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# Boosted energy-storage efficiency by controlling conduction loss of multilayered polymeric capacitors

Francesco PEDROLI<sup>a,b</sup>, Annalisa FLOCCINI<sup>a</sup>, Alessio MARRANI<sup>c</sup>, Minh-Quyen LE<sup>a</sup>, Olivier SANSEAU<sup>b</sup>,  
Pierre-Jean COTTINET<sup>a</sup>, Jean-Fabien CAPSAL<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Univ Lyon, INSA-Lyon, LGEF, EA682, F-69621, Villeurbanne, France; <sup>b</sup>P2D, CNRS/Rhodia-Solvay, UMR 5268, 85 avenue des Frères Perret, F-69192 Saint Fons, France; <sup>c</sup>Solvay Specialty Polymers, viale Lombardia 20, 20021 Bollate, Italy

<sup>†</sup>corresponding author: jean-fabien.capsal@insa-lyon.fr

## Abstract

Among the organic dielectrics, polyvinylidene fluoride PVDF-based polymers present the highest level of polarizability with permittivity greater than 35. Nonetheless, their applications in advanced electronics and industrial uses are limited by significant leakage current under high voltage, which is considered the principal cause of device energy consumption and short lifetime. Therefore, the main objective of this paper was to focus on alternative capacitor structure-based polyvinylidene fluoride-trifluoroethylene-chlorotrifluoroethylene (PVDF-TrFE-CTFE) terpolymers to efficiently limit the leakage current and lead to enhanced electrical breakdown with negligible degradation of polarization level. The novel bilayer capacitor was constructed by depositing a thin barrier layer of high polar PVDF-HFP copolymer on the terpolymer via a rapid solution-casting technique. The relationship between leakage current, dielectric strength and conduction mechanisms was investigated. Implementation of such a barrier layer led to a significant reduction (70%) in leakage current and ferroelectric losses (approximately 90%), thus boosting the performance of multilayered material up to 50% of enhanced energy-storage efficiency. **Experimental results are very promising, allowing to confirm that combining both terpolymer and copolymer in a hybrid multilayer design makes a possibility to achieve the best compromise in terms of energy efficiency, dielectric properties, and breakdown strength.**

## Keywords

Multi-layered film capacitor, electrical breakdown, energy-storage, leakage current, conduction loss

## 1. Introduction

Electrostatic capacitors are key components in advanced electronic devices and pulse-power systems due to their large energy density levels (in the order of tens of Joule per cube centimeter) [1,2] and readiness to deliver stored energy (today, pulse-widths of hundreds of microseconds are achieved even at megavolt levels) [3]. On the other hand, in the race to achieve electronic device miniaturization, many challenges have to be overcome to achieve capacitor size reduction, which still needs to occupy more than 50% of the whole volume device in order to guarantee the required power supply to the application. In this sense, dielectric polymers possess successful features, such as easy processability, light weight, flexibility, self-healing, low dissipation factor, and large electrical breakdown [4–11]. Nevertheless, this class of materials still suffers from relatively low dielectric constants ( $\approx 3$  for the commercialized polymeric capacitors, such as biaxially oriented polypropylene [BOPP] or polycarbonate [PC] capacitors) [12] and consequently have limited dielectric polarization with respect to conventional ceramic dielectrics. Among the dielectric polymers, the polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF)-based polymers exhibit excellent polarizability due to spontaneous polarization of the highly polar molecular C–F bonds [13,14]. An exceptional capacitor is one consisting of the relaxor-ferroelectric polyvinylidene fluoride-trifluoroethylene-chlorotrifluoroethylene/chlorofluoroethylene (PVDF-TrFE-CTFE/CFE) terpolymer. This type of polymer presents the

43 possibility to exploit additional polarization mechanisms [15,16] (such as molecular dipole polarization) and shows dielectric  
44 permittivity even larger than 30 at relatively high frequency of 1kHz [17,18]. However, the main drawback of the PVDF-based  
45 polymers stems from high conduction losses principally caused by significant leakage currents. This drawback seriously limits  
46 their wide industrial use in next-generation power systems.

47 With the aim of efficiently enhancing the performance of ferroelectric and relaxor-ferroelectric polymers, the most common  
48 approach (based on the scientific community's point of view) consists of increasing the dielectric constant so as to achieve  
49 satisfactory polarization level at a lower applied electric field. In most cases, this technique involves the realization of polymer  
50 nano/micro-composites by doping of high- $k$  or conductive inorganic fillers [19–22] with very large values of dielectric  
51 permittivity ( $> 10^3$ ) [23–27]. However, in general, the great potential of these systems is not accessible because the introduction  
52 of fillers gives rise to higher leakage current, leading to a dramatic decline in polymer dielectric strength [28], charge-discharge  
53 efficiency and capacitor life-time [29–31] Leakage currents are of fundamental relevance for achieving high-performing and  
54 long-life polymer devices since ohmic losses are the main cause of power dissipation [32] and self-heating [33], thus leading  
55 to early material degradation [34–37] The other relevant consideration for energy storage devices is the charge–discharge  
56 efficiency. Low charge-discharge efficiency is the result of large energy losses that will contribute to heat generation (Joule  
57 effect) [38,39].

58 An alternative approach for decreasing the leakage current consists of blending the highly polar PVDF co- and terpolymers  
59 with more insulating polymers, such as polyamides [40], polyurethanes [41], polyethylene [42], polythiourea [43],  
60 polypropylenes [44,45], polystyrene [46], and polyacrylates [47]. Among the reported materials, blends of poly-methyl  
61 methacrylate (PMMA) have proved to be the most effective due to the high affinity with fluorinated polymers [48,49].  
62 Nevertheless, to achieve significant improvements in charge–discharge efficiency, large concentrations of PMMA are required  
63 ( $> 30\%_w$ ) [50–52], leading to a fall in material polarizability as well as energy-storage density. In order to overcome this  
64 drawback, another advanced technique has been recently investigated by Baer and Zhu through the realization of multilayered  
65 structures based on alternating films of PVDF-hexafluoropropylene (HFP) and PC [53,54] or PVDF and polysulfone (PSF)  
66 [55,56]. Based on the same approach, in the later years multilayered polymeric capacitor structures have been widely  
67 investigated and noteworthy advances in terms of increased energy-storage efficiency are reported [39,56–65]. Contrary to  
68 blends and composites, multilayered structures possess additional advantages due to their barrier interfaces perpendicular to  
69 the direction of applied electric field and therefore, to the traveling direction of electric charges forming the conduction loss  
70 [66]. In addition to charge barrier effects, the presence of perpendicular interfaces formed by materials having different  
71 electrical conductivity yields space-charged regions [55,67], which hinder electron conduction and homo-charge injection  
72 from the electrodes [32,68–70].

73 In this work, we propose an effective solution for successfully enhancing the energy-storage properties of the highly polarizable  
74 relaxor-ferroelectric PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer with an exceptional dielectric permittivity of  $\epsilon_r = 60$ . This method  
75 involves a bilayer architecture consisting of a PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer and PVDF-HFP copolymer elaborated via  
76 solution-casting, which is a simple technique for polymer multilayer stacking. In contrast to the former multilayered structures  
77 reported by Baer and Zhu [53–56] whose barrier material is made of an insulating polymer with very limited dielectric constant  
78 (such as  $\epsilon_r \approx 2$ ), in this study, the selected barrier layer PVDF-HFP copolymer possessed a much larger dielectric constant ( $\epsilon_r$   
79  $\approx 12$ ). Moreover, its thickness was chosen to be very small (in the order of tens of microns) with respect to the whole sample  
80 thickness so as not to degrade the high polarization properties of the PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer layer. Finally, the proposed  
81 design allows for effective exploitation of the benefit of both terpolymer and copolymer materials. This design permitted  
82 creation of a simple way to decrease the leakage current through the dielectric polymer during high voltage application  
83 combined with enhancement of dielectric strength in addition to energy-storage efficiency of the whole polymer capacitor.

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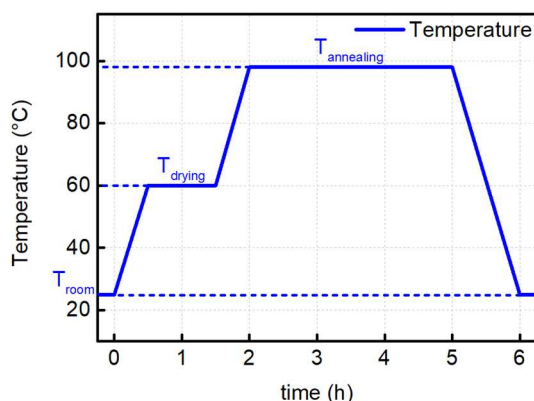
## 85 2. Materials and process

### 86 2.1. Single-layer film fabrication

87 The two kinds of polymers used in this work are the highly polar PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer and the insulating PVDF-  
88 HFP copolymer (called HFP, for the sake of simplicity) that have been provided by Solvay Specialty Polymers Italy S.p.a as  
89 a powder [71]. Selection of the terpolymer grade, including monomeric composition and molecular weight in addition to the  
90 manufacturing optimization in terms of solvent choice, material purification, and crystallization steps were described in our  
91 previous studies [18,32]. Barium titanate (purchased from US Research Nanomaterials Inc, Houston, TX), which is an  
92 inorganic compound with chemical formula BaTiO<sub>3</sub> (or BTO) was selected as the nanoparticle material with an average size  
93 of 500 nm due to its commercially available use, effective cost, and high piezoelectric properties. For material  
94 characterizations, polymeric films are prepared by casting dissolutions of terpolymer, copolymer, and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-composites of  
95 copolymer. Pure polymeric dissolutions are prepared dissolving 25%<sub>wt</sub> and 10%<sub>wt</sub> of terpolymer and copolymer powder,  
96 respectively, in 2-butanone (also known as methyl ethyl ketone or MEK).

