IRON-ADDED NICKEL COBALT SULFIDE ON NICKEL FOAM AS ELECTRODE FOR HIGH-PERFORMANCE

SUPERCAPACITOR

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ขั้วไฟฟ้านิกเกิลโคบอลต์ซัลไฟด์ที่เติมเหล็กบนแผ่นนิกเกิลโฟม สำหรับตัวเก็บประจุยิ่งยวดประสิทธิภาพสูง



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ประไพพร พรสุขสว่าง : ขั้วไฟฟ้านิกเกิลโคบอลต์ซัลไฟด์ที่เติมเหล็กบนแผ่นนิกเกิลโฟม สำหรับตัวเก็บประจุยิ่งยวคประสิทธิภาพสูง (IRON-ADDED NICKEL COBALT SULFIDE ON NICKEL FOAM AS ELECTRODE FOR HIGH-PERFORMANCE SUPERCAPACITOR) อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา : ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ คร.ธีรนันท์ ศิริตานนท์, 87 หน้า.

ตัวเก็บประจุยิ่งขวดเป็นอุปกรณ์กักเก็บพลังงาน มีความสามารถในการอัดและคายประจุได้ รวดเร็ว โดยขั้วไฟฟ้าซึ่งทำหน้าที่เก็บประจุไฟฟ้า นับว่าเป็นส่วนประกอบที่สำคัญที่สุดของตัวเก็บ ประจุยิ่งขวด สารประกอบนิกเกิล โคบอลต์ซัลไฟด์ สามารถเกิดปฏิกิริยาทางไฟฟ้าเกมีได้คี มีก่าการ เก็บประจุสูง และนำไฟฟ้าได้คี จึงถูกศึกษาเป็นขั้วไฟฟ้าสำหรับตัวเก็บประจุยิ่งขวดอย่างกว้างขวาง งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษาขั้วไฟฟ้านิกเกิล โคบอลต์ซัลไฟด์ซึ่งถูกสังเคราะห์ด้วยวิธีไฮโดรเทอมัลเพียงขั้นตอน เดียวแบบไม่ใช้สารเชื่อม (binder) โดยเติม FeCl, ในปริมาณต่าง ๆ ระหว่างการสังเกราะห์ และ ศึกษาผลของปริมาณไอออน Fe³⁺ ที่มีต่อโครงสร้าง สัณฐาน และสมบัติทางเกมีไฟฟ้าของขั้วไฟฟ้า โดยพบว่าการเติม FeCl, ไม่มีผลต่อโครงสร้างสัดของสาร แต่ลักษณะรูปร่างของตัวอย่างเปลี่ยน จากรูปร่างกล้ายตาข่ายไปเป็นอนุภาคที่รวมตัวกันเป็นกลุ่มก้อนสามมิติ ความจุประจุจำเพาะของ NiCo₂S₄ ที่ไม่เติมเหลีก มีก่า 98 mAb/g ที่ความหนาแน่นกระแส 10 A/g เมื่อเติมเหลีกไป 1.61 โมล เปอร์เซ็นต์ ก่าความจุประจุจำเพาะเพิ่มขึ้นเป็น 167 mAb/g ที่ความหนาแน่นกระแส 10 A/g เมื่อเติมเหลีกไป 1.61 โมล เปอร์เซ็นต์ ก่ากวามจุประจุจำเพาะเพิ่มขึ้นเป็น 167 mAb/g ที่ความหนาแน่นกระแส 10 A/g ซึ่งนับว่า มีประสิทธิภาพเพิ่มขึ้นเป็นร้อยละ 170 ทั้งจากผลการทดลองและผลการกำนวณเชิงทฤษฎีพบว่า ขั้วไฟฟ้ามีการเก็บประจุได้มากขึ้น เป็นผลมาจากการนำไฟฟ้าที่ดีขึ้น และความสามารถในการดูด ซับอิเล็กโทรไลต์ได้ดีขึ้น และขั้วไฟฟ้าที่เตรียมได้มีกวามเสถียรในระดับปานกลาง ก่าการเก็บประจุ อยู่ที่ร้อยละ 58 ของก่าเริ่มต้น หลังผ่านกรใจรามาผลเมื่องานไป

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สาขาวิชาเคมี ปีการศึกษา 2562 PRAPHAIPHON PHONSUKSAWANG : IRON-ADDED NICKEL COBALT SULFIDE ON NICKEL FOAM AS ELECTRODE FOR HIGH-PERFORMANCE SUPERCAPACITOR. THESIS ADVISOR : ASST. PROF. THEERANUN SIRITANON, Ph.D. 87 PP.

SUPERCAPACITOR/NICKEL COBALT SULFIDE/BINDER-FREE

Supercapacitors are energy storage devices which are capable of fast chargedischarge. The most important component of supercapacitor is the electrode. Nickel cobalt sulfides with high electrochemical activity, high capacitance and high electrical conductivity are widely studied as electrodes for supercapacitors. The current work studies the binder-free NiCo₂S₄ electrode prepared by a simple one-step hydrothermal method with the addition of FeCl₃. Effects of the amount of Fe³⁺ ion on structure, morphology and electrochemical performance are investigated. While adding FeCl₃ has no effect on the crystal structure, the sample morphologies change from net-like to agglomerated 3-D particles. The specific capacitance of the prepared NiCo₂S₄ electrode is 98 mAh/g at 10 A/g. The value significantly increases with added FeCl₃ content and adding 1.61 mol% of FeCl₃ increase the specific capacitance to 167 mAh/g at 10 A/g, which is a 170% improvement. Both experimental and computational results revealed that the enhanced performance is caused by the improved electrical conductivity and improved electrolyte adsorption. The prepared electrodes show moderate cycle stability as the capacitance is maintain at least 58% of the original value after 1,000 cycles.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Energy is involved in all activities in our daily lives, consequently energy storage is a very crucial tool. Supercapacitors are one of the candidates for next-generation energy storage system due to their high power density during charging/discharging process and long-term stability. These excellent properties cause supercapacitors to be widely used in portable electronic devices, backup systems, and electric vehicles (Chen *et al.*, 2017).

To overcome the problem of low energy density, new electrode materials for supercapacitors are being developed (Gao and Huang, 2017). Electrode materials determine the performance of supercapacitors (Wang *et al.*, 2016). The most popular materials are carbon-based materials with high surface area, the charges are stored by electric double layer capacitor (EDLC), which is based on electrostatic accumulation. However, these materials have low specific capacitance (measured in Farad per gram of active materials). Transition metal oxides such as MnO₂, NiO, and Co₃O₄, having electroactive species for redox reactions to store charges, are widely used as electrode materials for supercapacitors (Zhang *et al.*, 2017). Their advantages are low cost, environmental friendliness, and structural stability. However, these metal oxides suffer poor electronic conductivity which limits their performance (Lin *et al.*, 2015).

Metal sulfides are one of the interesting materials for supercapacitor electrodes. Especially, nickel cobalt sulfides (NiCo₂S₄) are widely used in many applications including as an electrocatalyst for oxygen reduction or evolution, in anodes for lithiumion batteries, electrodes for dye-sensitized solar cells, in electrodes for supercapacitors, and in gas sensors (Gao and Huang, 2017; Wang *et al.*, 2016; Xia *et al.*, 2015; Shimizu and Yano, 2001). The preparations of electrode materials with excellent properties have become an important key. Recently, a binder-free electrode without the polymer binder (such as polytetrafluoroethylene or polyvinylidenefluoride) that is used in conventional electrode preparation was developed to reduce internal resistance (Pu *et al.*, 2014). This can be achieved by directly growing active materials on a conductive substrate such as Ni foam, carbon fiber, and Ti foil (Chen *et al.*, 2017).

It is well known that many factors such as conductivity, surface area, and morphology affect the electrochemical performance of electrodes. NiCo₂S₄ with various nanostructures and nanoarrays in 0D, 1D, 2D and 3D including hollow microspheres, nanotubes, nanosheets and flower-like structures have been reported (Gao and Huang, 2017; Zhang *et al.*, 2017; Zhu *et al.*, 2016). Interestingly, the morphologies can be tuned by adding the additives during the synthesis such as ammonium fluoride (NH₄F) (Chen *et al.*, 2017; Lin *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2017), sodium acetate (NaAc) (Liang *et al.*, 2018), polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) (Chen *et al.*, 2018), and sodium dodecyl surfactant (SDS) (Zhu *et al.*, 2016). These additives play a key role as protective agents and/or chelating agents to prevent agglomeration in formation process.

Not only modifying the morphology, but also doping is an effective method in improving the electrodes performance. For example, P doping improves the performance of NiCo₂S₄ (Lin *et al.*, 2018) and Fe-doped NiCo₂O₄ show superior properties (Liu *et al.*, 2016; Yan *et al.*, 2017). The improved capacitance may be attributed to higher reactivity and higher conductivity after P-doping. For Fe-doping, the morphology of products greatly depends on pH level of solution, therefore Fe content also plays an important role in growth mechanism. While many researchers are focusing on preparing nanostructure and composite of NiCo₂S₄ (Zhu *et al.*, 2016; Yu *et al.*, 2018; Fan *et al.*, 2017; Rong *et al.*, 2018; Nguyen *et al.*, 2015), the study on doped NiCo₂S₄ lattice have never been reported.

Herein, this study focuses on improving the electrochemical performance of $NiCo_2S_4$ by doping Fe. The Fe-doped $NiCo_2S_4$ is expected to enhance the capacity of electrode materials. All samples were directly grown on Ni foam by a one-step hydrothermal method. This sample preparation is expected to change their morphology with the different amount of FeCl₃ additives. The electrochemical properties were evaluated in term of capacitance value obtained from cyclic voltammetry (CV) and Galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) measurements. Finally, the combined experimental and computational results were used to explain the positive effects of Fe doping in the prepared NiCo₂S₄ electrode.

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CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Supercapacitors within energy storage system

Supercapacitor or electrochemical capacitor is one of energy storage devices which bridge the gap between a capacitor and a battery as represented in a Ragone plot in Figure 2.1 Supercapacitors are not able to store charge as much as batteries but can be charged and discharged in a shorter period. Another excellent property of supercapacitors is their long cycle life. Their properties comparing with other energy storage devices are shown in Table 2.1.



