MnO₂/CARBON MATERIAL CATHODE FOR RECHARGEABLE AQUEOUS ELECTROLYTE-BASED ZINC-ION BATTERIES



A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Engineering in Chemical Engineering Department of Chemical Engineering FACULTY OF ENGINEERING Chulalongkorn University Academic Year 2020 Copyright of Chulalongkorn University

คาโทดแมงกานีสออกไซด์/วัสดุคาร์บอนสำหรับแบตเตอรี่ไอออนสังกะสีชนิดอิเล็กโตรไลต์ฐานน้ำแบบ อัดประจุซ้ำได้



วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิศวกรรมศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาวิศวกรรมเคมี ภาควิชาวิศวกรรมเคมี คณะวิศวกรรมศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ปีการศึกษา 2563 ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Thesis Title	${\rm MnO}_2/{\rm CARBON}$ MATERIAL CATHODE FOR RECHARGEABLE
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Field of Study	Chemical Engineering
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สนธิ ขำสง่า : คาโทดแมงกานีสออกไซด์/วัสดุคาร์บอนสำหรับแบตเตอรี่ไอออนสังกะสีชนิดอิ เล็กโตรไลต์ฐานน้ำแบบอัดประจุซ้ำได้. (MnO₂/CARBON MATERIAL CATHODE FOR RECHARGEABLE AQUEOUS ELECTROLYTE-BASED ZINC-ION BATTERIES) อ.ที่ปรึกษา หลัก : รศ. ดร.สุรเทพ เขียวหอม

งานวิจัยนี้มุ่งเน้นการปรับปรุงการนำไฟฟ้าของวัสดุขั้วคาโทดโดยการสังเคราะห์แมงกานีส ออกไซด์สำหรับใช้ในแบตเตอรี่ไอออนสังกะสีชนิดอิเล็กโตรไลต์ฐานน้ำแบบอัดประจุซ้ำได้ งานวิจัยได้แบ่ง ้ออกเป็น 2 ส่วน ส่วนแรกการสังเคราะห์แมงกานีสออกไซด์ชนิดเดลต้าที่มีโครงสร้างแบบนาโนฟลาวเออร์ ้ลงบนตัวรองรับเกร็ดกราไฟต์(MNG) เพื่อใช้เป็นขั้วคาโทด ผลทดสอบพบว่า MNG มีพฤติกรรมการ ้เคลื่อนที่เข้าและออกของไอออนสังกะสีที่รวดเร็วทั้งแบบแพร่ผ่านและแบบpseudocapacitive เมื่อมีการ อัดประจุที่อัตรา 200 mA/g แบตเตอรี่ที่ใช้ขั้วคาโทดMNGให้ค่าความจุทางไฟฟ้าของการปล่อยประจุ เริ่มต้นที่ 235 mA h/g เมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับแมงกานีสออกไซด์ชนิดเดลต้าแบบดั้งเดิมซึ่งให้ค่าความจุทาง ไฟฟ้าของการปล่อยประจุเริ่มต้นเพียง 130 mA h/g เท่านั้น จากค่าความจุไฟฟ้าดังกล่าวแสดงให้เห็นว่า ขั้วคาโทดจMNGมีความสามารถในการนำไฟฟ้าที่เหนือกว่าแมงกานีสออกไซด์ชนิดเดลต้าแบบดั้งเดิม จาก ้ผลดังกล่าวสามารถสรุปได้ว่าค่าการนำไฟฟ้าสามารถปรับปรุงให้มากขึ้นโดยใช้MNG ในงานวิจัยส่วนที่สอง เป็นการสังเคราะห์โครงสร้างผสมของแมงกานีสออกไซด์ลงบนคาร์บอนนาโนทิวป์ชนิดผนังหลายชั้นหรือ MN-CNT เพื่อใช้ทำวัสดุขั้วคาโทด นอกจาการสังเคราะห์ดังกล่าวพบว่าแมงกานีสออกไซด์ที่ได้มีการเกิด ้ผสมกันระหว่างแมงกานีสออกไซด์ชนิดเดลต้าและชนิกแกมม่าอยู่ด้วยกัน แบตเตอรี่ไอออนสังกะสีที่ใช้ขั้ว คาโทดMN-CNTให้ค่าความจุทางไฟฟ้าของการปล่อยประจุเริ่มต้นที่ 236 mA h/g เมื่อมีการอัดประจุที่ อัตรา 400 mA/g และให้ค่าความจุทางไฟฟ้าของการปล่อยประจุเริ่มต้นที่ 108 mA h/g เมื่อมีการอัด ประจุที่อัตรา 1600 mA/g นอกจากนี้แบตเตอรี่ยังมีความเสถียรของรอบในการอัดประจุที่ดีอีกด้วย เมื่อ กล่าวโดยรวมแล้วจะเห็นได้ว่าขั้วคาโทดจากMNG และMN-CNT นั้นมีประสิทธิภาพทางไฟฟ้าเคมีที่ดี ดังนั้นงานวิจัยนี้จึงเป็นการนำเสนอทางเลือกหนึ่งในการปรับปรุงค่าความจุทางไฟฟ้าและความเสถียรของ รอบการอัดประจุของแบตเตอรี่ไอออนสังกะสีชนิดอิเล็กโตรไลต์ฐานน้ำแบบอัดประจุซ้ำได้

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Sonti Khamsanga : MnO₂/CARBON MATERIAL CATHODE FOR RECHARGEABLE AQUEOUS ELECTROLYTE-BASED ZINC-ION BATTERIES. Advisor: Assoc. Prof. SOORATHEP KHEAWHOM, Ph.D.

This research focused on improvement of the electrical conductivity of cathode material by using the MnO_2 on carbon material for the rechargeable aqueous electrolyte-based zinc-ion batteries (ZIBs). This study has been divided into two sections. delta-MnO₂ with nanoflower structure supported on graphite flake (MNG) was synthesized for cathode material in first section. MNG exhibits a fast insertion/extraction of Zn²⁺ ions with diffusion scheme and pseudocapacitive behavior. The battery using MNG cathode exhibited a high initial discharge capacity of 235 mA h/g at 200 mA/g specific current density compared to 130 mA h/g which is displayed by the pristine delta-MnO₂ cathode at the same specific current density. MNG demonstrated superior electrical conductivity compared to the pristine delta-MnO₂. The results obtained pave the way for improving the electrical conductivity of MnO_2 by using graphite flake support. In second section, MnO₂ heterostructure on multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MNH-CNT) was synthesized for cathode material. Besides, the synthesized MNH-CNT is composed of delta-MnO₂ and gamma-MnO₂. ZIB using the MNH-CNT cathode delivers a high initial discharge capacity of 236 mA h/g at 400 mA/g, 108 mA h/g at 1600 mA/g and excellent cycling stability. Overall, MNG and MNH-CNT cathode were seen to exhibit superior electrochemical performance. This work presents new opportunities for improving the discharge capacity and cycling stability of aqueous ZIBs.

Field of Study:Chemical EngineeringStudent's SignatureAcademic Year:2020Advisor's Signature

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
	iii
ABSTRACT (THAI)	iii
	iv
ABSTRACT (ENGLISH)	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	V
TABLE OF CONTENTS	∨i
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	X
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 General introduction	1
1.2 Research objectives	3
1.3 Research scopes	3
1.4 Research methodology	6
1.5 Research benefits	8
1.6 Research plan	8
CHAPTER 2 THEORY	9
2.1 Energy storage	9
2.2 Batteries	9
2.2.1 Primary batteries	10
2.2.2 Secondary batteries	10
2.3 Zinc-ion battery	12

2.4 Cathode	14
2.4.1 Manganese Oxide (MnO ₂)	16
2.4.2 Carbon material	
2.5 Anode	
2.6 Electrolyte	20
2.7 Intercalation principle of ion batteries	20
2.8 Pseudocapacitive behavior	22
2.9 Analytical techniques	23
2.9.1 Cyclic Voltammetry (CV)	23
2.9.2 Galvanostatic Charge-Discharge	25
2.9.3 Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS)	27
2.9.4 X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)	27
1 Strength Strength	
2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM)	
2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) 2.9.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectrosc	28 сору (ТЕМ-
2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM)2.9.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive SpectroscEDS)	28 copy (TEM- 28
 2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) 2.9.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectrosc EDS) CHAPTER 3 RERSEARCH ARTICLES 	28 copy (TEM- 28 29
 2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) 2.9.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectrosc EDS) CHAPTER 3 RERSEARCH ARTICLES	28 copy (TEM- 28 29
 2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) 2.9.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectrosc EDS) CHAPTER 3 RERSEARCH ARTICLES	28 copy (TEM- 28 29 30 32
 2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) 2.9.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectrosc EDS) CHAPTER 3 RERSEARCH ARTICLES	28 copy (TEM- 28 29 30 32 33
 2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) 2.9.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectrosc EDS) CHAPTER 3 RERSEARCH ARTICLES	28 copy (TEM- 28 29 30 32 33 36
 2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM)	28 copy (TEM- 28 29 30 32 33 36
 2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM)	28 copy (TEM- 28 29 30 30 32 33 36 50 52
 2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) 2.9.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectrosce EDS) CHAPTER 3 RERSEARCH ARTICLES	28 copy (TEM- 28 29 30 32 33 33 36 50 52 52

CHAPTER 4 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	72
4.1 Conclusion	72
4.2 Research Limitations	73
4.3 Recommendations	74
APPENDIX A LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	75
APPENDIX B SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES	76
APPENDIX C LIST OF PUBLICATIONS	78
REFERENCES	79
VITA	103
จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University	

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 Research Plan	8
Table 2.1 Typical cathode materials for ZIBs	15
Table 2.2 Standard reduction potential at 25°C (298 K) of common metals	21



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Schematic of the chemistry of the zinc ion battery	3
Figure 2.2 Schematic of the cathode components	1
Figure 2.3 Common polymorphs of MnO ₂	5
Figure 2.4 SEM images of the various nanostructured MnO_2 materials	7
Figure 2.5 Various polymorphs of carbon)
Figure 2.6 Illustration of the charge-storage mechanism of MIBs	2
Figure 2.7 a) The input potential profile and b) the typical cyclic voltammogram of the reversible reaction	1
Figure 2.8 Schematic of a CV measurement configuration	5
Figure 2.9 Schematic represents the system analysis via EIS technique	7
Figure 3.1 XRD pattern of the synthesized δ -MnO ₂ nanoflower/graphite (MNG) and crystallographic structure of δ -MnO ₂ (inset)	5
Figure 3.2 FESEM images of the synthesized δ-MnO ₂ nanoflower/graphite (MNG): (a) low magnification image, and (b) high–magnification image	7
Figure 3.3 Schematics of the chemistry of the zinc-ion battery. Zn^{2+} ions migrate between tunnels of the MNG cathode and Zn anode. The inset on the right shows Zn^{2+} ion insertion and interconnection between δ -MnO ₂ and graphite	3
Figure 3.4 (a) Cyclic voltammograms of δ -MnO ₂ nanoflower/graphite (MNG) cycling at different sweep rates, and (b) the fitted lines: ln(peak specific current) versus ln(sweep rate)	<u>,</u>
Figure 3.5 Performances of the batteries: (a) cyclic voltammograms of the batteries at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s . (b) galvanostatic charge-discharge profile of the batteries	
at 200 mA/g, (c) Cycling performance of the batteries at 400 mA/g, and (d) rate capability of the batteries at different discharge rates	2

Figure 3.6 EIS results of the batteries: (a) Nyquist plot of EIS spectra, (b) relationship
between real part of impedance versus $\omega^{-0.5}$ for the batteries using MNG and the
pristine δ -MnO ₂ , (c) schematic illustration for the Zn ²⁺ ion insertion into the MNG
electrode, and (d) Nyquist plot of EIS spectra of MNG at various charge/discharge
cycles

Figure 3.7 XRD patterns of MWCNTs and synthesized MN-CNT with different weight
ratios of MnO ₂ :MWCNTs: (a) 60:40;MN-CNT6040 (b) 75:25;MN-CNT7525 (c) 90:10;MN-
CNT9010 and (d) synthesized δ -MnO ₂
Figure 3.8 (a) Schema of changes in morphology of MN-CNT followed by decreasing
the content of KMnO4 (b) FESEM image of MN-CNT9010 (c) FESEM image of MN-
CNT7525 and (d) FESEM image of MN-CNT604058
Figure 3.9 Schema of the chemistry of the zinc-ion battery. The inset on the right
shows Zn^{2+} ion insertion into MnO_2 heterostructure of MN-CNT
Figure 3.10 Electrochemical properties: (a) Cyclic voltammograms at a scan rate of
0.5 mV/s (b) Galvanostatic charge-discharge profile at 200 mA/g of the MN-CNT and
δ -MnO ₂ cathode
Figure 3.11 Performances of the batteries: (a) Cycling performance of the batteries at
400 mA/g and (b) Rate capability of the batteries at different discharge/charge rates
GHOLALONGKORN ONIVERSITY
Figure 3.12 (a) Cyclic Voltammograms of Min-Cin 7525 Cycling at different scan fates
(b) Analysis of b-value for oxidation and reduction peaks (c) Capacitive contribution
ratio of MN-CNT7525 electrode at different scan rates and (d) Capacitive contribution
at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General introduction

Nowadays, development of energy conversion and energy storage systems, such as solar photovoltaics, photo-electrochemical cells and batteries, is of utmost concern for sustainable civilization and environmental balance because of the rapid depletion of fossil fuels [1]. Thus, lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) have been intensively studied to meet the growing need for high energy-density portable electronic devices and large-scale energy storage systems [2]. However, choosing newer materials beyond Li are essential for replacing environmentally harmful and inherently volatile Li-chemistries [3]. Zinc-ion batteries (ZIBs) have been studied to replace Li-ion batteries due to the superior properties of zinc metal such as low cost, abundance low toxicity and reasonable stability in aqueous electrolytes [4].

