

(Super) Capacitors



Faster (dis)charging

Batteries are a good charge-storage solution, but are limited in how quickly they can discharge (safely).

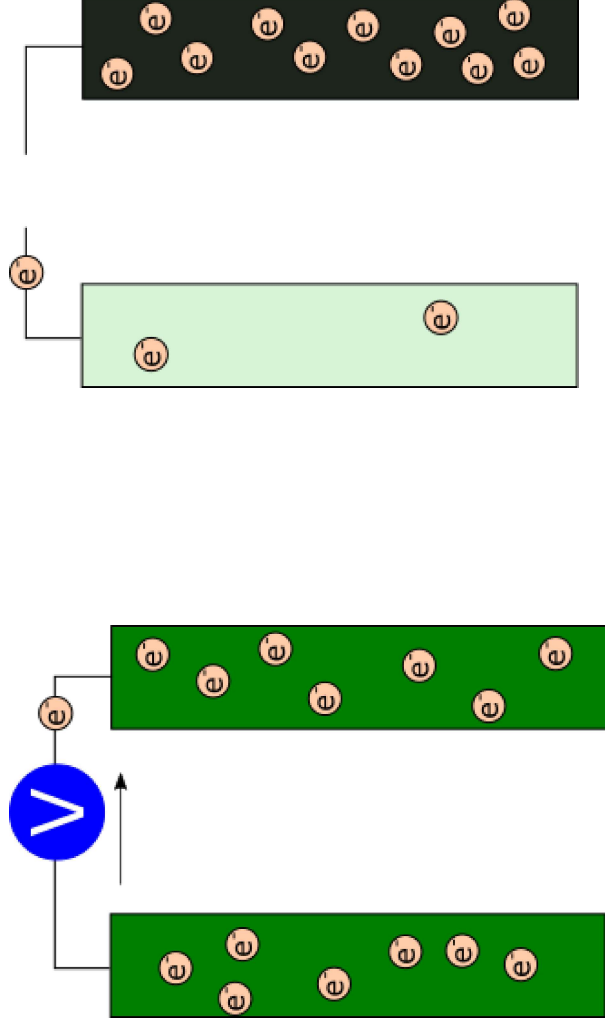
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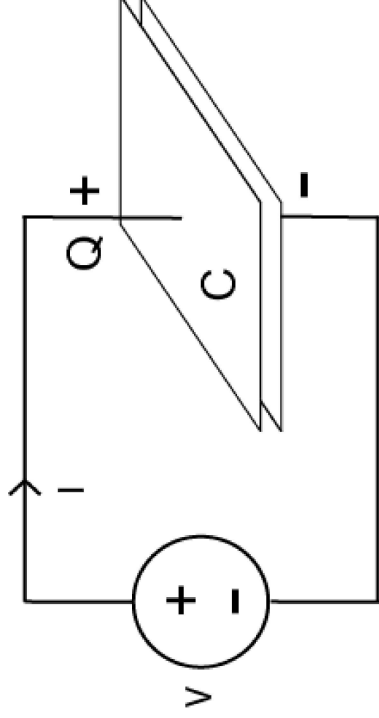
- Ultimately, redox processes can only occur so fast...

Why not separate charges directly?



This is a Capacitor

An arrangement of electrodes of area A , separated by a distance d .



Two electrodes separated by vacuum have a capacitance C :

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$$

where ϵ_0 is the permittivity of free space $= 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2 \text{ J}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$

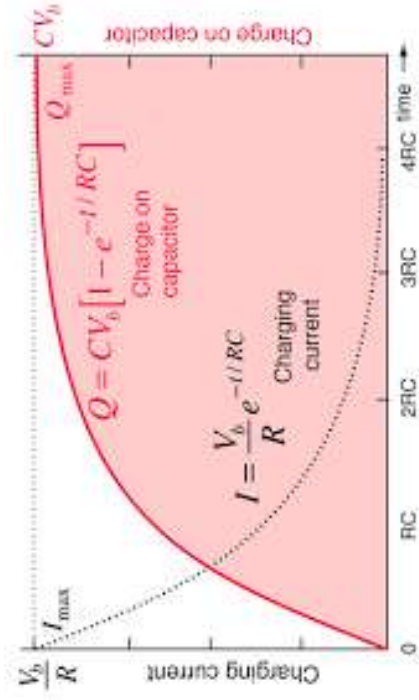
Charge stored

On charging a capacitor with a constant voltage, current decays with time:

$$I_t = I_0 e^{\left(\frac{-t}{RC}\right)}$$

The charge stored increases with time:

$$Q_t = CV \left[1 - e^{\left(\frac{-t}{RC}\right)} \right]$$



The maximum charge stored, $Q = CV$

Increasing the charge stored

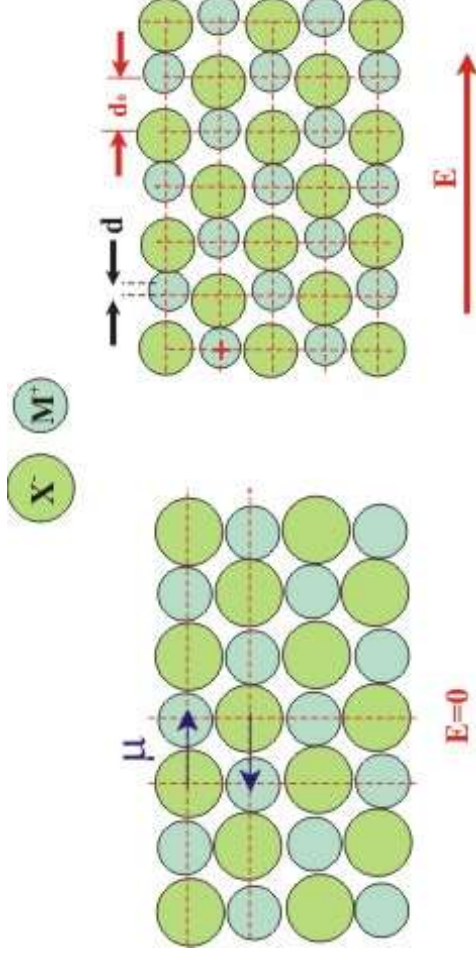
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Alternatively, use a **dielectric**

- An electrically insulating material in which an applied electric field causes a **displacement** (but not a flow) of charge.

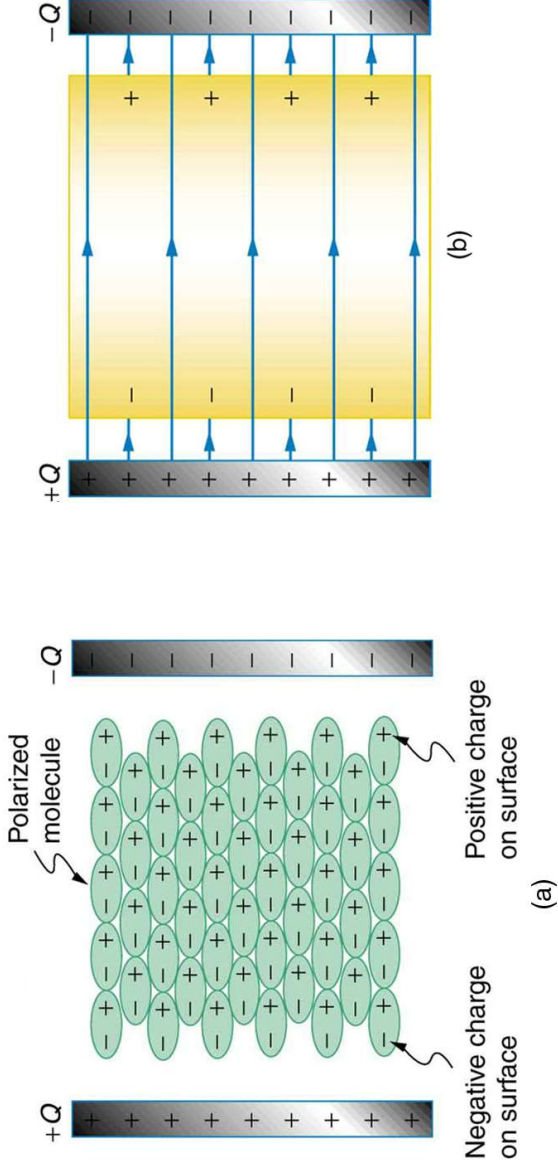


Dielectric capacitor

Adding a dielectric between the plates increases the charge capacity.

$$C_{\text{dielec}} = \frac{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 A}{d}$$

where ϵ_r is the relative permittivity of the dielectric ($\epsilon_r = \epsilon / \epsilon_0$) and $\epsilon_r > \epsilon_0$



