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Perspectives for solid biopolymer electrolytes in dye sensitized solar cell and battery application



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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 25 September 2015

Received in revised form

6 May 2016

Accepted 16 June 2016

Available online 30 July 2016

Keywords:

Biopolymer

Conductivity

Dye sensitized solar cell

Ionic liquid

Battery

ABSTRACT

Photovoltaic technologies represent one of the leading research areas of solar energy which is one of the most powerful renewable alternatives of fossil fuels. In a common photovoltaic application the batteries play a key role in storage of energy generated by solar panels. Although it will take time for dye sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) and batteries based on biopolymer electrolytes to take their places in the market, laboratory studies prove that they have a lot to offer. Most efficient DSSCs and batteries available in market are based on liquid electrolytes. The advantages of liquid electrolytes are having high conductivity and good electrode-electrolyte interface whereas, disadvantages like corrosion and evaporation limit their future sustainability. Biopolymer electrolytes are proposed as novel alternatives which may overcome the problems stated above. In this review, we focus on fabrication, working principle as well as up to date status of DSSCs and batteries using biopolymer electrolytes. The effects of structural and electrical properties of biopolymer based electrolytes on the solar energy conversion efficiencies of DSSCs and their compatibility with lithium or other salts in battery applications are summarized. Biopolymer electrolyte based DSSCs are categorized on the basis of types of additives and recent outcomes of author's laboratory studies on biopolymer electrolyte based DSSCs and batteries are also presented.

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Abbreviations: DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; PC, Propylene carbonates; PG, Propylene glycol; 3EG, Triethylene glycol; 4EG, Tetraethylene glycol; MPPI, 1-methyl-3-propylimidazolium iodide; (AElI), 1-allyl-3-ethylimidazolium iodide; (APII), 1-allyl-3-propylimidazolium iodide; (DAII), 1-3-diallylimidazolium iodide; SDS, Sodium dodecyl sulphate; PVP, Polyvinylpyrrolidone; PEG200, Polyethylene glycol; TW-80, Polysorbate 80-TW-80; NMP, 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone; GBL, γ -butyrolactone; PEO-HPC, Poly(ethylene oxide)-2-hydroxypropylcellulose; BmlmTf, 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium trifluoromethanesulfonate; LiTFSI, Lithium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide; DES, Deep eutectic solvent; [Amim] Cl, 1-allyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride; BmlmPF6, 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate; DMAc, N, N-dimethylacetamide; LiCl, Lithium chloride; [BMIM]Cl, 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride; EC, Ethylene carbonates; PEG, Poly(ethylene glycol); LiTFSI, Lithium trifluoromethanesulfonimide; SPEEK-CS, sulfonated poly(ether ether ketone)-chitosan; DAP, Diethanolamine modified pectin; BC, Bacterial cellulose; TEA, triethanolamine; GA, glutaraldehyde; DTAB, dodecyltrimethyl ammonium bromide; EMImSCN, 1-ethyl 3-methylimidazolium thiocyanate; N3, Cis-Bis(isothiocyanato)bis(4,40-dicarboxyl-2,20-bipyridine)-ruthenium(II), Ru(dcbpy)₂(NCS)₂; N719, Cis-bis(isothiocyanato)bis(2,2'-bipyridyl-4,4'-dicarboxylato)-ruthenium(II)bis-tetrabutylammonium; (AN), acetonitrile; (MOZ), 3-methyl-2-oxazolidinone; (Pr)₄Ni, tetrapropylammonium iodide; TBP, 4-tertiary butylpyridine; MPIm-I, 1-methyl-3-propylimidazolium iodide; DMHIm, 1, 2-dimethyl-3-n-hexylimidazoliumiodide

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<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2016.06.026>

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1. Introduction

Polymer electrolytes are one of the most important materials used in fabricating many electrochemical devices [1–5]. Polymers are classified into two main categories (1) synthetic and (2) natural. Most of the electrochemical devices available in market are based on liquid electrolyte. However solid polymer electrolytes (SPEs) which come into the category of synthetic polymers, offer more advantages over liquid electrolytes, such as higher energy density, flexible geometry, higher operating temperatures and safety, no-leakage of electrolyte and ease of application. The most commonly studied polymer electrolytes are the complexes of metal salts with high molecular weight polymer polyethylene oxide (PEO) [1–3]. However, one of the major drawbacks of PEO-based solid polymer electrolytes is their low ionic conductivity (10^{-7} S/cm) at ambient temperature, which limits their practical applications [4,5]. To date, a large number of other synthetic polymers, such as polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA), poly acrylonitrile (PAN), poly(vinylidene fluoride-co-hexafluoropropylene) (PVdF-HFP), polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), and polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) etc, have been studied in electrolyte applications [6–9].

Especially in developing countries, environmental pollution caused by synthetic polymers is becoming a serious threat. Petroleum-derived plastics are not biodegradable; they do not undergo microbial degradation and hence accumulate in the environment. Together with the environmental concerns, tremendous increase in the prices of fossil fuel derived products force the scientist to focus on biodegradable polymers. Biopolymers fall into the natural polymers category, and represent one of the hot topics of polymer research. Since their introduction in 1980s, a vast number of

biodegradable polymers have been synthesized [10–14] with the major goal of development of stable biopolymeric systems with excellent electrical and mechanical properties. Biopolymer electrolytes (BPEs) are solid ion conductors formed by dissolving salts in polymers having high molecular weight. They can be prepared in semi-solid or solid form through cheap and reliable processes [15–27]. BPE materials possess high ionic conductivity (10^{-2} to 10^{-4} S/cm), high energy density, wide electrochemical stability window, provides solvent-free and leak proof condition, easy processability and light weight which are essential for any kind of electrochemical device, e.g. fuel cells [28], supercapacitors, batteries [29–32], dye sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) [33–290], etc. Due to the large variety of energy related BPE applications, the scope of this review is limited to the application of BPEs in DSSCs and batteries.

Since the introduction of DSSC technology by O'Regan and Grätzel in 1991, it represents one of the most studied photovoltaic technologies [46]. The conversion efficiencies vary between 6% and 13% depending on the size of active area, preparation conditions and the type of electrolyte [33]. Although the highest conversion efficiency has been achieved by using liquid electrolytes due to the stability problems generate mainly from the leakage of electrolyte, quasi gel electrolytes are introduced. However this kind of electrolytes could not solve the stability problem and also caused efficiency reductions generating from the low ionic mobility and trapping of the gel in the metal oxide pores [53–56]. The next proposed alternative is solid polymer electrolytes in which polyether's and biopolymer-salt complexes are playing the dominant role [76–88,105–109]. In addition to their high conductivity and good thermal stability, biodegradable thin/thick film formation abilities make them suitable electrolyte candidates for DSSCs.

It is well accepted that rechargeable batteries are the most dominant energy storage devices especially in automotive industry and portable electronic devices [1–3]. It is also identified that Li-ion batteries (LIBs) are the preferred system for electric vehicles, grid energies and flexible electronic devices due to their high energy and power density [4]. Particularly, flexible and wearable electronics are expected to increase an exceptional importance in the future as energy storage devices. The important parts in rechargeable batteries are anode, cathode and electrolytes. The electrolytes commonly used are traditional liquid based electrolytes containing organic solvents, which are volatile and flammable. This requires alternative electrolyte material which prevents the leakage of the liquid electrolyte as well as internal short circuit in LIBs due to lithium dendrite growth on the anodes. As a result, safety issues are the major concerns in the applications of batteries. In such a situation, the development of solid-state electrolytes is a major challenge to be faced by scientific research [1–5].

Nowadays, researchers focus on light, safe, environmentally friendly and sustainable devices for conversion and storage of energy, preferentially at low cost. Although there is almost no concerns on the added value of biopolymers in weight, safety and environmental issues, one may question the sustainability of biopolymers and may claim that utilization of them in energy sector may raise the price of food products and even lead to food crises. However, if one also considers that energy heads the top ten problems of today's world and each and every attempt on minimizing it has the potential to minimize the influence of the others, i.e. water, food, environment, poverty, terrorism, disease, education, democracy, population [12], we think that not utilization of biopolymers in energy applications but, ignoring the energy problems will absolutely lead to food crises. Additionally, being one of the most widely known biopolymers cellulose, is the most abundant polymer in the world, recycling process of it is very well known and represents one of the most studied BPE component.

In this review, after the introduction of general experimental process followed in the fabrication of DSSCs and batteries and ion transport mechanism in biopolymer electrolytes, we summarized the literature on utilization of BPEs in electrochemical devices of DSSCs and batteries and presented our recent laboratory studies.

2. General experimental process followed in the fabrication of DSSCs and batteries

2.1. Fabrication of a DSSC

A DSSC comprises a sandwiched structure of two electrodes (anode, cathode) and electrolyte. The anode is prepared by the use of mesoporous metal oxides, e.g. TiO_2 , ZnO and the cathode is obtained by platinum coating on transparent conductive oxide. The TiO_2 electrode is immersed in dye solution overnight and the space between the sandwiched electrodes is filled with an electrolyte. Under illumination, the cell produces current through an external load connected to the electrodes. The absorption of light in the DSSC occurs due to the dye molecules and charge separation by electron injection from the dye to the TiO_2 at the semiconductor electrolyte interface (Fig. 1). The color of the device can be easily varied by the choice of dye [67–75]. The chemical and physical composition and structure of electrolyte mainly effects on the stability and solar energy conversion efficiency of the DSSC [49–55].

2.2. Fabrication of a battery

Batteries are composed of a cathode and anode as the electrodes, a metal salt solution (or solid polymer electrolyte) as the

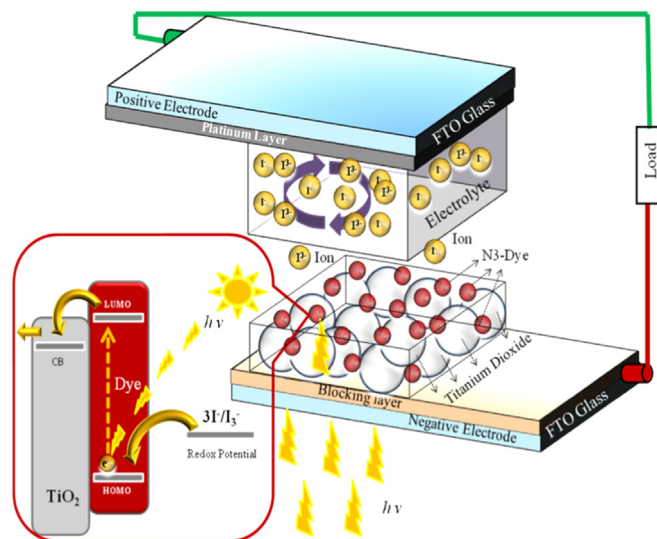


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram presenting working principle of dye sensitized solar cells (DSSC).