Misnon et al. [5] reported that manganese oxide (MnO₂) is widely used as a cathode material in battery technologies because of its several advantageous properties. Manganese dioxide (MnO₂) cathodes are inexpensive and have a high theoretical capacity. These cathodes were previously studied for a variety of metalion batteries including Li-ion battery [6], Mg-ion battery (MIB) [7] and Zn-ion battery (ZIB) [8]. Recently, aqueous Zn/MnO₂ batteries have been considered as promising alternative energy devices owing to their high safety and abundance of Zn, MnO₂ and the electrolyte [9].

However, MnO_2 suffers from its poor conductivity that often results in high internal resistance of the electrode and, hence, results in poor performance of the battery. Therefore, in order to improve the performance of MnO_2 based zinc-ion battery, it was found necessary to increase the specific surface area of MnO_2 as well as the ion diffusion rate [9]. Thus, this led to a significant increase in the power density of the Zn-ion battery. Another approach undertaken was to support MnO₂ nanostructures by a matrix material with a high surface area. It was observed that these nanostructures can accelerate charge transport during the electrochemical redox process [10]. The incorporation of nanostructured MnO₂ into carbonaceous materials could provide a large electroactive surface. In this respect, various carbonaceous materials, including activated carbon, carbon nanotubes (CNTs), carbon nanofibers (CNFs), graphene and graphite, have been integrated with MnO₂. Alfaruqi et al. [8] produced the tunneled-type nanorod MnO₂ cathodes with a high surface area for ZIB applications. Another interesting form proved to be the combination of MnO₂ with graphene. The incorporation of MnO₂ with a high conducting material, such as graphene or carbon, showed a significant improvement in capacitive performance [5]. Further, carbon-coated manganese dioxide nanoparticles were prepared to enhance the electrochemical properties in ZIBs [11].

The MnO₂/graphene nanoflowers were synthesized in the form of sandwichstructured nanoflowers which exhibited excellent super capacitive properties, making them very conductive electrode materials for high-performance super capacitors [12]. However, MnO₂ supported on graphite and allotropes of carbon have not been reported previously for ZIB applications. Therefore, it is clear that MnO₂ supported on graphite and allotropes of carbon are considered as the candidate due to an improvement in conductivity and an increase in the stability of electrode material for ZIBs.

In this study, the electrical conductivity of cathode material was improved. The effects of MnO₂ supported on different allotropes of carbon as a cathode host material on the electrochemical properties and performances of the rechargeable aqueous electrolyte-based ZIB were investigated.

Graphite was used as MnO_2 supporter in the first research article and multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) were used as MnO_2 supporter in the second one. These are allotropes of carbon material.

1.2 Research objectives

1) To improve the electrical conductivity of cathode material by using the $MnO_2/carbon$ material

2) To investigate the effect of the MnO_2 supported on different allotropes of carbon as cathode material on the electrochemical properties and performances of the rechargeable aqueous electrolyte-based ZIB.

3) To compare the effect of the MnO₂ supported on different allotropes of carbon as cathode material on the capacity and cyclic ability of the rechargeable aqueous electrolyte-based ZIB.

1.3 Research scopes

Part I δ -MnO₂ nanoflowers/graphite cathode for rechargeable aqueous zinc-ion

batteries

Chulalongkorn University

- Synthesis of MnO₂ nanoflowers/graphite (MNG) from modified method of Liu et al.[12]
- Characterization of δ -MnO₂ nanoflowers/graphite (MNG)
 - a) Crystalline structure by X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

b) Morphology by Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM)

• Preparation of cathode by mixing MNG, carbon black and cellulose acetate with a weight ratio of 70:20:10, respectively, and coating on

carbon foil current collector. The pristine MnO_2 was also used for comparison.

- Preparation of anode from Zn electroplated on Ni foam and electrolyte from aqeuous ZnSO₄.
- Assembling cathode, anode, and elecrolyte into CR2032 coin cell battery.
- Measurement of electrochemical properties and performance of battery:

a) Ion insertion/extraction with Cyclic Voltammograms (CVs) by Potentiostat

- b) Charge transfer resistance with Nyquist plots by Potentiostat
- c) Electrochemical behavior with CVs by Potentiostat
- d) Charge/discharge profile by Battery Testing System
- e) Cyclic performance by Battery Testing System
- f) Rate capability by Battery Testing System

Part II MnO₂ heterostructure on multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) as cathode material for rechargeable aqueous zinc-ion batteries

- Synthesis of MnO₂ Heterostructure/Multiwalled Carbon Nanotubes (MN-CNT) with different weight ratios of MnO₂ and MWCNTs at 60:40 (MN-CNT6040), 75:25 (MN-CNT7525), and 90:10 (MN-CNT9010).
- Characterization of MN-CNT
 - a) Crystalline structure by X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

b) Morphology by Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM)

c) Presence of MWCNTs in MN-CNT by Transmission Electron Microscope with Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (TEM-EDS)

- Preparation of cathode by mixing MN-CNT, carbon black, and carboxymethylcellulose sodium salt with a weight ratio of 70:20:10, respectively, and coating on carbon foil current collector. The pristine MnO₂ was also used for comparison.
- Preparation of anode from Zn electroplated on Ni foam and electrolyte from aqeuous ZnSO₄.
- Assembling cathode, anode and elecrolyte into cup cell battery.
- Measurement of electrochemical properties and performance of battery:
 - a) Ion insertion/extraction with Cyclic Voltammograms (CVs) by electrochemical measurement system
 - b) Electrochemical behavior with CVs by electrochemical measurement system
 - c) Charge/discharge profile by Battery Testing System
 - d) Cyclic performance by Battery Testing System
 - e) Rate capability by Battery Testing System

1.4 Research methodology

Research methodology was shown as following:

Part I: δ -MnO₂ nanoflower/graphite cathode for rechargeable aqueous zinc-ion batteries



<u>**Part II:**</u> MnO_2 heterostructure on multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) as cathode material for aqueous zinc-ion batteries



1.5 Research benefits

1.5.1 New cathode candidate for using in zinc-ion batteries

- 1.5.2 Electrode optimization for battery operation
- 1.5.3 Deep knowledge in battery chemistry

1.5.4 Development a new type of battery for energy storage technology

1.6 Research plan

Table 1.1 Research plan

					r				
Research Plan	2017		2017		20	18	20	19	2020
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1		
1. Literature reviews									
2. MnO ₂ /Graphite synthesis and characterization			-						
3. Battery fabrication and test for Part I			•			•			
4. MnO ₂ /MWCNTs synthesis and characterization	า เล้ย			•		1			
5. Battery fabrication and test Part II	RSI	ΓY			•				
6. Discussion									

CHAPTER 2

THEORY

2.1 Energy storage

Energy is an abstract scalar quantity that must be transferred to an object in order to perform work on or to heat the object. Common forms of energy include the kinetic energy of a moving object, the potential energy stored by an object's position in a force field (gravitation, electricity or magnet), the elastic energy stored by stretching solid objects, the chemical energy released when a fuel burns, the radiant energy carried by light, and the thermal energy due to an object's temperature [13]. When it is produced, it is stored at one time for use at a later time.

Energy can be stored in several ways. It is generally stored in five forms including mechanical, electro-chemical, thermal, capacitor, and chemical [14].



Figure 1.1 Energy storage technology [14]

2.2 Batteries

The environmental concerns regarding global warming and climate change lead to the development of renewable energy technologies. Many forms of renewable energy, e.g., solar energy, wind energy, and biomass, are used to produce electricity with the will of being green energy. A battery, which is used to store the produced electricity, is a collection of one or more cells that undergo chemical reactions to create the flow of electrons within a circuit. Batteries generally can be classified into different categories and types, ranging from chemical composition, size, form factor, and use cases; but all of these are divided into two major battery types [15]:

- 1. Primary batteries
- 2. Secondary batteries

2.2.1 Primary batteries

A primary battery is a battery (a galvanic cell) that is designed to be used once and discarded, and not to be recharged with electricity and reused. Primary batteries are made of electrochemical cells whose electrochemical reaction cannot be reversed. The most popular type of primary batteries are alkaline batteries. They have a high specific energy, are environmental friendly, are cost effective, and do not self-discharge even when fully discharged . The only disadvantage of the alkaline batteries is the low load current, which limits its use to devices with low current requirements like remote controls, flashlights, and portable entertainment devices.

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2.2.2 Secondary batteries

Secondary batteries are batteries with electrochemical cells whose chemical reactions can be reversed by applying a certain voltage to the battery in the reversed direction. It can be referred to as "rechargeable battery." Secondary batteries can be further classified into several other types based on their chemistries. There are basically four major chemistries for rechargeable batteries:

1. Lithium-ion (Li-ion)

Lithium-ion battery is a type of rechargeable battery in which lithium ions from the negative electrode migrate to the positive electrode during discharge and migrate back to the negative electrode when the battery is being charged. Lithium-ion batteries generally possess high energy density and low self-discharge compared to other battery types [16]. However, limited lithium resources, high cost and safety issue strongly limit their development for industrial scale applications.

2. Nickel Cadmium (Ni-Cd)

The nickel–cadmium battery (Ni-Cd battery or Ni-Cad battery) is a type of rechargeable battery which is produced using nickel oxide hydroxide and metallic cadmium as electrodes. The advantages of this battery system are its high resilience, fast recharge time and low-temperature durability to minus 15 °C. High Cd content in Ni–Cd battery is classified as hazardous waste [17].

3. Nickel-Metal Hydride (Ni-MH)

The chemical reaction at the positive electrode of battery is similar to that of the nickel–cadmium cell (Ni-Cd). However, the negative electrode in Nickel-Metal Hydride uses a hydrogen-absorbing alloy instead of cadmium which is used in Ni-Cd battery. Its application is further limited because of its low discharge capacity of about 320 mA h/g [18].

4. Lead-Acid

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Lead-Acid battery (LAB) is usually very large and, because of their weight, they are always used in non-portable applications such as solar-panel energy storage, vehicle ignition, lights and backup power. The irreversible sulfation in negative plates leads to the quick failure of lead-acid batteries [19].

Even many batteries are at commercially successful, namely lithium-ion, nickelcadmium, nickel-metal hydride and lead-acid but they possess some limitations for application in large-scale systems such as their high cost, potential safety issue, and eco-unfriendliness [20]. Thus, the battery development aims to find a new system that meets the demand for economy, safety, eco-friendliness, and efficiency. Among various types of battery, the batteries that employ zinc anode are very promising as zinc is abundant, non-toxic, inflammable, and relatively cheap compared with other materials [21]. Also, they provide large theoretical gravimetric and volumetric capacities (820 mA h/g and 5,845 mA h/cm³, respectively) [22]. Nowadays, there are several types of zinc-based battery, e.g., zinc-nickel, zinc-air, and alkaline batteries, which have been developed so far for better performance compared to those in the past. However, these batteries are non-rechargeable as zinc exhibits poor reversibility in aqueous electrolyte [23].

2.3 Zinc-ion battery

The new framework of zinc battery is a system which composes of the zinc anode and intercalated cathode in near-neutral electrolytes. This system is called zinc-ion battery (ZIB). A zinc-ion battery is a second battery of energy storage device. Its performance is unique having a fast charge–discharge capability, high power and energy density. It is also safe and environmentally friendly [21]. A ZIB uses zinc ions (Zn²⁺) as the charge carriers. The reduction potential of Zn is -0.76 V vs. standard hydrogen electrode (SHE). Metal Zn is usually used as the anode part of the ZIB. Fig. 2.1 shows the schematic of the chemistry of the zinc-ion battery which consists of a cathode of MnO₂, Zn anode and mild electrolyte.



Figure 2.1 Schematic of the chemistry of the zinc-ion battery [21]

According to recent studies [24], ZIBs based on MnO_2 cathode have the same charge-storage mechanism as the other metal-ion batteries (MIBs), which the reactions can be written as

Cathode Reaction: $xZn^{2+} + 2xe^{-} + MnO_2 \leftrightarrow Zn_xMnO_2$	(2.1)
Anode Reaction: $xZn \leftrightarrow xZn^{2+} + 2xe^{-1}$	(2.2)
Total Reaction: $xZn + MnO_2 \leftrightarrow Zn_xMnO_2$	(2.3)

During discharging, anodic zinc is dissolved in the form of Zn^{2+} ions, which rapidly diffuse and intercalate into a MnO_2 cathode to generate an electron current flow in the electrical loop.

