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Ionic liquid redox flow membraneless battery in microfluidic system

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Abstract

Redox flow batteries (RFBs) often require the presence of a physical membrane to separate the two compartments of the battery. The objective of this work is to develop a membraneless microfluidic redox flow battery (RFB) by using 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide (C_2 mimTFSI) as support electrolyte in which Quinone (Q) and iron chloride (FeCl₂) have been used as negolyte (or anolyte) and posolyte (or catholyte), respectively. Polarization curve and cyclic voltammetry were used to characterize the electrochemical properties of the electrochemical systems as well as the performance of the microbattery. The proof-of-concept of the system is presented with an open circuit potential of 0.6 V, obtained with both polarization curve and cyclic voltammetry, and with a current density ranging from 0.3 to 0.65 mA.cm⁻² for total flow rates of 10 to 20 μ L.min⁻¹. A maximum power of 40 μ Wcm⁻² has been obtained with this microbattery.

Keywords: C₂mimTFSI, Quinone, FeCl₂, redox flow batteries, membraneless electrochemical

19 cell, microfluidics

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1. Introduction

The development of environmentally friendly devices for the storage of renewable energy has become a subject of paramount importance. For instance, the use of less volatile and less toxic chemicals such as ionic liquids (ILs) for a "green chemistry" is a trend that aims to reduce global pollution. These molten salts at room temperature are characterized by their thermal and electrochemical stabilities, a low melting point in comparison with conventional salts (*i.e.*, below 100 °C), a low vapor pressure and wide electrochemical potential windows. Therefore, they have been progressively receiving a lot of interest in various electrochemical applications including electrodeposition, electroplating, electropolishing, and electrolyte for redox flow batteries (RFBs) [1-3].

These latter provide direct conversion between chemical and electrical energy and have been widely used as one of the most robust storage systems for renewable energy due to their relatively simple installation and fast response time as well as their wide range of power and energy, suitable for a variety of practical applications. The main advantage of RFBs is their ability to decouple power and energy of the system. In fact, the energy storage capacity depends on both the concentration of the electroactive species dissolved in the electrolyte and the volume of the storage tanks, while the power of the system depends on the number of individual cells and the electroactive surface of the electrodes. These features render RFBs unique, compared to other energy storage systems such as lithium-based batteries, allowing greater flexibility in the individual optimization of power or energy depending on the target application. Despite the fact that almost all aspect RFBs have been studied and that all-vanadium RFBs have been commercialized for various applications including for grid storage, some factors limiting their industrialization on wider scale still exist [4-6]. In particular, many studies have highlighted the need for optimization of the separating membrane, which is a key component of RFB [7-9]. For example, if one thinks solely in terms of cost, the separator membrane alone accounts for more

than 10% of the total cost for the vanadium RFBs [10]. In addition, the separator membrane must ensure high proton conductivity, whereas at the same time, the main current issues associated with the use of membrane are numerous, including posolyte and negolyte crossover through the separator, ohmic losses and the swelling and shrinking of the membrane due to the water uptake.

Among the various membrane optimization strategies to improve cell performance, membraneless redox flow batteries in microfluidic-based devices are a promising alternative. In these systems, the membrane separator in classical RFBs is eliminated avoiding or improving the aforementioned issues. Since for microfluidic devices, the characteristic dimension of channels is in the order of a hundred of micrometers, it is then relatively simple to achieve a low Reynolds number, resulting in the establishment of co-laminar flows. Therefore, this confined liquid/liquid interface in the microchannel can be considered as a virtual membrane playing the same role than a physical separator membrane. Thanks to the co-laminar regime, the two streams (posolyte and negolyte) containing different electroactive species at different concentrations do not convectively interpenetrate and flow side by side in the microchannel [11-15].