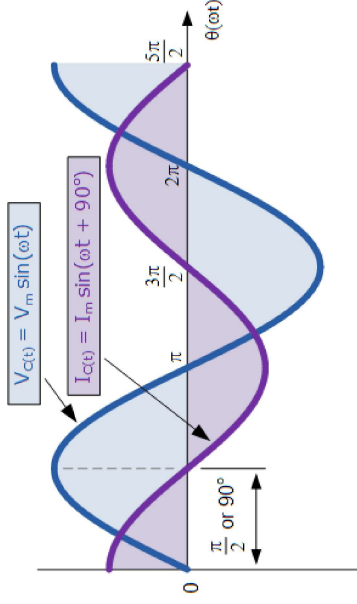
Example permittivities

Material	Relative Permittivity, ϵ_r
Vacuum	1
Paper	2.0 - 6.0
Polymers	2.0 - 6.0
Silicon oil	2.7 - 2.8
Quartz	3.8 - 4.4
Glass	4 - 15
Al_2O_3	10
Ta_2O_5	26
TiO_2	100
CaTiO_3	130
SrTiO_3	285
BaTiO_3	1000 - 10000

Characterising dielectrics

Apply an alternating (sinusoidal) field, and measure the resulting current *and phase shift* - **Impedance spectroscopy**

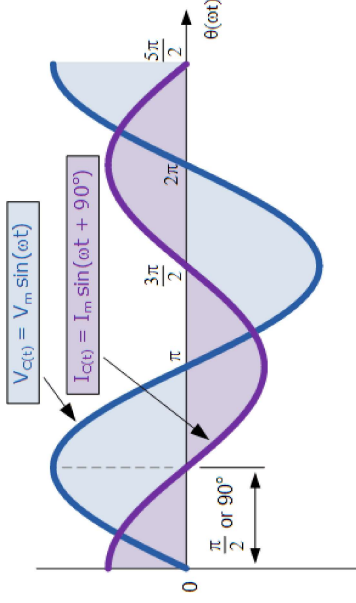
- Applied field, $E_t = E_0 \sin(\omega t)$, where $\omega = 2\pi f$
- Response current, $I_t = I_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi)$



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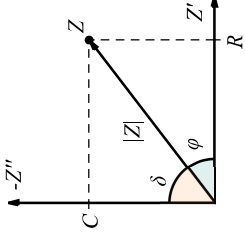
The total impedance ($Z(\omega) = \frac{E_t}{I_t}$) can be represented as a complex number:

- $Z(\omega) = Z_0(\cos \phi + i \sin \phi)$
- In an ideal dielectric, current and voltage should be 90° out-of-phase ($\phi = 90^\circ$).
- For a resistive material, current and voltage should be in phase ($\phi = 0^\circ$).

Impedance analysis

Two standard ways to display data:

- **Nyquist plot:** $-Z''$ (90° out-of-phase) against Z' (in phase).
- **Bode plot:** $|Z|$ and φ plotted against frequency

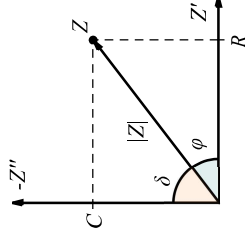
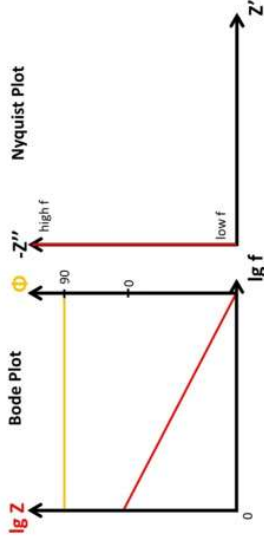
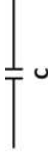
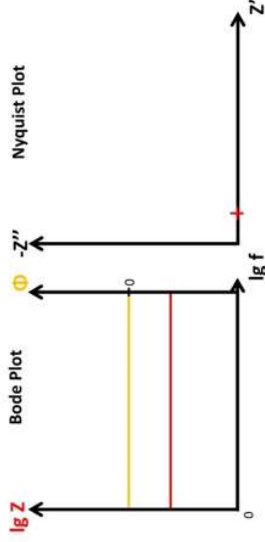
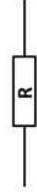


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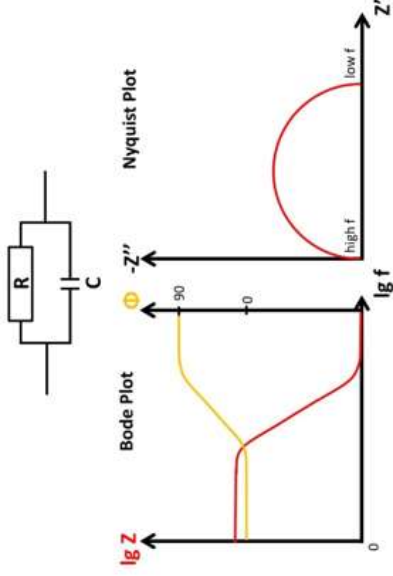
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Ideal Response