Figure 2.1 Ragone plot for various energy storage devices (Reid, 2017).

Characteristics	Capacitor	Supercapacitor	Battery
Specific energy (Wh/kg)	< 0.1	1-10	10-100
Specific power (W/kg)	>> 10,000	500-10,000	< 1,000
Discharge time	10 ⁻⁶ to 10 ⁻³	s to min	0.3 – 3 h
Charge time	10 ⁻⁶ to 10 ⁻³	s to min	1-5 h
Cycle-life	Almost infinite	> 500,000 cycles	~ 1,000 cycles

Table 2.1 Comparison among capacitor, supercapacitor and battery (Gonzalez *et al.*,

 2016).

2.2 Charge storage mechanism in supercapacitors

A supercapacitor consists of two electrodes, an electrolyte, and a separator which isolates the two electrodes as shown in Figure 2.2. There are two charge storage mechanisms, electric double layer capacitor (EDLC) and Faradaic electron transfer.



Figure 2.2 Supercapacitor schematic diagram (Gonzalez et al., 2016).

In EDLC, charges are electrostatically stored via reversible ion adsorption onto active materials (Simon and Gogotsi, 2008). This process is called non faradaic process because there is no charge transferred between the electrode and electrolyte. When voltage is applied, ions in the electrolyte diffuse to the oppositely charged electrodes. Cations and anions in the electrolyte accumulate at the electrode surface to form double layer of charge (Helmholtz layer) to avoid ion recombination (Iro *et al.*, 2016). The double layer capacitance (C) can be estimated by equation 1 as follows (Simon and Gogotsi, 2008).

$$C = \frac{\varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0 A}{d} \tag{1}$$

where ε_r is electrolyte dielectric constant, ε_0 is vacuum dielectric constant, A refers to electrode surface area and d is the thickness of the double layer. Electrolyte concentration and ion size affect the double layer thickness (Kotz and Carlen, 2000).

Pseudocapacitors store charge by Faradaic reactions at the surface or near the surface of the electrodes, which involve charge transfer between the electrode and electrolyte. This process is fast and highly reversible. When voltage is applied, oxidation and reduction occur on the electrode material together with the EDLC. The capacitance of a pseudocapacitor is 10-100 times higher than that of an EDLC (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2016). Figure 2.3 shows the schematic mechanisms in an EDLC and a pseudocapacitor. Good characteristics for pseudocapacitive electrode materials are high specific capacitance and low resistance (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2016; Iro *et al.*, 2016).

In addition to Faradaic reaction at surface, batteries predominantly store charges on Faradaic electron transfer to metal center. Characteristics of batteries include having the intense and clear redox peaks in cyclic voltammograms or the plateau in charge/discharge curves (Gogotsi and Penner, 2018). The current vs. potential curves and potential vs. time curves in Figure 2.4 provide a means to categorize the type of materials. Batteries can typically be charged/discharged in minutes to hours while charge/discharge time of EDLCs and pseudocapacitors are measured in seconds to few minutes (Gogotsi and Penner, 2018).



Figure 2.3 Basic schematics for (a) EDLC and (b) pseudocapacitor of MnO₂ (Jost *et al.*, 2014).



Figure 2.4 Cyclic voltammograms and corresponding galvonostatic discharge curve for various types of energy-storage materials. (a, c) EDLC materials (b) surface redox materials (d, e, f) intercalation-type materials (g-i) battery-like materials (Gogotsi and Penner, 2018).

2.3 Electrode materials

Electrode material is the important part to determine the performance of supercapacitors. There are several groups of materials, including carbon-based materials, transition metal oxides, conducting polymers, sulfides, hydroxides and composites. They generally have different advantages and disadvantages.

2.3.1 Carbon-based materials

Carbon-based materials are frequently used as electrode material in fabrication of supercapacitors due to their low cost, high availability, and high surface area especially activated carbons (AC), carbon nanotubes (CNT), and graphene (Iro *et al.*, 2016). These materials store charges by forming the electric double layer at the interface between electrode and electrolyte. The capacitance mainly depends on surface area of materials. Therefore, having high surface area with high capability for charge accumulation is required. High surface area can be achieved by physical or chemical activation. Physical activation is the treatment of carbonaceous materials at high temperature under oxidizing atmosphere (CO₂ or H₂O) while chemical activation is the treatment with chemicals such as KOH, NaOH, and ZnCl₂ (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2016).

2.3.2 Transition metal oxides

There are many metal oxides used for supercapacitor electrodes such as RuO_2 , MnO_2 , NiO, and V_2O_5 . The most popular metal oxides are ruthenium and manganese oxides (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2016). Ruthenium oxides have been reported with the highest specific capacitance of ~1000 F/g (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2016). It has three oxidation states accessible within a potential window of 1.2 V. However, it has high cost and toxicity. The pseudocapacitive behavior of RuO_2 in acidic solution can be described by

equation 2 where ruthenium oxidation states change from II to IV (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2016; Simon and Gogotsi, 2008).

$$\operatorname{RuO}_2 + xH^+ + xe^- \leftrightarrow \operatorname{RuO}_{2-x}(OH)_x$$
 (2)

The value of x changes from 0 to 2 during proton insertion/de-insertion.

Less expensive oxides, such as manganese oxides, is an alternative to RuO_2 . The advantages of MnO_2 are low cost, low toxicity and high theoretical capacitance (1370 F/g) (Jabeen *et al.*, 2016). The charge storage mechanism is attributed to reversible redox reactions of proton incorporation as well as surface adsorption of electrolyte cations according to equation 3 (Simon and Gogotsi, 2008).

$$MnO_2 + xC^+ + yH^+ + (x+y)e^- \leftrightarrow MnOOC_xH_y$$
(3)

where C^+ represents alkali metal cations such as Li⁺, Na⁺ and K⁺. The oxidation states change between Mn(IV) and Mn(III) as shown in Figure 2.5.



Figure 2.5 Cyclic voltammogram of MnO_2 in 0.1 M K₂SO₄ electrolyte. The upper part in red is related to the oxidation from Mn(III) to Mn(IV) and the lower part in blue refers to the reduction from Mn(IV) to Mn(III) (Simon and Gogotsi, 2008).

2.3.3 Polymer

Conducting polymer is another type of psudocapacitive materials used for supercapacitor electrodes. The common polymers for supercapacitor application are polypyrrole (PPy), polyaniline (PANi), and derivertives of polythiophene (PTh) (Snook *et al.*, 2011). Their structures are shown in Figure 2.6



Figure 2.6 Conducting polymer structures (a) polyaniline (PANi) (b) polypyrrole (PPy) and (c) polythiophene (PTh).

In conducting polymer (Cp), redox reaction is used to store and release charges. There are two types of conducting polymers, positively charged (p-doped) and negatively charged (n-doped). However, the lack of n-doped conducting polymer have limited their potential (Iro *et al.*, 2016). Equations 4 and 5 describe two charging processes. The discharging processes are the reverse of these equations (Snook *et al.*, 2011). When oxidation occurs (called as doping), ions are transferred to polymer backbone, when ions come back into the solution, reduction takes place (called as dedoping) (Iro *et al.*, 2016).

$$Cp \rightarrow Cp^{n+}(A^{-})_{n} + ne^{-}$$
 (p-doping) (4)

$$Cp + ne^{-} \rightarrow (C^{+})_{n}Cp^{n-}$$
 (n-doping) (5)

2.3.4 Others (metal hydroxides, metal sulfides and composites)

Transition metal hydroxides can be used as electrode materials for supercapacitors. The most common materials are Co(OH)₂ and Ni(OH)₂ (Shi *et al.*, 2014). They have very high theoretical specific capacitance. The calculated theoretical values of Co(OH)₂ and Ni(OH)₂ are 3460 F/g within 0.6 V and 2358 F/g within 0.44 V, respectively (Cheng *et al.*, 2014). Similar to transition metal oxides, the redox reactions occur in transition metal hydroxides during charge-discharge process. The properties of hydroxides are close to those of oxides which are poor electrical conductivity, low power density, and poor cycling stability (Shi *et al.*, 2014).

Metal sulfides, such as iron sulfides, copper sulfides, cobalt sulfides, nickel sulfides, manganese sulfides, molybdenum sulfides, and tin sulfides, have been used as electrode materials for energy storage (Rui *et al.*, 2014). These sulfides can be in different stoichiometric compositions. For example, the family of cobalt sulfides consists of Co₄S₃, Co₅S₈, CoS, Co₃S₄, Co₂S₃, and CoS₂ (Rui *et al.*, 2014). From the previous reports, nickel sulfides and cobalt sulfides have excellent electrochemical performance. Therefore, they are good electrode materials for supercapacitors (Zhang *et al.*, 2017). Interestingly, ternary nickel cobalt sulfides (e.g. NiCo₂S₄) have demonstrated better performance than binary cobalt sulfides and nickel sulfides because they can offer richer redox reactions and they have higher electrical conductivity (Wang *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2017).

Another group of electrode materials is composite which combines carbon-based materials with transition metal oxides or conducting polymer. The composite electrode can store charges by both physical and chemical mechanisms (Iro *et al.*, 2016). The examples of composites are MnO₂/CNT, MoS₂/rGO (reduced graphere oxide), and CNT/PANi (Iro *et al.*, 2016).



Figure 2.7 The structure of NiCo₂O₄ with spinel structure (Wu et al., 2015).

Nickel cobalt oxide or nickel cobaltite (NiCo₂O₄) has a spinel structure with general formula AB₂O₄ (space group Fd3m) as shown in Figure 2.7. Ni atoms are in the octahedron. Co atoms are located in both octahedral and tetrahedral sites. O atoms are arranged in cubic close-packed.