The concept of membraneless redox-flow batteries was first reported by Ferrigno *et al.* [16] in 2002, with the development of a millimeter-scale redox fuel cell. The two streams contained the redox couples V⁵⁺/V⁴⁺ and V³⁺/V²⁺ in 25% H₂SO₄ as posolyte and negolyte, respectively. Carbon-on-gold electrodes were used as current collectors rather than metals to reduce the electrolysis of water as side reactions. This membraneless RFB shows an open circuit voltage of 1.59 V and a maximum current density of 80 mA.cm⁻². More recently, Navalpotro *et al.* [17] reported a membraneless redox flow battery in which vanadium species were replaced by quinone; the two streams being formed by an acidic aqueous solution of hydroquinone (H₂Q) and 1-butyl-1-methylpyrrolidinium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide (PYR₁₄TFSI)

containing dissolved parabenzoquinone (pBQ) paving the way to the use of ionic liquids in these batteries. However, in this study, the authors played on the immiscibility of the two electrolytes in such a way as to exclude membrane use. The open circuit voltage and energy density were shown to be 1.4 V and 22.5 WhL⁻¹, respectively. By using different immiscible electrolytes [18] or by changing the redox couple involved in the electrochemical systems [19] both larger operating voltage and power density could have been reached [20]. Interestingly, aqueous membrane-free batteries involving aqueous/aqueous immiscible electrolytes were also investigated showing that in this case, the partition of the electroactive species is a key parameter for these systems working as aqueous biphasic systems (ABS) [21]. However, a large scale membraneless RFB remains a challenge since the mixing of electrolytes is difficult to avoid under dynamic flow conditions [22], whereas the miniaturization of the battery will naturally result in a laminar flow.

To the best of our knowledge, and despite the fact that the use of ionic liquids and deep eutectic solvents as electrolytes in RFBs as well as the development of micro-electromechanical systems MEMS-based membraneless RFB have been described in the literature [23-25], the combination of these two components, which should lead to development of high power and membraneless microbatteries, has not yet been reported. In fact, the use of ionic liquids and deep eutectic solvents is beneficial as it allows to obtain a wide electrochemical window as well as a laminar flow in the microchannel thank to their relatively high viscosity compared to the usual electrolytes utilized in RFB. This laminar regime allows to eliminate the separating membrane of the battery.

The objective of this work is to develop a membraneless RFB by using 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium (bistrifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide (C₂mimTFSI) as support electrolyte and Quinone (Q) and iron chloride (FeCl₂) as electroactive species in a microfluidic system. This IL was selected because of its low viscosity and high conductivity compared to other ILs.

Moreover, C₂mimTFSI has a large electrochemical window which seems to be suitable for this application [26]. We first report on the physicochemical properties such as viscosity and electrochemical potential window of the synthetized C₂mimTFSI as well as its electrochemical properties with the two redox mediators. Finally, the proof-of-concept of this new system will be shown with the use of a simple microfluidic device.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Electrolyte preparation and electrochemical characterizations

The electrolyte consisted of C_2 mimTFSI, which was prepared according to the experimental procedure previously described [27], and whose chemical structure is shown in Table 1. The viscosity of the ionic liquid was measured with a rolling-ball viscosimeter (Anton Paar, Lovis 2000M/ME). The ionic conductivity was measured using a Lab CDM 230 conductimeter (Radiometer Analytical). The variations in viscosity were studied over a temperature range between 20 to 60°C. The electroactive species quinone (purity \geq 98%) and iron chloride, FeCl₂ (98%) were supplied by Sigma-Aldrich and used as received.

The electrochemical characterization of the negolyte and posolyte was performed in a three-electrode cell configuration using a GAMRY REF 600 potentiostat. A gold electrode of 100 μm in radius (S = 3.14 10⁻⁴ cm²) was used as the working electrode, a platinum gauze of 1 cm² surface area as the counter electrode, and a home-made reference electrode based on Ag/AgNO₃ saturated in IL. However, all the potentials will be reported with respect to the ferrocenemethanol couple (Fc⁺MeOH/FcMeOH) which was used as internal standard for electrochemical measurements.