'Real' Impedance

Many real materials exhibit behaviour like a parallel RC circuit:



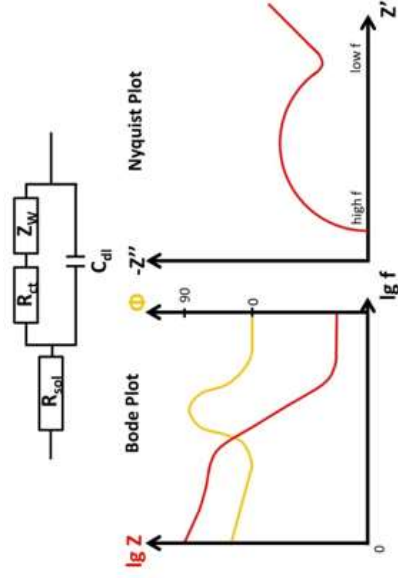
e.g.

- Ions flowing through a solution and building up a layer on the electrode (see later)
- Ionic conduction in a ceramic material building up a charge gradient

More complex behaviour is often observed, and can be modelled using *equivalent circuits*

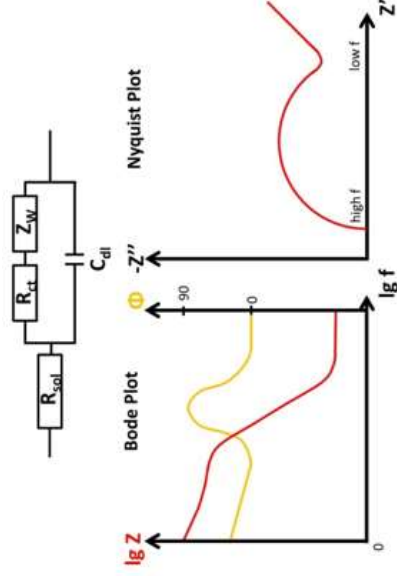
Real dielectric response

Changing the electric field direction causes the dipoles to rearrange with a characteristic timescale. This timescale means *real* dielectrics show a peak in φ with frequency, corresponding to the maximum energy loss.



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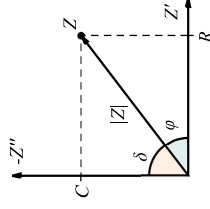
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This *dielectric loss* is often characterised as $\tan \delta = \frac{Z'}{-Z''}$,

where $\delta = 90^\circ - \phi$

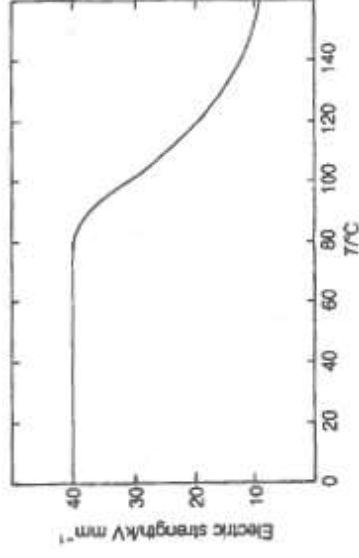
- $\tan \delta$ must be minimised for applications



Dielectric breakdown

Dielectrics also break down under high electric fields

- Electrons start to conduct, causing localised heating and breakdown
- This is quantified as the **Dielectric Strength** (in e.g. V m^{-1})



How good is a capacitor for energy storage?

Take e.g. a BaTiO₃-based capacitor:

- $\epsilon_r \approx 1000$
- Dielectric strength $\approx 10 \text{ MV m}^{-1}$
- Thickness $\approx 1 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$

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Maximum voltage $= 10 \times 10^6 / 1 \times 10^{-6} = 10 \text{ V}$, therefore:

$$Q = CV = 0.4427 \text{ Coulombs} = 0.1229 \text{ mAh}$$

This is a volumetric capacity of 24.6 mAh L^{-1} , Energy capacity $= 0.245 \text{ Wh L}^{-1}$

This is a higher than realistic estimate due to ignoring electrodes, packaging etc. but is still less than a battery!

Why are they useful then?

Although energy capacity is worse than for batteries (often by a lot), capacitors can discharge the charge very rapidly

- A discharge current of 100 Amps can be easily achieved.