NiCo₂O₄ has become a new type of electrode materials for supercapacitors. It has higher electrical conductivity and richer redox reaction than NiO and Co₃O₄. The sequence of electrical conductivity is as follows NiCo₂O₄ > NiO > Co₃O₄. Redox reactions of NiCo₂O₄ occur (Equations 6 and 7), with the contribution from both Ni and Co ions (Wu *et al.*, 2014).

$$NiCo_2O_4 + OH^- + H_2O \leftrightarrow NiOOH + 2CoOOH + e^-$$
(6)

$$CoOOH + OH^{-} \leftrightarrow CoO_{2} + H_{2}O + e^{-}$$
(7)

In order to improve the properties, a few elements have been used to substitute Ni in NiCo₂O₄. Fujishiro *et al.* prepared 1-5 mol% Ca-doped NiCo₂O₄ to investigate thermoelectric property at high temperature (Fujishiro *et al.*, 2004). Trivedi and Prasad studied doped spinel catalyst for oxidation of CO-CH₄ mixture. Pd, K, and Pd-K were doped in NiCo₂O₄ to be used as catalyst. The performance of catalysts was improved and the activity order was as follows: K-Pd-NiCo₂O₄ > Pd-NiCo₂O₄ > K-NiCo₂O₄ > NiCo₂O₄ (Trivedi and Prasad, 2018). Liu *et al.* prepared dandelion-like Fe-doped NiCo₂O₄ by hydrothermal method accompanied with immersion in FeCl₂ solution and calcination. The Fe content can be controlled by controlling the immersion time. ICP-OES results show that the Fe-content in materials increases with doping time. The NiCo₂O₄ immersed in FeCl₂ solution for 1 h has specific capacitance of 2237 F/g at 1 A/g. Because this sample has unique microstructure with numerous nanoneedles on the surface and some porous nanomeshes in the inside, it exhibits large surface area and contains more active sites than pure NiCo₂O₄ (Liu *et al.*, 2016).

2.4.2 Nickel cobalt sulfides

NiCo₂S₄ has a normal thiospinel structure of (Ni)_A[Co₂]_BS₄ (Figure 2.8). In this structure, Ni and Co atoms occupy one-eighth of tetrahedral sites (A) and half of octahedral sites (B), respectively (Sun *et al.*, 2017; Xia *et al.*, 2015). Comparing to oxide, the lower electronegativity of sulfur create a more flexible structure. The chemical bonds are elongated, making it easier for electron transportation (Wang *et al.*, 2016). In 1965, Bouchard *et al.* discovered the electrical conductivity of NiCo₂S₄ to be 1.25 x 10⁶ S/m at room temperature (Bouchard *et al.*, 1965) which is about 100 times higher than that of NiCo₂O₄ (Wang *et al.*, 2016; Lin *et al.*, 2015). From First-principles calculations, it was found that NiCo₂S₄ show metallic conduction (Xia *et al.*, 2015).



Figure 2.8 The structure of NiCo₂S₄ with space group $Fd\overline{3}m$ (Gao and Huang, 2017).

There are three ways to prepare NiCo₂S₄ materials including one-step, two-step and three-step routes (Sun *et al.*, 2017). The one-step hydrothermal method simply involves the reaction among Ni²⁺, Co²⁺ and sulfur source. There are also electrodeposited method reported for one-step route. Sometimes, the impurities such as Co₉S₈, CoS and so on could occur (Gao and Huang, 2017; Sun *et al.*, 2017). Most publications on NiCo₂S₄ use two-step hydrothermal preparation. First, Nickel and cobalt salts were transformed into NiCo₂(OH)_{6-2x}(CO3)_x ($0 \le x \le 1$), and then converted into NiCo₂S₄ by an ion-exchange reaction with Na₂S. The three-step route includes the formation of NiCo₂(OH)_{6-2x}(CO3)_x ($0 \le x \le 1$), calcination of precursor to obtain NiCo₂O₄ and finally conversion of NiCo₂O₄ to NiCo₂S₄ by Na₂S.

The theoretical specific capacitance of material is calculated as follows (equation 8):

$$C_{S} = \frac{Q}{\Delta V} = \frac{nF}{m\Delta V} \tag{8}$$

in which Q is the charge stored per gram of active material, ΔV is the potential window (here $\Delta V = 0.45$ V), n is the number of charges transferred during Faradaic reactions, F is Faraday constant (96485 C/mol), and m is the molar mass of active material. The calculated theoretical capacitance of NiCo₂S₄ is 2111 F/g (Pu *et al.*, 2014) which is very high comparing to popular pseudocapacitive materials, RuO₂ (1358 F/g) and MnO₂ (1370 F/g) (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2016).

The redox peaks in CV curve of NiCo₂S₄ are shown in Figure 2.9. The anodic peak at around 0.25-0.30 V and cathodic peak at around 0.10-0.15 V (Zhu *et al.*, 2015) come from reversible redox reactions of $Co^{2+}/Co^{3+}/Co^{4+}$ and Ni^{2+}/Ni^{3+} redox couples in KOH solution as shown in Equation 9, 10, and 11 (Yang *et al.*, 2015; Gao and Huang, 2017), respectively.

$$\operatorname{CoS} + \operatorname{OH}^{-} \leftrightarrow \operatorname{CoSOH} + e^{-}$$
 (9)

$$CoSOH + OH^{-} \leftrightarrow CoSO + H_2O + e^{-}$$
(10)

$$NiS + OH^{-} \leftrightarrow NiSOH + e^{-}$$
(11)



Figure 2.9 CV curves of NiCo₂S₄ and Ni foam at scan rate 25 mV/s (Pu *et al.*, 2014).

In Figure 2.10, the CV curve of $NiCo_2S_4$ has bigger closed loop than $NiCo_2O_4$ demonstrating that more charges can be stored. Therefore, nickel cobalt sulfide is a very promising candidate for supercapacitor applications.



Figure 2.10 CV curves of NiCo₂S₄ and NiCo₂O₄ at scan rate 5 mV/s (Yang *et al.*, 2015).

2.4.3 Electrochemical performance improvement in Nickel cobalt sulfides

Surface area affects the electrochemical performance because the capacitance mainly depends on surface area of materials in EDLC process. Therefore, many works focus on increasing surface area or making porous nanostructure to improve the performance (Yan *et al.*, 2018).

The morphology of this material has been widely designed in 0D, 1D, 2D and 3D nanostructures and nanoarrays (Gao and Huang, 2017). The hollow microspheres and nanoparticles are zero-dimension. These nanostructures can reduce the strain, which is good for cycling stability. The 1D nanostructures including nanorods, nanowires, and nanotubes have higher flexibility for electron transfer than 0D resulting in greater potential as electrode materials (Gao and Huang, 2017). The 2D nanostructured mainly include nanosheets and nanoflakes, which exhibit large surface area and short electron/ion pathways for transportation (Gao and Huang, 2017). The 3D structures are produced from 1D or 2D nanostructures as building blocks. For example, urchin-like structures are constructed from nanowires and nanorods (Gao and Huang, 2017) and flower-like structure are created from nanosheets (Liu and Wu, 2017; Zhang *et al.*, 2014). These 3D structures can exhibit outstanding electrochemical performance because they consist of many porous nanostructures which have large surface area (Liu and Wu, 2017).

It is well known that the morphology of materials can affect their performance as shown in Table 2.2. Zhang *et al.* reported the shape-controlled synthesis of NiCo₂S₄. Four morphologies including urchin-, tube-, flower- and cubic-like microstructures have been synthesized by hydrothermal with different components of mixed solvents (Zhang *et al.*, 2014). The results show that tube-like microstructures exhibit the best
performance because it has lowest charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}), which is favorable for penetration of electrolyte ions and fast electron/ion transfer.

Table 2.2 Nickel cobalt sulfides with different morphologies and their supercapacitor
performance.

synthesis technique	thesis technique morphology specific capacitance		Ref.
hydrothermal	flaky arrays	2044 F/g at 1 A/g	Yang et al., 2015
microwave-assisted	3D cauliflower-like	1471 F/g at 1 A/g	Xiao <i>et al.</i> , 2015
hydrothermal	3D petal-like	2037 F/g at 1 A/g	Wen et al., 2017
template-directed	nanocages	1635 F/g at 1 A/g	Wang et al., 2016
method	H L		
solvothermal	hollow spheres	1036 F/g at 1 A/g	Shen et al., 2015
sacrificial template	poro <mark>us n</mark> anotubes	933 F/g at 1 A/g	Wan et al., 2013
method			
hydrothermal	Hydrangea-like	1475 F/g at 3 A/g	Zhao et al., 2017

Besides controlling the solvent or synthetic condition, there are a few reports on controlling the morphology of NiCo₂S₄ by adding different amounts of additives. Lin *et al.* reported a synthesis of NiCo₂S₄ nanoneedle arrays, nanosheet arrays and nanoneedle-decorated nanosheet arrays on Ni foam by tuning the amount of ammonium fluoride additive in two-step hydrothermal method. The NiCo₂S₄ nanosheet arrays with self-decorated nanoneedles electrode show high specific capacitance of 2617.6 F/g at current density of 15 mA/cm² (Lin *et al.*, 2015). Chen *et al.* prepared 3D caterpillar-like NiCo₂S₄, composed of nanosheet core and nanowire shell grown on Ni foam by hydrothermal followed by sulfurization. Ammonium fluoride was added into the solution to obtain caterpillar-like NiCo₂S₄. They proposed the possible formation

mechanism by considering evolution process of Ni-Co precursor and tuning amount of NH₄F in the reaction. The role of NH₄F in hot solution is to make the system more NiCo₂S₄ including acidic. Three different morphologies of nanosheets, nanosheets@nanoparticles and nanosheets@nanowires were obtained from different reaction time. NiCo₂S₄ nanosheets@nanowires (caterpillar-like) exhibits the specific capacitance of 1777 F/g at 1 A/g. (Chen et al., 2017). Zhang et al. synthesized 3-D honeycomb NiCo₂S₄ with highly porous structure by modified hydrothermal method assisted with sulfuration. It was found that NH₄F plays important roles on morphologies. They prepared needle-, flake- and petal-like nanostructured NiCo₂S₄ by adding different amounts of NH₄F to investigate the effect of morphology on electrochemical performance (Zhang et al., 2017).