2.2. Microfluidic device fabrication and characterization

The microfluidic cell was a Y-type channel and a pair of gold microelectrodes was used as current collectors as sketched in Fig. 1. The millimeter-scale device consists of a main channel (length 30 mm, width 3mm and height 0.5 mm) connected to two inlets and two outlets for handling the electrolytes. The cell in PDMS and gold microelectrodes were fabricated using classical soft lithography and lift-off process. All the details about the device fabrication can be found in previous work [28]. Briefly, microelectrodes consisting of a gold layer of 200 nm and a thin adhesion layer of Cr (10 nm) were deposited in a glass substrate using PECVD process. Microfluidic channel was fabricated by using the conventional molding technique of PDMS, using molds printed either by 3D printer or photolithography fabrication. The gold electrodes were positioned in the middle of the channel with a spacing of 0.5 mm leading to an active electrode area of 0.025 cm². Finally, the channel was covalently bonded to the glass substrate by treating both the PDMS surface and the glass substrate with an oxygen plasma. The precise positioning was performed with the help of marks which were added on the glass substrate, to manually align the microfluidic channel and the electrodes.

The supporting electrolytes (C₂mimTFSI) containing the redox mediators were injected into the channel by using a pressure controller (Fluigent MFCS-EZ) offering a precise control of the flow-rates. All experiments were performed using an inverted microscope (Zeiss Axiovert 40 CFL) for observing the laminar flow in the channel. To determine the cell performance, a polarization curve was recorded using a high input impedance voltmeter (Solartron 7055) and pure resistors of different values.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Electrochemical characterization of the electroactive species in C2mimTFSI

Table 1 shows three pictures corresponding to the pure ionic liquid (C₂mimTFSI), quinone (0.35M) in C₂mimTFSI and FeCl₂ (0.1 M) in C₂mimTFSI, respectively. It is worth noting that these given concentrations represent the maximum concentrations that can be soluble in the used ionic liquid. All experiments in this work have been performed with these concentrations. Fig. 2 shows the electrochemical characterization of C₂mimTFSI as electrolyte in the presence and in the absence of the electroactive species using a gold electrode of 100 μm in radius. The electrochemical potential window of the ionic liquid was determined using linear sweep voltammetry (LSV, scan rate 5 mVs⁻¹). As shown in Fig. 2a (black curve), the electrochemical window of C₂mimTFSI is about 3.5 V which is in agreement with other study on this ionic liquid [17]. It is noteworthy that this value is much higher than that of aqueous electrolyte [23] thus enlarging the choice of redox couples to two electrochemical systems with a higher standard potential difference, thus resulting in higher open circuit potential for the electrochemical cell.

Fig. 2a also shows cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of ferrous ions (0.1 M) in C_2 mimTFSI using gold electrode recorded as a function of the scan rates from 50 mVs⁻¹ to 1 Vs⁻¹. Two well-defined peaks centered at -0.1 V vs Fc⁺/Fc can be seen and correspond to the one electron exchange:

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$$Fe^{3+} + e^{-} \leftrightarrows Fe^{2+}$$
 (Eq. 1)

The analysis of CV curves allows the determination of Faradaic peak current, I_p , and peak potential, E_p , as a function of the scan rate, v. When the scan rate is low enough, the electrochemical system is reversible and the peak intensity is given by [29]:

$$I_p = 0.446n^{3/2}FSC^0\sqrt{D}\sqrt{\frac{Fv}{RT}}$$

where n is the number of electrons, F is the Faraday constant, S the electrode surface area, C^0 the bulk concentration of the electroactive species, R the gas constant, D the diffusion coefficient, and T the absolute temperature (in K).