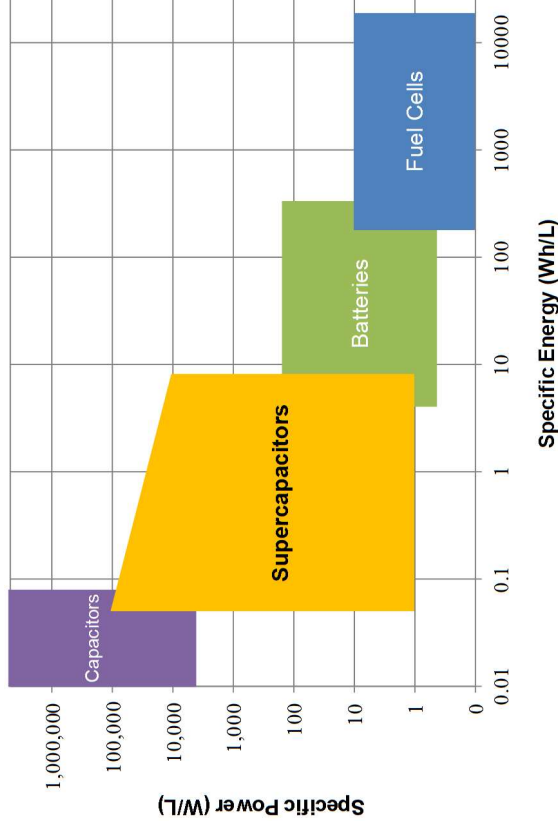
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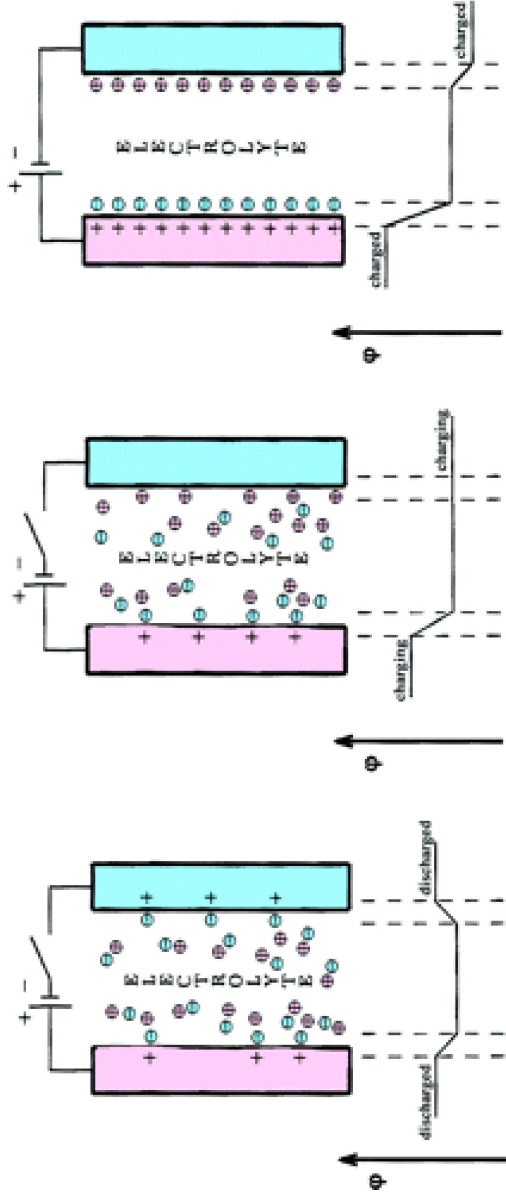
Supercapacitors

- Higher capacitance (but lower voltage limits) than other capacitors
- Sometimes known as ultracapacitors or electrostatic double layer capacitors (EDLCs)

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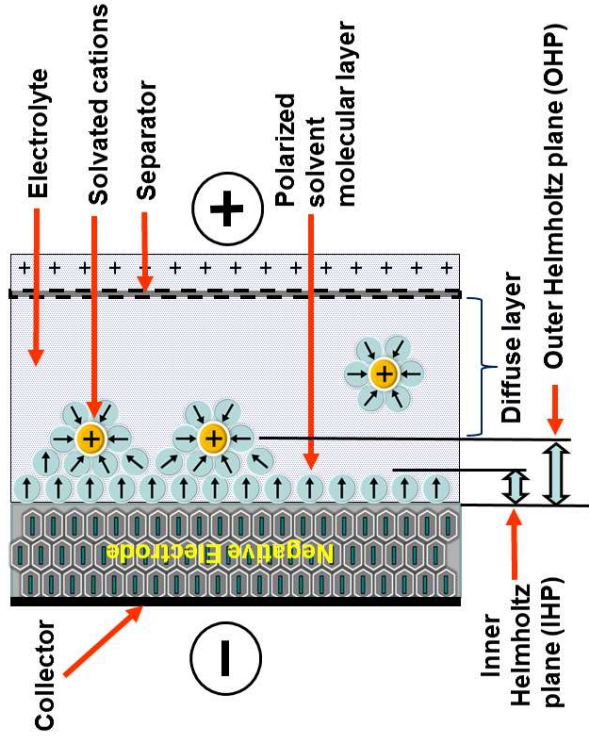
- Higher capacitance (but lower voltage limits) than other capacitors
- Sometimes known as ultracapacitors or electrostatic double layer capacitors (EDLCs)

Rather than a ceramic dielectric, supercapacitors rely on an ionic electrolyte solution, and an ion-permeable membrane to prevent electronic conduction.



