FeS. While no crystalline Fe was observed after the first discharge, similar to CuFeS₂, we can nevertheless anticipate its formation based on the conversion reaction, but this must be confirmed with additional techniques, like XAS as discussed below. The conversion reaction products derived from CuS demonstrate reversibility during the subsequent charging process. Initially, the discharge products (Li₂S and Cu⁰) reconvert to Li₃CuS₂ at the first charge voltage plateau (1.2 V). Upon further charging to the second plateau (1.5 V), Li₃CuS₂ transforms into

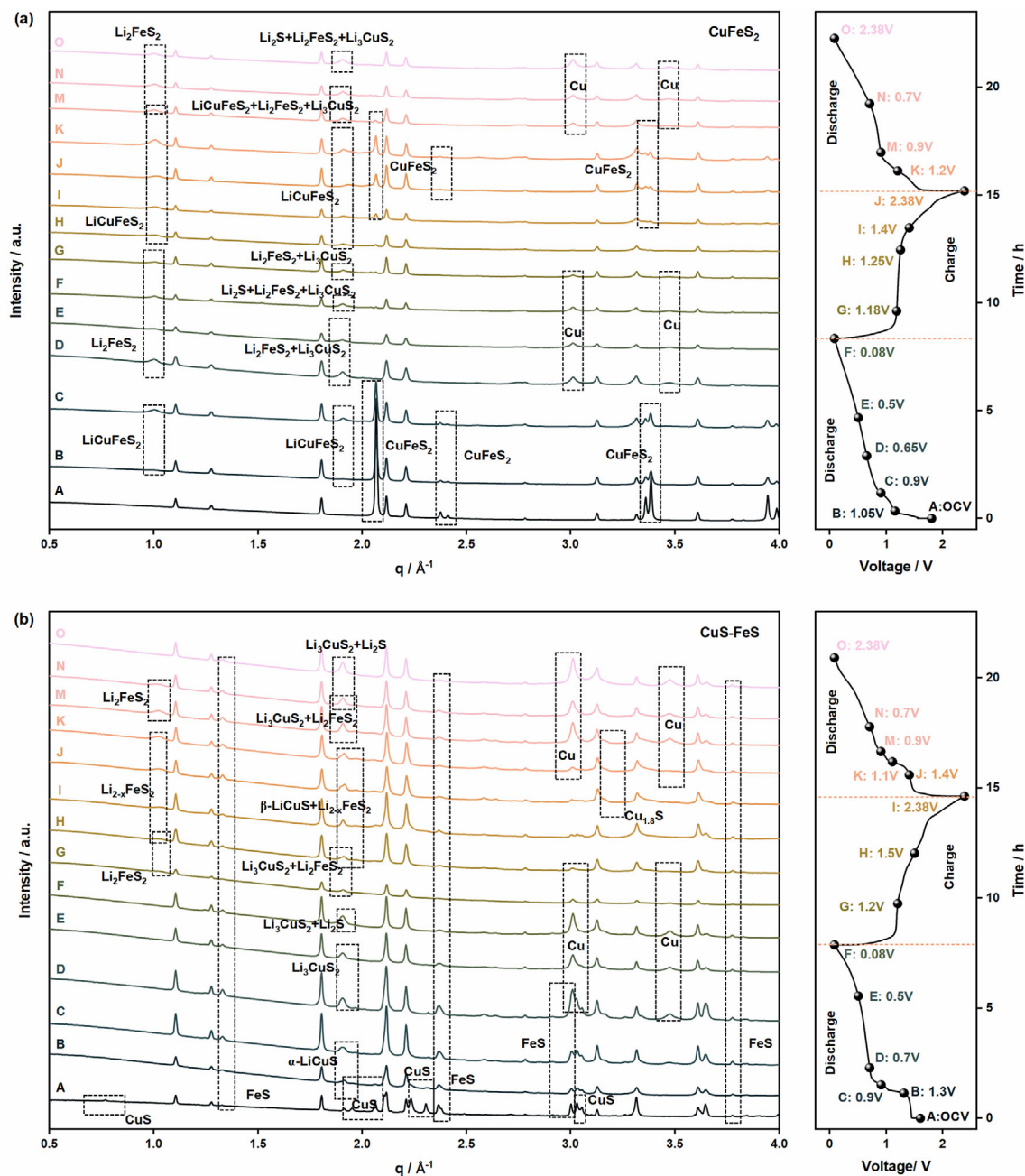


FIGURE 2 | Ex situ synchrotron XRD patterns (SXR) of (a) CuFeS₂ and (b) CuS-FeS cathodes during the first cycle and following second discharge process at different cell voltages when cycled at 50 mA g⁻¹, plotted as a function of scattering vector q ($\lambda = 0.207379$ Å).

β -LiCuS, accompanied by the disappearance of Cu⁰. At full charge (2.38 V), partial conversion of β -LiCuS to Cu_{1.8}S is observed, indicating that the original CuS phase is not regained during charging. This is consistent with previous reports [31]. However, the Li_{2-x}FeS₂ ($0 < x \leq 1$) phase forms after the first charge plateau and persists throughout the charging process. Even at the fully charged state, the Li_{2-x}FeS₂ phase remains detectable, indicating that only a portion of Fe participates in the reaction to form the Li_{2-x}FeS₂ layered material, while some Fe loses electrochemical activity. While Li_{2-x}FeS₂ demonstrates mixed ionic-electronic conductivity, the progressive electrochemical deactivation of Fe⁰ and Li₂S during cycling leads to continuous capacity degradation [36]. This phenomenon directly correlates with the observed cycling instability in FeS-containing cathodes (see Figure 1a;

