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► **To cite this version:**

Christopher Choi, Kevin Robert, Grace Whang, Pascal Roussel, Christophe Lethien, et al.. Photopatternable hydroxide ion electrolyte for solid-state micro-supercapacitors. *Joule*, 2021, 5 (9), pp.2466-2478. 10.1016/j.joule.2021.07.003 . hal-03501780

HAL Id: hal-03501780

<https://hal.science/hal-03501780v1>

Submitted on 22 Apr 2022

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1 **Photopatternable hydroxide ion electrolyte for solid-state**
2 **micro-supercapacitors**

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23 ***Keywords***

24 Solid electrolytes, hydroxide-ion electrolytes, photopatternable electrolytes, on-chip energy storage, 20
25 micro-supercapacitors

26

27 ***Summary***

28 Electrochemical energy storage (EES) devices that provide high power and energy for micropower systems 24
29 are considered to be essential for developing micro/nano electronics, such as nanorobotics, environmental 25
30 sensors, and connected smart electronics. One promising research direction in this field has been to develop 26

on-chip EES whose length scales integrate with those of miniaturized electronic devices. In the work 27 described here, we provide the first report of a hydroxide ion conducting solid electrolyte which can be 28 patterned using standard lithography. By combining a negative photoresist with a polymerizable ionic liquid, 29 we obtain a thermally and dimensionally stable, hydroxide ion conducting solid electrolyte with a 30 conductivity of 10 mS cm^{-1} . Patterning the solid electrolyte directly on interdigitated vanadium nitride (VN) 31 electrodes enables a scalable fabrication approach for producing high resolution, solid-state VN micro32 supercapacitors (MSC) in both single and multiple devices. Individual solid-state MSC devices exhibit 33 better areal energy and power densities compared to previously reported solid-state MSC systems while 34 tandem VN MSC devices demonstrated the ability to increase the cell working voltage and total current 35 output. These results effectively extend the field of on-chip micro-supercapacitors into the important 36 direction of integrated high-energy and high-power solid-state EES devices for powering IoT technology.

36 *Introduction*

37 Advances in electrochemical energy storage (EES) technology have changed the landscape of the portable
38 electronics industry and the electric vehicle market in the past decade and are on the same track for enabling
39 the ‘Internet of Things’ (IoT).¹ A robust, high-energy and high-power micropower system is a key
40 technology for the future development of micro/nano electronics, such as nanorobotics,
41 microelectromechanical systems (MEMS), environmental sensors, and connected smart electronics.^{2,3}
42 However, the power sources for these devices often become the limitation in achieving the small formfactor
43 required by miniaturized electronics because energy-storage components scale down poorly in size. It is
44 well known that miniaturization of electrochemical energy storage (EES) system devices such as batteries
45 and capacitors have lagged far behind Moore’s Law and that improvements of only about 10%/year have
46 been achieved.⁴ A brief overview of miniaturized EES that use various fabrication methods is presented in
47 the SI and summarized in Table S1. Of particular interest for the current research is the development of
48 integrated on-chip EES to power miniaturized electronic devices. Such a technology holds significant
49 promise towards enabling the IoT and further enhancing the distribution and utilization of sustainable
50 energy. To achieve this goal, however, there needs to be an appropriate chemistry where EES components,
51 i.e. the anode, cathode, and solid electrolyte, can be formed and defined spatially through the very
52 techniques that are utilized in achieving high-resolution patterns in the semiconductor industry.^{5,6}

53 In recent years, there have been substantial efforts at fabricating EES devices using semiconductor
54 processing fabrication methods. This research includes on-chip micro-supercapacitors (MSC)^{7–10} and
55 multi-dimensional batteries.^{5,11–13} Some devices have demonstrated areal energy densities ($> 1 \text{ mWh cm}^{-2}$)
56 or power densities ($> 5 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$) that are comparable to those of bulk-scale EES systems. However, these
57 micropower sources use liquid electrolytes which are not compatible with on-chip integration because of
58 the inability to spatially confine a liquid. There is, therefore, a critical need to develop solid electrolyte
59 materials which would enable the fabrication of micropower sources using semiconductor processing
60 methods. Typical solid electrolytes for miniaturized MSC devices consist of an ionic salt solvated in
61 polymeric or inorganic solid host materials. The most popular solid electrolytes being explored for
62 supercapacitors use aqueous electrolytes embedded in polymer hydrogels such as poly(vinyl alcohol)
63 (PVA), poly(ethylene oxide) (PEO), and poly(acrylic acid) (PAA).^{14–17} A representative system is KOH in
64 PVA, which exhibits an ionic conductivity exceeding $10^{-2} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ at room temperature. Ionogel
65 electrolytes, based on the incorporation of an ionic liquid such as 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium
66 bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide [EMIM][TFSI] encapsulated in SiO_2 or polyvinylidene fluoride,
67 constitutes another class of solid electrolyte that is used in supercapacitors.¹⁸ This nonaqueous solid
68 electrolyte exhibits an electrochemical window up to 2.5 V in MSCs, although its ionic conductivity at
69 ambient temperatures (10^{-3} to $10^{-4} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$) is lower than aqueous systems due to slow diffusivity of the
70 bulky ions.¹⁹ Both of these systems represent gel-type electrolytes whose utilization in advanced devices
71 is restricted by several concerns including poor mechanical integrity and fabrication difficulties which
72 limit their integration with high resolution devices.^{20,21}

73
74 In this paper, we describe the development of a hydroxide-conducting photopatternable solid electrolyte
75 that possesses a high room temperature ionic conductivity of 10 mS cm^{-1} along with excellent thermal
76 stability and mechanical integrity. This material represents one of the very few photopatternable solid
77 electrolytes reported to date and, to the best of our knowledge, is the first one to exhibit hydroxide ion
78 conduction. This solid-state electrolyte, and especially its ability to be photopatterned, enables interdigitated
79 MSC to be fully fabricated by semiconductor processing methods. We demonstrate the application of the
80 hydroxide-conducting photopatternable solid electrolyte by integrating it with VN interdigitated electrodes,
81 leading to the fabrication of high-resolution, high performance solid-state VN MSC devices. In addition to
82 demonstrating individual MSC devices, we characterize tandem device architectures which lead to
83 increased cell voltages and total currents beyond what is available with individual devices.

84 *Results and Discussion*

85 Our approach to creating photopatternable solid electrolyte materials involves modifying the chemistry of
86 commercial SU-8 photoresists to achieve ion transport without compromising its photopatterning
87 functionality. We previously demonstrated this general methodology enabling the development of
88 lithiumion conducting photopatterned electrolytes with sub-100 μm resolution.⁶ In the research reported
89 here, the particular challenge in achieving hydroxide-ion conduction is the hydrophobic nature of the SU-8
90 photoresist. Our synthesis strategy for preparing the photopatternable hydroxide-conducting solid
91 electrolyte involved two steps. First, the cationic polymerizable 1-Allyl-3-methylimidazolium
92 bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide [AMIM][TFSI] was grafted onto the SU-8 polymer matrix. This was
93 followed by anion exchange to incorporate hydroxides (Figure 1a, S1). The resulting electrolyte system
94 consists of the SU-8 host material that provides the photopatterning capability while hydroxides in the
95 polymerizable ionic liquid phase provide the charge-carrying hydroxide ions required for the VN redox
96 process (Figure 1b). Ionic liquid [AMIM][TFSI] grafted SU-8 polymer was successfully photopatterned
97 using a photomask with cylindrical features 100 μm in diameter (Figure S1). This signifies that the
98 photopatterned solid electrolyte material can be paired with any miniaturized EES systems that are 10 x 10
99 μm^2 in size. The photopatterned electrolyte was further characterized using energy-dispersive X-ray
100 spectroscopy (EDS). The presence of ionic liquid constituents (sulfur and fluorine) in the photopatterned
101 structure confirms that the photopatternable polymer matrix encapsulates the ionic liquid (Figure S1b).
102 After the anion exchange process with hydroxides, only trace amounts of fluorine and sulfur were detected
103 (Figure S1c).

104 The lithography-assisted crosslinking between polymerizable cations and SU-8 matrix was verified by
105 analyzing Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra. The disappearance of the vinyl group at 1648 cm^{-1}
106 (stretching vibration of C=C) upon polymerization indicates that vinyl groups are participating in the
107 photopolymerization process (Figure S2a). The grafting of polymerizable ionic liquids was further
108 confirmed by evaluating the solubility of the ionic liquid phase using an IL miscible solvent (i.e. acetone or
109 ethanol). In general, for a given ionogel system, ionic liquids contained in the host network are readily
110 soluble in certain solvent media.^{18,21} However, it is evident in the infrared spectra in Figure S2b that
111 polymerizable cations in the [AMIM][TFSI] ionic liquid are covalently bonded to the SU-8 matrix and are
112 no longer soluble. Once grafting of the cation was confirmed, the mobile TFSI⁻ anions were exchanged with
113 OH⁻ in 1M KOH (aq.). The approximate concentration of hydroxide anions in [AMIM][OH]/SU-8
114 electrolyte is calculated to be 1.8M based on the total volume of the electrolyte with the assumption that
115 TFSI⁻ anions are fully substituted. The anion exchange process in the ionic liquid grafted SU-8 electrolyte
116 was assessed by observing changes in the characteristic peaks (Figure 2a) ascribed to TFSI⁻ anion (Table
117 S2) and OH⁻ anion (3200-3400 cm^{-1}). It is also clear that the IR absorbance bands assigned to the
118 imidazolium cation (752, 1432, 1464 cm^{-1}) are still present after the TFSI⁻ anions are exchanged.

119 We validated the mobility of OH⁻ transport in the photopatternable [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 material by using it
120 as a solid electrolyte which leads to charge storage in NiCo₂O₄. This transition metal oxide is well known
121 for undergoing redox reactions with hydroxide anions through the following mechanisms^{23,24}:



124 In this experiment, a 10 μm film of the [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 solid electrolyte was coated and polymerized
125 on the NiCo₂O₄ electrode. The CV curves for this system were compared to those for the same NiCo₂O₄
126 material in 1M KOH (Figure S3). The similarity in redox potential, peak current response, and observed
127 gravimetric capacities (89 vs 92 mAh g⁻¹ at 10 mV s⁻¹) for NiCo₂O₄ samples tested in patternable solid
128 electrolyte and 1M KOH control liquid electrolyte, confirms that hydroxide ion transport occurs in the

129 patternable electrolyte. This observation was consistent over a range of sweep rates (1, 2, 5, 10 mV s⁻¹),
130 suggesting that the [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 not only facilitates OH⁻ transport but also provides a coherent
131 electrode/electrolyte interface. These attributes are among the most vital electrochemical features for solid
132 electrolytes.