An important feature for a reversible system is the independence of the peak potential as a function of the scan rate. Additionally, the peak width, $E_{p/2} - E_p$, is 56.5 mV and the anodic to cathodic peak potential difference is 57 mV (at 25°C). The slope of the $I_p = f(\sqrt{v})$ curve is 2.79 μ As^{1/2}V^{-1/2}cm⁻², leading to a diffusion coefficient of about (1.1 \pm 0.1) 10^{-8} cm² s⁻¹.

Cyclic voltammograms of quinone (0.35 M) in C₂mimTFSI as a function of the scan rates are shown in Fig. 3. The two observed peaks refer to the redox reactions of quinone according to Eq. 2:

$$Q^{2-} \leftrightarrows Q + 2e^{-} \tag{Eq. 2}$$

Similarly, the current density increases with the scan rates while the oxidation peak increases more quickly than the reduction peak. In addition, the difference between the anodic and cathodic peak potentials is 695 mV at 50 mVs⁻¹ and increases to 784 mV at 1000 mVs⁻¹ which confirms that this system behaves as a quasi-reversible redox couple in this media. This behavior is contrary to the results in aqueous medium [26] in which a series of organic molecules based on quinone exhibit a reversible kinetics in the same scan rate range.

In order to determine the open circuit potential expected in a redox cell, cyclic voltammograms of both FeCl₂ (0.1 M) and quinone (0.35 M) at 50 mVs⁻¹ are plotted in Fig. 4. A potential difference of 0.64 V is observed.

3.2. Performances of membraneless IL-based RFB

3.2.1. Laminar flow and open circuit potential

The viscosity of the negolyte and posolyte is a key factor in a membraneless RFB since it has a genuine effect in various properties such as the ability to generate co-laminar flows in microchannel, the mass transport rates inside the electrolyte and the required pumping power to ensure a good operation of the RFB. Thus, the viscosity of pure C₂mimTFSI, and of the solutions containing each electroactive species in the IL were measured as a function of temperature ranging from 20 to 60 °C (Fig. 5).

At room temperature, the value of the dynamic viscosity of pure C₂mimTFSI is equal to 30.4 mPa.s which is close to the value reported in the literature [30]. As shown in Fig. 5, the viscosities of the three solutions decrease when the temperature increases. Moreover, it is important to note that the addition of electroactive species does not significantly change the viscosity of the electrolyte (less than 5%). This value should be compared to that of pure water at room temperature, 0.9 mPa.s, and that of concentrated sulfuric acid solutions usually used in all vanadium redox flow battery, between 4 and 6 mPa.s, showing that the viscosity value of the ionic liquid is indeed thirty times higher than that of water but only six times that of sulfuric acid usually used in these applications.

In order to characterize the flow in the channel, the Reynolds number (R_e) was calculated as

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$$R_e = \frac{\rho vd}{\eta} = \frac{1513.6 * 1.66 \cdot 10^{-4} * 0.5 \cdot 10^{-3}}{31.32 \cdot 10^{-3}} = 0.004$$

where ρ is the density of the fluid (kg/m³), v is the flow speed (m/s), d is the characteristic dimension of the channel (m), η is the dynamic viscosity of the fluid (Pa·s). The obtained value of 0.004 corresponds to a laminar flow in the microfluidic channel.

It is interesting to note that the solutions used in this study are differently colored. Thus, the negolyte is dark blue and the posolyte is yellow (as can be seen in Table 1 from the color of the chemicals), which allows a direct visualization of the co-laminar flow in the microchannel and verifying that no interdiffusion of the species occurs during flow. Additionally, in order to check that a co-laminar flow has been well established in the microchannel (Fig. 6a), flow rate ratios of negolyte/posolyte streams can be varied by maintaining the total flow rate constant at a value of 30 µL min⁻¹. Images of the circulating fluids as well as the measured open circuit potentials are presented in Table 2. Interestingly, the confined liquid/liquid interface between the two streams moves when the flow rates ratio change without any apparent mixing. In particular, a symmetrical flow regime is established between the streams when the same flow rate is applied for each negolyte and posolyte streams (flow rate of 15 µL min⁻¹). In addition, a zero open circuit potential (E_{oc}) is measured when there is only one electrolyte (negolyte or posolyte) in the main channel (i.e., for flow rates of 30/0 or 0/30, respectively). Then, this open circuit potential value varies as a function of the flow rates to reach an expected value of 0.61 V when the flow rate of the two streams is of the same order of magnitude. In conclusion, whatever the flow rate ratios between the two streams, a co-laminar regime is well established in the microfluidic redox-flow battery.

