A sustainable aqueous Zn-I2 battery

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ABSTRACT

Rechargeable metal-iodine batteries are an emerging attractive electrochemical energy storage technology that combines metallic anodes with halogen cathodes. Such batteries using aqueous electrolytes represent a viable solution for the safety and cost issues associated with organic electrolytes. A hybrid-electrolyte battery architecture has been adopted in a lithium-iodine battery using a solid ceramic membrane that protects the metallic anode from contacting the aqueous electrolyte. Here we demonstrate an eco-friendly, low-cost zinc-iodine battery with an aqueous electrolyte, wherein active I_2 is confined in a nanoporous carbon cloth substrate. The electrochemical reaction is confined in the nanopores as a single conversion reaction, thus avoiding the production of I_3^- intermediates. The cathode architecture fully utilizes the active I₂, showing a capacity of 255 mAh·g⁻¹ and low capacity cycling fading. The battery provides an energy density of ~151 Wh·kg⁻¹ and exhibits an ultrastable cycle life of more than 1,500 cycles.

1 Introduction

The pursuit of reliable, low-cost, and eco-friendly electrochemical energy storage devices is mainly motivated by energy crises and looming environmental concerns [1, 2]. Among various energy storage paradigms [3, 4], rechargeable metal-iodine batteries (MIBs) are one of the most attractive candidates due to their high energy density, low-cost, and abundant iodine resources $[5, 6]$. A rechargeable Li- I_2 battery was initially proposed in the 1970s, and it had a cycle

life of more than 100 cycles. Related works have been presented in the following decades [7–9]. Very recently, interest in various MIBs (Na- I_2 [10], Mg- I_2 [11], Al- I_2 [12]) has increased because of advanced analysis techniques and thriving application of nanotechnology for electrodes fabrication. However, the reported batteries are constructed using flammable and toxic organic electrolytes, thus raising safety concerns. Hybrid-electrolyte $Li-I₂$ batteries both in static and flow models were systematically investigated by Zhao et al. [13, 14]. In these batteries, a Li-only conductive

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ceramic membrane (LATP) was employed to separate the metallic Li anode and the aqueous cathode. The batteries demonstrated a high voltage (~ 3.5 V), high Coulombic efficiency (~ 100%), and notable energy density (~ 0.33 kWh·kg⁻¹). Further, the use of a low-cost, eco-friendly aqueous catholyte favored large-scale storage applications. However, the flammable organic anolyte and high-cost solid-state LATP membrane caused safety concerns. Therefore, MIBs using only aqueous electrolytes are urgently required.

Among aqueous MIBs, the $Zn-I_2$ couple, which is based on the reversible conversion reaction $Zn + I_2 \leftrightarrow$ $ZnI₂$, is a promising candidate. Metallic zinc is a high energy density anode and is stable in water. Compared to rechargeable Li-ion batteries, which use organic electrolytes, Zn-air batteries, which have a limited cycle life, the $Zn-I_2$ couple demonstrates improved safety because of the use of a mild aqueous electrolyte and the fast redox reaction. These features increase the possibility of high cycling performance. A $Zn-I₂$ prototype battery was first reported in the 1980s, but its development was plagued by a series of problems such as lack of appropriate iodine carriers, severe selfdischarge, and Zn dendritic growth during cycling [15]. Recently, the battery performance has been improved by conversion of the aqueous I_3^-/I^- couple [16, 17]. However, storing an electroactive species in electrolytes limits the atom utilization efficiency of the iodine species and the battery energy density. To extend the scope of battery application and investigate new electrochemical reactions, the active iodine species requires to be robustly confined in the solid cathode, where the corresponding electrochemical reaction also occurs.

Herein, we demonstrate an aqueous rechargeable $Zn-I₂$ battery (ZIB). There are two favorable features of the proposed architecture. 1) Iodine is strategically infused into a conductive nanoporous activated carbon cloth (ACC) by sublimation of $I₂$, which drastically enhances battery performance; 2) a non-flammable and environmentally benign aqueous electrolyte instead of a toxic organic electrolyte is employed. This facilitates the preparation of safe and eco-friendly batteries. The achieved ZIBs exhibit a high specific capacity (255 mAh·g[−]¹ at 0.5 C) and long-term cyclability $($ 2 1,500 cycles) at \geq 99% Coulombic efficiency at a high

current rate (5 C). Moreover, the batteries demonstrate superior electrochemical stability with a high capacity retention of 87% over a 30-day rest period.