During charging, the MnO_2 cathode will receive electrons in the electrical loop. Then, Zn^{2+} ions suddenly extract from the cathode since the charge storage mechanism is based on the migration of Zn^{2+} ions between the cathode and anode. Both of these processes involve the participation of Zn^{2+} ions in the mild electrolyte.

2.4 Cathode

The positive electrode or cathode is a composite material which comprises of an active material and other ingredients, namely, conductive carbon and binders. A composite material is coated on a conductive substrate, which is called current collector. The cathode components are shown in Fig. 2.2. The electron must be able to transfer from the current collector to the active material when the redox reaction takes place. Hence, the electronic conductivity is an important factor on the design of the cathode. The low electronic conductivity of the active material, which normally being transition metal oxide, can be compensated by the addition of conductive carbon black. Furthermore, the mechanical properties, namely, strength and elasticity, are critical also. Because of a volume change of the active material during the intercalation reaction, the type and amount of binder are a very crucial factors that affect the long term stability of the cathode. However, the addition of the mentioned ingredients would increase the weight of the cathode and, especially, the cost of the raw materials which may limit the commercial viability and its application. Thus, in order to obtain the high-performance and commercializable cathode, the composition of these components must be optimized [25].



Figure 2.2 Schematic of the cathode components

Most of recent studies on ZIBs were on the development of new intercalation cathodes. Several cathodes for ZIBs have been reported, i.e., manganese oxide (MnO_2), vanadium oxide (V_2O_5), Prussian blue analog (PBAs) and others [26]. The typical cathode materials for ZIBs reported in the literatures are listed in Table 2.1. A Zn/MnO₂ battery is the most intensively investigated ZIB device. It stores energy via conversion reactions attributed to the existence of a variety of oxidation states of MnO₂ [27].

	Reversible	Current density	
Cathode material	Capacity	(mA/g or C-rate)	Reference
	(mA h/g)		
α -MnO ₂	210	0.5C	[21]
γ -MnO ₂	285	0.05 mA/cm ²	[28]
Todorokite-type MnO ₂	108	0.5C	[29]
α -MnO ₂	195	0.50	[30]
Copper	หารุงกรถ	แ์มหาวิ₂₀ยาลัย	[31]
hexacyanoferrate	ULALONGK	orn Universit	Y
Carbon coated MnO ₂	272	66	[11]
Mn ₂ O ₃	135	100	[32]
Potassium nickel	55.6	0.2C	[33]
hexacyanoferrate	55.0		
α -MnO ₂ nanorod	233	83	[8]
Ni foam-supported	183.28	2.5 mA/cm ²	[34]
polyaniline	105.20		

 Table 2.1 Typical cathode materials for ZIBs

Nonetheless, MnO_2 is one of the most promising cathodes for ZIBs, as it exhibits a high theoretical specific capacity of 308 mA h/g for divalent cation intercalation [35]. However, in practice, the specific capacity of MnO_2 is lower than that of theoretical value. It depends on its crystal structure [26].

2.4.1 Manganese Oxide (MnO₂)

Manganese (IV) oxide is an inorganic compound with the formula MnO₂. This blackish or brown solid occurs naturally as the mineral pyrolusite, which is the main ore of manganese and a component of manganese nodules. Due to low-cost, non-toxicity, and environmental safety, as well as its high theoretical specific capacity (308 mA h/g), MnO₂ is generally considered to be the most promising transition metal oxide for the next generation of supercapacitors [36]. It is important to notice that the maximum capacity of the host MnO₂ is strongly dependent on the crystal structures of MnO₂, which exist in many forms, namely, β -, γ , α -, R-, λ -, and δ -type. MnO₂ can exist as different polymorphs, depending on the linkage of fundamental MnO₆ octahedron units [37]:



16

There are many nanostructures of MnO_2 including nanosheets, nanotubes, nanorods, nanowires, nanoflakes, nanoneedles, nanoflowers, nanourchins and nanospheres. Fig. 2.4 shows SEM images of the various nanostructured MnO_2 materials; the size and morphology of particles depend on the nature of the oxidant and the pH of the mixture.





Ali et al. [40] studied the electrochemical performance of MnO_2 nanoflowers which were recovered from a spent household zinc-carbon battery. The MnO_2 was recovered as 3D nanostructure with nanoflower morphology and it delivered high specific capacitance with stable electrochemical cycling. Alfaruqi et al. [8] showed a nanorod-type α -MnO₂ cathode which was prepared by a facile hydrothermal method. This cathode exhibited an initial discharge capacity of 233 mA h/g at a current density of 83 mA/g with nearly 100% coulombic efficiency for ZIBs. Xu et al. [41] prepared rod-like manganese oxide (MnO₂)/acid-treated carbon nanotube (a-CNT) nanocomposites for ZIBs. The ZIBs displayed both excellent storage properties with zinc ions (~400 mA h/g at 1 A/g) and reversibility at various current rates. The electron transfer efficiency of the MnO₂/a-CNT nanocomposites greatly increased and resulted in high electrical conductivity. Wang et al. [42] synthesized a nanoflower-like δ -MnO₂ via a microwave-assisted hydrothermal method as an electrode material for application in supercapacitors. The supercapacitors showed a specific capacitance of 328 F/g at 5 mV/s which could be used as high-performance electrode material. Lee et al. [29] prepared a todorokite-type MnO₂ for use as a new cathode material for zinc-ion cells. A discharge capacity of 108 mA h/g at 0.5C and a good rate performance were observed in the potential range of 0.7–2.0 V.

2.4.2 Carbon material

Carbon is a chemical element, like hydrogen, oxygen, lead or any of the others in the periodic table. It is a very abundant element. Carbon is capable of forming many allotropes (meaning having the same chemical formula but different physical properties) due to its valency as shown in Fig.2.5. Allotropes of carbon include:

1. Graphite: a sheet of hexagonal carbon structure

- 2. Graphene: essentially single-atom-thick sheets of graphite
- 3. Carbon Nanotubes: graphene sheets rolled into a tube shape (really a spiral)
- 4. Buckyball: a graphene sheet rolled into a sphere forming a buckyball



Figure 2.5 Various allotropes of carbon [43]

Graphite is a crystalline allotrope or polymorph of carbon element, a semimetal, a native element mineral, and a form of coal. It is one of three allotropic forms of carbon which exist in nature.

2.5 Anode

Zinc is the fourth most common metal in use. Worldwide, 95% of new zinc is mined from sulfidic ore deposits, in which sphalerite (ZnS) is nearly always mixed with the sulfides of copper, lead and iron. Zinc has an electron configuration of $3d^{10}4s^2$ and is a member of group 12 in the periodic table. It is a moderately reactive metal and strong reducing agent [44]. In the literature, zinc metal is used as anode material, typically, in the form of foil plate and electrodeposition on other metals, for example Nickel foam [8, 32]. The anode for ZIB is the zinc in metal form, which has a role in supplying the electron and the zinc cation for the intercalation reaction. A zinc foil is the most widely used form of the anode among the ZIB researches due to its simplicity and low cost. However, it is interesting to note that those works had avoided some important issues when choosing the anode material, for instance, the

morphology and the amount of zinc that should be necessary for the intercalation reaction, and the corrosion of the zinc in the electrolyte.

2.6 Electrolyte

An electrolyte is a charge conducting medium of battery, which contains at least two species of ion. In ZIB, the electrolyte is the polar solvent with the addition of zinc salts, for instance, zinc sulphate (ZnSO₄), zinc trifluoromethanesulfonate (Zn(OTf)₂), zinc nitrate (Zn(NO₃)₂), zinc bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide (Zn(TFSI)₂), zinc chloride (ZnCl₂) and zinc perchlorate (Zn(ClO₄)₂), and some of the supporting electrolytes in order to enhance its ionic conductivity [26]. Electrolyte is a zinc-ion source for the zinc intercalation reaction at cathode and the zinc deposition at the anode. Many aspects are considered in order to choose the electrolyte for the ZIB, including the solubility of zinc salts, the electrical stability, the compatibility with the electrode and the tendency of some parasitic reactions that may harm the battery [26].

Zinc sulfate $(ZnSO_4)$ is an inorganic compound and can be formed in three hydrates: monohydrate, hexahydrate and heptahydrate. It is easily soluble in water; its aqueous solution is acidic. It is slightly soluble in ethanol and glycerol. It is mainly used as an electrolyte in an electrolytic media for a zinc-ion battery [31, 45].

2.7 Intercalation principle of ion batteries

Batteries are the electrochemical cells, which include at least two electroactive materials. One is some kind of reducing agents (negative electrode or anode), while another is some kind of oxidizing agents (positive electrode or cathode). In other word, there is the difference in the electron energy between them, which is the driving force for moving electron to produce the electricity. In general case, negative electrode or anode is an electron source in batteries, which usually are monovalent or multivalent metals, for instance, Li, Na, Mg, Ca, Zn, Ni and Al. These materials have negative potential compared with the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE), as shown in Table 2.2.

Half-Reaction	Potential, <i>E</i> (V)	
$2H^+ + 2e^- \leftrightarrow H_2$	0.00	
Ni ²⁺ + 2e ⁻ ↔ Ni	-0.23	
$Zn^{2+} + 2e^{-} \leftrightarrow Zn$	-0.76	
$Al^{3+} + 3e^{-} \leftrightarrow Al$	-1.66	
$Mg^{2+} + 2e^{-} \leftrightarrow Mg$	-2.37	
$Ca^{2+} + 2e^{-} \leftrightarrow Ca$	-2.76	
Li⁺ + e⁻ ↔ Li	-3.05	

Table 2.2 Standard reduction potential at 25°C (298 K) of common metals [46]

The positive electrode is the electron sink. For the purpose of being an electron sink, for rechargeable batteries, the positive electrode or cathode should have the ability to store electron when the battery is utilized and release the electron when recharging with good reversibility. The difference between these two processes is the change in the chemical structure of the cathode. The conversion reaction has changed most of the chemical structure of the cathode materials, whilst the intercalation reaction is the insertion/extraction of the guest metal cation into/from the cathode materials without significantly changing their chemical structure. Such materials are called host materials and batteries based on this mechanism are called metal-ion batteries (MIBs). The intercalation reaction can be illustrated as shown in Fig. 2.6.



Figure 2.6 Illustration of the charge-storage mechanism of MIBs

The reduction reaction can be illustrated as:

Anode reaction:	$x\mathbf{M}^{n+} + (n \cdot x)\mathbf{e}^{-} \longleftrightarrow x\mathbf{M}$	(24)
Cathode reaction:	$x\mathbf{M}^{n+} + \mathbf{H} + (n \cdot x)\mathbf{e}^{-} \longleftrightarrow \mathbf{M}_{x}\mathbf{H}$	(2.5)
The overall read	ction of the cell can be written as:	

Overall reaction: $x\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{H} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{M}_{x}\mathbf{H}$ (2.6)where \mathbf{M} , n, \mathbf{H} and x are the metal-ion, the oxidation number of metal-ion, the host

material and the state of intercalation, respectively.

One of the noticeable points is that most of the host materials being used for MIBs are the transition-metal oxides which are able to change the oxidation state in order to store both electron and metal-ion in its structure. This charge-storage mechanism proven that they have better reversibility compared to the traditional conversion reaction [47].

2.8 Pseudocapacitive behavior

Traditional supercapacitors are called electric double layer capacitors (EDLCs) where charges are stored electrostatically at the interface of electrodes (a non-Faradaic process). Electrochemical features of pseudocapacitive materials are neither purely capacitive nor bulk Faradaic processes. Hence, the "pseudo" prefix is used to differentiate it from EDLC. The reaction at the cathode of battery when contacts with electrolyte may contribute several reactions, namely, the main reaction (intercalation

of zinc), capacitance (ion adsorption), irreversible conversion and electrolyte decomposition [47]. The capacitive effect is characterized by analyzing the cyclic voltammetry data at different sweep rates. A representative power law relationship between the current (i) and scan rate (v) reveals the charge-storage mechanism in ion battery:

$$i = av^b \tag{2.7}$$

where a and b are constants. The b value can be figured out by profiling the $\ln(i)$ - $\ln(v)$ curve. If b = 0.5, the Faradic diffusion is predominant; while b = 1, the pseudo-capacitance assumes the primary contribution. Furthermore, as for a fixed sweep rate, the specific pseudo-capacitance contribution can be given in detail by the following formula:

$$i = k_1 v + k_2 v^{1/2}$$
(2.8)

where the parameter k_1v represents the capacitive process while the $k_2v^{1/2}$ is in favor of the diffusion process.