133 The thermal stability of the electrolyte was determined using thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) as shown
134 in Figure 2b. In view of possible heating effects associated with high power operation, thermal stability of
135 the electrolyte can be a potential concern. The photopatterned electrolyte is quite stable as it showed no
136 appreciable weight loss to temperatures above 300 °C in the TG profile. In contrast, the unmodified SU-8
137 photoresist begins to undergo thermal decomposition below 200 °C (Figure S4a). One other feature of the
138 solid-like behavior of [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 is that there is only a nominal change in the mechanical integrity
139 after heat treatment (Figure S4b). The noticeable increase in thermal stability is attributed to the grafting of
140 the thermally stable [AMIM]-based ionic liquid with the SU-8 matrix. Overall, the results showed excellent
141 thermal stability with about 5 % weight loss by 320 °C.

142 The mechanical properties of the patternable solid electrolyte films were evaluated using nanoindentation
143 measurements (Figure 2c). The mechanical integrity of the solid electrolyte is important for maintaining
144 good contact with the electrodes and preventing electrical shorts. Prior to the ionic liquid grafting, the SU8
145 film demonstrates a high elastic modulus of 5.1 GPa. Upon incorporation of the polymerized ionic liquid
146 phase, the elastic modulus value was reduced to 230 MPa. Nonetheless, the [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 ionogel
147 electrolyte is far more rigid and dimensionally stable than that of the PVA/KOH gel electrolyte (3.75 MPa)
148 and other gel electrolytes including PAA/KOH and polyacrylamide(PAM)/KOH.²⁵⁻²⁷ To put this into
149 perspective, the elastic modulus of 230 MPa (compressive) exceeds the 100 MPa elastic modulus
150 requirement (tensile) identified for commercial Li-ion battery separators to possess sufficient mechanical
151 integrity during battery manufacturing.^{28,29} It is also important to reiterate that none of these other
152 electrolytes have demonstrated photopatterning and thus, it is not possible to use these electrolytes to
153 achieve the high spatial resolution that is required for on-chip integration.

154 One of the most favorable hydroxide-redox electrode materials for MSCs is VN. The material possesses
155 high electronic conductivity (1.6 x 10⁴ S cm⁻¹) with a high rate surface redox electrochemical response
156 (Figure S5).³² The preparation strategies and electrochemical characterization of interdigitated VN MSCs
157 have been reported recently.³³ These MSC devices, however, were based on using a KOH aqueous
158 electrolyte which is not compatible with on-chip integration because of the inability to spatially confine a
159 liquid. The high-resolution photopatterning capability of [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 combined with interdigitated
160 VN devices enables the integration of a solid-state MSC at the point-of-load and leads to in-series and/or
161 in-parallel device configurations in a defined area.

162 The high electronic conductivity of the VN film allows it to be used as a blocking electrode in characterizing
163 the impedance of the [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 ionogel electrolyte. Two- and three-electrode cells were used to
164 compare the impedance of the ionogel electrolyte with that of 1M KOH. For the former, a 10 μm film of
165 the ionogel electrolyte was patterned directly on VN electrodes. This thickness is comparable to the
166 interlayer gap spacing distance used in the MSC interdigitated devices (*vide infra*). The Nyquist plot (Figure
167 3a, S8a) indicates that both electrolytes display a low series resistance with a low frequency capacitive tail.
168 Despite the relatively low ionic conductivity of the patternable solid electrolyte compared to that of 1M
169 KOH liquid electrolyte ($\sigma \sim 0.5 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$), the near-identical trend in impedance spectra highlights the
170 effectiveness of high-resolution spatial control that can be achieved by [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 patterning. The
171 room temperature ionic conductivity at 25 °C for the hydroxide conducting patternable solid electrolyte is
172 calculated to be 10 mS cm⁻¹ which represents a comparable or higher ionic conductivity than that of
173 previously reported hydroxide-conducting electrolytes, such as PVA/KOH, PEO/KOH, and
174 PAM/tetraethylammonium hydroxide.³⁴⁻³⁷ Although PVA/KOH is the most widely used
175 hydroxideconducting electrolyte for solid supercapacitors,^{15,17} there has been only modest improvement in

176 its electrochemical and physical properties since the adoption of PVA hydrogel chemistry. Additionally,
177 the ionic conductivity of the [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 ionogel electrolyte is as much as 5 times higher than
178 another polymer based ionogel, [EMIM][TFSI]/PVDF, which was incorporated in 3D MSCs with MnO₂
179 pseudocapacitive electrodes.^{19,38} It is also interesting to note that the room temperature conductivity value
180 for the hydroxide ion conducting electrolyte is comparable to that of conventional nonaqueous liquid
181 electrolytes based on quaternary ammonium salts and lithium-ion compounds.³⁹ Figure 3b compares the
182 Bode plots for the [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 solid electrolyte and the 1M KOH. The characteristic time constants
183 for the two samples were about 8.0 s for the liquid electrolyte and 12.6 s for the patterned ionogel electrolyte,
184 signifying that shorter charge/discharge times may lead to a kinetically limited electrochemical response.
185 Nonetheless, the fact that it is possible to fabricate high spatial resolution patterns of this solid electrolyte
186 with only a small difference in transient response time compared to standard 1M KOH, is very impressive.

187 A series of experiments was carried out in which the photopatternable [AMIM][TFSI]/SU-8 served as the
188 electrolyte for sputtered VN films, thus enabling the electrochemical properties to be determined. The
189 asprepared VN films exhibit strong preferential crystalline orientation in the (111) direction (Figure S6a)
190 and faceted growth (Figure S6b,c). The intercolumnar porosity from this faceted morphology enables
191 electrolytes in their liquid phase to penetrate throughout the structure (Figure S6d,e, S7). After the
192 [AMIM][TFSI]/SU-8 ionogel electrolyte was patterned directly on top of the planar VN and polymerized,
193 the uniform penetration of the electrolyte was verified by an EDS elemental mapping image (Figure S7),
194 showing that fluorine and sulfur signals originating from the ionic liquids are present throughout the VN
195 layer. The cross-sectional SEM image in Figure S6c indicates that the as-prepared VN electrode thickness
196 was about 5 μm. The surface composition of the VN film, probed by the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy
197 (XPS) analysis (Figure S6f), is consistent with other VN systems reported in the literature.^{32,33}

198 The charge storage properties of sputtered VN films using the photopatternable solid electrolyte were
199 evaluated in both planar and interdigitated configurations. Linear sweep voltammetry experiments
200 displayed no evidence of electrolyte decomposition between -1.2 and 0.2 V (vs. Hg/HgO) for the
201 photopatternable [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 electrolyte (Figure S4c). The cyclic voltammogram (CV) responses
202 of solid electrolyte patterned VN exhibits the ideal quasi-rectangular capacitive response between 5-20 mV
203 s⁻¹ sweep rates over 0.6 V window (Figure 3c). As discussed in previous studies, this pseudocapacitive
204 charge storage behavior arises from redox properties associated with the reduction and oxidation of
205 vanadium between V³⁺ and V⁴⁺ occurring at the surface or near surface of the VN.³³ Because the electrolyte
206 penetrates the intercolumnar pore network of VN prior to polymerization, the resulting solid electrolyte is
207 in contact with the redox active VN material throughout the entire film and not just at the surface of the
208 film. At a sweep rate of 5 mV s⁻¹, the VN coated with the solid-state electrolyte achieves an areal capacitance
209 of about 0.43 F cm⁻² which corresponds to 860 F cm⁻³ based on the electrode volume. This areal capacitance
210 is comparable to those reported for CDC films and Ti₃C₂T_x electrodes tested in liquid electrolyte (1M
211 H₂SO₄).^{7,40} That is, the solid-state VN electrode exhibited an areal capacitance that exceeds or is on par with
212 high performance supercapacitor materials tested in liquid electrolytes. Moreover, up to a sweep rate of 50
213 mV s⁻¹, the areal capacitance for VN electrodes with either KOH or solid-state electrolytes are comparable
214 (Figure 3d). Above this sweep rate, the capacitive signature starts to deviate from the ideal shape for both
215 the liquid and solid electrolytes (Figure 3c and S8b). This response can be associated with the fact that the
216 sweep rate of 50 mV s⁻¹ corresponds to a 12s charge / discharge cycle time, which matches the characteristic
217 time constant obtained from the Bode plot for the solid electrolyte. The VN electrode paired with the
218 [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 patternable electrolyte also demonstrates excellent long-term cyclability, retaining
219 about 80% of the initial capacitance at 10 mA cm⁻² by the 10,000th cycle (Figure 3e).

220 VN interdigitated microdevices were fabricated at the wafer-level as described in the SI (Figure S9a). Figure
221 S9b and Table S3 illustrate the important device parameters for interdigitated cells and fabrication
222 approaches to achieve solid-state microdevices. CV profiles (Figure 4c) of a solid-state interdigitated MSC

223 showed well-defined capacitive behavior over a wide range of scan rates (20 to 200 mV s⁻¹). The areal
224 capacitance of the cell was calculated to be almost 250 mF cm⁻² at a scan rate of 20 mV s⁻¹ and an individual
225 solid-state MSC device was capable of delivering about 10 μWh cm⁻² in the range of 1-10 mW cm⁻². This
226 level of areal capacitance for the solid-state VN MSC is comparable to other interdigitated MSCs tested in
227 liquid electrolytes, including both carbon-based⁷ and pseudocapacitive systems (Table S4).^{9,41-43} The
228 capacitive behavior of this solid-state microdevice was further studied through galvanostatic measurements
229 at current densities from 2 to 50 mA cm⁻² (Figure 4d). The galvanostatic profiles at all current densities
230 demonstrated linear behavior, which is a defining feature of a pseudocapacitive material.⁴⁴ Figure 4h shows
231 a Ragone plot comparing the performance of solid-state VN MSC to other solid-state MSC devices paired
232 with solid electrolytes such as PVA based hydrogels and silica ionogels.^{19,45-48} The results show that VN
233 MSC with the [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 electrolyte achieves better performance in terms of areal energy and
234 power densities compared to previously reported solid-state MSC systems. Moreover, it is important to
235 emphasize that all components of the solid-state VN MSC are defined spatially via lithography, thus
236 enabling miniaturized arrays to be formed in a tiny form factor.

237 To demonstrate the advantages of semiconductor-based processing, we tested ‘tandem’ MSC microdevices.
238 These interdigitated structures are connected in series and/or parallel configurations using VN layers
239 (without any external wires or deposition of metals) to increase the working cell voltage and/or total current
240 response of an integrated microdevice (Figure 4 e-g). The ability to integrate multiple MSCs in a small
241 footprint area is achieved because spatial control of the photopatternable hydroxide-conducting solid
242 electrolyte effectively prevents leakage current between individual MSC devices. The tandem microdevice
243 in a series configuration demonstrated reliable cycling over a 1.2 V window, twice the voltage of a single
244 MSC device. Accordingly, the total capacitance for the tandem device increased to over 11 mF. As expected,
245 a parallel configuration provided twice the current response compared to a single MSC device. Capacitive
246 behavior was maintained throughout a 0.6 V window in both cyclic voltammetry and galvanostatic
247 experiments, producing a total current above 1 mA. Unfortunately, the circuit layout for the microfabricated
248 wafer did not allow us to evaluate more than four devices in either parallel or series configuration.
249 Nonetheless, these electrochemical measurements made on tandem VN-MSC microdevices confirm that
250 the cell voltage range and total current output of MSC devices can be tailored easily by modifying the device
251 configurations. Considering that all components in this solid-state tandem energy storage system are fully
252 processed with semiconductor-based fabrication techniques, the approach shown here provides the basis for
253 achieving miniaturized energy-storage systems that can be incorporated with densely packed integrated
254 circuits without compromising their electrochemical properties.

