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Electrochemical Characterisation of Sol-Gel Derived SnO₂ for Supercapacitor Application

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Abstract: Pseudocapacitive properties of SnO₂ and Sb-doped SnO₂ were determined in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ KCl solution. The samples were prepared by sol-gel method and analysed by X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD) and field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE SEM). Rietveld refinement of XRPD data showed the changes in unit cell parameters due to the incorporation of Sb³⁺ into the host SnO₂ lattice, while FE SEM pointed out the differences in morphology caused by doping. Specific capacitance values of 3.67 and 6.89 F g⁻¹ were obtained for SnO₂ and Sbdoped SnO₂, respectively. Reaction mechanism of SnO₂ that corresponds to the obtained mass change was proposed. It was shown that redox reactions of SnO₂ and Sb-doped SnO₂ are dependent on structural changes since different mass change properties were obtained in comparison to the previous reports carried out for other metal oxides.

Keywords: SnO₂, Sb-doped SnO₂, supercapacitors, cyclic voltammetry, electrochemical quartz crystal nanobalance.

INTRODUCTION

N recent years, a great deal of attention has been paid to supercapacitors due to high power density that can be achieved. Their development is focused on active materials that are required to provide both high power and high energy density. Commercially available supercapacitors mostly contain carbon as active material and their capacitive mechanism is based on double layer charging / discharging. Specific capacitance values of these materials are limited to 200 F g⁻¹ and governed by carbon specific surface area and electrolyte accessibility to the highly developed surface. Therefore, in order to achieve higher specific capacitance, different materials, such as metal oxides and conductive polymers, have been investigated.^[1-3] These materials have different charge storage mechanism that includes reversibile redox reaction with pseudocapacitive response. It is well known that RuO2 has outstanding pseudocapacitive properties with high specific capacitance values that goes up to 720 F g^{-1.[4]} However, RuO₂ is expensive and rather rare oxide and for that reason there

are continuous attempts to replace it with cheaper metal oxides such as MnO₂, Fe₂O₃, Co₃O₄, V₂O₅ and SnO₂, as well as with metal oxide composites containing carbon, carbon nanotube or graphene.^[2,5,8,9] Hence, it is important for these materials to meet requirements related to abundance and environmental safety.

SnO₂ possesses unique optical and electrical properties that enables its application in catalysis, gas sensors, solar cells and transparent electrode materials. Tin-based materials attract also a considerable attention as an electrode material for other energy storage applications.^[10–19] SnO₂ has been used as anode material for Li secondary batteries,^[10,11] but its pseudocapacitive properties were also studied.^[12-19] In order to overcome the problems addressed to SnO₂, such as electrical conductivity and structural stability of SnO₂, it is very often prepared in the presence of graphene,[5,8] carbon, $^{\left[9,11,13,16,18,19\right]}$ other metal oxides $^{\left[12,15\right]}$ or with a hollow structure.^[10]

J. Liu et al.[12] have successfully fabricated pristine Fe_3O_4 / SnO_2 core / shell nanorods on Ti-substrate and



investigated their electrochemical performance for energy storage. The nanorods have shown good cycling stability of up to 2000 charging / discharging cycles and displayed high capacitance promising in thin-film supercapacitors. It has been concluded that the charge storage includes redox reactions of SnO_2 followed by intercalation of the electrolyte cations (Na⁺) into the SnO_2 structure.

S. Ren et al.^[13] showed that carbon-coated SnO₂ hollow spheres have good capacitive properties with capacitance values ranging from 30-45 F g⁻¹. Y.S. Lee et al.^[14] studied SnO₂ and Co-doped SnO₂ nanoparticle obtained by hydrothermal method. The obtained product showed good pseudocapacitive properties within potential range from -0.8 to -0.1 V in 1 mol dm⁻³ H₂SO₄ and specific capacitance values up to 840 F g^{-1} at 10 mV $s^{-1}.$ V. Velmurugan et al.[8] have shown that overall specific capacitance of SnO₂/graphene composite electrodes corresponds to the combined contribution from electrochemical double layer charging and pseudocapacitive behaviour of the composite. The resultant specific capacitance was 50 F g⁻¹ in the case of pure SnO₂ and 100 F g⁻¹ for SnO_2 / graphene composite at the scan rate of 50 mV s⁻¹. At low scan rates the authors have obtained much higher values of specific capacitance, 470 and 818 F g⁻¹ for the same electrode. However, supercapacitors should have high capacitance at much higher charge / discharge rates and therefore low scan rates are not relevant for its characterisation. From the previous investigations,[12-19] it is evident that specific capacitance value of SnO₂ can vary significantly, depending on the method of preparation. Since SnO₂ was investigated in various potential ranges, it is not completely clear in which potential range SnO₂ pseudocapacitive properties should be optimally utilized.