Supercapacitor operation

Charge is stored in a Helmholtz double layer at each electrode:



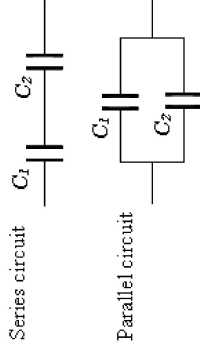
This separation of +ve and -ve charges occurs over a few angstroms

- This is effectively a capacitor with very small d

Capacitance

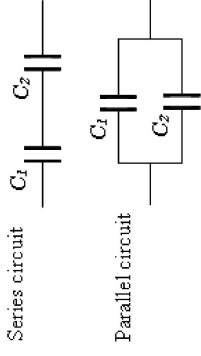
Because there are two double-layers, a supercapacitor behaves as two capacitors connected in series:

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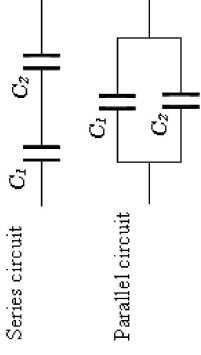
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For a symmetric supercapacitor (commonly called ultracapacitor, where anode and cathode are the same material):

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The total energy stored is:

$$E = \frac{QV^2}{2}$$

Charging voltages are typically 1-3 V (depending on electrolyte).

Electrolytes

Aqueous

- Acids (e.g. H_2SO_4)
- Alkalies (KOH)
- NaClO_4 or LiClO_4
- LiAsF_6

Organic

e.g. acetonitrile, propylene carbonate, tetrahydrofuran with:

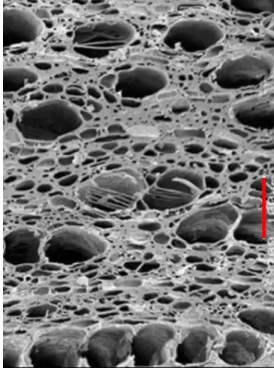
- Tetraethylammonium tetrafluoroborate, $\text{N}(\text{Et})_4\text{BF}_4$
- Triethyl(methyl) tetrafluoroborate, $\text{NMe}(\text{Et})_3\text{BF}_4$

Electrode materials

$C \propto \text{amount of double-layer} \propto A \rightarrow \text{electrodes are designed to have maximum area}$

Porous (activated) carbon

- Surface area exceeding $3000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$
- Trade-off between surface area and pore size
 - Smaller pores limit maximum current (power density) but increase energy capacity

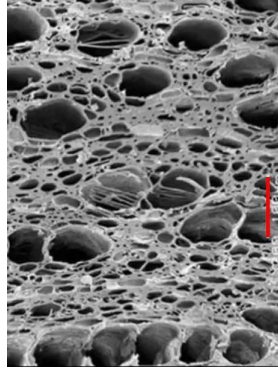


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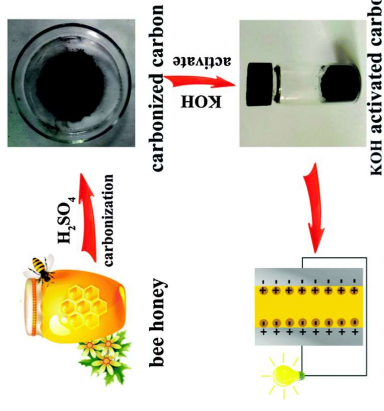
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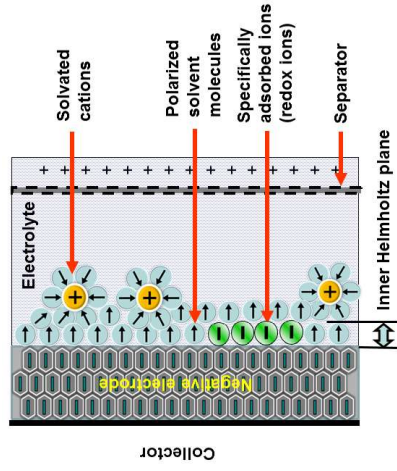
- Activated carbon is relatively expensive and potentially unsustainable