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The above mentioned pseudocapacitive kinetics are more obvious in battery electrodes of nanomaterials due to the significantly decreased ion diffusion.

2.9 Analytical techniques

2.9.1 Cyclic Voltammetry (CV)

a) Cyclic voltammetry profile

The common technique for investigating the redox reaction characteristic of the electrode is cyclic voltammetry. With this method, the potential of the working electrode, with respect to the reference electrode, added linearly starting from an initial point to the vertex point, then, is added in the opposite direction to the final point. The output from this action is the rate of the redox reaction in form of current, as shown in Fig. 2.7.



Figure 2.7 a) The input potential profile and b) the typical cyclic voltammogram of the reversible reaction [48]

The influential parameters for this characterization are the potential range and the scan rate, which is the rate of the potential ramp with respect to time. According to the Fig. 2.7 b), the E_{pa} , E_{pc} , I_{pa} and I_{pc} are the anodic peak potential, the cathodic peak potential, the anodic current and the cathodic current, respectively. The inclined straight line represents the background current, which is resulted from the capacitance effect [49].

b) Cyclic voltammetry cell configuration

To perform CV measurement, cell configuration is set up and a brief description is generally given for the parameter setup used to collect the data. A schematic of a CV measurement is presented in Figure 2.8.


Figure 2.8 Schematic of a CV measurement configuration

The working electrode carries out the electrochemical reaction of interest. A potentiostat is used to control the applied potential of the working electrode as a function of the reference electrode potential. A reference electrode has a well-defined and stable equilibrium potential. The electrical circuit is completely closed by counter electrode [49]. The applied potential is thus typically reported as "versus or vs" with a specific reference as shown in Fig. 2.7. This study used Zn/Zn²⁺ as a specific reference. Zinc anode was used to act as a reference and counter electrode.

2.9.2 Galvanostatic Charge-Discharge

The standard method for determination of the cell performance and cyclability is to apply the discharge and charge currents to the cell repeatedly within the specific voltage, namely upper cut-off current and lower cut-off current. The result is the voltage profile with respect to time [23]. The obtained results can be used to determine the specific capacity, energy density and coulombic efficiency via equation 2.9, 2.10, 2.11 and 2.12, respectively. In general, the testing current is normalized with the amount of the active host material that the electrode contained, as shown in equation 2.9.

Current Density =
$$\frac{I}{m_{act}}$$
 (2.9)

where I and m_{act} are testing current and amount of the active host material, respectively.

The capacity of the cathode is determined by measuring the total charge that is delivered from the cathode upon the charging or discharging. This could be obtained via the integration of the current with respect to the time from the initial state to the cut-off state, then normalization of this value by the mass of the active host material, as shown in equation 2.10.

Specific capacity =
$$\frac{1}{m_{act}} \left(\int_{t_0}^{t_f} I \, dt \right)$$
 (2.10)

where t_0 and t_f are initial time and time at cut-off state, respectively.

The energy for the charging and energy that was obtained from discharging process can be calculated with equation 2.11.

Energy density =
$$\frac{1}{m_{act}} \left(\int_{t_0}^{t_f} IV \ dt \right)$$
 (2.11)

where V is voltage.

The percentage of discharging capacity compared with the charging capacity, called coulombic efficiency, is one of the most critical factors to consider the reversibility of the battery. This value can be calculated by using equation 2.12.

Coulombic efficiency (%) =
$$\frac{Discharging \ Capacity}{Charging \ Capacity} \times 100$$
(2.12)

2.9.3 Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS)

The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy is the technique for analysis of the electroactive compound or the electrochemical cell via the applying of both frequency-varying sinusoidal potential (2-10 mV) and static potential to the testing cell. The result from this technique is the impedance spectra, which comprises of the size of impedance and phase lag between the input and output signal at each frequency [50].



In battery application, this technique is a powerful tool to interpret the change in charge transfer characteristic upon the cycling. The impedance spectra is fitted with some proposed model in order to retrieve the internal resistance, the double-layer capacitance, the charge transfer resistance and the other associated parameters to the charge transport in the battery [51].

2.9.4 X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

X-ray diffraction is a characterization technique used for the analysis of the crystal structure of the material. The benefit of this technique is to identify the phase of new materials. The XRD is based on the applying of X-ray beam to the sample at

various angles, then detecting the scattering reflected beam. The result is the relation between the intensity of reflected beam and the angle, which can indicate the allocation of lattices structure of the tested sample.

2.9.5 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM)

Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) is used to study the surface of a sample on a nanoscale, specifically morphological characteristics, such as shape characteristics and nanostructure pattern or nanosize of components. The working principle of FESEM is that the beam of the electron will penetrate only the outer surface of the object which is visible as a 3D image.

2.9.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (TEM-EDS)

Transmission electron microscopy with energy dispersive spectroscopy (TEM-EDS) is an imaging mode of specialized transmission electron microscope (TEM) that allows for direct imaging of the atomic structure and providing chemical composition of the sample. It is a powerful tool to study the properties of materials on an atomic scale, such as semiconductors, metals, nanoparticles. It is also possible to produce an image from electrons deflected by a particular crystal plane.

CHAPTER 3

RERSEARCH ARTICLES

This topic includes 2 research articles:

3.1 $\delta\text{-MnO}_2$ nanoflower/graphite cathode for rechargeable aqueous zinc-ion batteries

 $3.2\ {\rm MnO}_2$ heterostructure on carbon nanotubes as cathode material for aqueous zinc-ion batteries

All research articles are partial fulfillment of dissertation for graduation.



3.1 Article I

δ-MnO₂ nanoflower/graphite cathode for rechargeable aqueous zinc-ion batteries

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Article I: $\delta\text{-}\text{MnO}_2$ nanoflower/graphite cathode for rechargeable aqueous

zinc-ion batteries

Abstract

Manganese oxide (MnO₂) is one of the most promising intercalation cathode materials for zinc-ion batteries (ZIBs). Specifically, a layered type delta manganese oxide (δ -MnO₂) allows reversible insertion/extraction of Zn²⁺ ions and exhibits high storage capacity of Zn^{2+} ions. However, a poor conductivity of δ -MnO₂, as well as other crystallographic forms, limits its potential applications. This study focused on δ -MnO₂ with nanoflower structure supported on graphite flake, namely MNG, for use as an intercalation host material of rechargeable aqueous ZIBs. Pristine δ -MnO₂ nanoflowers and MNG were synthesized and examined using X-ray diffraction, electron spectroscopy, and electrochemical techniques. Also, performances of the batteries with the pristine δ -MnO₂ nanoflowers and MNG cathodes were studied in CR2032 coin cells. MNG exhibited a fast insertion/extraction of Zn²⁺ ions with diffusion scheme and pseudocapacitive behavior. The battery using MNG cathode exhibited a high initial discharge capacity of 235 mA h/g at 200 mA/g specific current density compared to 130 mA h/g which was displayed by the pristine δ -MnO₂ cathode at the same specific current density. MNG demonstrated superior electrical conductivity compared to the pristine δ -MnO₂. The results obtained paved the way for improving the electrical conductivity of MnO_2 by using graphite flake support. The graphite flake support significantly improved performances of ZIBs and made them attractive for use in a wide variety of energy applications.

3.1.1 Introduction

Manganese dioxide (MnO₂) is widely used as a cathode material in battery technologies because of its several advantageous properties such as low-cost, abundance, low toxicity, and environmental friendliness [5, 52, 53]. MnO₂ were previously studied and applied for a variety of energy storage devices [10, 54-56]. Also, it was applied in different metal-ion batteries including Li-ion battery (LIB) [6], Mg-ion battery (MIB) [7] and Zn-ion battery (ZIB) [8, 57]. MnO₂ cathodes are inexpensive and exhibit a high theoretical capacity. Recently, aqueous Zn/MnO₂ batteries are considered as promising alternative energy devices due to their high safety and the abundance of both Zn, MnO₂ and the electrolyte [9, 29, 58].

However, MnO₂ suffers from its poor conductivity that often occurs in high internal resistance of the electrode resulting in poor performance of the battery [27]. Therefore, to improve the performance of the MnO₂ cathode, it is necessary to increase the specific surface area of MnO_2 as well as the ion diffusion rate [59, 60]. MnO₂ has various crystallographic polymorphs such as α -MnO₂, β -MnO₂, and δ -MnO₂, etc. Among these, δ -MnO₂ was reported to be a potential intercalation host material for aqueous ZIBs [61] due to a substantial interlayer distance for the reversible insertion/extraction of Zn^{2+} ions. δ -MnO₂ can be prepared by a chemical reduction or hydrothermal process [62]. The conventional synthesis method is the direct reduction of KMnO₄ aqueous solution by dropwise introduction of concentrated HCl. Previously, δ -MnO₂ nanoflakes were synthesized and used in aqueous ZIBs [61]. It led to a significant increase in the power density of the ZIB. Another approach undertaken was to support MnO₂ nanostructures on a matrix material with a high surface area [10, 63, 64]. It was observed that these nanostructures could accelerate the charge transport during the electrochemical redox process. In this respect, various carbonaceous materials, namely activated carbon, carbon nanotubes (CNTs), carbon nanofibers (CNFs), graphene and graphite, have been integrated with MnO₂. MnO₂/graphene nanoflowers were synthesized in the form of sandwich-structured nanoflowers which exhibited excellent super capacitive properties effectively making it a very conductive electrode material for high-performance supercapacitors [12]. However, it is significant that MnO₂ supported on graphite has not been reported previously in ZIBs application. The crystal structure of graphite consists of parallel planes of carbon atoms which is conductive primarily along its planes [65, 66]. In this way, graphite is classified as a semimetal due to its high electrical conductivity [67]. Therefore, MnO₂ supported on graphite is considered as the candidate due to an improvement in electronic conductivity and an increase in the stability of the electrode materials for ZIBs.

The present study reports on δ -MnO₂ nanoflower/graphite as a cathode host material for rechargeable aqueous ZIBs. The δ -MnO₂ nanoflower supported on graphite not only increases the electrical conductivity and discharge capacity of the battery but also improves the insertion/extraction acceleration by increasing the active area of the δ -MnO₂ nanoflower. Accordingly, the electrochemical properties and performances of the batteries which use the MNG as host material cathode are examined and discussed.

3.1.2 Experimental

Chemical and materials

Reagent grade chemicals were obtained and used without further purification unless noted otherwise. The graphite powder was purchased from Aldrich Company. Potassium permanganate (KMnO₄), manganese sulfate monohydrate (MnSO₄.H₂O), zinc sulfate (ZnSO₄), sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄), and cellulose acetate were purchased from Ajax Finechem. Nickel foam (0.5 mm thick, 100 PPI) was purchased from Qijing Trading Co., Ltd. Whatman filter paper No. 1 was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Graphite foil was purchased from Shenzhen 3KS Electronic Material Co. Ltd. Zn sheet (99.99%) was purchased from Sirikul Engineering Ltd.

Preparation of $\delta\text{-}\text{MnO}_2$ nanoflower and $\delta\text{-}\text{MnO}_2$ nanoflower/graphite (MNG)

The pristine δ -MnO₂ nanoparticles were synthesized by dissolving KMnO₄ (1.98) g) in 60 mL of deionized (DI) water. Then, $MnSO_4$. H_2O (0.336 g) was dissolved in 20 mL of DI water. Next, the MnSO₄. H_2O solution was added dropwise to the KMnO₄. solution, and continuous stirring was followed for 30 min. Afterward, the mixture was transferred into a 100 mL Teflon autoclave and kept at 160 °C for 24 hr in an oil bath. The product was collected and washed with DI water several times. Then, it was dried at 80 °C for 12 hr. The MNG synthesis was similar to the method reported by Liu et al. [12] with some modifications. Graphite (1.0 g) was mixed in DI water (500 mL) with KMnO₄ (10.0 g). The mixture of graphite and KMnO₄ was stirred for 18 hr. Then, 98% of H_2SO_4 (5 mL) was added dropwise into the mixture. The solution was continuously stirred for 1 hr and heated to and maintained at 80 °C for 1 hr. After that, the solution was diluted in 1 L of DI water and allowed to stand at room temperature. The solution was filtered using cellulose filter paper (pore size 11 µm). Then, the MNG precipitates were collected and washed by DI water several times until the violet color disappeared. Subsequently, the precipitates were dried at 80 °C overnight.

Characterization and electrochemical measurement

X-ray Diffraction (XRD, Bruker AXS Model D8 Discover) of the powder samples was carried out with Cu K α radiation at a scanning range of 5-80°. Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM, JEOL JSM-7610F, Tokyo, Japan) was used to take the morphology image and nanoflower size of MNG.