Not only NH₄F additive, but also other compounds such as sodium acetate (NaAc) (Liang *et al.*, 2018), polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) (Chen *et al.*, 2018), and sodium dodecyl surfactant (SDS) (Zhu *et al.*, 2016) were added to tune NiCo₂S₄ morphologies. Liang and co-worker synthesized NiCo₂S₄ with different morphologies including particles, sheets and hollow spheres. They found that the addition of NaAc transformed the morphologies from particles and nanosheets to hollow spheres. In hollow structure, the electrolyte ions can diffuse into active materials easily (Liang *et al.*, 2018). Chen *et al.* prepared nanosphere-like NiCo₂S₄ by one-pot PVP-assisted hydrothermal method. The results show that the morphology change from irregular shape to nanosphere-like and the particle size is reduced by increasing the PVP concentration in solution (Chen *et al.*, 2018). Zhu *et al.* reported the synthesis of NiCo₂S₄ on nickel foam via two-step hydrothermal method with addition of sodium dodecyl surfactant (SDS). The results show that the surfactant influences the crystal structure, morphology, and

electrochemical performance. NiCo₂S₄-pure and NiCo₂S₄-SDS have different crystallite size and morphology. The morphology of NiCo₂S₄-pure precursor shows glomerated nanoneedles leading to nanotube arrays product. On the other hand, NiCo₂S₄-SDS precursor have self-organized nanoneedles forming hierarchical porous structure. SDS acts as anionic surfactant to protect the agglomeration of nanoparticles. NiCo₂S₄-pure with finer crystallinity can increase the accessibility of electrolyte for redox reaction. In NiCo₂S₄-SDS, the porous structure acts as ion-buffering reservoir providing electrolyte ions for redox reactions (Zhu *et al.*, 2016).

In addition to morphological control, the defect engineering either by introducing anion vacancies or doping with other metal is one of effective strategies to improve the electrochemical performance. Oxygen vacancies in NiCo₂O₄ have been reported not only to enhance the conductivity but also increase the capacitance by improving the adsorption of OH⁻ for redox reaction on the surface (Yan et al., 2018; Li et al., 2015). Lu and co-workers found that the sulfur vacancies in NiCo₂S₄ can enhance the capacitance by improving the electrical conductivity, but the cycle stability is lowered because of the disordering in crystal structure (Lu et al., 2016). Lin et al. found that phosphorous- doped (P- doped) NiCo₂S₄ showed 60% improvement in specific capacitance compared to that of the pristine NiCo₂S₄ which attributed to the higher reactivity and conductivity after P-doping (Lin et al., 2018). Similarly, iron-doping significantly improves both conductivity and specific capacitance of NiCo₂O₄ electrodes (Liu et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2017). Very recently, Lai and co-worker reported that Fe doping in NiCo₂S₄ could enhance the charge storage performance of material in ionic liquid-based supercapacitors. Based on theoretical studies by density function theory (DFT) calculations, 5 mol% Fe doping results in enhanced density of states (DOS) near the Fermi level, indicating that the electrical conductivity is increased. After replacing Ni and Co by the less electronegative Fe atoms, the electron density is partially delocalized especially from Fe and closer to the S atoms than pristine NiCo₂S₄. Moreover, the ionic liquid adsorption energy of Fe-doped NiCo₂S₄ (-4.0 eV) is lower than NiCo₂S₄ (-3.78 eV). Thus, Fe doping can provide stronger binding sites for ionic liquid ions, EMIM⁺ ions, leading to enhanced energy storage capacity. (Lai *et al.*, 2019).

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CHAPTER III

EXPERIMENTAL

3.1 Chemicals

- Nickel(II) nitrate hexahydrate (Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O), 99%, Acros Organics
- Cobalt(II) nitrate hexahydrate (Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O), 99+%, Acros Organics
- Thiourea ($CS(NH_2)_2$), 99+%, Carlo Erba
- Anhydrous iron(III) chloride (FeCl₃), Carlo Erba
- Ethylene glycol ((CH₂OH)₂), Carlo Erba
- Potassium hydroxide (KOH), Carlo Erba

3.2 Instruments

- Powder X-ray diffractometer (XRD), Model D2 Phaser, Bruker

- Field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM)/Energy dispersive Xray spectroscopy (EDS), Zeiss AURIGA

- Transmission electron microscope (TEM), JEOL2100plus
- X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), PHI5000 VersaProbe II XPS

instruments (ULVAC-PHI, Japan)

- X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy (XANES), SUT-NANOTEC-SLRI

beamline5.2, Synchrotron light research institute

- Inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES), PerkinElmer Optima 8300
 - N2 adsorption-desorption, Bel-Japan Bel Sorp mini II

3.3 Sample preparation

All samples were prepared by a simple one-step hydrothermal method. The Ni foam (1 cm x 2 cm, with 0.08 mm thickness) was used as a conductive substrate. In a synthesis of NiCo₂S₄, 0.5 mmol of Ni(NO₃)₂•6H₂O, 1 mmol of Co(NO₃)₂•6H₂O, and 2 mmol of thiourea were dissolved in 20 mL of deionized water/ethylene glycol mixture (1:1 by volume) under magnetic stirring for 30 min. The mixed homogeneous solution was transferred to a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave with a piece of Ni foam immersed in the solution. The autoclave was put in an oven and heated at 90 °C for 8 h. After it was naturally cooled down to room temperature, the dark black product (designated as 0Fe-NCS) was obtained on Ni foam, which was washed with deionized water for several times. A series of samples were synthesized under the same condition, but with different amounts of FeCl₃ addition. Six samples of Fe-added NiCo₂S₄ were prepared by adding 0.12 mmol (assigned as 0.25Fe-NCS following the mole ratio of Fe:Ni), 0.25 mmol (0.5Fe-NCS), 0.5 mmol (1Fe-NCS), 0.75 mmol (1.5Fe-NCS) and 1 mmol (2Fe-NCS) of FeCl₃. The mass loading of all samples was calculated by the weight difference of Ni foam before and after the reaction.

3.4 Characterizations

3.4.1 Structure identifications

3.4.1.1 X-ray diffraction (XRD)

X-ray diffraction is a nondestructive technique, widely used for phase identification and crystal structure determination. The monochromatic X-ray interacts with matter by scattering. According to Bragg's law ($n\lambda = 2d\sin\theta$), the constructive interferences occur when the scattered X-rays are coherent and these contribute to X-ray diffraction patterns. The X-ray diffraction patterns are used as fingerprints to identify the crystal phase in the sample.

In this study, the obtained products on Ni foam were put on the silica sample holder. The XRD spectra were carried out at room temperature using a D2 Phaser XRD diffractometer (Bruker) with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406$ Å) operating at the voltage of 30 kV and the current of 10 mA. The XRD patterns were collected in 2theta range of 10-60° with an increment of 0.02° at a scan rate of 0.2s/step. We also collected the XRD patterns with finer step and longer time at a scan rate of 2s/step in 2theta range of 25-42°. The phase identification and the crystal structure were identified with databases by using DIFFRACT.EVA software.

3.4.2 Morphology

3.4.2.1 Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM)/

Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS)

This electron microscope provides the information about surface topography of the sample. Compared with typical SEM, field emission SEM produces the high-quality images with high resolution. The brighter and smaller electron beam from field emission source strikes the atoms within the sample, the various signals are generated. There are three signals including secondary electrons, backscattered electrons and X-ray. The detector catches the secondary electrons and transforms to the image of sample's surface topography.

In the experiments, the samples were prepared on a layer of carbon without gold coating because of its conductive nature. The SEM images were taken by a Zeiss AURIGA FE-SEM with high magnification. Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) and elemental mapping were used for area analysis. These techniques reveal the information about morphology, particle size, elemental composition and their distribution in the samples.

3.4.2.2 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

TEM operates on the same principle as light microscope but using electron instead of light. The high energy beam of electron from an electron gun is transmitted through very thin sample on a grid. The portion of transmitted beam is magnified and focused by objective lens into an image on viewing screen such as charge coupled device (CCD) camera. The darker areas in the images indicate that fewer electrons are transmitted through those area of sample. On the other hand, the lighter areas indicate that more electrons are passing that area. Therefore, TEM provides the details about morphology of the sample. Additionally, as the electrons pass through the specimen, they are scattered by elements in the sample to generate diffraction pattern. This pattern reveals the information about the crystallinity of materials.

In this work, each electrode was immersed in ethanol and sonicated for several hours to disperse $NiCo_2S_4$ phase in ethanol which was later dropped onto the Cu grid and dried at room temperature for TEM analysis.

3.4.3 Chemical analysis

3.4.3.1 Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS)

By electron bombardment, the core electrons are ejected out of an atom and leave the holes. An outer-shell electron fills a hole and releases the X-ray energy. This characteristic X-ray emission can be used to identify the elements and their proportion in the sample.

By using EDS connected to SEM or TEM, the elemental mapping analysis were carried out in the interested area of the image to quantitatively analyze each element and their distribution in the sample.

3.4.3.2 Inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES)

ICP-OES is an analytical technique used to detect the chemical composition in the sample. The excited atoms are produced by extremely hot plasma. When electrons return to ground state, they emit electromagnetic radiation at particular wavelength. Each element has its own characteristic emission spectrum. The content of each element within the sample is then determined based on the intensity of the emission.

It should be noted that, the samples on Ni foam were digested with acid solution of HNO_3 and H_2O_2 prior to ICP-OES analysis.

3.4.3.3 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

XPS is the surface-sensitive technique used for determination of chemical state and elemental composition. When X-ray interact with atoms from the top 1-10 nm of material, the photoelectron are ejected due to photoelectric effect. The kinetic energy

of emitted photoelectron is measured and used to calculate the binding energy of electrons. The binding energy is characteristic of a particular element.

In this study, XPS spectra were collected by a PHI5000 VersaProbe II XPS instruments (ULVAC-PHI, Japan) with monochromatic X-ray of Al K α (1486.6 eV). The binding energies were calibrated with C1s peak at 284.8 eV. The XPS spectra were fitted by the Gaussian method using CasaXPS software.