2 Experimental

2.1 Preparation of ACC/I₂ cathodes

Briefly, a commercial nanoporous ACC was treated with dilute HCl solution. Certain amount of iodine (Sinopharm Chemical Reagents Co., Ltd., 99.9%) was then mixed with the ACC in a stainless-steel reactor. The reactor was heated to 80 ° C for 10 min. The iodine content in the ACC was determined by subtracting the mass of the ACC from that of the obtained $ACCI₂$ composite.

2.2 Material characterization

The morphology and elemental mapping of the materials were studied using a ZEISS MERLIN microscope at 5 kV. Surface area and pore size distribution were determined using a surface area and pore size analyzer (Micromeritics ASAP2020) at 77 K. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed on a Thermo ESCALAB 250 instrument configured with monochromatic Al Kα radiation (1,486.6 eV). X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements were performed using a Rigaku Miniflex II diffractometer with Cu K α radiation (λ = 1.5406 Å). Thermogravimetric analysis was conducted using a NETZSCH TG-DSC analyzer. The heating rate was 5 ° C·min[−]¹ from room temperature to 500 ° C under Ar atmosphere. Raman measurements were performed on a HORIBA/LabRAM HR Evolution microscope using a 532-nm diode-pumped solid-state laser. An aqueous solution of $0.01 M I_2$ and $0.1 M K I$ was characterized as reference for the I_3^- species. The positive electrodes at different voltage stages were exfoliated from batteries and detected instantly without washing. For post-mortem scanning electron microscopy (SEM) studies, cells were disassembled in air and the electrodes were collected and rinsed thoroughly with distilled water.

2.3 Electrochemistry

Aqueous electrolytes, namely, zinc sulfate, zinc nitrate,

and zinc acetate, were prepared as 1 M solutions. Linear sweeping voltammetry of the electrolytes was performed in three-electrode vial cells with a stainless-steel mesh as the working electrode, zinc as the counter electrode, and saturated calomel electrode as the reference electrode. Cyclic voltammetry of the electrolytes was carried out using zinc as the reference electrode. The ACC/I_2 composite was used as the cathode directly and punched into 2 cm^2 electrode coins. The iodine loading was ~ 4.5 mg·cm⁻². Zinc foil (Sinopharm Chemical Reagents Co., Ltd, 99.5%) of thickness 0.2 mm was cut into a disc of 16 mm diameter and polished with sandpaper before use. The ZIBs were assembled in air using $\sim 100 \mu L$ of 1 M ZnSO₄ aqueous electrolyte and filter paper as separators. The cycling characteristics of the cells were assessed under galvanostatic conditions with a Land battery measurement system (Wuhan, China). The current density was based on the weight of iodine $(1 C =$ 211 mA·g[−]¹). Cyclic voltammetry was performed on a ZAHNER Thales electrochemistry workstation.

3 Results and discussion

The ZIB was constructed by an ACC/I_2 cathode, a Zn anode, and a mild aqueous zinc sulfate electrolyte, as displayed in Fig. 1(a). The fibers of the ACC are nanoporous and get impregnated with iodine due to iodine's low sublimation temperature. Iodine species transforms between iodine and iodide in nanopores of the ACC during cycling, while zinc ions undergo reversible stripping/deposition on anodes correspondingly. The morphology of the prepared $ACC/I₂$ cathode was examined by SEM, as shown in Fig. 1(b). There is no residual I_2 on the ACC surface, and the elemental mapping images demonstrate that elemental iodine is homogeneously distributed within the carbon fibers (Fig. 1(c)). The specific surface area reduced from 1,040 to 800 $m^2 \cdot g^{-1}$ after I₂ impregnation (Fig. 1(d) and Fig. S1 in the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM)), which demonstrates that I_2 is trapped inside the nanopores. The XRD patterns of the $ACC/I₂$ composite display no crystalline iodine peaks as I_2 is sequestered (Fig. S2 in the ESM). In addition, the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy analysis depict iodine to be mostly physically adsorbed by carbon (Fig. S3

Figure 1 (a) Schematic of ZIB architecture using I_2 -loaded carbon cloth as cathode and detailed cathode structure. (b) SEM image of ACC/I_2 composite. (c) Photograph and elemental mapping profiles of elemental C and I of ACC/I_2 composite. (d) N_2 -adsorption-desorption isotherm profiles of ACC/I_2 composite. (e) Thermogravimetric analysis curves of $ACC/I₂$ composite.

in the ESM) [18]. The physical confinement by the porous structure and good affinity of carbon to iodine significantly improve the thermostability of I_{2} , which was verified by thermogravimetric analysis curves (Fig. 1(e)). No mass loss of I_2 is observed below 180 °C after being strategically infused into the ACC.