97 To obtain homogenous composite consisting of the PVDF-HFP copolymer filled with 10%<sub>vol</sub> or 20%<sub>vol</sub> BaTiO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles,  
98 the whole solutions were mechanically agitated for approximately 12 h. Afterwards, dispersion of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles was  
99 achieved via a specific protocol based on ultrasound stirring as described in the next paragraph. It is noteworthy that PVDF-  
100 HFP/MEK solutions form polymer/solvent network-like structures (or gels) that exhibit extremely high viscosity; thus, they  
101 impede homogeneous dispersion of the nanoparticles. As a result, polymer concentration, operating temperatures, and filler  
102 content [72] play an important role in the formation of PVDF-HFP/MEK gels. Consequently, an optimized ultrasound  
103 treatment, including temperature control and duration, was developed in order to achieve the best compromise between lack  
104 of gel formation and solvent evaporation.

105 A flacon of composite solution was entirely immersed in a water bath at ambient temperature and agitated by two sonication  
106 periods (400W, Hielscher UP400St) lasting 2 min separated by a 1-min break. Finally, the as-prepared dissolutions were cast  
107 by mean of a calibrated doctor-blade on tempered glass plate. The PVDF-HFP composite films elaborated with 10%<sub>vol</sub> or  
108 20%<sub>vol</sub> of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> (renamed HFP10BTO and HFP20BTO, respectively) in addition to films of pure PVDF-HFP copolymer  
109 have 10 mm x 250 mm rectangular shape with a thickness of 15 μm, which was perfectly controlled using a well-calibrated  
110 casting knife. Drying and annealing step were subsequently performed in a convection oven (Mermmet ULP400) under the  
111 temperature profile shown in Figure 1. The optimal annealing temperature was chosen as the start of the PVDF-TrFE-CTFE  
112 terpolymer melting peak [73] determined during the second melting differential scan calorimetry (DSC) ramp.



113

114

Figure 1. Drying and annealing profile temperature for polymer film manufacturing

115

## 2.2. Multilayered film fabrication

The design of a multilayered capacitor (Figure 2) consisted of a 65  $\mu\text{m}$ -thick layer of a highly polar PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer layer stacked with an insulating layer acting as a barrier to conduction charges. The choice of the barrier materials consisted of the pure PVDF-HFP copolymer and its composites consisting of  $\text{BaTiO}_3$  nanoparticles. The fabrication of the bilayer capacitor involved two steps: (1) film casting of terpolymer dissolution on the glass plate and its subsequent thermal treatments and (2) implementation of the barrier layer performed directly on top of the post-annealed terpolymer. After drying at ambient temperature, the multilayered sample was annealed for 1 h under controlled temperature of  $98^\circ\text{C}$ , which corresponds to the optimal terpolymer crystallization temperature. Finally, the bilayer structure was sandwiched between two 25nm-thick gold sputtering electrodes via a Cressington Sputter Coater (208 HR) in order to facilitate electrical contact.

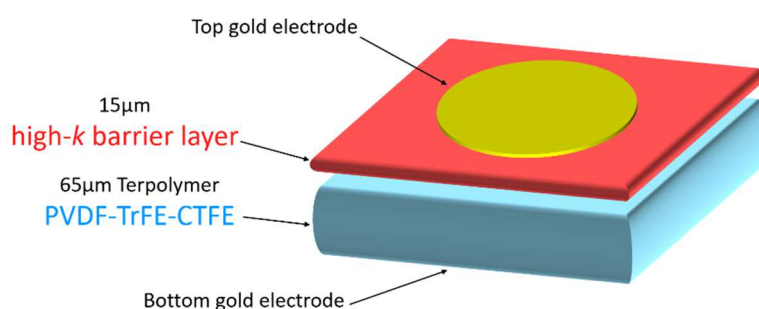


Figure 2. Multilayered capacitor structure.

## 3. Characterization methods

### 3.1. Thermal analysis

DSC measurements were performed on terpolymer and copolymer powders in order to determine the thermal characteristics, such as temperatures of onset and position of melting peak, of the two polymers. Thermographs were recorded during the second melting DSC ramp with a heating speed of 10 K/min.

### 3.2. Morphological characterization

The quality of the  $\text{BaTiO}_3$  nanoparticle dispersion in the PVDF-HFP copolymer matrix in addition to the interface between the two-cast-layer PVDF-TrFE-CTFE/PVDF-HFP was checked via scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Samples were prepared via cryo-fracturing in liquid nitrogen in order to properly make the cross-section accessible. The morphologies of cross-section, later gold sputtered particles were imaged using the SEM FEG Ultra 55 by Zeiss with an accelerating voltage of 10 kV.

### 3.3. Electrical characterization

To perform electrical measurements, circular gold electrodes with 8mm-diameter and 25nm-thick were deposited on both sides of polymeric films in order to obtain capacitor-like architectures. Dielectric permittivity and dielectric losses were measured via broadband dielectric spectroscopy (BDS) by means of a Solartron 1260 impedance analyzer. Ambient temperature dielectric spectra were acquired under an AC  $1V_{\text{peak-peak}}$  electrical voltage at frequency range of  $10^{-1}$ – $10^6$  Hz.

Dielectric strength of the fabricated materials was determined by application of an increasing DC ramp voltage at rate of 500 V/sec. Each polymeric film was subject to several electrical failure events in order to draw its breakdown probability distribution, which was determined according to the Weibull model:

$$P(E) = 1 - \exp\left[-\left(\frac{E}{\lambda}\right)^k\right] \quad (1)$$

148 in which  $P(E)$  is the sample breakdown probability for a given electric field  $E$ ,  $\lambda$  is the scaling parameter corresponding to  
 149 breakdown strength at which 63.2% of the breakdowns occur, and  $k$  is the shape factor representing the spread of breakdown  
 150 distribution. For each sample, the experimental breakdown probability distribution was fitted with the above Weibull equation  
 151 by varying these two parameters  $\lambda$  and  $k$  so as to achieve the best consistence between measured data and theoretical estimation.  
 152 According to the model, the “breakdown strength constant” of the sample is assumed to be equal to  $\lambda$ , that corresponded to a  
 153 breakdown probability of 63% [74]. Eventually, experimental and model results illustrated on linear-scale graphs allowed to  
 154 highlight the cumulative features of the failure probability distribution as described by the Weibull approach. Indeed, the  
 155 exponential behavior exhibited quasi-linear trend under low applied electric fields that did not excess to the “breakdown  
 156 strength constant” (i.e. equal to  $\lambda$ ). Above this value, the failure probability quickly attained to a saturate regime, which  
 157 corresponded to a plateau of 100% breakdown probability, especially under very high voltages.

158 The electrical resistivity of a polymeric capacitor can be deduced from a measurement of the experimental current under a  
 159 unipolar DC electric field. This method allowed us to assume that the leakage current was principally caused by electron  
 160 conduction. After a transient state in which all of the interfacial phenomena, including conduction of saturated ionic species  
 161 [32], the intensity current then leveled off at a constant value, which represented the electron flow traversing the capacitor  
 162 [75]. Hence, the DC electronic volume resistivity ( $\rho_{DC}$ ) could be estimated according to the Ohm’s law:

$$\rho_{DC} = \frac{E}{j_{leakage}^{DC}} \quad (2)$$

163 Here,  $E$  represents the applied DC electric field, and  $j_{leakage}^{DC}$  is the current density detected after 6 h of unipolar DC electric  
 164 field appliance.

165 Finally, in order to evaluate the polarization states and the dielectric responses of the selected materials under high voltage  
 166 application, charge–discharge cycles were applied. Bipolar sinusoidal AC electric fields with a frequency of 100 mHz and  
 167 amplitude of 50 V/ $\mu$ m were applied, and the experimental current was recorded by means of SIRIUS® cards (by Dewesoft).  
 168 The electric displacement of the sample was then calculated as the integral of the current density. It was possible to consider  
 169 the measured current density  $j_{tot}$  as the summation of a conduction current  $j_{leakage}^{AC}$  and a capacitive current  $j_{cap}$  components:

$$j_{tot} = j_{leakage}^{AC} + j_{cap} \quad (3)$$

170 Within the electric field range used for the characterization, the fabricated materials possess a linear resistive behavior such  
 171 that the resistive current component ( $j_{leakage}^{AC}$ ) can be simply defined following Ohm’s law. This method allowed for  
 172 discrimination of a purely polarization current component  $j_{cap}$  from leakage currents  $j_{leakage}^{AC}$  and thus calculations of electric  
 173 displacements due to only material polarization process could be performed using Equation (4):

$$D(E) = \int j_{cap} dt \quad (4)$$

174 High voltage permittivity was defined as the electric field-derivative of the electric displacement:

$$\varepsilon(E) = \frac{dD(E)}{dE} \quad (5)$$

175 The evolution of dielectric permittivity at high voltages was also modeled by the two-component Debye/Langevin formalism  
 176 [76] as expressed in Equation (6). Fitting the experimental polarization loops allows for the possibility of determining material  
 177 parameters [18,77] relative to each phase of material and is one of the advantages of this method. Whenever the material is  
 178 composed of amorphous and semi-crystalline phases as in the case of a semicrystalline terpolymer or of a polymer matrix and  
 179 inorganic particles, such as for BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-composites of PVDF-HFP, it is possible to use this formula. The material phase

180 parameters, such as dielectric permittivity at zero electric field ( $\varepsilon_r(0)$ ) and saturation electric field ( $E_{sat}$ ) allowed us to predict  
 181 the dielectric response of pure polymers or polymer composites for a given applied electric field:

$$\varepsilon_r^\theta(E) = 3 \varepsilon_r(0) \left[ \left( \frac{E_{sat}^\theta}{E} \right)^2 - \left( \sinh \frac{E}{E_{sat}^\theta} \right)^{-2} \right] \quad (6)$$

182 in which  $\theta$  denotes the material phase. In case of a pure terpolymer matrix,  $\theta$  signifies amorphous or crystal parts. Concerning  
 183 a dielectric composite, such as PVDF-HFP/BaTiO<sub>3</sub>,  $\theta$  indicates copolymer matrix or BaTiO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles.