The cathode using MNG was prepared by mixing together 70% wt. of MNG, 20% wt. of carbon black (CB), and 10% wt. of cellulose acetate binder. Alternatively, the cathode using pristine δ -MnO₂ was prepared by mixing together 70% wt. of the pristine δ -MnO₂, 20% wt. of carbon black (CB), and 10% wt. of cellulose acetate binder. Acetone was used to adjust the viscosity of the slurries. Each mixed slurry was coated on graphite foil using a lab coating machine (AOT-FCM-250, AOT Electronic Technology Co., LTD) and dried at 70 °C under vacuum. The thickness of the deposited cathode material was 25 µm. The zinc anode was prepared by electrodeposition of zinc from ZnSO₄ (0.5 M) aqueous solution onto Ni-foam using zinc sheet as a counter electrode at the current density of 60 mA/cm². The amount of zinc deposited was 20 mg/cm². Both cathode and anode were punched into a 15 mm diameter disk. The filter paper was punched into a 19 mm disk and used as the separator. Then, 0.3 mL of ZnSO₄ (1 M) was added to the cell. The testing cells were fabricated as a coin cell (CR2032).

Electrochemical measurements were carried out by using a CR2032 coin cell. Cyclic Voltammetry (CV) was performed by Potentiostat (VersaStat3, Princeton Applied Research) at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s in the voltage range 1.0-1.8 V versus Zn^{2+}/Zn . A battery testing system (BTS-5V10mA, Neware, China) was used to investigate the performance of the battery. The charge-transfer resistance, as illustrated by the Nyquist plots for the cathode, was carried out using an Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS) technique using an amplitude of 10 mV in the frequency range of 1-100,000 Hz.



Figure 3.1 XRD pattern of the synthesized δ -MnO₂ nanoflower/graphite (MNG) and crystallographic structure of δ -MnO₂ (inset)

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In this study, δ -MnO₂ nanoflower/graphite (MNG) was prepared by a modified method of Liu et al. [12]. In Fig. 3.1, the XRD patterns of MNG, δ -MnO₂ and graphite are shown. Thus, it can be seen that both patterns, i.e. δ -MnO₂ (JCPDS card no. 80-1098) [68, 69] and graphite (JCPDS card no. 41-1487) [70] match well with the XRD pattern of MNG. The diffraction peaks (2 θ) at 12.2°, 26.5°, 36.6°, and 65.6° of MNG correspond to the (001), (002), (-111) and (-312) crystal planes of δ -MnO₂, respectively [71]. The high-intensity diffraction peak of MNG at 26.5° indicates the high crystallinity of graphite. δ -MnO₂ possesses a planar layered-structure as illustrated by the inset of Fig. 3.1. This structure suggests that the interlayer gap is easy to insert/extract foreign cations and thereby can be useful for energy storage

applications [69]. Further, the XRD analysis confirmed that the delta (δ) phase was presented in the pristine δ -MnO₂ sample (see Fig. B1 of Appendix B).



Figure 3.2 FESEM images of the synthesized δ -MnO₂ nanoflower/graphite (MNG): (a) low magnification image, and (b) high–magnification image

In Fig. 3.2 (a), the FESEM image of MNG is shown. It is observed that the numerous MnO_2 nanoflowers constructed on the graphite surface reveal a flake-like sample. Fig. 3.2 (b) shows the higher magnification image of MNG which indicates that many petals can interconnect forming micropores about 50 nm in diameter size. The MNG having micropores among petals will assist in increasing the contact area between the electrolyte and cathode material as well as ensure fast ion transfer in the charge/discharge process [12].



Figure 3.3 Schematics of the chemistry of the zinc-ion battery. Zn^{2+} ions migrate between tunnels of the MNG cathode and Zn anode. The inset on the right shows Zn^{2+} ion insertion and interconnection between δ -MnO₂ and graphite

In Fig. 3.3, the battery configuration in this study which is composed of the MNG cathode, zinc anode, and ZnSO₄ aqueous electrolyte is shown. During discharging, anodic zinc is dissolved in the form of Zn²⁺ ions into an aqueous electrolyte, containing Zn²⁺ ions and rapidly solvate in the form of solvated Zn²⁺ ion. Then, they diffuse and pass through the separator to the MNG cathode. The solvated Zn²⁺ ions are de-solvated in the form of Zn²⁺ ions and intercalated into δ -MnO₂ structure [22, 72] as illustrated by the inset of Fig. 3.3. Further, an electron current starts to flow in the electrical loop from the electrical conduction of graphite. These three processes can be reversed by (1) the de-intercalation of Zn²⁺ ions are reduced to Zn and deposited back on the zinc anode, respectively. The electrochemical reaction may be expressed as in Equation (3.1) anode reaction and Equation (3.2) cathode reaction:

$$Zn \leftrightarrow Zn^{2+} + 2e^{-}$$
 (3.1)

$$Zn^{2+} + 2e^{-} + \delta - MnO_2 \leftrightarrow \delta - ZnMnO_2$$
(3.2)

During the electrochemical Zn^{2+} ion insertion, the layered type δ -MnO₂ structure can transform to spinel-type $ZnMn_2O_4$ with Mn(III) state and layered type δ -Zn_xMnO₂ with Mn(II) state [9].



Figure 3.4 (a) Cyclic voltammograms of δ -MnO₂ nanoflower/graphite (MNG) cycling at different sweep rates, and (b) the fitted lines: ln(peak specific current) versus ln(sweep rate)

To investigate the kinetics of the MNG electrode, cyclic voltammograms using sweep rates of 0.5 to 32 mV/s in the voltage range 1.0-1.8 V versus Zn^{2+}/Zn were measured using CR2032 coin cells. As shown in Fig. 3.4 (a), a dominating pair of redox peaks exhibits increasing currents when the sweep rates increase, which do not display rectangular-shape and symmetrical voltammograms even at high scan rates, compared to MnO₂/activated carbon composite for supercapacitors [73]. It is noted that the MNG electrode does not present the capacitive behavior of the electrode [74, 75]. The capacitive effect is characterized by analyzing the cyclic voltammetry data at different sweep rates as in Equation (3.3):

$$i = av^b \tag{3.3}$$

where *i* is the peak specific current, *v* is a potential sweep rate and *a*, *b* are adjustable parameters. The redox reaction is limited by the diffusion-controlled behavior; the peak current *i* varies as $v^{1/2}$. Although the capacitance contribution suggests that the peak current *i* varies as *v* [76, 77]. Equation (3.3) can be taken with logarithm and can be expressed according to Equation (3.4):

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$$\ln i = b \ln v + \ln a$$
(3.4)

The *b* value denotes the slope of the plot of $\ln i$ versus $\ln v$. When *b* value is close to 1, the system is mainly controlled by capacitance; when *b* value is close to 0.5, the Zn²⁺ ion insertion process dominates. Fig. 3.4 (b) shows the $\ln i$ versus $\ln v$ plots at oxidation and reduction process of the cyclic voltammogram. The b_o (oxidation process) and b_r (reduction process) of the MNG cathode are 0.58 and 0.62, respectively. Since the average *b* values are close to 0.5, it may imply that the redox reactions on the MNG cathode are controlled by the diffusion process. MnO_2 is a transition metal oxide that typically displays the pseudocapacitance behavior [78]. The capacitive-controlled process occurs only on the surface. However, in the case of MNG cathode, the characteristic of Zn^{2+} ions insertion/extraction deviates from capacitive-controlled process towards the diffusion-controlled process. That is, the insertion/extraction of Zn^{2+} ions occur not only on the surface but also in the pores. The result shows good agreement of a fast Zn^{2+} ion insertion/extraction or high rate property for the battery [76].





Figure 3.5 Performances of the batteries: (a) cyclic voltammograms of the batteries at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s, (b) galvanostatic charge-discharge profile of the batteries at 200 mA/g, (c) Cycling performance of the batteries at 400 mA/g, and (d) rate capability of the batteries at different discharge rates

In order to compare the improved electrochemical properties of MNG as the cathode for ZIB, the pristine δ -MnO₂ is used as a comparable cathode. Fig. 3.5 (a) shows the CV profiles of the pristine δ -MnO₂ and MNG electrodes at a scan rate of

0.5 mV/s over the potential range 1.0-1.8 V for the initial three cycles. During the first cycle, two distinct peaks are observed at 1.20 and 1.57 V for the pristine δ -MnO₂ electrode and at 1.18 and 1.54 V for MNG. The peaks in the low potential region appear at 1.20 and 1.18 V which can be attributed to Zn^{2+} ion insertion into the δ -MnO₂ host structure. In the higher potential region, two oxidation peaks can be seen at 1.57 and 1.54 V for δ -MnO₂ and MNG, respectively, which correspond to the extraction of Zn^{2+} ions from the δ -MnO₂ host structure. The results suggest that, the oxidation state of Mn is reduced to Mn³⁺ states and is oxidized back to Mn⁴⁺ states, during Zn²⁺ ion insertion and extraction, respectively [9, 29, 61, 79]. On subsequent cycling, two distinct peaks appear at 1.37 and 1.21 V for Zn^{2+} ion insertion into δ -MnO₂ whereas the peaks at 1.38 and 1.20 V were observed for MNG in the low voltage region. In the high voltage region, the peak at 1.57 and shoulder at 1.62 V can be clearly seen for the pristine δ -MnO₂. Likewise, the peak at 1.53 V and shoulder at 1.60 V can be clearly seen for the MNG electrodes. The cyclic voltammogram, having two peaks during discharge and having a peak with shoulder during charge, exhibits typical characteristics of the electrochemical insertion/extraction of Zn^{2+} ions in MnO₂ structure [9, 28, 58, 80, 81]. These results with two peaks during discharge may be more clearly described by the two-step reaction of Zn²⁺ ion insertion in electrochemical reaction [58, 79] and spinel-type ZnMn₂O₄ transformation [74]. In the following scan cycles, the peaks at 1.37 V for δ -MnO₂ and at 1.38 for MNG increase gradually during discharge indicating an activation process [79]. The CV curve of MNG exhibits a higher peak intensity and a larger enclosed area when compared with the pristine δ -MnO₂ indicating improved electrochemical performance and fast Zn²⁺ ion insertion/extraction [11].

Fig. 3.5(b) shows the first and second discharge/charge profiles of the pristine δ -MnO₂ and MNG cathode in a coin cell battery when cycled at a specific current density of 200 mA/g in the potential range of 1.0-1.8 V. The battery fabricated with

the pristine δ -MnO₂ and MNG host cathode material under open air condition displays an open-circuit voltage (OCV) of about 1.4 V. The first discharge capacity for MNG is 235 mA h/g whereas the pristine δ -MnO₂ registers only 130 mA h/g. Compared to todorokite-type MnO₂ [29] and δ -MnO₂ nanoflake [9], the initial discharge capacity can deliver only 98 mA h/g (at 50 mA/g) and 122 mA h/g (at 83 mA/g), respectively. It is clear that δ -MnO₂ supported on graphite samples can accommodate more numbers of Zn^{2+} ions than the unsupported δ -MnO₂ (pristine δ -MnO₂). It appears that the nanoflower δ -MnO₂ in the structure of MNG tends to enhance the electrode/electrolyte contact area, thereby favoring Zn²⁺ ion insertion [28]. In addition, MNG shows a longer horizontal discharge curve than that of pristine δ -MnO₂, suggesting a more stable Zn²⁺ ion insertion into the MNG than in the pristine δ -MnO₂. On the subsequent cycle, during the continuous discharge, the voltage profiles present two distinct plateaus at 1.45 and 1.25 V for MNG and 1.4 and 1.2 V for pristine δ -MnO₂. These characteristics were also observed for MnO₂ electrodes in aqueous ZIB systems [21, 29]. It can be implied that Zn²⁺ ions can insert into the layered δ -MnO₂ [80] which is in agreement with the two distinct peaks during discharge, as shown in Fig. 3.5(a).

Fig. 3.5(c) displays the cycling behavior and corresponding coulombic efficiency of the pristine δ -MnO₂ and MNG electrodes, under the specific current density of 400 mA/g. At the 100th cycle, the discharge and charge capacities registered by pristine δ -MnO₂ were 63.3 and 63.8 mA h/g, respectively, while that of MNG were 113.4 and 114.2 mA h/g, respectively. The lower capacity retention of pristine δ -MnO₂ may result from low intrinsic electronic conductivity because of the appearance of unstable Mn³⁺ states during zinc-ion insertion [8]. The higher capacity retention of MNG may indicate that the electronic conductivity of MNG is improved. In the initial cycles, gradual capacity fade was observed for the pristine δ -MnO₂ of $ZnMn_2O_4$ with the Jahn-Teller Mn^{3+} ion may contribute to electrode degradation and, hence, lead to the fast capacity fade [9]. However, MNG demonstrates higher capacity than the pristine δ -MnO₂. Over long-term cycling, the coulombic efficiency of both host material electrodes is maintained at around 100%. Thus, this clearly demonstrates that no irreversible capacity losses occurred [28].