Figure S7). The second discharge process differs fundamentally from the first, as it begins with pre-existing phases (β -LiCuS, Cu_{1.8}S, and Li_{2-x}FeS₂) rather than pristine CuS and FeS. This compositional difference explains the positive shift in reduction peaks observed in the dQ/dV profiles. While the CuS-derived conversion products show similar behavior between cycles, the Li_{2-x}FeS₂ phase undergoes a two-step reaction: first delithiation, followed by conversion to Fe⁰ and Li₂S. Interestingly, after the second discharge to 0.08 V, Fe reflections become visible in the SXR patterns where they were not observed after the first discharge (see Figure S13). Otherwise, the phase composition of the second discharge products matches that of the first discharge, demonstrating consistent electrochemical behavior during subsequent cycles (see Figure S12d and Table S17). After 50 cycles,

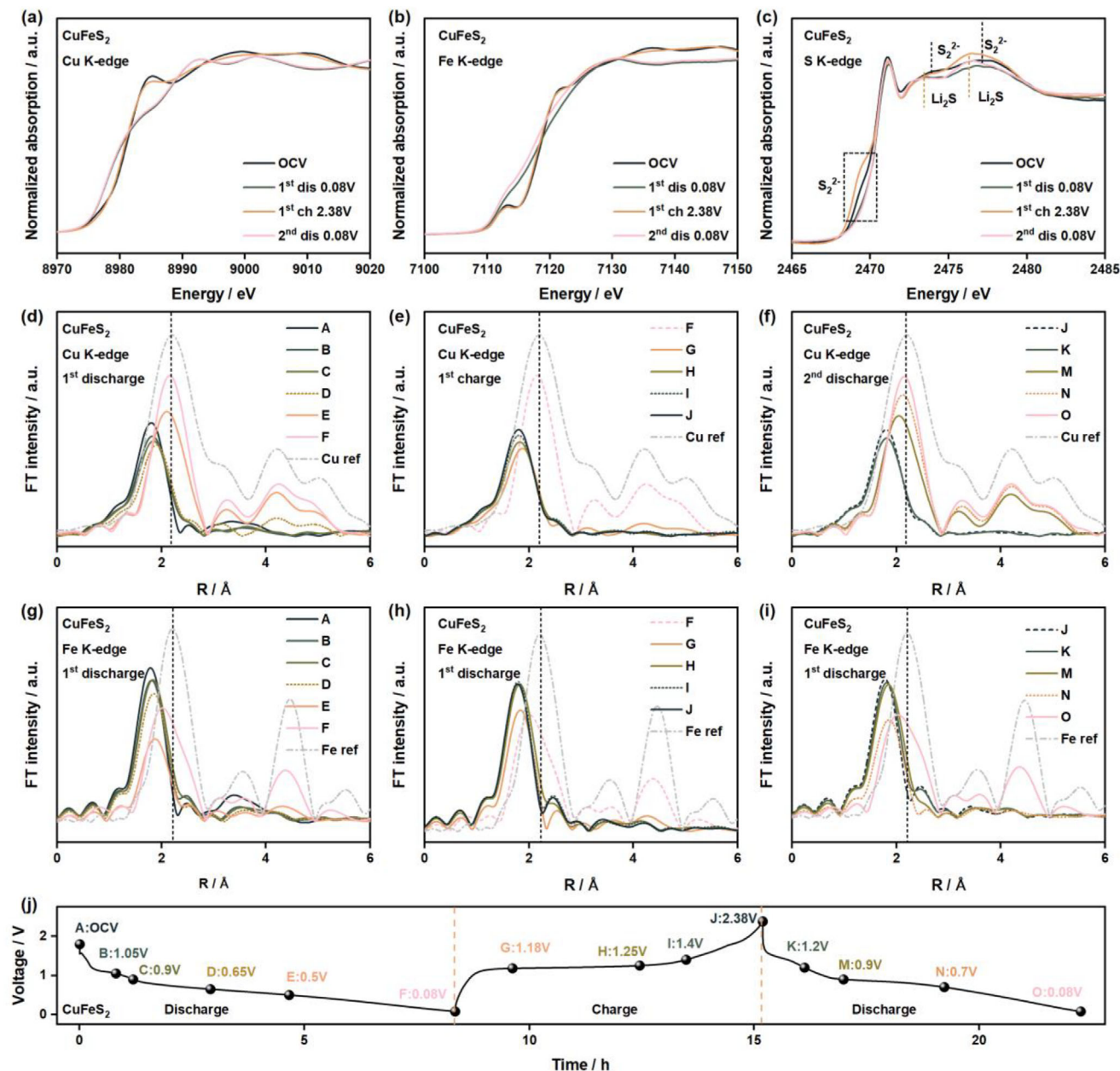


FIGURE 3 | Ex situ XAS spectra of CuFeS₂ cathodes. Ex situ XANES spectra for the (a) Cu K-edge, (b) Fe K-edge, and (c) S K-edge for OCV, first discharge to 0.08 V, first charge to 2.38 V, second discharge to 0.08 V. Ex situ Fourier transforms of the EXAFS spectra for the Cu K-edge during the (d) first discharge process, (e) first charge process, and (f) second discharge process. Corresponding Fourier transforms of the EXAFS spectra of the Fe K-edge during the (g) first discharge process, (h) first charge process, and (i) second discharge process. (j) Voltage profile highlighting the different measurement voltages shown in (d-i) for a CuFeS₂ cell.

Fe⁰ becomes undetectable by SXRD, but FeS remains, suggesting limited reaction kinetics for FeS, possibly due to growth of large and inaccessible domains (see Figure S12e and Table S18).

2.3.3 | Evolution of Oxidation States and Local Structure of CuFeS₂ Cathodes by XAS

To further elucidate the reaction mechanism in CuFeS₂ and CuS-FeS cathodes, XAS was employed to investigate oxidation state changes and the local structural evolution at the Cu, Fe, and S K-edges. In Figure 3a, the Cu K-edge spectra for CuFeS₂ at

OCV and the first charge (2.38 V) exhibit slight but measurable changes, suggesting minimal changes in the Cu oxidation state. Meanwhile, the first and second discharge (0.08 V) exhibit strong overlap, indicating a highly reversible electrochemical behavior of the Cu species. In Figure 3b, the same states of charge are shown for the Fe K-edge. At OCV a distinct pre-edge feature at 7113 eV is observed, which is characteristic of tetrahedrally coordinated iron sulfides [37]. This feature reappears after charging to 2.38 V, demonstrating significant structural reversibility. However, the Fe K-edge of the second discharge (0.08 V) shifts to lower energy compared to the first discharge (0.08 V), suggesting sluggish redox kinetics of Fe phases in the initial cycle.

