

JINFENG ZHAO

Electrochemical characteristics of Bi(*hkl*) and
micro-mesoporous carbon electrodes in
ionic liquid based electrolytes



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Electrochemical characteristics of Bi(*hkl*) and
micro-mesoporous carbon electrodes in
ionic liquid based electrolytes



Institute of Chemistry, Faculty of Science and Technology, University of Tartu,
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1. LIST OF ORIGINAL PUBLICATIONS

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- II **J. Zhao**, G. Gorbatovski, O. Oll, E. Anderson, E. Lust, Influence of water on the electrochemical characteristics and nanostructure of Bi(*hkl*) | ionic liquid interface, *Electrochimica Acta*. 415 (2022) 140263.
- III **J. Zhao**, G. Gorbatovski, O. Oll, T. Thomberg, E. Lust, Effect of alkali and halide ion doping on the energy storage characteristics of ionic liquid based supercapacitors, *Electrochimica Acta*. 319 (2019) 82–87.
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- Paper IV:** Performed all electrochemistry measurements, data analysis and data interpretation. Mainly responsible for the preparation of the manuscript.

2. ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

A	electrode area
BF_4^-	tetrafluoroborate anion
BMIm^+	1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium cation
C	capacitance
c	concentration of analyte
CCCD	constant current charge/discharge
CCD	constant current discharge
CDC	carbide derived carbon
C_{dl}	electrical double layer capacitance
C_g	gravimetric capacitance
CPE	constant phase element
C_{pseudo}	pseudocapacitance
C_s	series capacitance at fixed frequency
CV	cyclic voltammetry
CVD	cyclic voltammetry discharge
D	diffusion coefficient
DEME^+	N,N-diethyl-N-methyl-N-(2-methoxyethyl)ammonium cation
E	electrode potential
EC	equivalent circuit
ECSTM	electrochemical scanning tunneling microscopy
EDL	electrical double layer
EDLC	electrical double layer capacitor
EIS	electrochemical impedance spectroscopy
EMImBF_4	1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate
EMImMeSO_3	1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium methanesulfonate
EMImOTf	1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium trifluoromethanesulfonate
EMImTFSI	1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide
EMIm^+	1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium cation
$E_{p,a}$	anodic peak potential
$E_{p,c}$	cathodic peak potential
ΔE_p	difference of peak potentials
$E(t)$	potential at time t
E_0	potential amplitude
F	faraday constant
f	frequency (Hz)
FAP^-	tris(pentafluoroethyl)trifluorophosphate anion
Fc	ferrocene
FSI^-	bis(fluorosulfonyl)imide anion
GCS	Gouy-Chapman-Stern model
h	Planck constant
I	electrode current

i	imaginary number ($\sqrt{-1}$)
IL	ionic liquid
I_p	peak current
$I_{p,a}$	anodic peak current
$I_{p,c}$	cathodic peak current
$I(t)$	current at time t
I_0	current amplitude
J_T	tunneling current
$J_0(V)$	tunneling current amplitude oscillation with applied voltage difference
j	electrode current density
m	mass of an electrode
m_e	electron mass
n	number of electrons
OTf ⁻	trifluoromethanesulfonate anion
PMImI	1-propyl-3-methylimidazolium iodide
PTFE	polytetrafluoroethylene
PYR ₁₃ ⁺	N-methyl-N-propyl-pyrrolidinium cation
PYR ₁₄ ⁺	N-methyl-N-butyl-pyrrolidinium cation
PYR ₁₍₂₀₁₎ ⁺	N-methyl-N-methoxyethyl-pyrrolidinium cation
R	resistance
R_{ads}	adsorption resistance
R_{ct}	charge transfer resistance
R_D	diffusion resistance
R_s	series resistance
RTIL	room temperature ionic liquid
SC	supercapacitor
STM	scanning tunneling microscopy
TFSI ⁻	bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide anion
t	time
U	cell potential
v	scan rate
Z	impedance
Z'	real part of impedance
Z''	imaginary part of impedance
Z_W	Warburg-like finite-length diffusion impedance
Z_{W-T}	time derived from Warburg element
Z_0	impedance amplitude
Δz	tip-sample distance
ψ^*	average electron emission work function
ω	angular frequency
φ	phase angle shifted
η_{ef}	energy efficiency
σ_s	surface charge density
τ_R	characteristic relaxation time constant

3. INTRODUCTION

In the past decades, the primary interest in interface electrochemistry of ionic liquids (ILs) is due to their unique structure and properties. It includes the adsorption of cations and anions, diffusion of ionic species, kinetics of the electrochemical processes, and electrical double layer (EDL) formation at electrode | IL interfaces, which are the essential subject of electrochemistry in energy storage technologies [1–4]. Variations in the crystallographic structure of the electrode surface, the composition of IL, and the mixtures with IL salts or organic solvents can make considerable differences in the interface structure, observed by the potential dependence of capacitive and resistive behaviour. The electrochemical interface behaviour strongly affects the choice of ILs as electrolytes for the electrochemical power sources.

In this work, the potential dependence of the capacitive and resistive processes at different single crystal bismuth electrodes has been studied in various ILs by cyclic voltammetry (CV), electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), and *in-situ* scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) methods. The specifically adsorbed anions of ILs and IL salts are the leading cause of the anomalous capacitance maxima in the capacitance vs. potential curves (C , E curves), such as the specific adsorption of Br^- , I^- , and methanesulfonate (MeSO_3^-) anions observed at Bi(111) electrode. In addition, the arrangements of anions from ILs at Bi(111) and Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) planes can be depicted clearly from *in-situ* STM images, which depends on the electrode potentials applied. Interestingly, in the presence of small amounts of water, significant capacitance peaks in the C , E curves are observed in IL 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium trifluoromethanesulfonate (EMImOTf) at Bi(hkl) electrodes due to the specific adsorption of OTf^- ions interacted with water molecules. However, there is no capacitance peak in C , E curve for the dried EMImOTf system. Furthermore, because of the effect of water additive, higher capacitance values are obtained at Bi(hkl) | EMImOTf interfaces within the electrode potential region.

Due to the specific adsorption of halide ions from ILs, it is an interesting entry point to increase the capacitance performance of the related electrochemical devices, such as supercapacitors (SCs). Therefore, halide ion and alkali ion salts are adopted in SCs to improve the capacitance performance. The methodology is achieved by the up to 5wt% halide (EMImCl+EMImBr+EMImI) and alkali IL mixtures (LiTFSI+NaTFSI+KTFSI) in 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide (EMImTFSI) soaked into the micro-mesoporous carbon electrodes (halide IL mixture for positive electrode, alkali IL mixture for negative electrode, respectively). Compared with SCs treated with the neat EMImTFSI, the SCs treated with the halide IL mixtures show a remarkable improvement in capacitance performance. However, the SCs treated with the alkali IL mixtures do not show the enhancement of capacitance. Interestingly, the SC treated with the halide (for positive electrode) and alkali (for negative electrode) IL mixtures shows relatively large and highly consistent

capacitance values compared to other SC systems studied. The main reason for improving the capacitance performance is the specific adsorption and redox activity characteristics of both I^- and Br^- ions.

This work aims to provide a fundamental understanding of the electrochemical behaviour of electrode | IL interface from the CVs and C, E curves [I–II]. Another aim of this work is to take advantage of the specifically adsorbed halide ions, which contribute to the capacitance performance of SCs [III–IV]. It demonstrates that a better understanding of the electrochemical interface could give practical guidance for developing novel energy storage devices in the future.

4. LITERATURE OVERVIEW

4.1. Ionic liquids

The ionic liquids (ILs) are liquid salts solely composed of cations and anions below 100 °C, literally defined as room temperature ionic liquids (RTILs) [5–8]. The major attraction for ILs is the extensive possibilities in combinations of cations and anions. That is, the cations and anions can be combined independently in order to optimize the desirable IL types. Most used cations include alkylpyridinium, alkylimidazolium, alkylphosphonium, and alkylammonium cations. The anions are usually BF_4^- , PF_6^- , CF_3SO_3^- , $(\text{CF}_3\text{SO}_2)_2\text{N}^-$, and so forth. According to large numbers of discovered analogous compounds, it is possible to compose 10^6 types of ILs by using different combinations of cations and anions (examples shown in Figure 1) [2]. From the early generation of haloaluminate based ILs to the current non-haloaluminate based ILs, the price of ILs for commercial use has become more and more reasonable and affordable.

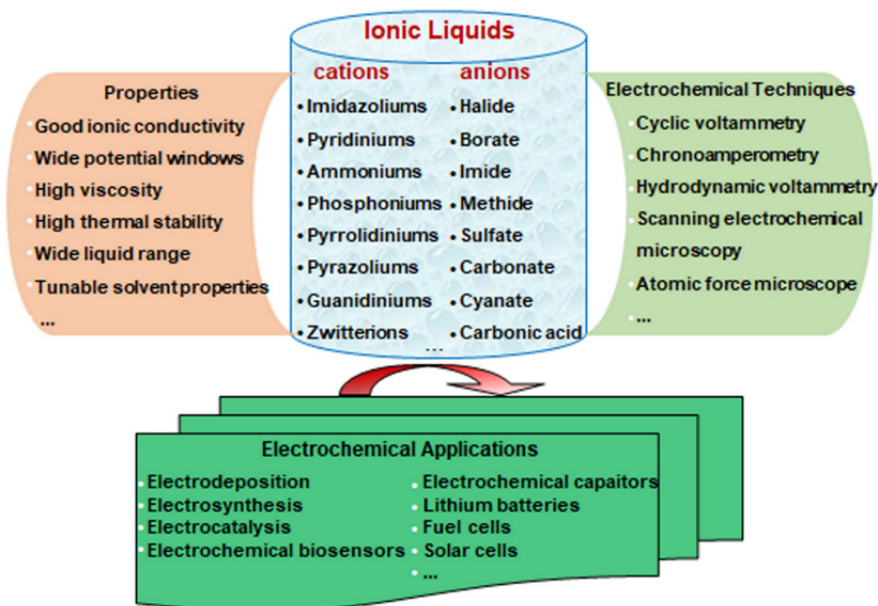


Figure 1. Scheme demonstrating typical ILs, including the properties and electrochemical applications for ILs, and the methods applied to investigate IL electrochemistry [2].

Although the first IL was reported in 1914, half century later, only a few works on ILs were undertaken [9,10]. Nowadays, ILs have gained popularity in the chemistry community due to their excellent physicochemical properties, such as negligible vapor pressure, high electrochemical and thermal stability, and good ionic conductivity [11]. IL applications in green chemistry have drawn much research attention to creating a cleaner and more sustainable chemistry world. One popular application is the electrochemical devices in energy storage and conversion, such as battery technologies, fuel cells, and SCs [3,4,7]. Among these typical applications in electrochemical energy storage devices, ILs are mainly used as electrolyte components. Compared to traditional organic solvent based and aqueous electrolytes, ILs have a unique advantage in the non-flammability and high electrochemical stability to improve electrolyte safety and stability. All these advantages provide more possibilities for IL applications. However, the commercial applications of IL electrolytes are still in their development stage. One possible reason is the prohibitive expense of ILs, especially in comparison with the conventional organic solvent based electrolytes [8]. Despite the recent remarkable progress in the development of ILs, the explorations of more economical and more applicable ILs are still important. Another obstacle is the high viscosity of ILs, which results in relatively low rate capacity, especially for batteries at low temperatures. Thus, the mixtures of ILs and organic solvents have become a popular strategy to decrease the viscosity of electrolytes [12,13].

4.2. Electrochemistry of electrode | ionic liquid interfaces

The fundamental interface electrochemistry of ILs helps to choose a task-specific IL electrolyte because many electrochemical processes involve the adsorption, charge transfer, and diffusion processes of cations and anions, which occur at the interface between electrode and electrolyte. The electrochemical behaviour at the electrode | IL interface has been studied extensively by various techniques, including both computer simulation [14–24] and experimental techniques, for instance, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) [25–35], sum frequency generation spectroscopy (SFG) [36,37], atomic force microscopy (AFM) [38–41], and scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) [42–51]. The electrical double layer (EDL) structure is often discussed to understand the electrochemical processes at an electrode | IL interface. The early EDL model describes that EDL behaves like a plane dielectric capacitor, proposed by Helmholtz in 1853 [52]. The Helmholtz model assumes that the counterions stay at the corresponding plate of a capacitor. However, this assumption ignores the space charge of ions behind the layer. Thus, the Helmholtz model cannot explain the minimum value of the differential capacitance curve for diluted solutions. In the early 20th century, Gouy and Chapman proposed the EDL diffusion layer (so-called Gouy-Chapman model) by considering that the counterions in solution form the diffusion layer under the electrostatic force and

thermal motion [53,54]. However, this model assumes the ions as point charges without considering the size of ions, thus neglecting the existence of the compact layer. In 1924, Stern proposed the Gouy-Chapman-Stern model (also known as the GCS model), composed of the Helmholtz compact layer and the Gouy-Chapman diffuse layer [55]. Since the 1940s, many extensions of the GCS model have been given (i.e., the Graham model [56] and Bockris-Devanathan-Müller model [57]).

In an analogy with the classical EDL theory in diluted aqueous solutions and high-temperature molten salts, the EDL structure in ILs should be completely different due to the dual solute-and-solvent properties of ILs. Therefore, there are emerging rediscoveries and modifications in the EDL models of electrode | IL interfaces. The theoretical equation for EDL in IL established by Kornyshev [14] predicted the shape of the differential capacitance curves and the position of the potential of zero charge (pzc) by ignoring the short-range forces between ions and the change of ion volume under polarization. Later, Oldham [58] and Lauw et al. [19] proposed the derivations of the GCS model and concluded the pzc in ILs from the maximum or local minimum capacitance of differential capacitance curves. Afterward, extensive theoretical and modeling studies have been reported [23,24,59–61]. In experimental research, starting from the 21st century, many feature articles on the EDL conceptions and capacitance values at electrode | IL interfaces were published and reviewed [26,47, 62–64]. The Ohsaka group [27,31] systematically studied the interfacial structure at different temperatures by changing the length of alky groups of ILs and electrode types, which primarily described the arrangement of adsorbed cations and anions within EDL obtained from differential capacitance curves. Mao group [48] proposed the diagram-like interface model according to the arrangements of ions at Au(100) | IL interface investigated by STM result.

