

Energy Storage Materials

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Room 269

Lecture Overview

Lecture	Topic
1	Introduction to energy storage materials
1-2	Batteries
3	(Super) capacitors
4-5	Fuel Cells

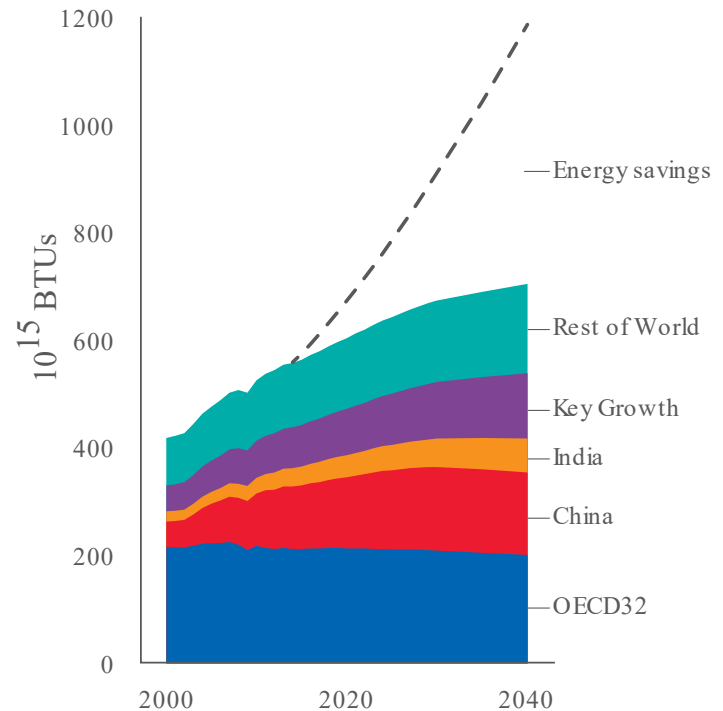
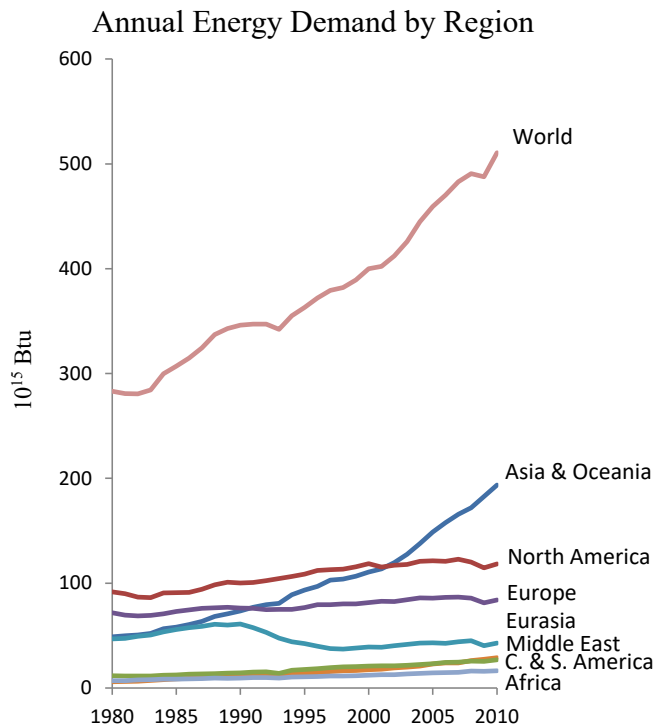
Recommended Reading

Basic Solid State Chemistry, A. R. West, *Wiley*, **1988**.

References given during course.