The aim of this work was to determine a potential range at which the most of SnO₂ pseudocapacitive properties can be optimally utilised and to propose the reaction mechanism responsible for SnO₂ pseudocapacitive response in neutral aqueous electrolyte solutions. In the previous investigations, mostly composite materials containing SnO₂ were investigated wherein both double layer charging and pseudocapacitance contributed to overall capacitance. Although better capacitive properties have been reported for composite materials, additional investigations of pure SnO2 are required to clarify its pseudocapacitive behaviour. In order to improve the SnO₂ performances, Sb-doped SnO₂ was also investigated in this work. The pure and Sb-doped SnO2 were successfully synthesized via simple wet chemical process (i.e., sol-gel method). The prepared materials were characterized by means of cyclic voltammetry, guartz crystal nanobalance (EQCN), X-Ray powder diffraction (XRPD) and field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE SEM).

EXPERIMENTAL

SnO₂ was prepared by the sol-gel method as follows. In a typical synthesis, SnCl₂ (Acros Organics) was dissolved in 10 mL of absolute ethanol (Gram-Mol) to prepare 0.3 mol dm⁻³ solution. The solution was added drop-wise to 50 mL of 9 : 1 ethanol / water mixture and consequently colloid suspension was obtained. Gelous precipitate, obtained from colloidal suspension, was washed several times with water in order to remove Cl-. Washed precipitate was dried at 120 °C, during 1 h and afterwards heated at 500 °C during 2 h in air. In order to prepare Sbdoped SnO₂, the absolute ethanol solution of 0.3 mol dm⁻³ SnCl₂ was added to 0.03 mol dm⁻³ absolute ethanol solution of SbCl₃ (Lach-Ner). Both solutions were mixed in the ratio that gives the final Sn:Sb mole ratio of 1 : 0.03. Obtained solution was exposed to ultrasonic agitation for 15 min and added drop-wise to the mixture of 50 mL of 9 : 1 ethanol / water. The same washing, drying and heating procedures were carried out as in the case of pure SnO₂ preparation.

To prepare electrodes, the obtained SnO_2 and $Sb-doped SnO_2$ powders were mixed with paraffin oil (Fluka) and the resulting slurry was spread onto a glassy carbon support. The electrode layers were finally formed by heating at 450 °C for 45 min. The geometric electrode area was 0.15 cm² and the mass of layers were 5 mg.

For the electrochemical quartz crystal nanobalance (EQCN) measurements, the frequency of the quartz crystal coated with platinum was monitored by SEIKO EG&G QCA 917 quartz crystal nano-balance connected to the potentiostat. The fundamental frequency was 9 MHz and the integral sensitivity was 8.19×10^{-7} Hz cm² g⁻¹. The working area of an electrode and piezoelectrically active area were 0.2 cm². The mass of material applied on an EQCN platinum support was approximately 50 µg. The electrode was prepared by the same procedure as to apply SnO₂ and Sb-doped SnO₂ on glassy carbon support.

Cyclic voltammetry experiments were conducted in an one-compartment three-electrode electrochemical cell by means of Potentiostat/Galvanostat PAR, model 263A. Pt-foil served as counter-electrode (0.5 cm²), and saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as the reference electrode. All potentials in this work are referred to SCE. SnO₂-based layers were tested by cyclic voltammetry and the EQCN method in the potential region from -0.5 to 0.8 V in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ KCl solution at scan rates of 10–300 mV s⁻¹. The experiments were carried out at room temperature ($t = 23 \pm 2$ °C). A solution of 0.5 mol dm⁻³ KCl was prepared by using bi-distilled water and KCl (Kemika, p.a.).