255 It is interesting to consider the prospect of using miniaturized EES systems to power IoT devices. In
256 particular, to power a sensor node platform (MICA2 and IMote2), as an example, an average power
257 consumption for these sensor nodes are 3 and 12 mW with the peak power requirement of 60 and 250 mW,
258 respectively.⁴⁹ It becomes clear that a single 4 mm² solid VN MSC device that is capable of delivering 110
259 mW cm⁻² is still far below the power requirements for commercial sensor nodes, especially with regard to
260 the limited energy density it provides (~ 10 μWh cm⁻²). However, the demonstrated tandem approach to
261 MSCs suggests a viable solution as the footprint area of these sensor nodes is around 18 cm². Thus,
262 fabricating MSCs at wafer-scale offers the prospect of providing the energy and power requirements for
263 this basic IoT component. To be sure, there are still a number of challenges that need to be addressed in
264 order to realize this micropower system, but the basic elements of using a single VN material to be both
265 redox-active electrodes and interconnects, coupled with the photopatternable, hydroxide ion conducting
266 solid electrolyte provide the basis for enhancing micropower technology.

267

268 **Conclusion**

269 Among the few hydroxide ion conducting solid electrolytes reported to date, none offer the combination of
270 high room temperature ionic conductivity (10 mS cm^{-1}), excellent thermal stability, mechanical integrity,
271 and the photopatterning capability of the [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 solid electrolyte presented here. The ion
272 transport properties of this electrolyte and ability to carry out charge transfer at the electrolyte/electrode
273 interface were validated using hydroxide-based redox-active NiCo_2O_4 and VN. For device-level
274 demonstration, [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 hydroxide-conducting solid electrolyte was directly patterned onto VN
275 MSC electrodes to create both individual and tandem devices. The performance of individual MSC devices
276 of nearly 250 mF cm^{-2} at 20 mV s^{-1} sweep rate goes beyond what has been reported for interdigitated MSC
277 devices with liquid electrolytes and underscores the significance of this solid electrolyte. Electrochemical
278 testing of tandem micro-supercapacitor devices has shown that the potential range and total current output
279 of micro-supercapacitor devices can be tailored by modifying the device arrangements in appropriate series
280 or parallel configurations. Finally, the semiconductor processing methods demonstrated here hold promise
281 for achieving the power and energy density demands for IoT technology.

282

283

284 ***Experimental Procedures***

285 *Resource availability*

286 *Lead contact:* Further information and requests for resources and materials should be directed to and will
287 be fulfilled by the lead contact, Bruce Dunn (bdunn@ucla.edu).

288 *Materials availability:* This study did not generate new unique materials.

289 *Data and Code Availability:* Much of the data presented in this work is available by request from the lead
290 contact. This study did not generate any code for analysis.

291 *Materials:* 1-Allyl-3H-imidazolium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide ([AMIM][TFSI], 99% purchased
292 from Solvionic), SU-8 3000 (purchased from MicroChem), KOH (purchased from Alfa-Aesar), and
293 dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, 99.9% purchased from Sigma Aldrich) were used as received.

294 *Photopatternable Hydroxide-Conducting Solid Electrolyte Preparation:* All sample preparation was carried
295 out in class 100 clean room with yellow lighting to reduce the exposure of the materials to shorter
296 wavelengths. [AMIM][TFSI] SU 8 was prepared by mixing 40 weight percent [AMIM][TFSI] and SU 8
297 prior to deposition. Films prepared for electrochemical measurements were spin coated onto flat substrates
298 (i.e. Si/SiO₂ or VN) at 500 rpm for 5 s followed by 3000 rpm for 30 s. Samples were then soft baked at 95
299 °C for 5 min for solvent removal prior to patterning. Features were patterned using a Karl Suss MA6 Contact
300 Aligner and photomask. The [AMIM][TFSI] SU 8 samples were subjected to a total of 1600 mW of UV
301 exposure at 365 nm. The films were then postexposure baked at 95 °C for 5 min to crosslink the material
302 (40% [AMIM][TFSI]/SU-8). UV exposed samples were then developed. For the anion exchange process,
303 photopatterned [AMIM][TFSI]/SU-8 electrolytes were soaked in DMSO to swell the crosslinked polymer
304 for a minimum of 1 hr. Subsequent soaking in 1M KOH replaced TFSI⁻ in the structure with OH⁻ (40%
305 [AMIM][OH]/SU-8).

306 *Physical and Chemical Characterizations:* FTIR spectroscopy was carried out using a Jasco 6100 with a 4
307 cm⁻¹ spectral resolution from 4000 to 500 cm⁻¹. The photopatternable electrolyte was prepared on IR
308 transparent polytetrafluoroethylene films for the measurement. Nanoindentation measurements were made
309 using an MTS Nano Indenter XP Instrument with a Berkovich indenter to determine the elastic modulus of
310 hydroxide-conducting SU 8 films. Samples were indented to a depth of 2 μm at 20 different locations. The
311 elastic modulus was determined using a Poisson's ratio of 0.22 for SU 8 and the Oliver and Pharr analysis.
312 Film thicknesses were measured using a Dektak 6 surface profilometer. TGA was performed using an
313 Instrument Specialists thermogravimetric analyzer tool in air at a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. Scanning
314 electron microscope (SEM) was performed using an FEI Nova 230 Nano with attached EDS. XPS analysis
315 was carried out using a Kratos Axis Ultra DLD with a monochromatic Al K α radiation source. The charge
316 neutralizer filament was used to control charging of the sample, a 20 eV pass energy was used with a 0.05
317 eV step size, and all scans were calibrated using the C 1s peak shifted to 284.8 eV. The integrated area of
318 the peaks was found using the CasaXPS software.

319 *Synthesis of NiCo₂O₄:* NiCo₂O₄ was prepared using a one-step microwave synthesis. Nickel nitrate
320 hexahydrate (0.15 g, Sigma-Aldrich) and cobalt nitrate hexahydrate (0.18 g, Sigma-Aldrich) precursors
321 were dissolved in deionized water (5 ml), and ethylene glycol (17.5 ml) and urea (0.1 g, Sigma-Aldrich)
322 were added in this solution with stirring. The homogeneous solution was then transferred into the 30 ml
323 microwave reaction vessel and placed in a microwave synthesis system (Discover SP, CEM Corporation).
324 The sample was heated to 140 °C for 30 min. The resulting green-colored solution was centrifuged and
325 washed with deionized water and ethanol and dried in vacuum for 24 h. The samples were then fully
326 oxidized by annealing the as-prepared samples at 300 °C for 1 h.

327 *Vanadium Nitride Electrode Preparation:* To prevent electrical short-circuits and chemical etching from
328 basic electrolytes, a 500 nm-thick Si₃N₄ layer was deposited by low pressure chemical vapor deposition at
329 800 °C to protect the Si wafer. The VN thin films were then deposited by reactive magnetron sputtering
330 using a 4-inch target of pure metallic vanadium in an Alliance Concept CT-200 reactor. Prior to
331 deposition, the pressure of the chamber was kept below 10⁻⁶ mbar and the target-substrate was fixed at 6
332 cm. The deposition parameters were fixed at 100°C for the temperature, 25 and 5 sccm for the argon and
333 nitrogen flow rates, 7.5 x 10⁻³ mbar for the deposition pressure, and 2 W.cm⁻² for the power density. The
334 deposition time was tuned to achieve 5µm-thick VN thick films. The typical loading of the VN electrode
335 film was 2.5 mg cm⁻².

336 *Fabrication of the symmetric interdigitated micro-supercapacitor (MSC):* After the deposition of the Si₃N₄
337 (500 nm) and the VN (5 µm) thin films, photoresist was spin-coated to form the resist mask. The VN was
338 etched using Inductively Coupled Plasma Reactive Ion Etching (ICP RIE) process using a mixture of
339 chlorine/argon gases (Cl₂ / Ar). To avoid short-circuits between the interdigitated VN electrodes, the etching
340 was stopped once the top 10 nm of the Si₃N₄ layer was etched. Due to this four-step process, 40 MSCs can
341 be fabricated on a single 3-inch silicon wafer (7.5 cm diameter / thickness = 0.385 mm).

342 *Electrochemical Characterization:* All electrochemical measurements were using a Bio Logic VMP 3
343 Potentiostat. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed on a
344 VN/[AMIM][OH]SU8/VN 2-electrode cell between 1 MHz and 5 mHz using a 10 mV amplitude and 0 V
345 bias. Linear-sweep voltammetry (LSV) was used to evaluate the electrochemical stability window of the
346 [AMIM][OH]/SU-8

347 using a solid electrolyte coated glassy carbon as a working electrode. LSV was conducted from the open
348 circuit voltage (OCV) to 0.7 V (vs. Hg/HgO) and from OCV to -1.4 V at a sweep rate of 10 mV s⁻¹. For
349 the CV and galvanostatic cycling measurements, the planar VN film (deposited directed on a Si/Si₃N₄ wafer)
350 was tested in 1M KOH using a conventional 3-electrode set-up. A Hg/HgO reference electrode and a Pt foil
351 were used as a reference electrode and counter electrode, respectively. For the solid-state samples, 10 µm
352 thick film of the photopatternable electrolyte was directly patterned onto the VN and tested using the same
353 cell configuration. For the electrochemical testing of interdigitated devices, the 2-electrode measurement
354 was carried out using a standard probe station with the sample stationed on an air table.

355

356 *Acknowledgements*

357 The research was supported by the Office of Naval Research (N00014-19-1-2113). This project has received
358 financial support from the CNRS through the MITI interdisciplinary programs. The authors also want to
359 thank the ANR STORE-EX and the French network on electrochemical energy storage (RS2E) for the
360 financial support. The French RENATECH network is greatly acknowledged for the use of microfabrication
361 facilities.

362

363 *Author contributions*

364 Conceptualization, C.C., C.L., and B.D.; Methodology, C.C., K.R., C.L., and B.D.; Investigation, C.C.,
365 K.R., G.W., and P.R.; Writing – Original Draft, C.C. and B.D.; Writing – Review & Editing, C.C., K.R.,
366 G.W., C.L., and B.D.; Funding Acquisition, C.L. and B.D.; Supervision, C.L. and B.D.