There is no doubt that the capacitances determined by the EDL characteristics are directly related to the energy storage characteristics of electrochemical devices. More and more data on EDL capacitance in different ILs have been published over the last 20 years, suggesting a significant research prospect. There are several factors that can influence the EDL capacitance in ILs, such as the ion size [19,25,26,61,65–67], electrode material [31,35,65,68], temperature [26–28,64], electrode polarization [26,45], and the interactions both between different ions and between ions and the electrode [61,69,70]. The experimental studies on EDL capacitances have shown the complexity of the electrode | IL interface. For instance, the shapes of differential capacitance curves of the same IL at different electrodes are different. The polarization region of the electrode also affects the ionic structure formed at the interface. The ion arrangements strongly depend on electrode potentials applied, especially at the higher potentials [38]. The specific adsorption of ions causes an increase of EDL capacitance at the typical polarization regime of the electrode. Besides, the capacitances calculated by various methods are somewhat different, suggesting that the available database for EDL capacitance in ILs needs to be further explored.

4.3. Energy storage characteristics in supercapacitors

Capacitance performance is vital for electrochemical devices due to the energy stored within the EDL. Electrochemical capacitors, so-called supercapacitors (SCs), consist of two electrodes, separated by a separator and filled with an electrolyte containing mobile ionic species [71]. Compared with batteries, SC is a short-term energy storage device and delivers high power by one or two mechanisms involving the ions stored/released in EDL and surface faradaic processes [72,73]. One of the strategies for obtaining better performance of SC is to increase the capacity mainly in achieving the maximum of the EDL charging. Therefore, the porosity of carbon electrode materials was optimized [74–78]. Various ILs were tested [79–85]. The pseudocapacitance was obtained using redox active electrolytes [86–89] and pseudocapacitive electrode materials [90–92]. Recently, many efforts have focused on the correlations between the specific surface area and capacitance [74,93,94]. The nanoporous carbide-derived carbon (CDC) electrode materials were optimized to best fit selectively adsorbed ions [74,75,95,96]. Considering the limitation of operating voltages for SCs with conventional solvent-based electrolytes, IL-based electrolytes are promising to allow the realization of high voltage SCs. Some examples are given in Table 1.

Table 1. ILs used as electrolytes for SCs [84].

Ionic liquid	Conductivity [mS/cm]	Viscosity [m Pa s]	ESW [V]	Comments
PYR ₁₄ TFSI	2.2 @ 25°C 6.0 @ 60°C	85 @ 25°C	5.5 @ 60°C	Cycling @ 60°C Voltage: 3–4.0V 25,000 cycles
PYR ₁₍₂₀₁₎ TFSI	3.8 @ RT 8.4 @ 60°C	58 @ 20°C 15 @ 60°C	5.0 @ 60°C	Cycling @ 60°C Voltage: 3–3.8V 25,000 cycles
PYR ₁₃ TFSI	1.4 @ 25°C 4.1 @ 25°C	63 @ 25°C	5.3 @ RT	Cycling @ 60°C Voltage: 3.5V 10% capacitance loss after 800 cycles
PYR ₁₄ FAP	2.2 @ 60°C	292 @ RT	5.6 @ 60°C	Only CVs @ 60°C
PYR ₁₄ OTf	2.0 @ RT 5.5 @ 60°C	n.a.	6.0 @ 60°C	Cycling @ 60°C Voltage: 3.5–3.9V 35% capacitance loss after 20,000 cycles
EMImBF ₄	14 @ 25°C	37 @ 25°C	4.0 @ 25°C	Float voltage 15 days @ 3.0V
EMImTFSI	8.3 @ 25°C	28 @ 25°C	4.1 @ 25°C	Float voltage 2 days @ 3.0V

Ionic liquid	Conductivity [mS/cm]	Viscosity [m Pa s]	ESW [V]	Comments
EMImFSI	15.5 @ 25°C	17.9@ 25°C	4.5 @ 25°C	Self-discharge rate capacity, 10,000 cycles
BMIImBF ₄	3.5 @ 25°C	18 @ 25°C	3.25@ 25°C	CVs, 100cycles
DEMEBF ₄	4.8 @ RT	12 @ RT	6.0 @ RT	500 cycles rate capability

The redox active electrolytes, by adding halide ions [97–100], redox metal ion compounds [87,101,102], and redox molecules [95,103,104], have been deployed to take advantage of the pseudocapacitance effect. A feature example is that an IL mixture of EMImBF₄ and EMImI as an electrolyte can improve the capacitance performance of SCs due to the specific adsorption of iodide ions [98]. However, these redox active components may decrease the maximum cell voltage and accelerate cell degradation of a SC device. This issue can be attributed to the carbon pore blockage with iodide complexes, initiating a significant variation in concentration gradients of electrolytes. The compromise between taking advantage of redox active species and avoiding the pore blockage can be achieved by the proper ratio of different halide ions (I⁻, Br⁻, Cl⁻) to form interhalide compounds [105,106]. Such considerations can provide a possibility for enhancing capacitance without the blockage of pores.

4.4. Electrochemical characterization techniques

4.4.1. Cyclic voltammetry

The cyclic voltammetry (CV) method is used extensively in the electrochemistry community. The working electrode potential (E) is repeatedly scanned from the initial potential to a terminated potential at a specific scan rate and then swept back to the initial potential. The current (I) response to the potential is recorded as an I, E curve, also known as a cyclic voltammogram. CV can give quantitative information on the surface processes.

The characteristic peaks of CVs within the applied potential range show the charge transfer processes at the electrode surface, mainly corresponding to the reduction or oxidation of electrochemically active species. For the reversible electrochemical systems, the peak current, I_p , is simplified by the Randles-Sevcik equation at 298.15 K:

$$I_p = (2.69 \times 10^5) n^{3/2} A c D^{1/2} \nu^{1/2}, \quad (1)$$

where n is the number of electrons transferred, A is the electrode area (cm²), c is the analyte concentration (mol/cm³), D is the diffusion coefficient (cm²/s), and ν

is the scan rate (V/s) [107,108]. Accordingly, the peak current is directly proportional to the concentration. For the mass-transfer controlled processes, the peak current is proportional to the square root of the scan rate.

In addition, there are two parameters derived from CVs: the peak current ratio, $I_{p,a}/I_{p,c}$ (ratio of anodic peak current to cathodic peak current), and the peak potential difference, ΔE_p (potential difference between the anodic peak and the cathodic peak). For a fully reversible redox couple, $I_{p,a}/I_{p,c}$ ($= 1$) strongly depends on the chemical reactions coupled with the redox processes. For a reversible couple, the correlation between the ΔE_p and n is given by equation (2):

$$\Delta E_p = E_{p,a} - E_{p,c} = \frac{0.059}{n} V. \quad (2)$$

For example, a ΔE_p for a fast one-electron process ($n = 1$) is about 59 mV [107,108].

The peak current is controlled by both the charge transfer and mass transfer processes for irreversible and quasi-reversible systems. The ΔE_p value for a one-electron process is not equal to 59 mV. In addition, the individual peaks are reduced in size and widely separated for an irreversible process.

There are no current peaks in the I, E curve for an ideally capacitive system. Therefore, for a symmetrical SC device, the gravimetric capacitance C_g for one electrode can be calculated from the CV data according to the following equation:

$$C_g = \frac{2I}{vm}, \quad (3)$$

where I is the electrode current, v is the potential scan rate, and m is the mass of one electrode.

4.4.2. Constant current technique

The constant current technique is conducted by the current signal as the independent variable to obtain the dependent variable (potential signal) as a function of time. In principle, the instrumentation for the constant current measurement is much simpler than that for constant potential measurement because there is no requirement for feedback from the reference electrode to control the device [107]. Thus, the constant current charge/discharge (CCCD) method is extensively applied in the SCs and battery technologies to describe the performance behaviour, i.e., the energy density and energy efficiency of a device.

For an electrical double layer capacitor (EDLC), the discharge capacitance, $C_{discharge}$, can be calculated from the discharge curve (cell potential (U) vs. time (t) dependence) according to the following equation:

$$C_{discharge} = I \frac{dt}{dU}. \quad (4)$$

To combine with the equation (3), for a symmetrical EDLC device, the discharge capacitance of one electrode can be expressed as

$$C_{discharge} = \frac{2Idt}{dUm}, \quad (5)$$

where, m is the mass of one electrode.

Additionally, the ratio of released energy to stored energy is to evaluate the efficiency of a device, expressed as energy efficiency (η_{ef}). The energy efficiency can also be calculated from the CCCD curves by the integrating area ratio of the discharge curve to charge curve [109]:

$$\eta_{ef} = \frac{\int U(t)dt_{discharge}}{\int U(t)dt_{charge}}. \quad (6)$$

4.4.3. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) is an effective technique for probing the electrode processes occurring at the electrode | electrolyte interface. The EIS method has become valuable for electrochemically characterizing the power source cells and materials in recent years. The EIS measurements are carried out at different ac frequencies and analyse the response (current or voltage) by applying a small-amplitude perturbation signal (sinusoidal voltage or current) to the electrochemical cell. Then the system response to electrical perturbation (current or potential) is transformed into a new function of impedance (Z) by mathematical calculation. In general, the analysis of the system response gives information about electrode processes and complex interfaces.

Under the EIS measurement, a sinusoidal voltage perturbation is applied to the electrochemical system:

$$E(t) = E_0 \sin \omega t, \quad (7)$$

where $E(t)$ is the potential at time t , E_0 is the potential amplitude, ω is the angular frequency (rad s^{-1}) with relation to frequency f (Hz): $\omega = 2\pi f$. The current response $I(t)$ to the voltage perturbation at the same frequency is given by

$$I(t) = I_0 \sin \omega t + \varphi, \quad (8)$$

where $I(t)$ is the current at time t , I_0 is the current amplitude, and φ is the phase shifted between voltage and current sinusoidal wave. According to Ohm's law, the impedance (complex resistance), Z , is expressed by

$$Z = \frac{E(t)}{I(t)}. \quad (9)$$

Obviously, the impedance is a vector quantity. Impedance can be simply expressed by using the complex notation:

$$Z = Z_0(\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi) = Z' + iZ'', \quad (10)$$

where the impedance Z_0 has the unit of resistance with a magnitude $Z_0 = E_0/I_0$, Z' is the real part of impedance, Z'' is the imaginary part of the impedance, and $i = \sqrt{-1}$ [107,110,111].

The ultimate purpose of EIS measurement is to determine the contribution of the double layer, electron transfer, mass transfer processes to an electrochemical system. The EIS technique is a transient record based on the voltage or current response, which describes the electrode processes in electrochemical systems. The resulting impedance spectrum, known as the Nyquist plot, contains extensive information about the electrified interface and electron transfer process. Based on a circuit concept in electrical engineering practice, an electrochemical system is generally described by resistive, charge transfer, diffusion, and capacitive behaviour. In the case of a combination of resistance and capacitance, the real part Z' and imaginary part Z'' of an impedance complex plane show the resistive and capacitive characteristics of an electrochemical system, respectively. Therefore, an equivalent circuit (EC) containing simple physical elements has been applied to calculate the impedance data.

As an EC element, a pure resistor is fully resistive with $Z_0 = R$ and $\varphi = 0$ at any frequencies. Additionally, a pure capacitor can behave fully capacitive ($\varphi = -90^\circ$), and corresponding frequency-dependent capacitance C can be calculated from $Z_0 = \frac{1}{\omega C} = \frac{1}{2\pi f C}$.

In general, an EC consisting of both resistor and capacitor elements can describe the processes that take place at electrochemical interfaces. However, the EC model has many extensions for analysing the interface characteristics between electrolyte and electrode. For example, the constant phase element (CPE) describes the EDL capacitance to eliminate the experimentally observed capacitance dispersion effect [26,28,31,62]. Besides, the most suitable EC scheme should fit well with the experimental impedance data and have a valid physical meaning for interfacial processes.

4.4.4. *In-situ* scanning tunneling microscopy

Over the last two decades, the scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) technique has been widely used to analyse surface structure at the atomic resolution level, commonly for well-defined and atomically smooth surfaces. Among the probe microscopes family, the STM was early developed by Gerd Binnig and Heinrich Rohrer in 1981 [112]. The critical principle of STM is that the tunneling current (J_T) flows through a narrow potential barrier between the conducting sample surface and a sharp metal tip when the tip approaches close to the surface, i.e., less than a few nanometres. Electron tunneling occurs under the over-

lap of wave functions between the tip and sample surface atoms. According to the quantum mechanics theory and extensions applied, J_T can be expressed approximately by a simple formula [113]:

$$J_T = J_0(V)e^{-\frac{4\pi}{h}\sqrt{2m_e\psi^*}\Delta z}. \quad (11)$$

As the equation shows, the tunneling current depends exponentially on the tip-sample distance, Δz . The exponential dependence of tunneling current on the distance between the tip and surface atoms provides the sensitivity of measured current, which allows obtaining high spatial resolution of surface structure [114,115]. In addition, other factors also influence the tunneling current, the value $J_0(V)$, which is assumed to be independent of the tip-sample distance, the average electron emission work function ψ^* , electron mass m_e , and Planck constant h ($6.62607015 \times 10^{-34} \text{J} \cdot \text{Hz}^{-1}$).

Generally, there are two measurement modes to obtain the STM image. One is the constant current mode. The tip scans over the surface at a constant current by continuously tuning the vertical position of the tip under a feedback mechanism. Another is the constant height mode. The tip moves above the surface at a constant distance of several angstroms to record the changes in tunneling current. It is more effective to investigate an atomically smooth surface in this mode. This mode allows investigating the real-time changes occurring on a surface by applying very high scan rates and a quick record of STM images [115].