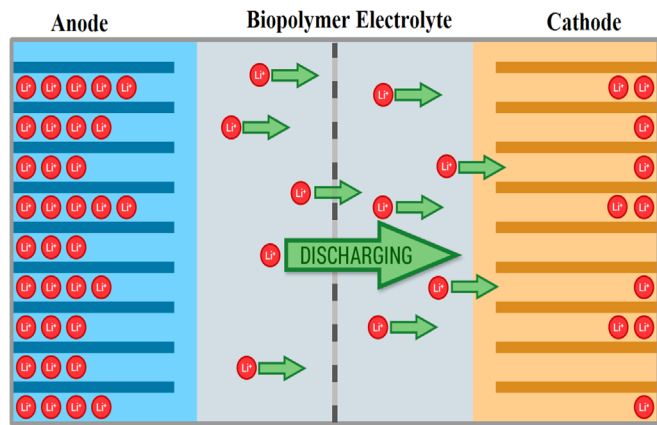


Fig. 2. Schematic diagram of Li-ion battery discharge.

electrolyte, a separator and functional additives which converts chemical into electrical energy. Copper and Aluminum foils are used as substrates for coating anode and cathode materials in rechargeable battery. The chemical reactions in the battery cause a buildup of electrons at the anode. This results in an electrical difference between the anode and the cathode. The electrolyte keeps the electrons from going straight from the anode to the cathode within the battery. When the circuit is closed (a wire connects the cathode and the anode) the electrons will be able to get to the cathode (Fig. 2). The common anode materials used in batteries are titanium oxides, graphite, porous carbons, alloys (Si, Ge, Al, Sn, Sb etc.), metal oxides and oxysalts, pure metal foils etc. The cathode materials used in batteries are vanadium oxide, molybdenum sulfide, molybdenum oxide, manganese oxide, silicates, LiCoO_2 , LiFePO_4 , LiMn_2O_4 etc. [1–5]. The different types of electrolyte materials based on biopolymer are studied briefly in this review.

2.3. Preparation of biopolymer electrolyte

BPE films reported in this review are prepared by the standard solution cast technique. In a common procedure, biopolymers and the desired amount of salts are weighed separately and dissolved in distilled methanol or any other suitable solvents. The mixture is stirred for a long time to obtain clear solution and then poured in

polypropylene/teflon molds under controlled environmental conditions (temperature, relative humidity). The solvent is evaporated slowly at room temperature and a free standing BPE film is obtained. In some instances, biopolymer films are soaked in an electrolyte solution to allow diffusion of ions. The BPE film matrix obtained is characterized by using various techniques [101,136,137,166]. The basic organic chemistry and physics that lie behind preparation and working principle of a BPE is summarized in the following section.

3. Solid biopolymer electrolyte used in electrochemical devices

3.1. Development of solid biopolymer electrolytes for electrochemical devices

Polysaccharides represent the dominant class of biopolymers used in developing efficient electrochemical devices [1–4,27–89,101–291]. Some of the widely used polysaccharides are briefly introduced below.

3.1.1. Agarose/Agar

Agarose is a linear polymer consisting of alternating beta-D-galactose and 1, 4-linked 3, 6-anhydro-alpha-L-galactose units [10]. It has very few sulfate groups. The gelling temperature ranges from 32–45 °C, and the melting temperature range is normally 80–95 °C. Methylation, alkylation and hydroxyalkylation of the polymer chain can change the melting and gelling temperatures [11]. Generally agarose/agar are insoluble in cold water, but it swells considerably. However, it can easily dissolve in hot water (H₂O) other solvents at temperatures between 95° and 100 °C such as DMF (Dimethylformamide), DMSO (Dimethyl sulfoxide), dimethylacetamide (DMAc), Glycol, orthophosphoric acid, (NMP) N-Methyl-2-pyrrolidone etc. Mechanically strong gel with a small amount of agarose can be produced, while maintaining the ionic conductivity of the liquid electrolyte. Agarose shows good ionic conductivity in the order of 10⁻²–10⁻⁴ S/cm. Complex impedance spectroscopy analysis revealed that doping of KI provide additional charge carriers (cations/anions) and enhance the overall conductivity. The maximum conductivity reported in literature is around 10⁻² S/cm [1,7].

3.1.2. Carrageenan

Carrageenan is obtained from the red seaweeds of the class rhodophyceae. It is a group of linear galactan with ester sulfate content of 15–40% (w/w) and containing alternating (1→3)-α-D and (1→4)-β-Dgalactopyranosyl (or 3,6-anhydro-α-D-galactopyranosyl) linkages. Three types of commercially available carrageenans are κ, ι, and λ. Anionic polysaccharides with molecular weight: 100,000–1,000,000, form gels with potassium or calcium ions [6,10,12]. Carrageenan can also easily dissolve in hot water (H₂O) even at room temperature. The solubility temperature is between 40° and 70 °C in solvents such as DMSO but it is insoluble in ethanol, acetone and some other organic solvents [11]. Ionic conductivity of carrageenan was found in the range of 10⁻⁷ to 10⁻³ S/cm in water and DMSO. The highest conductivity achieved for κ-carrageenan-AN/MOZ-TBP-I₂/LiI-Pr₄Ni+I³⁻ is 2.98 × 10⁻³ S/cm at room temperature.

3.1.3. Alginate

Alginate is obtained from the brown seaweeds of the class Phaeophyceae, as a structural material. Linear polysaccharide composed of β-D-mannuronopyranosyl and α-L-guluronopyranosyl units. The units occur in M blocks (containing solely mannuronopyranose residues), G blocks (containing solely guluronopyranose residues), or MG blocks. Ratio of G-, M-, and MG-blocks affects the gel strength, calcium reactivity, and other

properties [10]. Alginate form gels with calcium ions. Alginate with high G-blocks results in greater gel strength. Alginate with high M-blocks is more calcium tolerant and less likely to have problem with syneresis. It dissolves slowly in water, forming a viscous solution, but is insoluble in ethanol and ether [12]. Gel polymer electrolytes (GPEs) based on sodium alginate plasticized with glycerol containing either CH₃COOH or LiClO₄. The membranes showed ionic conductivity results of 3.1 × 10⁻⁴ S/cm for the samples with LiClO₄ and 8.7 × 10⁻⁵ S/cm for the samples with CH₃COOH at room temperature. Results obtained indicate that alginate-based GPEs can be used as electrolytes in electrochemical devices.

3.1.4. Pectin

Pectin is found in all land-based plants as a structural material. Commercial pectin is extracted from citrus peel, apple pomace, sugar beet, or sunflower heads. A linear chain of galacturonic acid units has molecular weight about 110,000–150,000. Pectins are soluble in pure water. Monovalent cation (alkali metal) salts of pectinic and pectic acids are usually soluble in water; di- and trivalent cations salts are weakly soluble or insoluble [12]. The plasticized pectin and LiClO₄-based gel electrolytes were prepared and analyzed by spectroscopic, thermal, structural, and microscopic analyses. The best ionic conductivity values of 2.536 × 10⁻² S/cm were obtained at room temperature for the composition based on diethanolamine modified pectin (DAP) and glutaraldehyde (GA) dissolved in pectin based biopolymer electrolyte [133].

3.1.5. Cellulose

Cellulose is the most abundant polymer available worldwide. Cellulose is composed of polymer chains consisting of unbranched β (1→4) linked D-glucopyranosyl units (anhydroglucose unit). Nowadays, there are various procedures for extraction of cellulose microfibrils like pulping methods, acid hydrolysis, steam explosion, etc. [11–14]. The samples of HEC (hydroxyethylcellulose) plasticized with glycerol and addition of lithium trifluoromethane sulfonate (LiCF₃SO₃) salt. The ionic conductivity obtained in the range of 10⁻⁴–10⁻⁵ S/cm. The best ionic conductivity obtained is 4.68 × 10⁻² S/cm at room temperature by using lithium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide (LiTFSI) doped biopolymer cellulose acetate (CA) matrix in 1-allyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride ([Amim] Cl) [128].

3.1.6. Plant seeds, plant tuber & root, cereal starch

The principal crops used for Starch production include potatoes, corn and rice. In all of these plants, starch is produced in the form of granules, which vary in size and somewhat in composition from plant to plant [6]. The starch granule is essentially composed of two main polysaccharides, amylose and amylopectin with some minor components such as lipids and proteins. Amylose is a linear molecule of (1→4)-linked α-D-glucopyranosyl units and molecular weights ranging from 10⁵ to 10⁶ g mol⁻¹ [12] (Fig. 2). Amylopectin is a highly branched molecule composed of chains of α-D-glucopyranosyl residues linked together mainly by (1→4)-linkages but with (1→6) linkages at the branch points and having molecular weights ranging from 10⁶ to 10⁸ g mol⁻¹. Amylose is water soluble but Amylopectin is insoluble in cold water and swells in it thereby giving rise to a thick paste upon boiling with water. It is a biopolymer contains about 23% starch (20–25% amylose and 75–80% amylopectin). It is clear that adding KI in Arrowroot matrix enhances the ionic conductivity and conductivity maxima were obtained by doping NaI and KI concentration where conductivity value approaches at 6.7 × 10⁻⁴ and 1.04 × 10⁻⁴ S/cm, respectively [166,167]. Adding (Glycerol + LiCl) and KI in Sago Palm matrix enhances the ionic conductivity and conductivity maxima was obtained by adding LiCl where conductivity value approached to 10⁻³ S/cm with LiCl [38] and 3.4 × 10⁻⁴ S/cm for KI [136,137]. Potato starch with NH₄I based biopolymer electrolyte

prepared by solution casting technique gives best ionic conductivity of $\sim 2.4 \times 10^{-4}$ S/cm [163].

Corn starch-based biopolymer electrolytes have been prepared by solution casting technique. Lithium hexafluorophosphate (LiPF₆) and 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium trifluoromethanesulfonate (BmlmTf) were used as lithium salt and ionic liquid, respectively [142]. In another study ionic liquid, 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate (BmlmPF₆) was doped into the corn based biopolymer matrix and maximum ionic conductivity of 1.47×10^{-4} S/cm was reported for this system. Biopolymer blend electrolytes based on corn starch and chitosan doped with ammonium iodide (NH₄I) was also prepared. A polymer blend at 80 wt% starch and 20 wt% chitosan was found to be the most amorphous blend. The highest ionic conductivity achieved at room temperature is 3.04×10^{-4} S/cm with NH₄I [139]. The overall best ionic conductivity $\sim 10^{-5}$ S/cm is reported by using N, N-dimethylacetamide (DMAc) along with lithium chloride (LiCl) doped corn based biopolymer [151].

Rice starch doped with LiI was prepared using solution casting method, at room temperature the highest ionic conductivity achieved was around 4.7×10^{-5} S/cm [158]. Tapioca is a polymer containing heteroatoms in their structure. Hence, they can interact with protons or lithium ions leading to ionic conduction. Among different natural polymers, starch-based bio polymer electrolyte present good opto-electrochemical characteristics and can be applied to electrochemical devices. The ionic conductivity results obtained for these bio polymer electrolytes varied from 10^{-6} S/cm to 10^{-4} S/cm at room temperature, Conductivity reaches to 8.1×10^{-3} S/cm for cassava doped with lithium perchlorate. The amount of Acetic acid and NH₄NO₃ was found to influence the proton conduction. Wheat can easily dissolve in Acetic acid and room temperature conductivity was found in the order of 10^{-5} S/cm to 10^{-4} S/cm. The common starch based biopolymer electrolytes used in electrochemical devices are shown in Table 1.

3.1.7. Chitin and chitosan

Chitosan is a linear polysaccharide consisting of β (1–4) linked D-glucosamine with randomly located N-acetylglucosamine groups depending upon the degree of deacetylation of the polymer. Chitin basically found in the shells of crabs, lobsters, shrimps and insects. Chitosan is the deacylated derivative of chitin. Chitin is insoluble in its native form but chitosan, is water soluble. Chitosan is soluble in weakly acidic solutions resulting in the formation of a cationic polymer with a high charge density and can therefore form polyelectrolyte complexes with wide range of anionic polymers. Chemical modification of chitosan can significantly affect its solubility and degradation rate [10–14].