The corresponding EXAFS spectra (Figure 3d–i) reveal that Cu undergoes progressive reduction and Cu–Cu bond formation during discharge, which is fully reversible upon charge. Fe shows the expected solid-solution behavior in $\text{LiCuFeS}_2/\text{Li}_2\text{FeS}_2$ at intermediate potentials and develops reduced Fe domains at deep discharge, consistent with a mixed and highly disordered (amorphous or nanocrystalline) state that remains undetected by SXRD, although contributions from Fe-rich sulfide phases with short-range order cannot be excluded. A comprehensive, voltage-resolved discussion of all Cu, Fe, and S K-edge XANES and EXAFS spectra, including additional intermediate states, is provided in the Supporting Information.

2.3.4 | Evolution of Oxidation States and Local Structure of CuS-FeS Cathodes by XAS

XAS measurements were also performed at the Cu, Fe, and S K-edges for the CuS-FeS cathodes, and the XANES spectra for OCV, first discharge (0.08 V), first charge (2.38 V), and second discharge (0.08 V) are presented in Figure 4a–c. Figure 4a reveals some small but measurable changes in the Cu K-edge spectra between the OCV state and first charge (2.38 V), indicating that while the reaction is largely reversible, there exists a mixture of products during the first cycle. During the first discharge, the Cu K-edge shifts to lower energy, reflecting reduction of Cu species, and a minor offset relative to the second discharge suggests a small degradation of Cu redox activity upon cycling.

In contrast, the Fe K-edge spectra (Figure 4b) show that the distinct pre-edge feature at 7113 eV observed at OCV disappears irreversibly upon charging to 2.38 V, indicating a permanent structural transformation and the formation of new Fe-containing phases. Nevertheless, the first and second discharge spectra overlap strongly, demonstrating reproducible formation of the same Fe-containing discharge products, consistent with the SXRD results. The corresponding Fe K-edge EXAFS evolution reveals minimal Fe participation during the initial conversion of CuS, followed by a sharp decrease in the amplitude of the EXAFS spectra at 0.7 V as Fe–S bonds break and FeS begins to be amorphized. At deeper discharge, the EXAFS spectra show increased Fe–S distances and the appearance of higher-R features, suggesting the formation of partially lithiated FeS_x intermediates and, ultimately, reduced Fe-containing domains within a mixed and structurally disordered state. The low amplitude of the longer-distance EXAFS features indicates limited structural order (amorphous or nanocrystalline character), in agreement with the absence of corresponding reflections in SXRD. During charging, contraction of the Fe–S coordination at the first voltage plateau marks substantial structural reconstruction toward $\text{Li}_{2-x}\text{FeS}_2$, although further charging leads to only partial reformation of FeS. The second discharge proceeds with more gradual changes in Fe–S coordination and higher overall EXAFS intensities, demonstrating improved reversibility and increased Fe^0 crystallinity at full discharge, again consistent with SXRD. The S K-edge XANES (Figure 4c) further confirm these redox processes. The discharged state (0.08 V) exhibits two broad peaks characteristic of Li_2S formation. In the second discharge, these features shift slightly to higher energy, suggesting a more complete conversion, possibly facilitated by

improved electronic conductivity in $\text{Li}_{2-x}\text{FeS}_2$ [38]. In contrast, the spectra at OCV and after the first charge (2.38 V) exhibit broad peaks near 2473.6 and 2477.0 eV, showing features corresponding to S_2^{2-} and S^0 species at systematically lower energies than those in CuFeS_2 , consistent with the oxidation of sulfur to higher valence states ($\text{S}_2^{2-} \rightarrow \text{S}^0$) during charge and confirming the electrochemical generation of defective $\text{Cu}_{1.8}\text{S}$ and elemental sulfur.

Taken together, these XAS results confirm that Fe in the CuS-FeS composite undergoes a two-step electrochemical process: (i) an initial conversion from FeS to Fe^0 and Li_2S during the first discharge, followed by (ii) partial reversibility through formation of $\text{Li}_{2-x}\text{FeS}_2$ during charge. However, unlike in CuFeS_2 , the Fe redox process in CuS-FeS remains largely decoupled from that of Cu, and no synchronous phase transformation is observed. The formation and stabilization of $\text{Li}_{2-x}\text{FeS}_2$ during cycling leads to partial Fe electrochemical activity loss and structural hysteresis, consistent with the progressive capacity fade observed electrochemically. The stronger Fe^0 features and enhanced reversibility during the second discharge indicate that prior structural reorganization facilitates more complete conversion, but at the expense of increasing heterogeneity and phase segregation during cycling. These results indicate that the distinct intermediate phase evolution between CuFeS_2 and CuS-FeS is fundamentally governed by their intrinsic structural characteristics. Specifically, the single-phase CuFeS_2 , with homogeneous cation distribution, enables continuous formation of intermediate phases throughout the matrix, whereas the phase-separated CuS-FeS mixture leads to spatially confined reactions within individual particles.