An extension, electrochemical STM (ECSTM), also known as *in-situ* STM (to observe the real-time changes occurring on the surface), combines basic STM and classical electrochemical methods. The *in-situ* STM measurement can give valuable information on the structure of electrode | electrolyte interface, the dynamic of the surface process, and the formation of an electrochemical new phase at a nanoscale. Although the fundamentals of *in-situ* STM are the same as conventional STM, additional notes for *in-situ* STM are the three-electrode electrochemical cell where the sample substrate is used as a working electrode and the development of suitable probes to image the surface morphology under potential control. In the bipotentiostat approach, both tip and sample electrode potential are independently controlled by referring to a reference electrode in liquid environments. A corresponding bipotentiostat configuration is given in Figure 2 [115]. In this configuration, the potentiostats control the potentials of the tip and working electrode substrate separately with regard to the reference electrode.

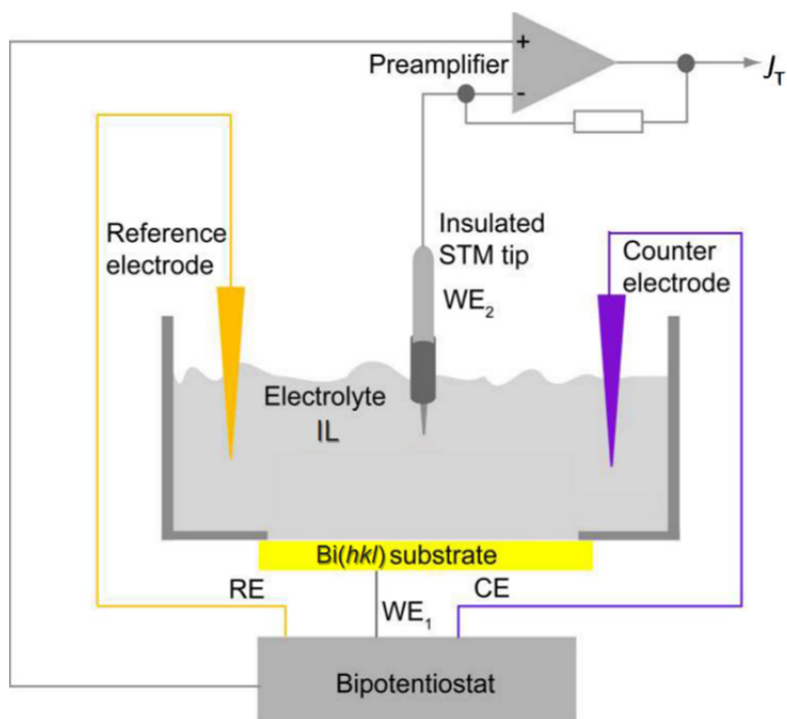


Figure 2. *In-situ* STM configuration, bipotentiostat approach to control the potentials of both tip and sample electrode [115].

In principle, for ECSTM, the current flowing through the tip includes three components: (1) STM tunneling current, (2) capacitive current by the charge-discharge process within the EDL regime at the tip | electrolyte interface, and (3) faradaic current caused by the electrochemical reaction at the tip surface (if there is a faradaic reaction) [115]. The STM measurement can be interfered by the latter two currents, (2) and (3), even worse if these two types of currents are higher than the STM tunneling current itself. In this case, these two electrochemical contributions should be suppressed to make the STM measurement available under the tip current being considerably more prominent than the electrochemical currents. Except for individually minimizing the electrochemical currents, another practical approach is the tip coated by an electric insulator to reduce the faradaic and capacitive currents. The coating materials for tip insulation should be chemically stable in an electrolyte solution. Commonly used coating materials are ApiezonTM wax, organic polymers, and glass [116]. In addition, the STM tips are commonly prepared by the electrochemically etched tungsten wire, meanwhile keeping the tip apex uncoated.

As mentioned above, the current flowing through the tip can be very sensitive to different stages so that *in-situ* STM measurements are not that easily exercisable. The *in-situ* STM result for an electrochemical interface is also related to

the sample preparations, including the atomically flat substrate, highly clean substrate, a well conductive substrate, and a considerably stable surface [117, 118]. Many surface treatment methods have been applied to prepare electrodes for STM measurements, such as the electrochemical polishing [119,120] and mechanical cleaving [45] procedures used for Bi electrodes. These stringent requirements of the *in-situ* STM technique are essential in providing detailed surface structure information at an atomic level in electrochemical interface studies. On the other hand, surface studies by *in-situ* STM have witnessed significant success in obtaining STM images of atomic scale under electrochemical processes. One example is the potential-dependent surface structure at the electrode | electrolyte interface [121–124].

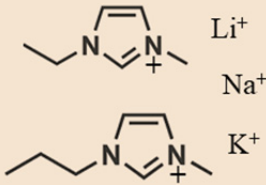
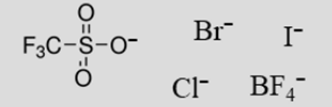
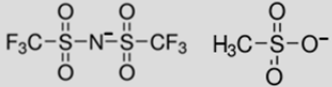
5. EXPERIMENTAL

5.1. Three-electrode electrochemical cell

5.1.1. Electrode preparation and cell setup

Ionic liquids, 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium trifluoromethanesulfonate (EMImOTf, 99.5%, Solvionic), 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide (EMImTFSI, 99.5%, Solvionic), 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate (EMImBF₄, 99%, Solvionic), 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium methanesulfonate (EMImMeSO₃, 99.5%, Solvionic), 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bromide (EMImBr, 99.9%, Io-Li-Tec), and 1-propyl-3-methylimidazolium iodide (PMImI, 99.9%, Merck), were applied as electrolytes in three-electrode electrochemical cell systems (the components of ILs are shown in table 2). The drying procedure for ILs was carried out in an ultrahigh vacuum at 70 °C for 72 hours. The water content of neat EMImOTf is less than 20 ppm provided by the Karl-Fisher analysis report. A uniform diluted solution of 0.1 wt% H₂O in EMImOTf was prepared [125]. The working electrodes, Bi(111), Bi(01 $\bar{1}$), and Bi(001), were first mechanically polished with sandpaper and then electrochemically polished in KI and HCl aqueous solution. The counter electrode (Pt net) and reference electrode (Pt wire) were prepared with flame annealing and ultrapure water rinsing. The reference electrode was immersed in a Luggin capillary filled with test IL to separate it from the working electrode. The reference electrode potential was calibrated in EMImBF₄ containing a moderate amount of ferrocene (Fc, 98%, Sigma-Aldrich). The calibration procedure was conducted in a three-electrode electrochemical cell. The Pt wire was used as a working electrode, Pt net as a counter electrode, and Pt wire in a Luggin capillary filled with EMImBF₄ as a reference electrode [70]. The prepared ILs and IL mixtures, bismuth single crystal electrodes, Pt net, and Pt wire were assembled into a three-electrode electrochemical cell inside an Ar-filled glove-box (H₂O < 1 ppm, O₂ < 1 ppm).

Table 2. The anions and cations of ILs studied in this work.

Cations	Anions
	
	

5.1.2. Electrochemical characterizations

The assembled three-electrode cell systems were investigated and characterized by CV, EIS (Autolab PGSTAT 320 with FRA II), and *in-situ* STM (Agilent Technologies 5500 and Molecular Imaging MS300) techniques. The CV measurement was done at the potential scan rate of 1–100 mV/s. The EIS measurement was conducted at the frequency range from 10^4 to 10^{-1} Hz with 15 mV perturbation amplitude. The tungsten wire (diameter 0.25 mm, purity 99.9%, Jülich, Mateck) as the STM tip was electrochemically etched in a KOH (Sigma-Aldrich, puriss) aqueous solution. The STM data were analysed by Gwyddion software [126].

5.2. Supercapacitor cell

5.2.1. Electrode preparation and cell setup

The carbon electrode material with the micro-mesoporous structure was prepared from SiC-CDC material synthesized from SiC powder by gas-phase chlorination at 1100 °C and followed by CO₂ activation at 950 °C [82,127]. Then the SiC-CDC powders were mixed with 5wt% of binder (polytetrafluoroethylene, PTFE, 60% dispersion in H₂O, Sigma-Aldrich), laminated, and roll-pressed several times (Nippon Kodoshi) to prepare the carbon sheet with the thickness of $100 \pm 5 \mu\text{m}$. After drying under vacuum, a pure Al layer was deposited on one side of the carbon sheet and then cut into a round carbon electrode with the geometric surface area of 2 cm² and the average mass of 17 ± 3 mg [128].

The mixtures for treating the positive electrode were prepared by mixing EMImTFSI with up to 5 wt% of halide salt mixtures by a certain mole ratio, EMImCl (98%, Merck KGaA) : EMImBr (99%, IoLiTec) : EMImI (99%, Merck KGaA) = 1:4:2. The mixtures for treating the negative electrode were prepared by mixing EMImTFSI with up to 5wt% of alkali salt mixtures by a certain mole ratio, LiTFSI (99.9%, Solvionic): NaTFSI (99.5%, Solvionic): KTFSI (99.5%, Solvionic) = 1: 1: 1. The order of oxidation of halide ions was considered when determining the ratios of each additive [128]. The electrodes were soaked in the IL salt mixtures for overnight under vacuum and then treated by removing the excess liquid. The separator sheet was soaked by neat EMImTFSI. For a blank comparison, both positive and negative electrodes were treated in EMImTFSI. The soaked positive and negative electrodes and a separator sheet were assembled in a standard two-electrode Al test cell (HS Test Cell, Hohsen Corporation) in an Ar-filled glovebox (H₂O < 0.1 ppm, O₂ < 0.1 ppm). All SC cells were filled with EMImTFSI as electrolytes.

5.2.2. Electrochemical characterizations

The electrochemical characterizations of assembled SC cells were by the CV, CCCD, and EIS methods, using the SI1287 Solartron potentiostat with a 1252A frequency response analyzer via ac frequency (f) range from 300 kHz to 1 mHz at 5 mV perturbation amplitude. All electrochemical experiments were carried out at room temperature of 22 ± 1 °C.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1. Adsorption of anions from ionic liquid at Bi(111) interface

6.1.1. Ionic liquid

The electrochemical interface behaviour for Bi(111) electrodes in different ILs is shown in Figure 3a, the dependence of series capacitance (C_s) on electrode potential (E) at 10 Hz, namely the C_s , E curves. The detailed calculations of C_s values are based on the imaginary part of the impedance complex plane. The potential regions of C_s , E curves are determined by the CVs that show the ideally polarizable potential region [129]. The whole potential region of C_s , E curves includes two potential ranges: one is the most negative potential range (from -2.2 V to -1.9 V vs. Fc/Fc^+), indicating a high similarity for studied ILs. Another is the less negative potential region (from -1.9 V to positive potential end), showing the significant discrepancies between ILs. For the $\text{Bi}(111) | \text{PMImI}$ system, the C_s values start increasing significantly at above -1.6 V, explained by the specific adsorption of I^- ions, namely the strong interaction between I^- ions and Bi(111) electrode within the first interfacial layer [70]. Accordingly, for the $\text{Bi}(111) | \text{EMImMeSO}_3$ system, the C_s values start increasing at above -1.9 V, associated with the specific adsorption of MeSO_3^- ions at charged Bi(111) electrode. While, relatively low C_s values are observed in EMImOTf , EMImTFSI , and EMImBF_4 within the less negative potential region, suggesting that the difference in C_s values at this range mainly corresponds to the volumes of each anion.

Interestingly, the specifically adsorbed I^- ions at Bi single crystal electrodes contribute to the enhancement of capacitance in neat IL, I^- ions contained aqueous solutions, and organic solvent solutions [130–132]. In addition, the C_s , E curves with both scanning directions show that the adsorption-desorption process of I^- ions from PMImI is highly reversible [129,132]. It suggests that a unique contribution of halide anions could help increase the C_s values within the ideal polarization region, which directly relates to the SC charge storage capacity. Examples of high-performance SCs in the presence of iodide ions have been reported [89,97,100,133].

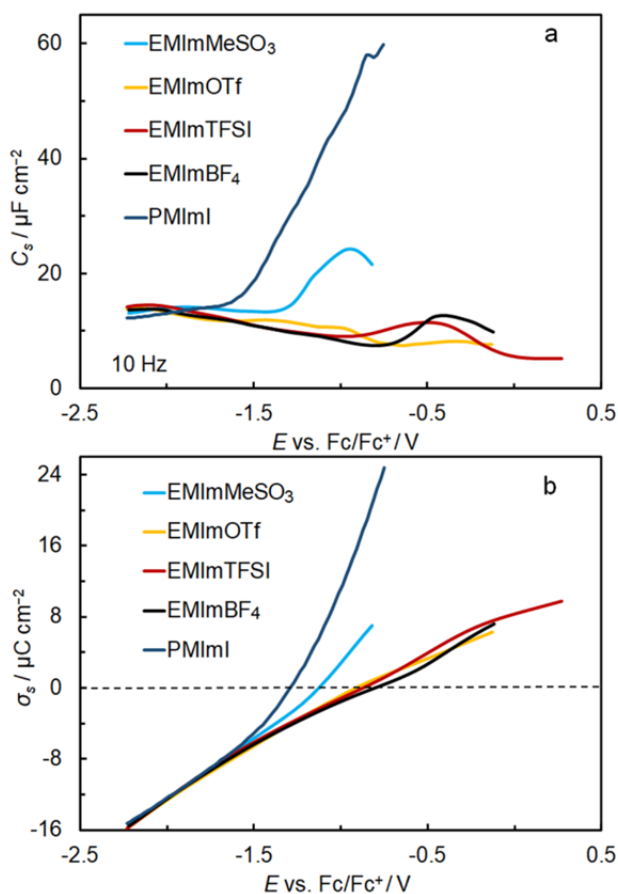


Figure 3. Series capacitance (C_s) vs. electrode potential (E) curves at 10 Hz (a) and surface charge density (σ_s) vs. electrode potential (E) curves (b) for Bi(111) | IL interfaces.