- High temperatures and aggressive chemical activation required
- *Biochar* (a by-product of biofuel production) is one alternative



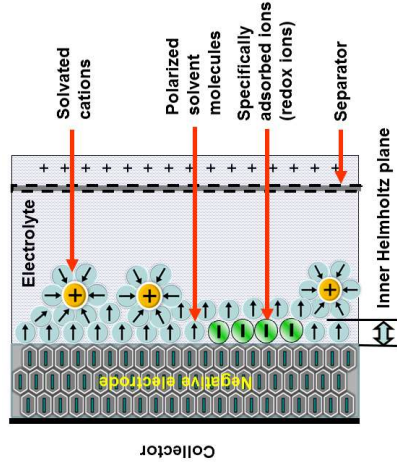
Pseudocapacitance

One way to increase energy storage in supercapacitors is to add redox-active species.



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- Must be fast, reversible redox processes (so that power density remains high)
- Pseudocapacitance can contribute 100 times the double-layer capacitance
- Redox ions must have affinity for the electrode(s)
 - MnO_2 is commonly used as an electrode

NOTE: In order to be considered pseudocapacitance, charge stored must depend linearly on the applied voltage (otherwise it is behaving like a battery)

Hybrid technologies

One of the main drawbacks of supercapacitors is that their voltage drops with time

- Not ideal for powering devices

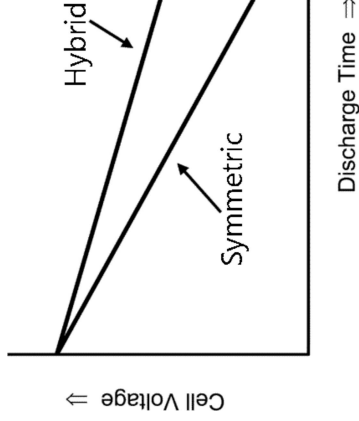
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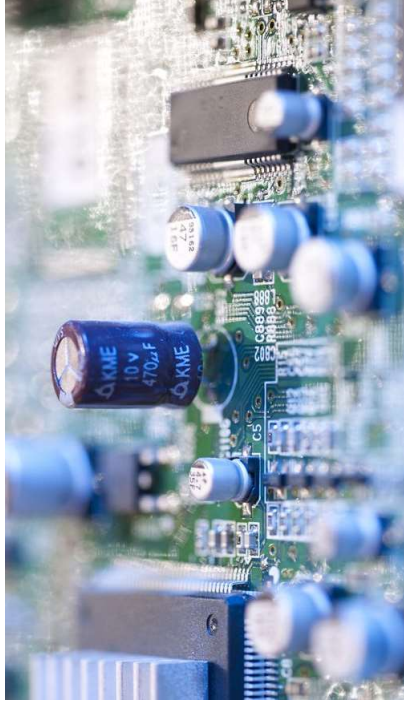
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Hybrid capacitors combine a battery-electrode with a supercapacitor electrode

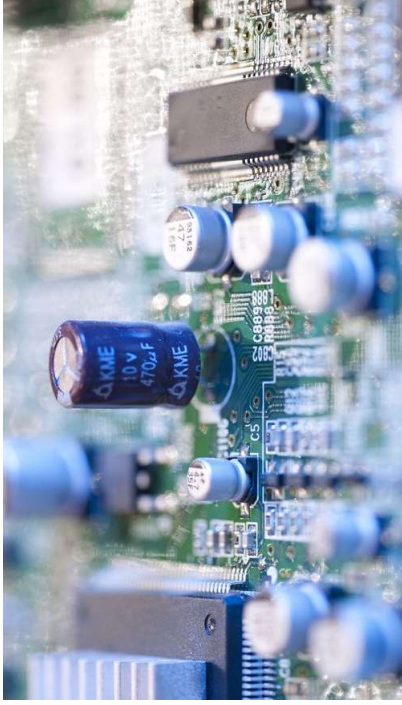
- e.g. replace carbon cathode with NiOOH
- $C_{\text{battery}} \approx 10 \times C_{\text{supercap}}$
 - $\frac{1}{C} = \frac{1}{C_A} + \frac{1}{10C_A} \approx \frac{1}{C_A}$
- In some cases (e.g. thin-film Li electrodes) fast redox kinetics still allow high power applications