We first screened the aqueous electrolytes, namely, zinc sulfate, zinc acetate, and zinc nitrate (Fig. S4 in the ESM). The potentiodynamic behaviors of the Zn electrodes were compared, and the voltammetry in ZnSO4 showed reversible electrochemical deposition/ stripping of Zn, while different processes were observed in $Zn(Ac)_2$ and $Zn(NO_3)_2$ solutions because of the low activity of acetate ions and $NO₃$ ⁻. Moreover, the undesirable reaction of $O₂$ evolution was obviously suppressed in $1 M ZnSO₄$, and a wide working potential window of \sim 2.4 V was observed. Accordingly, 1 M ZnSO₄ aqueous solution was adopted as the electrolyte.

Typical galvanostatic discharge/charge curves at 0.5 C are shown in Fig. 2(a). A very high capacity of 255 mAh·g⁻¹ is obtained, which is higher than the theoretical capacity of I_2 and that of previously reported ZIBs [15]. This is attributed to the capacitance behavior of the ACC (Fig. S5 in the ESM). Different from two pairs of plateaus observed for organic MIBs, only one pair of pronounced flat plateaus at \sim 1.2 V is observed, which suggests a different electrochemical

Figure 2 (a) Typical galvanostatic discharge/charge profiles at 0.5 C rate. (b) Cyclic voltammograms in the initial three cycles. (c) Raman spectra of ACC/I₂ cathode at different voltage states in cycling. The black line is the reference spectrum of I_3^- . (d) Dissolution behaviors of ACC/I₂ cathode. ACC/I₂ composite and equal weight of iodine (~ 60 mg) were immersed into electrolyte solution.

reaction mechanism.

To understand the reaction mechanism, cyclic voltammograms were obtained (Fig. 2(b)). The initial three cycles almost overlap, proving that the electrochemical reaction is highly reversible. A wide horizontal region with capacitive characteristics is further related to capacitance behavior. The peak currents versus square root of scan rates is linear, demonstrating diffusion-controlled behavior (Fig. S6 in the ESM).

One pair of redox peaks was obtained, as opposed to the case of previously reported non-aqueous MIBs. In typical two-step MIBs, the cathode reaction can be described as $I_2 \leftrightarrow I_3^- \leftrightarrow I^-$. This reaction pathway decreases I_2 utilization efficiency and limits the battery energy density. Our presented results, just like all solid-state Li- I_2 batteries [19], involve a single conversion process of iodine to iodide ions without polyiodide intermediates. To confirm this hypothesis, the ZIB is operated at −2 ° C. The kinetics of the discharge are lowered to deconvolute any multi-step plateaus that would otherwise be smeared [20]. The discharge capacity declines due to low temperature, and a single two-phase region is demonstrated obviously at \sim 1.2 V (Fig. S7 in the ESM). Additionally, no characteristic signals of polyiodide, which are usually located around 120 and 110 cm^{-1} [21], are detected in the Raman spectra of the $ACC/I₂$ electrode at different states of charge (Fig. 2(c)). The absence of

polyiodide significantly improves cycling stability, as the diffusion of highly soluble intermediates in the electrolyte undoubtedly deteriorates the cycle performance [22]. Additionally, the absence of polyiodide circumvents the employment of special electrolyte additives or ultra-high concentration electrolytes, which are adopted to alleviate the disadvantages of polyiodide intermediate [11, 23]. The dissolution behavior of the ACC/I_2 cathode in the electrolyte was also studied. The color of the electrolyte did not change even after 10 days (Fig. 2(d)), proving that the dissolution of I_2 is highly impeded by incorporation of I_2 within the nanoporous ACC.

Figure 3(a) displays long cycling stability of galvanostatic discharge/charge. Only a slight performance fading in the specific capacity and voltage profiles is observed. The battery performance is further reflected in the rate performance (Fig. 3(b)). Even at a high rate of 5 C, the batteries deliver a high capacity and stable performance, and when the current is decreased, the capacity is almost restored. Further long-term measurements show a high capacity retention (Fig. 3(c)) as the capacity decreases from \sim 240 to 220 mAh·g[−]¹ after 500 cycles at 1 C. Even at 5 C (Fig. $3(d)$), an impressive \sim 90% of the highest achievable capacity (160 mAh·g[−]¹) is available after 1,500 cycles. The Coulombic efficiency (≥ 99% for the cycling duration and all rates) points to quantitative utilization of