In terms of the ions adsorption process within EDL, the surface charge density (σ_s) of specifically adsorbed ions from ILs has been calculated according to the Hurwits-Parsons-Dutkiewicz method [134,135], providing the adsorption characteristics.

Figure 3b presents the σ_s , E curves for Bi(111) electrodes in different ILs. The σ_s , E curves for EMImBF₄, EMImOTf, and EMImTFSI are highly consistent within the negative potential region, explained by the surface-inactive nature of cations. Similar to the response of C_s , E curves, the σ_s , E curves for EMImMeSO₃ and PMImI show a significant change in σ_s within the less negative potential region, as the surface-active anions, both MeSO₃⁻ and I⁻ have a specific interaction with the bismuth electrode. Thus, the specific adsorption of anions on electrodes is mainly controlled by their activity and specific structures.

6.1.2. Salt-in-ionic liquid

As depicted above, the specifically adsorbed halide anions from ILs contribute to increasing capacitance. Generally, the ILs composed of halide anions (i.e., I^- , Br^- , Cl^-) are solid-state at room temperature. Taking the consideration that halide ions contained IL salts can be dissolved in organic solvents [136–139] and ILs [69,140–142], the adsorption of halide ions from these non-aqueous electrolytes at Bi single crystal electrodes has been studied systematically, including the different concentrations in ILs [129,140,142,143]. However, the adsorption of halide ions is a complex process, which contributes to the different interfacial structures formed. Figure 4 shows the influence of bromide ion concentration in IL.

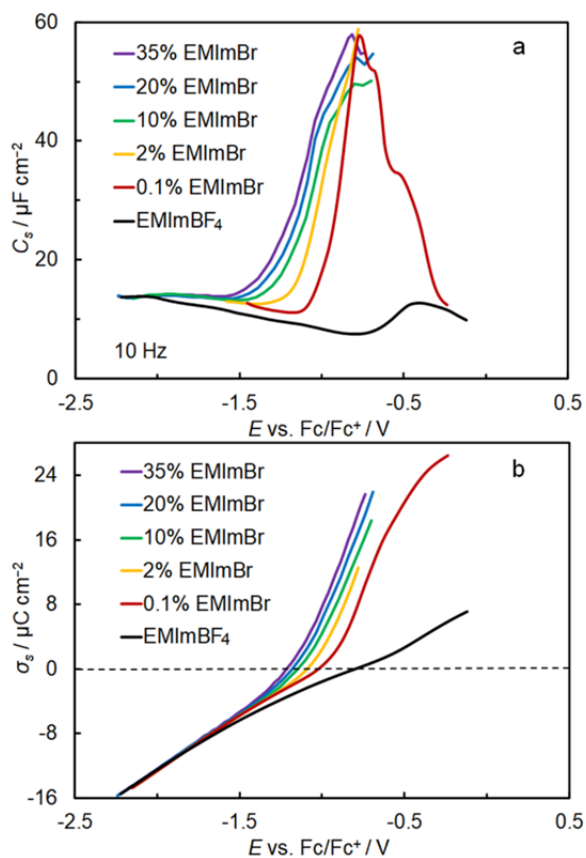


Figure 4. Series capacitance (C_s) vs. electrode potential (E) curves at 10 Hz (a) and surface charge density (σ_s) vs. electrode potential (E) curves (b) for Bi(111) electrode in EMImBF₄ and EMImBF₄ + X%EMImBr mixtures.

Figure 4a shows the C_s , E curves for EMImBF₄ and its mixture with EMImBr at 10 Hz. C_s values are around 7~14 $\mu\text{F cm}^{-2}$ for EMImBF₄ within the studied potential range. Compared to the EMImBF₄, the C_s , E curves for the mixtures of EMImBr in EMImBF₄ show the characteristic capacitance maxima up to 58 $\mu\text{F cm}^{-2}$ due to the specific adsorption of bromide ions. Interestingly, the C_s values preferably begin to increase at more negative potentials when the EMImBr concentrations increase, suggesting that the adsorption bond between the Bi(111) surface and the bromide ions becomes strong under the high EMImBr concentrations.

A similar trend on the σ_s , E curves are shown in Figure 4b. Due to the specific adsorption of bromide ions from IL mixtures, the σ_s values increase rapidly when $E > -1.5$ V. This increase is related to the concentration of Br⁻ ions in IL mixtures. However, when $E < -1.5$ V, there is no noticeable difference in neither neat EMImBF₄ nor EMImBr salt mixtures, as shown in Figure 4. This phenomenon can be explained by the surface-inactive EMIm⁺ cations predominantly adsorbing on the most negatively polarized Bi(111) electrode. When $E > -1.5$ V, the Br⁻ ions begin to adsorb on the surface, which depends on the activity and concentration of adsorbed ions themselves at the Bi(111) electrode.

6.1.3. Water-in-ionic liquid

Although the increased capacitance has been observed in the Br⁻ and I⁻ contained ILs, the presence of halide ions narrows the potential range of electrochemical stability of the system [129,140,141] as the electrolyte itself becomes somewhat more reactive to cause faradaic processes. Besides, the addition of halide IL salts can introduce small amounts of water, which can somehow reduce the electrochemically stable potential range of electrolytes.

Small amounts of impurities remaining in the ILs during the manufacturing process, such as traces of water and halide ions, cannot be avoided. However, such impurities can limit the electrochemically stable potential region for IL electrolytes. In the case of hydrophilic IL, the absorption of water from the atmosphere cannot be removed entirely in laboratory systems and practical applications. Interestingly, in respect of the high viscosity of IL, small amounts of water in ILs may somewhat reduce the base viscosity. It is of great importance to demonstrate how water molecules behave and affect the structure of the electrode | IL interface. The main objective of this part is to systematically investigate the electrochemical behaviour of Bi single crystal electrodes in hydrophilic EMImOTf (with and without small amounts of water).

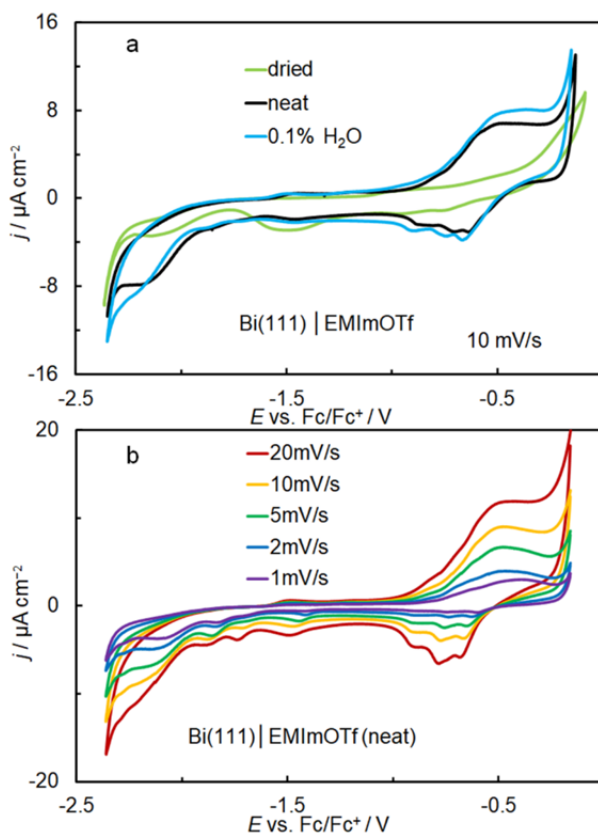


Figure 5. CVs for Bi(111) | EMImOTf interfaces: (a) dried, neat and with 0.1 % water addition (in mass fraction) and (b) neat, at different potential scan rates.

Figure 5a demonstrates the CVs for Bi(111) | EMImOTf systems measured from around -2.4 V to -0.2 V vs. Fc/Fc^+ at 10 mV/s . For the dried EMImOTf system, an electrochemically stable potential range of 2.4 V is limited by the decomposition of EMIm^+ cation at the most negative potential and by the dissolution of bismuth at the less negative potential. According to the analysis report of the manufacturer, the water concentration of neat EMImOTf is about 20 ppm . Compared with additionally dried EMImOTf, a noticeable difference in current density has been observed due to the reduction of water molecules. Somewhat higher current densities within the measured potential range can be seen when the mass fraction of water increases up to 0.1% .

Additionally, the electrochemically stable potential range becomes narrower for humid EMImOTf systems. In more detail, several faradaic peaks occur within the potential range, where the reduction of water (from -2.4 V to -1.6 V) and the adsorption processes associated with the interaction between H_2O and OTf^- (from -1.6 V to end) both contribute to the increase of the current density. The

interaction between water molecules and the $-\text{SO}_3$ group from OTf^- ions can establish the H-bonded networks condensed at the Bi(111) surface. The CVs at different scan rates (Figure 5b) give more details about the nature of these processes: (1) the reduction process related to water is irreversible; (2) the adsorption of OTf^- seems to be quasi-reversible.

The analysis of the EIS data based on the EC model in the inset of Figure 6 can provide an overview of the role of each possible process at the interface. There are two types of components in EC: resistive and capacitive components, representing high-frequency resistance (R_s), Warburg-like diffusion impedance (R_D), adsorption resistance (R_{ads}), charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}), double layer capacitance (C_{dl}), and pseudocapacitance (C_{pseudo}). Detailed descriptions of the parameters are given in the literature [125,132]. One of the main parameters, C_{dl} , describes the charge-stored ability of the system. The fitting data have a good agreement with the experimental C, E curve at 0.2 Hz (Figure 6), which indicates the sluggishness of the system. Additionally, it is necessary to note that error bars are applied to all fitting curves to show the goodness of fitting for each parameter.

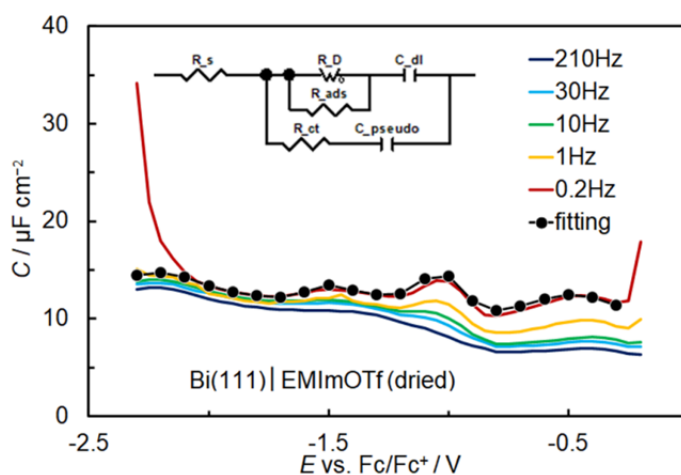


Figure 6. Capacitance (C) vs. electrode potential (E) curves at different ac frequencies and the fitting data according to EC model given in the figure.

The C_{dl}, E curves (Figure 7a) provide information on the double layer capacitance characteristics for the Bi(111) electrode in EMImOTf and its mixtures with water. Overall, the capacitance values for additionally dried EMImOTf are much lower than those for systems containing small amounts of water. The C_{dl}, E curves within the potential range from -2.3 V to -1.9 V show a consistent capacitance response, mainly explained by the adsorption of EMIm^+ ions. Compared to dried EMImOTf, the C_{dl} values for neat and 0.1% systems increase

slightly from -1.9 V to -1.0 V. The increased C_{dl} values are associated with the mixed adsorption kinetics of cations and anions. The C_{dl} values for neat and 0.1% systems increase significantly from -1.0 V to -0.1 V, which is also dependent on the water concentrations. The OTf^- ions predominantly adsorb in the first interfacial layer within this potential region. When $EMIm^+$ ions predominantly adsorb in the first interfacial layer (-2.3 V $< E < -1.6$ V), capacitance weakly depends on the water presence. The significant increase in capacitance is due to the specific adsorption of OTf^- ions interacting with water molecules, suggesting that the water molecules interact more strongly with the anion than with the cation. The water–anion bonded networks accelerate in the first ionic layer at the less negatively charged surface [144–146]. In this case, the capacitance–potential response is associated with how water strongly bonds with anion in low water concentrations.

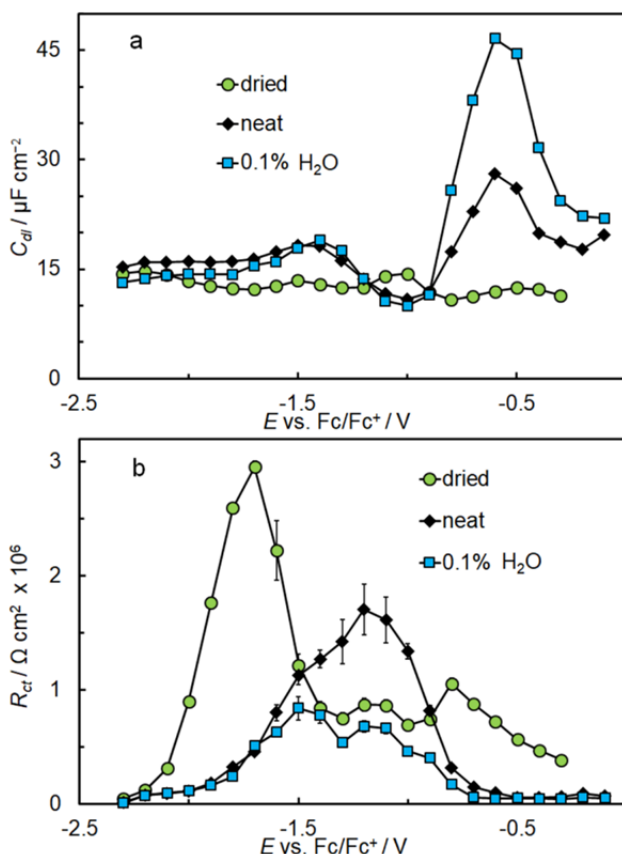


Figure 7. Double layer capacitance (C_{dl}) vs. electrode potential (E) curves (a) and charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) vs. electrode potential (E) curves (b) for Bi(111) | EMImOTf interfaces.