3.4.3.4 X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy (XANES)

This absorption technique is a synchrotron-based technique which provides intense and tunable X-ray beams. To obtain the XANES spectra, the photon energy is tuned in the range covering the absorption edge, 10 eV below the absorption edge and 20 eV above, where the core electrons can be exited. The excitation of a 1s electron occurs at K-edge. The fundamental processes in XANES are photoabsorption of X-ray into a core level followed by photoelectron emission and filling of the core hole by an electron in another level, resulting in emission of either fluorescence or an Auger electron.

In this work, the oxidation states of Fe and S were determined by XANES. Fe K-edge and S K-edge measurements were carried out in fluorescence mode at the SUT-NANOTEC-SLRI beamline5.2, Synchrotron Light Research Institute, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand. The XANES data was processed by Athena program.

3.4.4 Surface area

3.4.4.1 N₂ adsorption-desorption

The specific surface area is determined by physical adsorption of the unreactive N_2 gas on solid surface. When the relative pressure is increased, more gas molecules adsorb on the surface and cover the entire surface. The number of gas molecules is recorded from the volume adsorbed and used to determine the area of the accessible surface.

In this work, the electrodes were cut into small pieces and degassed in vacuum at 300 $^{\circ}$ C for 3 h and N₂ adsorption is measured at 77 K. The specific surface area was calculated by Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method. The Ni foam surface area was subtracted from total surface area to get the surface area per mass of NiCo₂S₄ active species.

3.4.5 Electrochemical measurements

Electrochemical measurements including cyclic voltammetry (CV), Galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD), and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), were carried out at room temperature in three-electrode configuration (Figure 3.1) connected to a working station. The potentiostat is used to control the potential of electrodes or control the current passing through the electrodes. The prepared NiCo₂S₄ electrodes were used as a working electrode. A Pt plate and Ag/AgCl were used as a counter electrode (CE) and a reference electrode (RE), respectively. 2M KOH solution was used as electrolyte. Capacity is the amount of charge stored measured in mAh. The capacity normalized by mass of active material, called specific capacity (Q), is used to compare the performance between electrodes.



Figure 3.1 Schematic drawing of three-electrode system with working electrode (WE), counter electrode (CE) and reference electrode (RE)

3.4.5.1 Cyclic voltammetry (CV)

Cyclic voltammetry (CV) is an important electrochemical technique to study the reduction and oxidation processes of active species (Elgrishi *et al.*, 2018). This technique provides both qualitative and quantitative information relating to electrochemical reaction in the active material. In CV measurement, the potential is applied and linearly ramped to working electrode. After reaching the set potential, the potential is ramped in the reverse direction to return to the initial potential. The cycles of triangular ramping in potential should be repeated. The current is measured at the working electrode during the potential scans. Cyclic voltammogram is the plot between current (vertical axis) against the scanned potential (horizontal axis). The specific capacitance can be calculated by using Equation 12 (Chen *et al.*, 2014).

$$C_s = \frac{Q_a + Q_c}{2m\Delta V} \tag{12}$$

where anodic charge (Q_a) and cathodic charge (Q_c) is obtained from integrated area under the cyclic voltammogram in one cycle of potential scan, *m* is mass of active material, and ΔV is potential window.

In this work, the cyclic voltammograms were collected in 2 M KOH electrolyte with potential window of 0.5 V using AUTOLAB instrument electrochemical workstation (PGSTAT204) to identify the redox couples of materials. First, the potential scans positively from 0 to +0.5 V versus Ag/AgCl. At potential of 0.5 V, the scan is reversed to initial potential of 0 V. The cyclic voltammogram were carried out at different scan rates including very slow scan rate of 0.5 mV/s to study the capacitance contribution described by Trasatti method (Ardizzone *et al.*, 1990).

3.4.5.2 Galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD)

In addition to CV, Galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) is another reliable technique to determine the capacitance of material. In GCD measurement, the constant current density is applied to the working electrode and the responsive voltage is measured as a function of time. Basically, the working electrode is charged to the set potential and then the discharge process is observed to evaluate the specific capacity following Equation 13 (Ren *et al.*, 2019).

$$Q = \frac{I\Delta t}{m}$$
(13)

where Q is the specific capacity of electrode (mAh/g), I is the discharge current (mA), Δt is discharge time (h), m is active mass (g).

In this study, the GCD curves were collected in 2 M KOH electrolyte at current density of 10 A/g with a preset potential of 0.4 V by using AUTOLAB instrument electrochemical workstation (PGSTAT204) to obtain the capacity of all samples and compare their performance. To evaluate the stability of electrodes, the charged-discharged processes were repeated for 1000 cycles at current density of 10 A/g.

3.4.5.3 Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS)

It is well-known that the resistance is the ability of a circuit element (resistor, capacitor, inductor etc.) to resist the flow of electrical current following Ohm's law (E=IR). In real world, there are more than one circuit element which make more complex behavior. Thus, we use impedance instead of simple resistance. Impedance is like a resistance, but it is not limited by the simplifying properties such as the necessity to follow Ohm's Law at all current and voltage levels. Electrochemical impedance is measured by applying an AC potential with small sinusoidal potential excitation to an electrochemical cell and then measuring the current through that cell. The sinusoidal current response will be phase shift at same frequency. Impedance (Z) is composed of a real and an imaginary part. The plot between real part on the X-axis and imaginary part on the Y-axis is called a Nyquist Plot. This plot reveals the information about internal resistance, charge transfer resistance and ion diffusion.

In order to study the electrical conductivity of the prepared electrodes, EIS measurements were performed in 2 M KOH electrolyte in a frequency range from 100 kHz to 0.1 Hz with 10 mV amplitude to obtain a Nyquist Plot.

3.4.6 Calculations

3.4.6.1 Computation details

All calculations were carried out using the spin polarized density functional theory (Kohn and Sham, 1965) with periodic boundary conditions as implemented in the Vienna ab-initio simulation package (VASP 5. 3) (Kresse and Furthmüller, 1996; Kresse and Furthmüller, 1996; Kresse and Hafner, 1993). The generalized gradient approximation of Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof functional was used to describe the exchange correlation term (Perdew *et al.*, 1996). We used the Grimme's correction method (DFT-D3) to properly take into account the van der Waals interaction between surface (NiCo₂S₄) and adsorbates (Grimme, 2006). The nucleus and core electron potentials were treated using the projector augmented wave method (Blöchl, 1994; Kresse and Joubert, 1999) where the valence electrons 3d4s of Fe Co and Ni and 3s3p of S were described by plane-wave basis at 500 eV cutoff. The convergence criteria of the self- consistent field are within 1.0×10^{-6} eV whereas the force convergence of ionic relaxation was set to 0.02 eV/Å.

To study the effect of Fe doping on the electronic structures of NiCo₂S₄, we first optimized the cubic unit cell of NiCo₂S₄ using the Monkhorst-Pack (MP) sampling (Monkhorst and Pack, 1976) of $4\times4\times4$ k-point mesh in the Brillouin zone. As depicted in Figure 3.2(a), the unit cell contains eight formula units of NiCo₂S₄ which corresponds to Ni₈Co₁₆S₃₂. The calculated lattice parameter of 9.34 Å is consistent with that of the experimental value (9.38 Å) (Bouchard *et al.*, 1965). Then, we replaced one Co or Ni atom with one Fe atom in the unit cell and computed their projected density of states (PDOS) using the tetrahedron smearing method.



Figure 3.2 Schematic illustration of a) NiCo₂S₄ unit cell, b) top-view, and c) side-view of NiCo₂S₄ (100) surface model used in the calculations

To further examine the role of Fe doping on the formation of electrical double layer (EDL) of KOH electrolyte, we used the optimized unit cell to build a slab model of NiCo₂S₄ (100) surface with eight-atomic layers as shown in Figure 3.2(b) and (c). The bottom four layers were kept frozen to mimic a bulk-liked structure while the others were relaxed. A 15 Å vacuum gap was added in the c direction to avoid the interaction between periodic images. We replaced one Fe atom at the Ni site or Co site to obtain the Fe-doped surfaces. Six K⁺ ions and OH⁻ ions were added to the surface to form the EDL on the surface. Their internal coordinates were relaxed using $4 \times 4 \times 1$ k-point sampling of MP scheme where the interactions, E_{ad} , were calculated according to the given equation

$$E_{ad} = E_{EDL} - (6E_{KOH} + E_{slab})$$

where E_{EDL} is the total energy of the system when six KOH are adsorbed on the slab, E_{KOH} and E_{slab} are the total energy of free adsorbate and the clean or doped (100) surface before adsorption, respectively.

3.5 References

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CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Sample preparation

In this work, all samples of NiCo₂S₄ with FeCl₃ additives including 0Fe-NCS, 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS, 1Fe-NCS, 1.5Fe-NCS and 2Fe-NCS (0, 0.12, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, and 1 mmol of FeCl₃), were synthesized by a simple one-step hydrothermal method. The hydrothermal technique for this synthesis involves three main mechanisms: hydrolysis, coprecipitation, and ion-exchange. The hydrolyzation of thiourea generates sulfur (S^{2-}) and ammonia. Subsequently, Ni²⁺ and Co²⁺ from metal nitrates are coprecipitated to form Ni-Co hydroxides on Ni foam. The Ni-Co hydroxides are further converted to NiCo₂S₄ product by reacting with S^{2-} (Wang *et al.*, 2016).

4.2 Sample characterizations

4.2.1 X-ray diffraction (XRD) Figure 4.1(a) sh Figure 4.1(a) shows X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the samples 0Fe-NCS, 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS, 1Fe-NCS, 1.5Fe-NCS and 2Fe-NCS on Ni foam. Note that the electrodes (not the powder) were directly used in XRD measurement which may cause some peak shifts. The two strong diffractions at 45 ° and 52 ° belong to Ni foam. The five diffraction peaks at 27° , 31° , 38° , 50° and 55° correspond to (220), (311), (400), (511) and (440) diffraction planes of the cubic NiCo₂S₄ phase (PDF 43-1477), respectively (Pu et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016). To better detect the reflections from intended $NiCo_2S_4$ phase, additional XRD scans with finer step and longer collection time were collected as shown in Figure 4.1(b).