184 The experimental polarization loop was then fitted by integrating the modeled capacitive current as defined by the equations  
 185 (7) and (8). More detailed applications of Debye/Langevin formalism were described in our previous papers [18,32].

$$j_{cap}^\theta = \frac{dE}{dt} \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_r^\theta(E) \quad (7)$$

$$j_{cap} = \sum_{\theta} j_{cap}^\theta \quad (8)$$

186 All data treatments were then performed using Origin software.

187

### 188 3.4. Energy-storage efficiency

189 Energy-storage efficiency ( $\eta$ ) was derived via energy balance during charge–discharge loops (or electric displacement loops)  
 190 and was defined as the ratio between the recoverable electrical energy ( $U_{recovered}$ ) and the whole stored energy ( $U_{stored}$ ) by the  
 191 capacitor [78], which consisted of both recovered and lost energies  $U_{recovered}$  and  $U_{loss}$ , respectively; see equation (9). In turn,  
 192 lost energy ( $U_{loss}$ ) included the dissipated energy due to conduction losses ( $U_{leakage}$ ) and polymer hysteresis loss during  
 193 discharge ( $U_{hysteresis}$ ) as shown in equation (10).

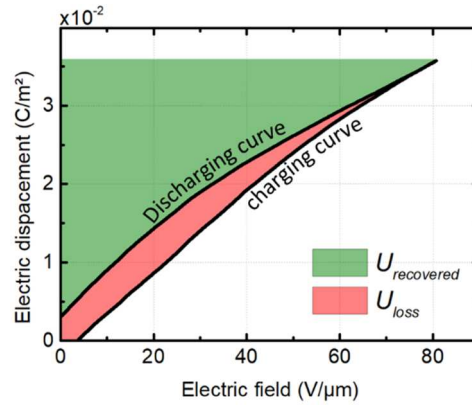
$$\eta = \frac{U_{recovered}}{U_{stored}} = \frac{U_{recovered}}{U_{recovered} + U_{loss}} \quad (9)$$

$$U_{loss} = U_{leakage} + U_{hysteresis} \quad (10)$$

194 Electrical energy density was defined by the equation:

$$U_i = \int_0^{D_{max}} E dD(E) \quad (11)$$

195 Accordingly, the estimation of the recoverable electrical energy density ( $U_{recovered}$ ) could be easily obtained by the  
 196 integration of the area enclosed between the vertical axis and discharging curve of the electric displacement versus applied  
 197 electric field loops [79] as represented in Figure 3 by the green shaded area while the stored energy density ( $U_{stored}$ )  
 198 corresponded to the area delineated by the vertical axis and charging curve. Consequently, the lost energy ( $U_{loss}$ ) was  
 199 represented by the internal area of the electric displacement loop, corresponding to the red shaded area in Figure 3.



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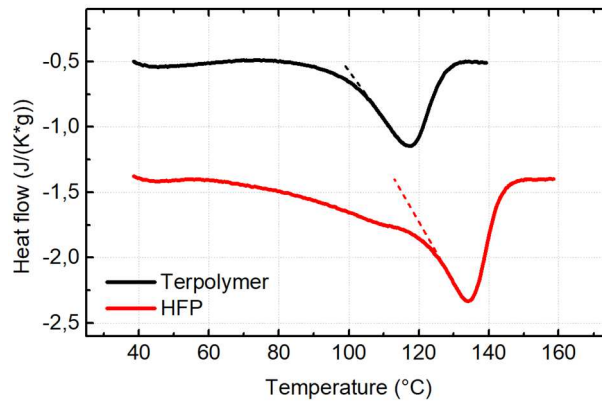
Figure 3. Generic charge–discharge loop for a dielectric material showing hysteresis. Green area depicts the recovered electric energy; red area represents the energy losses.

## 204 4. Results and discussion

### 205 4.1. Thermal analysis

206 Optimal processing temperatures, such as the terpolymer annealing temperature, was identified through the second melting  
207 scan via DSC measurements. Results are shown in Figure 4 and Table 1.

208



209

210 Figure 4. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) thermographs of the 2<sup>nd</sup> melting ramp for the selected polymers: highly  
211 polar polyvinylidene fluoride-trifluoroethylene-chlorotrifluoroethylene (PVDF-TrFE-CTFE) terpolymer (black line) and  
212 barrier polymer polyvinylidene fluoride-hexafluoropropylene (PVDF-HFP) copolymer (red line).

213

214 Table 1. Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) thermal analysis results for the selected polymers.

	$T_{\text{melting}}$ °C	$T_{\text{onset}}$ °C
Terpolymer	118	98
PVDF-HFP	134	113

215

216 As demonstrated in our previous work [80] the most appropriate annealing temperature allowing improvement of the dielectric  
217 properties of the PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer was the one corresponding to the onset of the melting peak, namely 98°C.  
218 Such a temperature proved to be high enough for providing sufficient mobility to the molecules to self-organize in crystalline  
219 structures while concurrently avoiding melting and melting-driven defects in the polymeric film.

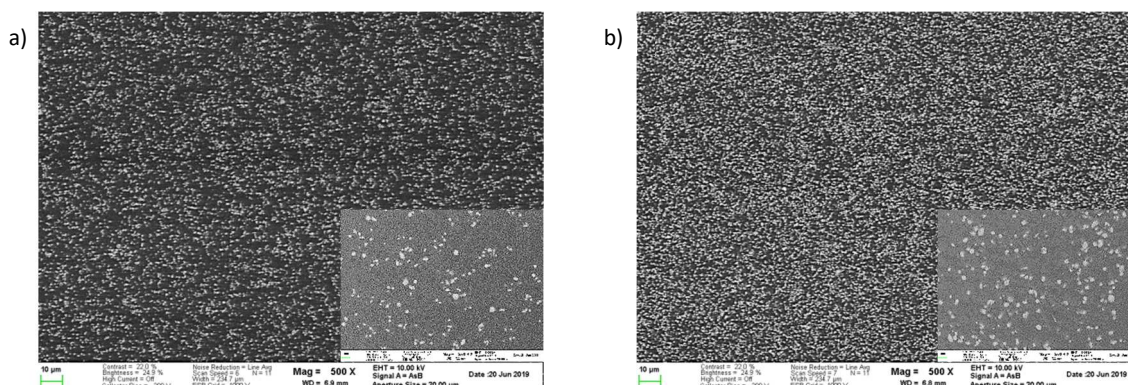


220 In the case of multilayered samples, the annealing temperature (98°C) was chosen to be equal to one of the terpolymers since  
221 the annealing temperature of the PVDF-HFP copolymers was higher (113°C) and would have led to melting of the underlying  
222 terpolymer film.

223

## 224 4.2. Morphological characterization

225 Evaluation of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticle dispersion and validation of ultrasound stirring protocol was achieved via SEM imaging.  
226 Figure 5a and Figure 5b show the cross-section of PVDF-HFP single-layer films doped with 10%vol. and 20%vol. BaTiO<sub>3</sub>  
227 nanoparticles, respectively. The result confirms good dispersion of the developed composites even with high filler content of  
228 20% vol.



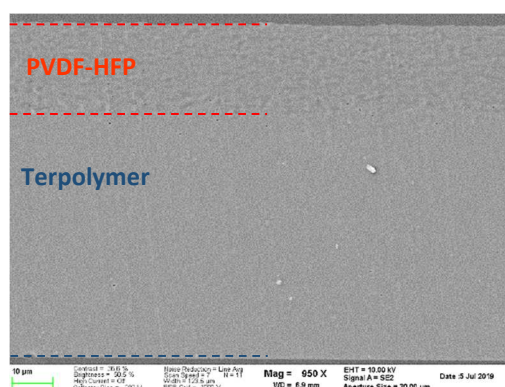
229

230 *Figure 5. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of cross-section of PVDF-HFP composites films containing a) 10%vol.*  
231 *and b) 20%vol. of 500 nm BaTiO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles. Insets show magnifications.*

232

233 Figure 6 illustrates the cross-section of a multilayered sample achieved after solution casting of PVDF-HFP dissolution on top  
234 of a post-annealed terpolymer film (section 2.1). The choice of solvent for film casting of the upper layer (MEK) allowed us  
235 to obtain an intimate and homogenous adhesion between the two layers.