The charge transfer resistance, R_{ct} , vs. potential curves (Figure 7b) provide information about the possible faradaic processes at the electrode surface. Relatively low R_{ct} values near -2.3 V imply a great possibility of the EMIm^+ reduction process. For the dried EMImOTf system, the high R_{ct} values imply that no significant faradaic process occurs within the potential range from -2 V to -1.6 V. Beyond -1.6 V, R_{ct} values decrease because OTf^- ions start to adsorb at the surface, competing with the cation desorption process.

In the case of small amounts of water, the low R_{ct} values ($E < -1.6$ V) can be explained by the irreversible water reduction process, which agrees with the CV results (seen in Figure 5). From -1.6 V to -0.9 V, R_{ct} values vary in water concentrations, which corresponds to the fewer water molecules in IL, the less possibility of the faradaic processes happening. Thus, R_{ct} values for the neat EMImOTf system are much higher than those for the 0.1% water-containing system. It suggests that a relatively stable interfacial layer structure forms in the neat system against the occurrence of faradaic processes. The interaction between water and anion directly affects the composition of interfacial layer structure because the ionic sheath (water–anion) cannot be easily broken down when the water concentration in the IL is low [144,147]. The Low R_{ct} values above -0.9 V suggest that water molecules facilitate the specific adsorption of anions, consistent with the quasi-reversible processes at the electrode surface within this potential region.

6.2. Electrochemical characteristics at Bi(*hkl*) interfaces

The discussions of the interfacial structure mainly focus on the nature of neat IL and its mixtures at the Bi(111) electrode. However, semi-metallic bismuth with three single crystal planes can perform different metallic characteristics. In addition, Because of the wide electrochemically stable potential range, the bismuth is a good choice for electrode material to study the electrochemical interface characteristics.

The CVs for Bi(*hkl*) electrodes in neat EMImOTf show a potential window of nearly 2.3 V given in Figure 8a. As described in Figure 5, the potential region of electrochemical stability is limited by the decomposition of EMIm^+ ions and the dissolution of bismuth, indicating that the dissolution of bismuth is prior to the decomposition of OTf^- ions. The reduction peaks ($E < -1.5$ V) are attributed to the reduction process of water. Thus, such small amounts of water (about 20 ppm) in EMImOTf can cause related faradaic processes [148].

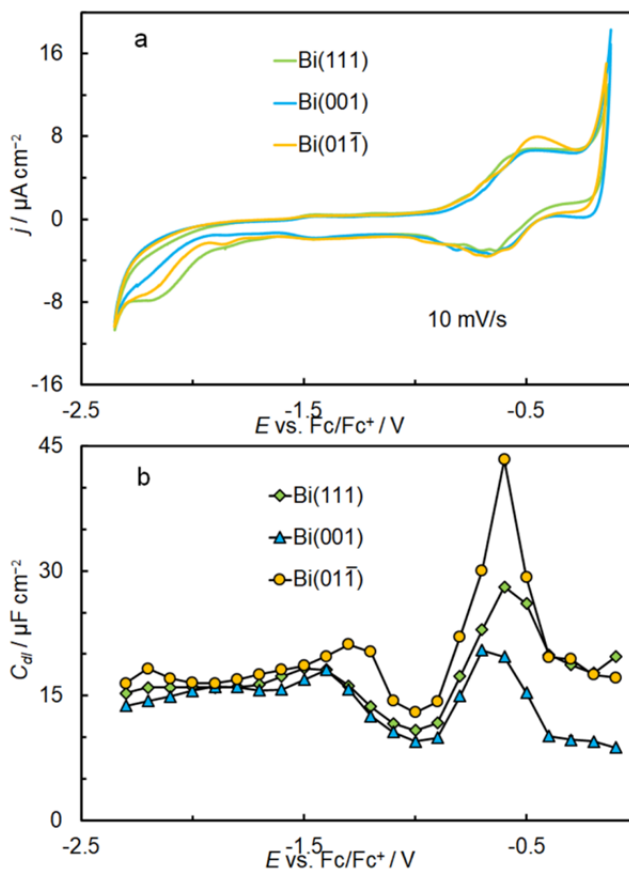


Figure 8. CVs at 10 mV/s (a) and double layer capacitance (C_{dl}) vs. potential (E) curves (b) for Bi(hkl) | EMImOTf (neat) interfaces.

Figure 8b shows the C_{dl} , E curves for Bi(hkl) | EMImOTf (neat) systems. Three C_{dl} , E curves show a similar double-humped shape. When $-2.3 \text{ V} < E < -1.4 \text{ V}$, only slightly higher C_{dl} values for the most metallic Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) plane could be seen compared with Bi(111) and Bi(001) planes. However, when $-1.4 \text{ V} < E < -0.1 \text{ V}$, the C_{dl} values strongly depend on the electronic characteristics of each Bi single crystal plane. The capacitance peak when $-1.0 \text{ V} < E < -0.4 \text{ V}$ is due to the specific adsorption of OTf $^-$ ions in the presence of water compared to dried EMImOTf (in Fig 6). The capacitance maxima for Bi(hkl) planes increase in the order of Bi(001) < Bi(111) < Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) because the differences in atomic density of each plane affect the formation of the interfacial ionic layer. The semi-metallic characteristics of Bi(hkl) planes are different, i.e., the most metallic plane is Bi(01 $\bar{1}$), and the other two less metallic planes are Bi(001) and Bi(111). The ionic layer structures at interfaces depend on the ionophilicity of the electrode materials. For example, gold has stronger ion adsorption than carbon

[149]. When $-0.4 \text{ V} < E < -0.1 \text{ V}$, the difference in capacitance response suggests that much denser interfacial layers may form on the less metallic Bi(001) plane associated with the adsorption of anions contributing to the formation of the stable layer structure.

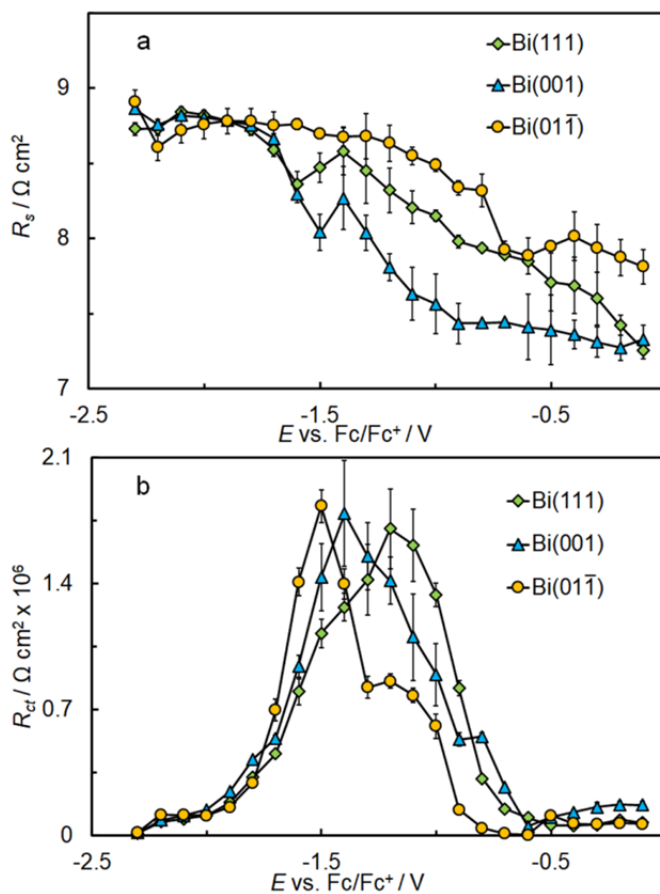


Figure 9. Series resistance (R_s) vs. potential (E) curves (a) and charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) vs. potential (E) curves (b) for Bi(hkl) | EMImOTf (neat) interfaces.

The parameter R_s corresponds to the high-frequency series resistance and indicates the total resistance of the electrolyte solution. Figure 9a shows a potential dependence of R_s on the Bi(hkl) planes in neat EMImOTf. When $-2.3 \text{ V} < E < -1.7 \text{ V}$, the R_s , E curves for the three Bi single crystal planes are highly similar. Although the R_s values do not change much, the water reduction process occurs in this potential region. A possible explanation is a weak interaction between water and cation. Water does not affect the interfacial resistance too much when

the EMIm^+ ions preferably adsorb at the most negative potentials[144]. When $E > -1.7$ V, R_s depends on the electrode potentials applied to $\text{Bi}(hkl)$ electrodes. Thus, the strong interaction between water and anion can influence the interfacial resistance. In addition, the R_s values depend on the nature and structure of each Bi single crystal plane. The highest R_s values have been observed for the most metallic $\text{Bi}(01\bar{1})$ plane, where adsorption is strong.

The R_{ct} , E curves (Figure 9b) demonstrate the information about the possibility of faradaic processes at the surface. Generally, the shapes of the three curves are highly similar. The R_{ct} values increase first and then decrease when the electrode potentials move positively. Relatively high R_{ct} values in the vicinity of the peak potential suggest no significant charge transfer processes on the electrode surface. The peak potentials for $\text{Bi}(hkl) | \text{EMImOTf}$ (neat) interfaces can be distinguished in the following order: $\text{Bi}(01\bar{1}) < \text{Bi}(001) < \text{Bi}(111)$, suggesting that the most metallic plane $\text{Bi}(01\bar{1})$ seems to have the possibility of the charge transfer processes occurring first. Low R_{ct} values at the most negative potentials are mainly due to the water reduction process. When $E > -1.0$ V, the low R_{ct} values correspond to the specific adsorption of OTf^- ions associated with water molecules. One proof is the quasi-reversible processes (visible in the CV curves, Figure 8a) occurring in this potential range.

6.3. *In-situ* STM data at $\text{Bi}(111)$ and $\text{Bi}(01\bar{1})$ interfaces

Figure 10 shows the surface structure of the $\text{Bi}(111)$ plane in neat EMImOTf at different electrode potentials. Figure 10a shows the typical terrace structures for the $\text{Bi}(111)$ plane at -1.9 V. The terrace edges are also visible in Figures 10b and 10c, corresponding to the reactive sites of the dissolution and deposition of bismuth. Clusters on plateaus show the presence of bismuth electrodeposited from EMImOTf . A comparison of Figure 10a and Figure 10b shows that no significant surface changes occur in the potential range from -1.9 V to -1.4 V, indicating high stability of the $\text{Bi}(111) | \text{EMImOTf}$ interface, which is consistent with CV results. When the electrode potential changes to -0.9 V, clusters on plateaus gradually disappear, which is explained by the dissolution of bismuth. It is impossible to record available STM images when $E > -0.9$ V. The formation of a blocking layer limits the passage of the tunneling current, attributed to the adsorption of OTf^- ions (also indicated by the data of electrochemical measurements). Sulfonate groups of OTf^- ions interacting with Bi surface may become an obstacle for STM tip probing. When the potential moves back to -1.4 V, the initial surface structure is observed with a honeycomb-like pattern (Figure 10d). This phenomenon is due to the formation of highly ordered ionic structures that have a strong interaction with Bi atoms. The plateaus are partly covered by cationic structures and partly by anionic structures with strong adsorption at these intermediate potentials.

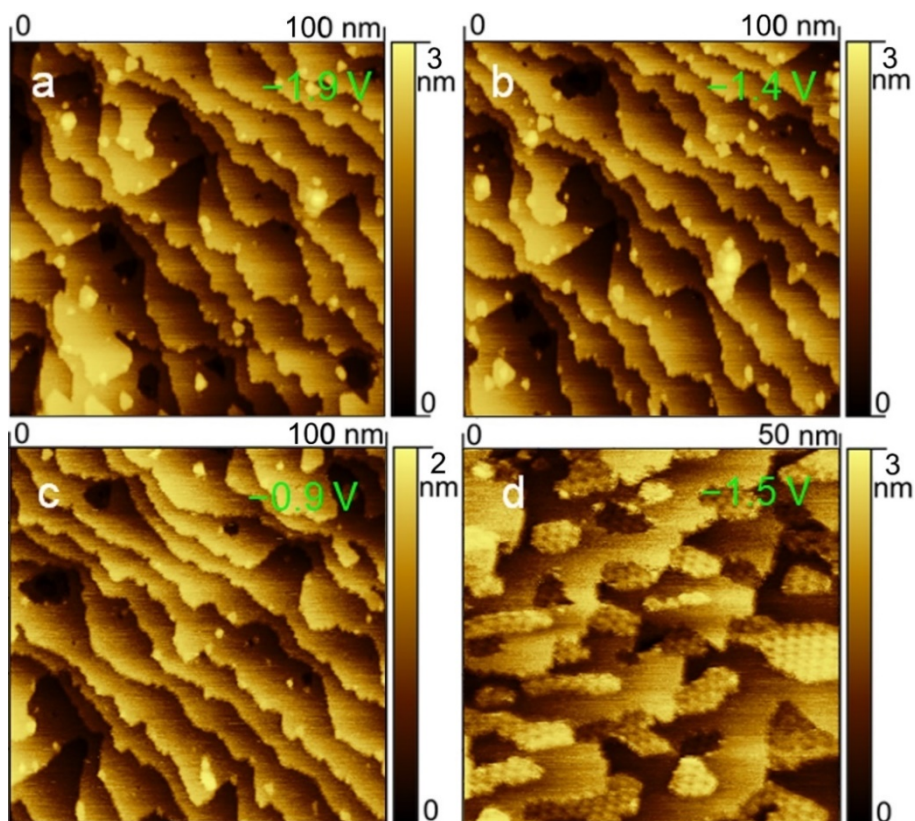


Figure 10. *In-situ* STM images for Bi(111) | EMImOTf interface at different potentials (a) -1.9 V, (b) -1.4 V, (c) -0.9 V and (d) -1.5 V (scanned back).

Figure 11 shows the *In-situ* STM images of the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) | EMImOTf interface. Compared with other planes, the most metallic Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) surface seems more reactive and susceptible to the surface reconstruction process under polarization [150]. Figure 11a shows a striped structure of the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) surface in EMImOTf at -2.1 V. The structures at plateaus and terrace edges seem to be more stable for the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) interface when the surface is dominated mainly by the cations. When the electrode potential changes from -1.9 V to the less negative potentials, the terrace edges and plateaus start to reconstruct. However, a disordered structure for terrace edges and a less-striped structure for plateaus are observed in Figure 11b.