2.3.5 | Morphological and Elemental Evolution of CuFeS_2 and CuS-FeS Cathodes by SEM/EDX

The XAS results clearly demonstrate the oxidation state changes and local structural evolution during electrochemical cycling. The CuFeS_2 cathode maintains superior structural stability and reversibility, as evidenced by the highly reversible changes in both XANES and EXAFS spectra. Moreover, Cu and Fe species in CuFeS_2 undergo phase conversion simultaneously at similar potentials. In contrast to the synchronous redox behavior in CuFeS_2 , the CuS-FeS system demonstrates decoupled phase evolution for Cu and Fe species. This distinct behavior is directly reflected in the markedly different evolution of the Fe-EXAFS spectra in CuS-FeS compared to CuFeS_2 during cycling, which reflects their phase-separated electrochemical responses. It is noteworthy that despite these differences in reaction pathways, the phenomenological analysis of the EXAFS spectra indicates the formation of Fe^0 at low discharge (0.08 V) in both cathode systems. Although the reaction pathways have been clearly elucidated, the underlying mechanisms governing the mechanical evolution during the conversion reaction are still not fully understood. To further elucidate the origin of these distinct electrochemical and structural behaviors, the morphological and elemental evolution of the cathodes was examined by SEM and EDX mapping. These analyses provide insight into particle-level changes, element redistribution, and phase separation phenomena accompanying the conversion reactions.

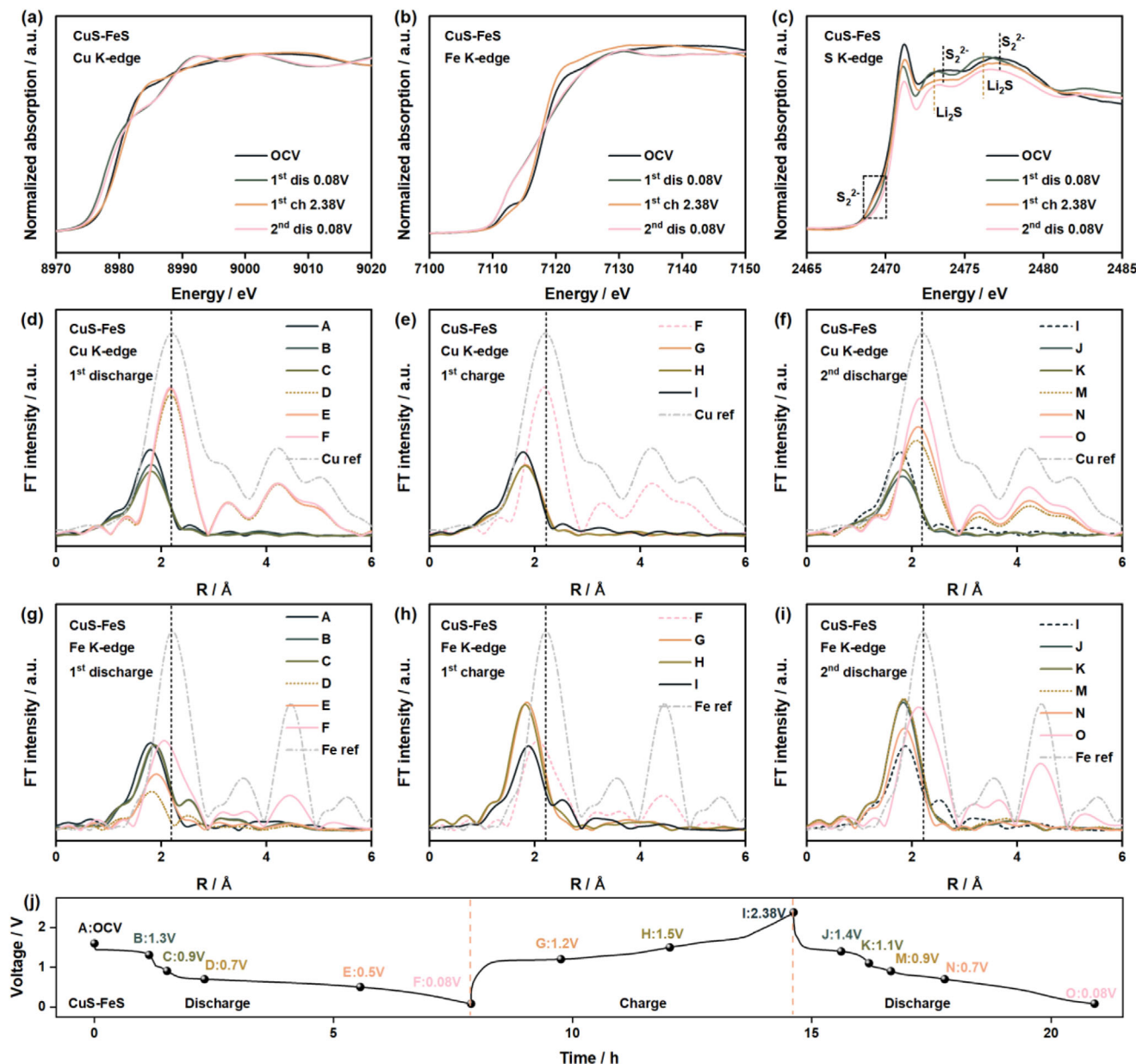


FIGURE 4 | Ex situ XAS spectra of CuS-FeS cathodes. Ex situ XANES spectra for the (a) Cu K-edge, (b) Fe K-edge, and (c) S K-edge for OCV, first discharge to 0.08 V, first charge to 2.38 V, second discharge to 0.08 V. Ex situ Fourier transforms of the EXAFS spectra of Cu K-edge: (d) first discharge process, (e) first charge process, and (f) second discharge process. Ex situ Fourier transforms of the EXAFS spectra of Fe K-edge: (g) first discharge process, (h) first charge process, and (i) second discharge process. (j) Voltage profile highlighting the different measurement voltages shown in (d-i) for a CuS-FeS cell.