(Super) Capacitor applications

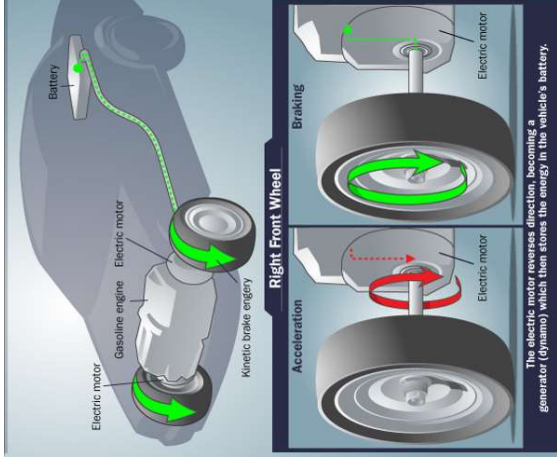


(Super) Capacitor applications

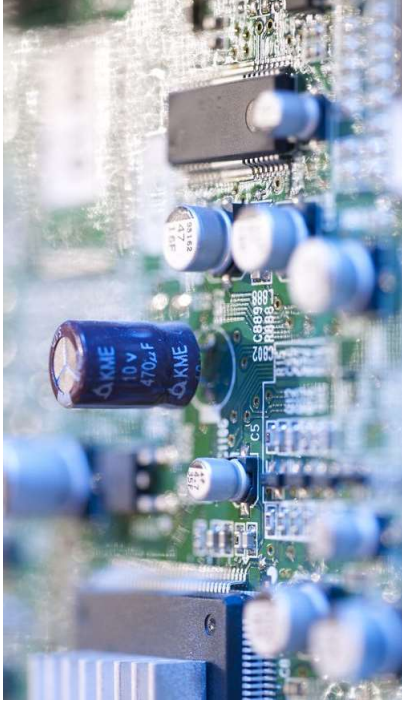


Regenerative braking

- Recovers kinetic energy lost when braking
- Large currents generated; supercapacitors required to store charge

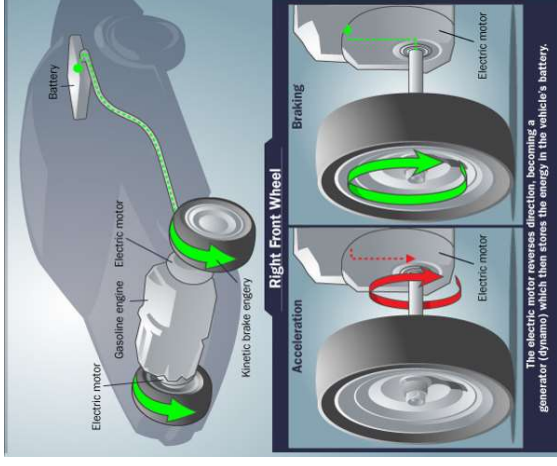


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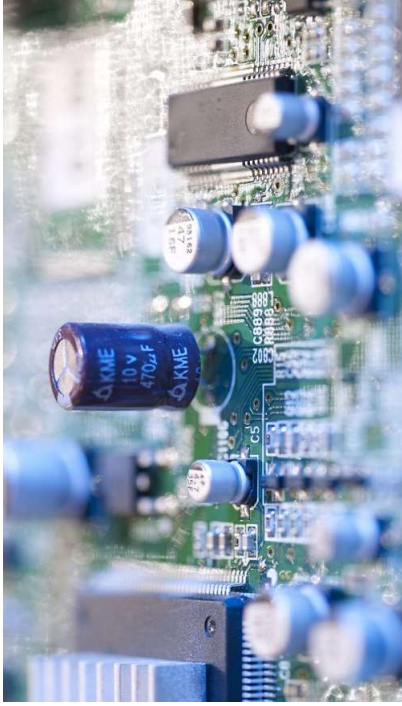


Medical devices *i.e.* pacemakers

- Takes advantage of their low-maintenance / long life

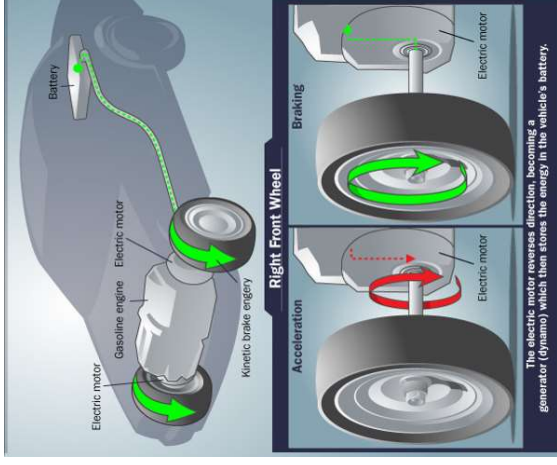


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