A large flat plateau is observed if the potential changes positively up to -1 V (Figure 11c). When the potential changes negatively, the plateau regions are gradually stable until a clear fine surface structure on the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) | IL interface is seen at -1.35 V (Figure 11d). Both the pattern and the size of the fine structure depend on the electrode potential applied. The distance between signals (about 1.3 to 1.4 nm) is large enough compared to the distance between

the Bi atoms of the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) lattice (≈ 0.4 nm). Such pattern structure correlates with the strongly adsorbed OTf⁻ ions on the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) plane. Similar to the Bi(111) interface, it is not possible to obtain available STM images of the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) interface When $E > -0.9$ V due to the increased noise level corresponding to the strongly adsorbed anions.

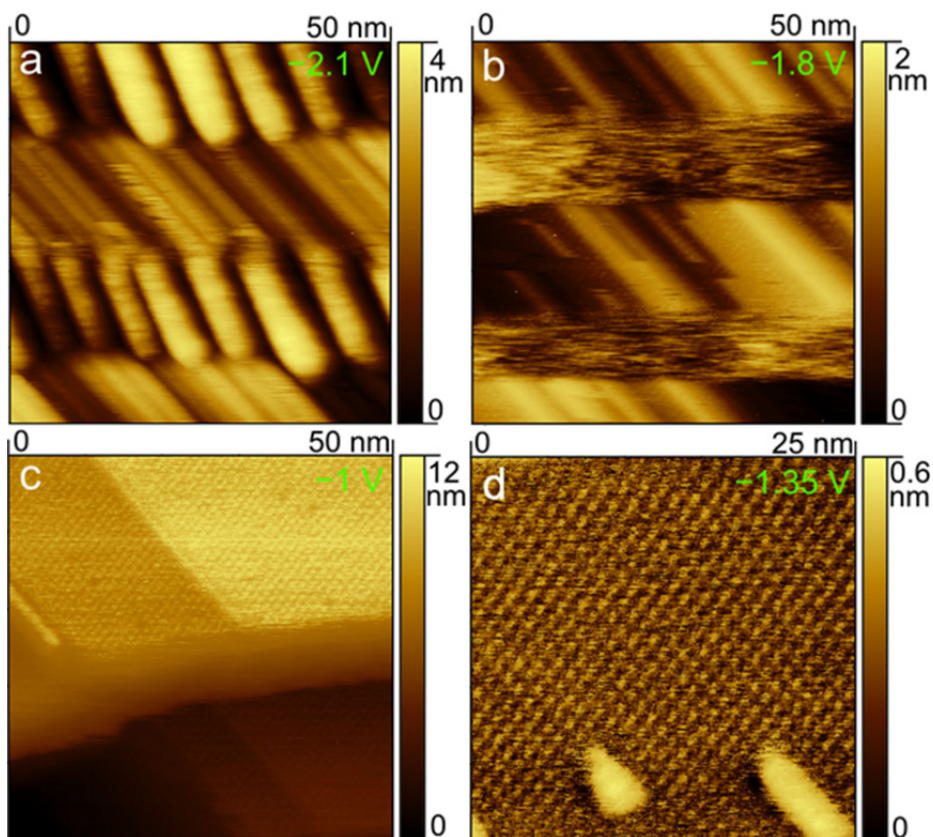


Figure 11. *In-situ* STM images of Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) | EMImOTf interface at different potentials (a) -2.1 V, (b) -1.8 V, (c) -1 V and (d) -1.35 V (scanned back).

As described above, both the honeycomb-like structure of the Bi(111) interface and the fine structure of the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) interface are mainly due to the strong adsorption of OTf⁻ ions. In combination with electrochemistry data, the halide anions, namely bromide and iodide ions, have similar specific adsorption at the Bi(111) electrode within a less negative potential range. Therefore, STM images show the fine structure of Bi(111) surface in PMImI (Figure 12a) and EMImBF₄+20%EMImBr mixture (Figure 12b). These structures correspond to the strongly adsorbed anion layer at the Bi(111) surface.

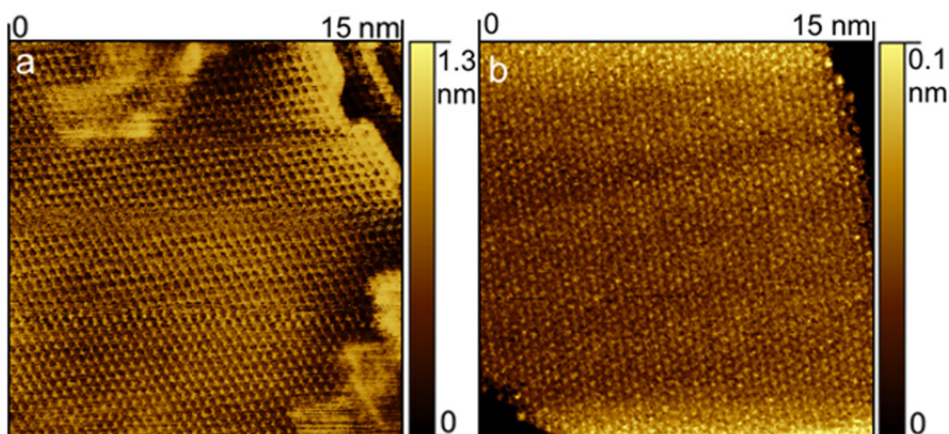


Figure 12. *In-situ* STM images at -1.1 V for interfaces: (a) $\text{Bi}(111) | \text{EMImBF}_4 + 20\% \text{EMImBr}$ and (b) $\text{Bi}(111) | \text{PMImL}$.

6.4. Energy storage characteristics of carbon electrode based supercapacitors

6.4.1. Perspective of halide ions treated supercapacitors

Both *in-situ* STM and EIS measurements have investigated the specific adsorption of halide anions. IL mixture containing halide ions applied as a promising electrolyte of SC aims to increase the capacitance. However, such electrolytes may cause several limitations for SC systems, i.e., the low operating voltage and the loss of stability and cyclability. The STM and EIS results show that the specific adsorption process of anions occurs at a limited potential range. This section applies the IL mixtures containing halide ions to impregnate the carbon electrodes instead of being directly used as electrolytes. Thus, the work of this section is on the assumption that the ions prefer to stay within or near the porous carbon electrodes by using the halide or alkali IL mixtures to treat the positive or negative carbon electrodes.

It should be mentioned that, in this section, the SC electrodes are soaked either in EMImTFSI or in EMImTFSI mixtures containing halide or alkali ions with different concentrations. The SC abbreviations corresponding to different IL mixtures are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Abbreviations for SCs based on the corresponding electrodes treated with IL and IL salt mixtures.

SC Abbreviations	Species within negative electrode	Species within positive electrode
EMImTFSI(±)	EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻	EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻
EMImTFSI(-) Hal2.5(+)	EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻	2.5 wt% EMIm(Cl, Br, I); EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻
EMImTFSI(-) Hal5(+)	EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻	5 wt% EMIm(Cl, Br, I); EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻
Alk5(-) EMImTFSI(+)	5 wt% (Li, Na, K)TFSI; EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻	EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻
Alk5(-) Hal5(+)	5 wt% (Li, Na, K)TFSI; EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻	5 wt% EMIm(Cl, Br, I); EMIm ⁺ and TFSI ⁻

6.4.2. Electrochemical analysis

6.4.2.1. Fitting of impedance data

Figure 13 shows the cell potential dependence of Nyquist plots for the Alk5(-) | Hal5(+) SC system within a wide frequency range. The EC model (in inset) consists of five elements. The additional capacitor element (C_{pseudo}) applied is only for halide ions treated systems. The series resistance, R_s , mainly describes the high-frequency resistance of the system. The diffusion resistance (R_D) derived from the Warburg element (Z_W) describes the mass-transfer limited process rate of the diffused ions. The double layer capacitance (C_{dl}) represents the total capacitance performance of SC. The charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) represents low-frequency resistance, including slow adsorption and related faradaic processes.

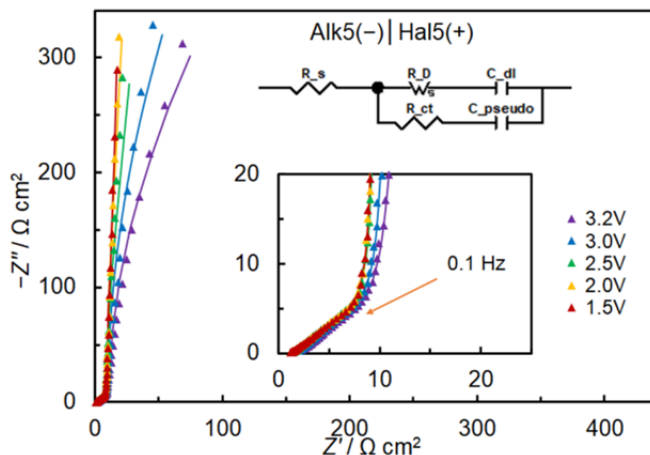


Figure 13. Nyquist plots for Alk5(-) | Hal5(+) SC system (symbols for experimental data and lines for fitting results according to an EC model given in figure).

The Nyquist plots for the Alk5(-) | Hal5(+) SC system at high and medium frequencies are not strongly dependent on the cell potentials applied. However, there is a significant dependence at low frequencies. The cell potential dependence of the Alk5(-) | Hal5(+) SC system shows the typical capacitor behaviour when $U \leq 3$ V. The Alk5(-) | Hal5(+) SC system shows good stability up to 3.2 V. When $U \geq 3.2$ V, the Nyquist plot tends to a semicircle shape at low frequencies because the cell gradually degrades due to the irreversible faradaic processes.

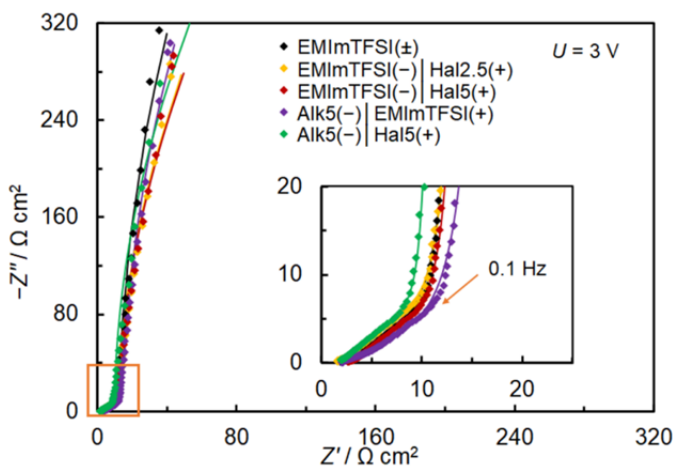


Figure 14. Nyquist plots at $U = 3$ V for SCs with electrodes treated by EMImTFSI or IL salt mixtures (symbols for experimental data and lines for fitting results).

Figure 14 shows the Nyquist plots for different systems at $U = 3\text{V}$. The nearly linear shape of Nyquist plots suggests that all SC systems behave in the typical capacitor behaviour. There is a significant difference in a high-frequency range where the $\text{Alk5(-)} \mid \text{Hal5(+)}$ SC system shows the fastest mass-transfer response while the $\text{Alk5(-)} \mid \text{EMImTFSI(+)}$ SC system demonstrates the slowest mass-transfer response.

For comparison, both capacitance and resistance values are calculated from the fitting of experimental data for different systems. Table 4 gives the resistance values for all systems at $U = 3\text{V}$ (except for R_s values at 1.5V). The R_s values are mainly dependent on the electrolyte physical properties of an interface. However, there is no significant difference in R_s values at low cell potential, which indicates a similar interface resistance behaviour for the amount and mobility of ions near the electrode from IL mixtures. In addition, the lowest R_D values for the $\text{Alk5(-)} \mid \text{Hal5(+)}$ SC system suggest the fastest mass-transfer kinetics. However, the highest R_D value for the $\text{Alk5(-)} \mid \text{EMImTFSI(+)}$ SC system suggests the slowest response to the mass-transfer process.

Table 4. Resistance parameters based on fitting of impedance data for SCs.

System	R_s ($\Omega \text{ cm}^2$)	R_D ($\Omega \text{ cm}^2$)	R_{ct} ($\Omega \text{ cm}^2$)
EMImTFSI(\pm)	1.30 \pm 0.01	13.09 \pm 0.23	3751 \pm 398
EMImTFSI(-) \mid Hal2.5(+)	1.16 \pm 0.01	23.33 \pm 0.28	3943 \pm 251
EMImTFSI(-) \mid Hal5(+)	1.11 \pm 0.01	21.62 \pm 0.23	3927 \pm 207
Alk5(-) \mid EMImTFSI(+)	2.05 \pm 0.01	31.23 \pm 0.52	6598 \pm 529
Alk5(-) \mid Hal5(+)	1.12 \pm 0.01	9.02 \pm 0.07	2339 \pm 97

Table 5. Parameters about time response and open circuit voltage for SCs.

System	OCV (mV)	Z_w T(s)	τ_R (s)
EMImTFSI(\pm)	+ 1	9.26 \pm 0.75	6.25
EMImTFSI(-) \mid Hal2.5(+)	- 38	5.23 \pm 0.22	7.34
EMImTFSI(-) \mid Hal5(+)	- 52	5.08 \pm 0.21	7.07
Alk5(-) \mid EMImTFSI(+)	+ 3	12.34 \pm 1.03	7.46
Alk5(-) \mid Hal5(+)	- 49	3.23 \pm 0.09	5.23

Table 5 shows the open circuit voltage (OCV) and time constants (Z_{W_T} and τ_R) for all SC systems. The calculation of the characteristic relaxation time constant (τ_R) is based on the imaginary capacitance vs. $\log f$ plot. τ_R describes the time response to energy storage characteristics at low and medium frequencies. The lowest τ_R value obtained from the Alk5(-) | Hal5(+) SC system suggests the quickest energy storage response. The time constant (Z_{W_T}) derived from the Warburg element demonstrates the time response to energy storage characteristics at medium frequencies. A short time response indicates that the energy storage process is related to the flexible mobilities of small-sized halide and alkali ions near/inside the carbon micro-mesopores.