SEM imaging and EDX mapping (Figure 5) reveal distinct morphological and elemental evolution in the two cathode systems. In CuFeS₂, Cu and Fe are initially co-localized within the same particle domains at OCV. During the first discharge, some Cu is observed to remain with Fe distributed within the CAM particle matrix, while bright Cu spots are found to segregate into discrete metallic domains, demonstrating reversible phase separation. Upon charging, Cu redistributes, restoring a uniform Cu-Fe distribution, and the second discharge reproduces this reversible behavior. After extended cycling (50 cycles), Cu exhibits broader migration beyond the initial particle boundaries and into adjacent regions of the solid electrolyte, while

Fe remains localized, indicating strong synergistic coupling that stabilizes the composite structure. In contrast, the CuS-FeS composite displays persistent phase separation where Cu undergoes pronounced aggregation into metallic domains during discharge, whereas Fe retains a homogeneous distribution within individual particles throughout cycling. Long-term cycling shows continued Cu migration, but Fe remains largely segregated. These observations corroborate the decoupled redox behavior revealed by XAS and SXRD and highlight how particle-scale phase segregation and elemental migration govern the differing electrochemical performance and cycling stability of the two systems. Further discussion including representative EDX spectra,

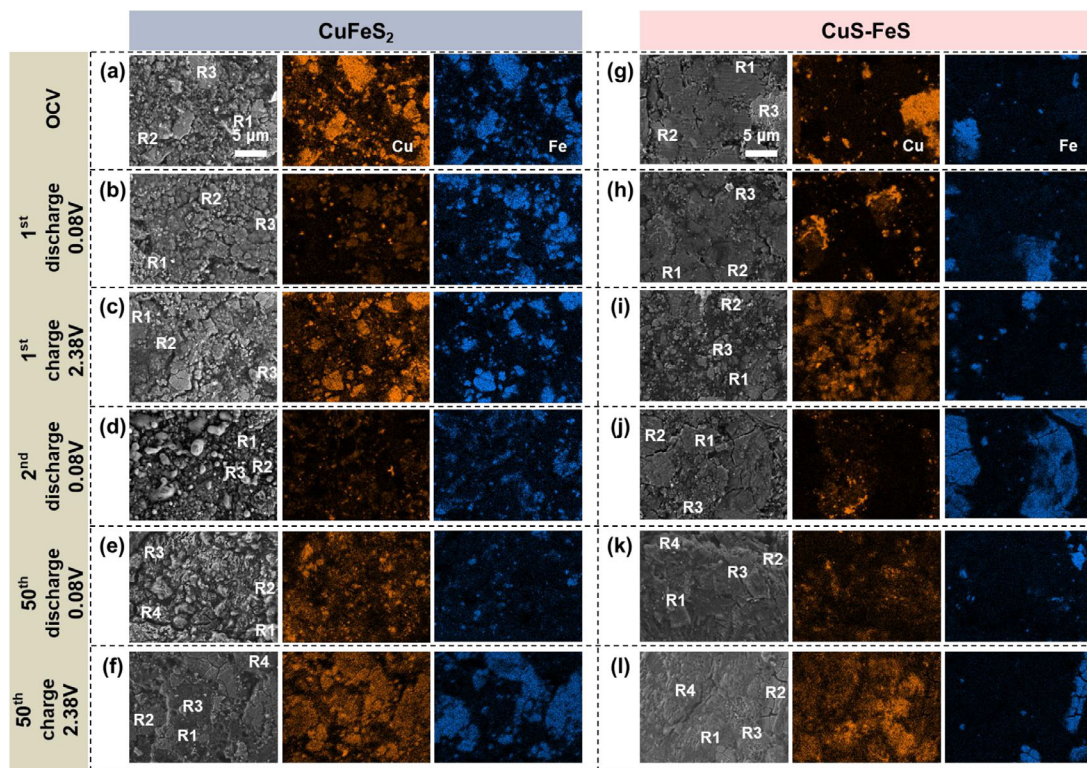


FIGURE 5 | Top-view SEM images and corresponding EDS elemental mapping of Cu and Fe in CuFeS_2 and CuS-FeS electrodes at various electrochemical states. For CuFeS_2 : (a) OCV, (b) first discharge (0.08 V), (c) first charge (2.38 V), (d) second discharge (0.08 V), (e) 50th discharge (0.08 V), and (f) 50th charge (2.38 V). For CuS-FeS : (g) OCV, (h) first discharge (0.08 V), (i) first charge (2.38 V), (j) second discharge (0.08 V), (k) 50th discharge (0.08 V), and (l) 50th charge (2.38 V).

region-of-interest (ROI) analyses, and detailed mapping of minor elements (P, Cl, S) are provided in Supporting Information and Figures S19–S25.

2.4 | Reaction Pathways of CuFeS_2 and CuS-FeS Cathodes

The electrochemical reactions in ASSBs are frequently hampered by polarization and inadequate interfacial contact, leading to incomplete conversion and a mixture of residual and intermediate products. Our analysis delineates the actual reaction pathways for CuFeS_2 and CuS-FeS cathodes (Figure 6a,b). Furthermore, a key finding is that the CuS-FeS cathode follows a different mechanism in the first discharge process than in the following cycles. These results clearly reveal that Cu and Fe species undergo progressive phase separation into increasingly larger domains during cycling. However, CuFeS_2 maintains superior structural stability, with Cu and Fe remaining homogeneously distributed within the entire particle domain. This bulk-scale atomic integration enables synergistic effects, where the combined electronic and ionic conductivity of Cu and Cu^+ phases help to maintain the Fe redox activity during cycling. In contrast, the CuS-FeS system exhibits complete phase segregation between Cu and Fe species, leading to electrochemically isolated Fe domains that readily lose their redox activity. This structural separation, coupled with the formation of defective $\text{Cu}_{1.8}\text{S}$ and the irreversible passivation of Fe active sites, results in severe and rapid capacity degradation during cycling.