The electrical properties of polymer electrolytes based on chitosan complexed with lithium and ammonium salts have been reported [177–179,196,197,200]. Conductivities of the order of 10^{-6} S/cm at room temperature were reported for chitosan with poly (ethylene oxide) PEO blends and doped with LiTFSI salt [101] and also for the complex formed by chitosan, poly (aminopropylsiloxane) (pAPS) and LiClO₄ [105]. Conductivity ranges from

10^{-5} and 10^{-4} S/cm were reported for proton-conducting polymer electrolytes, based on chitosan and ammonium salts (NH₄NO₃ and NH₄CF₃SO₃) [183,188] and this value is in the range of 10^{-6} – 10^{-4} S/cm for chitosan and κ -carrageenan containing ammonium nitrate-based film [18,19]. LiMn₂O₄ doped biopolymer based chitosan with carbon has reported biopolymer-in-salt based electrolyte achieves the best ionic conductivity; 3.9×10^{-3} S/cm at room temperature [210].

3.1.8. Gum Arabic

A gummy exudate obtained from Acacia trees with molecular weight about 250,000 is highly soluble with low viscosity even at 40% concentration. Gum Arabic, e.g. Acacia arabica, Acacia babul, exhibits a conductivity of approximately 1.5×10^{-6} S/cm after drying. Gum Arabica produces salt complexes with inorganic materials like FeSO₄, [K₂SO₄, Al₂(SO₄)₃, 24H₂O], LiClO₄, iodine etc. and functions as a proton conductor through hydronium ions H₃O⁺ [69].

3.1.9. Gum Tragacanth

Gum Tragacanth is an exudate of Astragalus, a perennial short brush in Asia. It is slightly acidic and found as Ca, Mg, or Na salts. It contains neutral highly branched arabinogalactan and tragacanthic acid (linear (1→4)-linked α -D-galacturonopyranosyl units, with some substitutions). It is highly viscous with some emulsification properties. Highest conductivity reported for NaOH based biopolymer is 88.8×10^{-3} S/cm at room temperature [170].

3.1.10. Xanthan gum

Xanthan gum is prepared through culturing Xanthomonas campestris, a single-cell organism producing gum as protective coating. A trisaccharide side chain is attached to alternate D-glucosyl units at the O-3 position. The side chain consists of a D-glucuronosyl unit between two D-mannosyl units. Molecular weight is about 2,000,000–3,000,000. Its viscosity is stable at a wide temperature and pH range. Among the systems studied, i.e. Gum Xanthan + PVP, Gum tragacanth + PVP and Gum Acacia + PVP, Gum Acacia + PVP presents better compatibility as it has stronger intermolecular interaction. In the same manner, among Gum Xanthan + PEG, Gum Acacia + PEG and Gum tragacanth + PEG systems, Gum Tragacanth + PEG has better compatibility [171].

3.1.11. Gellan gum

Gellan gum is prepared by culturing Pseudomonas elodea and composed of a four-sugar repeating sequence containing one D-glucuronopyranosyl, two D-glucopyranosyl, and one L-rhamnopyranosyl unit. Its molecular weight is about 1,000,000–2,000,000. It requires either monovalent or divalent cations to form a gel [10–14]. The ionic conductivity measurements revealed that the ionic conductivity of the Gellan gum doped with 40 wt% of (lithium trifluoromethanesulfonate) LiCF₃SO₃ electrolyte varies with the salt concentration reaching the highest conductivity value of 5.4×10^{-4} S/cm at room temperature [173]. When doped

Table 1
Conductivity values of some of the starch based biopolymer electrolytes reported in literature.

Starch	Amylose (%)	Starch (%)	Type	Gelatinization temperature range [°C]	Dispersoids	Conductivity (S/cm)	Ref.
Arrowroot	20.5	84	Root	70–75	KI	1.04×10^{-4}	[136,137]
Corn	28	31–50	Cereal	62–72	Lil	1.83×10^{-4}	[146]
Pea	27	40	Legume	60–75	–	–	–
Potato	20	65	Tuber	59–68	NaI	1.3×10^{-4}	[161,162]
Rice	18.5	87	Grain	–	Lil	4.68×10^{-5}	[158,159]
Sago	25.8	84	Root	70–72	KI	3.4×10^{-4}	[166]
Tapioca/ Cassava	16.7	84	Root	58–70	Li salt	10^{-6} to 10^{-4} , 8.1×10^{-3}	–
Wheat	26	25	Cereal	58–64	CH ₃ COOH	10^{-5} to 10^{-4}	–

with LiI, it exhibit ionic conductivity of 3.8×10^{-4} S/cm at room temperature [174]. To achieve good ionic conductivity, plasticizers such as, glycerol, ethylene glycol, ethylene carbonate, propylene carbonate are used, and adding lithium salts of LiClO₄, LiBF₄, LiCF₃SO₃, LiI/I₂ or acetic acid promoted the proton conduction [173–175].

3.1.12. Carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC)

Carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) is prepared by soaking cellulose in aqueous sodium hydroxide and reacting with monochloroacetic acid [10,11]. Carboxymethyl cellulose doped with Lithium perchlorate and plasticizer polycarboxylate based transparent solution of CMC/LiClO₄/PC is reported and ionic conductivity of the biopolymer electrolyte is found to be 2×10^{-4} S/cm. In another system, oleic acid based biopolymer electrolyte and NH₄Br based electrolyte achieved ionic conductivity values of 2.11×10^{-5} and 1.12×10^{-4} S/cm, respectively [213,218]. CMC is doped with different concentration of DTAB/EC via solution casting technique. The highest ionic conductivity, σ , was found to be 2.37×10^{-3} S/cm at room temperature [216].

3.2. Gelatinization and ion transport mechanism in biopolymer electrolytes

3.2.1. Gelatinization

Polysaccharides can also be classified according to their ionic character (neutral, anionic, cationic). As a result of which they bring different properties and chemical functionalities to the biocomposites. The polysaccharides indicated in Table 2 derive from natural sources, hence presenting advantages in terms of biodegradability, low-toxicity and low cost. Polysaccharide is an emerging branch of polymer which acts as a novel electrolyte in electrochemical devices [11,15]. Polysaccharides have been used as composite matrices due to several characteristics of relevance for biological and electrochemical

device applications. Variety of structures in biopolymers imparts different properties in them. The biopolymers which are most commonly used in developing electrochemical devices are summarized in Table 2. In biopolymers the hydroxyl groups of sugar rings allow the structure to substitute easily with other functional groups. Differences in the sugar composition and functional group substitution, effect on the three-dimensional packing of the polysaccharides and their interactions with other polymers or salts. Polysaccharides having extensive hydrogen bonding appear to be more conductive than that of the ones with a few hydrogen bonds and ion mobility of the electroactive material depends on the crystallinity of the polymer. When a dopant salt is introduced in to the matrix, the dominant energetic barrier experienced by the cation in conduction, is given by the dissociation of the alkali itself. The material can be both ionically and electronically conducting. However, in most biopolymers (polysaccharides) conduction is mainly due to the movement of single ionic specie. The ion conduction mechanism could be clearly understood in a common biopolymer electrolyte *i.e.* starch. Biopolymer starch is the plasticized starch that has been processed (typically using heat and pressure) to destroy the crystalline structure and to form an amorphous thermoplastic starch. Thermoplastic starch processing typically involves an irreversible molecular organization termed gelatinization and affected by starch-water interactions [7,12]. Fig. 3 summarizes the gelatinization process. Pure biopolymer starch presents a compact nature (Fig. 3a) made up of amylose (linear) and amylopectin (branched) molecules. In aqueous media, the crystallinity is affected and helices are disturbed (Fig. 3b) [7] and upon heating, swelling of the granules is accelerated that allows the amylose diffusion out of the granule (Fig. 3c).

3.2.2. Ion transport mechanism

The common ion transport in a biopolymer-salt complex can be understood using agarose biopolymer: KI polymer electrolyte in which both cation (K⁺) and anion (I⁻) play dominant roles.

Table 2

Source, dominant functional group and physical structure of some biopolymers commonly used in electrochemical devices.

Source	Biopolymer	Functional groups	Film type	Structure	Ref.
Marine red Algae	Agarose/ Agars	OH	Gel	Linear	[18]
Red seaweeds	Carrageenans	OH, OSO ₃ ⁻	Gel	Linear	[19]
Brown algae	Alginate	OH, COO ⁻	Gel	Linear	[20]
Plant cell wall	Cellulose	OH	Gel	Linear	[21]
	Pectin	OH, COO ⁻	Gel	Linear	[21]
Derived	Carboxymethyl Cellulose	OH, COO ⁻	Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear	[21]
	Methylcellulose (MC)	OH, COO ⁻	Gel/ Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear	[21]
Plant seeds/cereal starch	Sago Starch	OH	Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear/Branch-on-branch	[22]
	Corn Starch	OH	Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear/Branch-on-branch	[22]
	Pea Starch	OH	Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear/Branch-on-branch	[22]
	Rice Starch	OH	Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear/Branch-on-branch	[22]
	Wheat Starch	OH	Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear/Branch-on-branch	[22]
	Oats Starch	OH	Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear/Branch-on-branch	[22]
Plant tuber & root	Potato Starch	OH	Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear/Branch-on-branch	[22]
	Tapioca/Arrowroot Starch	OH	Thickening/viscosity agents	Linear/Branch-on-branch	[22]
Plant exudates/Acacia trees	Gum Arabic	OH, COO ⁻	Thickening/viscosity agents	Branch-on-branch	[23]
Plant exudates	Gum Tragacanth	OH, COO ⁻	Thickening/viscosity agents	Short branched	
Microorganism	Xanthan Gum	OH, COO ⁻	Gel	Short branched	
	Gellan Gum	OH, COO ⁻	Gel	Linear	
Shelfish & fungi cell wall/ Insects	Chitin	OH, NH ₃ ⁺	Gel	Liner	[24]
	Chitosan	OH, NH ₃ ⁺	Gel	Liner	[24]

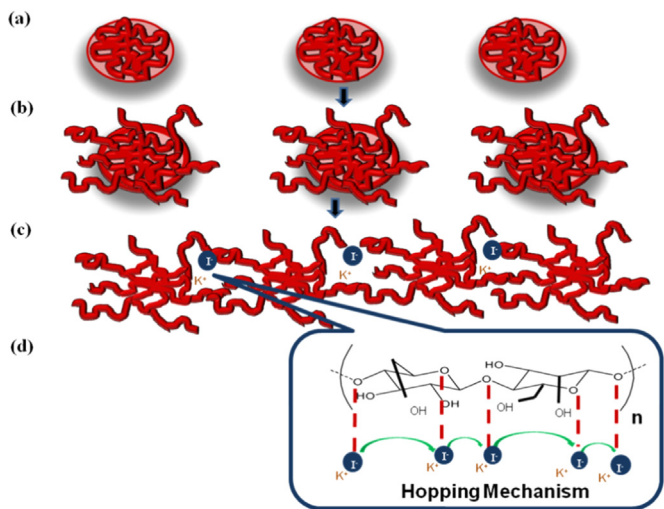


Fig. 3. Common gelatinization process occur in biopolymers (polysaccharides a, b, and c) while common ion transport mechanism in starch-KI biopolymer-salt complex (d).