Figure 4.1 XRD patterns of samples on Ni foam. (a) normal scan (b) finer scan in 2 theta range 25 to 42°

It is noted that some additional peaks at 21.7° and 50.0° found in 0Fe-NCS, 1.5Fe-NCS and 2Fe-NCS samples can be indexed to Ni₃S₂ impurity. The formation of Ni₃S₂ may come from the interfacial reaction between the outer surface of Ni foam and sulfur ion from thiourea during the hydrothermal reaction (Krishnamoorthy *et al.*, 2014; Jinlong *et al.*, 2017). The possible chemical reactions are shown by the equation 14, 15 and 16:

$$NH_2CSNH_2(aq) + 2H_2O(l) \rightarrow 2NH_3(g) + H_2S(g) + CO_2(g)$$
 (14)

$$H_2S(g) + H_2O(l) \rightarrow 2H_3O^+(aq) + S^{2-}(aq)$$
 (15)

$$3Ni(s) + S^{2-}(aq) + O_2(g) \rightarrow Ni_3S_2(s) + OH^-(aq)$$
 (16)

The XRD patterns demonstrate that $NiCo_2S_4$ were successfully synthesized in 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS and 1Fe-NCS samples. No impurities containing Fe are observed.

4.2.2 Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM)

Morphology of the obtained samples was investigated by FESEM technique. The effects of Fe addition on morphologies of the samples are clearly seen in Figure 4.2. The 0Fe-NCS sample shows nanosheet feature which is similar to the previous report (Wang *et al.*, 2016). However, these features are destroyed when FeCl₃ is added. Then, we prepared the sample with NaCl addition to check whether Cl⁻ from FeCl₃ affected the shape or not. Interestingly, the obtained sample possess a similar 2D network feature (Figure 4.3).



Figure 4.2 FESEM image at low magnification (left) and high magnification (right) of (a) 0Fe-NCS (b) 0.25Fe-NCS (c) 0.5Fe-NCS (d) 1Fe-NCS (e) 1.5Fe-NCS and (f) 2Fe-NCS.



Figure 4.3 FESEM image of NaCl-added NiCo₂S₄.

In hydrothermal synthesis of NiCo₂S₄, the only ionic compound used as an additive in many publications is NH₄F (Chen *et al.*, 2017; Lin *et al.*, 2015; Lu *et al.*, 2016). It was concluded that NH₄F increases the acidity of the system and activates surface of the samples which benefit the growth of particles with high dimensions (2D-3D). Similarly, Fe³⁺ is well known to form an aqua acid, $[Fe(H_2O)_6]^{3+}$, making the system more acidic. In fact, pH of the solution before hydrothermal synthesis with FeCl₃ addition was equal to three. Overall, the presence of $[Fe(H_2O)_6]^{3+}$ destroys 2D nanosheets and give rise to agglomeration of coral-like particles. To compare, we prepared the sample by adjusting the pH with HCl solution to pH 3. The result as shown in Figure 4.4 is different from the morphology of 1Fe-NCS sample. Therefore, Fe³⁺ plays an important role on the samples' morphology.



Figure 4.4 FESEM image of NiCo₂S₄ adjusted to pH 3 by HCl.

4.2.3 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)/Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS)

We performed TEM imaging of samples peeled from Ni foam using ultrasonication in ethanol. TEM image of 0Fe-NCS (Figure 4.5(a)) reveals the thin nanosheets which is consistent with the SEM image while the core-shell like features are obtained in samples containing Fe as shown in Figure 4.5(b)-(d). The TEM images suggest that the particles become denser with increasing Fe-content.





Figure 4.6 shows close-up TEM images of 0Fe-NCS and the shell region of 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS and 1Fe-NCS samples. The crystalline nature of samples is confirmed by the interlaced crystalline directions. We use ImageJ program to determine the d-spacing of each lattice fringe. The obtained d-spacing in all samples match well with the interplanar spacing of NiCo₂S₄. For 0Fe-NCS, lattice fringes belonging to Ni₃S₂ are also observed which confirms the results from XRD patterns. Additionally, the well-defined lattice fringe observed in Fe-added samples indicates that the crystallinity gradually increases with Fe content, although the polycrystalline nature does not change. The selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern with some clear spots of 0.25Fe-NCS sample as shown in Figure 4.5b (inset), confirmed the crystallinity nature of materials.



Figure 4.6 Close-up TEM image of (a) 0Fe-NCS (b) 0.25Fe-NCS (c) 0.5Fe-NCS and (d) 1Fe-NCS

The compositions of all elements including Ni, Co, S, and Fe in Fe-added samples were confirmed by EDS technique as shown in Figure 4.7-4.9. They are uniformly distributed in the samples.



Figure 4.7 EDS elemental mapping of 0.25Fe-NCS sample



Figure 4.8 EDS elemental mapping of 0.5Fe-NCS sample.



Figure 4.9 EDS elemental mapping of 1Fe-NCS sample

4.2.4 Inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES)

The Fe contents in 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS and 1Fe-NCS sample are estimated to be 0.89%, 1.16% and 1.61% by mole relative to Ni content, which are much lower than the initial ratio. Fe in the sample can exist in two possible form. First is the formation of $FeCo_2S_4$ which is mixed with NiCo₂S₄. However, there are no peaks of FeCo₂S₄ phase presenting in XRD pattern (Figure 4.1), thus, the more probable scenario is with Fe being doped into the NiCo₂S₄ lattice.

4.2.5 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy is employed to confirm the oxidation state of elements. The XPS spectra of Ni and Co are fitted by the Gaussian method. The Ni 2p spectrum (Figure 4.10) is deconvoluted into four peaks with two spin-orbit doublets and two shakeup satellites (marked as "sat."). The binding energy at around 856 eV in Ni $2p_{3/2}$ and 873 eV in Ni $2p_{1/2}$ are assigned to Ni²⁺. While the binding energy at around 857 eV in Ni $2p_{3/2}$ and 876 eV in Ni $2p_{1/2}$ correspond to Ni³⁺. The binding energies of samples are shown in Table 4.1. These results are in good agreement with previous report of NiCo₂S₄ (Wang *et al.*, 2016).



Figure 4.10 Ni 2p spectrum of (a) 0Fe-NCS (b) 0.25Fe-NCS (c) 0.5Fe-NCS and (d) 1Fe-NCS.

	Binding energy (eV)				Ni ²⁺ to Ni ³⁺
Sample	Ni ²⁺		Ni ³⁺		
	2p _{3/2}	2p1/2	2p3/2	2p _{1/2}	ratio
0Fe-NCS	855.5	873.1	856.7	874.7	1:0.51
0.25Fe-NCS	855.7	873.4	857.1	875.6	1:0.38
0.5Fe-NCS	855.7	873.4	856.9	875.9	1:0.28
1Fe-NCS	855.9	873.7	857.6	875.9	1:0.36

Table 4.1 Binding energies and Ni^{2+} to Ni^{3+} ratio of $NiCo_2S_4$ samples.

Moreover, we found that Ni^{3+} content slightly decreases in samples containing Fe as seen in Table 4.1. It is believed that Ni^{3+} are converted to Ni^{2+} which is similar to previous study in Fe-substituted $NiCo_2O_4$ (Yuan *et al.*, 2019), though the change we observed is less significant.

The Co 2p spectrum (Figure 4.11) of 0Fe-NCS sample can be well-fitted with two spin-orbit doublets and two shakeup satellites, the fitting peak of 799.9 eV and 796.2 eV are attributed to Co^{3+} . The binding energy at 781.4 eV and 797.0 eV are associated with Co^{2+} . Moreover, the spin-orbit splitting value of Co $2p_{1/2}$ and Co $2p_{3/2}$ in 0Fe-NCS sample is 15.6 eV. The spin-orbit splitting value is over 15 eV, suggesting the coexistence of Co^{2+} and Co^{3+} (Yang *et al.*, 2015). The coexistence of Co^{2+} and Co^{3+} has been reported in many works (Chen *et al.*, 2017; Pu *et al.*, 2014; Yang *et al.*, 2015). Unfortunately, the Co 2p spectra of other samples with FeCl₃ addition cannot be fit due to the overlapping between photoemission of Co and auger of Fe. Nevertheless, the positions and shapes of spectra are roughly the same.



Figure 4.11 Co 2p spectrum of all samples.

In the S 2p spectrum of 0.25Fe-NCS sample (Figure 4.12(b)), it can be fitted into two main peaks at 162.1 eV and 163.2 eV and one shakeup satellite. The component at 163.2 eV (S $2p_{3/2}$) is the binding energy of metal-sulfur bond, Ni-S and Co-S. While the peak located at 162.1 (S $2p_{1/2}$) is attributed to sulfur ion in low coordination at surface (Wang *et al.*, 2016; Chen *et al.*, 2017; Pu *et al.*, 2014). The S 2p spectra of other samples with FeCl₃ addition (Figure 4.12) are similar to 0.25Fe-NCS spectrum. In case of 0Fe-NCS sample as shown in Figure 4.12(a), the binding energy at around 169 eV corresponds to sulfate compound (Moulder *et al.*, 1992). This may attribute to surface oxidation.


Figure 4.12 S 2p spectrum of (a) 0Fe-NCS (b) 0.25Fe-NCS (c) 0.5Fe-NCS and (d) 1Fe-NCS.

To deal with the overlapping with Auger of other atom and surface oxidation in XPS technique, we additionally employed XAS technique to determine the valence states of Fe and S.

4.2.6 X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy (XANES)

X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy is performed to determine the chemical states of the elements. The oxidation state of Fe in the samples can be interpreted by edge position in Fe K-edge XANES spectra. Figure 4.13 displays the spectra of Fe-doped samples and standards FeO (Fe²⁺) and Fe₂O₃ (Fe³⁺) for comparison. The edge energies of FeO and Fe₂O₃ standards are ~7120 eV and ~7125 eV, respectively (Latif *et al.*, 2018; Phokha *et al.*, 2016). In case of Fe-added samples, the edge energies of 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS, and 1Fe-NCS are 7126.4, 7126.4, and 7127.4 eV, respectively. It can be seen that all samples have edge energies closed to Fe³⁺ standard, indicating that the oxidation state of Fe in the Fe-added samples are 3+.