In Fig. 3.5(d), the rate performances of the pristine δ -MnO₂ and MNG host material cathodes are shown. Cycling takes place at various specific current densities of 200, 400, 800 and 1600 mA/g, namely 5 times for each rate. The rate performance of MNG is significantly higher than those of the pristine δ -MnO₂. It is indicated that nanoscale morphology of δ -MnO₂ nanoflowers on graphite increases the contact area between the electrode and the electrolyte and provides more electrochemically active sites for ion-insertion [9]. Graphite not only improves the electronic conductivity of the MNG electrode but also tends to disperse the δ -MnO₂ nanoflower sites. The MNG cathode can be charged and discharged at different rates; a high rate of 1600 mA/g leads to a discharge and charge capacity of 76 and 64 mA h/g, respectively. When cycled at a specific current density of 200 mA/g, the MNG cathode can deliver a discharge and charge capacity of 181 and 179 mA h/g, respectively. This behavior indicates that the MNG cathode can well be considered for the Zn²⁺ ion storage material [8]. It is clear therefore that MNG can improve not only the cycling performance but also the rate performance for ZIBs.





Figure 3.6 EIS results of the batteries: (a) Nyquist plot of EIS spectra, (b) relationship between real part of impedance versus $\omega^{-0.5}$ for the batteries using MNG and the pristine δ -MnO₂, (c) schematic illustration for the Zn²⁺ ion insertion into the MNG electrode, and (d) Nyquist plot of EIS spectra of MNG at various charge/discharge cycles

As displayed in Fig. 3.6(a), the difference in electrochemical conductivity before cycling between the pristine δ -MnO₂ and MNG host cathodes was examined using EIS. The curves of the pristine δ -MnO₂ and MNG host cathodes consist of depressed semicircles and diffusion drift which can be perfectly fitted using Randles equivalent circuit (see Inset Fig. 3.6(a)). Hence, in the equivalent circuit, R_s is the solution resistance, R_{ct} is the charge-transfer resistance at the interfaces and W_z is the Warburg impedance related to the diffusion of Zn^{2+} ions. The R_{ct} value for the pristine δ -MnO₂ is 5.9 Ω and the value reduces to 4.8 Ω when supported on graphite (MNG). The result indicates that the electrical conductivity of the MNG sample is improved by constructing a conductive support using the graphite. The relationship between real impedance (Z_{re}) and angular frequency (ω) in the low frequency region can be expressed accordingly by Equation (3.5) [82]:

$$Z_{re} = R_s + R_{ct} + \sigma \omega^{-0.5} \tag{3.5}$$

where σ is the Warburg factor which is relative to Z_{re} - ω obtained from the slope of the lines in Fig. 3.6(b). The diffusion coefficient of zinc ion can be calculated as in Equation (3.6) [83]:

$$D = \frac{R^2 T^2}{2A^2 n^4 F^4 C^2 \sigma^2}$$
(3.6)

where R is the gas constant, T is the absolute temperature, n is the number of electrons per molecule oxidized, A is the surface area, F is Faraday's constant, C is the concentration and D is the diffusion coefficient.

As shown in Fig. 3.6(b), the slope which is the σ value of MNG (3.94) host electrode is lower than that of the pristine δ -MnO₂ (9.01) indicating that the diffusion coefficient of MNG is higher than that of the pristine δ -MnO₂, according to Equation (3.6). It is clear that the MNG host material electrode can enhance the diffusion coefficient of Zn^{2+} ion, highlighting the electrical conductivity improvement [82, 84].

In Fig. 3.6(c), the MNG cathode which is a δ -MnO₂ structure supported on graphite is drawn and illustrated. It is highly possible that Zn²⁺ ions can insert into the δ -MnO₂ nanoflower structure having short diffusion length. Thereby, electrochemical performance can be improved during cycling at high rate [85].

In Fig. 3.6(d), after charge/discharge cycling, the EIS measurements of MNG are shown. After the 1st, 10th, 20th, and 30th cycles, the MNG host cathode exhibits the R_{ct} values, namely, 6.51, 10.9, 13.7 and 18.2 Ω , respectively. After the first cycle, the charge-transfer resistance increases which indicates that the intercalation of Zn²⁺ ions into the δ -MnO₂ structure becomes more difficult. The conduction of ions before intercalation depends not only on the cathode material but also on the electrolyte access into the cathode. The porosity of the cathode material is an important factor which can affect the electrolyte access. The SEM images of MNG and the pristine δ -MnO₂ compound are displayed in Fig. B2 of the Appendix B.

3.2 Article II

MnO₂ heterostructure on carbon nanotubes as cathode material for aqueous zinc-ion batteries

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Article II: MnO₂ heterostructure on carbon nanotubes as cathode material

for aqueous zinc-ion batteries

Abstract

Due to their cost effectiveness, high safety, and eco-friendliness, zinc-ion batteries (ZIBs) are receiving much attention nowadays. In the production of rechargeable ZIBs, the cathode plays an important role. Manganese oxide (MnO_2) is considered the most promising and widely investigated intercalation cathode material. Nonetheless, MnO₂ cathodes are subjected to challenging issues viz. limited capacity, low rate capability and poor cycling stability. It is seen that MnO₂ heterostructure can enable long-term cycling stability in different types of energy devices. Herein, a versatile chemical method for the preparation of MnO₂ heterostructure on multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MNH-CNT) is reported. Besides, the synthesized MNH-CNT is composed of δ -MnO₂ and γ -MnO₂. The ZIB using the MNH-CNT cathode delivers a high initial discharge capacity of 236 mA h/g at 400 mA/g, 108 mA h/g at 1600 mA/g and excellent cycling stability. Pseudocapacitive behavior investigation demonstrates fast zinc ion diffusion via a diffusion-controlled process with low capacitive contribution. Overall, the MNH-CNT cathode is seen to exhibit superior electrochemical performance. This work presents new opportunities for improving the discharge capacity and cycling stability of aqueous ZIBs.

3.2.1 Introduction

Metal-ion batteries (MIBs) are rechargeable batteries that use metal ions as a charge carrier being capable of reversible intercalation and deintercalation into the host material [86-90]. In recent years, on account of their low self-discharge, less memory effect and high efficiency, implementation of MIBs for energy storage has become very popular [91, 92]. Of different types of MIBs, lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) are widely used for various applications due to their high energy density and long cycle life [93, 94]. However, some important factors such as high cost and safety issues tarnish the large-scale application of LIBs [95, 96]. Besides LIBs, various monovalent (Na⁺, K⁺) and multivalent (Mg²⁺, Zn²⁺, Al³⁺) ions have been considered as charge carriers in MIBs. In view of this, ZIBs have attracted the interest of researchers [22, 57, 80, 97]. It is noted that zinc (Zn) has low redox potential of -0.763 V vs. standard hydrogen electrode (SHE), which is favorable for near neutral or slightly acidic aqueous electrolytes [98]. In addition, Zn has a higher specific volumetric capacity compared to that of lithium viz. 5855 mA h/cm³ and 2066 mA h/cm³, respectively [52]. As compared to lithium, Zn is lower in cost and highly abundant [54, 55].

A typical ZIB consists of a cathode (for hosting Zn ions), a Zn metal anode, an electrolyte, and a separator (to separate the cathode and anode) [99, 100]. In general, the development of aqueous ZIBs has been limited by the cathode materials used [32, 79, 101]. In this respect, MnO_2 has been found to be one of the most promising alternatives due to its low cost and good environmental compatibility along with high operating voltage and a theoretical capacity of 308 mA h/g [26, 80, 102, 103]. Various types of MnO_2 have been employed as cathode material for ZIBs such as α -MnO₂ nanorods with onion-like carbon (OLC) (reported capacity of 168 mA h/g at 246 mA/g) [93], δ -MnO₂ nanosheets (reported capacity of

133 mA h/g at 100 mA/g) [24], and MnO₂ nanorods with graphene (reported capacity of 301 mA h/g at 500 mA/g) [104]. In addition, MnO₂ can exist in a variety of crystallographic polymorphs such as α -, β -, γ -, δ - and λ -MnO₂, depending on how MnO₆ octahedral units are connected by different types of network. While α -, β - and γ -MnO₂ have tunnel structures, δ -MnO₂ has a layered structure [69]. Nevertheless, during cycling, MnO₂ suffers poor capacity and inadequate performance because of its poor electronic conductivity and unstable cycling of the electrode [10, 79].

In order to solve these issues, graphite and carbon nanotubes (CNTs) have been introduced to support the MnO₂ nanostructure because of their excellent electrical conductivity and high surface area [105-108]. Among conductive materials, CNTs including single-walled carbon nanotubes (SWCNTs) and multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) have been used as supporting materials to form composites with MnO₂ [10]. Researchers have reported several significant results concerning MnO₂ with CNTs. Chou et al. [109], for example, successfully electrodeposited MnO₂ nanowires onto CNT paper. The composite CNT paper demonstrated good cyclability after 3000 cycles. For this result, it acted as a conductive and active substrate for flexible electrodes of a supercapacitor. Wang et al. [107] synthesized a nanocomposite of MnO₂/CNTs by direct redox reaction. The result indicated that capacitance retained more than 90% of initial capacitance after 2000 cycles because electrical conductivity influenced the specific capacitance.

Besides conductive carbon support, using heterostructure is an attractive concept in that two types of materials and/or nanostructures have been directly grown on supporting material, as binder-free electrodes [110-112]. The birnessite-type δ -MnO₂ exhibited a favorable electrochemical performance due to its relatively large interlayer distance (70 Å) for energy storage applications [9, 79]. Moreover, γ -MnO₂, as the anode material of rechargeable LIBs, provided high initial reversible capacity [113]. It is challenging that the MnO₂ heterostructure could lead to

remarkable electrochemical properties as well as enhanced battery performance. Thus, the MnO_2 heterostructure was synthesized leading to improvement not only of the electrical conductivity of the cathode but also the capacity and cycling stability of ZIBs.

Herein, in-situ reduction of potassium permanganate (KMnO₄) using multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) as supporting material has been carried out to produce MnO_2 heterostructure on multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MNH-CNT). The heterostructure was controlled via the ratio of an initial amount of KMnO₄ and MWCNTs. The as-prepared composite was examined to determine its physical characteristics. Subsequently, the electrochemical properties and performances of ZIBs which used the MnO₂ on multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MN-CNT), as host material cathode, are investigated and discussed.

3.2.2 Results and discussion

Material Characterization

1. X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

In this study, MN-CNT was synthesized via thermal reaction. Accordingly, the growth process of MnO_2 on MWCNTs is stated as in Eq. (3.7) [27]:

$$4KMnO_4 + 4C + 2H_2SO_4 \rightarrow 4MnO_2 + 3CO_2 + 2K_2SO_4 + 2H_2O$$
(3.7)

The outer wall of MWCNTs was oxidized by $KMnO_4$ under strong acid condition. Further, MnO_2 was materialized due to redox reaction in which $KMnO_4$ acted as an oxidant. This process led to the homogenous coverage of MnO_2 formed on the MWCNTs surface.



Figure 3.7 XRD patterns of MWCNTs and synthesized MN-CNT with different weight ratios of MnO_2 :MWCNTs: (a) 60:40;MN-CNT6040 (b) 75:25;MN-CNT7525 (c) 90:10;MN-CNT9010 and (d) synthesized δ -MnO₂

XRD was conducted to study the crystal structure of the samples. In Fig. 3.7, XRD patterns of pristine δ -MnO₂, MWCNTs and MN-CNTs having different ratios of MnO₂ and MWCNTs are shown. MN-CNT6040, MN-CNT7525 and MN-CNT9010 represent the MN-CNTs having MnO₂ and MWCNT weight ratios of 60:40, 75:25 and 90:10, respectively. It can be seen that the pure MWCNTs show a sharp peak at around 26° and broad weak peaks at around 42°, which are characteristic of MWCNTs [108]. The four broad peaks of the MN-CNT9010 at around 12, 24, 37, and 66° correspond to the crystal planes of (001), (002), (-111), and (-312) in δ -type MnO₂ (JCPDS 80-1098), respectively [69, 71]. They are similar to all the peaks of δ -MnO₂.

the crystal planes of (120), (131), (300), and (160) in γ -type MnO₂ (JCPDS 14-0644), respectively [71, 113]. The MN-CNT7525 presents all the peaks of δ -type and γ -type MnO₂, indicating that the heterostructure of MnO₂ is growth with 75:25 weight ratio of MnO₂ and MWCNT. The weak-intensity diffraction peaks of MWCNTs on the XRD pattern of the MN-CNT may result from both the broad and high diffraction peaks of MNO₂ at around 24° and 22° for δ -type and γ -type MnO₂, which defeats the signal of MWCNTs [109]. The calculated crystallite sizes of MN-CNT9010 and MN-CNT6040, obtained via Scherrer equation, are 7 and 12 nm, respectively. The calculated crystallite sizes of γ -MnO₂ and δ -MnO₂ in MN-CNT7525 are 13 and 8 nm, respectively. The crystallite sizes of δ -MnO₂ and γ -MnO₂ and γ -MnO₂ are the same when they are in the MnO₂ heterostructure of MN-CNT. δ -MnO₂ and γ -MnO₂ possess a layered-structure and a tunneled-structure, respectively. It is suggested that foreign cations can insert to/extract from both a layered-structure and a tunneled-structure, with the result that electrochemical performance can be enhanced by the MNH-CNT and thereby can be useful for energy storage application.

2. Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM)

In Fig. 3.8a, the structure of MN-CNT, having different weight ratios of MnO₂ and MWCNTs, is depicted and the corresponding morphological changes are shown. To determine the morphology of MN-CNTs, FESEM was carried out and the images are displayed in Figs. 3.8b-d. MnO₂ nanostructures are continuously dispersed on the MWCNTs. Besides, the type of MnO₂ changed from δ -MnO₂ to γ -MnO₂, as the amount of KMnO₄ in the solution decreased. To be specific, the flower-like δ -MnO₂ nanostructures, having petals about 100 nm in size in the MN-CNT9010 sample, change to the heterostructure of δ -MnO₂ with petals being the size of 50 nm as well as leaf-like γ -MnO₂ nanostructures having leaves around 150 nm in the MN-CNT7525 sample. It is demonstrated that, by limiting the amount of KMnO₄, the δ -MnO₂

cannot be completely generated. On the contrary, γ -MnO₂ can form while the concentration of KMnO₄ is still low during redox reaction. By continuing to decrease the amount of KMnO₄ to 60 percent by weight, γ -MnO₂ nanostructures can only be observed in the MN-CNT6040 sample. In Fig. B3 of Appendix B, lower magnification FESEM images of MN-CNT9010, MN-CNT7525, and MN-CNT6040 are presented. The MN-CNT, having two nanostructures of **δ**-MnO₂ and γ -MnO₂, assists in increasing the contact area of the smaller petal size of **δ**-MnO₂ between the electrolyte and cathode material; ensuring fast ion transfer in the charge/discharge process [5]. Besides, the γ -MnO₂ in MNH-CNT is comprised not only of randomly arranged 1×1 and 1×2 tunnels, which are beneficial for Zn²⁺ ions intercalation/deintercalation but also accommodates the structural transformation from tunneled-type γ -MnO₂ to the layered-type of Zn_yMnO₂. Such a random-arranged structure can improve the stability of capacity during the cycling process.

In Fig. B4 of Appendix B, transmission electron microscope (TEM) images of MN-CNT having different weight ratios of MnO₂ and MWCNTs are shown. In the case of MN-CNT6040 and MN-CNT7525, it is obvious that MnO₂ formed on the MWCNTs. However, in the case of MN-CNT9010, MWCNTs cannot be seen clearly in the TEM image as a high amount of MnO₂ was loaded. Thus, all parts of the MWCNTs were covered by MnO₂. Transmission electron microscope with energy dispersive spectroscopy (TEM-EDS) (Fig. B5 of Appendix B) confirmed that carbon atoms of MWCNTs existed on MN-CNT9010. This proved to be in good agreement with XRD results (Fig. 3.7), where the presence of MWCNTs in MN-CNT9010 was observed.



Figure 3.8 (a) Schema of changes in morphology of MN-CNT followed by decreasing the content of $KMnO_4$ (b) FESEM image of MN-CNT9010 (c) FESEM image of MN-



CNT7525 and (d) FESEM image of MN-CNT6040.

Figure 3.9 Schema of the chemistry of the zinc-ion battery. The inset on the right shows Zn^{2+} ion insertion into MnO_2 heterostructure of MN-CNT

In Fig. 3.9, the battery configuration of cup cell in this study, which is composed of the MNH-CNT electrode, zinc electrode, and $ZnSO_4$ aqueous electrolyte, is shown. Anodic zinc, dissolved in the form of Zn^{2+} ions into an aqueous electrolyte containing Zn^{2+} ions, rapidly solvates in the form of solvated Zn^{2+} ions during the discharge process. Then, the solvated Zn^{2+} ions diffuse and pass through the separator to the MN-CNT electrode (cathode). The solvated Zn^{2+} ions are desolvated in the form of Zn^{2+} ions [22, 72] and intercalate into MnO_2 heterostructure of MN-CNT, as illustrated by the inset in Fig. 3.9. Further, an electron current starts to flow in the electrical loop from the electrical conduction of MWCNTs. These three processes can be reversed when the charging process occurs. Firstly, Zn^{2+} ions will de-intercalate from the MN-CNT electrode (anode). Then, solvated species are formed. Lastly, Zn^{2+} ions are reduced to Zn and deposited back on the Zn electrode (cathode). The electrode mical reaction may be expressed as in Eq. (3.8) for the Zn electrode and Eq. (3.9) for the MN-CNT electrode:

$$Zn \leftrightarrow Zn^{2+} + 2e^{-}$$

$$Zn^{2+} + 2e^{-} + (\delta + \gamma) - MnO_2 \leftrightarrow (\delta + \gamma) - ZnMnO_2$$

$$(3.8)$$

$$(3.9)$$

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During the electrochemical Zn^{2+} ion insertion, the layered-type δ -MnO₂ structure can transform to spinel-type $ZnMn_2O_4$ with Mn(III) state and layered-type δ -Zn_xMnO₂ with Mn(II) state [80]. Meanwhile, the tunnel-type γ -MnO₂ suffered a structural transformation to spinel-type Mn(III) phase (ZnMn₂O₄), tunnel-type γ -Zn_xMnO₂ and layered-type L-Zn_yMnO₂ [9].

2. Electrochemical performances

The electrochemical properties of δ -MnO₂ and MN-CNT, having different weight ratios of MnO₂ and MWCNTs cathodes, were evaluated by cyclic voltammetry (CV) within the potential range of 1.0-1.8 V vs. Zn/Zn²⁺ at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s. Fig. 3.10a displays CV plots of their corresponding samples. Two distinct peaks of MN-CNT are observed: the cathodic peak at around 1.3 and 1.1 V and the anodic peak at 1.54 and 1.65 V. CV having two peaks, during discharge and charge, exhibits typical characteristics of the electrochemical insertion/extraction of Zn²⁺ ions in MnO₂ structure [114-116]. According to previous studies, these peaks mainly suggest that the insertion/extraction of Zn²⁺ ions into/out of the interlayers of δ -MnO₂ are associated with the reduction of Mn (IV) to Mn (III) and oxidation of Mn (III) to Mn (IV), respectively [9, 29, 61, 79]. It is noted that the cathodic peak of MN-CNT7525 ~1.65 V shifts to higher potential ~1.05 V and the anodic peak of MN-CNT7525 ~1.65 V shifts to higher potential ~1.7 V. This may be affected by the insertion/extraction of zinc ions into/out of the γ -MnO₂ of the MnO₂ heterostructure of MN-CNT cathode.

In contrast, the cathodic peak of δ -MnO₂ shifts to higher potential and the anodic peak shifts to lower potential. The CV curve of MN-CNT exhibits higher peak intensity and a larger enclosed area when compared with the δ -MnO₂, indicating improved electrochemical performance and fast Zn²⁺ ion insertion/extraction in the cathode [11]. These results are consistent with the galvanostatic charge/discharge curves in Fig. 3.10b which have two discharge plateaus at about 1.3 and 1.1 V. The discharge capacity for MN-CNT7525 is 245 mA h/g whereas the δ -MnO₂, MN-CNT6040, and MN-CNT9010 register only 184, 193 and 202 mA h/g, respectively. In addition, MN-CNT7525 shows a larger discharge plateau than that of δ -MnO₂, MN-CNT6040, and MN-CNT9010, suggesting a higher capacity for Zn²⁺ ion insertion into the MnO₂ heterostructure of MN-CNT than in the δ -MnO₂ and single structure MnO₂ of MN-CNT.


Figure 3.10 Electrochemical properties: (a) Cyclic voltammograms at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s (b) Galvanostatic charge-discharge profile at 200 mA/g of the MN-CNT and δ -MnO₂ cathode

In order to compare the battery performance of MN-CNT, having different weight ratios of MnO₂ and MWCNTs, as the cathode for ZIBs, δ -MnO₂ is used as a comparable cathode. Fig. 3.11a displays the cycling behavior of the δ -MnO₂ and MN-

CNT electrodes along with the corresponding coulombic efficiency (CE) of MN-CNT7525, under the specific current density of 400 mA/g in the potential range of 1.0-1.8 V. The initial discharge capacities of MN-CNT6040, MN-CNT7525, MN-CNT9010 and δ -MnO₂ are 177, 236, 135, and 129 mA h/g, respectively.

The lower initial capacity of δ -MnO₂ may result from its low intrinsic electronic conductivity because of the unstable state of Mn^{3+} during Zn-ion insertion [8]. This low capacity of the unsupported δ -MnO₂ (pristine δ -MnO₂) indicates that MWCNTs can enhance electrical conductivity of the cathode active material. It is noted that the MN-CNT7525 exhibited the highest initial capacity. This high initial capacity may the heterostructure of MnO₂ on MWCNTs for Zn²⁺ attributed to be insertion/extraction during the cycling process. The Zn^{2+} ions can insert into both δ -MnO₂, being smaller nanoflower-like with layered-structure, and γ -MnO₂ which is nanoleaf-like with tunnel-structure. Such a high initial capacity is superior to that of the δ -MnO₂ cathode and most reported Zn-ion batteries, including onion-like carbon (OLC) integrated α -MnO₂ nanorods (168 mA h/g at 246 mA/g) [93], δ -MnO₂ nanosheets (133 mA h/g at 100 mA/g) [24], and $ZnMn_2O_4/Mn_2O_3$ (82.6 mA h/g at 500 mA/g) [117].

In the initial cycles, gradual capacity fading was observed for the batteries having δ -MnO₂, MN-CNT6040, and MN-CNT9010 electrodes. However, the battery using MN-CNT7525 electrode showed a higher rate of capacity fading. This capacity fading may be attributed to the dissolution of MnO₂ into the electrolyte during cycling. Moreover, in the case of MN-CNT7525, higher dissolution was observed. After the initial 30 cycles, capacity fading was seen to slow down. This is probably because the equilibrium of Mn dissolution takes place from gradual Mn²⁺ ions dissolution in the electrolyte [20]. Interestingly, around the 20th cycle, the capacity of the MN-CNT7525 electrode starts to decrease gradually. Subsequently, after the 30th cycle, stable capacity is observed. The capacity of the δ -MnO₂, MN-CNT6040, and MN-CNT7525 electrode, and MN-CNT7525 of the capacity of the down.

CNT9010 electrodes, however, continuously decrease until the 100th cycle. The better performance can be due to the structural transformation between δ -MnO₂ and γ -MnO₂ of MNH-CNT [80]. After 100 cycles, the MN-CNT7525 electrode delivers a capacity of 140 mA h/g; Coulombic efficiency being around 100%, indicating its good reversibility during the charging/discharging process. In contrast, the δ -MnO₂, MN-CNT6040, and MN-CNT9010 cathodes deliver capacities of 63, 81, and 96 mA h/g, respectively.

In Fig. 3.11b, rate performances of the δ -MnO₂ and MN-CNTs host material cathodes are displayed. Cycling takes place at various specific current densities of 200, 400, 800 and 1600 mA/g having 5 cycles for each rate. The rate performance of MN-CNT7525 was significantly higher than those of δ -MnO₂, MN-CNT6040, and MN-CNT9010. The MN-CNT7525 cathode can be charged and discharged at a high rate of 1600 mA/g, leading to a discharge and charge capacity of 108 and 95 mA h/g, respectively. It is indicated that the MnO₂ heterostructure of MN-CNT with its small nanoscale morphology of δ -MnO₂ nanoflower-like and short length crystal structure of γ -MnO₂ provides faster ion diffusion rate at high current density. When the current turns back to 200 mA/g, the MN-CNT7525 cathode can deliver both discharge and charge capacity of 226 and 212 mA h/g, respectively. It is clear therefore that the MnO₂ heterostructure of MN-CNT cathode can well be considered as Zn²⁺ ion storage material.



Figure 3.11 Performances of the batteries: (a) Cycling performance of the batteries at 400 mA/g and (b) Rate capability of the batteries at different discharge/charge rates

3. Pseudocapacitive behavior

To further investigate the electrochemical storage mechanism of the MN-CNT7525 electrode, CV curves at different scan rates between 0.25 and 4.0 mV/s in the voltage range 1.0-1.8 V were recorded and shown, as in Fig. 3.12a. It is seen that one maximum reduction peak and oxidation peak distinctly exist in each cycle, with an increase in specific current exhibited, as scan rates are raised. At much higher scan rates, redox peaks are still maintained at an increased specific current. According to previous studies, the peak current (i) of the CV curves allows a power-law relationship with the scan rate (v) and can be used to analyze the charge storage mechanism, as in Eq. (3.10):

$$i = av^b$$

(3.10)

where i and v are the peak specific current and scan rate, respectively, and a, b are adjustable parameters. Eq. (3.10) can be converted to logarithmic form, as in Eq. (3.11):

$$\ln i = b \ln v + \ln a \tag{3.11}$$

In Fig. 3.12b, the plots of $\ln i$ vs $\ln v$ for both oxidation and reduction peaks are shown. The *b*-value denotes the slope of the plots. If *b*-value is approximately equal to 1, the electrochemical system shows pseudocapacitive behavior controlled by a surface faradic reaction, whereas if *b*-value is approximately equal to 0.5, typical ionic diffusion dominates the charge/discharge process by cation intercalation [118]. With scan rates ranging from 0.25 to 4 mV/s, the peak specific current increases linearly with the increase in scan rate. The *b*-values for the peaks of b_o (oxidation process) and b_r (reduction process) are 0.75 and 0.77, respectively. It is indicated that the redox processes of MN-CNT7525 dominated both pseudocapacitive and diffusion kinetics. That is, the insertion/extraction of Zn^{2+} ions occurred not only on the surface but also took place at the pores inside. These results confirm the pseudocapacitive behavior of MN-CNT7525, leading to fast Zn^{2+} intercalation/extraction and excellent long-term cycling stability. Such an outcome may occur with the heterostructure of MnO₂ on MWCNTs, demonstrating the material's suitability as cathode material for ZIBs.