3 | Conclusion

CuFeS_2 was synthesized via solid-state sintering of an equimolar CuS-FeS mixture. Both CuFeS_2 and the equimolar CuS-FeS composite were used as active materials to assemble ASSBs. By combining galvanostatic cycling, XRD, XAS, SEM, and EDX analyses, we found that both materials undergo a displacement reaction with lithium, resulting in the macroscopic phase separation of Cu^0 , Fe^0 , and Li_2S . However, a key difference lies in their reversibility: CuFeS_2 achieves a much more reversible cycling through intermediate products such as LiCuFeS_2 , Li_3CuS_2 , and Li_2FeS_2 . During the initial discharge, Cu and Fe species from LiCuFeS_2 decomposition remain uniformly distributed within the particle domain. Upon further discharge, Cu aggregates into crystalline domains confined to individual particles, while Fe nucleates uniformly within a single particle. During charging, the combined electronic and ionic conductivity of Cu-related phases activate Fe reaction sites, enabling highly reversible conversion. In contrast, although the CuS-FeS cathode forms similar intermediates (Li_3CuS_2 and Li_2FeS_2), pronounced phase separation between Cu and Fe species inhibits the activation of some Fe sites. This structural segregation, combined with the formation of defective $\text{Cu}_{1.8}\text{S}$ and irreversible passivation of Fe active sites, leads to rapid capacity degradation compared to CuFeS_2 . The electrochemical performance further underscores the superiority of CuFeS_2 , which delivers a capacity of 207 mAh g^{-1} with a retention of 61.0% after 100 cycles, significantly outperforming the CuS-FeS phase mixture (132 mAh g^{-1} and 40.2% over the same period). At the same time, CuFeS_2 shows

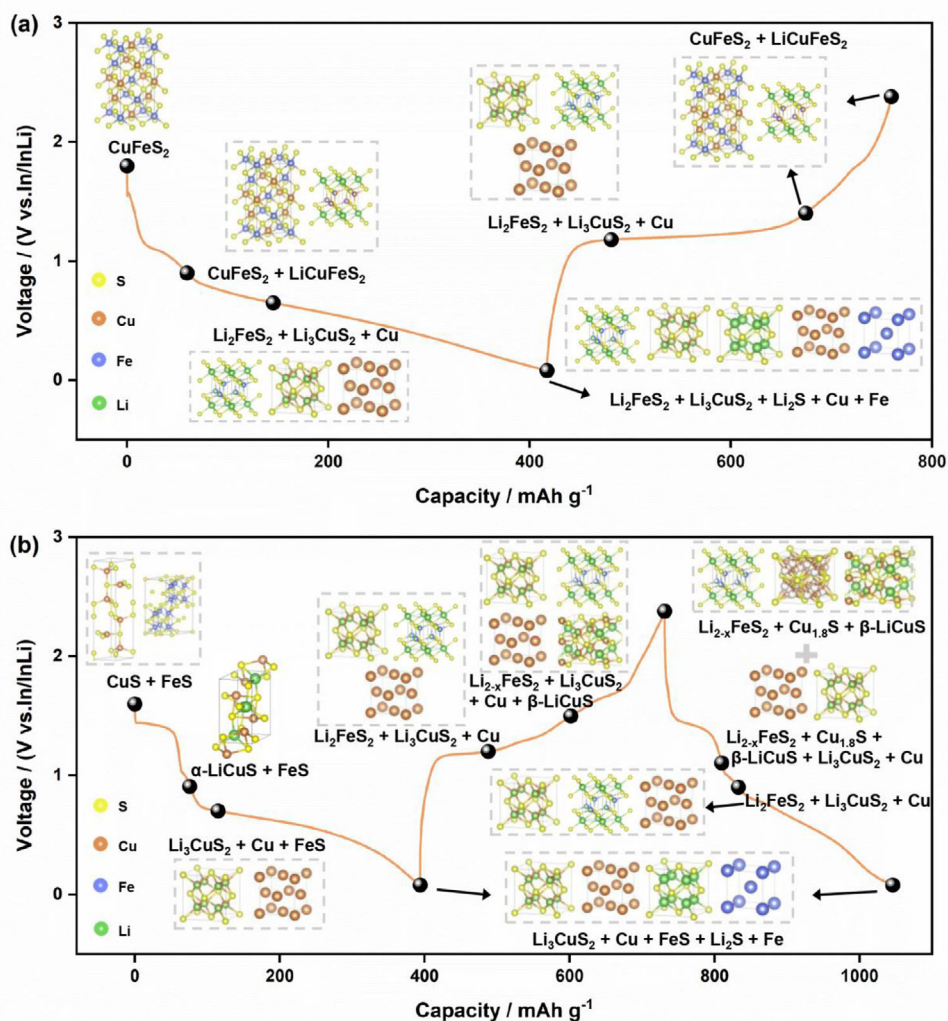


FIGURE 6 | Reaction pathways of CuFeS_2 and CuS-FeS cathodes for the initial cycles. The actual phase evolution of (a) CuFeS_2 and (b) CuS-FeS cathodes during the discharge/charge process. Residual FeS always exists in the CuS-FeS cell. Therefore, the FeS crystal structure is not shown for other electrochemical states in the figure. The figure was drawn with reference to the illustration reported by Zou et al. [31].

enhanced rate performance, which can be attributed to the synergistic interaction between Cu and Fe compounds.

This study demonstrates that displacement reactions in the solid state can be fairly stable in solid-state cells despite showing large volume changes. The CuFeS_2 cathode avoids complete phase separation in the mixed state, while the combination of Cu and Fe has the added benefits of cost reduction and enhanced Fe activity. These findings provide the most detailed understanding to date of the reaction mechanism of CuFeS_2 in rechargeable Li cells and propose an effective strategy for regulating intermediate-product distribution and introducing highly conductive active components toward high-performance ASSBs.

Author Contributions

C.J.B., K.A.M., and P.A. conceived the idea, C.J.B. synthesized and characterized the materials, and performed all electrochemical measurements. Ex situ SXRD measurements were done by C.J.B., G.S., and K.A.M. with

the help of V.B. Cu and Fe XAS experiments were performed by C.J.B., K.A.M., and X.P.M. with the help of G.S. S K-edge XAS was measured by C.J.B., K.A.M., Y.N.S., V.A., R.H.C., and X.P.M. with the help of M.H. and G.S. SEM/EDX measurements were done by C.J.B. and F.R. XPS measurements were done by J.W.M. and J.J. The SE was synthesized and provided by the T.B. and W.G.Z. The data and manuscript were organized by C.J.B. and K.A.M. The manuscript was written by C.J.B., K.A.M., and P.A. with contributions from all authors.