Adding dispersoids (KI) in biopolymer matrix may enhance amorphous region. The etheric oxygen can easily associate with K^+ as similar to the other systems reported on PEO based polymer electrolytes [1,2]. This weak interaction can be dissociated under the influence of an electric field and together with I^- , K^+ ions can hop consistently at the coordinating side of the biopolymer structure. Increasing the K^+ and I^- concentration in the media will increase the number of charge carriers and hence the conductivity. The ionic hopping mechanism is demonstrated in Fig. 3d and maybe applied in biopolymer matrix with different alkali salts [1–4].

3.3. Dye sensitized solar cell using solid biopolymer electrolyte

The primary aim of development of solid polymer electrolyte is to avoid the disadvantages caused by liquid electrolyte. Biopolymer electrolytes are free from leakage, corrosion and more stable. The moderate conductivity and other advantageous properties make them suitable candidates for DSSCs. The photovoltaic parameters of polysaccharides with various salts (like NaI, KI and NH_4I etc) are reported in literature and tabulated in Table 3. As expected, the most efficient biopolymer electrolyte based DSSCs contain I^-/I_3^- redox couple [101–117,136,137,160,166,178–181].

3.4. Batteries using biopolymer electrolytes

As already mentioned earlier an efficient battery needs electrolytes with high ionic conductivity [1,29,30,33,226]. Solid polymer electrolytes (SPEs) have been widely examined to substitute conventional liquid electrolytes because of their attractive properties, such as ability to eliminate problems of corrosive solvent leakage, wide electrochemical stability range, light weight, ease of processability and excellent thermal stability as well as low volatility [225,226]. The most commonly studied polymer electrolytes for batteries are high molecular weight polyethylene oxide (PEO) complexed with Li salts [2]. PEO qualifies as a host polymer for electrolytes because of its high solvating power for lithium salts and compatibility with lithium electrode [227]. However, one of the major drawbacks of PEO-based solid polymer electrolytes is their low ionic conductivity (10^{-7} – 10^{-8} S/cm) at ambient temperature, which limits their practical applications [228–230].

Most of SPEs are based on hydroxyethyl cellulose [231], starch [232], chitosan [233–235], agar-agar [236], pectin [237], and

gelatin [238] etc., wherein the ionic conductivity has been reported in the order of 10^{-4} S/cm at room temperature.

Cellulose constitutes are the most abundant, renewable polymer source available worldwide today. It is principally used as construction material, in the form of wood or as textile fiber, such as cotton, or in the form of paper and board [239]. Cellulose exists in many forms from micrometric cellulose fibers to nanocellulose. Over the last decade, nanocellulose has attracted an ever increasing attention for the production of cellulose based nanocomposite materials, due to their high strength and stiffness combined with low weight, biodegradability and renewability [240]. Recently, cellulose and its derivatives have been successfully applied in rechargeable batteries for the production of electrodes, separators or as reinforcing agents in solid polymer electrolytes [241]. Samsudin et al. [242] investigated the use of CMC based biopolymer electrolyte complexed with NH_4Br for the application of rechargeable proton battery. The highest ionic conductivity of the CMC- NH_4Br BPE obtained at room temperature is 1.12×10^{-4} S cm^{-1} and ionic transference number was reported to be ~ 0.98 for this system. Linear sweep voltammetry results revealed that this BPE is electrochemically stable up to 1.42 ± 0.01 V and suitable for proton battery application. The cell potential of proton battery is 1.52 V and showed good rechargeability.

The biopolymer CMC complexed with CH_3COONH_4 electrolyte has been reported the best conductivity value of 5.77×10^{-4} S cm^{-1} for the system containing 20 wt% of CH_3COONH_4 at ambient temperature. The electrochemical stability of this system is achieved up to ~ 2.5 V and suitable for electrochemical device applications [243]. Ramesh et al. [244] has been studied the effect 1-allyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride ([AMIM]Cl) on cellulose acetate (CA) complexed with LiTFSI biopolymer electrolyte. The sample composition of CA:LiTFSI:[AMIM]Cl (14 wt%:6 wt%:80 wt%) exhibits the highest ionic conductivity of 1.75×10^{-3} S cm^{-1} at room temperature. The collective data of batteries using BPE are tabulated in Tables 4 and 5.

The crops used for starch production include tapioca, wheat, potatoes, corn and rice. Starch is extracted in the form of granules, which vary in composition of amylase and amylopectin from plant to plant [6]. Starch attracts scientists because of its rich variety and abundance in nature. A solid BPE based on amylopectin-rich starch is plasticized with glycerol and contain $LiClO_4$. The highest ionic conductivity reported from this medium is 1.1×10^{-4} S/cm at 30 °C. The ionic conductivity as a function of time for amylopectin-rich starch plasticized with 30 wt% of glycerol and containing $[O]/[Li]=10$ showed conduction stability over 6 months ($\sigma \sim 3.01 \times 10^{-5}$ S cm^{-1}). These results show that it has the potential to meet all the conditions required by optical and electronic devices which use an electrolyte layer [265]. Lopes et al. investigated the NMR and conductivity results of solid electrolyte systems based on amylopectin rich starch plasticized with glycerol and containing $LiClO_4$. The samples were prepared with salt concentration $[O]/[Li]=6$ and 8 and plasticized with 30% of glycerol, having ionic conductivities of about 5×10^{-5} S cm^{-1} at room temperature. The cation–proton interaction in this system is smaller than that of the grafted systems. The low temperature corresponding to the 7Li spin-lattice relaxation rate maximum indicated that the lithium has a relatively high mobility in the plasticized electrolytes, whereas the starch acts as a polymer matrix for the electrolyte. The results of the BPE based on amylopectin rich starch, plasticized with glycerol and containing lithium salt can be potentially useful for SPE applications [266].

Recently, Navaratnam et al. [267] studied the transport mechanism of chitosan based biopolymer electrolytes. They studied the chitosan-ethylene carbonate/propylene carbonate (chitosan-EC/PC) system with lithium acetate ($LiCH_3COO$) and lithium triflate ($LiCF_3SO_3$) as salts. The room temperature conductivity of the sample were found to be 6.1×10^{-7} S/cm for chitosan system containing lithium acetate salt and 5.0×10^{-6} S/cm for chitosan

Table 3

Status of dye sensitized solar cell (DSSC), battery and other electrochemical devices using solid biopolymer electrolyte.

Biopolymer	Additive	σ (S/cm)	Unit	Device	References	
Agarose/Agars	KI	9.02×10^{-3}	0.54%	DSSC	[101]	
	LiI	3.98×10^{-3}	–	DSSC	[102]	
	NH ₄ I	4.89×10^{-3}	0.008%	DSSC	[103]	
	NaI	12.41×10^{-4}	–	–	[104]	
	1-allyl-3-ethylimidazolium iodide	–	5.89%	DSSC	[105]	
	1-allyl-3-ethylimidazolium iodide	–	7.43%	DSSC	[106]	
	DMSO/PC-(MPII)	14.2×10^{-3}	1.97%	DSSC	[107]	
	DMSO/4EG-(MPII)	4.4×10^{-3}	1.38%	DSSC	[107]	
	DMSO/3EG-(MPII)	4.6×10^{-3}	1.39%	DSSC	[107]	
	DMSO/PG-(MPII)	6.2×10^{-3}	1.06%	DSSC	[107]	
	Pure DMSO-(MPII)	5.0×10^{-3}	1.15%	DSSC	[107]	
	Polysorbate80/Fe ₃ O ₄ nanoparticles	2.98×10^{-3}	1.83%	DSSC	[108]	
	PEG 200/Fe ₃ O ₄ nanoparticles	2.88×10^{-3}	–	DSSC	[109]	
	TiO ₂ -modified	2.66×10^{-3}	1.71%	DSSC	[110]	
	Co ₃ O ₄ -modified	4.37×10^{-3}	2.11%	DSSC	[110]	
	NiO-modified	3.33×10^{-3}	2.02%	DSSC	[110]	
	NMP/LiI	3.94×10^{-4}	4.14%	DSSC	[111,112]	
	NMP/LiI/nanoparticle TiO ₂	4.4×10^{-4}	4.74%	DSSC	[112]	
	1-alkyl-3-methyl-imidazolium salts	–	2.93%	DSSC	[113]	
	Acetic acid/glycerol	1.1×10^{-4}	–	–	[114]	
	1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate	$2.35 \cdot 10^{-5}$	–	–	[115]	
	Carrageenans	3-methyl-2-oxazolidinone	–	6.87%	DSSC	[116]
		AN/MOZ- TBP- I ₂ /Li-Pr ₄ Ni+I ³⁻	2.92×10^{-3}	6.87%	DSSC	[117]
Chitosan + carrageenan		1.38×10^{-6}	–	–	[118]	
Chitosan + carrageenan + NH ₄ NO ₃		2.39×10^{-4}	13to18.5 F g ⁻¹	EDLCs	[118]	
Chitosan + carrageenan + H ₃ PO ₄ + PEG		6.29×10^{-4}	35 F g ⁻¹	EDLCs	[119]	
Cellulose	NH ₄ NO ₃	2.1×10^{-6}	–	–	[120]	
	NH ₄ NO ₃ PEG	–	31.52mA cm ⁻²	Fuel cells	[121]	
	Cellulose acetate (CA) + LiBOB + GBL	5.36×10^{-3}	4.7 Voc	Battery	[122]	
	Cellulose acetate + TiO ₂	1.37×10^{-2}	54.1 mA h	Battery	[123]	
	Cellulose acetate + NH ₄ CF ₃ SO ₃ + EC	$\sim 10^{-4}$	1.4 Voc	Battery	[124]	
	Cellulose acetate electrolyte	–	22.41 mA h	Battery	[125]	
	PEO–HPC + LiTFSI	2.5×10^{-4}	3.65 Voc	Battery	[126]	
	LiCF ₃ SO ₃	5.3×10^{-7}	–	–	[127]	
	CA-LiTFSI-[Amim] Cl	4.68×10^{-2}	–	–	[128]	
	CA-NH ₄ BF ₄	2.18×10^{-7}	–	–	[129]	
	CA-NH ₄ BF ₄ + PEG600	1.41×10^{-5}	–	–	[129]	
	CA-LiTFSI-DES	2.61×10^{-3}	–	–	[130]	
	BC-TEA	1.89×10^{-5}	–	–	[131]	
	Pectin	Amidated pectin + Glutaraldehyde (GA)	1.098×10^{-3}	–	–	[132]
		DAP + glutaraldehyde (GA)	2.536×10^{-2}	–	–	[133]
		LiClO ₄	4.7×10^{-4}	–	–	[134]
	Sago Starch	KCl	1.45×10^{-3}	–	–	[135]
KI		3.4×10^{-4}	0.57%	DSSC	[136,137]	
Corn Starch	Glycerol + LiCl	10^{-3}	–	–	[138]	
	Starch – chitosan-NH ₄ I	3.04×10^{-4}	–	–	[139]	
	NH ₄ Br	5.57×10^{-5}	–	–	[140]	
	NH ₄ Br + Glycerol	1.80×10^{-3}	–	–	[141]	
	LiPF ₆ + BmImTf	3.21×10^{-4}	–	–	[142]	
	LiOAc	2.07×10^{-5}	33.31 F g ⁻¹	EDLC	[143]	
	Glycerol- LiOAc	1.04×10^{-3}	–	–	[143]	
	LiPF ₆ -BmImTf at 80 °C	6.00×10^{-4}	–	–	[144]	
	LiClO ₄	1.28×10^{-4}	–	–	[145]	
	LiTFSI-DES(Choline chloride & urea)	1.04×10^{-3}	–	–	[146]	
	LiI	1.83×10^{-4}	–	–	[147]	
	LiI- Glycerol	9.56×10^{-4}	–	–	[147]	
	LiTFSI-[Amim] Cl	4.18×10^{-2}	–	–	[148]	
	LiTFSI-[Amim] Cl	5.68×10^{-2}	–	–	[149]	
	LiPF ₆ -BmImPF ₆	1.47×10^{-4}	–	–	[149]	
	LiClO ₄ -SiO ₂	1.23×10^{-4}	–	–	[150]	
	[Amim]Cl	$10^{-1.6}$	–	–	[151,152]	
	DMAc - LiCl	$10^{-0.5}$	–	–	[151,153]	
	Glycerol	10^{-8}	–	–	[151,154]	
	Glycerol - Carbon black	7.08	–	–	[151,154]	
[BMIM]Cl	$10^{-4.6}$	–	–	[155]		
Starch-Chitosan blend-NH ₄ I-Glycerol	1.28×10^{-3}	1.8- 4.0 F g ⁻¹	EDLC	[156]		
Pea Starch	KI	2.28×10^{-4}	–	–	[157]	
	LiI	4.68×10^{-5}	–	–	[158,159]	
Rice Starch	LiI-TiO	2.27×10^{-4}	–	–	[160]	
	LiI-MPII-TiO ₂	3.63×10^{-4}	0.17%	DSSC	[160]	
Wheat Starch	CH ₃ COOH (Acetic acid)	10^{-5} to 10^{-4}	–	–	–	
Potato Starch	NaI	1.3×10^{-4}	–	–	[161,162]	
	NaClO ₄	7.19×10^{-6}	–	–	[161]	
	NaSCN	1.12×10^{-4}	–	–	[161]	
	NH ₄ I	2.4×10^{-4}	–	–	[163]	