Figure 4.13 Fe K-edge XANES spectra of 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS, and 1Fe-NCS

The sulfur component in NiCo₂S₄ samples is investigated by S K-edge XANES as shown in Figure 4.14. The edge energy is proportional to oxidation state of sulfur, ranging from 2469 eV for S²⁻ to 2483 eV for S⁶⁺ (Kornienko *et al.*, 2015; BonninMosbah *et al.*, 2002) For sample without FeCl₃ addition (0Fe-NCS), the edge position is 2470.2 eV. In case of Fe-added samples, the edge energies of 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS, and 1Fe-NCS are 2469.9, 2470.0, and 2470.0 eV, respectively. It can be seen that all samples have edge energies closed to S^{2-} standard, indicating the oxidation state of sulfur in the samples are 2- as expected.



Figure 4.14 S K-edge XANES spectra of 0Fe-NCS, 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS, and 1Fe-NCS.

4.2.7 N₂ adsorption-desorption

Surface area is one of the factors that affect the electrochemical performance of materials. To study the surface properties, adsorption-desorption isotherms of N_2 were carried out at 77 K as shown in Figure 4.15. All curves belong to type III isotherm with H2 hysteresis loop, indicating the mesoporous structure of samples.



Figure 4.15 N₂ adsorption/desorption isotherm of NiCo₂S₄ samples and Ni foam.

Sample	Surface	Calculated	Pore	Pore diameter
	area	surface area per mass	volume	
	(m ² /g)	of NiCo ₂ S ₄ (m ² /g)	(cm ³ /g)	(nm)
0Fe-NCS	2.13	82.70	0.00838	15.771
0.25Fe-NCS	2.86	^{77.84} โล้ยเทคโนโลยีส์	0.00918	12.835
0.5Fe-NCs	3.61	108.68	0.01064	11.784
1Fe-NCS	2.17	99.11	0.00998	18.430
Ni foam	0.86	0.86	0.00758	35.257

Table 4.2 Surface properties of NiCo₂S₄ samples and Ni foam.

From Table 4.2, the BET surface areas of all electrodes (including $NiCo_2S_4$ on Ni foam substrate) are similar. The surface area per mass of $NiCo_2S_4$ is calculated by subtracting the Ni foam surface area and dividing with actual mass of material. The

surface areas of NiCo₂S₄ are in the range of 80-110 m²/g, which are similar to other hydrothermally prepared NiCo₂S₄ electrodes (Wei *et al.*, 2017; Peng *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2017).

4.3 Electrochemical measurements

The electrochemical performance of NiCo₂S₄ electrodes has been evaluated by cyclic voltammetry (CV) and galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) in 2 M KOH solution using three electrode system. The NiCo₂S₄ samples on Ni foam (0Fe-NCS, 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS and 1Fe-NCS) were directly employed as binder-free working electrode. Mass loading on 1.5Fe-NCS and 2Fe-NCS samples is very low compared with other electrodes due to the corrosion of electrodes and the presence of impurity with high amount of FeCl₃ acid. Thus, they are not further characterized.

4.3.1 Cyclic voltammetry (CV)



Figure 4.16 CV curves of all samples at scan rate of 5 mV/s.

The CV curves of samples with the potential window ranging from 0 to 0.5 V at scan rate of 5 mV/s are shown in Figure 4.16, the anodic peak for oxidation process appears at 0.35 V and the cathodic peak for reaction process presents at around 0.20 V which are similar to previous works (Huang *et al.*, 2016; Shen *et al.*, 2015; Chen *et al.*, 2018). A pair of redox reaction peaks indicates that capacitance contribution is mainly from Faradaic reaction of $Co^{2+}/Co^{3+}/Co^{4+}$ and Ni^{2+}/Ni^{3+} redox couples in KOH solution as shown in equation 9, 10 and 11 (Yang *et al.*, 2015; Gao and Huang, 2017):

$$\operatorname{CoS} + \operatorname{OH}^{-} \leftrightarrow \operatorname{CoSOH} + e^{-}$$
 (9)

$$CoSOH + OH^{-} \leftrightarrow CoSO + H_2O + e^{-}$$
(10)

$$NiS + OH^{-} \leftrightarrow NiSOH + e^{-}$$
(11)

There are some extra peaks in CV curve of 0Fe-NCS corresponding to the redox reaction of Ni_3S_2 in KOH solution by equation 17 (Krishnamoorthy *et al.*, 2014; Jinlong *et al.*, 2017).

$$Ni_{3}S_{2} + 3OH^{-} \leftrightarrow Ni_{3}S_{2}(OH)_{3} + 3e^{-}$$
(17)

The 1Fe-NCS electrode shows the most remarkable peaks and larger area within the curves when compare the CV curves under the same scan rate, indicating the highest capacitance. While CV curve of a pure Ni foam used as current collector is almost a straight line, indicating that the capacitance contribution from Ni foam is negligible. The capacitance values reflect their energy storage performance. This can be further confirmed by GCD measurements.

Figure 4.17 shows the CV curves of prepared 1Fe-NCS electrode at different scan rates of 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 mV/s. The shift for oxidation peak toward higher

potential appears with increase of scan rate. Meanwhile, the shift for reduction peak toward lower potential also occurs due to the fast redox processes at the electrodeelectrolyte interface (Chen *et al.*, 2017).



Figure 4.17 CV curves of 1Fe-NCS electrode at various scan rates.

It is interesting to know how Fe affects the capacitive behavior. The contribution from surface capacitance (C_{sur}) and diffusion-controlled capacitance (C_{diff}) can be separated by Trasatti method (Ardizzone *et al.*, 1990; Duay *et al.*, 2013; Shao *et al.*, 2015). To do this, CV measurements were performed with a series of scan rate from 0.5 to 100 mV/s. Two plots as shown in Figure 4.18 were used to extrapolate the capacitance at scan rate of zero and infinity. Here, the semi-infinite linear diffusion is assumed, so we expect a linear relationship between capacitance and the inverse square root of scan rate. Similarly, the inverse capacitance deceases linearly with square root of scan rate. However, the plots deviate from linearity at high scan rates because of the ohmic resistance and irreversible redox processes (Zhou *et al.*, 2017). With sufficient time, every reaction would occur even in the regions less accessible, the extrapolation of capacitance at 0 mV/s will provide the total capacitance (C_{tot}). In contrast, the capacitance at very fast scan rate (infinity scan rate) is a result of only charges stored at the most accessible surface (C_{sur}). Therefore, C_{diff} is the difference between C_{tot} and C_{sur} .



Figure 4.18 (a) Capacitance *versus* the inverse of square root of scan rate and (b) Inverse capacitance *versus* the square root of scan rate.

The obtained results are shown in Figure 4.19. Interestingly, C_{sur} do not significantly change with Fe content, implying that the surface areas of the samples are similar. Remarkably, the enhanced capacitance in 1Fe-NCS electrode come from the increase in C_{diff} which is capacitance contributed from diffusion-controlled process. Consequently, the higher C_{diff} in electrodes with high Fe content indicates that the diffusion of OH⁻ into inner surface of NiCo₂S₄ materials is enhanced.



Figure 4.19 The capacitance contributed from surface (C_{sur}) and insertion process (C_{diff}) derived from Trasatti's method.

4.3.2 Galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD)

Figure 4.20 shows Galvanostatic charge/discharge curves of all samples at the same current density of 10 A/g. As the amount of Fe addition increases, the discharge time also increases. We measured three electrodes in each condition and the average specific capacity with standard deviation as shown in the bar chart (Figure 4.20 inset) are 98±23.5, 107.8±12.9, 129.1±4.8 and 167±4.1 mAh/g for 0Fe-NCS, 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS and 1Fe-NCS, respectively. The 1Fe-NCS electrode shows the best electrochemical performance, with 1.7 times improvement from 0Fe-NCS. The capacity value of 1Fe-NCS is relatively high comparing to other NiCo₂S₄-based electrodes (Table 4.3). It is clear that, the specific capacity is increased with Fe-content in the samples. The enhanced capacity is caused by the change in the electrode's conductivity and morphology.



Figure 4.20 Galvanostatic charge/discharge curves of all samples at current density of 10 A/g and the specific capacity of 0Fe-NCS, 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS and 1Fe-NCS electrodes (inset).

Figure 4.21 exhibits the galvanostatic discharge curves of the obtained 1Fe-NCS sample with potential window of 0 to 0.4 V at various current densities ranging from 2 to 10 A/g. It can be seen that along with increase in current densities, the discharge time decreases and the specific capacity of 1Fe-NCS electrode are 276.7, 233.4, 207.3 and 169.7 mAh/g at current density of 2, 4, 6 and 10 A/g, respectively. The decrease in capacity come from the inaccessibility of ions in some regions when increasing current density. At low current density, ions have enough time to penetrate into the inside of electrode material while at high current density, only the outer surface of electrode material can be utilized by ions during the charge-discharge process (Yang *et al.*, 2015).



Figure 4.21 Galvanostatic discharge curves of 1Fe-NCS electrode at various current densities.

A plot of specific capacity as a function of current density for all samples are shown in Figure 4.22. The rate capabilities of 0Fe-NCS, 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS and 1Fe-NCS electrodes are 80%, 71%, 68% and 65%, respectively. Obviously, the 1Fe-NCS electrode exhibits the highest specific capacity among other electrodes at any current densities. Although the rate capability of 1Fe-NCS is lower than the others, a high specific capacitance of 167 mAh/g is reached at a high current density of 10 A/g.



Figure 4.22 Specific capacity as a function of current density for 0Fe-NCS, 0.25Fe-NCS, 0.5Fe-NCS and 1Fe-NCS electrodes.