Introduction

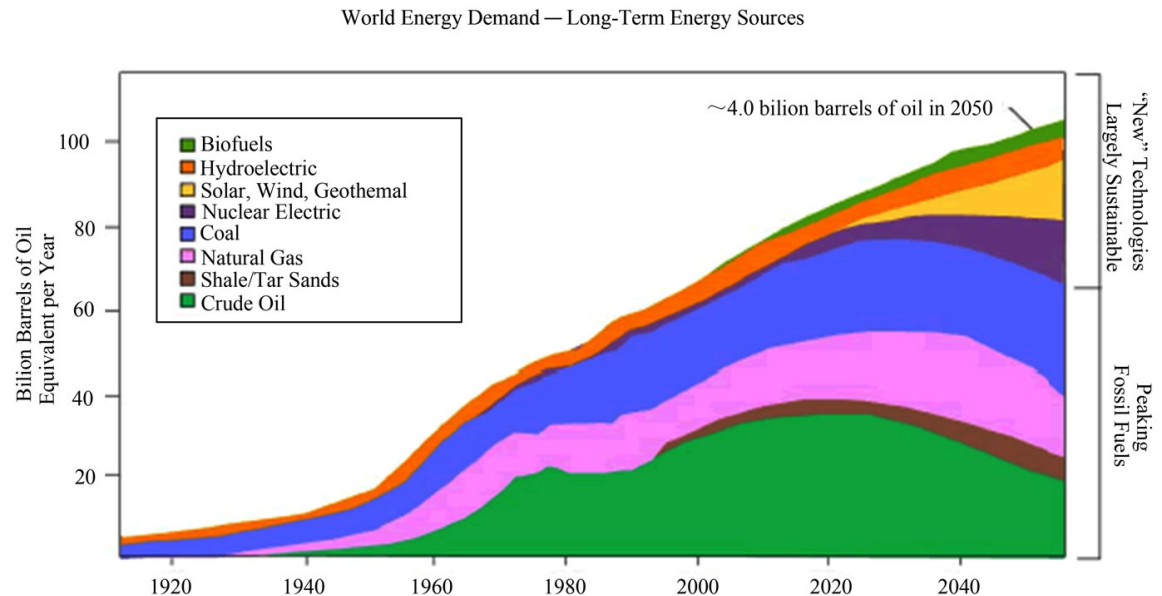
Meeting global energy demand is one of the big challenges facing society.



Energy sources

To meet this demand will require a combination of energy sources:

- Fossil Fuels
 - Coal
 - Oil
 - Gas
- Nuclear
- Renewable
 - Wind
 - Solar
 - Hydro
- ...



All sources have problems...

Fossil fuels

- **Finite supply**
- Environmental cost (i.e. climate change)
- Political uncertainty



Nuclear

- "Finite" supply
- Concerns over waste storage
- Political issues



Renewable

- Intermittent source
- (Relatively) expensive (although this is changing)
- Limited lifespan of components



Drivers behind change

- Problems with energy supply/demand
- Climate change
 - CO₂ emissions
- Other emissions
 - NO_x
 - SO_x
 - Particulates
 - Others
- Dwindling oil and gas resources
- Political aspects of fuel supply



Energy storage

If we aim to increase renewable sources, we need a way to *store* this energy.

- Supply cannot immediately respond to changes in demand
- Inefficient to waste "excess" energy (e.g. on a windy day)

How can we store this energy?

Historic approaches:

Technology	Energy conversion
- Burning wood	Chemical potential → Heat
- Firebrick (Used since the Hittites)	Heat → Heat
- Gravity! e.g. Irrigation (Hanging Gardens of Babylon) e.g. Mill ponds (modifying existing rivers)	Gravitational potential → Kinetic

Energy storage history

The discovery of electricity introduced much more variety into energy storage methods:

Technology	Energy conversion
- Burning wood	Chemical potential → Heat
- Firebrick (Used since the Hittites)	Heat → Heat
Gravity! e.g. Irrigation, Mill ponds	Gravitational potential → Kinetic
- Batteries	Chemical → Electrical
- (Super-) Capacitors	Electrical → Electrical
- Fuel Cells	Chemical → Electrical
- Cryogenic / Liquid air	Kinetic (from electrical) → 'Heat'
- Mechanical (e.g. flywheels)	Kinetic → potential

Efficient energy storage relies on *materials*

Important properties for energy storage:

- **Cost**
- (Long-term) stability; reactivity
- Durability
- Compatibility of different materials
- Material performance
 - Ionic conduction
 - Electronic conduction

Batteries

Battery History

ca. 190 AD: Baghdad (or Parthian) battery

- Iron and copper electrodes, filled with vinegar or wine
- Possible uses: medicinal, religious or electro-plating!

1800: Volta created the voltaic pile

- Alternating Ag and Zn discs, NaCl electrolyte
- Enabled *chemistry* e.g. $2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$
- Corrosion limited battery life

1836: Daniell cell: $\text{Zn}|\text{Zn}^{2+}, \text{SO}_4^{2-} || \text{SO}_4^{2-} | \text{Cu}^{2+} | \text{Cu}$

- First practical electricity source (used to power telegraphs)

1859 Lead-acid battery (first rechargeable)

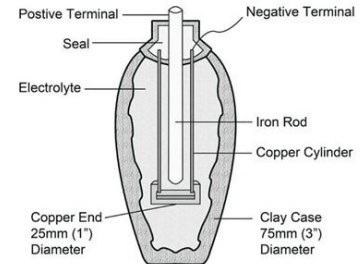
1886 The first dry cell, $\text{Zn} | \text{NH}_4\text{Cl} | \text{MnO}_2$

- NH_4Cl immobilised with plaster of Paris ($\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 0.5 \text{H}_2\text{O}$)