Table 3 (continued)

Biopolymer	Additive	σ (S/cm)	Unit	Device	References
	Methanol-GA	2.50×10^{-6}	–	–	[164]
	Methanol-GA-Nal	8.40×10^{-6}	–	–	[164]
	Methanol-GA -PEG300-Nal	1.80×10^{-4}	–	–	[164]
	Acetone- GA	8.80×10^{-6}	–	–	[164]
	Acetone- GA- Nal	3.22×10^{-5}	–	–	[164]
	Acetone -GA- PEG300-Nal	4.30×10^{-5}	–	–	[164]
	–	–	335 F g^{-1}	EDLC	[165]
Arrowroot Starch	KI	5.68×10^{-4}	0.63%	DSSC	[166]
	Nal	6.7×10^{-4}	–	–	[167]
	Chitosan blend -NH ₄ NO ₃	3.89×10^{-5}	–	–	[168]
Gum Arabic	–	1.5×10^{-6}	–	–	[169]
Gum Tragacanth	NaOH	88.8×10^{-3}	–	–	[170]
Xanthan Gum	Water-based thixotropic	–	4.78%	DSSC	[171]
Gellan Gum	LiCF ₃ SO ₃	5.4×10^{-4}	–	–	[172]
	Lil	1.5×10^{-3}	–	–	[173]
	Polypyrrole-Gellan gum	–	-0.8to +0.4 V	EDLC	[174]
Chitin/Chitosan	Nal	–	0.13%	DSSC	[175]
	EMImSCN-Nal	2.60×10^{-4}	0.73%	DSSC	[175]
	NH ₄ SCN-Al ₂ TiO ₅	2.10×10^{-4}	–	–	[176]
	LiNO ₃ NH ₄ I	2.7×10^{-4}	1.113V	Battery	[177]
	NH ₄ I-EC	3.73×10^{-7}	0.29%	DSSC	[178]
	NH ₄ I-BMII	7.34×10^{-6}	0.51%	DSSC	[178]
	Tartaric-NH ₄ I-BMII	8.47×10^{-4}	1.24%	DSSC	[178]
	Tartaric-PEO- NH ₄ I- BMII	3.02×10^{-4}	0.38%	DSSC	[179]
	Tartaric-Phthaloyl chitosan-NH ₄ I-BMII	5.52×10^{-4}	0.39%	DSSC	[179]
	Tartaric-Phthaloyl chitosan-PEO-NH ₄ I-BMII	5.86×10^{-4}	0.43%	DSSC	[179]
	PEO blend-NH ₄ I	6.24×10^{-4}	0.46%	DSSC	[179]
	PEO blend-NH ₄ I (Dye-Sumac/Rhus)	–	–	–	–
	NH ₄ CF ₃ SO ₃	4.32×10^{-6}	0.46%	DSSC	[180]
	Methylcellulose blend -H ₄ CF ₃ SO ₃	1.18×10^{-5}	1.5%-	DSSC	[181]
	EC-LiOAc	8.91×10^{-7}	–	–	[183]
	Nal	4.99×10^{-6}	–	–	[183]
	EMImSCN-Nal	7.6×10^{-6}	0.13%	–	[184]
	chitosan-LiOAc-oleic acid	10^{-5}	–	–	[185]
	chitosan, palmitic acid (PA)-LiOAc	5.5×10^{-6}	–	–	[186]
	Corn starch - NH ₄ Cl-Glycerol	5.11×10^{-4}	–	–	[187]
	NH ₄ NO ₃	2.53×10^{-5}	–	–	[188]
	NH ₄ NO ₃ -Acetic acid	1.46×10^{-1}	27.90 mA h ⁻¹	Battery	[189]
	–	–	3.67 mW cm ⁻²	–	–
	NH ₄ NO ₃ -EC- Acetic acid	9.93×10^{-3}	8.70mW cm ⁻²	Battery	[190]
	–	–	17.0 mA h	–	–
	Polyethylene oxide -NH ₄ NO ₃	1.02×10^{-4}	–	–	[191]
	LiCF ₃ SO ₃	2.75×10^{-5}	–	–	[192]
	CMC-Chitosan-DTAB	1.85×10^{-6}	–	–	[193]
	PVA-Chitosan-NH ₄ NO ₃	2.07×10^{-5}	1.6 and 1.7 V	Battery	[194]
	PVA-chitosan-NH ₄ NO ₃ -EC	1.60×10^{-3}	27.1 F g ⁻¹	EDLC	[195]
	PVA-NH ₄ I	1.77×10^{-6}	–	–	[196]
	NH ₄ I	3.73×10^{-7}	0.22%	DSSC	[196,197]
	NH ₄ I-EC	7.34×10^{-6}	0.18FF	DSSC DSSC	[197]
	NH ₄ I-BMII	3.43×10^{-5}	0.22 FF	–	[197]
	LiCF ₃ SO ₃ -DEC-EC	4.26×10^{-5}	–	Fuel cell	[198]
	H ₃ PO ₄	5.36×10^{-5}	–	Fuel cell	[199]
	H ₃ PO ₄ -Al ₂ SiO ₅	1.12×10^{-4}	–	Fuel cell	[199]
	H ₃ PO ₄ -NH ₄ NO ₃	1.16×10^{-4}	–	Fuel cell	[199]
	H ₃ PO ₄ -NH ₄ NO ₃ -Al ₂ SiO ₅	1.82×10^{-4}	–	–	[199]
	PEO- LiTFSI	1.40×10^{-6}	–	Battery	[200]
	LiCF ₃ SO ₃ -DEC-EC	4.26×10^{-5}	–	Battery	[201]
	LiCF ₃ SO ₃ - PC/EC	1.09×10^{-4}	–	–	[201]
	LiOAc	2.20×10^{-7}	–	–	[202]
	NH ₄ SCN	1.81×10^{-4}	–	–	[203]
	NH ₄ SCN-Glycerol	1.51×10^{-3}	7.68×10^{-4}	–	[203]
	PVA -NH ₄ Br	3.0×10^{-6}	–	–	[204]
	PVA-LiClO ₄	1.47×10^{-4}	–	Battery	[205]
	NH ₄ CH ₃ COO-EC	1.47×10^{-4}	1.83 mW cm ⁻²	Battery	[206]
	NH ₄ CH ₃ COO-EC	4.38×10^{-7}	1.36 mW cm ⁻²	–	[206]
	Chitosan-NH ₄ Br	2.15×10^{-4}	–	–	[207]
	Chitosan-NH ₄ Br-glycerol	9.72×10^{-5}	1.44×10^{-3}	–	[207]
	Starch blend- NH ₄ Br	3.9×10^{-3}	–	EDLC	[208,209]
	Starch blend- NH ₄ Br+EC	4.0×10^{-5}	0.1400mA h g ⁻¹	Battery	[208,209]
	LiCF ₃ SO ₃ -EC-DMC	4.6×10^{-5}	1.5 V	–	[210]
	EC-LiCF ₃ SO ₃	10^{-5}	–	Battery	[211]
	Acetic acid-NaClO ₄	5.5×10^{-6}	1.114V	–	[212]
Carboxymethyl Cellulose	NH ₄ Br	1.12×10^{-4}	–	Battery	[213]
	NH ₄ F	2.68×10^{-7}	–	–	[214]
	Salicylic acid	9.50×10^{-8}	–	–	[215]
	DTAB	7.72×10^{-4}	–	–	[216]

Table 3 (continued)

Biopolymer	Additive	σ (S/cm)	Unit	Device	References
Methylcellulose (MC)	DTAB-EC	2.37×10^{-3}	–	–	[216]
	CH ₃ COONH ₄	5.77×10^{-4}	–	–	[217]
	Oleic acid	2.11×10^{-5}	–	–	[218]
	–	3.08×10^{-11}	–	–	[219]
	NH ₄ NO ₃	2.10×10^{-6}	–	–	[219]
	NH ₄ F	6.40×10^{-7}	–	–	[220]
	Glycolic acid	7.16×10^{-10}	–	–	[221]
	MC-NH ₄ NO ₃	1.17×10^{-4}	–	–	[222]
	MC-NH ₄ NO ₃ -PC	4.91×10^{-3}	–	–	[222]
	MC-NH ₄ NO ₃ -EC	1.74×10^{-2}	–	–	[222]
PVDF-MC/PVDF-LiFePO ₄	1.5×10^{-3}	34 mA g ⁻¹	Battery	[223]	
NH ₄ NO ₃ -PEG	1.14×10^{-4}	31.52 mA cm ⁻²	Fuel cell	[224]	

Table 4

Morphology, treatment conditions and matrix of some of the cellulosic biopolymer materials used as electrolytes in Li-ion batteries [245].

Cellulose form	Treatment/modification before introduction into the matrix	Polymeric matrix	Ref.
<i>Cellulose used as a reinforcement of polymeric matrices</i>			
Sheet	None	Photocured acrylic matrices	[246,247]
Fibers	Grafting with acrylic acid	PVA	[248]
NCC	None	PEO or crosslinked PEO	[249–251]
NCC	None	Ethyleneoxide-epi-chlorohydrin Copolymers	[252]
MFC	None	PEO	[253]
MFC	None	Photocured acrylic matrices	[254]

Table 5

Some of the cellulosic biopolymer materials used as electrolytes in Li-ion batteries [246].