367

368 *Declaration of interests*

369 The authors declare no competing interests.

370

371

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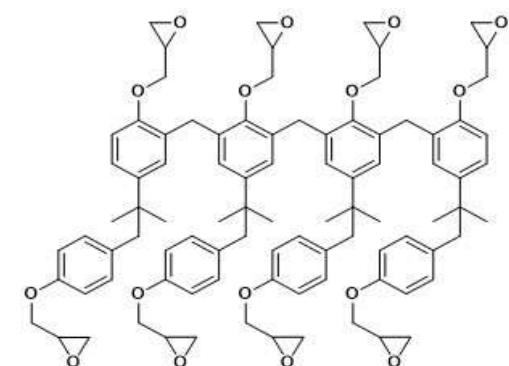
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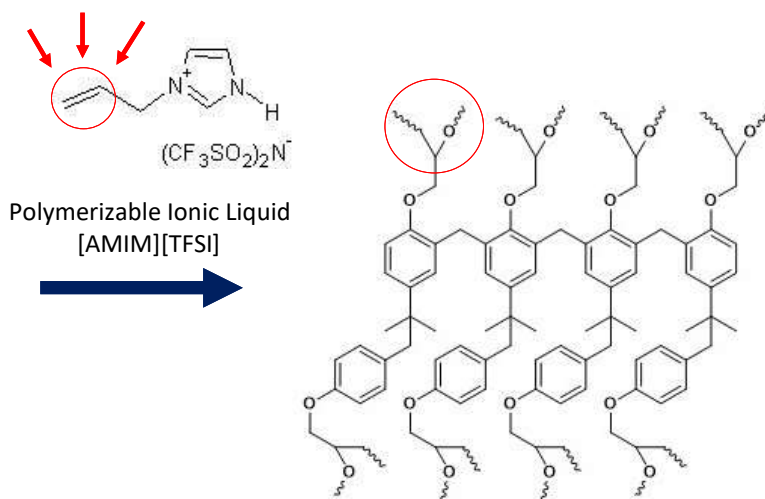
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Figure 1



(a)



(b)

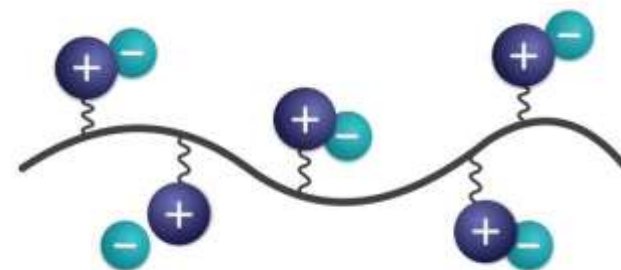


Figure 2

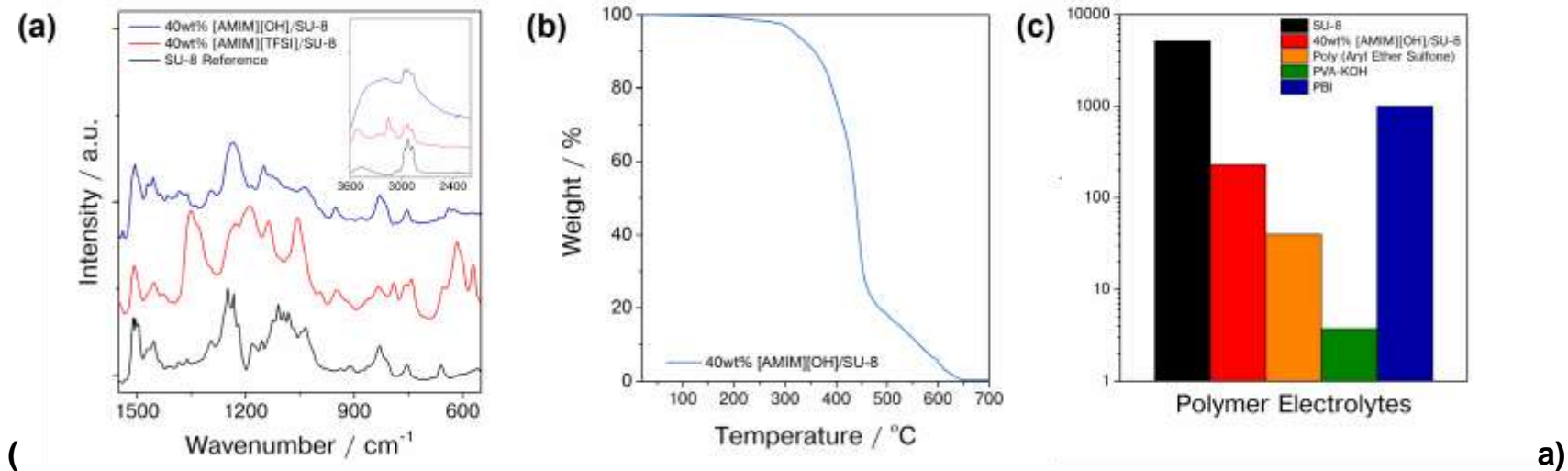
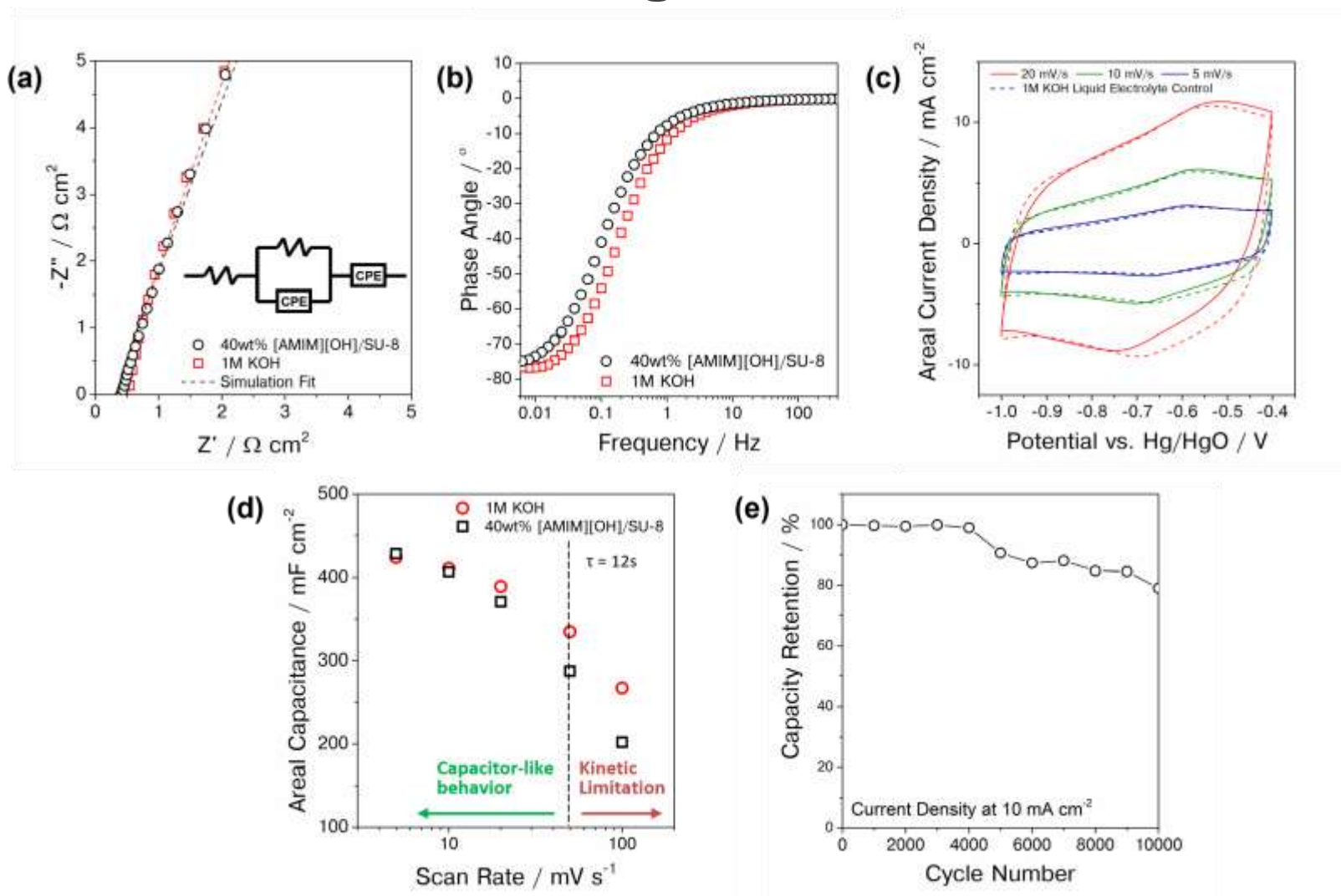


Figure 3



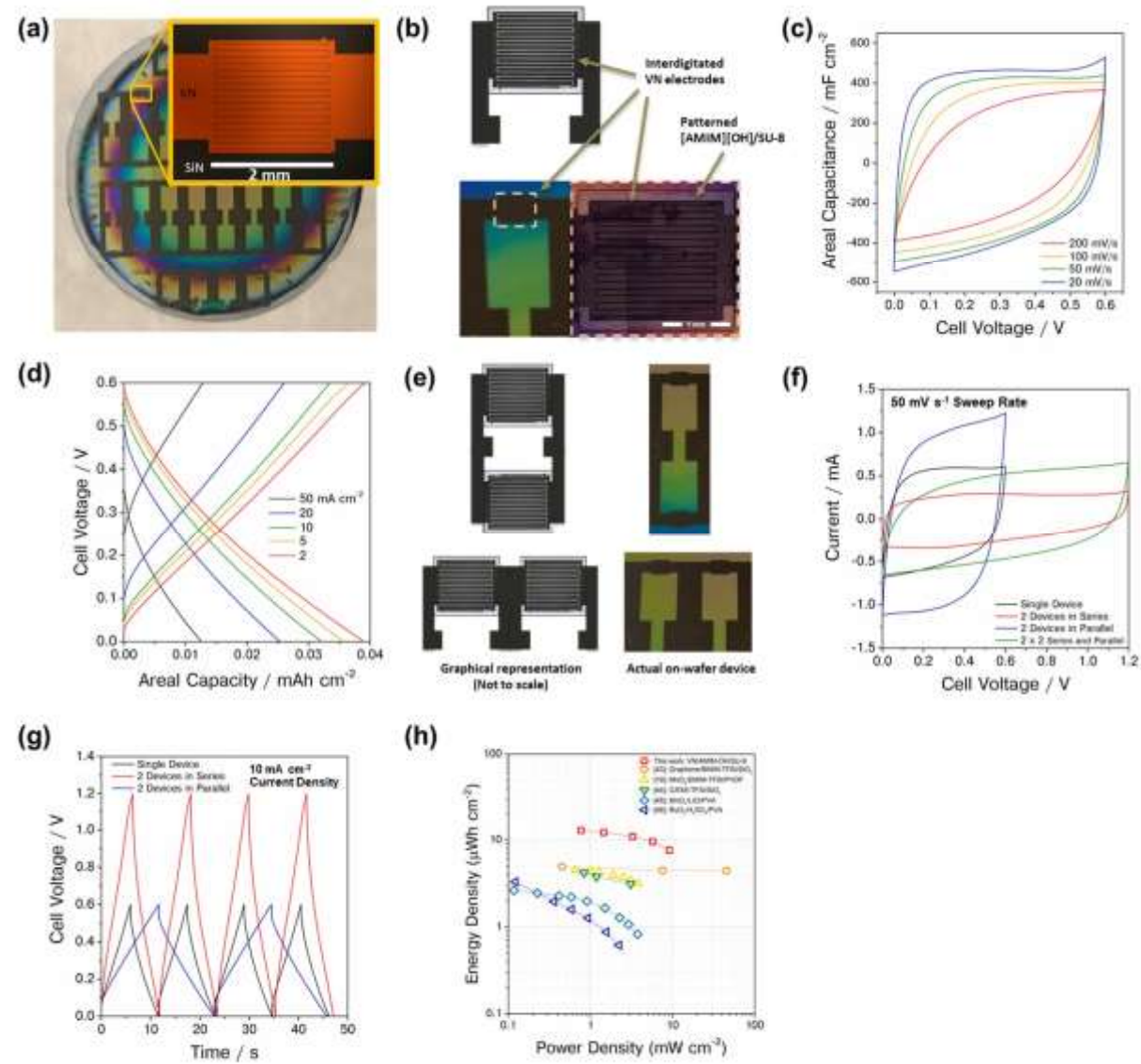


Figure 4

Figure Captions:

Figure 1. (a) The chemical structure of SU-8 photoresist before and after the UV-induced polymerization. The polymerizable ionic liquid [AMIM][TFSI] is in-situ grafted during this process. (b) Schematic diagram of polymerized ionic liquids with charge-carrying mobile anions.²²

Figure 2. (a) FT-IR of the photopatterned electrolytes before (red) and after (blue) the hydroxide anion exchange. Once the anions exchanged, the infrared absorbance bands of TFSI anions disappeared as those of OH⁻ emerged. It should be noted that the characteristic peaks of polymerized cations are still present after this process (Table S2). (b) TGA of ionic liquid modified SU-8. The [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 patternable electrolyte exhibits excellent thermal stability up to 320 °C in air. (c) Mechanical properties of [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 films measured by nanoindentation compared with other hydroxide conducting solid electrolytes.^{25,30,31} The elastic modulus of [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 was 230 MPa.

Figure 3. (a) Impedance spectra of [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 and 1M KOH. The ionic conductivity value determined for the patterned electrolyte was 10 mS cm⁻¹. (b) Bode plot for the two electrolyte systems. The characteristic time constants determined from the transition frequency for two samples were about 8 s for the liquid electrolyte control and 12.6 s for the patterned electrolyte. (c) CV profile of the [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 solid electrolyte patterned VN electrode at sweep rates of 5 to 20 mV s⁻¹. The dashed lines of the same color represent the CV results from the 1M KOH liquid electrolyte which serves as a control. (d) Comparison of the areal capacitance vs. sweep rate for planar VN electrodes using 1M KOH and [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 patternable electrolytes. At scan rates below 50 mV s⁻¹, the areal capacitance values are nearly identical. (e) Long-term galvanostatic cycling of the solid electrolyte patterned VN electrode at a 10 mA cm⁻² current density.

Figure 4. (a) A photograph of wafer-scale fabricated interdigitated VN MSC devices. 40 individual interdigitated devices are fabricated per a 3" Si wafer. The solid-state device configurations for (b) a single MSC device and (e) two MSC units connected in parallel and in series. (c) Cyclic voltammetry of a symmetric solid-state MSC device at sweep rates of 20 to 200 mV s⁻¹ over 0.6 V window. (d)

Galvanostatic charge–discharge curves of a symmetric solid-state MSC device at various areal current densities. The solid-state MSC device exhibits a linear behavior at all current densities. (f) CV curves of MSC devices configured in various series and parallel arrangement. Various configurations show a capacitor-like rectangular feature, indicating an ideal capacitive behavior. (g) Galvanostatic profiles of tandem MSC devices connected in various series or parallel arrangement compared with a single MSC device. (h) Areal energy and

power densities of solid-state VN MSC compared with other highperformance solid-state MSC systems. Our solid VN MSC demonstrates the highest areal energy and power densities, delivering about $10 \mu\text{Wh cm}^{-2}$ in the range of $1\text{-}10 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$. The legend lists the active materials/ionic species/solid host material.

Figure Legends:

Figure 2. (a) 40wt% [AMIM][OH]/SU-8; 40wt% [AMIM][TFSI]/SU-8; SU-8 Reference (b) 40wt% [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 (c) SU-8; 40wt% [AMIM][OH]/SU-8; Poly (Aryl Ether Sulfone); PVA-KOH; PBI

Figure 3. (a) 40wt% [AMIM][OH]/SU-8; 1M KOH (b) 40wt% [AMIM][OH]/SU-8; 1M KOH (c) 20 mV/s; 10 mV/s; 5 mV/s; 1M KOH Liquid Electrolyte Control (d) 1M KOH; 40wt% [AMIM][OH]/SU-8

Figure 4. (c) 200 mV/s; 100 mV/s; 50 mV/s; 20 mV/s (d) 50 mA cm^{-2} ; 20; 10; 5; 2 (f) Single Device; 2 Devices in Series; 2 Devices in Parallel; 2 x 2 Series and Parallel (g) Single Device; 2 Devices in Series; 2 Devices in Parallel (h) This work: VN/AMIM-OH/SU-8; [43]: Graphene/BMIM-TFSI/SiO₂; [19]: MnO₂/EMIM-TFSI/PVDF; [44]: C/EMI-TFSI/SiO₂; [45]: MnO₂/LiCl/PVA; [46]: RuO₂/H₂SO₄/PVA

1 ***Survey of miniaturized electrochemical energy storage systems***

2 Miniaturized electrochemical energy storage (EES) systems, in general, have great design flexibility and
 3 have been manufactured by a range of fabrication techniques, leading to various device form factors with
 4 multiple functionalities without deterioration in performance.¹⁻³ Recent advances in the community have
 5 included the demonstration of novel fabrication approaches and unique battery designs, and the
 6 incorporation of solid electrolytes (Table S1).⁴⁻¹¹

7

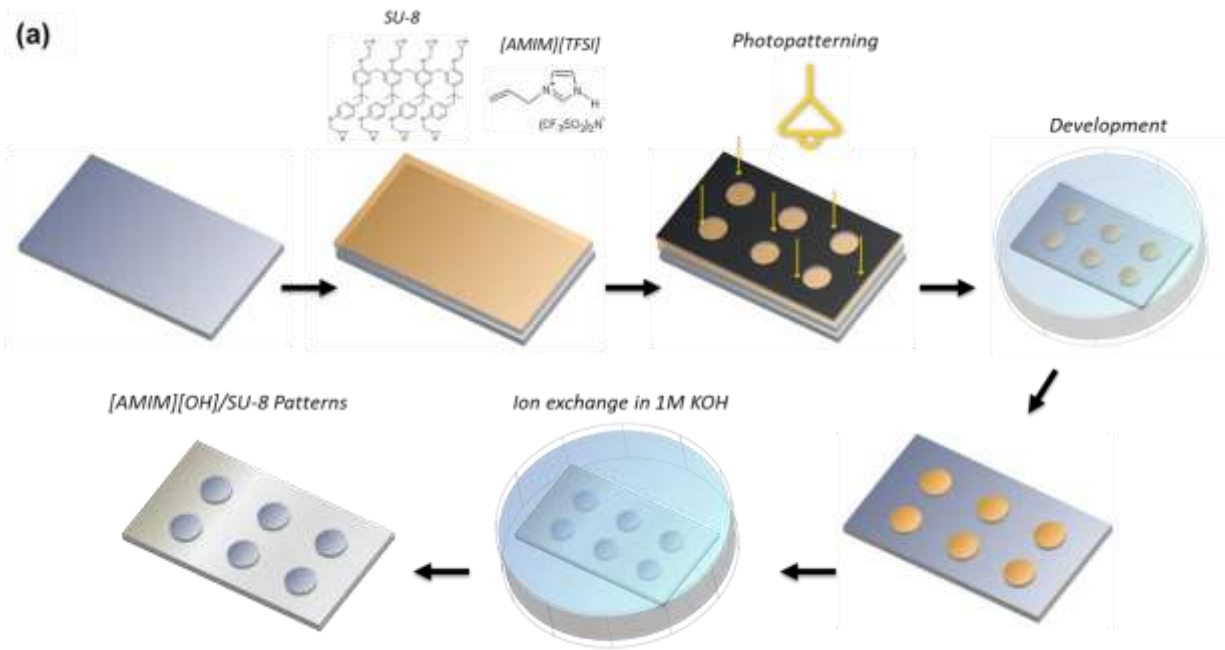
8 **Table S1. Summary of Notable Miniaturized Electrochemical Energy Storage Systems**

Classification	Materials	Electrolytes	Fabrication Approaches	Functionality	Energy Density [$\mu\text{Wh}/\text{cm}^2$] ² (Power Density in [mW/cm^2])	Ref.
Micro-Supercapacitor	RuO ₂	PVA/H ₂ SO ₄	Microfabrication	Planar design, on-chip	0.48 (50)	4
Micro-Supercapacitor	MnO ₂	0.5M Na SO ₄	Microfabrication	Planar design, on-chip	10 (20)	5
Micro-Supercapacitor	Ti ₃ C ₂ T _x	PVA/H ₂ SO ₄	3D Printing	Planar design, on-chip	54.3 (5.7)	6
Micro-Supercapacitor	Ti ₃ C ₂ T _x	PVA/H ₂ SO ₄	3D Printing	Planar design, on-chip	24.4 (0.64)	7
Stretchable Supercapacitor	Graphene	PVP/NaCl	Laser-Writing	Stretchable	0.09 (0.02)	8
3D Microbattery	LiFePO ₄ /Li metal	1M LiTFSI in DOL/DME	3D Printing	Planar design, on-chip	225.7 (0.02)	9
Coaxial Fiber-Shaped Battery	LiFePO ₄ /Li Ti O ₂	LiPF ₆ in EC/DMC in PVDF-co-HFP	3D Printing	Flexible, unique design	2596.6 (0.22)	10
Coaxial Fiber-Shaped Supercapacitor	V ₂ O ₅ /VN	PVA/KOH	3D Printing	Flexible, unique design	54.3 (0.80)	11

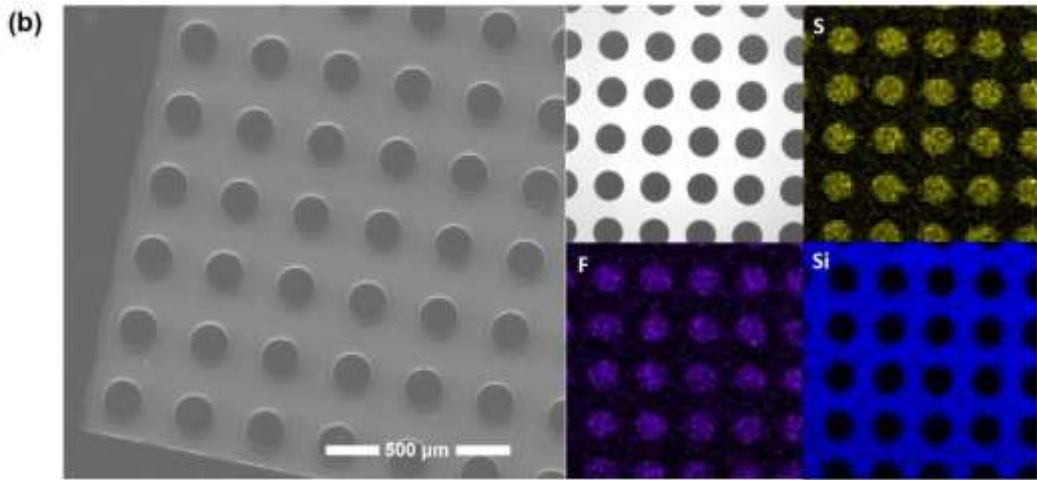
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10 ***Synthesis and properties of hydroxide conducting photopatternable solid electrolytes***