1899 The first alkaline battery $\text{NiO}(\text{OH}) | \text{KOH} | \text{Cd}$

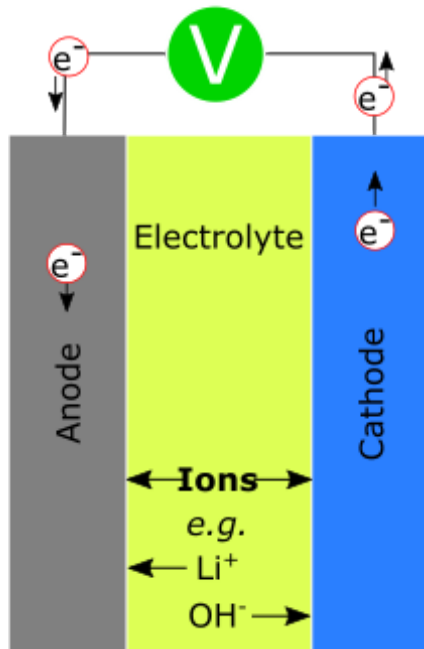
- Higher energy density than lead-acid, but expensive

1991 Li-ion battery commercialised by Sony

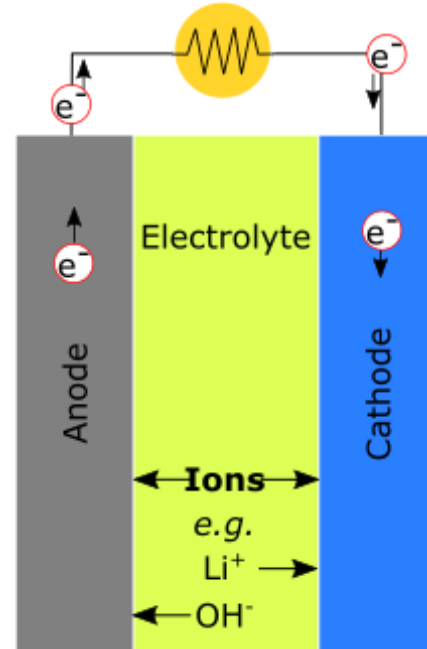


Battery Operation

Charge



Discharge



NOTE: In rechargeable cells, naming of *anode* and *cathode* is often unclear. Here we define:

- Cathode is **positive** electrode under **discharge**
- Anode is **negative** electrode under **discharge**

Improving batteries

The most important parameter in improving batteries is the total *energy capacity*, E

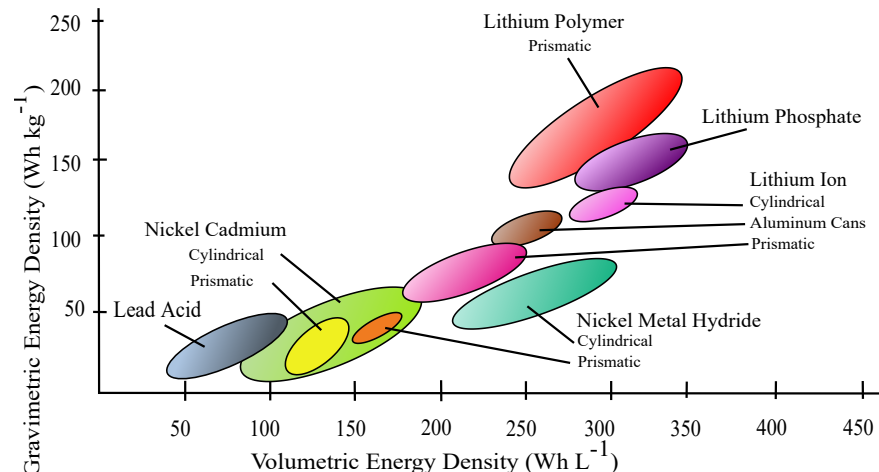
- Combination of cell voltage (V) and amount of charge (Q) stored in material:

$$E_{\text{bat}} = QV$$

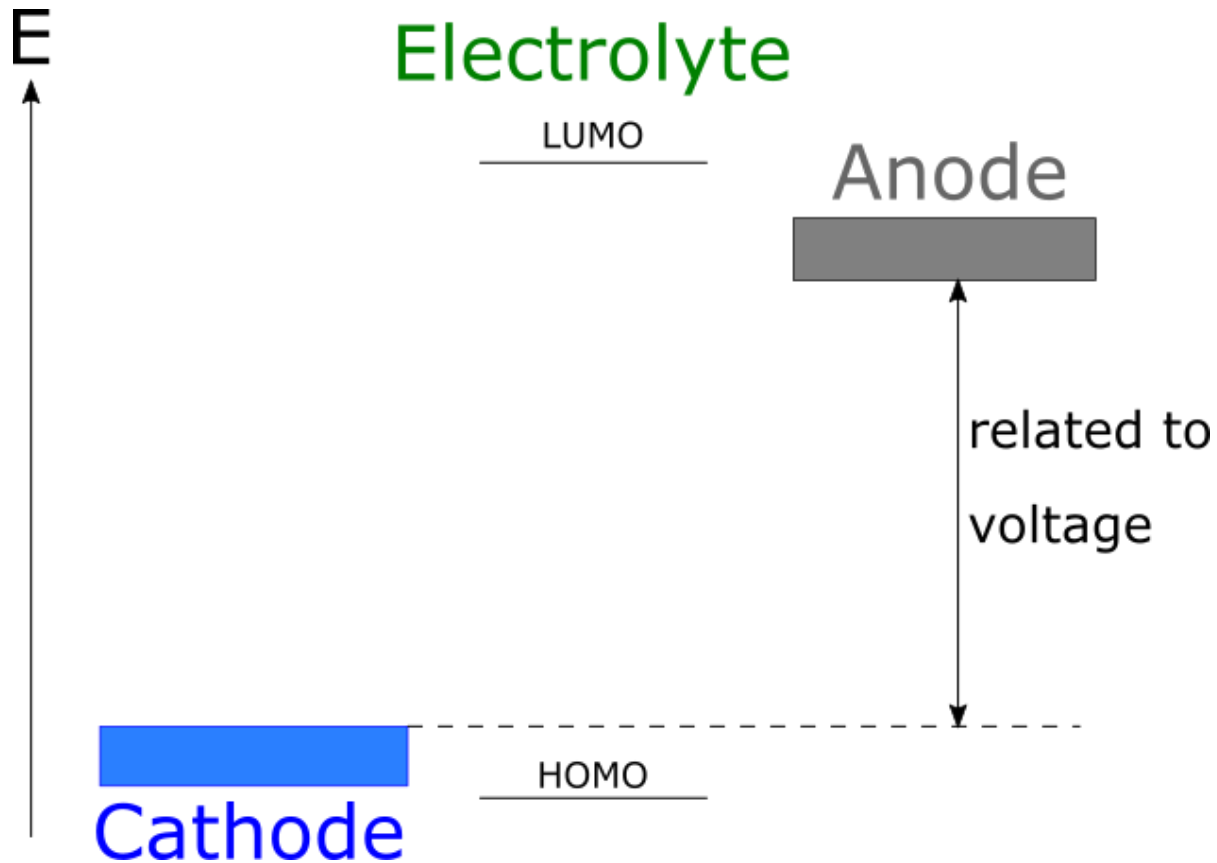
Q is expressed in units of Ah (1 mAh = 3.6 C), so E_{bat} is in Wh (Watt-hours)

- E_{bat} is dependent on the amount of battery material. More useful are:
 - Specific (gravimetric) energy (Wh g^{-1}). Q is charge per unit mass (Ah g^{-1})
 - (Volumetric) energy density (Wh L^{-1}). Q is charge per unit volume (Ah L^{-1})

We want to maximise
volumetric and
gravimetric energy
densities



Increase E_{bat} : Increase *voltage* V



Increase E_{bat} : Increase *charge* Q

Faraday's Law:

$$Q_{\text{theoretical}} = \frac{nF}{3.6M_w} \quad (\text{in mAh g}^{-1})$$

e.g. for $\text{LiCoO}_2 \longrightarrow \text{Li}^+ + \text{e}^- + \text{CoO}_2$:

$$n = 1, F = 96485.3 \text{ As mol}^{-1}$$

$$M_w = 97.873 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$$

$$\therefore Q = 274 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$$



In reality, the charge stored is less than the theoretical maximum

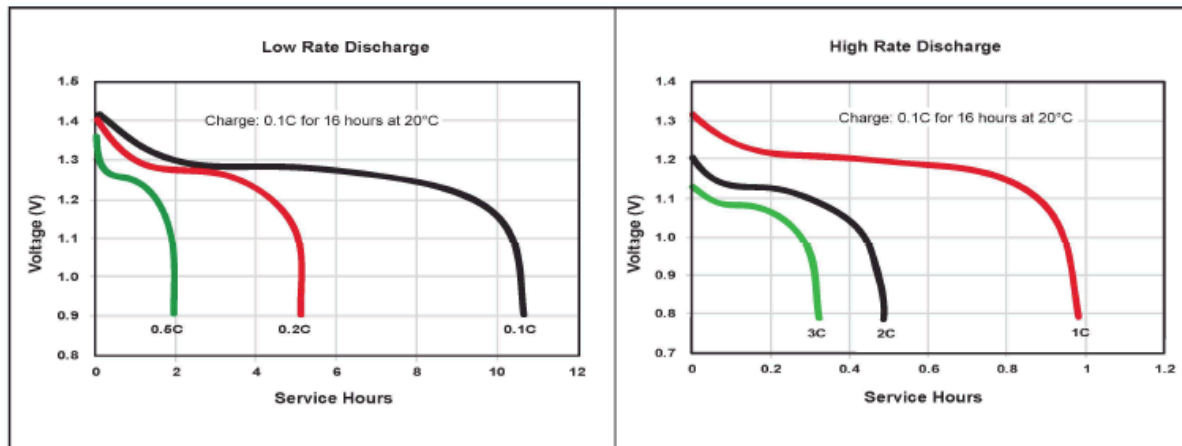
- For LiCoO_2 , CoO_2 is *very* unstable: $2 \text{Co}^{\text{IV}}\text{O}_2 \longrightarrow \text{Co}_2^{\text{III}}\text{O}_3 + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2$
 - We can only safely reach $\text{Li}_{0.5}\text{CoO}_2$, so the useful capacity is 137 mAh g^{-1}

Charging rates

Ideally we want to charge batteries quickly

Define charge rate, $C = \frac{I}{Q}$, the ratio of discharge current to capacity

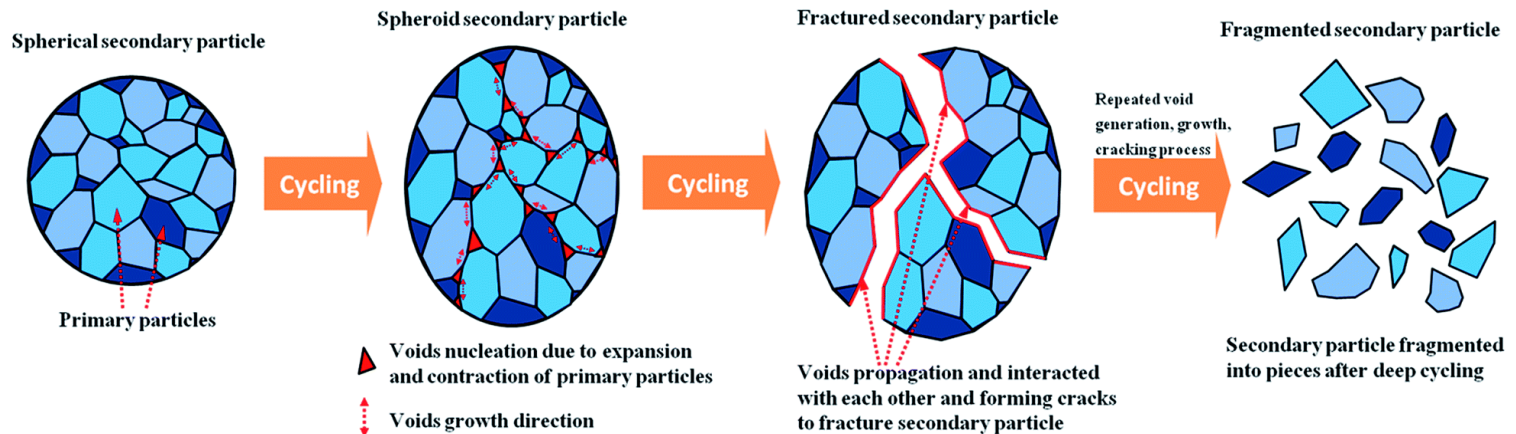
- *i.e.* for a 1000 mAh (1 Ah) battery:
 - $1C \Rightarrow$ current of 1 A, which could be sustained for 1 hour
 - $2C \Rightarrow$ 2 A (for 30 mins)
 - $\frac{C}{6} \Rightarrow$ 0.167 A (for 6 hours)
- This allows us to describe charging rates independent of battery capacity.



Effect of rate on capacity

High charging rates reduce capacity

- Electrons can move much faster than ions, so at high C-rates strain occurs in the lattice
 - Ions get stuck, reducing the overall discharge capacity
 - Irreversible damage to crystal structure and/or microstructure can occur, preventing future charging