6.4.2.2. Capacitive behaviour

Figure 15a presents the CVs of these SC systems at a scan rate of 5 mV/s. It should be noted that the starting potential for CVs is not applied at zero because the non-zero potential applied aims to keep the small-sized ions preferably inside the carbon pores instead of diffusing through the bulk electrolyte.

The approximately rectangular CV curves exhibit the ideally capacitive behaviour for EMImTFSI(\pm) SC system. However, these rectangular curves gradually distort for SCs with alkali or halide ions treated electrodes (Figure 15a). Small redox peaks between 0.5 V and 1.6 V are observed for the halide ions treated SC systems, suggesting the adsorption process of halide ions (Br^- and I^- ions) and the quasi-reversible redox reactions between halide ions. Correspondingly, capacitance values for halide ions treated SC systems significantly increase. This enhancement in capacitance, so-called the pseudocapacitance effect, is attributed to the specific adsorption and redox reactions of iodide ions at the carbon | iodide aqueous solution interface [133]. However, the addition of alkali ions alone (Alk5(-) | EMImTFSI(+)) does not help to increase the capacitance.

The triangular CCCD curves (Figure 15b) also show the typical capacitor behaviour for the systems studied. The CCCD curves with a linear and symmetric shape suggest a high coulombic efficiency for the halide ions treated SC systems.

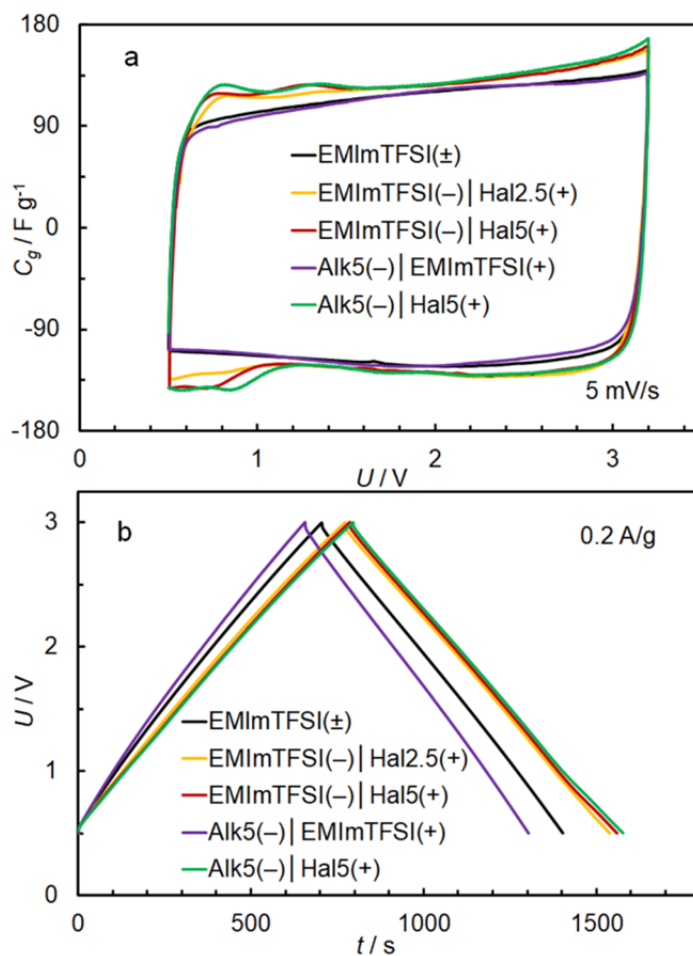


Figure 15. CVs presented as the gravimetric capacitance C_g vs. cell potential curves obtained at 5 mV/s (a) and CCCD curves recorded at 0.2 A/g (b) for different SCs.

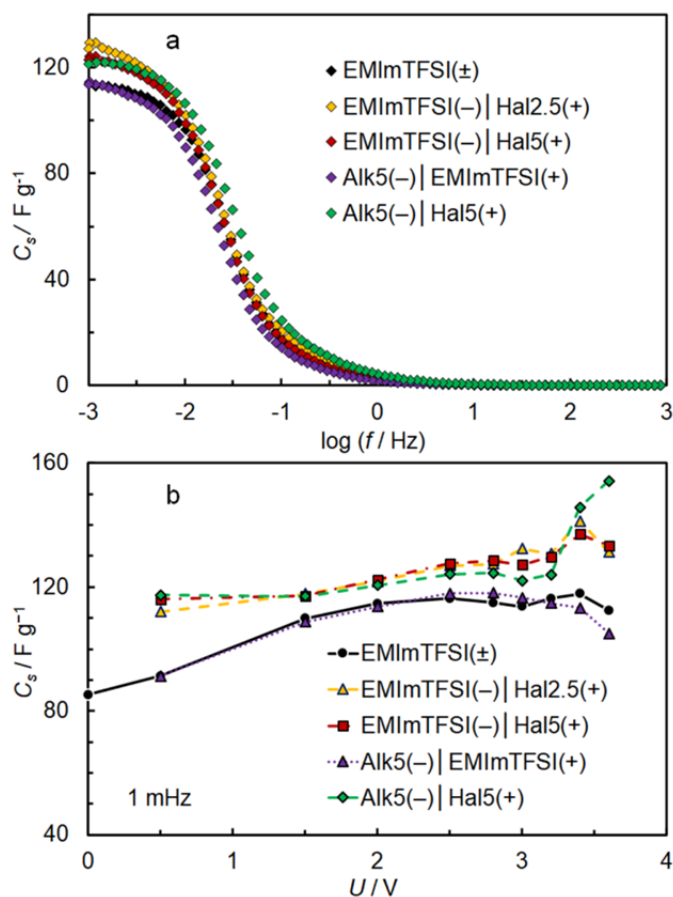


Figure 16. Series capacitance C_s vs. ac frequency plots at $U = 3 \text{ V}$ (a) and C_s vs. cell potential plots at 1 mHz (b) for SCs.

Figure 16a shows the C_s vs. $\log f$ plots for studied SC systems. A clear difference in C_s values can only be observed when $f < 1 \text{ Hz}$. The low-frequency behaviour suggests that the kinetics of the SC systems are sluggish, dominated by the slow adsorption of ions, which is consistent with rectangular CVs measured at a low scan rate. Therefore, the capacitance plateaus for all systems occur at very low frequencies. In Figure 16b, the C_s values at 1 mHz depend strongly on the SCs with different IL mixtures treated electrodes. Compared to the EMImTFSI(\pm) SC system, the halide ions treated SC systems show high C_s values. The C_s response for the EMImTFSI(\pm) and Alk5(-) | EMImTFSI(+) SC systems is similar. The high and constant C_s values for the Alk5(-) | Hal5(+) SC system are obtained within the potential range studied. The observed behaviour is likely due to the symmetric treatment methodology by the alkali ions stabilizing the negative electrode and the halide ions stabilizing the positive

electrode. In addition, an increase in capacitance ($U > 3.2$ V) corresponds to the irreversible faradaic processes of the SC system. For comparison, the Alk5(-) | EMImTFSI(+) SC system does not show any apparent improvements in capacitance.

Table 6. Comparison of SC capacitance based on data from different measurement techniques, CCD values at 0.5 A/g, CVD values at 5 mV/s, C_s values at 1 mHz, C_{dl} and C_{pseudo} values by fitting, $U = 3$ V.

System	CCD (F/g)	CVD (F/g)	C_s (F/g)	C_{dl} (F/g)	C_{pseudo} (mAh/g)
EMImTFSI(\pm)	114	115	114	115 \pm 1	/
EMImTFSI(-) Hal2.5(+)	122	121	133	125 \pm 1	51.1 \pm 13.5
EMImTFSI(-) Hal5(+)	122	121	127	121 \pm 1	52.6 \pm 13.0
Alk5(-) EMImTFSI(+)	113	110	117	115 \pm 1	/
Alk5(-) Hal5(+)	124	122	122	121 \pm 1	74.2 \pm 22.9

Table 6 shows the calculated capacitance values based on different measurement techniques. Interestingly, reproducible capacitance values are obtained from CCCD, CV, and EIS methods. By using independent measurement techniques, the EMImTFSI(\pm) SC system shows capacitance values of 114 to 115 F/g, and the Alk5(-) | Hal5(+) SC system shows capacitance values of 122 to 124 F/g. Additionally, the C_{pseudo} values presented by a unit of mAh/g show a reasonable result. The C_{pseudo} values obtained only for halide ions treated systems can interpret the capacitance enhancement by the so-called pseudocapacitive effect.

6.4.2.3. Energy behaviour

By the capacitance results, the further analysis of energy behaviour for SC systems is shown in Figures 17a and 17b. The specific energy values calculated by integrating the CCCD curves depend strongly on the cell potentials applied. Compared with the EMImTFSI(\pm) SC system, the halide ions treated SC systems show higher specific energy values. Compared with EMImTFSI(\pm) SC system, the specific energy is 10% higher for the Alk5(-) | Hal5(+) SC system, while the energy efficiency is 1.5% lower at 3.2 V. When $U \leq 3.2$ V, the overall energy efficiencies for all SC systems are approximately above 90%, likely limited by ohmic drop. However, when $U > 3.2$ V, the sharp decrease in energy efficiency is due to the irreversible faradaic processes.

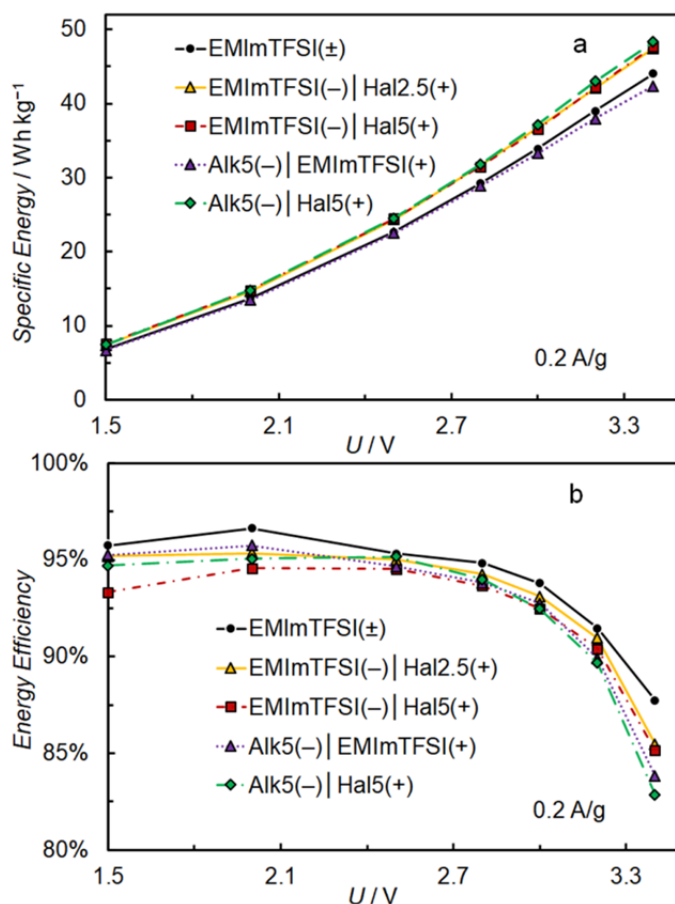


Figure 17. Specific energy vs. cell potential plots calculated from CCD data (a) and energy efficiency vs. cell potential curves based on CCCD data (b) for SCs.

6.5. Outlook: from interfacial structure to energy storage in electrochemical systems

With the development of ILs, many ILs have drawn much attention in electrolyte applications for electrochemical energy storage devices. The electrochemical application of ILs seems unable to stand firmly without understanding the interface between electrodes and ILs. Thereupon, the interfacial electrochemistry of ILs has seen extraordinary developments over the past decades due to the close connection between the electrochemical applications and the fundamentals, explored by the experimental and computer simulation techniques. The experimental findings are commonly obtained by the EIS method in combination with *in-situ* STM and other *in-situ* probe techniques [42,45,50,120,129]. With the gradual development of commercial ILs, research on ILs has

recently become more affordable and efficient. Theoretical findings in IL interface electrochemistry are also widely reported over the years [14,20,24,59,151]. However, numerous experimental and theoretical methods are applied to study interfaces, which remains a considerable challenge [152]. Thus, the new advanced experimental protocols and methodologies and data analysis procedures need to be further developed.

Currently, the EIS method is one of the most informative techniques to characterize the interface (also widely used in electroanalysis and material science) [30,153]. Many parameters related to an interface can be analysed from the impedance data, including the interfacial capacitance and resistance. For probing the interfaces, capacitance is of primary interest in the context of interfacial characteristics. Interfacial capacitance reflects some surface information, such as the formation of ionic layers, the interactions between ions and between the electrode material and ions. However, the capacitance analysis remains controversial due to the complex frequency-dependent capacitance. Thus, the EC models are widely applied to analyse and interpret the experimental impedance data. The often-used EC models built from (1) a series combination of resistor and capacitor elements and (2) a parallel combination of resistor and capacitor elements have gained wide popularity as basic combinations for analysing the electrode | electrolyte interface. It should be admitted that the use of more complex EC model and the further interpretation of the data obtained is not an easy task due to the multi-variate physical meaning of multi-element circuits.