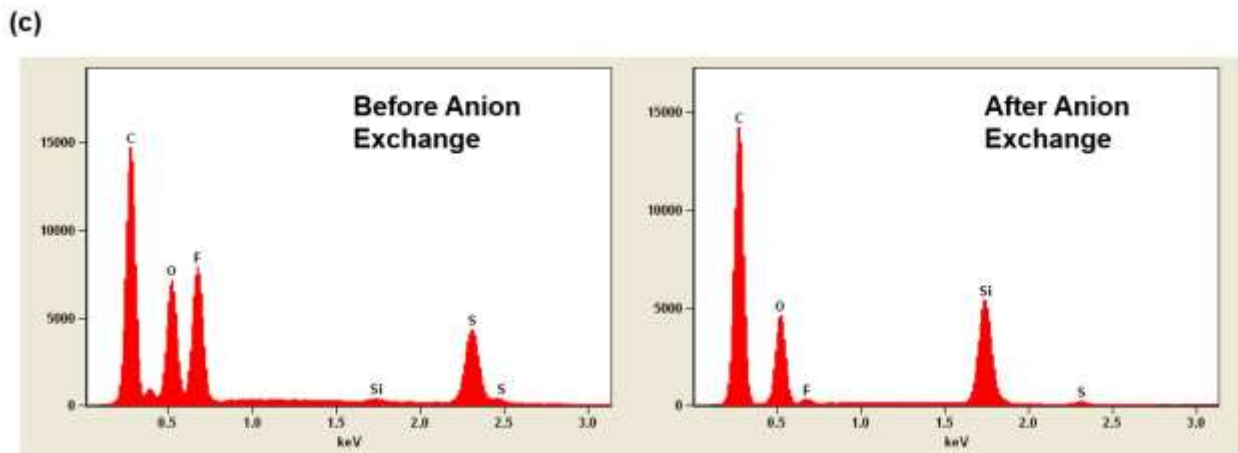
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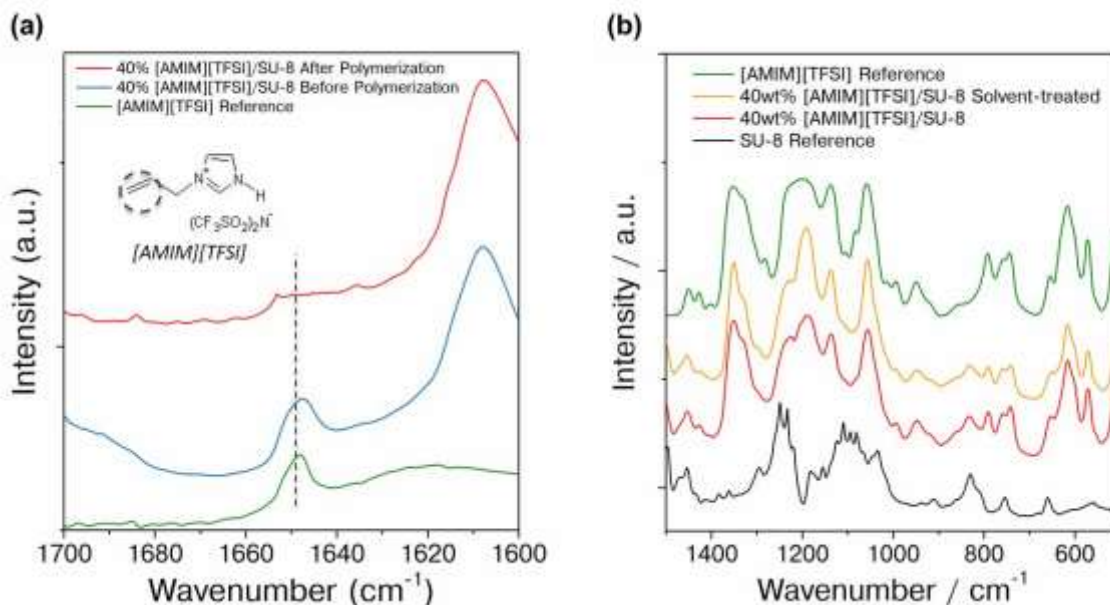


13



13 Figure S1. (a) Schematic diagram of fabricating photopatternable [AMIM][OH] solid electrolytes.
14 Epoxybased SU-8 photoresist was modified with the polymerizable ionic liquid and photopatterned using
15 conventional photolithographic techniques. TFSI⁻ anions in the photopatterns are then ion exchanged with
16 hydroxides in aqueous KOH solution. (b) SEM images of photopatterned [AMIM][TFSI]/SU-8 electrolytes.
17 Each circular feature represents 100 μm diameter cylindrical posts with 10 μm in height. EDS analysis of
18 ionic liquid modified SU-8 electrolytes show the presence of sulfur and fluorine atoms, which come only
19 from the [AMIM][TFSI], confirming the successful encapsulation of ionic liquids. (c) The EDS analysis of
20 the photopatterned electrolyte monitoring sulfur and fluorine signals of TFSI⁻ reveal that TFSI⁻ anion has
21 been successfully exchanged with hydroxides. After the anion exchange process, less than 1wt% trace
22 amount of sulfur and fluorine were detected from the EDS analysis.

23



25
 26 Figure S2. (a) FT-IR spectra of the [AMIM][TFSI] SU-8 before and after the polymerization reaction and
 27 of neat [AMIM][TFSI] as a reference. The changes in the intensity of C=C group at 1648 cm⁻¹ before and
 28 after polymerization indicate that the vinyl groups in the polymerizable ionic liquids have been fully reacted.
 29 The band at 1608 cm⁻¹ is attributed to the aromatic ring of the SU-8 that does not undergo any chemical
 30 changes during the polymerization reaction. (b) FT-IR spectra of the [AMIM][TFSI] SU-8 and reference
 31 patterns. It shows that polymerized [AMIM][TFSI] in SU-8 is covalently bonded and not soluble in solvents.

32

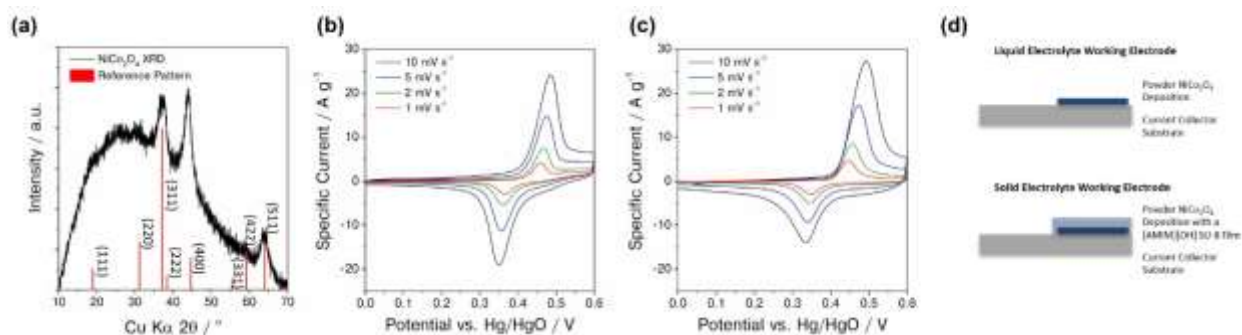
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34 Table S2. Characteristic IR absorption bands of [AMIM][TFSI] and their assignments

	Frequency (cm ⁻¹)	Dominant Vibrational assignment
Anion Assignment	569	CF ₃ antisymmetric bend
	600	SO ₂ antisymmetric bend
	611	SO ₂ antisymmetric bend
	650	SNS bend
	789	CS stretch
	1051	SNS antisymmetric stretch
	1132	SO ₂ symmetric stretch
	1182	CF ₃ antisymmetric stretch
	1331	SO ₂ antisymmetric stretch
	1348	SO ₂ antisymmetric stretch
Cation	752	Ring HCCH symmetric bend

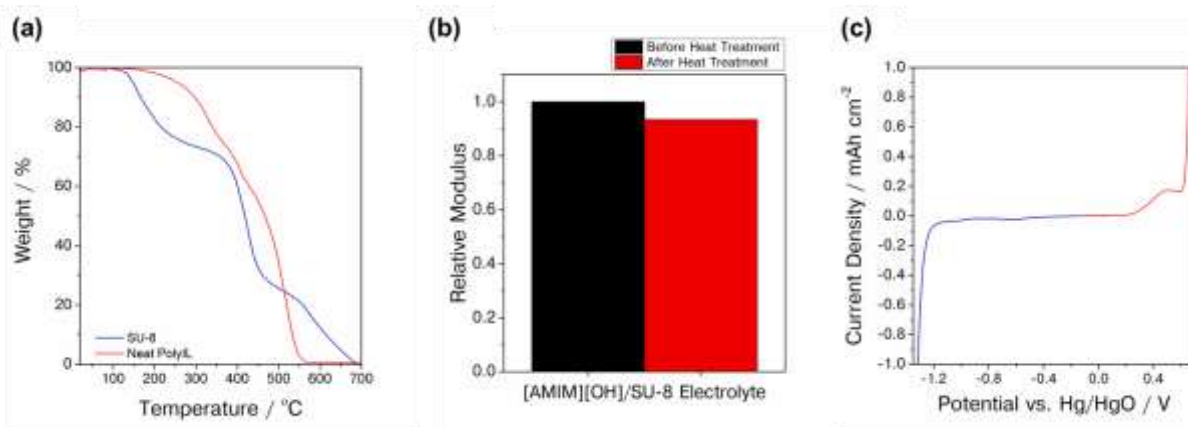
Assignment	1464	CCH HCH antisymmetric bend, CH ₃ (N)HCH symmetric bend, terminal CH ₃ HCH antisymmetric bend
	1474	Ring in-plane antisymmetric stretch, CH ₃ (N) stretch

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39 Figure S3. The nickel cobalt oxide material has been prepared by the microwave assisted synthesis. The
40 corresponding XRD (a) shows low crystallinity of the material that did not affect the electrochemistry. CV
41 curves of NiCo₂O₄ that were obtained using (b) OH⁻ conducting patternable electrolytes and (c) 1M KOH
42 control liquid electrolytes. The redox behavior is similar in the two electrolytes, confirming that there is
43 hydroxide conduction through the solid electrolyte. (d) Graphical diagram highlighting differences between
44 the sample preparation of a solid-state working electrode versus a control electrode tested in liquid
45 electrolytes.