Structural characterization was performed by the Xray powder diffraction (XRPD) at room temperature using a Philips MPD 1880 counter diffractometer with monochromatized CuK α radiation. Data was collected in the 2 θ range from 20 to 80°, with a fixed counting time of 2 s per step. Rietveld refinement on XRPD data was performed in HighScoreXpert 4.5 program using the pseudo-Voigt profile function and the polynomial background model. Six background parameters, zero-point shift, mixing parameter (describing contributions of Gaussian and Lorentzian profile to the total line profile), line width parameters (U, V, W), and asymmetry parameter were included in the refinement together with the structural parameters. Silicon powder (99.999 %, Koch-Light Lab Ltd., UK) was used as a standard for instrumental diffraction-line broadening. Uncertainty values associated with XDR parameters are given in brackets and they represent the mean error that is equal to square root of variance.

FE SEM images were obtained on JSM-7000F thermal field emission scanning electron microscope manufactured by Jeol Ltd. FE SEM was coupled with EDS/INCA 350 (energy dispersive X-ray analyser) manufactured by Oxford Instruments Ltd. The samples were not coated with a conductive layer.

Thermal analysis was performed using thermogravimetric analyzer TA instrument Q 500. The water content of the material was estimated from the amount of weight loss in temperature range from 25 °C up to 700 °C assuming that SnO₂ at 700 °C is completely anhydrous. Samples were heated at rate 10 °C min⁻¹ in air gas flow of 40 mL min⁻¹. Physisorbed water was estimated from weight loss up to 100 °C while chemisorbed water was estimated from weight loss at temperatures above 200 °C.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 shows Rietveld refinements for pure and Sb-doped SnO_2 powders, which were heated at 500 °C during 2 h. For both samples, the diffraction lines (*hkl*): 110, 101, 200, 211, 220, 002, 310, 112, 301, 202 and 321 are present and agree well with the reflections of tetragonal rutile SnO_2 structure

(169032-ICSD) which was used as the structural model during the Rietveld refinement. Based on XRPD patterns, no impurity phases are present in both samples. Rietveld refinement showed that the pure SnO₂ sample crystallizes in the tetragonal unit cell with parameters a = 4.741(2) Å and c = 3.194(2) Å, while in the case of Sb-doped SnO₂ sample, a small, but a distinct difference in the unit-cell parameters was observed (a = 4.759(1) Å and c = 3.197(1) Å). Observed increase of the lattice parameters can result from the substitution of Sn⁴⁺ by larger Sb³⁺ at crystallographic Wyckoff position 2a (0,0,0). During the Rietveld refinement, beside the unit-cell parameters, the occupancy parameter of Wyckoff position 4f, where oxygen anions is located, has also been refined. Unlike the pure sample having the formula Sn₂O₄, the Sb-doped sample showed the decreased oxygen occupancy. Hence, it can be associated to Sn_{2-x}Sb_xO_{3.96(1)} formulae. Observed decrease in the oxygen content is consistent with the charge balance requirements due to the doping. The incorporation of Sb3+ at the position of tetravalent Sn has to be compensated by the decrease of oxygen content in order to preserve the overall neutrality of the compound. The X-ray line broadening analysis was also conducted during the Rietveld refinement on both samples. The average crystallite size decreased with the Sb-doping, from 31(1) nm for pure, undoped SnO₂ sample, to 19(2) nm for Sb-doped sample. On the other hand, the lattice strain (ε) increased with doping, from 0.09(1) % for pure SnO_2 to 0.21(2) % for Sb-doped sample. Such finding can be explained by the fact that the incorporation of Sb³⁺ is accompanied with the generation of lattice defects in SnO₂. The defects increase the lattice strain, and consequently, slows down the growth of crystallites in the case of doped sample.

Although the difference in crystallite sizes between doped and un-doped sample, calculated from X-ray line broadening analysis, is not so pronounced, the effect of doping on overall morphology is quite obvious for electron



Figure 1. Rietveld refinements for SnO₂ and Sb-doped SnO₂ samples. Experimental patterns are given as red lines while the calculated diffraction patterns are shown by blue lines. Diffraction positions for the SnO₂ and Sb-doped SnO₂ are shown by green and violet vertical marks, respectively. The inset shows Sb-doped SnO₂ structure obtained upon the structure refinement.