236



237

238 *Figure 6. SEM image of "Terpolymer+HFP" multilayer cross-section.*

239

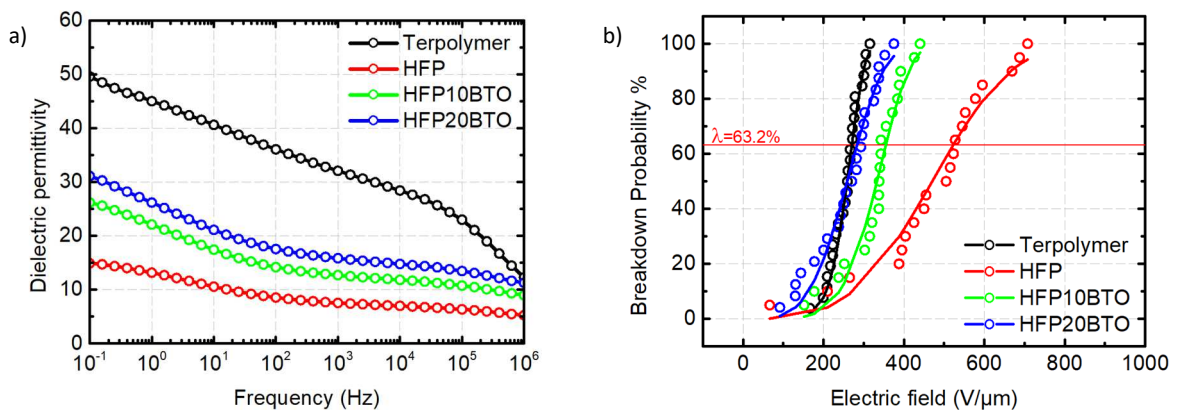
## 240 4.3. Electrical characterizations

### 241 4.3.1. Single-layer film

242 Figure 7 illustrates the dielectric permittivity and dielectric strengths of the PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer, PVDF-HFP  
243 copolymers, and their composites doped with 10% and 20% BTO nanoparticles. As observed in Figure 7a, the terpolymer

244 showed significantly higher permittivity (32 at 1 kHz) with respect to the HFP pure copolymer (7.5 at 1 kHz) under a large  
 245 frequency range from 0.1 Hz to 1 MHz. Interestingly, the HFP composites consisting of 10%<sub>vol.</sub> and 20%<sub>vol.</sub> of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>  
 246 nanoparticles led to a greatly increased permittivity compared to the pure ones. Indeed, the relative permittivity of the  
 247 HFP10BTO and HFP20BTO increased to 12.7 and 15.8, respectively, at 1 kHz compared to 7.5 as in case of pure HFP. Figure  
 248 7b depicts the experimental results (open circles) and the corresponding Weibull model fitting (equation (1)) of the breakdown  
 249 distribution probability for all materials (solid lines). It can be seen that the HFP copolymer and its composites exhibit a  
 250 superior breakdown of the electric field when compared with the terpolymer. Incorporating the piezoelectric nanoparticles into  
 251 the copolymer matrix resulted in a considerably decreased dielectric strength, which was still higher than the terpolymer. The  
 252 addition of particles in polymeric matrix consists in introduction of several interfaces between the organic and inorganic phases  
 253 which often represent a preferential pathway of conduction charges [31,66]. Especially in our case, composites made from  
 254 particles with much higher permittivity than the one of the host polymer leads to dramatically increase local electric fields  
 255 surrounding particles. This effect results in higher breakdown probability, and thus a degradation of the material dielectric  
 256 strength [81,82]. In conclusion, the terpolymer and copolymer were complementary rather than competitive. It would therefore  
 257 be interesting to investigate the multilayered design consisting of these materials so as to efficiently exploit all of their  
 258 potentials. To some extent, using terpolymers as the main dielectric elements and HFP-based copolymers as thin-barrier layers  
 259 probably permits the best tradeoff between dielectric properties and electrical breakdown, which is considered to be one of the  
 260 most relevant characteristics for achieving high electroactive polymer performance.

261



262

263 *Figure 7. a) Dielectric permittivity versus frequency and b) experimental (circles) and modeled Weibull (solid lines) electric*  
 264 *breakdown distribution for selected polymers and composites as single-layer films.*

265

266 Insulating properties relating to the DC volume resistivity ( $\rho_{DC}$ ) were compared to the electrical breakdown value ( $\lambda$ ) as  
 267 displayed in Figure 8a. Interestingly, a similar trend of these two parameters was achieved, confirming that implementation of  
 268 an insulating barrier layer-based PVDF-HFP copolymer gave rise to improved dielectric strength and reduced leakage current,  
 269 which is mainly caused by the electronic conduction effect. The same result was achieved for the alternative configuration in  
 270 which the samples were excited by an alternative bipolar voltage corresponding to  $\pm 40$  V/ $\mu$ m amplitude and 0.1 Hz frequency.  
 271 As illustrated in Figure 8b, the HFP copolymer led to the highest AC volume resistivity with respect to the other, which was  
 272 consistent with the result found in Figure 8a. Accordingly, when a large AC or DC electric field was applied, the leakage  
 273 current through the polymer capacitors was principally affected by electronic conduction and thus, for a target application in  
 274 either alternative or continuous power, the insulating barrier layers provided enhancement in terms of energy dissipation,  
 275 dielectric strength, lifetime, and charge-discharge efficiency. A summary of experimental and model results is shown in Table  
 276 2.

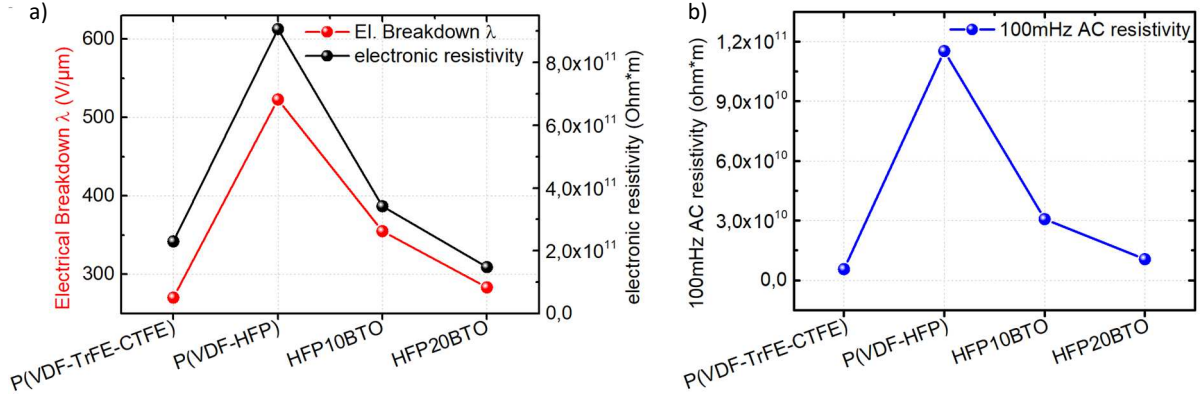


Figure 8. a) Parameter of breakdown electric field ( $\lambda$ ) and electronic DC resistivity, and b) AC resistivity for all selected polymers and composites.

Table 2. Electrical characterization results for single-layer capacitors.

	permittivity @ 1kHz	$\lambda$ V/ $\mu$ m	$k$	DC resistivity Ohm*m	AC resistivity Ohm*m
Terpolymer	32	270	8.35	$2.3 \times 10^{11}$	$5.6 \times 10^9$
HFP	7.5	523	3.47	$9.1 \times 10^{11}$	$115 \times 10^9$
HFP10BTO	12.7	355	5.73	$3.4 \times 10^{11}$	$30.7 \times 10^9$
HFP20BTO	15.8	283	4.05	$1.5 \times 10^{11}$	$10.6 \times 10^9$