Materials	Synthetic	Specific capacity	Ref.
	technique	(mAh/g)	
Nanosphere-like	PVP-assisted	70.6 at 4 A/g	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2018
NiCo ₂ S ₄	hydrothermal	77.6 at 2 A/g	
	method	82.6 at 1 A/g	
NiCo ₂ S ₄ arrays	hydrothermal	76.7 at 6 A/g	Wu et al., 2019
		77.9 at 4 A/g	
		79.4 at 2 A/g	
		80.7 at 1 A/g	
NiCo ₂ S ₄ nanoflake	Electrodeposition	154.4 at 4 A/g	Kumbhar et al.,
	using constant		2019
	potential mode		
NiCo ₂ S ₄	Two-step	145.8 at 10 A/g	Shi et al., 2019
3D honeycomb	hydrothermal	176.0 at 2 A/g	2
Hierarchical	Two-step	228 at 10 A/g	Zou et al., 2016
NiCo ₂ S ₄ Core-	hydrothermal		
Shell Nanowire			
Arrays			

Table 4.3 NiCo₂S₄ materials prepared by various methods and their performance.

(Continued).			
Hierarchical	One-step	242 at 1 A/g	Wang et al., 2016
porous NiCo ₂ S ₄	hydrothermal		
nanostructures			
MoS ₂ /NiCo ₂ S ₄ @C	Hydrothermal	238 at 10 A/g	Li et al., 2020
hollow	(self-template	250 at 2 A/g	
microspheres	strategy)		
NiCo ₂ S ₄	Two-step	167 at 10 A/g	Ren et al., 2019
microaggregates	hydrothermal	238 at 2 A/g	
	H	249 at 1 A/g	
Fe-added NiCo ₂ S ₄	One-step	169.7 at 10 A/g	This work
	hydrothermal	207.3 at 6 A/g	
		233.4 at 4 A/g	
E.		276.7 at 2 A/g	0
	ว [ั] ทยาลัยเทย	351.1 at 1 A/g	Ÿ

Table 4.3 $\rm NiCo_2S_4$ materials prepared by various methods and their performance

The cycling stability is an important factor for practical application evaluated by repeated charge-discharge measurements. The long cycle life is one of requirements for good supercapacitor electrodes. A plot of specific capacity as a function of cycle number at current density of 10 A/g is shown in Figure 4.23. The specific capacity slightly increases in the first 100 cycles, it is believed to cause by the activation of electrode materials (Pu *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2016). Then the specific capacity gradually decreases with increasing cycle numbers and 58% of their initial capacity can be retained after 1000 cycles. Li *et al.* reported that amorphous materials possess better cycle stability because amorphous structure can endure the structural changes during redox reaction (Li *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, the lower cycle stability in 1Fe-NCS sample can be explained by the increases in crystallinity.



Figure 4.23 cycle performance of all samples at current density of 10 A/g.

The SEM images of 0Fe-NCS and 1Fe-NCS electrodes before and after the cycling test are shown in Figure 4.24. Obviously, the electrode morphology of 1Fe-NCS was damaged after repeated charging/discharging 1000 cycles.



Figure 4.24 SEM images of (a) 0Fe-NCS and (b) 1Fe-NCS before and after 1,000 cycles

The Coulombic efficiency (η) during the cycling performance was determined by dividing discharging time with charging time. As shown in Figure 4.23 (inset), the Coulombic efficiencies of all samples remain at ~96%, suggesting that the redox reactions of the electrodes are highly reversible (Wan *et al.*, 2013; Xiao *et al.*, 2015).

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4.3.3 Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS)

The electrical conductivity of electrodes can be revealed by EIS measurements. Figure 4.25 shows EIS Nyquist plots of all samples. In general, this plot consists of a semicircle and a straight line. At high frequency, the intercept at real axis demonstrates an internal resistance (R_s) and the diameter of semicircle represent the charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}). The linear part at low frequency exhibits diffusive resistance (Walberg impedance), indicating the diffusion rate of electrolyte ions. The straight line should be perpendicular to real axis for ideal supercapacitors (Li *et al.*, 2015).



Figure 4.25 EIS Nyquist plots of all samples (inset) the enlarge EIS Nyquist plots.

From EIS data, all samples display the small R_s and the small semicircles in high frequency region, indicating the low internal resistance and charge-transfer resistances during electrochemical processes (Lu *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2017; Huo *et al.*, 2014). The low resistances are expected due to the metallic conducting behavior of NiCo₂S₄ (Xia *et al.*, 2015). The 1Fe-NCS electrode possesses the lowest internal resistance and largest slope in the linear part which indicates the improvement in electrical conductivity of materials when Fe were added. The electrical conductivity is in the order of 1Fe-NCS > 0.5Fe-NCS > 0.25Fe-NCS > 0Fe-NCS which is well consistent with the capacitive performance (Zhang *et al.*, 2017; Lu *et al.*, 2016; Ren *et al.*, 2019).

4.4 Calculations

The effect of Fe doping on the electronic structures of NiCo₂S₄ was investigated by projected density of states (PDOS). To do this, Co or Ni atom was substituted by one Fe atom in the NiCo₂S₄ unit cell for doped systems. As shown in Figure 4.26, the calculated PDOS of the pristine and doped systems reveal that their Fermi energies lie within the band, demonstrating their metallic properties. Replacing Fe at the Co site results in higher DOS near the Fermi level which could enhance electronic conductivity of NiCo₂S₄. The calculated results are consistent with our current experiment based on the EIS results and previous computational works (Lai *et al.*, 2019). However, our dilute doping concentration shows only a small increase in DOS. For Fe doping at the Ni site, the DOS at the Fermi level is decreased suggesting a decrease in conductivity. Both experimental and computational results confirm that Fe doping improves electrical conductivity of NiCo₂S₄.

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Figure 4.26 PDOS of pristine, Fe-doped NiCo₂S₄ bulk with doping sites at Co and Ni.

Furthermore, the electronic structures of electrode surfaces were analyzed to investigate the influence of Fe doping on the charge storage mechanism. To do this, a slab model of $NiCo_2S_4$ (100) surface was created. The Fe-doped surfaces were obtained by replacing one transition metal (TM) atom with one Fe atom. We considered three different doping sites including Co and Ni sites on the topmost surface and a Ni site at the subsurface as schematically depicted in Figure 3.2 panel b and c. The computed

Bader charges (Figure 4.27) reveal that Fe doping at a Co site increases the electron densities of the neighboring S atoms and S atoms have more negative net charges. On the other hand, Fe doping at Ni sites either on the topmost or subsurface layer does not display charge accumulation at the neighboring S atoms. In addition, the calculated PDOS of the surfaces (Figure 4.28) show that the d-band center shifts closer to the Fermi level from -1.30 eV to -1.26 eV when Fe replaces Co, suggesting the higher chemical adsorption capability. In contrast, d-band centers of Fe doping at Ni sites shift toward the negative energy from -1.30 eV to -1.34 eV, indicating the weaker adsorption ability.



Figure 4.27 Bader charges of the two topmost layers of pristine and Fe-doped surfaces where grey, teal, dark blue, and yellow circles represent Ni at topmost layer, Ni at subsurface layer, Co, and S atoms, respectively. The light blue and orange shadow highlight the negative and positive changes of charges upon doping.



Figure 4.28 Projected density of states (PDOS) of a) pristine, b) Fe substitution at Co, c) Fe substitution at topmost-layered Ni, and d) Fe substitution at sub-layered Ni of NiCo₂S₄ (100) surfaces. The calculated values of d-band center, E_d , are indicated in the inset

Since the redox reactions of NiCo₂S₄ in the electrolyte (equation 9-11) require both active species to react with OH⁻, the electrolyte-electrode interactions play a key role in evaluating their electrochemical properties. Thus, we further studied the formation of KOH electrical double layer (EDL) at the electrode interface. In the surface model, there are six TM sites on the topmost layer. Six formula units of KOH were added on the surface where OH⁻ ions were placed on the atop sites of TM atoms. In the second layer next to the OH⁻ ions, the K⁺ counter ions were added to model the electrical double layer formed during the charge storage. The equilibrium structures of KOH electrolyte on the surfaces is obtained by relaxation of internal coordinates. As shown in Figure 4.29, four OH⁻ ions chemically adsorb on the surface and form TM–O bonds while the other two OH⁻ ions weakly adsorb on the S sites pointing their H ends toward the surface.



Figure 4.29 Formation of KOH electrical double layer on the Fe-doped surface at a Co site.

The calculated adsorption energies of Fe doping at the Co site is lower than that of the pristine surface (-2.24 vs -2.07 eV / KOH), indicating that the electrolyte interaction is improved. On the contrary, doping at Ni sites show higher energy (-1.99and -1.92 eV / KOH) suggesting that the stability of KOH on the electrode surfaces is slightly lower. The calculated adsorption energies are in agreement with the electronic structure calculations. Only the Fe replaced Co surface enhances adsorptivity of KOH electrolyte on the surface. Based on the experimental and calculational results, it is therefore more likely that Fe in the samples are replacing Co rather than Ni. The improved EDL- surface interaction suggests that replacing Co with Fe facilitates the OH⁻ adsorption which improves the reactivity of both metallic ions to react with OH⁻ resulting in increasing electrode performance.

4.5 References

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CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

We have successfully synthesized a series of Fe-added NiCo₂S₄, directly grown on Ni foam via a simple one-step hydrothermal method. The performance of Fe-added NiCo₂S₄ binder-free electrodes can be improved by increasing the amount of FeCl₃. Here, FeCl₃ additive plays two different roles in the synthesis. It promotes a 3D growth of highly crystalline materials in hydrothermal reaction and serves as a source providing Fe³⁺ to NiCo₂S₄ lattice. The changes in both the morphology and the lattice result in an improved electrical conductivity and enhanced ion diffusion. The 1Fe-NCS electrode exhibits the highest specific capacitance of 167 mAh/g at a current density of 10 A/g, 1.7 times that of the undoped NiCo₂S₄ electrode. The obtained electrodes exhibit good rate capability and moderate cycle stability. These results suggest that metallic doping can be an interesting strategy to improve the performance of NiCo₂S₄based electrodes for supercapacitor applications.

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