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3.2.2. Polarization curves

The experimental set-up of the membraneless RFB shown on Fig. 6a was used to address the polarization curves of the cell, which is the most used technique to characterize the performance of a battery. In order to study the influence of the total flow rate in the main

channel on the performance of the cell, two total flow rates of 10 and 20 µL min⁻¹, with the same flow rate ratio between negolyte and posolyte streams, were used. The corresponding polarization curves of the cell are shown in Fig. 6b and 6c, respectively.

The maximum value of the open circuit potential is about 0.64 V for a total flow rate of 10 µL.min⁻¹ (Fig. 6b); this open circuit potential value perfectly agrees with that obtained by cyclic voltammetry and corresponds to thermodynamic value. Two distinct voltage loss regimes can be clearly observed: at low current density, the potential linearly decreases when the current density increases which corresponds to the activation losses and then the ohmic loss regime. It is noteworthy that for both flow rates, no mass transfer region is observed as expected in the polarization curves [31]. This phenomenon can be ascribed to the electrodes geometry, as well described in the literature [32].

The maximum power of this battery is obtained for the higher total flow rate (20 μ L min⁻¹, Fig. 6c) with a power of 40 μ W cm⁻² for a current density of 0.3 mA cm⁻². The power is higher for 20 μ L min⁻¹ since this flow rate allows a faster replenishment of the depletion layer on planar electrodes than for lower flow rate. Nevertheless, the value of the power remains low due to the fact that the reaction occurs at a planar electrode [32-33]. These results show the possibility of working in a cell without membrane, the use of ionic liquids being beneficial to maintain an interface between two liquids, but also offering the possibility to use other redox couples than vanadium.

4. Conclusion

In this work, we showed that the combination of ionic liquids and microfluidics is promising for the development of a membraneless redox-flow microdevice. Thanks to the viscosity of C₂mimTFSI and the millimeter-scale of the cell, co-laminar flows were obtained and well controlled at the interface between negolyte and posolyte streams for different flow

rate ratios. The proof-of-concept of a membraneless ionic liquid-based redox flow battery has been demonstrated with an open circuit potential of 0.64 V and with a density current ranging from 0.3 to 0.65 mA cm⁻² for total flow rates of 10 to 20 μ L min⁻¹ and a maximum of power of 40 μ W.cm⁻².

The low performance of this system compared to others RFBs can be explained by the geometry of the planar electrodes, leading to significant diffusion limitations, and by the low solubility of the electroactive species in ionic liquid. Different strategies can help to enhance the performance of the cell including, for example, the mixture of this ionic liquid with a molecular solvent to increase the electrolyte solubility and the use of 3D porous carbon electrodes due to their large surface area.