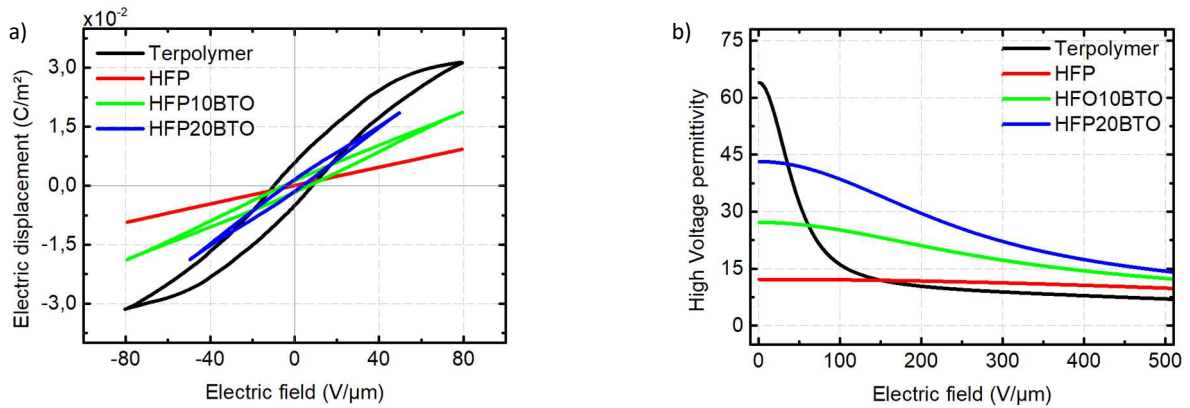
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283 The dielectric behavior of pure polymers and of HFP/BTO composites under high AC electric fields of 80 V/ $\mu$ m amplitude  
 284 and 0.1 Hz frequency was investigated and recorded as the polarization loops of electric displacement (Figure 9a). Due its  
 285 relaxor-ferroelectric nature, the terpolymer exhibited superior hysteresis behavior over the HFP and its composites [13,83,84].  
 286 On the other hand, the pure copolymer displayed a perfectly linear relationship between electric displacement and input voltage  
 287 excitation without any hysteresis loss. Due to the presence of ferroelectric BaTiO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles, a small amount of hysteresis  
 288 appeared on the polarization loop of both HFP10BTO and HFP20BTO samples, resulting in a decrease in saturation electric  
 289 field with respect to the one the pure HFP. Notably, in case of HFP20BTO sample, the electric displacement loop was recorded  
 290 up to 50 V/ $\mu$ m applied electric field. Indeed, above this value, leakage current ( $j_{leakage}^{AC}$ ) becomes significant, resulting in  
 291 nonlinear response that would be difficult to be modeled. Within such an electric field range, the conduction current component  
 292 ( $j_{leakage}^{AC}$ ) can be simply estimated through the Ohm's law, making it possible to accurately determine the purely capacitive  
 293 response ( $j_{cap}$ ) as well as the electrical displacement loops of the material (cf. Figure 9a, and equations (3)-(4)). Experimental  
 294 results revealed that for the other samples (i.e. single-layer terpolymer, HFP and HFP10BTO), a somewhat higher electric field  
 295 of 80V/ $\mu$ m can be used to get linear behavior. In the next subsection, it will be demonstrated that HFP20BTO when combined  
 296 with terpolymer to form a multilayer-based structure allows an application of 80 V/ $\mu$ m, which is similar to the one used in the  
 297 other multilayer samples.

298 The dielectric permittivity evolution under very high electric field (such as 500 V/ $\mu$ m which is very close, or even higher, than  
 299 most of polymer/composite breakdown electric fields) based on Debye/Langevin model of equation (6) is illustrated in Figure  
 300 9b, which was deduced from the empirical measurement of Figure 9a. Interestingly, the result allowed us to explore the  
 301 dielectric behavior of the developed materials beyond the crystal saturation electric field ( $E_{sat}^0$ ). The pure copolymer led to  
 302 extremely stable permittivity for a large electric field range, reflecting its exceptionally properties in high voltage applications.  
 303 In contrast, the permittivity of the terpolymer rapidly dropped from 64 to 9 at the higher excitation of 250 V/ $\mu$ m, and its steady  
 304 value indicated that it was very similar to the one of PVDF-HFP copolymers. Indeed, the terpolymer possessed an amorphous  
 305 phase very similar to the copolymer's one [85,86], and in general, most of PVDF-based polymers have a large saturation  
 306 electric field ( $\approx 475$  V/ $\mu$ m) at which the permittivity is approximately closed to 12 [76]. Similar to the case of HFP composites,

307 once the saturation electric field was reached, its dielectric permittivity converged to the value of the copolymer matrix. The  
 308 copolymer doped with piezoelectric particles seems to be the most appropriate candidate to achieve the best tradeoff between  
 309 the dielectric properties and high voltage application. Fitting parameters are summarized in Table 3 and were in perfect  
 310 agreement with the literature [76] and our previous results [18,32]. The nomenclature “matrix” and “phase” adopted in Table  
 311 3 is dedicated to the Debye/Langevin model parameters (i.e.  $\epsilon_r(0)$  and  $E_{sat}^\theta$ ) to each material phase: in case of pure  
 312 semicrystalline terpolymer (the first line), “matrix” refers to the amorphous part and “phase” refers to crystalline part; in case  
 313 of HFP composites (the last two line), such as PVDF-HFP/BaTiO<sub>3</sub>, “matrix” refers the copolymer hosting matrix and “phase”  
 314 to the BaTiO<sub>3</sub> particles.



315  
 316 Figure 9. a) Experimental electric displacement, and b) evolution of modelled dielectric permittivity versus applied electric  
 317 field for all selected polymers and composites.

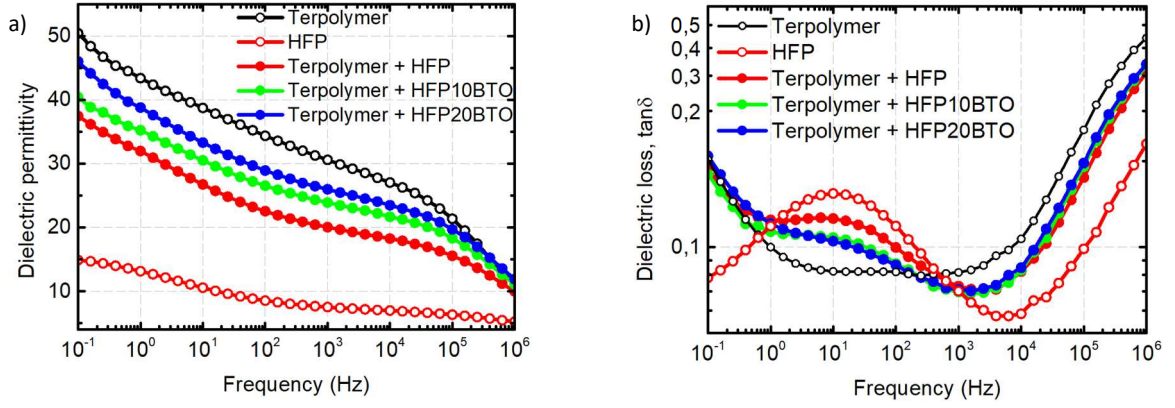
318  
 319 Table 3. Fitting parameters based Debye/Langevin model. In case of the pure terpolymer (the first line), “matrix” refers to  
 320 amorphous part and “phase” refers to crystalline part. On the other hand, for the HFP composites (the last two lines),  
 321 “matrix” refers to the copolymer and “phase” relates to BTO particles.

	$\epsilon_r(0)$	matrix		phase		$\epsilon_r(E)$ @ 250 V/μm
		$\epsilon_r^\theta$	$E_{sat}^\theta$	$\epsilon_r^\theta$	$E_{sat}^\theta$	
Terpolymer	63.9	10	400	59	21	9.5
HFP	12.2	13.2	475	--	--	11.5
HFP10BTO	27.2	13.2	475	16	120	19
HFP20BTO	43.2	13.2	475	32	110	25.5

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### 323 4.3.2. Multi-layer film capacitor

324 The structure of multilayered capacitors is schematized in Figure 2 and their fabrication process is described in subsection 2.2.  
 325 For a better assessment of the fabricated materials, Figure 10 displays the BDS spectra of the single-layer terpolymer and of  
 326 the single-layer HFP together with the ones of the three multilayered samples including terpolymer+HFP,  
 327 terpolymer+HFP10BTO, and terpolymer+HFP20BTO. As expected and shown in Figure 10a, the HFP/BTO composite-coated  
 328 terpolymer gave rise to superior dielectric permittivity as opposed to the one elaborated with pure HFP. Incorporating the  
 329 piezoelectric particles into the copolymer matrix gave rise to enhanced dielectric properties, which agreed with the result  
 330 shown in Figure 7a. Interestingly, the permittivity value of the multilayered architecture was situated between one of the single-  
 331 layers of PVDF-TrFE-CTFE and of single-layer HFP composite. In our next study, we will demonstrate that by combining  
 332 both terpolymer and copolymer characteristics, it would be possible to obtain high performance multilayered capacitors with  
 333 better compromise in terms of dielectric property and conduction loss.



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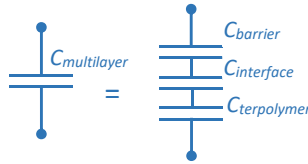
335 *Figure 10. Broadband dielectric spectroscopy (BDS) a) dielectric permittivity spectra and b) dielectric loss spectra for the*  
 336 *single-layer terpolymer (open black circles), single-layer HFP (open red circles) and the multilayered capacitors (solid*  
 337 *colored circles).*

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339 It can be seen in Figure 11 that the multilayered capacitor ( $C_{multilayer}$ ) could be modeled as three capacitors in series, including  
 340  $C_{barrier}$ ,  $C_{interface}$ , and  $C_{terpo}$ . Therefore,  $C_{multilayer}$  was calculated using the equation:

$$C_{multilayer} = \left[ \frac{1}{C_{terpo}} + \frac{1}{C_{interface}} + \frac{1}{C_{barrier}} \right]^{-1} \quad (12)$$

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344 *Figure 11. Equivalent model for a multilayered capacitor.*

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346 As the thickness of the interface layer was very small compared to the one of the terpolymer and barrier layers, the capacitor  
 347 value  $C_{interface}$  was supposed to be infinite. Thus, the expression of the equivalent capacitor shown in equation (12) could be  
 348 simplified:

$$C_{multilayer} = \left[ \frac{1}{C_{terpo}} + \frac{1}{C_{barrier}} \right]^{-1} \quad (13)$$

349

349 Since all layers had the same surfaces, the dielectric permittivity ( $\mathcal{E}_{eq}$ ) of the whole structure deduced from equation (13) was  
 350 written:

$$\frac{\mathcal{E}_{eq}}{d_{terpo} + d_{barrier}} = \left[ \frac{d_{terpo}}{\mathcal{E}_{terpo}} + \frac{d_{barrier}}{\mathcal{E}_{barrier}} \right]^{-1} \quad (14)$$

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351 in which  $\mathcal{E}_{terpo}$  and  $\mathcal{E}_{barrier}$  refer to the dielectric permittivity of the terpolymer layer and barrier layer,  $d_{terpo}$  and  $d_{barrier}$  design,  
 352 respectively, in the thickness of the corresponding layers.