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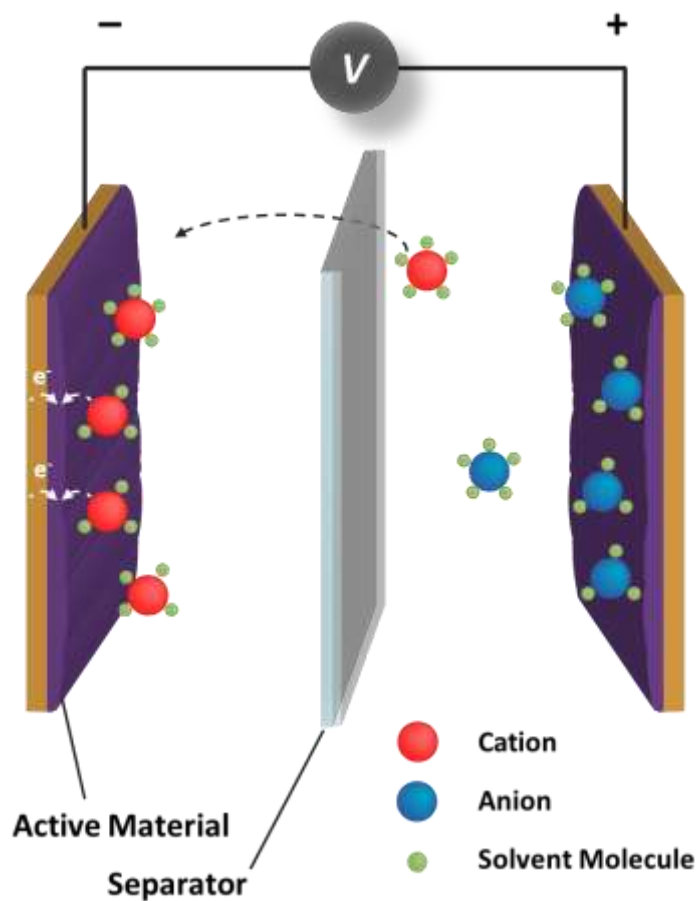


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50 Figure S4. (a) TGA profile of neat [AMIM][TFSI] ionic liquid and SU-8. The thermal stability of
51 [AMIM][OH] photopatternable electrolytes was significantly improved by incorporating thermally stable
52 [AMIM][TFSI] ionic liquids. (b) Mechanical properties of [AMIM][OH]/SU-8 films measured by
53 nanoindentation before and after heat treatment at 100°C for 12 hours. (c) Linear sweep voltammetry with
54 [AMIM][OH]SU-8 electrolytes on a glassy carbon working electrode in three-electrode experiments. The

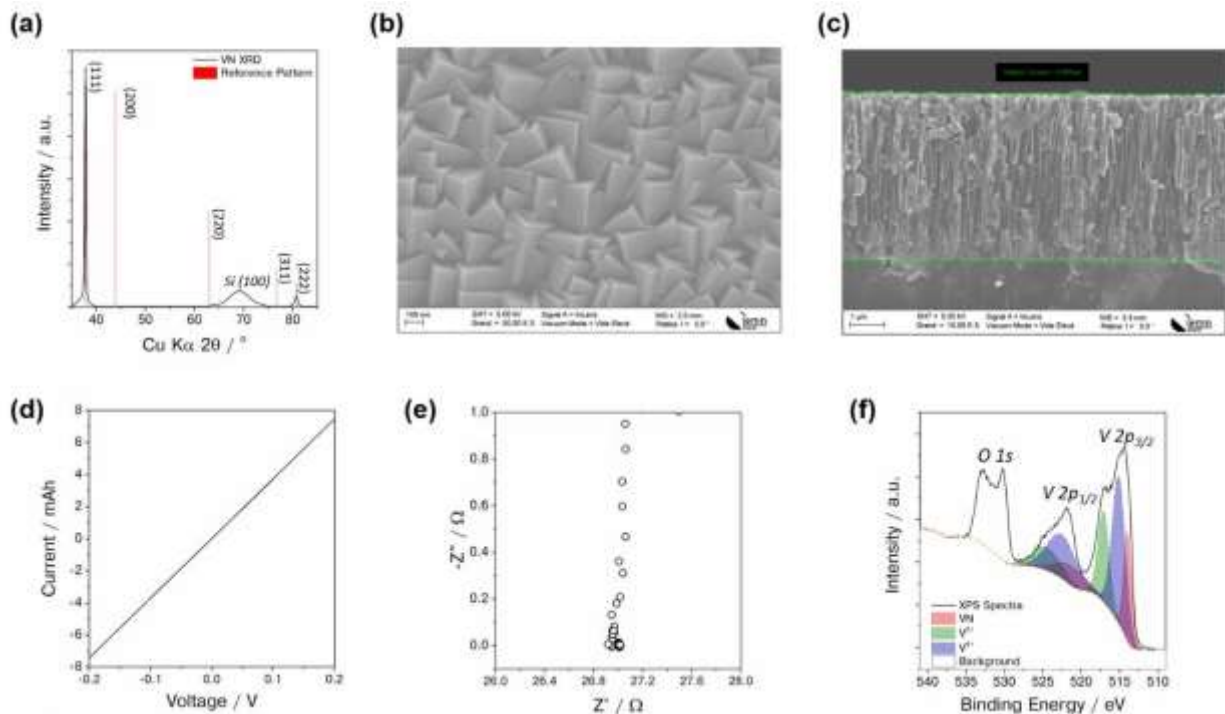
55 photopatternable electrolyte was shown to have a decent electrochemical stability window with no residual
56 current between -1.2 and 0.2 V (vs. Hg/HgO).

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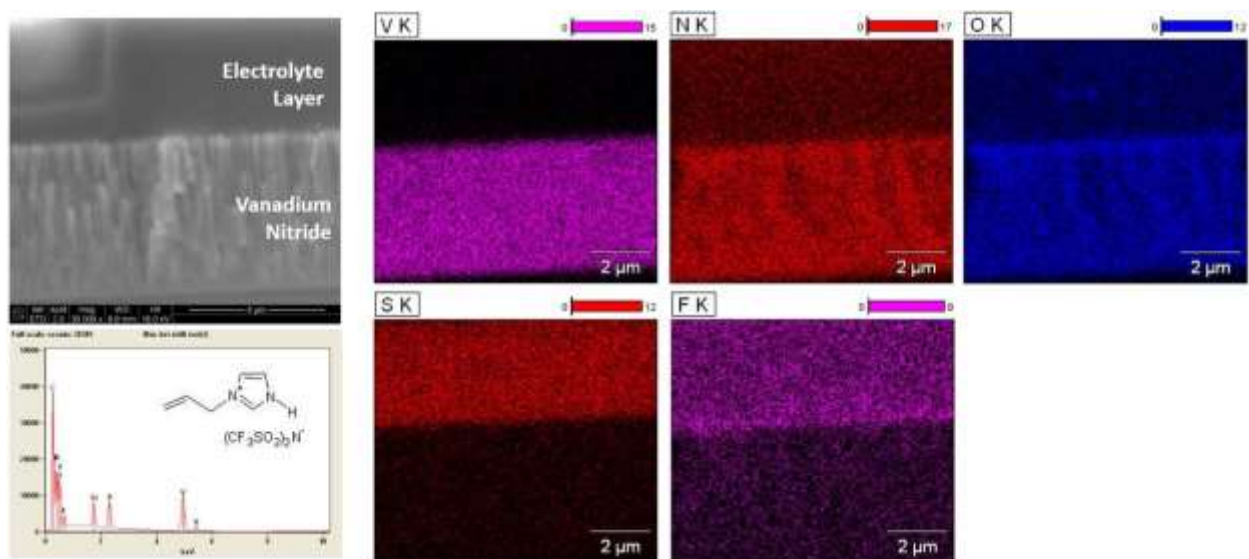


60
61 Figure S5. Schematic representation of a pseudocapacitive charge storage device. Pseudocapacitive
62 materials such as RuO_2 , MnO_2 , and VN , store electrochemical energy primarily via a faradaic process
63 involving surface or near-surface redox reactions. Due to this characteristic, pseudocapacitive materials
64 exhibit capacitor-like electrochemical features.^{12,13}



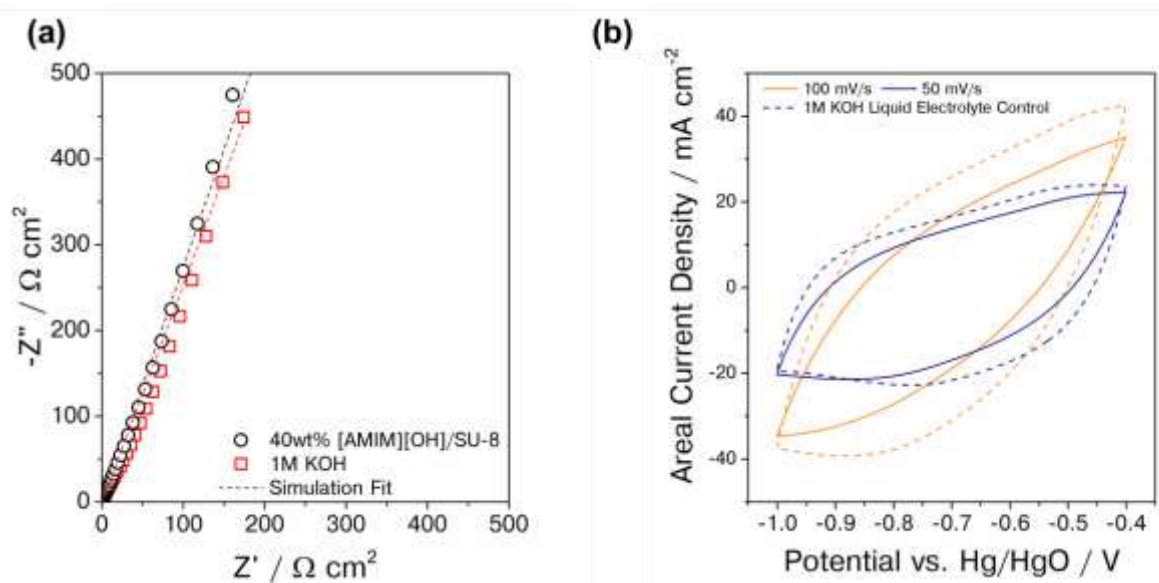
65
 66 Figure S6. Chemical characterization of as-deposited VN films. (a) XRD patterns of the as-deposited VN
 67 show strong preferential orientation in (111) direction with visible (111) and (222) peaks. (b) Top down
 68 SEM image of the as-deposited VN. The grain growth of VN occurs in a strongly faceted manner. (c)
 69 Crosssectional SEM images of VN films, in which the intercolumnar structures can be observed. As-
 70 prepared VN thickness was about 5 μm . (d) The I–V curves of a VN film, exhibiting a linear I–V curve with
 71 the high electrical conductivity of 413 S cm^{-1} . (e) Nyquist impedance spectra of a VN film confirms the
 72 electrical conductivity measurement results obtained from the I–V curve. (f) XPS spectra (V 2p region) of
 73 the VN film. The V^{3+} and V^{4+} peaks ascribed vanadium oxynitride groups were present at the VN surface.