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386		Table and Figure captions
387		
388 389	Table	1 Chemical structures and aspect of the compounds used for the preparation of electrolytes.
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391 392	Table	2 Influence of the flow rate ratio on the laminar flow and the open circuit potential.
393 394	Fig. 1	Schematic design of the microfluidic cell.
395 396 397	Fig. 2	(a) CVs performed with an Au electrode (200 μm in diameter) in a 0.1 M FeCl ₂ in C ₂ mimTFSI at different scan rates, the black line corresponds to the electrochemical window, (b) variation of the anodic peak current as a function of \sqrt{v} .
398 399 400 401 402	Fig. 3	(a) CVs performed with an Au electrode (200 μm in diameter) in a 0.35 M Quinone in C ₂ mimTFSI at different scan rates, the black line corresponds to the electrochemical window, (b) variation of the anodic peak current as a function of \sqrt{v} .
403 404 405	Fig. 4	CVs performed with a gold electrode (200 μm in diameter) in a 0.1 M FeCl ₂ (blue curve) in a 0.35 M Quinone (black curve) in C ₂ mimTFSI at 200 mVs ⁻¹ .
406 407 408	Fig.5	Variations of the viscosity of pure C ₂ mimTFSI, solution of 0.35 M quinone in C ₂ mimTFSI and solution of 0.1 M FeCl ₂ in C ₂ mimTFSI as a function of temperature.
409 410	Fig. 6	(a) Experimental set-up and polarization curves of the cell for total flow rate of (b) 10 μ L.min ⁻¹ and (c) 20 μ L.min ⁻¹ .

Table 1 Chemical structures and aspect of the compounds used for the preparation of electrolytes.

Electrolyte	Electrolyte C ₂ mimTFSI		FeCl2 (0.1 M) in C ₂ mimTFSI	
Chemical structure	$\begin{array}{c} CH_3 & 0 & 0 \\ N+ & -N- \\ N & -N- \\ N & 0 & 0 \\ CH_3 & 0 & 0 \\ \end{array}$		CI Fe CI	
Aspect				

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Table 2 Influence of the flow rate ratio on the laminar flow and the open circuit potential.

Flow-rate (μl. min ⁻¹)	0 – 30	5 – 25	10 – 20	15 – 15	20 – 10	30 – 0
Images		and the same of th				
E _{oc} (V)	0	0.48	0.52	0.61	0.61	0

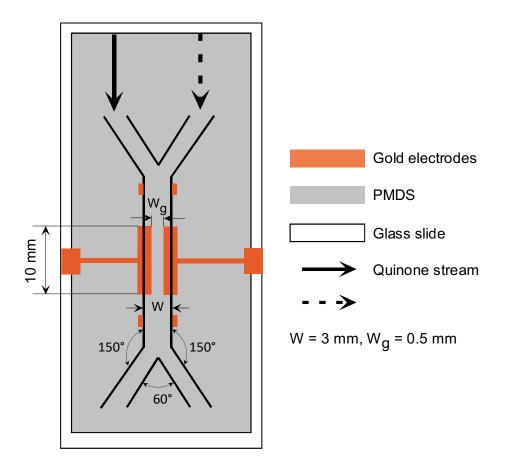
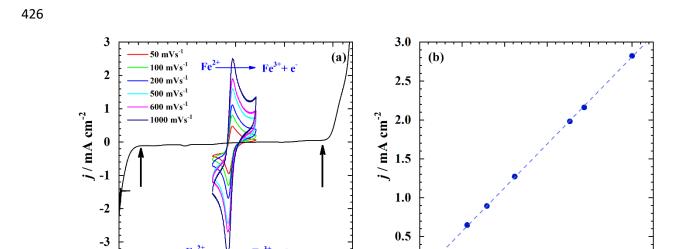


Fig. 1 Schematic design of the microfluidic cell.



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427 428

429

430

431

432

-4

-2

E vs Fc⁺/Fc / V

Fig.2 (a) CVs performed with an Au electrode (200 μm in diameter) in a 0.1 M FeCl₂ in C₂mimTFSI at different scan rates, the black line corresponds to the electrochemical window, (b) variation of the anodic peak current as a function of \sqrt{v} .