352

352 Finally, the theoretical permittivity ( $\mathcal{E}_{eq}$ ) of the whole multilayer structure can be given by the equation:

$$\mathcal{E}_{eq} = \frac{\mathcal{E}_{terpo} \cdot \mathcal{E}_{barrier}}{\mathcal{E}_{barrier} \cdot d_{terpo} + \mathcal{E}_{terpo} \cdot d_{barrier}} (d_{terpo} + d_{barrier}) \quad (15)$$

353

353 Table 4 summarizes the experimental (Figure 10a) and theoretical (equation (15)) dielectric permittivity at 1 kHz of the HFP  
 354 samples in addition to the corresponding absolute ( $\mathcal{E}_{exp} - \mathcal{E}_{eq}$ ) and relative ( $\Delta\mathcal{E}\%$ ) errors.

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Table 4. Multilayers dielectric permittivity at 1kHz, experimental ( $\mathcal{E}_{exp}$ ) and modeled ( $\mathcal{E}_{eq}$ ) values.

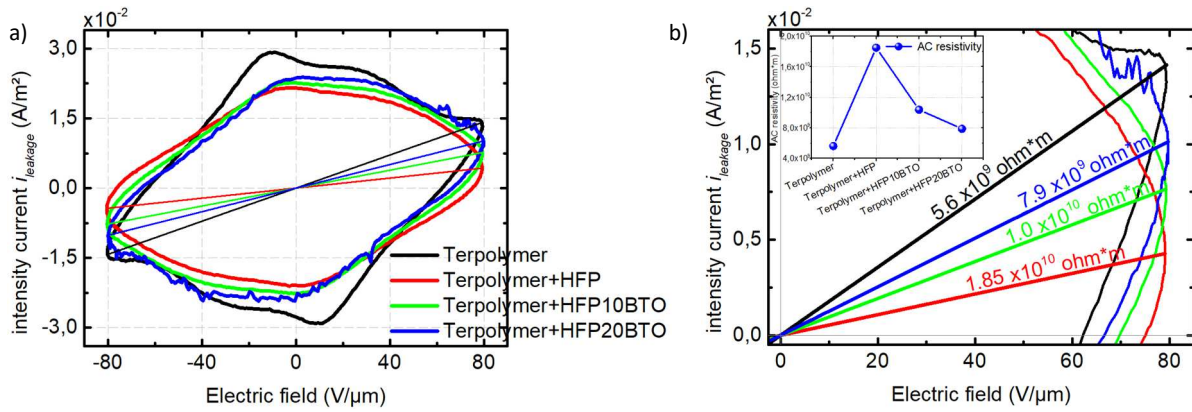
	$\mathcal{E}_{exp}$	$\mathcal{E}_{eq}$	$\mathcal{E}_{exp} - \mathcal{E}_{eq}$	$\Delta\mathcal{E}\%$
Terpolymer	32			
Terpolymer+HFP	20.4	19.4	+1	5%
Terpolymer+HFP10BTO	23.9	24.5	-0.6	2.5%
Terpolymer+HFP20BTO	26	26.6	-0.6	2.3%

357

358 The permittivity constant of all materials at 1 kHz allowed us to assess their dielectric properties originating from the  
 359 polarization mechanisms that was principally due to dipolar/molecular interactions. However, these characteristics were not  
 360 affected by interfacial and/or conductive phenomena (such as ionic or DC conductivity) that occurred at much lower frequency  
 361 (as shown in Figure 10b). The small discrepancy between the experimental and theoretical values of permittivity, such as  $\mathcal{E}_{exp}$ -  
 362  $\mathcal{E}_{eq}$  as reported in Table 4, allowed us to conclude that under low voltage excitation, the introduced interface between the  
 363 terpolymer and the barrier layers did not alter the dielectric behavior of the whole multilayered structure. **Observing the BDS**  
 364 **spectra in Figure 10b, the dielectric loss spectra of the single-layer HFP and of the multilayered samples exhibit a peak at**  
 365 **medium frequency range (i.e. around 10Hz), and this observation does not appear in the case of the single-layer terpolymer.**  
 366 **On the other hand, the single layer copolymer (open red circles) leads to the most important peak, which gradually decreases**  
 367 **in the case of bilayer films containing terpolymer layer and HFP composite layer. This decrease is more obvious with**  
 368 **increasing particles content inside the composite layer, which is confirmed by evolution of the three solid-circle curves depicted**  
 369 **on Figure 10b. The obtained result can be explained by the fact that for the pure PVDF-HFP copolymer, the related relaxation**  
 370 **phenomenon probably infers to interfacial polarization at the level of crystalline/amorphous interfaces [48,87,88]. Introduction**  
 371 **of inorganic particles (such as BaTiO<sub>3</sub>) may leads to reduced crystallinity and thus lower contribution of interfacial polarization**  
 372 **to the loss peak at  $\approx 10$ Hz.** Moreover, it was observed in Figure 10b that toward low frequencies ( $< 1$ Hz), the dielectric loss  
 373 spectrum of all multilayered samples displayed a similar trend as seen in one of the single-layer terpolymers, confirming that  
 374 the interface between the adjacent layers did not induce any parasitic polarization mechanism.

375 Charge–discharge cycles were applied with a bipolar AC voltage at 0.1 Hz frequency and 80 V/ $\mu$ m amplitude. The measured  
 376 currents of the single-layer terpolymer and of the three multilayered materials are represented in Figure 12a in which straight  
 377 dashed lines describe the leakage current through the capacitor-like samples. As the charge–discharge cycles are symmetrical  
 378 as a function of the sign of both current density and electric field, magnification of the leakage currents is shown only for the  
 379 first quarter in Figure 12b. The linear trend of the leakage current versus the applied electric field for each sample depicted a  
 380 linear resistive behavior according to the Ohm's law as shown in equation (2). The results highlight that the introduction of an  
 381 insulating barrier layer could lead to successful control of conduction losses. In other words, an additional layer of 15  $\mu$ m of  
 382 pure PVDF-HFP layer permitted leakage current reduction at high voltage application by almost 70%. Actually, the volume  
 383 resistivity ( $\rho_{AC}$ ) increased from 5.6x10<sup>9</sup> ohm\*m for the single-layer terpolymer to 18.5x10<sup>9</sup> ohm\*m for the multilayered  
 384 Terpolymer+HFP, corresponding to a three-fold improvement in terms of conduction losses. The multilayered capacitors based  
 385 on HFP composites led to higher leakage currents than the ones embedded with the pure HFP but were still lower than the  
 386 single-layer terpolymers. Table 5 shows the volume resistivity value of the four samples, estimated from the slopes represented  
 387 in Figure 12b.

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Figure 12. a) Charge–discharge current for a single-layer terpolymer (black line) and for all multilayered capacitors (colored lines). b) Magnification of the first quarter with positive values of current and electric field: straight lines feature the leakage currents intensity and relative volume resistivity; the inset depicts the trend of volume resistivity of each multilayered capacitor.