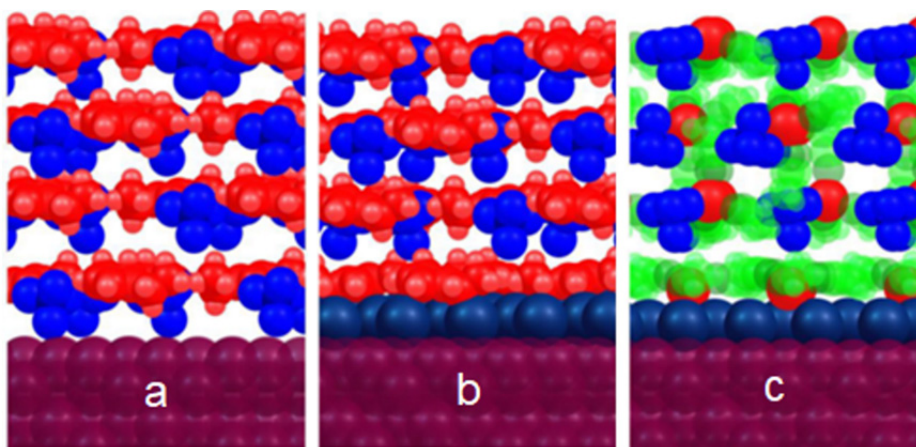


Figure 18. Graphical depiction of Bi(111) interface in (a) neat IL, (b) salt-in-IL, and (c) solvent-in-IL electrolytes at positive surface charge density (cations in red, anions in blue, neutral molecules in green, and bismuth in purple).

Based on the interface analysis, possible models of interfacial structures are constructed in ionic liquid based electrolytes at the Bi(111) electrode shown in Figure 18. Adsorption behaviour in the compact layer seems to be much stronger than in the diffuse layer in IL based electrolytes. For ILs without specifically adsorbed anions, the anions dominate in the positively charged surface. In the meantime, the role of the interaction between anions and cations is also of consideration. For IL mixtures containing specifically adsorbed anions, a dense adsorbed anion layer dominates in the positively charged surface, which agrees with the capacitance response of C , E curves.

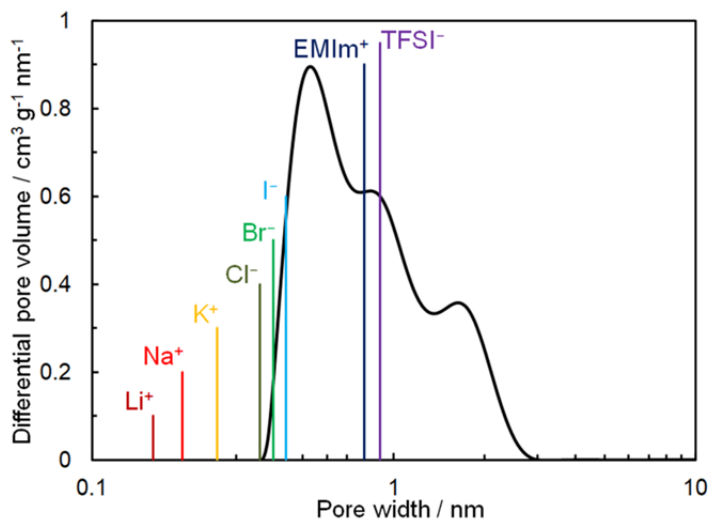


Figure 19. Differential pore size distribution vs. pore width plots for SiC-CDC material studied and the sizes of ions in the largest dimension, marked in the figure.

The properties of the electrochemical interface play a crucial role in determining the performance of electrochemical energy storage devices, such as SCs, fuel cells, batteries, and actuators. Generally, electrodes and electrolytes are the primary components for most energy storage devices. Popular materials include carbon [73,154–156], lithium [157], aluminum [158–160], zinc [161], copper [162], sodium [163–165] and potassium [166] metal electrodes. On the one hand, electrode materials used in electrochemical devices can be highly porous, different from the flat electrode used in the fundamental interface study. The size of ions from electrolyte components should be considered in correlation with the pore size of electrode materials. For example, Figure 19 shows the pore size distribution of micro- and mesoporous carbon material studied. As is seen, the adsorption process of small-sized ions can take place inside the pores and near the electrode surface. This allows us to selectively tune the porosity of an electrode material to the electrolyte and the desired electroactive components.

Current studies of the interface between electrodes and electrolytes are commonly focused on the electrode materials (i.e., Hg [31,65], Au [27,33,38,167], Pt [35,168], GC [13,26], Bi [25,64,129,132,169], Sb [46,170,171]) which are not sufficient to represent the electrode materials in practical application. For example, a high-energy-density aluminum battery is a potential alternative for post lithium battery devices. However, an electrochemically active interface between Al anode and the electrolyte still lacks fundamental explorations due to the limitation of metallic surface exposure [172,173]. Thus, the interface between electrolytes and electrode materials used in practical applications should be considered and explored further. These considerations might help to achieve the transition from fundamental interfacial behaviour and knowledge to energy storage methods applied in practical applications.

7. SUMMARY

In this thesis, the EDL structure and interfacial processes at Bi(*hkl*) planes and micro-mesoporous carbon electrodes in both ionic liquids and IL mixtures have been investigated by CV, EIS, and *in-situ* STM methods. The enhancement in capacitance at interfaces resulting from the specifically adsorbed anions in this work provides a motive to improve the capacitance performance in SC systems applied.

The CV results show the electrochemically stable potential windows for various ILs at Bi(*hkl*) planes, ions adsorption, and faradaic processes kinetics within the potential region studied. The potential regions of ideal polarizability for the Bi(111) plane for ILs were determined by the cut-off current densities limited by the decompositions of corresponding anions and cations. The narrower potential windows for ILs containing specifically adsorbed anions (PMImI, EMImMeSO₃) have been observed compared to ILs without strong specific adsorption (EMImOTf, EMImTFSI, EMImBF₄). The narrower potential windows at the Bi(111) electrode were also observed in the mixtures of EMImBF₄ + X%EMImBr. Although the wide potential window is not the whole story, the enhanced capacitances caused by the specifically adsorbed anions are key properties.

The interfacial capacitance and resistance were established by fitting the calculated impedance data to experimental ones to understand better the processes at the Bi(*hkl*) | EMImOTf interfaces. The EDL capacitance was strongly dependent on the water concentration for Bi(111) | EMImOTf interfaces when the specifically adsorbed anions dominate the positively charged surface. Besides, the EDL capacitance is also affected by the nature and surface structure of different Bi single crystal planes. The resistance parameters also show the surface kinetics of the mass-transfer and faradaic processes of the systems studied. *In-situ* STM results show a highly stable Bi(111) surface structure and an obvious reconstruction process at the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) plane within the potential range studied. Besides, a highly ordered surface structure was observed for the Bi(01 $\bar{1}$) | EMImOTf, Bi(111) | EMImBF₄ + 20%EMImBr, and Bi(111) | PMImI systems.

To take advantage of the specific adsorption effect in the EDL capacitance, the effect of halide ions at micro-mesoporous carbon electrodes has witnessed an enhanced capacitance performance in SC systems. The SCs assembled by the carbon electrodes impregnated in halide salt mixtures (EMImTFSI + X%EMImCl/Br/I) or alkali salt mixtures (EMImTFSI + X%Li/Na/K TFSI) were studied by CV, EIS, and CCD methods. As expected, the halide ions treated SC systems showed a noticeable improvement in capacitance performance, while the alkali ions treated systems did not show such improvement. Interestingly, the symmetrically treated system (Alk5(-) | Hal5(+)) SC system showed highly constant capacitance values. Such a stable capacitance value compared to asymmetrically treated SC systems is due to the specific adsorption and redox-active properties of both I⁻ and Br⁻ ions and the symmetric doping methodology via alkali ions stabilizing the negative electrode.

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9. SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN

Ioosetel vedelikel põhinevate elektrolüütide elektrokeemilised omadused Bi(hkl) ja mikro-mesopoorsetel süsinik elektroodidel

Tänapäeva tehnoloogias ja teaduses on olulisel kohal moodsad energia muundamise ja salvestamise seadmed. Ioosned vedelikud omavad olulist tehnoloogilist potentsiaali antud seadmetes tänu nende kõrgele keemilisele stabiilsusele, laiale variatsioonile ning rakendatavusele nii elektrolüüdi kui solvendina. Selleks, et disainida efektiivsemaid ja kõrgema erieneergiaga energiasalvesteid on oluline mõista mehhanisme, mis mõjutavad energia salvestamist ioonseid vedelike rakendavates süsteemides, nagu näiteks super- ja hübriidkondensaatorites. Elektrilise kaksikkihi (EKK) tekke ja dünaamika ning lisandite mõju, nagu näiteks halogeniid ja leelismetalli ioonid, vesi ja orgaanilised solvendid, uurimine võimaldab meil teadlikult disainida paremaid elektrokeemilisi seadmeid. Antud töös uuriti nii mudelelektrood-süsteeme, et näidata lisandite mõju EKK tekkele vismuti monokristalli eri tahkudel, kui ka superkondensaatori test-rakke, et kontrollida, kuivõrd fundamentaaluuringutest saadavad teadmised on rakendatavad ka reaalsetes seadmetes.

Antud töös kasutati elektrokeemilise impedantspektroskoopia, skaneeriva tunnelmikroskoopia ja alalisvoolu elektrokeemilisi meetodeid, et iseloomustada erinevate ioosete vedelike mahtvuslikke, takistuslisi ja adsorptsioonilisi omadusi vismuti monokristallide ja mikro-mesopoorse süsinikmaterjali piirpinnal. Lisaks vaadeldi erinevate pindaktiivsete lisandite mõju vastavate süsteemide omadustele. Tulemustest nähtub, et kõige olulisemat mõju vastavate süsteemide elektrood | elektrolüüt piirpinnale omavad ioonse vedeliku anioonid ning lahustunud molekulid mis omavad tugevat vastastikmõju anioonidega. Näidati, et anioonide varieerimine muudab oluliselt piirpinna mahtuvust, eriti polariseeritavamate anioonide nagu näiteks halogeniid-ioonide puhul. Skaneeriva tunnelmikroskoopia tulemustest võib järeldada, et mahtuvuse muutus on tingitud kõrgelt struktureeritud tiheda adsorptsioonilise kihi tekkest vismuti monokristallide piirpinnale. Samuti uuriti vee kui lisandi mõju Bi | ioonne vedelik süsteemile. Kõrge hügrooskoopsuse tõttu on väike vee lisand levinud paljudes uuritavates süsteemides, ning vastava mõju hindamine omab olulist väärtust rakendustele. Ka siin leiti, et kõige olulisem muutus puudutab ioonse vedeliku anioone, mis veemolekulide olemasolu korral on võimelised moodustama hüdrateeritud komplekse, mis omavad olulist mõju vismutielektroodi mahtvuslikele omadustele, eriti positiivse pinnalaengu korral. Samuti on vee-lisandil arvestatav mõju takistuslikele parameetritele, kuna vesi on elektrokeemiliselt ioosetetest vedelikest vähem stabiilsem.

Ioosete lisandite mõju superkondensaatorites uurimiseks võrreldi puhas iooset vedelikku kui elektrolüüti sisaldavat süsteemi ning lisati nendele nii halogeniid kui ka leelismetalli ioone. Vastavad lisandid olid kasutusel abrosbee-

rituna mikro-mesopöorses süsinikmaterjalis, milles oluline osa poorsusest on suurematele ioonse vedeliku anioonidele ja katioonidele suletud. Seega võis eeldada, et väikesemad lisandi-ioonid on peamiselt kontsentreerunud materjali mikropöoridesse. Näidati, et kuigi leelis-metallide ioonid ei oma olulist mõju superkondensaatori mahtuvusele, siis halogeniidioonid aitavad parendada süsteemi elektrokeemilisi omadusi olulisel määral. Seega on ka antud süsteemides aniooni mõju elektrokeemilistele omadustele ja EKK tekkele määrava tähtsusega. Täpsem impedants-spektrite analüüs võimaldas lahtutada vastava mõju nii mahtuvuslikuks kui ka laengu-ülekanne komponentideks, aidates mõista halogeniidioonide mõju hübriidkondensaatorile.

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11. PUBLICATIONS

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3. **J. Zhao**, G. Gorbatovski, O. Oll, E. Anderson, E. Lust, Influence of water on the electrochemical characteristics and nanostructure of Bi(*hkl*) | ionic liquid interface, *Electrochimica Acta*. 415 (2022) 140263.
4. S. Jürjo, O. Oll, P. Paiste, M. Külaviir, **J. Zhao**, E. Lust, Electrochemical co-reduction of praseodymium and bismuth from 1-butyl-1-methylpyrrolidinium bis(fluorosulfonyl)imide ionic liquid, *Electrochemistry Communications* 138 (2022) 107285.
5. **J. Zhao**, G. Gorbatovski, O. Oll, T. Thomberg, E. Lust, Analysis of impedance: the distribution of capacitance in halide ion treated supercapacitors (Under review).

International conference presentations:

1. **J. Zhao**, O. Oll, G. Gorbatovski and E. Lust, Exploring the Interfacial Behavior of Aluminum Electrode in Ionic Liquids: An Impedance Study, 71st annual Meeting of the International Society of Electrochemistry (online), Belgrade, Serbia, 30th August–4th September, 2020.

2. **J. Zhao**, O. Oll, G. Gorbatovski, E. Anderson and E. Lust, Influence of Water on the Interface between Hydrophilic Ionic Liquid and Single Crystal Bismuth Electrodes, Electrochemical Conference on Energy and the Environment: Bioelectrochemistry and Energy Storage (ECEE 2019), Glasgow, Scotland, 21–26th July, 2019.
3. **J. Zhao**, O. Oll, G. Gorbatovski, T. Thomberg and E. Lust, Efficiency and Capacitive Behavior of Supercapacitors Based on Carbon Electrodes Containing Ionic Liquids with Halide and Alkali Ions, 7th Baltic Electrochemistry Conference, Tartu, Estonia, 4–7th November, 2018.
4. **J. Zhao**, O. Oll, E. Anderson, G. Gorbatovski and E. Lust, Influence of Water Additive on the Specific Adsorption from an Ionic Liquid at Single Crystal Bismuth Electrodes, 69th Annual ISE Meeting of International Society of Electrochemistry, Bologna, Italy. 2–7th September, 2018.

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Bismuth Electrodes, Electrochemical Conference on Energy and the Environment: Bioelectrochemistry and Energy Storage (ECEE 2019), Glasgow, Scotland, 21–26th July, 2019.

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