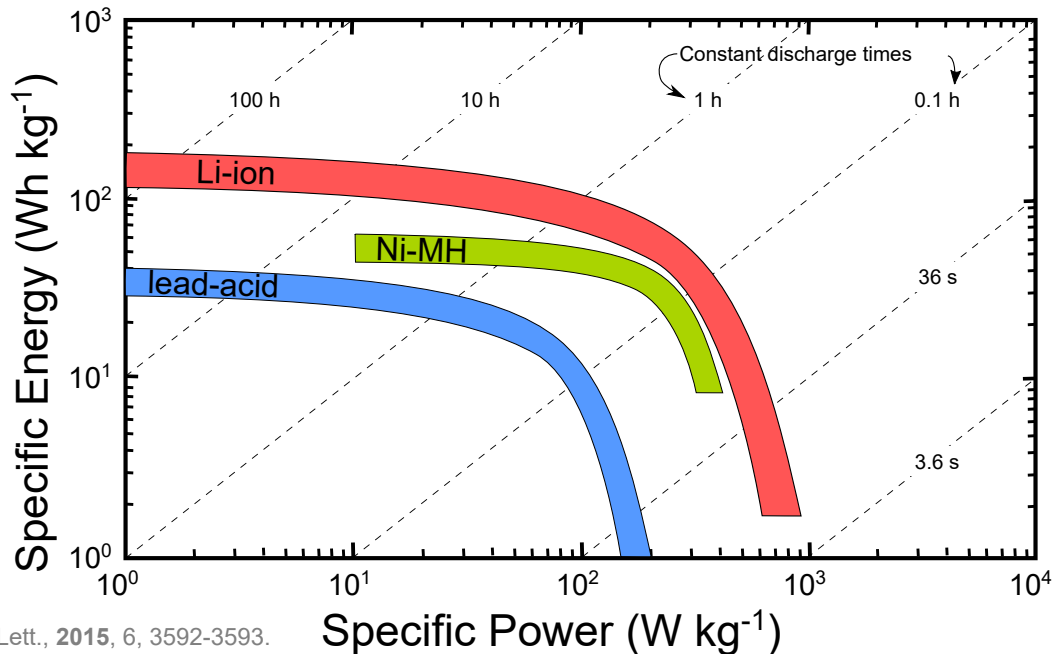
Ragone (*ru-GO-nee*) plot

Displays the relation between *specific energy* (E) and *specific power* (P):

$E = QV (= ItV)$ The total amount of energy available in the battery

$P = IV$ The rate at which energy can be used

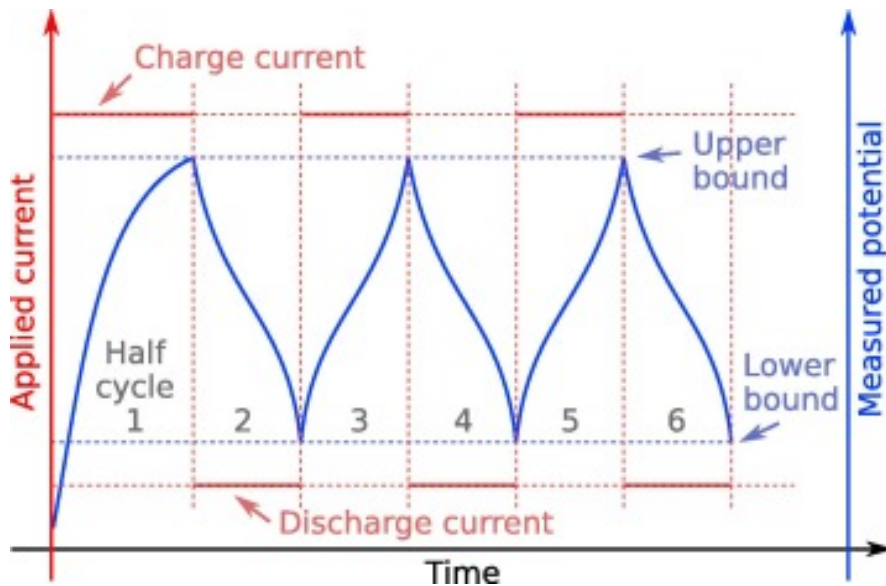
Some applications require fast discharge over short times (e.g. electric sports car accelerating) while others need more sustained energy supply (long-range electric vehicle)