Acknowledgements

P.A., K.A.M., J. M., J. J., T. B., and W. G. Z. acknowledge support from the project KAROFEST (No. 03XP0498) funded by the Bundesministerium für Forschung, Technologie und Raumfahrt (BMFT). C.J.B. thanks the China Scholarship Council (CSC) for funding. The authors acknowledge DESY for the beamtime allocation at the P02.1 end-station. Beamtime was allocated for proposals I-20230465. C.J.B. and K.A.M. acknowledge DESY (Hamburg, Germany), a member of the Helmholtz Association HGF, for the support with travel costs. XAS was carried out at the KMC-2 and KMC-3 beamlines at the BESSY II electron storage ring operated by the Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin für Materialien und Energie GmbH. The authors thank the Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin für Materialien und Energie GmbH for the allocation of synchrotron radiation beamtime. Beamtime was allocated for proposals 232-12412-ST and 242-12901-ST.

The electron microscopy CoreLab (CCMS) at HZB is acknowledged for providing access to instrumentation. The authors acknowledge the TU Wien Bibliothek for financial support through its Open Access Funding Programme.

Open Access funding provided by Technische Universität Wien.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

References

1. A. Banerjee, X. Wang, C. Fang, E. A. Wu, and Y. S. Meng, "Interfaces and Interphases in all-Solid-State Batteries with Inorganic Solid Electrolytes," *Chemical Reviews* 120 (2020): 6878–6933, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemrev.0c00101>.
2. S. Puls, E. Nazmutdinova, F. Kalyk, et al., "Benchmarking the Reproducibility of all-solid-state Battery Cell Performance," *Nature Energy* 9 (2024): 1310–1320, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41560-024-01634-3>.
3. H. Liu, Y. Ji, Y. Li, et al., "Regulating Lithium Affinity of Hosts for Reversible Lithium Metal Batteries," *Interdisciplinary Materials* 3 (2024): 297–305, <https://doi.org/10.1002/idm2.12153>.
4. P. K. Nayak, L. Yang, W. Brehm, and P. Adelhelm, "From Lithium-Ion to Sodium-Ion Batteries: Advantages, Challenges, and Surprises," *Angewandte Chemie International Edition* 57 (2018): 102–120, <https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.201703772>.
5. P. Minnmann, F. Strauss, A. Bielefeld, et al., "Designing Cathodes and Cathode Active Materials for Solid-State Batteries," *Advanced Energy Materials* 12 (2022): 2201425.
6. Z. Zhang, R. Wang, K. A. Mazzio, N. Koch, and P. Adelhelm, "Silver Thiophosphate (Ag_3PS_4) as a Multielectron Reaction Active Material for Lithium Solid-State Batteries," *Energy Technology* 12 (2024): 2401040.
7. H. Yang, L. Weckelmann, B. Wu, et al., "Sulfide-Based Electrolytes for all-Solid-State Sodium Batteries," *Advanced Energy Materials* (2026): 05208, <https://doi.org/10.1002/aenm.202505208>.
8. B. Fan, W. Chen, K. Li, et al., "Synergistic Adsorption and Catalytic Effects of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x/\text{CoO}/\text{MoO}_3$ Composite on Lithium Polysulfides for High-Performance Lithium–Sulfur Batteries," *Interdisciplinary Materials* 3 (2024): 726–737, <https://doi.org/10.1002/idm2.12178>.
9. B. Jache, B. Mogwitz, F. Klein, and P. Adelhelm, "Copper Sulfides for Rechargeable Lithium Batteries: Linking Cycling Stability to Electrolyte Composition," *Journal of Power Sources* 247 (2014): 703–711, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpowsour.2013.08.136>.
10. A. Débart, L. Dupont, R. Patrice, and J. M. Tarascon, "Reactivity of Transition Metal (Co, Ni, Cu) Sulphides versus Lithium: The Intriguing Case of the Copper Sulphide," *Solid State Sciences* 8 (2006): 640–651.
11. J. Liu, Y. Wen, Y. Wang, P. A. van Aken, J. Maier, and Y. Yu, "Carbon-Encapsulated Pyrite as Stable and Earth-Abundant High Energy Cathode Material for Rechargeable Lithium Batteries," *Advanced Materials* 26 (2014): 6025–6030, <https://doi.org/10.1002/adma.201401496>.
12. G. A. Ferrero, G. Åvall, K. A. Mazzio, et al., "Co-Intercalation Batteries (CoIBs): Role of TiS_2 as Electrode for Storing Solvated Na Ions," *Advanced Energy Materials* 12 (2022): 2202377.
13. M. Pavan, K. Münch, S. L. Benz, et al., "Role and Evolution of FeS_2 Cathode Microstructure in Argyrodite-Based All-Solid-State Lithium–Sulfur Batteries," *Chemistry of Materials* 37 (2025): 3185–3196, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemmater.4c03315>.
14. J. Chen, T. Sun, J. Liu, et al., "Recent Advances on Transition Metal Sulfides for Key Components of Lithium–Sulfur Batteries," *Advanced Science* 12 (2025): 12191, <https://doi.org/10.1002/advs.202512191>.
15. F. Klein, B. Jache, A. Bhide, and P. Adelhelm, "Conversion Reactions for Sodium-Ion Batteries," *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics* 15 (2013): 15876–15887, <https://doi.org/10.1039/C3CP52125G>.
16. M. S. Whittingham, "Ultimate Limits to Intercalation Reactions for Lithium Batteries," *Chemical Reviews* 114 (2014): 11414–11443, <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr5003003>.
17. G. Whang, L. Ketter, T. Zhao, E. Nazmutdinova, M. A. Kraft, and W. G. Zeier, "High Areal Capacity Cation and Anionic Redox Solid-State Batteries Enabled by Transition Metal Sulfide Conversion," *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces* 16 (2024): 42189–42197, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.4c07252>.
18. G. Whang and W. G. Zeier, "Transition Metal Sulfide Conversion: A Promising Approach to Solid-State Batteries," *ACS Energy Letters* 8 (2023): 5264–5274, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsenenergylett.3c02246>.
19. Z. Zhang, K. Dong, K. A. Mazzio, et al., "Phase Transformation and Microstructural Evolution of CuS Electrodes in Solid-State Batteries Probed by in Situ 3D X-Ray Tomography," *Advanced Energy Materials* 13 (2022): 2203143.
20. S. R. Hall and J. M. Stewart, "The Crystal Structure Refinement of Chalcopyrite, CuFeS_2 ," *Acta Crystallographica Section B Structural Crystallography and Crystal Chemistry* 29 (1973): 579–585, <https://doi.org/10.1107/S0567740873002943>.
21. A. L. Santhosha, N. Nazer, R. Koerver, et al., "Macroscopic Displacement Reaction of Copper Sulfide in Lithium Solid-State Batteries," *Advanced Energy Materials* 10 (2020): 2002394, <https://doi.org/10.1002/aenm.202002394>.
22. S. Senkale, S. Indris, M. Etter, and W. Bensch, " CuFeS_2 as a Very Stable High-Capacity Anode Material for Sodium-Ion Batteries: A Multimethod Approach for Elucidation of the Complex Reaction Mechanisms during Discharge and Charge Processes," *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces* 13 (2021): 26034–26045, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.1c04946>.
23. A. L. Santhosha, L. Medenbach, J. R. Buchheim, and P. Adelhelm, "The Indium–Lithium Electrode in Solid-State Lithium-Ion Batteries: Phase Formation, Redox Potentials, and Interface Stability," *Batteries & Supercaps* 2 (2019): 524–529, <https://doi.org/10.1002/batt.201800149>.
24. T. Shi, Q. Tu, Y. Tian, et al., "High Active Material Loading in all-Solid-State Battery Electrode via Particle Size Optimization," *Advanced Energy Materials* 10 (2019): 1902881.
25. G. Manthilake, J. Chantel, J. Monteux, et al., "Thermal Conductivity of FeS and Its Implications for Mercury's Long-Sustaining Magnetic Field," *Journal of Geophysical Research: Planets* 124 (2019): 2359–2368, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019JE005979>.
26. H. Xie, X. Su, Y. Yan, et al., "Thermoelectric Performance of CuFeS_{2+x} Composites Prepared by Rapid Thermal Explosion," *NPG Asia Materials* 9 (2017): 390, <https://doi.org/10.1038/am.2017.80>.
27. A. Eakambaram, M. A. Saibalaji, and P. B. Sethupathi, "Role of Solid Lubricants/Sulfide Mix in Brake Performance for Automotive Applications—A Review," *Proceedings of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, Part E: Journal of Process Mechanical Engineering* (2022): 09544089221110982, <https://doi.org/10.1177/09544089221110982>.
28. P. Baláz, ed., *Process Metallurgy*, (Elsevier, 2000), 35.
29. M. G. Boebinger, D. Yeh, M. Xu, et al., "Avoiding Fracture in a Conversion Battery Material through Reaction with Larger Ions," *Joule* 2 (2018): 1783–1799, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joule.2018.05.015>.
30. Y. Wang, X. Li, Y. Zhang, X. He, and J. Zhao, "Ether Based Electrolyte Improves the Performance of CuFeS_2 Spike-Like Nanorods as a Novel Anode for Lithium Storage," *Electrochimica Acta* 158 (2015): 368–373, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.electacta.2015.01.141>.