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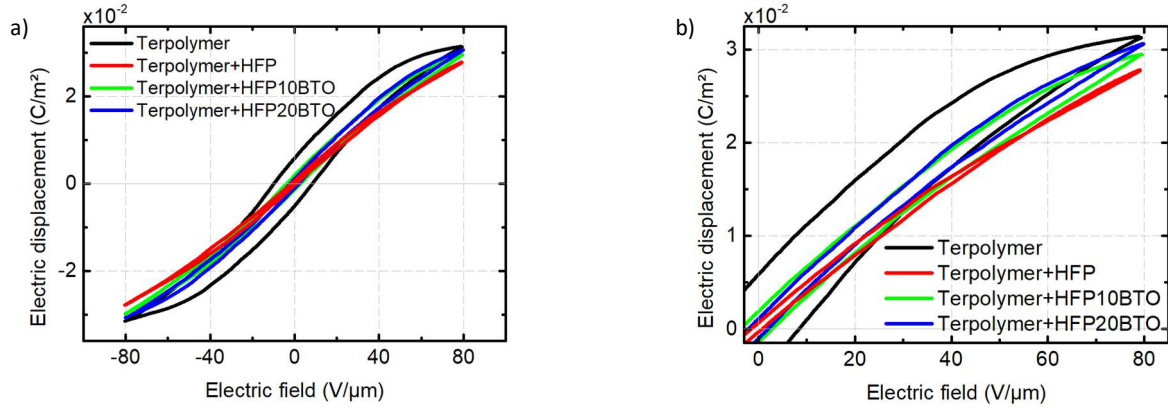
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Figure 13a illustrates the electric displacement deduced from the integral of the capacitive current (equation (4)) versus the applied electric field of the single-layer terpolymer and of all of the multilayered capacitors. To make observations easier, Figure 13b only displays the first quarter of the polarization loop. It can be seen that under the same electric field of 80 V/ $\mu$ m, the maximum polarization level ( $P_{max}$ ) of the three multilayers was slightly lower than the one of the single-layer terpolymer (a reduction of  $\approx 11\%$ ,  $6\%$ ,  $2\%$  for the Terpolymer+HFP, Terpolymer+HFP10BTO, and Terpolymer+HFP20BTO, respectively). This deterioration was considered to be negligible with respect to conduction losses enhancement of the three corresponding multilayers whose volume resistivity drastically increases of 70%, 44%, and 29% (Table 5). As previously mentioned in subsection 4.3.1, the PVDF-HFP possesses a linear dielectric behavior ( $\epsilon_r \approx 13$ ) with large polarizability even under a high electrical field. In Figure 12a, the current response of the single-layer terpolymer (solid black curve) shows the typical features of a relaxor-ferroelectric polymer where four peaks are visible and discernible. Concerning the multilayered samples, the linear dielectric PVDF-HFP layer (as measured in Figure 9a) leads to current response curves in which the peaks are broaden and partially merged, confirming a linearization of the overall dielectric response of the multilayered samples. Actually, in such architecture where two layers are in series, the measured resulting current (Figure 12a) is the sum of the current response of each layer. Hence, the relaxor-ferroelectric features of the terpolymer are partially covered up by the linear dielectric response of the PVDF-HFP layer (in case of Terpolymer+HFP) and by the normal-ferroelectric response of PVDF-HFP/BaTiO<sub>3</sub> composites layer (in case of Terpolymer+HFP10BTO, and Terpolymer+HFP20BTO). These interesting properties make a possibility to fabricate multilayered structures with quasi-zero ferroelectric losses ( $P_r \approx 0$ ) at a given applied electric field (e.g. 80 V/ $\mu$ m); These interesting properties presented the possibility of fabricating multilayered structures with quasi-zero ferroelectric losses ( $P_r \approx 0$ ) at the tested applied electric field (80 V/ $\mu$ m); as in the case of the conventional PVDF-HFP copolymer, the three multilayered configurations coated with HFP, HFP10BTO, and HFP20BTO led to substantially decreased remnant polarization ( $P_r$ ) of around 90%, 80%, and 70%, respectively, as opposed to the single-layer terpolymer. In conclusion, multilayered design based HFP/BaTiO<sub>3</sub> composites led to the best tradeoff between conduction/ferroelectric losses (Figure 12b) and charge displacement (Figure 13b) in which the maximum polarization level was almost unchanged and close to the one of the classical terpolymer PVDF-TrFE-CTFE.



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Figure 13. a) Electric displacement versus applied electric field for single-layer terpolymer (black line) and for all multilayered capacitors (colored lines); b) Magnification of first quarter corresponding to positive values of electric displacement and electric field.

Table 5. Multilayer AC volume resistivity  $\rho_{AC}$  and material polarization properties.

	AC resistivity, $\rho_{AC}$ Ohm*m	$\Delta\rho_{AC}$ %	Remnant polarization, $P_r$ C/m <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta P_r$ %	Polarization max, $P_{max}$ C/m <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta P_{max}$ %
Terpolymer	$5.6 \times 10^9$		$5.9 \times 10^{-3}$		$3.13 \times 10^{-2}$	
Terpolymer+HFP	$18.5 \times 10^9$	+ 70%	$0.6 \times 10^{-3}$	- 88.5%	$2.76 \times 10^{-2}$	- 11.3%
Terpolymer+HFP10BTO	$10 \times 10^9$	+ 44%	$1.1 \times 10^{-3}$	- 81.2%	$2.95 \times 10^{-2}$	-5.8%
Terpolymer+HFP20BTO	$7.9 \times 10^9$	+ 29%	$1.9 \times 10^{-3}$	- 67.2%	$3.06 \times 10^{-2}$	-2.2%

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In order to estimate the energy-storage efficiency ( $\eta$ ) previously defined in equation (9), the electric displacement loops were then calculated from the integral of the experimental current ( $J_{tot}$ ) written in equation (3). The total electric displacement loops are displayed in Figure 14a while the corresponding energy-storage densities in terms of total stored energy ( $U_{stored}$ ) and recovered energy ( $U_{recovered}$ ) are reported in Figure 14b for all fabricated samples. The total stored energy density ( $U_{stored}$ ) contains both the recoverable energy density  $U_{recovered}$  (cf. green area in Figure 3) and the energy dissipations  $U_{loss}$  (cf. red area in Figure 3). Energy losses principally stem from conduction current, ferroelectric losses, and relaxation modes dedicated to molecular dipole orientation, that occurred during electric sollicitation of polymer. At a given applied electric field of 80V/μm, the stored energy density ( $U_{stored}$ ) of the single-layer terpolymer is significantly superior to the other multilayered samples, i.e. 2.51 J/cm<sup>3</sup> with respect to 1.44 J/cm<sup>3</sup> as in the case of the Terpolymer+HFP multilayer. On the other hand, the recoverable energy density ( $U_{recovered}$ ) of the Terpolymer+HFP reaches the maximum value compared to the other materials (i.e. from 0.67 J/cm<sup>3</sup> down to 0.42 J/cm<sup>3</sup>), making it as the best candidate to achieve the most optimal energy-storage efficiency ( $\eta$ ) as reported on Figure 15.

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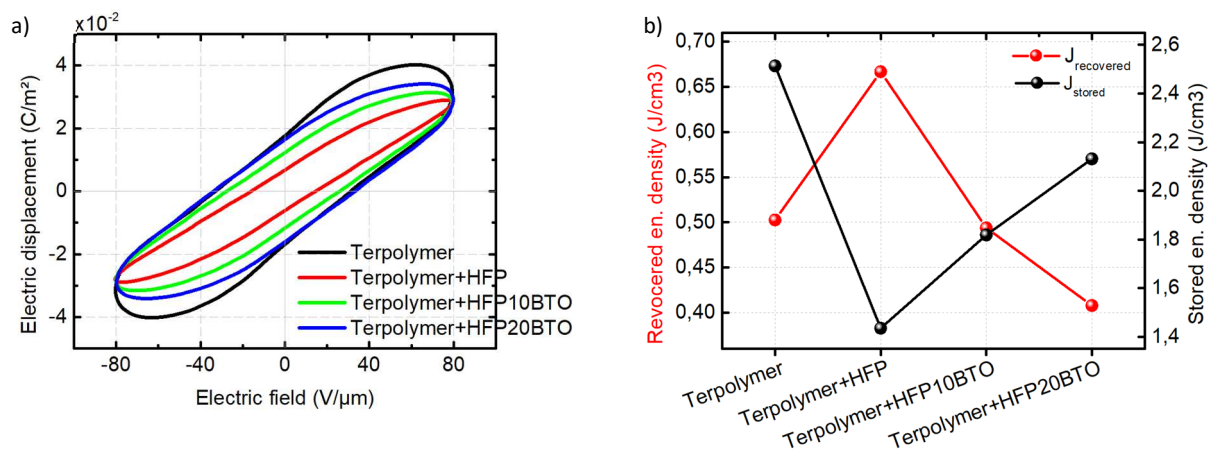
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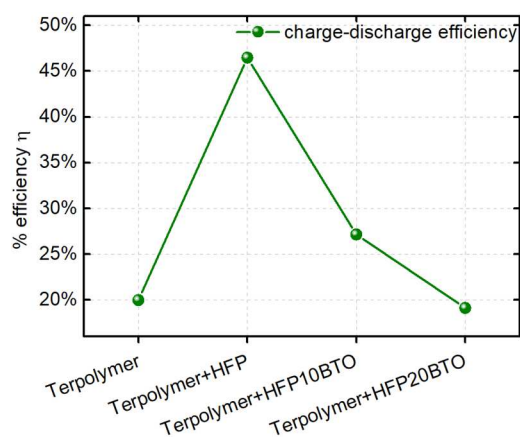
The results reveal that the Terpolymer+HFP multilayer gave rise to more than a two-fold increase in energy-storage efficiency as opposed to the conventional terpolymer (from 20% to 47%), which can be explained by the fact that the PVDF-HFP copolymer allowed for successfully reduction of both conduction and ferroelectric losses. On the other hand, the other multilayers based on HFP composite solutions did not show significant enhancement for the ultimate capacitor efficiency despite their boosted polarization properties. Concretely, the barrier layer carried out with 10%vol. BaTiO<sub>3</sub> resulted in a slight increase in energy-storage efficiency of 7% with respect to the single terpolymer film. Nonetheless, the multilayered samples with higher filler content of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> (20%vol.) achieved an ultimate capacitor efficiency of 19%, which was even lower than the one with the terpolymer material. These results, together with the AC volume resistivity of the multilayered structures shown in Figure 12b, emphasized the predominance of conduction losses (or leakage current) above all other dissipation mechanisms. As observed, values of energy-storage efficiency in Figure 15 followed the same trend as AC resistivity (depicted in the inset of Figure 12b).





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Figure 14. a) Charge–discharge electric displacement loops for single-layer terpolymer (black line) and for all multilayered capacitors (colored lines), and b) recoverable energy density ( $J_{\text{recovered}}$ ) and total stored energy density ( $J_{\text{stored}}$ ) values for all fabricated samples measured at  $80\text{V}/\mu\text{m}$ .



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Figure 15. Energy-storage efficiency ( $\eta$ ) for single-layer terpolymer and for all multilayered capacitors measured at  $80\text{V}/\mu\text{m}$ .