Cellulose Derivative	Treatment/modification	Ref.
<i>Cellulose derivatives used as SPEs or GPEs</i>		
Hydroxypropylcellulose	Grafting with PEO	[255]
Cellulose triacetate	Plasticization with ionic liquids	[256]
Ethylcellulose	Plasticization with glycerol	[257]
Ethylcellulose	Grafting with methylmethacrylate	[258]
Cellulose acetate	Plasticization with ionic liquid or eutectic solvents	[259]
Cellulose phthalate	None	[260]
Cyanoethylated cellulose	None	[261]
Cyanoethylated cellulose	Blended with PVDF	[262]
Cellulose esters	Esterification with PEO monocarboxylic acid	[263]
Hydroxyethylcellulose	Grafted with oligoetherisocyanate	[264]

system containing lithium triflate salt. The room temperature conductivity of LiCF₃SO₃ electrolyte was higher than that of the LiCH₃COO electrolyte. The difference in conductivity is associated with the nature of the lithium salt and it is supposed that LiCF₃SO₃ salt dissociated more LiCH₃COO anion. Triflate anion is larger than acetate anion and therefore lithium triflate salt will have lower lattice energy than lithium acetate salt.

Alias et al. [268] reported the porous chitosan–SiO₂ membranes prepared by ultrasonic mixing solution-cast and porogen removal method at different SiO₂ weight ratios. They soaked these membranes in NH₄CH₃COO electrolyte solution for two days and obtained a conductivity value of 3.6×10^{-3} S/cm. The proton battery displayed an open circuit potential of 1.5 V for 7 days, maximum power density (6.7 mW cm⁻²) and small current resistance (0.03 Ω). The specific discharge capacities obtained from discharge profile of 39.7 mA h g⁻¹ (0.5 mA) and 43.8 mA h g⁻¹ (1.0 mA)

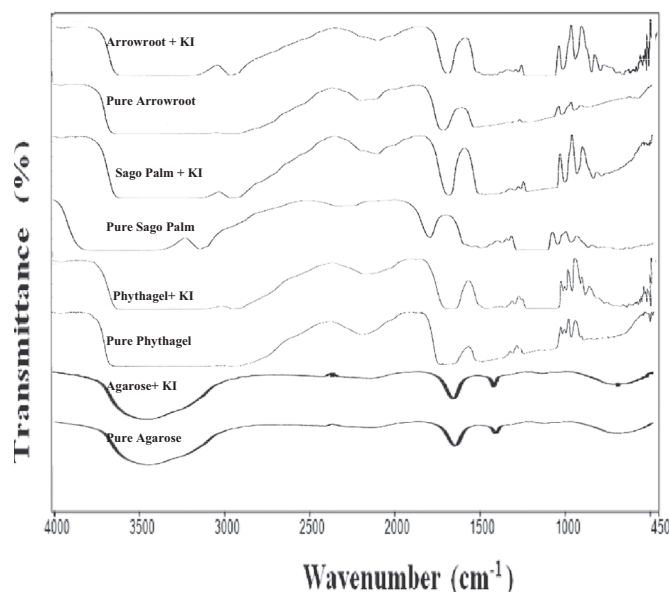


Fig. 4. Infrared spectroscopy of pure biopolymers and biopolymers-KI samples.

increased as the discharge currents were increased. These results indicated that porous chitosan–SiO₂ membrane is a suitable membrane for the proton batteries.

Solid polymer electrolytes consisting of chitosan, lithiumbis (trifluoromethylsulfonyl) imide (LiTFSI) as a salt and succinonitrile as a plastic crystal are reported by Taib and Idris [269]. The highest room temperature ionic conductivity observed for the sample Chitosan–LiTFSI containing 50 wt% succinonitrile exhibited a conductivity of 4×10^{-4} S/cm, a high lithium ion transference number (0.598) and wide electrochemical window (4.7 V). This system with LiFePO₄ as a cathode, displays a stable discharge capacity of 160 mA h g⁻¹ for up to 50 cycles at a current density of 17 mA g⁻¹. The results demonstrate that this system is potential electrolyte material for lithium rechargeable batteries.

The biopolymer electrolyte based agar complexed with magnesium triflate (Mg(CF₃SO₃)₂) has been investigated by Alves et al. [270]. The sample that exhibited the highest conductivity is Agar_{32.30%}Mg(CF₃SO₃)₂, and the maximum conductivity values are 1.0×10^{-6} and 3.8×10^{-5} S cm⁻¹ at 30 °C and 70 °C, respectively. Agar doped with different ionic liquids has been reported [271,272]. The best conductivity value of 2.35×10^{-5} S cm⁻¹ was observed for the agar based on 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate composition at ambient temperature. At 100 °C, this electrolyte exhibits a conductivity of about 1.58×10^{-3} S cm⁻¹. The highest ionic conductivity value of agar–NiO system is 5.19×10^{-5} S/cm at room temperature for the sample with 0.25 g of NiO. It was also stated

Table 6
Infrared spectra data of pure biopolymer and KI doped bio-polymer electrolyte system.

Wavelength in cm^{-1}								Freq. ranges	Groups (bonds)	Functional groups
Pure Arrowroot	Arrow root+KI	Pure Sago Palm	Sago Palm+KI	Pure Agarose	Agarose+KI	Pure Phythagel	Phythagel+KI			
3584	3372	3313	3252	3445.86	3434.15	3358	3626	3500-3200 (s,b) 3640-3610(s,sh)	O-H stretch, free hydroxyl, H-bonded	alcohols, phenols
–	2929	2929	2931	–	–	2926	2921	3000-2850 (m)	C-H (stretch)	Alkane
2149	–	2149	–	2124.66	2105.69	2126	2142	2260–2100 (w)	–CC– stretch	Alkynes
1645	–	1642	–	–	–	–	1667,1663,1660,1651	1680-1640 (m)	–C=C– stretch	Alkenes
–	1626	–	1633	1636.32	1637.57	1619	1644,1614	1650–1580 (m)	N–H bend	1° amines
1462	1408	1412	1454,1416	1400.34	1400.22	1409	1445,1427,1416	1500–1400 (m)	C–C stretch (in–ring)	Aromatics
–	–	1364	1372	–	–	–	–	1370–1350 (m)	C–H rock	alkanes
1169	1234, 1203, 1075	1241,1204,1052,1151	1239, 1203, 1165,1047	1121.00	1109.07	1337,1297, 1235,1194	1237,1196, 1171	1300–1150 (m) 1300–1150 (m)	C–O stretch C–H wag (–CH ₂ X)	alcohols, carboxylic acids, esters, ether s alkyl halides
936	935	932	935	–	–	942,924	943,923	950-910 (m)	O-H bend	Carboxylic acid
863, 787	860, 762, 709	859, 762,708	860, 762, 715	687.28	–	890,836,812,749,699	891,836,815,755	900–675 (s)	C-H “oop”	Aromatics
482	607, 588	–	–	666.77	666.72, 545.30	666,644,608,565, 546,539	666,462,421,407	690–515 (m)	C–I stretch	Alkyl halides

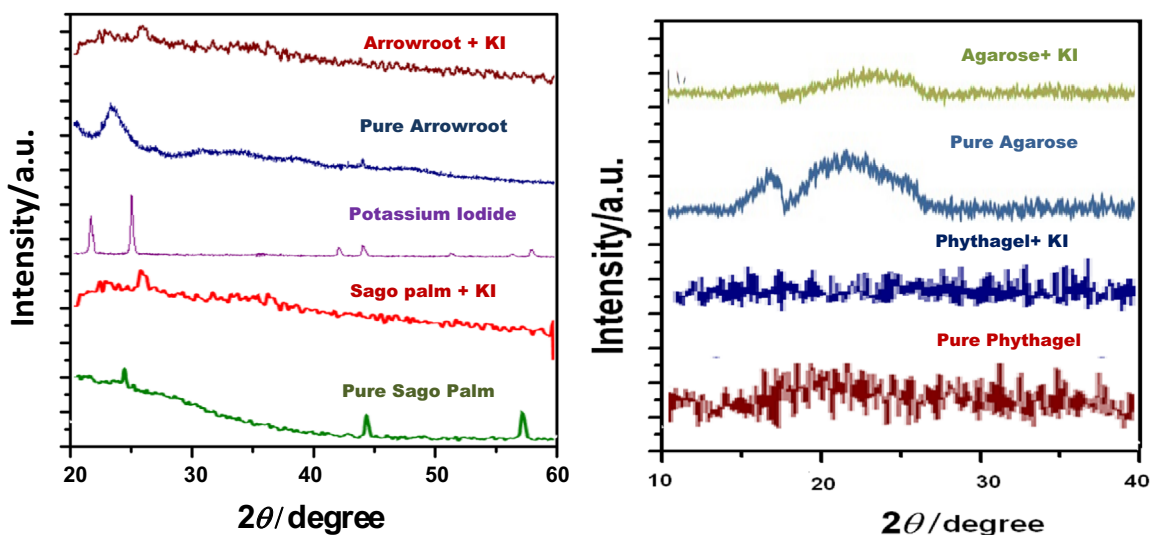


Fig. 5. The XRD pattern of pure biopolymers and KI doped biopolymers systems.

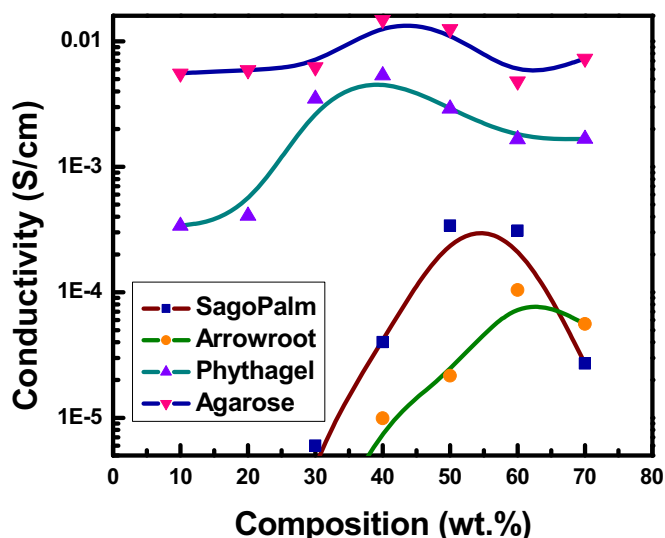


Fig. 6. Ionic conductivity vs composition plot in biopolymers:KI polymer electrolyte system.

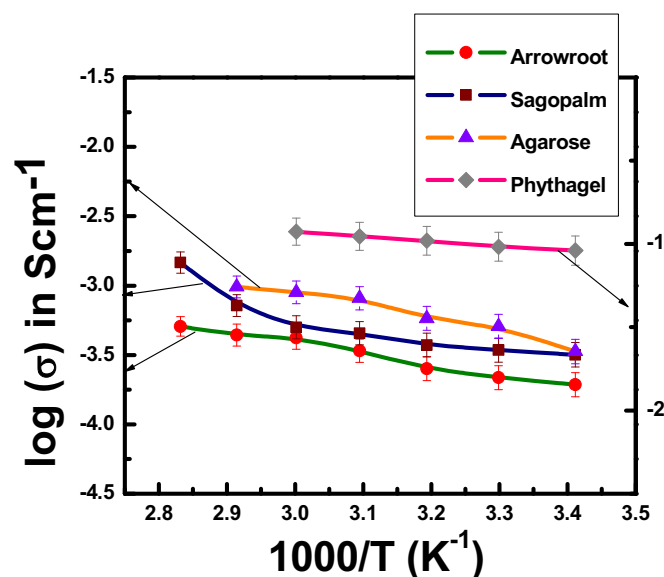


Fig. 8. Variation of conductivity with temperature plot in biopolymers: KI systems.