0.0

0.0

0.2

 $0.4 0.6 v^{1/2} / (Vs^{-1})^{1/2}$

1.0

0.8



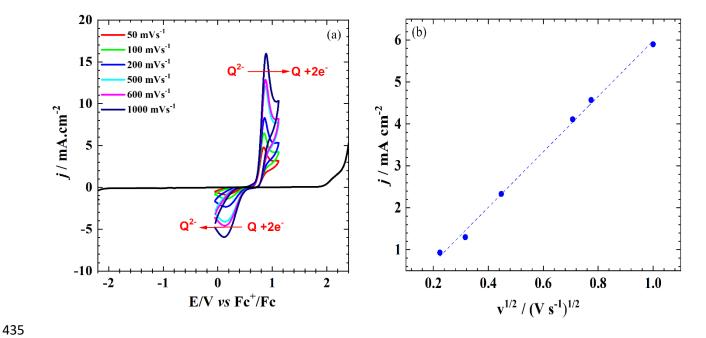


Fig. 3 (a) CVs performed with an Au electrode (200 μm in diameter) in a 0.35 M Quinone in C₂mimTFSI at different scan rates, the black line corresponds to the electrochemical window, (b) variation of the anodic peak current as a function of \sqrt{v} .

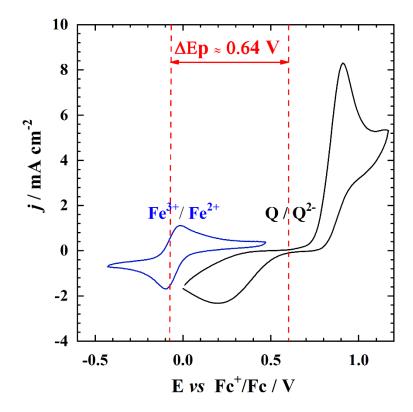


Fig. 4 CVs performed with a gold electrode (200 μm in diameter) in a 0.1 M FeCl₂ (blue curve) in a 0.35 M Quinone (black curve) in C₂mimTFSI at 200 mVs⁻¹.

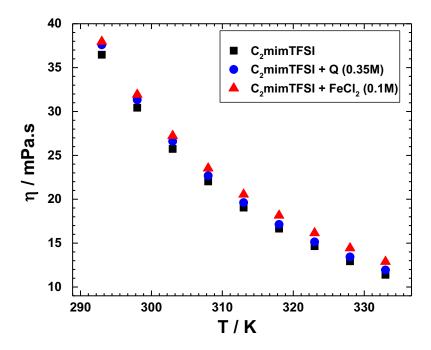


Fig.5 Variations of the viscosity of pure C₂mimTFSI, solution of 0.35 M quinone in C₂mimTFSI and solution of 0.1 M FeCl₂ in C₂mimTFSI as a function of temperature.

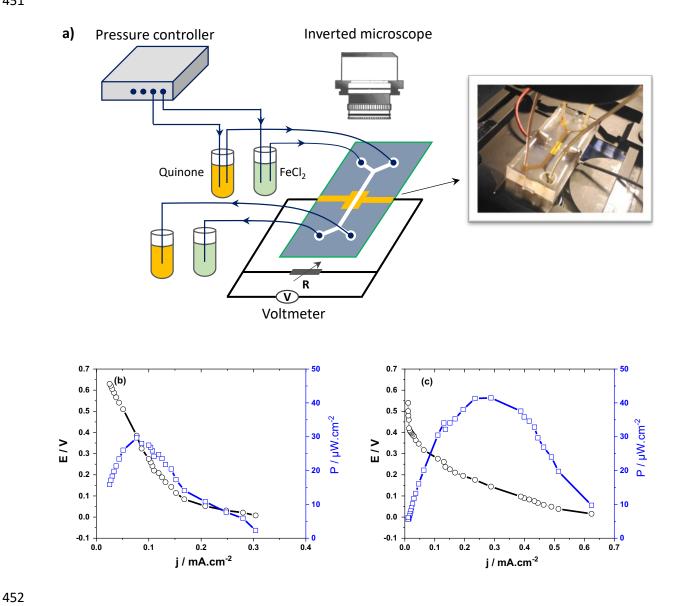


Fig. 6 (a) Experimental set-up and polarization curves of the cell for total flow rate of (b) 10 μ L.min⁻¹ and (c) 20 μ L.min⁻¹.