Electrochemical measurements

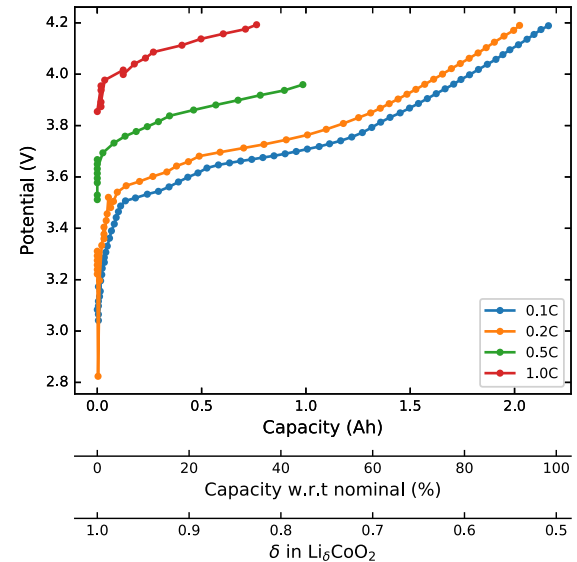
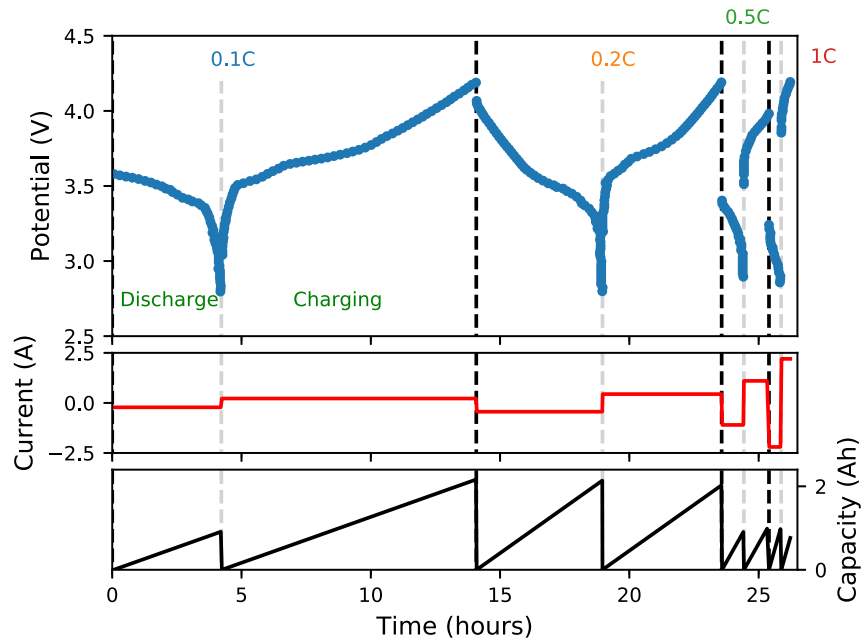
Typically we use *Galvanostatic* (constant current) measurements to characterise battery response, and measure the resulting voltage.

- Charging rates have a big impact on device performance, so *potentiostatic* (i.e. constant voltage) measurements would be difficult to attribute to chemistry vs. rate effects.



Electrochemical measurements

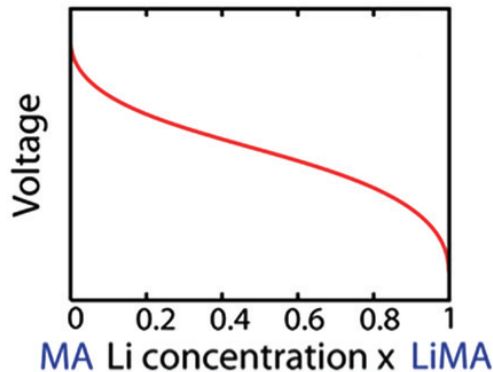
e.g. for a 2.2 Ah battery:



Capacity can be expressed in a number of formats

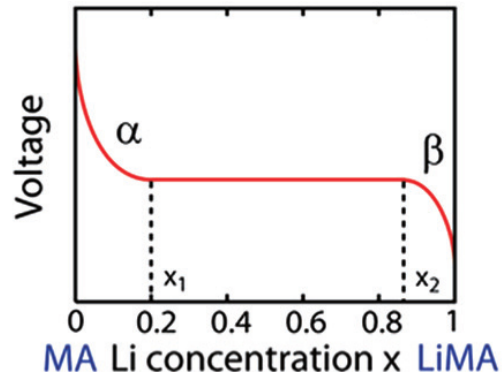
What can we learn from galvanostats?

Solid Solution



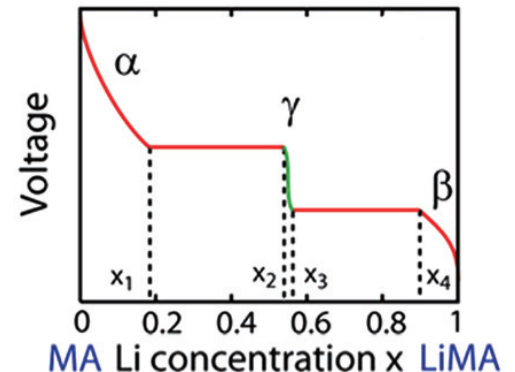
Ions can be continuously added/removed from the material without a structural transition