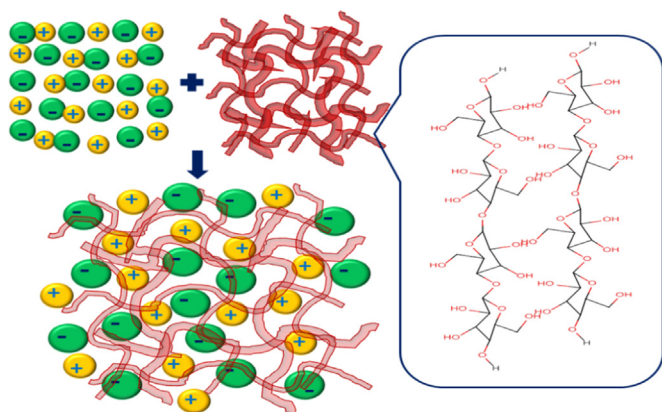


Fig. 7. Schematic diagram showing ion dissociation in biopolymer salt matrix.

that the increase in temperature up to 80 °C promoted an increase in the ionic conductivity to $3.32 \times 10^{-4} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ [273].

Pectin-based membranes with different salts such as LiClO_4 , KCl , $\text{LiClO}_4\text{-Ir(III)}$ and KCl-Ir(III) contents are prepared and studied

by Leones et al. [274]. The most conductive sample of Pectin and KCl exhibits the ionic conductivity of $1.45 \times 10^{-3} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ and $6.31 \times 10^{-3} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ at 25 °C and 90 °C, respectively. The overall redox stability of 7.0 V suggests that this material has an acceptable stability window for an application in solid state electrochemical devices. Such a high ionic conductivity, thermal stability and reproducibility affirm the suitability of biopolymers as electrolyte in electrochemical devices.

4. Recent works by authors

In our laboratory we have tested a series of biopolymers (like Agarose/ Agars, Sago Starch, Arrowroot Starch, Phythagel) doped with different alkali metal salts and carried out detailed electrical and structural investigations specific for the application area of DSSCs [101,136,137,166]. The experimental observations and discussions are described below.

4.1. Structural measurements

4.1.1. FTIR studies

Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) spectra of pure biopolymer and biopolymers doped with KI were recorded using Perkin Elmer 883 IR spectrophotometer between 4000 and 450 cm^{-1} [276–280] (Fig. 4). The different bands assigned to various functional groups are listed in Table 6. Major differences observed in the stretching peaks of the biopolymers with the addition of KI are at the frequency ranges of –OH and –C–O functional groups. This indicates complex formation between the biopolymer and KI [1,2,4,26].

4.1.2. XRD studies

Fig. 5 shows the X-ray diffraction patterns (XRD) of biopolymer-KI electrolytes obtained by using Rigaku D/max-2500 with a scan rate of 2°/min. It is evident that all salts are well dissolved in biopolymer matrix which is affirmed by the disappearance of the crystallinity of biopolymer with the addition of KI. Doping of salt broadens the peak which is clear indication of increase in the amorphous behavior of biopolymer-KI. The decrease in crystallinity (or the increase in amorphicity) by salt doping has the potential of enhancing the overall ionic conductivity of the system.

4.2. Electrical measurements

4.2.1. Electrical conductivity measurements

The ionic conductivity measurements of the biopolymer-KI based electrolyte films were carried out using a CH instrument workstation (model CHI604D, USA) over frequency range of 100 Hz to 1 MHz. Free standing biopolymer electrolyte films were sandwiched between two steel electrodes and the electrical conductivity were evaluated using the below formula

$$\sigma = \frac{l}{R_b \left(\frac{l}{A} \right)} \quad (1)$$

where, σ is the ionic conductivity, R_b is the bulk resistance, l is the thickness of sample and A is the area of given sample.

The calculated σ values of the biopolymer-xwt%KI based electrolytes are shown in Fig. 6. It was found that presence of KI in biopolymer matrix enhances the ionic conductivity up to a certain doping ratio. The increase in the ionic conductivity with increasing KI concentration is generally correlated with the increase in the number of mobile charge carriers while the reduction observed in this value after reaching a maximum can be attributed to

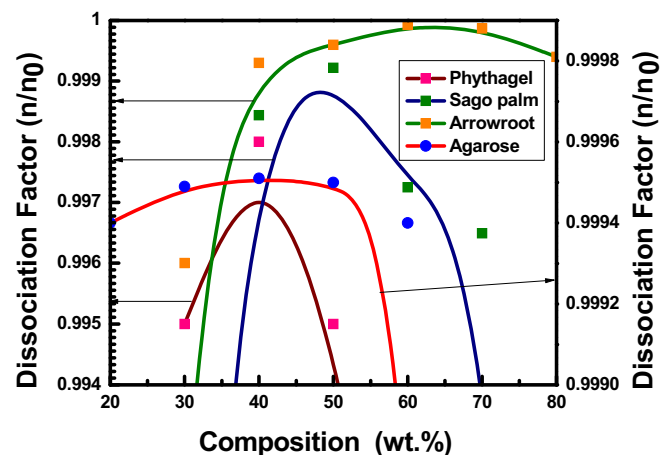


Fig. 9. Change in relative number of charge carriers with increasing amount of KI in biopolymers:KI polymer electrolyte matrix.

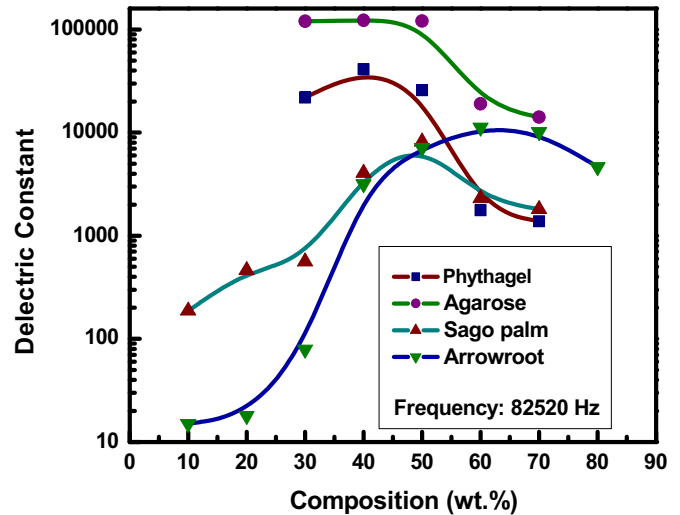


Fig. 10. Dielectric constant vs composition plot of biopolymers:KI polymer electrolyte system.

the formation of ion multiples [136,163,166]. The effect of salt concentration in biopolymer electrolyte matrix is demonstrated through dissociated ions model in Fig. 7. The impedance measurement data clearly explains the role of charge carriers in the biopolymer electrolyte matrix. It can be seen that both mobile concentration factor and dissociated charge fraction, which are both related with mobile ion concentration data, are following the conductivity trend. Hence, ion pair formation and re-dissociation theory is applicable in biopolymer-salt complex systems. Minimum conductivity is due to the decreased dissociation. Increased ion association, *i.e.* decreased dissociation or triplet ion formation, both contribute to the decrement in mobility [101,136,163].

The ionic conductivity (σ) in case of ion conducting electrolyte system is given as

$$\sigma = n \cdot q \cdot \mu \quad (2)$$

where n is the charge carrier density, q is the charge of the carrier and μ is the mobility of the carriers. Therefore any increase in either of the parameters n or q will certainly affect the value of ionic conductivity.

Here the concentration of free charge carrier's density can be given by:

$$n = \left[\frac{\sigma_{DC}}{\left(\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon'_s \omega}{\epsilon'_s}} - 1 \right) \epsilon_0 \epsilon'_s \omega_x} \right]^4 \epsilon_0 \epsilon'_s \frac{kT}{e^2 d^2} \quad (3)$$

σ_{DC} is the conductivity at high frequency, ϵ_0 is vacuum permittivity, k is Boltzmann constant, ϵ'_s and ϵ'_ω are the real permittivity at high frequency and at the frequency of ω , respectively and d is the thickness of the sample. Here, ϵ'_s is the real part of the dielectric permittivity in the high frequency region and ω_x is the angular frequency for which $\epsilon'(\omega_x) = 10\epsilon'_s$. Adding KI in biopolymer matrix provides additional mobile charge species, *i.e.* in present case K^+ cation and I^- anion, and hence ionic conductivity enhances. Variation in number of charge carriers and mobility with KI concentration can be easily understood using Eq. (2). In most of the systems we have observed that the number of charge carriers remains almost same. Beyond certain fixed wt% of dispersoid, the increase in mobility dominates by the decrease in the carrier concentration. This is due to the fact that as the salt concentration increases the amorphicity of the biopolymer matrix increases, thereby allowing more paths to the ions to migrate. As a result the conductivity increases with the addition of the salt

Table 7

The recorded photovoltaic parameters of DSSC observed in biopolymers-salt matrix.