Figure 2. SEM images of: a) SnO₂ and b) Sb-doped SnO₂.

microscopy images shown in Figure 2. The particles of pure SnO_2 sample are assembled very tightly, showing a quite compact morphology (Figure 2a), whereas the SEM image of Sb-doped SnO_2 sample clearly shows the individual particles and some small agglomerates separated with significant number of voids and channels (Figure 2b).

Figure 3 shows the cyclic voltammograms of SnO₂ and Sb-doped SnO₂ deposited onto glassy carbon support. It is evident from the recorded responses that SnO₂ shows high currents in a wide potential range, and no redox peaks are observed. More significant activity of both materials was observed in potential range more negative to 0 V in comparison to the activity in positive potential range. That is in accordance with redox reaction potential characteristic for oxidised tin species.^[20] Similar electrochemical performances and similar specific capacitance values were obtained for SnO₂ hollow spheres.^[13] These characteristics could provide its application as a negative electrode in supercapacitor. Moreover, it would be a perfect counterelectrode for one of the most *promising* candidates for positive electrode material, *i.e.* MnO₂.^[1,21–25]



Figure 3. Cyclic voltammograms of SnO_2 and Sb-doped SnO_2 deposited onto glassy carbon support, 50 mV s⁻¹.

In literature, a reaction mechanism of SnO_2 is related to the following reversible process:^[16]

$$(SnO_x)_{surface} + C^+ + e^- \rightleftharpoons (SnO_x^-C^+)_{surface}$$
(1)

that involves surface double layer charging, or:

$$\text{SnO}_x + \text{C}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{SnO}_x^-\text{C}^+$$
 (2)

that is followed by intercalation of supporting electrolyte cations, C⁺, and / or protons upon reduction and deintercalation upon oxidation. These mechanisms are in accordance with those reported for other metal oxides.^[26,27]

From the results obtained in this work, it is evident that ideal capacitive behaviour that includes constant current in wide potential range is not registered.^[28] Also, it is apparent that the significant electrochemical activity was registered at the negative potentials . Therefore, to analyse charge storage capacitance, the electrode was cycled at different scan rates in the potential range from 0 V to -0.5 V (Figure 4). More negative potentials were omitted in order to avoid reduction of SnO₂ to metallic tin. The obtained results reveal that tested materials retained similar shape of cyclic voltammetry curve at different scan rates (Figure 3), from 10 to 300 mV s⁻¹, which is necessary condition for supercapacitor application.

To determine the capacitance values of the obtained layer, the integration of the cyclic voltammogram curves was performed, and is specific capacitance, C_s , F g⁻¹, was calculated according to the equation:

$$Cs = \frac{\int_{E_1}^{E_2} IdE}{2vm(E_1 - E_2)}$$
(3)

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where, *I* is the current, A, *E* is the potential, V, *m* is the mass of active material, g, ν is the scan rate, V s⁻¹ and E_1 and E_2 are the cycling limits, V.

Capacitive values registered for SnO₂ ranged from 2.36 to 3.67 F g⁻¹ while capacitive values for Sb-doped SnO₂ varied from 4.06 to 6.89 F g⁻¹ (Table 1). It can be assumed that doping process has increased material conductivity and accordingly utilisation of active material was more effective. Better capacitive response for Sb-doped SnO₂ could also be consequence of higher porosity of material as evident from SEM results (Figure 2) or different crystallite size. Also, cyclic voltammogram presented in Figure 3 indicates that Sb-doped SnO₂ shows more pronounced electrochemical activity at positive potentials, compared to SnO₂, which points to possibility to utilise these materials in a wider potential range.

In this study, the obtained specific capacitances of SnO_2 and Sb doped SnO_2 are similar to the values previously reported by Wu *et al.*^[15] However, specific capacitance obtained for amorphous nanostructured SnO_x coating prepared by electrochemical method ranged from 80–240 F g⁻¹.^[16] In other investigation, it was reported that electrochemical synthesis resulted in amorphous SnO_2 structure and specific capacitances of 100–270 F g⁻¹ at scan



Figure 4. Cyclic voltammograms of (a) the pure SnO_2 and (b) Sb-doped SnO_2 , deposited at glassy carbon support at different scan rates.

rate from 2–200 mV s⁻¹, respectively.^[17] Cho *et al.*^[29] have prepared tin oxide on ITO support by applying constant current and the obtained material resulted with specific capacitance value of 43 F g⁻¹. Electrochemically prepared SnO₂ was not additionally heat-treated and it can be assumed that the material obtained by this method is more hydrous than our samples. Higher amount of water might be convenient for faster ion exchange and consequently higher specific pseudocapacitance values.