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 78 Figure S7. A cross-sectional SEM image of a planar VN electrode. The thickness of as-prepared VN was 5
 79 μm and that of the solid electrolyte film was patterned to be 10 μm . EDS analysis of the solid electrolyte
 80 coated VN electrode verified the homogeneous distribution of sulfur and fluorine signals that are present in
 81 the [AMIM][TFSI] prior to the hydroxide anion exchange.

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 85 Figure S8. (a) Nyquist impedance spectra of [AMIM][OH] SU-8 and 1M KOH (zoom out of Figure 3a),
 86 demonstrating the capacitive tail at the low frequency region. (b) Cyclic voltammetry of the hydroxide
 87 photopatternable solid electrolyte patterned VN electrode at scan rates of 50 to 100 mV s^{-1} . The dashed lines
 88 represent the CV curve obtained from the 1M KOH liquid electrolyte which serves as a control.

89

90 ***Solid-state VN micro-supercapacitor fabrication***

91 The central role played by the photopatternable hydroxide-conducting solid electrolyte in miniaturized EES
92 applications is best shown by providing an overview of the vanadium nitride (VN) fabrication process in
93 Figure S9a. Briefly, the vanadium nitride electrode material is sputtered onto a silicon (Si) / silicon nitride
94 (Si_3N_4) substrate. An important benefit of VN-based MSC devices is that a separate current collector is not
95 needed because of the high electronic conductivity for VN. The VN layer can then be patterned and
96 selectively etched using conventional photolithography and plasma etching techniques, creating
97 high-resolution interdigitated electrodes with a minimum feature size of 10 μm . Subsequently, the liquid
98 precursor for the solid-state electrolyte is spin-coated directly onto the interdigitated device structure to
99 provide ion conduction between electrodes. The pseudocapacitive charge storage mechanism in VN involves
100 a faradaic reaction between V^{4+} and V^{3+} through an oxy/oxyhydrate couple at the surface.¹⁴ An important
101 factor here is that the highest pseudocapacitive contributions to VN have been observed using basic
102 electrolytes, with hydroxide being the dominant charge-carrying ion. This behavior indicates that fast ion
103 transport of hydroxide in the solid electrolyte material is required in order to achieve rapid charge storage
104 in VN materials.

105 The process was designed such that for each 3" wafer, 40 individual devices are fabricated and electrically
106 connected in various series and parallel configurations without any additional metal layers. Each device has
107 a 4 mm² footprint area and is composed of two VN interdigitated electrodes with a 10 μm spacing between
108 electrode fingers. It is important to note that this spacing of 10 μm , the distance that charge carrying ions
109 travel during charge/discharge, is much shorter than the thickness of commercial separators typically
110 ranging between 20-50 μm .¹⁵ The thickness of the VN layer is approximately 5 μm . Once interdigitated VN
111 microdevices were fabricated, the hydroxide ion conducting solid electrolyte was patterned directly over,
112 covering the entire device to provide ion conduction between the two VN electrodes upon charge/discharge.

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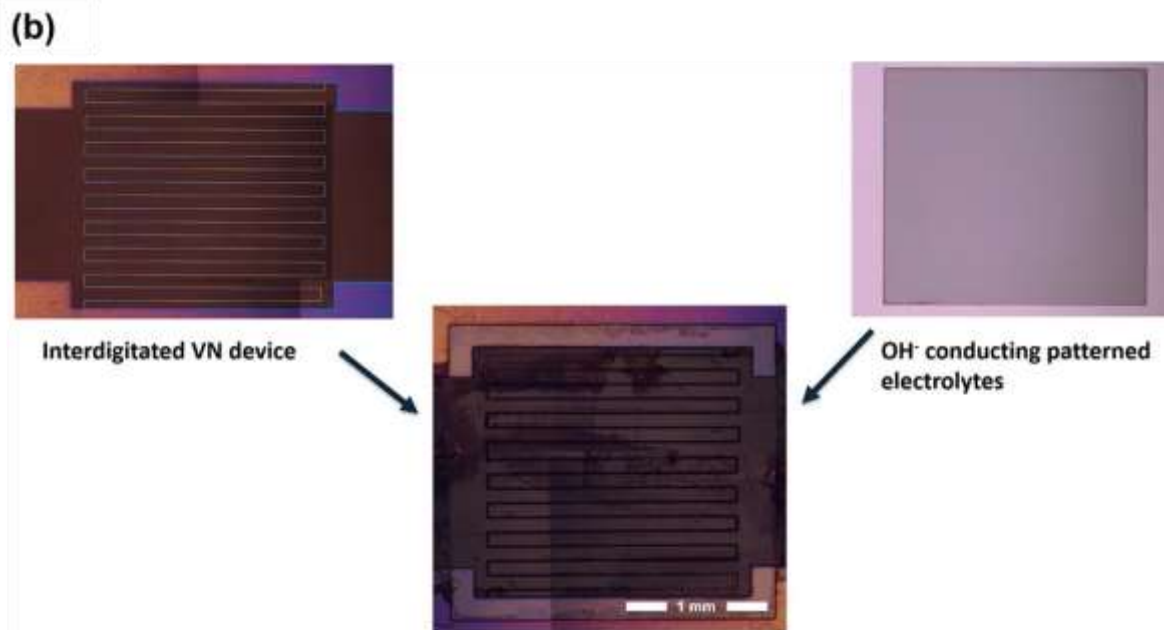
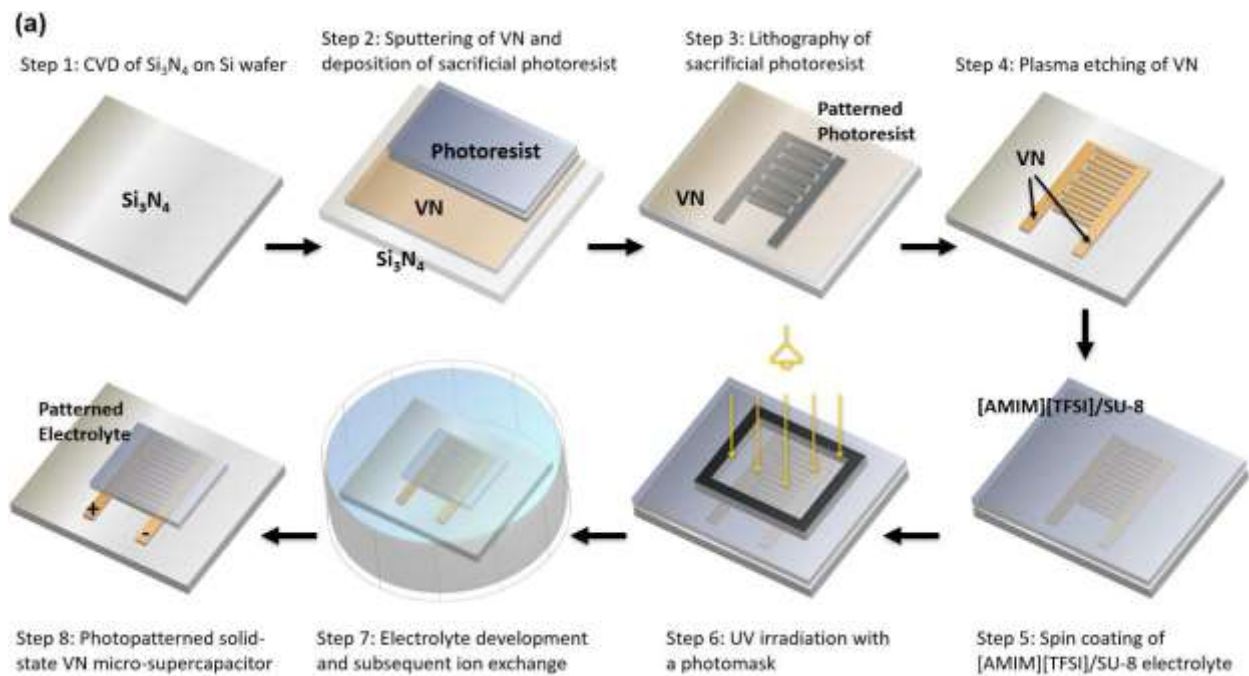
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115 Table S3. The important design parameters of wafer-scale fabrication of interdigitated MSC devices.

Number of interdigitated devices	40
Number of fingers per device	8.5
Finger length	2 mm
Finger width	100 μm
Space between fingers	10 μm
Active material (VN) loading	2.5 mg cm ⁻²
[AMIM][OH]/SU-8 Electrolyte loading	1.7 mg cm ⁻²
Gravimetric capacitance of the VN electrode	172 F/g

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 119 Figure S9. (a) Schematic representation of the process for fabricating solid-state VN MSCs using the
 120 photopatternable [AMIM][OH] electrolyte. Both electrode and electrolyte materials are formed through
 121 microfabrication techniques. (b) A fabrication approach to form solid-state MSC devices. Both electrode
 122 and electrolyte materials can be patterned to high-resolution features using microfabrication techniques.

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124

128 Table S4. Comparison of interdigitated MSCs based on solid and liquid electrolytes

Solid Electrolyte				
<i>Electrode</i>	<i>Electrolyte Materials</i>	<i>Energy Density* [μWh/cm²]</i>	<i>Cycle Life (Retention)</i>	<i>Main Text Reference</i>
<i>Materials</i>		<i>(Power Density in [mW/cm²])</i>		
VN	[AMIM][OH]/SU-8	7.6 (9.1)	10,000 (80%)	This Work
MnO ₂		12.8 (0.8)		
	[EMIM][TFSI]/PVDF	3.2 (3.8)	30,000 (96.2%)	19
Graphene		4.5 (0.7)		
	[BMIM][TFSI]/Fumed	4.4 (45.4)	10,000 (96%)	43
	Silica	4.92 (0.4)		
Pyrolyzed	[EMIM][TFSI]/Fumed	3.1 (3.1)	10,000 (94%)	44
Carbon	Silica	4.2 (0.8)		
MnO ₂	LiCl/PVA	0.8 (3.8)	4,000 (92%)	45
		2.2 (0.6)		
RuO ₂	H ₂ SO ₄ /PVA	0.6 (2.2)	10,000 (90%)	46
		3.3 (1.2)		
Liquid Electrolyte				
<i>Electrode</i>	<i>Electrolyte Materials</i>	<i>Energy Density [μWh/cm²]</i>	<i>Cycle Life (Retention)</i>	<i>Main Text Reference</i>
<i>Materials</i>		<i>(Power Density in [mW/cm²])</i>		
VN	1M KOH	10.6 (0.2)	50,000 (80%)	9
CDC		0.9 (4.1)		
	1M H ₂ SO ₄	1.6 (0.3)	10,000 (100%)	7
		1.2 (8.9)		

129 * Energy density at a given power density. Power density is in parentheses. Energy density given at low
 130 and high values of power density.

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