Composition for Agarose/Agar based Biopolymer	Dye	Working Electrode	σ (S cm ⁻¹)	Jsc mA cm ⁻²	Voc (V)	FF (%)	Area (cm ²)	η (%)	Intensity mW cm ⁻²	Ref.
KI-I ₂	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	9.02 × 10 ⁻³	3.27	0.670	0.24	0.6	0.54	100	[101]
NH ₄ I-I ₂ -Glycerol	N719	ITO-ZnO	4.89 × 10 ⁻³	0.007	0.29	–	1	–	100	[103]
MPII-PC/DMSO-GuSCN-NMBI-I ₂	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	–	11.73	0.70	0.64	0.283	5.25	100	[105]
AEII -PC/DMSO-GuSCN-NMBI-I ₂	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	–	11.71	0.72	0.65	0.283	5.45	100	[105]
APII -PC/DMSO-GuSCN-NMBI-I ₂	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	–	11.53	0.70	0.62	0.283	4.97	100	[105]
DAII-PC/DMSO-GuSCN-NMBI-I ₂	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	–	11.84	0.70	0.60	0.283	4.96	100	[105]
DMSO/PC- MPII- GuSCN-NMBI-I ₂	N719	ITO/TiO ₂	14.2 × 10 ⁻³	4.65	0.73	0.58	0.25	1.97	100	[107]
DMSO/4EG-MPII- GuSCN-NMBI-I ₂	N719	ITO/TiO ₂	4.4 × 10 ⁻³	3.69	0.65	0.57	0.25	1.38	100	[107]
DMSO/3EG-MPII- GuSCN-NMBI-I ₂	N719	ITO/TiO ₂	4.6 × 10 ⁻³	4.01	0.61	0.57	0.25	1.39	100	[107]
DMSO/PG- MPII- GuSCN-NMBI-I ₂	N719	ITO/TiO ₂	6.2 × 10 ⁻³	3.21	0.58	0.57	0.25	1.06	100	[107]
DMSO- MPII- GuSCN-NMBI-I ₂	N719	ITO/TiO ₂	5.0 × 10 ⁻³	3.69	0.58	0.54	0.25	1.15	100	[107]
TiO ₂ -NMP- Lil/I ₂	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	2.66 × 10 ⁻³	5.28	0.605	0.55	0.25	1.71	100	[110]
Co ₃ O ₄ -NMP- Lil/I ₂	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	4.37 × 10 ⁻³	7.24	0.635	0.46	0.25	2.11	100	[110]
NiO-NMP- Lil/I ₂	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	3.33 × 10 ⁻³	6.20	0.625	0.52	0.25	2.02	100	[110]
Lil/I ₂ -NMP	–	TiO ₂	3.94 × 10 ⁻⁴	8.24	0.597	0.62	0.25	4.14	73	[111,112]
Lil/I ₂ -NMP-nanoparticle TiO ₂	–	TiO ₂	4.4 × 10 ⁻⁴	10.96	0.545	0.57	0.25	4.74	73	[112]
AN/MOZ- TBP- I ₂ /Lil - Pr ₄ Ni + I ³⁻	N3	FTO/ITO/TiO ₂	4.36 × 10 ⁻³	14.00	0.76	0.66	0.20	7.06	100	[117]
1-alkyl-3-methylimidazoliumiodides- Lil/I ₂ -NMP	N719	FTO/TiO ₂	–	6.77	0.650	0.66	0.25	2.93	100	[113]
Lil/I ₂ -NMP- Fe ₃ O ₄ - polysorbate 80	N719	FTO/TiO ₂	2.98 × 10 ⁻³	5.00	0.7	0.53	–	1.83	100	[108]
Lil/I ₂ -NMP- Fe ₃ O ₄ - PEG200	N719	FTO/TiO ₂	–	3.70	0.67	0.61	–	1.50	100	[108]
Lil/I ₂ -NMP- Fe ₃ O ₄ - PVP	N719	FTO/TiO ₂	–	3.00	0.67	0.59	–	1.19	100	[108]
Lil/I ₂ -NMP- Fe ₃ O ₄ - SDS	N719	FTO/TiO ₂	–	3.18	0.66	0.62	–	1.29	100	[108]
Composition	Dye	Working electrode	σ (S cm ⁻¹)	Jsc mA cm ⁻²	Voc (V)	FF (%)	Area (cm ²)	η (%)	Intensity mW cm ⁻²	Ref.
Carrageenan- AN/MOZ- TBP-I ₂ /Lil-Pr ₄ Ni + I ³⁻	N3	FTO/ITO/TiO ₂	2.92 × 10 ⁻³	14.67	0.73	0.67	0.20	6.87	100	[117]
Carrageenan-AN/MOZ-TBP-I ₂ /Lil - I ³⁻	N3	FTO/ITO/TiO ₂	–	14.67	0.73	0.67	0.20	6.87	100	[117]
Carrageenan-AN/MOZ-(Pr) ₄ Ni-I ₂ - Lil -TBP	N3	PEN/ITO/TiO ₂	–	2.68	0.80	0.72	0.25	1.54	100	[116]
Carrageenan- AN/MOZ-(Pr) ₄ Ni-I ₂ - Lil -TBP	N3	FTO-TiO ₂	–	8.67	0.75	0.65	0.25	4.23	100	[116]
Gellan gum +KI	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	0.00534	0.0666	0.57	0.57	0.45	0.56	100	–
Sago Starch +KI	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	3.4 × 10 ⁻⁴	0.0291	0.582	0.60	0.45	0.578	100	[136]
Amylopectin-DMSO-I ₂ -Lil-DMHIm-(4-tertbutylpyridine)	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	–	6.83	0.74	0.66	0.16	3.34	100	[148]
Arrowroot starch +KI	N719	FTO-TiO ₂	1.04 × 10 ⁻⁴	0.0568	0.56	–	0.45	0.63	100	[165]
Rice-Lil:MPII:TiO ₂	N3	ITO/TiO ₂	3.63 × 10 ⁻⁴	0.49	0.45	0.75	0.25	0.17	100	[159]
Chitosan-Nal-I ₂	–	FTO-TiO ₂	–	1.05	0.349	0.34	0.16	0.13	100	[175]
Chitosan-Nal-I ₂ -EMImSCN	–	FTO-TiO ₂	2.60 × 10 ⁻⁴	2.62	0.53	0.52	0.16	0.73	100	[175]
Chitosan- NH ₄ I- I ₂	–	ITO-TiO ₂	3.73 × 10 ⁻⁷	0.0049	0.15	0.22	0.09	0.29	56.4	[178]
Chitosan- NH ₄ I- I ₂ -EC	–	ITO-TiO ₂	7.34 × 10 ⁻⁶	0.0072	0.22	0.18	0.09	0.51	56.4	[178]
Chitosan- NH ₄ I- I ₂ -BMII	–	ITO-TiO ₂	8.47 × 10 ⁻⁴	0.0192	0.26	0.14	0.09	1.24	56.4	[178]
Chitosan-NH ₄ I-BMII	Black rice anthocyanin	ITO/TiO ₂	3.02 × 10 ⁻⁴	0.9	3.65	0.45	0.16	0.15	100	[179]
Chitosan-PEO-NH ₄ I-I ₂ -BMII	Black rice anthocyanin	ITO-TiO ₂	5.52 × 10 ⁻⁴	1.213	4.00	0.47	0.16	0.23	100	[179]
Tartaric-Phthaloyl Chitosan-NH ₄ I-BMII	Red cabbage anthocyanin	ITO-TiO ₂	5.86 × 10 ⁻⁴	3.472	3.65	0.34	0.16	0.43	100	[179]
Tartaric-Phthaloyl Chitosan-PEO-NH ₄ I -BMII.	Red cabbage anthocyanin	ITO-TiO ₂	6.24 × 10 ⁻⁴	3.503	3.40	0.39	0.16	0.46	100	[179]
Chitosan-PEO-NH ₄ I-I ₂	Lawsonia inermis	ITO/TiO ₂	1.18 × 10 ⁻⁵	0.38	336	0.57	0.05	0.7	100	[181]
Chitosan-PEO-NH ₄ I-I ₂	Sumac/Rhus	ITO/TiO ₂	1.18 × 10 ⁻⁵	0.93	394	0.41	0.05	1.5	100	[181]
Chitosan-PEO-NH ₄ I-I ₂	Curcuma longa	ITO/TiO ₂	1.18 × 10 ⁻⁵	0.20	280	0.65	0.05	0.36	100	[181]

concentration and attains a maximum. This means that the conductivity is not affected by the value of n, and depends on the movement and distribution of charge carriers. At high salt concentrations, ions move in the sample within very short distances and mobility does not affect the conductivity.

4.2.2. Temperature dependent conductivity measurement

Temperature dependent ionic conductivity of solid biopolymer electrolytes are shown in Fig. 8. It is clear that with increasing temperature, the ionic conductivity values increases and follow Arrhenius type behavior. Linear relations are observed in all biopolymer electrolytes, which mean that there is no phase transition in the biopolymer matrix or no domain formed by the addition of

KI. These experiments are restricted by the T_g (glass transition) temperature where bio polymers start phase transition. Variation of conductivity is given with the equation below by considering Arrhenius type behavior

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_a}{kT}\right) \quad (4)$$

where, σ_0 is the pre-exponential factor, E_a is the activation energy and k is the Boltzmann constant. From this relationship, the E_a of biopolymer electrolytes with maximum conductivity values are calculated. The values obtained are 0.33, 0.40, 0.39 and 0.24 eV for the biopolymer electrolytes Sago Palm, Arrowroot, Agarose and Phytagel systems respectively.

4.2.3. Ion dissociation factor

To further clarify the role of charge carriers in biopolymer electrolyte matrix we have evaluated the room temperature dissociation factor (n/n_0) for all studied biopolymers-salt samples. The change in the relative number of charge carriers (n/n_0) with increasing wt% KI are shown in Fig. 9. It is observed that at the maximum doping limit, the n/n_0 values reach a maximum as well and then presents a decreasing trend; follows the same trend observed in conductivity and dielectric measurements. Therefore, the conductivity, in biopolymers:KI matrix is predominantly governed by the number of charge carriers as suggested by Barker [275] (electrolyte dissociation theory) using the equation

$$n = n_0 \exp \left\{ - \frac{U}{2\epsilon kT} \right\} \quad (5)$$

where, U is the dissociation energy of the salt, k is Boltzmann constant, ϵ is the dielectric constant of the system, and T is the temperature of the sample.

4.2.4. Dielectric studies

The information about different molecular motion and relaxation processes, are well correlated with the dielectric studies. Dielectric measurements are extremely sensitive to small changes in material properties (molecular relaxation of the order of only a few nanometer involves dipole changes that can be observed by dielectric study). In order to justify the overall contribution of the number of free charge carriers in the total conductivity, the dielectric constant (ϵ) of the biopolymer electrolyte films are calculated. Fig. 10 shows the change in dielectric constant with increasing amount of KI in the biopolymer electrolyte at one typical frequency *i.e.* at 82520 Hz. It is clear that conductivity data are well matched with the dielectric data. The addition of KI in the biopolymers causes changes in the dielectric constant of the matrix, which effects the number of free charge carriers and thereby the conductivity.

4.2.5. Ionic transference number measurement using DC polarization method

Using this simple method, we have evaluated the percentage of ionic or electronic nature in biopolymer:KI electrolyte films. Fixed DC potential of 0.25 V is applied for ~6 h to the steel plate/biopolymer electrolyte/steel plate system. The DC current is monitored with respect to time using Keithley 2400 source meter. After applying a DC potential, due to the ionic movement (ions start moving towards the other donor site) current is increased initially and after attaining the peak current it is saturated and decreasing trend is appeared (Fig. not shown here). By monitoring initial current and final current and using Eq. (6), the ionic transference numbers of biopolymer electrolytes are calculated as 0.94, 0.93, 0.82, 0.92 for Sago Palm, Arrowroot, Agarose and Phythage systems respectively, which confirms the ionic nature of the biopolymers electrolyte system.

$$t_{\text{ion}} = \frac{I_{\text{initial}} - I_{\text{final}}}{I_{\text{initial}}} \quad (6)$$

4.3. Dye sensitized solar cell performance ($I-V$ curve)

The photovoltaic performance ($I-V$ curve) of the DSSCs are measured with Keithley 2400 source meter under 1 sun light condition (Fig. not shown). For developing redox couple in biopolymer-KI electrolyte system, addition of iodine in the polymer matrix is needed. DSSCs are fabricated by using the highest ionic conductivity composition of the electrolytes. The different photovoltaic parameters such as J_{sc} (A cm^{-2}), V_{oc} (V), FF (%), Area (cm^2) and light intensity in biopolymers: salt matrix developed in our

laboratory [101,136,137,166] as well as exist in literature are listed in Table 7 [101–181].

5. Conclusions

This review article provides a thorough overview of the structure, occurrence, and properties- chemical, physical, electrical with technical applications of the most biopolymers generated by different sources. We have successfully presented collective data on the additives used by the researchers to enhance the ionic conductivity of biopolymer based electrolytes for device performance particularly on DSSC and battery. It was observed that the biopolymer electrolytes in general followed Arrhenius type of behavior and its ionic conductivity is predominantly governed by the ionic charge carriers. Structural studies revealed that the complexation of biopolymer with dispersoids (salts) decreases the crystallinity of biopolymer matrix and consequently enhances the amorphous region and hence conductivity increases drastically. These biopolymer-salt complexed systems possess high conductivity values (10^{-3} to 10^{-4} S/cm) which further affirm that biopolymer electrolyte could be a novel alternative in developing highly efficient DSSC and battery and help the scientific community to keep the environment clean and ecofriendly.

Acknowledgments

The authors are thankful to the Scientists/researchers on sabbatical leave, 2221 support program of the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey, TUBITAK, Department of Science & Technology project (DST/TSG/PT/2012/51-C) government of India and National Research Foundation under the Ministry of Science, ICT & Future Planning, Korea (2011-0031570).

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