458 It is noteworthy that the energy-storage efficiency of our film capacitors is not ideal compared to those reported in the literature  
459 [38,59–61] because of conduction losses in energy dissipation, as previously discussed. The selected barrier material, i.e  
460 PVDF-HFP, besides the higher insulating properties, still belongs to the same class of PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymers which  
461 is characterized by high permittivity thanks to additional molecular-dipole polarization. This mechanism creates,  
462 simultaneously, higher level of conduction losses, the so-called leakage current. An alternative method to further improve the  
463 energy efficiency consists in using highly insulating materials as barrier layers such as high-glass transition polymers (e.g.  
464 PC). At the same time, highly insulating materials generally show small values of dielectric permittivity which, at low electric  
465 fields, relevantly limits the maximum polarization response. Moreover, when comparing electrical properties of different  
466 polymer systems, it is important to pay attention at the nominal thickness of the samples since its relevance in the polymer  
467 breakdown electric field [89–91]. Notably, with respect to multilayered polymeric capacitors often reported in literature, our  
468 fabricated samples possess values of thickness from 5 to 15 times larger. Fabrication of thinner polymeric films, together with  
469 the reduction of the probability to encounter defects for a given electrode area [92], results in more homogenous samples as  
470 other relevant fabrication parameters are affected such as heat dissipation and solvent evaporation rate [93,94].

471 Finally, the dielectric strength of all multilayered samples was tested, and the breakdown probability distribution is illustrated  
472 in Figure 17. The experimental breakdown electric field distribution was fitted into the Weibull model defined in equation (1)  
473 and whose fitting parameters,  $\lambda$  and  $k$ , are reported in Table 6. As expected, the addition of a thin barrier layer of pure copolymer

474 makes it possibility to build a multilayered capacitor with enhanced dielectric strength. It was previously clarified in subsection  
 475 4.3.1 that high voltage failures are directly related to the magnitude of electronic conductivity through the polymeric capacitor  
 476 (Figure 8a). The introduction of a copolymer layer capable of acting as a barrier against electron flux led to lower leakage  
 477 current in addition to improved breakdown electric field. Moreover, after considering multilayered structures as a series of  
 478 capacitors that were excited by an input voltage ( $V_{tot}$ ), it can be seen that the electric field was redistributed internally among  
 479 the layers somehow depending on the permittivity value of each layer [60,95]. Assuming the electric displacement between  
 480 terpolymer layer and barrier layer interface being continuous, the values of internal electric field in each layer could be  
 481 estimated:

$$D(E) = \epsilon_{terpo}(E) \cdot E_{terpo} = \epsilon_{barrier}(E) \cdot E_{barrier} \quad (16)$$

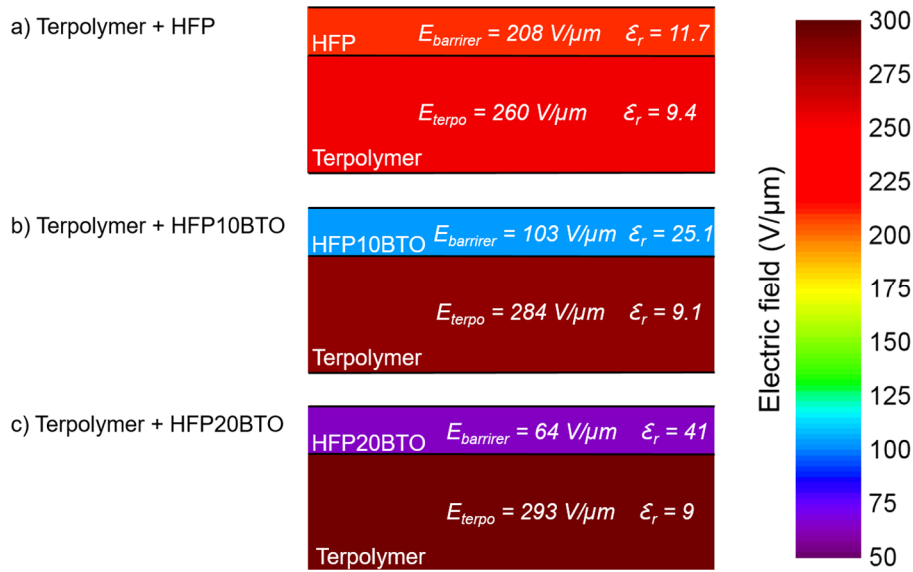
482 In which  $\epsilon_{terpo}$  and  $\epsilon_{barrier}$  denote the permittivity of terpolymer and barrier material, respectively. The internal electric  
 483 fields  $E_{terpo}$  and  $E_{barrier}$  in each layer could be expressed:

$$E_{terpo} = V_{tot} \frac{1}{d_{barrier} \frac{\epsilon_{terpo}(E)}{\epsilon_{barrier}(E)} + d_{terpo}} \quad (17)$$

$$E_{barrier} = V_{tot} \frac{1}{d_{terpo} \frac{\epsilon_{barrier}(E)}{\epsilon_{terpo}(E)} + d_{barrier}} \quad (18)$$

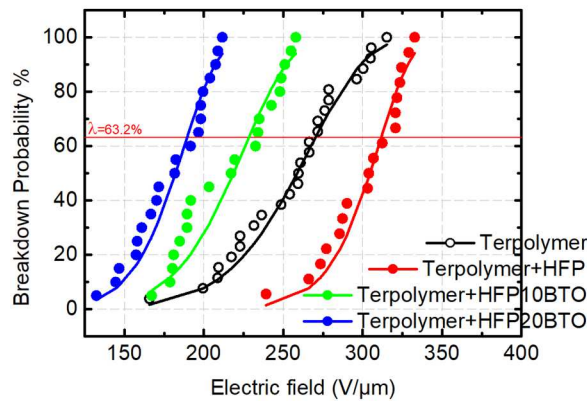
484 Equations (17) and (18) demonstrate that the internal electric field is inversely proportional to permittivity, meaning that  
 485 material with smaller permittivity absorbed a greater portion of electrical energy. In case of the Terpolymer+HFP multilayer,  
 486 when the applied voltage was close to the breakdown level ( $> 250 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$ ), the permittivity of terpolymer almost equaled the  
 487 one of the copolymer (as illustrated in Figure 9b). This effect, highlighted in Figure 16a, led to homogeneous electric field  
 488 redistribution across the layers and resulted in boosted breakdown strength for the Terpolymer+HFP multilayer whose  $\lambda$   
 489 parameter attained the maximum value as shown in Table 6. In contrast, in cases of other multilayers, such as  
 490 Terpolymer+HFP10BTO and Terpolymer+HFP20BTO, the composite layers exhibited much higher permittivity values than  
 491 those of the underlying terpolymer under the same high voltage condition (Figure 9b). This makes the “weak” terpolymer layer  
 492 subjected to the larger portion of the electric field (see Figure 16b and Figure 16c) together with imbalanced electric field  
 493 redistribution through the whole sample, resulting in earlier breakdown as confirmed by the experimental measurements shown  
 494 in Figure 17.

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Figure 16. Representation of electric field redistribution internally to each layer of the multilayered capacitor structures, for a given applied electric field of  $250 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$ : a) Terpolymer+HFP, b) Terpolymer+HFP10BTO and c) Terpolymer+HFP20BTO.



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Figure 17. Experimental breakdown distribution for single-layer terpolymer (open black circles) and for all multilayered capacitors (solid colored circles). Lines represent the modeled Weibull breakdown probability.

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Table 6. Multilayer dielectric strength by Weibull analysis and multilayer capacitor efficiencies.

	$\lambda$ $\text{V}/\mu\text{m}$	$\Delta\lambda$ %	$k$	energy-storage efficiency, $\eta$ @ $80 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$
Terpolymer	270		8.35	20.0%
Terpolymer+HFP	312	+16%	15.95	46.5%
Terpolymer+HFP10BTO	228	-16%	8.49	27.2%
Terpolymer+HFP20BTO	190	-30%	9.34	19.1%

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## 508 5. Conclusions

509 This paper proposed a simple and straightforward technique for elaboration of polymeric film capacitors. The alternative  
510 fabrication process involves in realization of bilayer film capacitors via solution-casting (or doctor-blading), a versatile and

511 costless deposition technique which, together with the right solvent choice, allows to finely tune the thickness of each deposited  
512 layers. The novel architecture consists in adding a thin barrier layer on the top of a main dielectric polymer in order to  
513 substantially lower the conduction losses. The well-known relaxor-ferroelectric PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer with  
514 exceptional dielectric properties was chosen as the main dielectric layer, whereas the highly polar PVDF-HFP copolymer was  
515 dedicated as the barrier layer. This new capacitor design allowed us to achieve high-performance bilayer material with boosted  
516 energy-storage efficiency up to almost 50% as opposed to the traditional single-layer PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer. Also,  
517 the implemented thin barrier layer effectively prevented around 70% electric conduction losses, thus giving rise to enhanced  
518 dielectric strength in addition to enhancing the lifetime of electronic devices. Finally, the barrier layer contributed to the  
519 extinction of ferroelectric losses (approximately 90%) inherent in the relaxor-ferroelectric PVDF-TrFE-CTFE terpolymer,  
520 making it possible to overcome the main technological challenges, such as high leakage current and breakdown electric field,  
521 found in most organic materials.

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