The amount of water in the pure SnO_2 sample prepared in this work was determined by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA curve is not presented here). It was shown that the sample contains 3 % of physisorbed water and only 4 % of chemisorbed water. Accordingly, although increased conductivity of Sb-SnO₂ has improved specific capacitance and it has shown more significant activity at positive potentials, the obtained values are still much lower in comparison to the values reported for electrochemically prepared SnO₂. The importance of water was previously reported for RuO₂ and MnO₂^[30–32] and that was not considered for SnO₂ according to the authors' knowledge.

EQCN measurements were carried out in order to investigate the processes involved in pseudocapacitive redox reaction of SnO₂. For this purpose, SnO₂ and Sbdoped SnO₂ were applied to a platinum electrode of EQCN. As evident from Figure 5a and Figure 5b reduction process is characterised by mass loss while oxidation process is characterised by mass gain. In order to prove that mass change is not a support characteristic (Figure 5c) EQCN experiments were carried out at bare platinum electrode and no mass change was registered. Therefore, mass change can be attributed only to SnO₂ redox reactions. In this work, the observed mass change is not in accordance with previous reports^[26] which considered that cation intercalation / deintercalation takes place during SnO₂ reduction /oxidation (reaction(2)).^[16] The obtained behaviour could be explained by the fact that SnO₂ redox reaction is not characterised by simple cation intercalation / deintercalation process. This redox reaction rather includes structural changes of the host material similar to those

Table 2. Dependence of specific capacitance C_s (F g⁻¹) with scan rate for the pure SnO₂ and Sb-doped SnO₂.

<i>v</i> / mV s ⁻¹	$C_{\rm S}({\rm SnO_2})$ / F g ⁻¹	C₅(Sb-SnO₂) / F g ⁻¹
10	3.67	6.85
20	3.67	6.89
50	3.34	5.87
100	3.11	5.90
200	2.68	4.77
300	2.36	4.06



accompanying Li⁺ intercalation into SnO_2 .^[33] Thus, the reaction mechanism proposed in this work is:

$$SnO_{v} + nH_{2}O + 2ne^{-} \rightleftharpoons SnO_{v,n} + 2nOH^{-}$$
 (4)

This reaction involves water molecules and expulsion of OH⁻ during SnO_x reduction process and intercalation of oxygen within SnO_{x-1} during oxidation reaction. Therefore, mass loss / gain was registered during reduction / oxidation process, respectively. This suggests that it is important for sample to contain hydrous parts that



Figure 5. Mass changes and current transients for: (a) SnO_2 , (b) Sb-doped SnO_2 and (c) bare platinum electrode after potential steps from 0 to -0.5 V and from -0.5 to 0 V.

will enhance oxygen exchange and overall redox reaction. These hydrous parts are expected at boundaries between the crystallites and it should provide percolation paths for OH^- conduction. However, content of water should be controlled in order to provide percolation paths for electron conduction.^[32]

The pure SnO₂ prepared herein contains low amount of water (7 %) and this resulted in aggravated OH⁻ expulsion / oxygen intercalation within the bulk of material and small specific capacitance values. Only the surface of the material that was in contact with water was probably utilised in pseudocapacitive redox reaction. The doping process has increased both specific capacitance value and potential range of activity. However, additional structural modification of SnO₂ is required in order to improve the capacity for charge storage.

CONCLUSION

SnO₂ and Sb-doped SnO₂ were successfully prepared by solgel method. The obtained materials showed pseudocapacitive behaviour, since high currents were registered within the potential range of investigation. More pronounced electrochemical activity was obtained at the potentials negative to 0 V vs. SCE indicating that SnO₂ is convenient for anode material in supercapacitors application. It was demonstrated that Sb-doping increased specific capacitance values of SnO₂. However, it was shown that water content would also be important for pseudocapacitive properties besides the doping process. EQCN measurements have shown that mass loss / gain was obtained during SnO₂ reduction / oxidation process. The mass change indicates that redox reaction investigated in this work does not include proton / cation exchange process, as it was reported for other metal oxides, but it includes structural changes with oxygen expulsion / intercalation.

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