To quantitatively distinguish the capacitive contribution from the current response, the equation can be rewritten as in Eq. (3.12):

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$$i = k_1 v + k_2 v^{1/2} \tag{3.12}$$

where k_1 and k_2 are constants. Thus, the redox reaction is limited by the diffusioncontrolled behavior; the current i at a fixed potential varies as $k_2v^{1/2}$. The capacitive contribution suggests that the peak current i varies as k_1v [119-121]. By plotting $i/v^{1/2}$ vs $v^{1/2}$, k_1 and k_2 are calculated from the slope and the y-axis intercept at the point of a straight line, respectively.

In Fig. 3.12c, the ratio of the pseudocapacitive contribution at various scan rates can be quantitatively determined, and the results are displayed. The capacitive contributions of MN-CNT7525 are 40%, 43%, 46%, 57%, and 74% at scan rates of 0.25, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, and 4.0 mV/s, respectively. It can be seen that as scan rates increase, the capacitive contribution further increases. These results are consistent with the b-values obtained which are around 0.7 for MN-CNT7525.

In Fig. 3.12d, the detail of the pseudocapacitive fraction at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s is presented; 43% of the total charge, denoted by the blue shaded region, comes from capacitive processes. The low capacitive contribution is attributed to the

fast ion diffusion of the MN-CNT7525 electrode, which leads to high capacity and good cycling stability of the battery.





Figure 3.12 (a) Cyclic voltammograms of MN-CNT7525 cycling at different scan rates (b) Analysis of b-value for oxidation and reduction peaks (c) Capacitive contribution ratio of MN-CNT7525 electrode at different scan rates and (d) Capacitive contribution at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s

3.2.3 Materials and methods

Material

Sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄, 95%), zinc sulfate heptahydrate (ZnSO₄·7H₂O, 95%), carboxymethylcellulose sodium salt (CMC, 93%) and Pottasium permanganese (KMnO₄, 99.3%) were supplied by Fujifilm Wako Pure Chemical Corporation (Osaka, Japan). MWCNTs (cocoon type with outer diameter 40-60 nm, 90%) were purchased from Suzhou Tanfeng Graphene Technology Co., Ltd. (Jiangsu, China). Manganese sulfate monohydrate (MnSO₄·H₂O, 99%) was purchased from Ajax Finechem Pty. Ltd. (Sydney, Australia). Nickel (Ni) foam (0.5 mm thick, 100 PPI) was purchased from Qijing Trading Co., Ltd. (Wenzhou, China). Double ring qualitative, Fast101 filter paper was purchased from GE Healthcare (Chicago, IL, USA). Carbon black (Vulcan® XC-72, 99.99%) was supplied by Cabot Corporation (Boston, MA, USA). Graphite foil was purchased from Shenzhen 3KS Electronic Material Co. Ltd. (Shenzhen, China). Zinc sheet (99.99%) was purchased from Sirikul Engineering Ltd., Part. (Samutprakan, Thailand).

Preparation of δ -MnO₂ and MnO₂ heterostructure/MWCNTs (MNH-CNT)

The compared δ -MnO₂ nanoparticles were synthesized by dissolving 1.98 g of KMnO₄ in 60 mL of deionized (DI) water. Next, 0.336 g of MnSO₄·H₂O was dissolved in 20 mL of DI water. Then, MnSO₄·H₂O solution was added dropwise to KMnO₄ solution, and continuous stirring was followed for 30 min. Afterwards, the mixture was transferred into a 100 mL Teflon autoclave and kept at 160 °C for 24 h. in an oil bath. The product was dried at 80 °C for 12 h. It was duly collected and washed with DI water several times. MN-CNT was synthesized via thermal reaction. 300 mg of MWCNTs were ground together in a mortar with KMnO₄. The amount of KMnO₄ was varied (1.35, 1.95, and 2.85 g) to provide different weight ratios of MnO₂ and MWCNTs

by 60:40 (MN-CNT6040), 75:25 (MN-CNT7525), and 90:10 (MN-CNT9010), respectively. Next, the mixed powder was dispersed in 300 mL of water stirring for 10 min. 0.5 mL of concentrated H_2SO_4 was added to the above mixture with an additional 30 min of stirring. After that, the mixed solution was heated in an oil bath at 80 °C with continuous magnetic stirring for 1 h. The precipitate was washed and collected by centrifuging repeatedly with deionized water after the mixture was cooled to room temperature. Then, the solid product was dried in a vacuum at 50 °C for 24 h to obtain MN-CNT composite.

Electrodes and cup cell preparation

The cathode using MN-CNT was prepared by mixing together 70% wt. of MN-CNT, 20% wt. of carbon black, and 10% wt. of carboxymethylcellulose sodium salt binder. For comparison, the cathode of δ -MnO₂ was fabricated the same way using pristine δ -MnO₂ instead of MN-CNT. DI water was used to adjust the viscosity of the slurries. Each mixed slurry was stirred for 24 h at room temperature. Then, it was coated on a graphite foil current collector using a doctor blade and dried at 50 °C under vacuum before it was pressed by hydraulic press at 5 kPa for 1 min. The cathode contained about 5 mg of MN-CNT. Zinc anode was prepared by electrodeposition of zinc from ZnSO₄ (0.5 M) aqueous solution onto Ni foam using zinc sheet as a counter electrode at current density of 60 mA/cm². The amount of Zn deposited was 20 mg/cm². Both cathode and anode were punched into a 16 mm diameter disk. The filter paper was punched into a 20 mm disk and used as the separator. Then, the cathode, anode and separator were fabricated in a cup cell by using 0.3 mL of aqueous ZnSO₄ (1 M) as electrolyte.

Materials Characterization

The phase states of MN-CNT were analyzed using X-Ray Diffraction (XRD, Rigaku Model Miniflex II, Tokyo, Japan) of the powder samples with Cu K α radiation, λ = 1.5418 Å at a scanning range of 5-90°. Field emission-scanning electron microscope (FESEM, JEOL JSM-6701F, Tokyo, Japan) was used to observe the morphological image of MN-CNT. Transmission electron microscope with energy dispersive spectroscopy (TEM-EDS, JEOL JEM-2000FX, Tokyo, Japan) was used to prove the presence of MWCNTs in MN-CNTs.

Electrochemical performances

Electrochemical measurements were carried out using a cup cell. CV was performed by electrochemical measurement system (HZ-5000, Hokuto Denko, Tokyo, Japan) at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s in the voltage range 1.0 - 1.8 V versus Zn^{2+}/Zn . A battery testing system (EF-7100P, Electrofield, Osaka, Japan) was used to investigate the performance of the battery. The CVs for investigating capacitive behavior were tested at scanning rates from 0.25 to 4.0 mV/s between 1.0 and 1.8 V.

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CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Conclusion

It was clear that the electrical conductivity of cathode material using the MnO_2 /carbon material was improved. MnO_2 supported on different allotropes of carbon as a cathode host material improved the electrochemical properties and performances of the rechargeable aqueous electrolyte-based ZIB. Stability of ZIB which used cathode of MnO_2 supported on MWCNTs was better than that which used cathode of MnO_2 supported on graphite.

Part I: δ -MnO₂ nanoflower/graphite cathode for rechargeable aqueous zinc-ion batteries

 δ -MnO₂ nanoflower supported on graphite flake was synthesized and used as an intercalation host material for a rechargeable ZIB. While the XRD studies confirmed the crystallographic structure, the FESEM studies revealed that the sample showed a nanoflower-like morphology having micropores about 50 nm in diameter. This study demonstrated that a diffusion process controlled the electrochemical reactions of the MNG cathode. When tested in ZIB, the MNG sample registered a prominent discharge capacity of 235 mA h/g, which was higher than the discharge capacity of pristine δ-MnO₂ (130 mA h/g). After the 100th cycle, the discharge capacity registered by the δ-MnO₂ was only 63.3 mA h/g whereas the MNG delivered a discharge capacity of 113.4 mA h/g. Moreover, the conductivity of the supporting graphite improved the conductivity by reducing the charge transfer resistance of the cathode materials. The present results concluded that the supporting graphite not only improved the electrical conductivity but also enhanced the specific capacity and the cycling performance of the pristine δ -MnO₂. Thus, MNG is one of promising candidate cathode materials for ZIBs.

Part II: MnO₂ heterostructure on carbon nanotubes as cathode material for aqueous zinc-Ion batteries

It was evident that the MnO₂ heterostructure on MWCNTs proved to be a highperformance cathode for aqueous ZIBs. The incorporation of MWCNTs was found to improve the conductivity of MnO₂. The formation of the δ -MnO₂/ γ -MnO₂ heterostructure on MWCNTs not only enhanced specific capacity but also improved cycling stability of the MnO₂ cathode. Consequently, the battery utilizing the MNH-CNT cathode demonstrated high discharge capacity, high-rate capability, as well as impressive cycling stability; exhibiting its superiority to the pristine δ -MnO₂ electrode. Additionally, the capacitive contribution ratio of 43% at scan rate 0.5 mV/s, reflecting the diffusion-controlled process, played a dominant role in the pseudocapacitive behavior of the MNH-CNT cathode. This work highlighted the design of MnO₂ heterostructure on CNTs for high-performance aqueous ZIBs.

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4.2 Research Limitations ALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

1. Pressed force in coin cell of Part I may be different from that in cup cell of Part II. The different force may affect the distance between the electrodes.

2. Battery testing temperatures of Part I and Part II was different due to different location of experiment. The viscosity of electrolytes, which were varying with the temperature, were different. This affected the diffusion rate of zinc-ion in the electrolyte.

4.3 Recommendations

1. The different weight ratio of MnO_2 and graphite in Part I should be studied. This study only investigated with weight ratio of MnO_2 and graphite at 20:80. Different weight ratio of MnO_2 and graphite may improve more performance of the battery.

2. Binder should be developed for good adhesion as well as good electrical conductivity. The resistance of binder is a parameter which affects the electron conduction of cathode.

3. Anode should be improved to avoid the hydrogen evolution reaction. Hydrogen gas from hydrogen evolution reaction, which is a side reaction at anode, may damage of the battery.



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APPENDIX A

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ZIB	Zinc-ion battery
MNG	MnO ₂ on graphite
MNH-CNT	MnO ₂ heterostructure on multi-walled carbon nanotubes
MN-CNT	MnO ₂ on multi-walled carbon nanotubes
MN-CNT6040	MN-CNT having MnO_2 and MWCNT weight ratio of 60:40
MN-CNT7525	MN-CNT having MnO_2 and MWCNT weight ratio of 75:25
MN-CNT9010	MN-CNT having MnO_2 and MWCNT weight ratio of 90:10
MIB	Metal-ion battery
LIB	Lithium-ion battery
SHE	Standard hydrogen potential
CNT	Carbon nanotube
SWCNT	Single-walled carbon nanotube
MWCNT	Multi-walled carbon nanotube
CNF	Carbon nanofiber
XRD	X-ray diffractionกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
FESEM	Field emission scanning electron microscope
TEM-EDS	Transmission electron microscope with energy dispersive spectroscopy
EIS	Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy
CV	Cyclic voltammetry
CE	Coulombic efficiency
OLC	Onion-like carbon
DI water	Deionized water

APPENDIX B





Figure B1 XRD pattern and crystallographic structure of the pristine $\delta\text{-MnO}_2.$



Figure B2 SEM images of (a) MNG, and (b) the pristine MnO₂ compound at different magnification.



Figure B3 FESEM images at low magnification of (a) MN-CNT9010 (b) MN-CNT7525 and

(c) MN-CNT6040



Figure B4 TEM images of (a) MN-CNT9010 (b) MN-CNT7525 and (c) MN-CNT6040



Figure B5 TEM-EDS of (a) MN-CNT9010 (b) MN-CNT7525 and (c) MN-CNT6040

APPENDIX C

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

1. S. Khamsanga, R. Pornprasertsuk, T. Yonezawa, A. A. Mohamad and S. Kheawhom, " δ -MnO₂ nanoflower/graphite cathode for rechargeable aqueous zinc ion batteries", *SCIENTIFIC REPORTS* (2019) 9, 8441.

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