Two-phase region



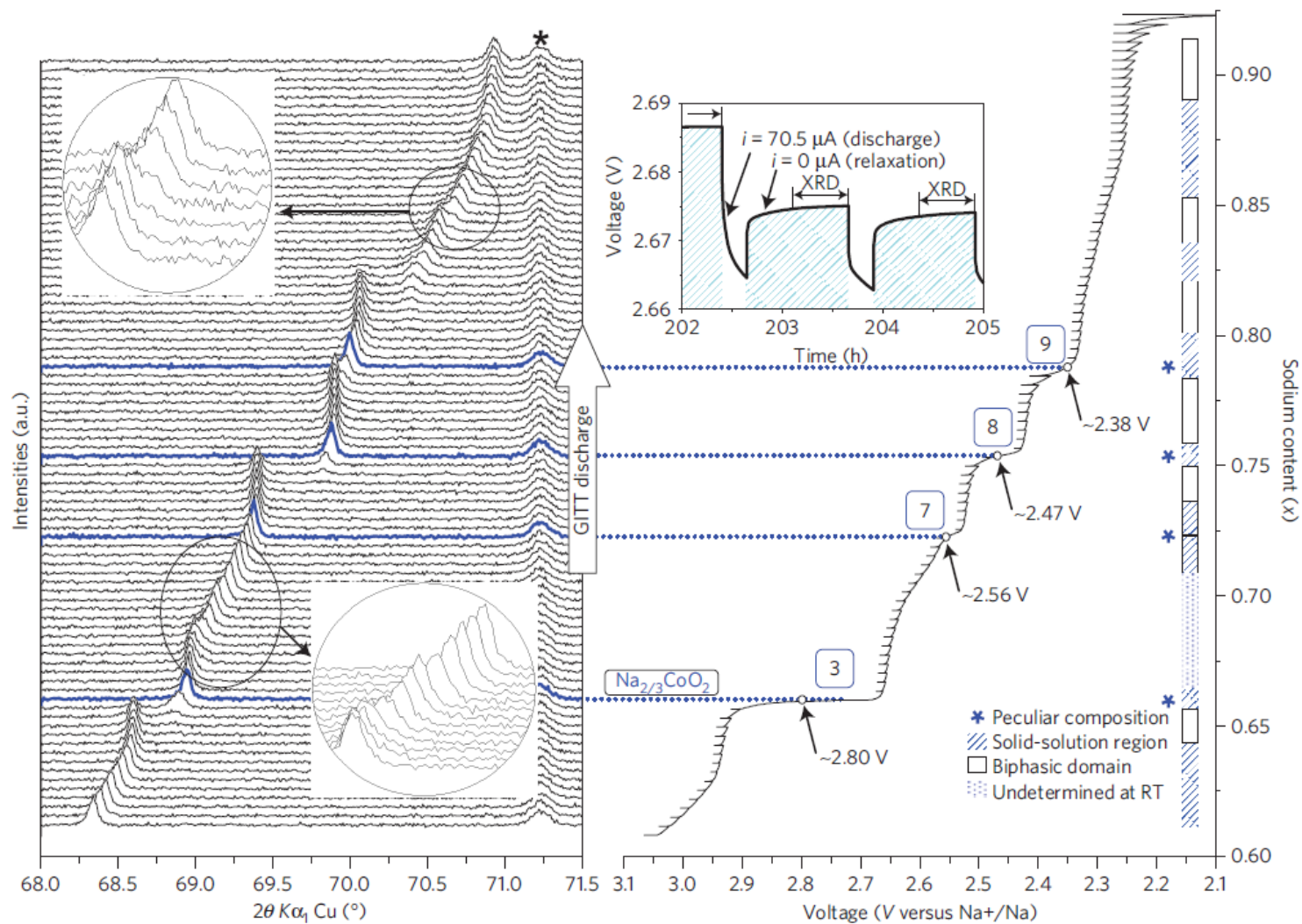
Two distinct compositions exist together, and the relative proportions change with x

Phase change



Abrupt voltage (and structure) change between α and β due to a more-stable γ phase with narrow composition window.

Example: Na_xCoO_2



Key materials properties

Anode

- Good electronic conductor
- Good ionic conductor
- Structural stability on ionic movement

Electrolyte

- Good ionic conductor
- *Negligible* electronic conduction

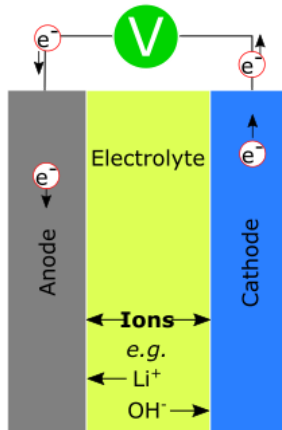
Cathode

- Good electronic conductor
- Good ionic conductor
- Structural stability on ionic movement

Overall

- Compatibility between materials (particularly under volume changes during charge/discharge)

Charge



Discharge