the electrical charge. Studies on cycling performance suggest that ZIBs have much higher reversibility and durability than reported non-aqueous MIBs [10–12]. The morphology and elemental mapping of the $ACC/I₂$ cathode after long-term cycling were also studied. The surface is smooth without any obvious phase change, and the elemental iodine is homogeneously distributed within the carbon fibers even after 300 cycles, proving iodine's robust confinement in the nanoporous ACC (Fig. 3(e) and Figs. S8 and S9 in the ESM). The superior electrochemical performance should also ascribe to stability of the Zn anode in the aqueous $ZnSO₄$ electrolyte. In the near-neutral electrolyte, the zincate ions $[Zn(OH)_4]^2$, which initiate dendritic growth, do not appear. No dendritic growth on the Zn surface is further confirmed in the postmortem analysis of the cells (Fig. S10 in the ESM).

Severe self-discharge is a notorious obstacle in the practical application of MIBs [24]. Therefore, capacity profiles of ZIBs after a long duration of rest were studied (Figs. 4(a) and 4(b)). The battery was galvanostatically cycled and then rested at open circuit.

Figure 3 (a) Comparative cycling performance at 0.5 C for 200 cycles. (b) Rate capability at varying C rates. (c) Long-term cycling performance at 1 C for 500 cycles. (d) Extended cycling performance at 5 C with > 90% capacity retention (with respect to the highest capacity of 160 mAh·g⁻¹) maintained after 1,500 cycles. The insets are images of lab-scale ZIB. (e) The mapping profiles of elemental iodine of ACC/I₂ cathode after 300 cycles.

Figure 4 (a) Galvanostatic discharge and charge capacity profiles and corresponding Coulombic efficiency of ZIBs. (b) Capacity retention of ZIBs after resting at open circuit. (c) Overpotential and energy efficiency profiles of ZIBs.

Even after 30 days, the battery still showed 87% capacity, indicating that self-discharge is highly mitigated. The performance is superior to that of conventional aqueous batteries [25]. Additionally, the Coulombic efficiency was still around 100% after resting. These phenomena are associated with the good confinement of I_2 to the ACC. Iodine was strongly immobilized in the pores of the ACC, which effectively restrained iodine diffusion to the anode. Furthermore, the ZIBs displayed a high energy efficiency of > 90% with a minor voltage gap of \sim 50 mV between charge and discharge at the midpoint of the voltage profiles during long-term cycling (Fig. 4(c)). This is the best result among those obtained for previously reported organic MIBs [10–12] and can be ascribed to the following: 1) the intentional impregnation of electronic insulating I_2 in the nanopores of conductive ACC fibers improving conductivity of the composite electrode and 2) the ionic conductivities of aqueous electrolytes (up to 1 S·cm[−]¹) being much higher than those of non-aqueous ones (~ 1–10 mS·cm[−]¹), which facilitates electron transportation.

The combination of superior reversible $ACCI₂$ cathodes, dendrite-free Zn anodes, and energetic conversion reaction entails high-performance ZIBs. A lab-scale cell was also assembled to estimate the practical utilization potential of the as-prepared ZIBs. The cell delivered a specific energy of 151 Wh·kg⁻¹ using iodine and zinc metal, which is much higher than that of aqueous lithium-ion batteries [26–28]. After the initial 50 cycles, the capacity changed negligibly (Fig. S11 in the ESM).

4 Conclusions

In conclusion, high-performance rechargeable aqueous ZIBs based on nanoporous activated carbon cloth/iodine cathodes are demonstrated here. Iodine is strongly confined by the porous carbon fibers and undergoes a conversion reaction without the formation of polyiodide intermediates. A high reversible energy density of 151 Wh⋅kg⁻¹, a capacity retention of more than 90% after 1,500 cycles, and a high capacity retention of 87% after extended rest time are observed. The combination of the superior electrochemical

performance, an aqueous electrolyte, and ease of overall battery assembly helps in meeting the requirements of high-performance, eco-friendly, and safe energy storage applications.

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Electronic Supplementary Material: Supplementary material (the pore size distribution, XRD and XPS patterns of ACC/I_2 composite, CV profiles of electrolytes, capacitance behaviors of ACC, CV profiles of $ACCI₂$ composite, discharge profiles of cell at low temperature, XRD patterns and SEM images of $ACC/I₂$ cathodes after 300 cycles, SEM images of Zn anodes, cycling performance of lab-scale cell) is available in the online version of this article at https://doi.org/10.1007/s12274- 017-1920-9.

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