31. J. Zou, Z. Wu, R. Tang, Z. Ren, X. Niu, and L. Wang, "Copper Diffusion Related Phase Change and Voltage Decay in CuS Cathode," *Nano Research* 16 (2023): 8497–8503, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12274-023-5627-9>.
32. J. Cabana, L. Monconduit, D. Larcher, and M. R. Palacin, "Beyond Intercalation-Based Li-Ion Batteries: The State of the Art and Challenges of Electrode Materials Reacting through Conversion Reactions," *Advanced Materials* 22 (2010): E170, <https://doi.org/10.1002/adma.201000717>.
33. J. Zou, J. Zhao, B. Wang, et al., "Unraveling the Reaction Mechanism of FeS₂ as a Li-Ion Battery Cathode," *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces* 12 (2020): 44850–44857, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.0c14082>.
34. H. Kim, H. N. Choi, J. Y. Hwang, C. S. Yoon, and Y. K. Sun, "Tailoring the Interface between Sulfur and Sulfide Solid Electrolyte for High-Areal-Capacity All-Solid-State Lithium–Sulfur Batteries," *ACS Energy Letters* 8 (2023): 3971–3979, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsenergylett.3c01473>.
35. S. Conejeros, P. Alemany, M. Llunell, V. Sánchez, J. Llanos, and L. Padilla-Campos, "Structural Stability of Quaternary ACuFeS₂ (A = Li, K) Phases: A Computational Approach," *Inorganic Chemistry* 51 (2012): 362–369, <https://doi.org/10.1021/ic201758j>.
36. T. Bernges, L. Ketter, B. Helm, M. A. Kraft, K. A. See, and W. G. Zeier, "Transport Characterization of Solid-state Li₂FeS₂ Cathodes from a Porous Electrode Theory Perspective," *EES Batteries* 1 (2025): 172–184, <https://doi.org/10.1039/D4EB00005F>.
37. A. G. Hailemariam, Z. Syum, T. T. Mamo, et al., "Oxygen-Incorporated Lithium-Rich Iron Sulfide Cathodes for Li-Ion Batteries with Boosted Material Stability and Electrochemical Performance," *Chemistry of Materials* 36 (2024): 9370–9379, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemmater.4c00508>.
38. C. D. Wei, H. T. Xue, X. D. Zhao, and F. L. Tang, "Insights into the Electrochemical Properties of Li₂ FeS₂ after FeS₂ Discharging," *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics* 25 (2023): 8515–8523, <https://doi.org/10.1039/D2CP05930D>.

Supporting Information

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section.

Supporting File: adfm76585-sup-0001-SuppMat.docx.